

**FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH INTEGRATED TOURISM
CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH**

by

MZAMANE NHLAPO

STC (NTTC); BAEd (NUL); MA (Bath, UK)

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Supervisor: Dr B.B. Moreeng

Co-supervisor: Dr M. L. Malebese

DECLARATION

I, Mzamane Nhlapo, declare that the Doctoral Degree thesis, FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH, I herewith submit for Doctoral Degree qualification in Education at the University of the Free State, is my independent work, and I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education.

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M. Nhlapo

February 2018

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Mama kaZili, who loved education with all her heart and soul, but could not live long enough to see me graduate in 2018. She would have been 86 years old. Unfortunately she passed away in 1998, at a young age of 66. Her full life story is narrated in my novel, *The beauty of pain*, published in 2003 at Morija (in Lesotho) by Morija Printing Works.

ABSTRACT

The study sought to explore ways of fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum in Lesotho, using community participation. Tourism as a vocational subject was introduced in Lesotho in 2011, following the introduction of an integrated curriculum in 2009, with a view to arming learners with practical, creative, productive and entrepreneurial skills, so that they can face life challenges of poverty and achieve self-reliance. The study found that teachers ignore the message and intentions of the 2009 integrated curriculum, and continue teaching tourism as an academic subject, and reject the demands and aspirations of the 2009 integrated curriculum. The challenge is to integrate tourism theory with practice, to strengthen the teaching and learning of tourism for examination, and for learners' survival and self-reliance. Indeed the 2009 integrated curriculum has caused the concept of "education with production" to come back to the fore. Community cultural wealth theory was used to demonstrate the cultural wealth learners bring to the school environment, which help them in academic performance and to face life challenges. The study used participatory action research, conducted by seven co-researchers (two teachers and five community members), and a focus group of ten secondary school learners to generate data. Participatory action research is compatible with community cultural wealth because both are people-centred and community-based. Critical discourse analysis was used to analyse and interpret data. The study found that practicalising tourism to make crafts to sell to the tourists and other customers, with the assistance of community members, improved the learners' understanding of tourism as a vocational subject, and improved the acquisition of practical, productive and entrepreneurial skills, which enabled the learners to use tourism to generate income and earn a living, alleviating poverty and ultimately achieving self-reliance.

Key words: self-reliance, integrated curriculum, tourism, community participation, community cultural wealth, participatory action research.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDS	Advanced immunodeficiency syndrome
CCW	Community cultural wealth theory
CDA	Critical discourse analysis
CP	Community participation
FIFA	Federation of International Football Association
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
IGCSE	International General Certificate of Secondary Education
LGCSE	Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education
LTDC	Lesotho Tourism Development Corporation
MoET	Ministry of Education and Training
PAR	Participatory Action research
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SWOT	Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
WIL	Work-integrated learning

CHAPTER 1 : ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The study explores ways of utilising community participation (CP) to foster self-reliance among underprivileged learners through an integrated curriculum for tourism studies in Lesotho that applies the community cultural wealth theory (CCW). To achieve this broad aim, this chapter provides a prognosis of what will unfold. First, the orientation and background to the study will be provided, and will include challenges that may be encountered in trying to fulfil this broad aim, solutions that may be considered to address the challenges, conditions conducive to an enabling environment in which solutions will prosper, threats that may derail the successful implementation of the solutions, and indicators of success showing best practices from other parts of the world, which can help in achieving the aim of this study. Secondly, the problem statement will be outlined, restating the broad aim of the study with some objective questions, which will, once again, hinge on the challenges, solutions, conditions, threats and success indicators. Thirdly, it will be shown how the study is structured or framed, by using CCW as the theoretical framework, and CP as the conceptual framework - a convenient pair because it centralises the community, which features prominently throughout this study, from the beginning to the end, as a solution that fosters self-reliance among the underprivileged learners through skills transfer to the learners. Then the study delves into related literature, specifically on understanding curriculum and integrated curriculum, and how an integrated curriculum benefits the efforts of fostering self-reliance, how it benefits the transfer of learning, and how it benefits teachers and learners. Next, a brief definition of tourism as a school subject is provided, followed by a description of the research design and methodology, value of the research, ethical considerations, lay-out of chapters, definitions of operational terms and a conclusion.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The study explores ways of utilising CP to foster self-reliance among underprivileged learners through an integrated curriculum for tourism studies in Lesotho that applies

the CCW theory. The concept of self-reliance was popularised by the Tanzanian statesman, Julius Nyerere, in the 1960s, when he complained that Western education was too theoretical, and that curricula needed to increase their vocational focus to emphasise practical skills (Nyerere, 1967: 2). CP involves people planning together, and then implementing the plans to improve their lives (Pius, 2013: 587; Shaeffer, 1994: 17). The study involved community members contributing their experiential knowledge of the real world of tourism and imparting this knowledge to underprivileged learners, by training them to produce craft products to sell to tourists and other potential customers, as a way of generating income. Tourism is the activity of providing services to the people who are travelling and staying away from places of work or residences, for not more than a year, for the purposes of leisure, adventure, refreshment, or entertainment, sometimes with hidden business or education interests (Debeshe, Pitso, Makhonofane & Tsatsane, 2005: 66; Halling, 2011: 15; Neumeir & Pollermann, 2014: 272). Tourism is considered, in this study, as a concept developed from the school subjects of development studies and geography (Debeshe et al., 2005: 66; Lelala, Majara, Majoro, Makaja, Matheolane & Morahanye, 2004: 97; Mokhosi, 2005: 104). If tourism is a concept, it occupies a small portion in one of the chapters of either subject; at most, a full chapter. It is not a subject on its own as is the case with mathematics, science, sesotho, history, or geography.

Tourism was introduced as a fully-fledged subject in Lesotho in 2011 to equip learners with survival skills that would help them to alleviate poverty, as stipulated by the 2009 integrated curriculum (MoET, 2009: viii-1, 3). Thus, the introduction of tourism as a vocational subject was a government strategy to increase the list of subjects that could offer learners practical survival alternatives in the face of high unemployment, poverty and disease. The introduction of tourism as a school subject in 2011 conveniently followed the introduction of the integrated curriculum of 2009, which supports the aim of fostering self-reliance through the development of practical and entrepreneurial skills for self-employment (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227; MoET, 2009: 18; Omede, 2012: 296). An integrated curriculum is an educational approach that uses interactive cross-curricular means to produce knowledge (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 312; Park, 2008: 308). Integrating tourism, therefore, means teaching it with an interactive and learner-centred approach, with a greater

vocational focus, to equip learners with creative, practical, productive and entrepreneurial skills to achieve self-reliance (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227; MoET, 2009: viii-3, 18).

1.2.1 Challenges relating to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

The first challenge to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum relates to debates about whether tourism is a pure discipline or a vocational subject – debates that pose conceptualisation and definition challenges (Abomeh, 2012: 14; Pawson, 2002: 23; Petersen, 2015: 18-20). The debates arise because tourism is a young subject (Petersen, 2015: 80), having been introduced in Australia in between 1988 and 1990 (Marland & Store, 1991: 19); in South Africa from 1994 to 1996 (Sean, 2010: 39), and in Lesotho in 2011 (Molise, 2016: 1-2). As long as people disagree about whether tourism is a pure discipline, people will disagree about the best way to teach it, particularly because tourism teachers are unqualified, having been recruited from geography, history and economics in Australia and South Africa (Marland & Store, 1991: 19; Saunders in Armstrong, 2003: 2), and from development studies in Lesotho. These teachers teach tourism as if it is an academic subject, because teacher training institutions have not yet covered the methods and approaches of teaching tourism (Sean, 2010: 39). Another challenge is the fact that there are very few appropriate and relevant textbooks for tourism in Lesotho secondary schools, and no libraries to augment the tourism teaching/learning process (Abomeh, 2012: 14).

Another challenge is limited understanding of an integrated curriculum, which leads to teachers' reluctance to implement it, or leads to poor implementation. Research by Daly, Brown and McGowan (2012: 10) in the United States of America (USA), United Kingdom (UK), and Canada show that the language and vocabulary of an integrated curriculum is confusing; terms such as multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary are often used interchangeably as if they mean the same thing. Limited understanding leads to uncertainty when it comes to implementation (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 313 – 314; Park, 2008: 314). The result of inadequate implementation of an integrated curriculum is a failure to teach learners skills that

would help them achieve self-reliance. Skill-based and project-based teaching approaches, and work-integrated learning (WIL) and problem-based learning approaches, are not incorporated in the teaching and development of skills, because schools lack tools, materials and equipment for learners to practise skills.

There are also grave challenges with regard to CP in schools, in part because most community members suffer from inferiority complexes due to low levels of education (Save the Children USA, 2013: 17-18; Tsayang, 1998:161–162). As a consequence, some schools and teachers consider community members to be worthless (Myende, 2014: 155), and therefore do not invite community members into the school environment to transfer their experiential knowledge and skills to the learners. Moreover, schools hardly communicate with the community when they introduce new subjects, or phase out old ones, because, traditionally, the community supports whatever the school decides and does. For example, when tourism was introduced in 2011 it was never communicated to the Lesotho community. The danger of this culture is that schools do not get the necessary support and resources they would otherwise get from the community, and which could help to successfully implement an integrated curriculum (Loepp, 1999: 25; Shankar, 2014: 75-76), whose aim is to help learners achieve self-reliance. Reducing the cost of vocational subjects through community involvement is important, because vocational subjects are expensive to teach and assess (Akyeampong, 2002: 4).

1.2.2 Possible solutions for fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

Schools need to inform parents and the wider community about tourism as a vocational subject and the job opportunities it offers, so that there is collaboration between all stakeholders, which could lead to improved education outcomes. The community is a valuable asset (Kretzmann & McNight, 1993: 4; 1996: 23-25; Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85), which can assist schools and learners to achieve self-reliance. Russell (2009: 33) found that in Mexico, Nicaragua, Ethiopia, Ghana and Kenya, communities like to build, improve and maintain the infrastructure of their schools; mobilise and supply school material; monitor, supervise and evaluate teachers' performance, and to exercise the power of budget-oversight. The positive impact of

CP on education is well documented (Barron, 2013: 37; Fan & Williams, 2010: 53; Fathi, 2014: 1052; Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85). Schools should not take advantage of the community's culture of passiveness and silence about their (schools) decisions and activities, because doing so forfeits the community's support which could contribute to reducing the costs of tourism teaching and assessment. Community members with low levels of education should be assisted to improve their education levels through available part-time and long-distance learning programmes, which would reduce their inferiority complex. Other stakeholders such as teachers, school managers and parents, should undergo training as a form of capacity building to improve their understanding of an integrated curriculum (Malik & Malik, 2011: 99; Daly et al., 2012: 6, 10), and facilities, resources, tools, materials, equipment and textbooks, should all be budgeted for and availed to accommodate flexible methods of and approaches to teaching, and the development of skills and positive attitudes among learners (Shankar, 2014: 75-76).

1.2.3 Conditions conducive to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

There should be a free flow of information between teachers, learners and the community about tourism as a useful vocational subject that can foster self-reliance, and lead to job opportunities (Dube, 2014: 166; Nkumane, 2008: viii, 33). Parents should also understand that participating in schools is their democratic right (Kintz, 2011: 2). Schools should have budgets to present regular workshops to capacitate teachers with tourism content, methods and approaches of teaching it, so that learners can acquire skills and become employable in the tourism industry, or be self-employed; and teachers should understand the theoretical underpinnings of an integrated curriculum thoroughly, in order to implement it successfully (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314-315; Daly et al., 2012: 6).

1.2.4 Plausible threats to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

One of the threats facing attempts to foster self-reliance is that tourism is likely to suffer severe competition from already established vocational subjects for funding, resources and facilities (Akyeampong, 2002: 4). In the past, when tourism was perceived as an academic subject, there was no threat. Another threat is that tourism industry employers prefer employees holding degrees in law, accounting finance and economics over degrees in tourism for reasons that are hard to understand, but which lower the status of the subject (Dube, 2014: 118-119). Additionally, because of poverty in many schools, there is a danger that, because of lack of resources and facilities, and poor understanding of the integrated curriculum, tourism is taught as if it is an academic subject, even though it is understood to be vocational (Park, 2008: 308-309, 316). In Lesotho, teachers still use a teacher-centred approach, in which textbook information is transferred to passive learners (Bates, 2010: 5; Hense & Mandl, 2012: 21), without the vocational aspect, thus defeating the purpose of achieving self-reliance (MoET, 2009: 18).

1.2.5 Indicators of successful fostering of self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

Success is achieved when teachers of tourism have proper qualifications and knowledge of the subject, can express themselves with competence and confidence when teaching by giving relevant examples and illustrations (Kleickmann, Richter, Kunter, Elsner, Besser & Krauss et al., 2013: 91), and are able to integrate knowledge with practice (Altun, 2013: 366). By involving knowledgeable and competent teachers who know what they are doing, the debates about whether tourism is an academic subject will be resolved.

Further indicators of success are learners who can define and explain the theoretical understanding of tourism, demonstrate how they can make a living from it, and achieve self-reliance, because that is the essence of an integrated curriculum (MoET, 2009: 18). Another indicator of success is also shown when teachers collaborate as professionals, exhibiting social interaction in the construction of knowledge (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011: 717; McGregor & Murane, 2010: 423). Regular

staff training to improve staff's content knowledge, awareness of methods of delivering the knowledge, development of survival skills in learners, and effective use of CP in these endeavours, are other indicators of success (Malik & Malik, 2011: 99-100). The study of Pain, Finn, Bouveng and Ngobe (2013: 36) in the UK shows that using CP can contribute immensely beyond what textbooks and teachers can achieve. Learners being able to make crafts with their own hands, and selling them to generate income for themselves, was the ultimate indicator of success in this study, as shown in Section 5.7.7.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Lesotho introduced the subject of tourism in high schools in 2011 as a vocational subject to expose learners to a hands-on and work-related curriculum that would enable them to confront head-on the challenges of poverty, unemployment and disease (MoET, 2009: i; Molise, 2016: 1-2). Unfortunately, teachers in Lesotho continue promoting academic textbook objectives, and ignore the vocational component of tourism. Their focus is still on theory, which expects learners to define tourism and tourists; describe its benefits and problems; suggest ways to improve it; identify tourist attractions in Lesotho and in the Southern African Development Community (SADC), and identify communication networks and modes of transport, and their impact on the environment (Debeshe et al., 2005: 66; Lelala et al., 2004: 97; Mokhosi, 2005: 104). The problem is that these textbook objectives are theoretically biased, and do not match those of the newly introduced MoET (2009) integrated curriculum policy document, which are vocationally focused, and emphasise creative, practical, productive and entrepreneurial skills to alleviate poverty, and are striving to achieve self-reliance (MoET, 2009: viii-3, 18). This study, therefore, attempts to bridge the gap between what is currently being taught, that is, the theoretical content for passing examinations, and what is expected by the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum, which is the acquisition of productive and entrepreneurial skills that should equip learners with the means to survive poverty and unemployment, and to strive to achieve self-reliance.

1.3.1 Research question

How can we foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum in Lesotho using CP?

1.3.2 Research aim and objectives

The study aims to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum in Lesotho using CP. The following are the objectives of the study:

- To investigate challenges relating to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP;
- To suggest solutions for fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP;
- To stipulate conditions that would foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP;
- To anticipate plausible threats that might derail achievement of self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP; and
- To illustrate indicators of success of fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP.

1.4 FRAMING THE STUDY: COMMUNITY CULTURAL WEALTH THEORY AND A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH

Yosso's (2005) CCW theory is preferred and used in this study because it demonstrates comprehensively that the community has wealth that teachers can use to make learners succeed at school and in life (Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77). CCW also acknowledges that indigenous knowledge from the community is worthy for educational purposes (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Mahlomaholo, 2012: 4). Therefore CCW was found to be suitable and relevant, because the aim of the study is to help learners succeed at school and in life by achieving self-reliance. Learners at my school suffer from poverty due to their parents being unemployed, suffering or having died due to HIV/AIDS (Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome). The plight of these learners can be addressed through CCW, hence its choice to guide the study.

My reseasoning is if the community is the supplier and provider of wealth to the learners, community members should be invited into the classroom, to come and transfer this wealth in the form of lived experiences and skills to the learners in a formal setting. I believe that using only the community's wealth and strengths, without their physical presence, would not be as powerful as physically engaging them in the task of promoting self-reliance in the learners. Thus, in this study, a CP approach does not only acknowledge the community's wealth and strengths, but it physically brings community members to the fore, to involve them in the task at hand, that of fostering self-reliance in learners through an integrated tourism curriculum. Community members with knowledge about earning a living from tourism were invited to share with learners, and provide them with the experiential knowledge and practical skills of making craft products, as demonstrated in the study, and selling the crafts to tourists and other customers, to generate income for the learners, to alleviate poverty and improve their conditions of schooling.

1.5 RELATED LITERATURE

1.5.1 Understanding curriculum and integrated curriculum

Lunenburg (2011: 1) defines curriculum as an organised content with a plan of teaching, which has elements of evaluation to determine if learners have acquired content knowledge, creative and productive skills. Curriculum encompasses academic, attitudinal, practical and vocational skills (Lunenburg, 2011: 1-2). Su (2012: 153) defines curriculum as a means of "achieving specific educational goals and objectives," and evaluating what has been achieved. A more encompassing definition is provided by Stabback (2016: 6-8) who says curriculum is the "what, why, how, and when students learn."

An integrated curriculum, on one hand, is the teaching in which themes are interrelated (Malik & Malik, 2011: 99). It is an educational approach that uses interactive cross-curricular means to produce knowledge, or enhance the understanding of concepts (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314). The gained knowledge and understanding should be practicalised to solve daily life challenges. Theory and practice should be bridged; the learner should *know* and be equipped... "with

competencies necessary to address these life challenges” (MoET, 2009: vii), with the overall aim of achieving self-reliance (MoET, 2009: 18).

The Lesotho tourism syllabus, among many objectives, expects learners to know and appreciate their country better, understand why they should protect its beautiful landscape and environment, and acquire skills to market it as a tourist destination (Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education, Travel and Tourism Syllabus, 2017: 3). Most importantly, the syllabus was introduced to equip learners with practical, vocational, productive, and entrepreneurial skills for the world-of-work and employment, and to enable them to start their own businesses, and achieve self-reliance (MoET, 2009: 13, 18).

1.5.2 Self-reliance as a benefit of an integrated curriculum

Self-reliance is the ability to address problems independently in a sustainable manner, with room to ask for advice if necessary (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227). Self-reliance refers to the condition of having achieved personal autonomy through the acquisition of survival and practical skills for self-employment (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 228). Evidence of self-reliance would be the production of job-creators, not job-seekers, and would be achieved by exposing learners to practical and entrepreneurial subjects (Omede 2012: 296). Tourism is expected to assist learners in this study to achieve self-reliance by emphasising and practising the practical, vocational, and entrepreneurial aspects, as advocated by the Lesotho integrated curriculum (MoET, 2009: viii-3, 18).

1.5.3 Transfer of learning as a benefit of an integrated curriculum

An integrated curriculum enables the transfer of learning; that is, the carry-over of knowledge, skills, habits and attitudes from one subject to another, due to social interaction between teachers and learners from different disciplines and background (Daly et al., 2012: 6; Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4, 13). Learning activates prior knowledge and connects it with the knowledge gained in the present (Hopkins, 2010: 230). The brain finds patterns and networks, and makes connections in the construction of knowledge. However, because teachers lack the required skills and

talents, and experience of working in tourism, of making and selling crafts, as demonstrated in this study, community members with these attributes were used for purposes of skills-transfer to underprivileged learners.

1.5.4 Benefits of an integrated curriculum to teachers and learners

An integrated curriculum brings different teachers and disciplines together in a team to address common themes and topics, depending on their interrelatedness (Park, 2008: 3), thereby taking advantage of the brain's capacity to make connections in multiple contexts (Lake, 2000: 3). Social interaction amongst teachers helps them to share information, and thereby benefit from one another. Central to the integrated curriculum is the active construction of knowledge by learners from multiple perspectives (Park, 2008: 309), because integrated curriculum is learner-centred. In addition, learners learn to apply acquired knowledge and skills in real-life situations to solve their problems, thus taking responsibility for their own learning (Keistin & Stichter, 2011: 98; Mahlomaholo, 2013: 1-2), which should help them to achieve self-reliance.

1.5.5 Models of an integrated curriculum

In this study four models of integrated curriculum are explored. The models explain ways in which theoretical aspects of an integrated curriculum can be taught through collaborative team-teaching by teachers. The first model is the horizontal model, which is defined as "integration across disciplines but with finite period of time" (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314). The second is the vertical model, in which a class may be taught a great deal of content at its lower levels, but content reduces as it progresses upwards, or visa versa (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314). The third model is the problem-based integration model, which addresses complex and high-order questions that may be multi-, inter- and trans-disciplinary in nature (Loepp, 1999: 24). Finally, there is the theme-based integration model, in which teachers collaborate to deal with common themes from different disciplines (Loepp, 1999: 23). These models are elaborated in Section 3.2.2.

1.5.6 Tourism as a school subject

Tourism is an activity in which people visit interesting parts of their own country or other countries with the goal of having an enjoyment time (this is detailed in Section 3.3). Reasons for offering tourism education in schools and in institutions of higher learning are that tourism activities contribute significantly to the economies of countries (Lovrentjev, 2015: 555; Petersen, 2015: 11), and that tourism offers employment opportunities. Tourism undoubtedly plays a considerable role in national development (Lovrentjev, 2015: 556; Sarkodie & Adom, 2015: 114). The tourism industry also depends on tourism education for a supply of knowledge and skills needed, so that the industry can thrive and contribute to economic growth and national development.

In this study, tourism is considered as an enterprise that offers the immediate practical benefit of improving the impoverished lives of underprivileged learners, who suffer from dire conditions. For them, practicalising tourism is a matter of life and death (Chere-Masopha, 2007: 3-4; Kimane, 2005: 27-29).

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.6.1 Data collection structure (design)

The study used five community members who were involved in different areas of tourism work. Three were subsistence farmers who also had skills and talents for making crafts; they were called upon to transfer these skills to learners at Phela High School. Another participant had a lodge, where the crafts were displayed and sold to tourists and other customers. The last was a chief executive officer (CEO) of the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Culture, who provided information related to the national agenda, policy and vision.

The co-researchers also comprised two experienced teachers, who were interested in tourism education issues and the newly introduced integrated curriculum. We worked with 10 underprivileged learners of the secondary school (five boys and five girls), who were trained by community members to make craft items to sell and generate income for themselves, to offset the daily challenges of poverty. Learners

were selected from a radius of three kilometres from the school, and according to need. Teachers and the principal assisted the researcher with the selection.

The teachers, community members, and learners had numerous meetings and workshops for brain-storming and discussions; minutes of these meetings were recorded. Free attitude interviews, as other forms of interaction (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004: 87), were applied mainly to integrate tourism to alleviate poverty among underprivileged learners, reflect on promoting self-reliance, establish the challenges involved in the process, and find strategies to overcome the challenges (Dimitrios, Darcy & Ambrose, 2012: 48). Critical discourse analysis was used to analyse and interpret data, and to report whether the strategies were successful in helping the learners achieve self-reliance.

1.6.2 Participatory action research

The research followed a participatory action research (PAR) approach because PAR focuses on the active participation of those who are involved in research for a practical intervention (Tshelane, 2013: 417). PAR is best suited for operationalising CCW, as both PAR and CCW consider the community as integral, by recognising the value of the experiential and indigenous knowledge of the community (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4, 13). A practical and transformational intervention was required to improve the lives of the underprivileged learners, who came from the local community, around the school.

1.7 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

The study is valuable because it shows how CP can help to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, which can benefit underprivileged learners at school and beyond. Through CCW, community members discover that they possess wealth, which can be transferred to their children at school and beyond. In addition to the learners who participated in the study, teachers also benefited, in that they were persuaded to change their methods of and approaches to teaching tourism, to incorporate a greater degree of learner-centredness, which has been found to benefit learners (MoET, 2009: viii; Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 2). From the

study, the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) in Lesotho could use the findings of the study to develop new policies and recommendations to promote tourism in schools due to its practical benefits to the learners, and to the country at large.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical clearance was sought from the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee at the University of the Free State and followed the policy guidelines of the University for research and evaluation. Permission and support were also sought to conduct the study. Co-researchers' names were withheld, and confidentiality was ensured by using pseudonyms. Co-researchers were respected and protected, and were not forced to participate or answer interview questions. They were also allowed to withdraw from participation in the research without giving reasons. However, where possible, the researcher asked them to give him a chance to intervene and try to resolve disputes. Information, such as marital status or age, was not revealed without participants' permission (Silverman, 2013: 30, 161-162). A hard copy of data was secured in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office. The Ethics Committee was provided with copies of all data collection instruments.

1.9 LAY-OUT OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 – Provides orientation and background to the study;

Chapter 2 – Discusses the theoretical framework and CP;

Chapter 3 – Deals with related literature, adding detail and strength to the study;

Chapter 4 - Describes and discusses the research design and methodology;

Chapter 5 – Presents data generated by the study, analysis and interpretation;

Chapter 6 – Provides findings, conclusions and recommendations, highlighting limitations of the study and areas for further research.

1.10 DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

Operational terms are key-words that are frequently used in the study, which therefore need to be understood. In this study the terms are self-reliance, integrated curriculum, tourism and community participation, and they are defined below.

1.10.1 Self-reliance

According to Ezeh and Ekemenzie (2015: 227), self-reliance refers to doing things for oneself without expecting external assistance or support for survival. This survival is possible through the acquisition of practical skills by doing self-employment, entrepreneurship, vocational and technical courses (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 228). Omede (2012: 296) defines self-reliance as the production of job-creators who employ themselves and others. Thus, learners who are self-reliant have acquired practical skills to employ themselves and others. They also have a strengthened and deeper understanding of the subject concerned. This is what this study seeks to achieve, with regard to the teaching of tourism, understanding it and putting that understanding into practice for survival and achieving self-reliance.

1.10.2 Integrated curriculum

Integrated curriculum is an educational approach that uses interactive cross-curricular means to produce knowledge, or to enhance understanding of concepts (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314; Park, 2009: 308-309). Integrated curriculum refers to teaching in which themes and topics from different disciplines are interrelated (Malik & Malik, 2011: 99), thereby viewing teaching/learning in a holistic way, across the subject-matter, and providing learners with a unified knowledge, which reflects the real world. In general, definitions of integrated curriculum go beyond the prescriptions of the textbook by emphasising a vocational focus.

1.10.3 Tourism

Tourism is the activity of providing services for people who travel for holiday, pleasure, adventure and sight-seeing purposes, or visiting places of interest for at

least 24 hours, but for less than a year (Debeshe et al., 2005: 66; Halling, 2011: 15; Neumeir & Pollermann, 2014: 272). Places of interest may include places of deep cultural and historical meaning, which could promote national identity and pride in the visitors (Jafari, 1990: 33). Przeclawski (1993, cited in Halling, 2011: 16) defines tourism broadly as spatial mobility “*connected with voluntary, temporary change of place, the rhythm of life and its environment and involving personal contact with the visited natural, cultural, as well as the social environment, ... more an instrument of integration and globalisation.*”

1.10.4 Community participation

CP refers to the active involvement by people who share social, economic, political, and geographical boundaries, in the transformation or maintenance of their system (Rahman, 1990, cited in Shepherd, 1998: 180). Transforming their system means improving their space and environment, while maintaining their system means keeping what they already have in a healthy state to sustain their lives. In this study, the intention was to use CP to transform the lives of poor learners by assisting them in integrating tourism content into practice to alleviate poverty and strive for self-reliance, and to draw strength and motivation from CCW. I agree with Pius (2013: 587), who contends that “[t]here can be no community development without community participation”.

1.11 CONCLUSION

The study explores ways of utilising CP to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum. The study is guided by Yosso’s (2005) concept of CCW, which postulates that marginalised communities have cultural wealth that can assist in their school-going children’s academic success at school and beyond (Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85; Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77). The importance and appropriateness of CCW is that it acknowledges the indigenous knowledge of the community, and considers this knowledge useful in educational settings. Hence community members were invited into the classroom to transfer this indigenous knowledge and skills of making crafts to underprivileged learners, who would reproduce the crafts for their own benefit to

defeat the ills of poverty, and to improve conditions at school. PAR was used to operationalise CCW in the research design and methodology. Pairing CCW and PAR was convenient, because both place people and community in the centre of investigation. This chapter also described the value of the research and ethical considerations. Critical discourse analysis (CDA) was suggested for analysing and interpreting data, and for reporting the findings of the study. Chapter 1 ended with the definitions of operational terms to enhance their understanding going forward to Chapter 2, where CCW as a theoretical framework, and CP as a conceptual framework, will be discussed in detail and depth.

CHAPTER 2 : THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The study explores ways in which self-reliance can be fostered through CP in an integrated tourism curriculum among underprivileged learners. To achieve this broad aim, the chapter starts by outlining CCW as a theoretical framework and CP as a conceptual framework. The chapter conceptualises CCW and its historical origins, and describes how it was broadened from cultural capital to cultural wealth by Yosso (2005). Given that CCW arose from critical race theory in the USA, the positioning of the study is stated to avoid confusion on what the study intends to accomplish, which is determining how poverty alleviation and self-reliance can be achieved among underprivileged learners. The tenets of CCW will be described in detail, and their relevance to the broad aim and objectives of the study will be explained.

This chapter introduces CP as a conceptual framework for the study, followed by an explanation of its historical origins, its conceptualisation and rationale. Strategies for CP and the process of and rationale for using CP are explained. CP through school governing bodies and civil society organisations is dealt with. Models of CP are outlined; they are those that emphasise levels/steps of CP (Arnstein 1969; Shaeffer 1994), and those that emphasise CP's strengths, assets, resources, skills, talents (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993; Fiske, 2000). Effects of CP on teaching and learning, and on community members, are briefly highlighted.

Convergence of CCW and CP follows with an explanation of common principles. The relevance and importance of the study, epistemology and ontology of CCW and CP, the role of the researcher when using CCW and CP, and the relationship between the researcher and co-researchers, are all explained. The chapter ends with the limitations of CCW and CP, and a conclusion.

2.2 THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK GUIDING THE STUDY

The theoretical framework that guides the study is CCW because of its recognition and acknowledgement of the community's strength and capacity to address the problems facing its school-going children, including life challenges beyond schooling. The inherent transformative agenda of this theory (Mahlomaholo, 2013: 318; Mertens, 2010: 8) attracted my attention, given the nature of the problem the study attempted to solve, and led me to believe that it could be used to foster self-reliance among underprivileged learners through an integrated tourism curriculum.

In order to adequately operationalise CCW, I used CP as a conceptual framework. CCW explains what the community possesses (Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77; Moeller & Bieldfeldt, 2011: 85), while the conceptual framework describes how to use, or consume, the theoretical contents; in other words, how to open up the contents of the theory for practice. While the theory is abstract and ideological, the conceptual framework is practical. Thus, after defining and explaining CCW, community members were involved to actualise the theory, by practically transferring their skills for making crafts for a living to underprivileged learners, who could reproduce the crafts for themselves to generate income. The convenience of using CCW and CP lies in the fact that both place the community at the centre of the research.

2.3 COMMUNITY CULTURAL WEALTH THEORY

This section deals with the conceptualisation and historical origins of CCW. It examines how Yosso (2005) broadened this concept from cultural capital to cultural wealth. I also position the study to clarify and illuminate its focus, that of using CP to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum. This study is not about racism and discrimination in the USA. The bulk of this section deals with the tenets of CCW.

2.3.1 Conceptualisation and historical origins of community cultural wealth

CCW was postulated by Yosso in 2005 in reaction to social injustice and oppression in relation to low-income communities, people of colour, and Latinos in the USA,

whose under-achievement in life and, in particular, at school, compared to Whites, is attributed to deficiencies within themselves and their families, and whose culture is said to suffer from cultural deficits (Horsford & Grosland, 2013: 154).

Of the many scholars whose work she read, Yosso (2005: 74-75) was highly motivated by Freire (1970: 71), who was also one of the first people to expose the concept of deficit thinking and deficit approaches towards the teaching and learning of learners from disadvantaged communities, thereby demonstrating that education can be a tool for oppression, as well as a tool for liberation. Freire (1970: 33, 76) demonstrates that dialogue in education provides consciousness and conscientisation, emancipation and empowerment, so that learners could take action against social, political and economic contradictions through problem-posing and problem-solving in teaching/learning. He also declares that students are co-producers of knowledge with their teachers based on experience, reality and concrete situations (Freire, 1970: 58, 85). Yosso's (2005) conceptualisation of Freire's (1970) ideas gave birth to CCW in the sense that Yosso's (2005) six forms of capital arise from the community experiences and realities that learners bring with them into the classroom, as a background knowledge that can assist them in their schooling and in the rest of their lives.

Yosso (2005) was also highly inspired by Anzaldua (1990: xxv), who calls on people of colour not to allow Whites to occupy theorising space, but to transform and occupy the theorising space to produce their own knowledges, affirming the statement by Nkoane that "if you don't tell your story, others will tell it for you" (Dr Nkoane of the University of the Free State addressing Masters and PhD students in October 2016 at the Qwa-qwa Campus).

Yosso (2005) conceptualised CCW in two ways: first, as part of critical race theory. Yosso starts, to a large extent, by outlining the tenets of critical race theory (Solorzano, 1997: 6; Yosso, 2005: 73). Secondly, she broadens the concept of cultural capital to cultural wealth, and proposes six forms of capital, which will be elaborated in Section 2.3.4, to demonstrate the strengths, resources and assets a community has, that can assist the community's school-going children academically and in other aspects of life (Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77).

2.3.2 Broadening the concept

Yosso (2005) challenges the concept of cultural capital as it was initially conceptualised by Bourdieu (1986); she argues that it is narrow and biased since it assumes that the knowledges of the middle and upper classes of society are more valuable than those of low-income communities (Yosso, 2005: 70). Yosso then broadens the concept of cultural capital by studying, among others, the work of sociologists Oliver and Shapiro (1995), and anthropologists Gonzalez and Moll (2002), and Moll and Gonzalez (2004), cited in Ako-Asare (2015: 9).

Bourdieu (1986: 47-49) argues that knowledges of the upper and middle classes (Whites) are more valuable for social mobility than the knowledges of the lower class, people of colour, and low-income communities, and this explains why academic and social outcomes of Whites are significantly higher, and should therefore be the standard that has to be reached for one to be classified as successful, socially and academically. Yosso (2005: 70) asserts that schools work from this false assumption, of a “rich” cultural capital for Whites, and a “deficient” cultural capital for the underprivileged. In broadening Bourdieu’s (1986) cultural capital to cultural wealth, Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77) identifies six forms of capital, namely aspirational, familial, social, linguistic, navigational and resistance capital. These forms of capital comprise what she calls CCW; through these six forms of capital, she demonstrates the strengths, resources and assets a community has, which can assist its school-going children academically.

Secondly, Yosso (2005: 77) deals with the work of sociologists Oliver and Shapiro (1995), who demonstrated that, as proof of declining inequality, the income gap between Blacks and Whites in the USA seemed to be narrowing. However, when the wealth of the two groups was taken in totality, as accumulated assets and resources, inequality increased, resulting into two diverging graphs of the rich getting richer, and the poor getting poorer (Yosso, 2005: 77). Yosso (2005: 77) criticises Oliver and Shapiro’s work by declaring that a focus on economy alone does not provide a realistic and full picture of the cultural wealth underprivileged people have or do not have. Thus, concentrating on a narrow set of characteristics to describe what people have, or do not have, has the potential to mislead.

Yosso (2005: 76) refers to the work of anthropologists, Gonzalez and Moll (2002) and Moll and Gonzalez (2004), cited by Ako-Asare (2015:9). Moll and Gonzalez popularised the concept of funds of knowledge, in which the family, as a lifelong educator, provides its children with values: respect for adults, courtesy, honesty, generosity, caring, humility, sharing, tolerance and work ethic. The family also provides its children with attitudes: religious preferences, obeying traditions and celebration days, visiting family members and relatives, going on outings to shopping/picnic/sports, educational activities, watching favourite television shows, and feelings about family occupations (e.g. being a nurse/teacher/engineer). Finally, the family teaches its children skills: caring for crops/flowers/animals/people, scientific knowledge (health habits, recycling), and doing household chores such as cleaning/washing/cooking. In the context of this study, these funds of knowledge, values, attitudes and skills, are acquired by children from their families and communities, in the same ways to Yosso's (2005) CCW is acquired, though it is not quite clear how navigational and resistance forms of capital are addressed and covered by funds of knowledge. However, by and large, children bring these funds of knowledge with them from their families to school, and teachers can make use of them to promote children's academic success.

Finally, Yosso (2005: 72) observed that most racism concerns in the USA are related to Blacks and Whites, which limited and narrowed discussion. Other racism concerns, involving other ethnic groups that were also marginalised and oppressed, did not attract publicity, hence her efforts to bring in and highlight the plight of low-income communities, people of colour, Latinos and Chicanos, in CCW. Moreover, Yosso (2005: 72), citing Montoya (1994) and Johnson (1999), observes that racism manifests itself in many forms such as immigration status, sexuality, culture, language, phenotype, accent and surname. Thus, CCW offers a broadened view of what racism and discrimination entail, and of the wealth, strengths, resources, talents, skills and assets each community has and can offer to its children to succeed at school and in the rest of life (Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77; Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85).

2.3.3 Positioning of the study

In my school, in Lesotho, the central issue is poverty and vulnerability of learners due to the high unemployment rate, and the HIV/AIDS pandemic, which has left many children orphaned (Kimane, 2005: 25-28). Poverty has to be alleviated if children's living conditions and learning are to improve. To achieve this feat, I considered two approaches; first, the Lesotho's newly introduced integrated curriculum, whose main objective is to encourage and emphasise the teaching of practical and survival skills, so that learners can solve real-life challenges (MoET, 2009: 1, 3-4). Second, CP, drawing from Yosso's (2005) CCW, which demonstrates that each community has strengths, resources and assets to assist its school-going children (Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77; Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85), was applied. The central issue of the study is finding ways to alleviate poverty and to promote the achievement of self-reliance, for the benefit of underprivileged learners/orphans through an integrated tourism curriculum.

The study is *not* about critical race theory, racism, marginalisation, discrimination and oppression as occurs in the USA. Learners at my school share poverty and vulnerability with low-income communities in the USA, hence the relevance of CCW. I believe the problems of poverty and vulnerability faced by learners in my school in Lesotho can be addressed by using CCW.

2.3.4 Tenets of community cultural wealth theory

In her work, Yosso's (2005: 69) found that despite inequalities, it is possible to overcome obstacles and be successful in pursuing one's hopes and dreams. Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77) found that a community has six forms of capital which learners bring with them to school for teachers to use, in order to realise the learners' full potential, namely, aspirational, linguistic, familial, social, navigational and resistance capital.

2.3.4.1 Aspirational capital

Yosso (2005: 77-78) defines aspirational capital as the hopes and dreams learners have, and bring to the school environment. She claims that low-income communities possess strengths that could enable them to fulfil their hopes and dreams. Aspirations reinforce optimism and positive outlook in life, irrespective of hurdles along the way (Mahlomaholo, 2010: 16; Yosso, 2005: 78). In the case of Lesotho, parents and children pin their hopes and dreams on education. Parents go as far as selling their animals, or anything else of value, to earn money that would help their children complete school. Aspirational capital is developed through familial and social contexts, with parents having high expectations for their children, and, together with relatives, encouraging and motivating.

It became obvious in this study that some learners possessed hopes and dreams to build their business careers out of tourism later in life. Their enthusiasm had to be checked and balanced against the present need to pass examinations. A preoccupation with making money through the sales of craft products did not have to come at the expense of academic achievement.

2.3.4.2 Linguistic capital

Yosso (2005: 78-79) explains linguistic capital as the language and communication skills learners bring with them to the school environment. Communication skills include story-telling, to which learners have been exposed from a young age in their homes, paying attention to detail, memorisation, so that they can reproduce the stories themselves, dramatic pauses, comedic timing for amusement and laughing, facial expressions to indicate seriousness or other emotions, vocal tone, volume, rhythm and rhyme (Yosso, 2005: 79). The linguistic capital they bring from their parents helps children cope when they encounter different cultures (Ako-Asare, 2015: 21). Basotho children quickly learn the way teachers from their different countries speak when teaching, and even making jokes. Yosso (2005: 79) points out that teachers can make use of skills offered by language as a basis for academic success. In addition, Chilisa (2012: 57) observes that language, especially the mother tongue, is important for thinking and showing understanding of concepts,

which is required for academic success. Language plays an important part in strengthening community-based learning environments.

The concept of tourism exists in the Sesotho language, which is the mother tongue of Basotho in Lesotho. Learners bring this rich indigenous language to school from the community, which is (Sesotho language) useful for explaining concepts in a simplified and understandable way during a tourism lesson. Mahlomaholo (2012: 10) affirms that code-switching should be allowed to accommodate all learners in the classroom, even more so when community members who were not conversant in English were co-researchers in the study.

2.3.4.3 Familial capital

Yosso (2005: 79) explains familial capital as the social and human resources learners have, and bring with them to school. Familial capital overlaps with community networks. From the family, learners learn values such as respect, honesty, humility, caring, tolerance, generosity, and work ethic; learn to control their attitudes towards religion, schooling, customs, traditions, and gender issues; and acquire skills such as oral and written communication, and practical and survival methods as exemplified in animal rearing and crop production, and creative entrepreneurial skills, such as the skill involved in this study, through which learners make craft products to sell to generate income for themselves. Most of the values, attitudes and skills learnt from the family, are covered by Moll and Gonzalez's (2004) funds of knowledge. Generally, familial capital is strongly underpinned by family support to the individual, with friends and community members also providing support. Parents are the first teachers at home as they understand familial environments and the child's background, and can provide emotional support.

2.3.4.4 Social capital

Yosso (2005: 79-80) defines social capital as learners' peers and other social contacts in the community, which learners use to gain access to school, and navigate social institutions for educational progress. This capital also helps learners to make sense of what they learn in class. The emphasis is on community support,

including small groups of peers. The community provides trust and care to its members within its boundaries, as if it is a bigger family. What each family can do is replicated by the community on a larger scale, through displays of collective humility, generosity and hospitality towards other community members and to visitors/tourists. To improve a sense of togetherness and bonding, the community can display more recognisable forms of culture, for example, boys from *mophatong* (traditional initiation school) singing *mangae*, and girls singing *lipina tsa bale* (songs of initiates), and celebrating major cultural events such as, in the case of Lesotho, Moshoeshoe's Day on 11th March, and Independence Day on 4th October, to show pride in nationality and identity.

People are comfortable when their way of life is respected, and their home environments are treated with dignity and care, and this enhances their willingness to cooperate and participate in any endeavour (Malebese, 2016: 12). In the same vein, community members felt respected when I asked them to come to school to share their knowledge, talents and skills on tourism with the children. Children saw them in a new light as sources of knowledge similar to their academic teachers at school. From this perspective, CCW provided access to resources and services which otherwise would not have been easily available.

Social capital is needed to provide students with support and resources. In this study, students needed wood, straws and clay from their community to make craft products. They also needed community members with skills, talents and knowledge to come to school and share that knowledge with them, to show them how to make sculptures from wood, and hats from straws, and to mould clay into artefacts. These human and material resources were not only needed for the transmission of knowledge, but also for its construction (Norton, 2008 cited in Mahlomaholo, 2010: 15). Mahlomaholo (2013: 317) contends that learners perform better when they know and see that their performance, academically and in practice, leads to social transformation and empowerment.

2.3.4.5 Navigational capital

Yosso (2005: 80) refers to navigational capital as learners' skills and abilities to navigate social institutions, including educational spaces. Navigating is a way of

finding a path through difficult circumstances (MEDAL, 2002: 945). Yosso (2005: 80) explains that this form of capital empowers learners to manoeuvre within unsupportive and hostile environments. Through navigational capital, learners exhibit natural instincts, inner and inborn qualities, that help them to survive in hard times. It overlaps with resistance capital in that both deal with difficult manoeuvres in hostile environments. Learners come to school having mingled with, and learnt different personalities in their communities, who have different tolerance, patience and temporal levels, thus sharpening the learners' navigational capital at school, where they interact with different teachers and authority figures. Having learnt to navigate in the community makes navigation at school possible and successful. Navigational capital helps learners use their skills to locate resources, information and key people, to negotiate their way to success (Ako-Asare, 2015: 19).

In this study, learners had to navigate to find material to make the craft products. They had to set appointments with community leaders, some of whom could be difficult; for requests to cut straws suitable for making typical Basotho hats; requests to cut wood to make miniature wooden sculptures, and requests to fetch clay to make clay artefacts.

2.3.4.6 Resistance capital

According to Yosso (2005: 80-81), resistance capital has its roots in the experiences of communities of colour in securing equal rights and collective freedom, against practices that promoted social injustices (Mahlomaholo, 2012: 102). Sources of this form of capital are parents, community members and a historical legacy of engaging in social justice struggles, which leaves underprivileged learners well positioned to fend for themselves in life. Learners are also prepared to solve challenging problems relating to other social needs in respect of poverty, health and religion. Resistance capital helps people assert themselves in the face of repression (Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85). In this study the focus was on resisting hardships caused by poverty through the learners' preparedness to undertake the tourism self-reliance project to generate income for themselves, in order to alleviate poverty and achieve self-reliance. Resistance capital also teaches people to stand their ground in negotiating a better deal. Learners learnt how to price their craft products, to negotiate deals and

avoid being cheated. CCW provided them with self-confidence and empowered them to overcome their fears and address their socially challenging conditions (Tracey & Morrow, 2012: 113).

2.4 A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH

A CP approach is the conceptual framework this study used to bring “ordinary” community members into the classroom, to help strengthen the learners’ understanding of tourism for academic, but mainly for practical purposes. As community members interact with learners, they impart their experiential knowledge of tourism, and their skills and talents of making craft products, which learners reproduce and sell to earn a living, and strive to achieve self-reliance, as articulated in Lesotho’s integrated curriculum (MoET, 2009: 18). A CP approach is a way of recognising and using what the community can contribute to education, as postulated by Yosso (2005), and by physically bringing community members into the classroom to contribute to the teaching and learning process as part of an integrated tourism curriculum. The following section deals with the historical origins, conceptualisation and rationale for CP.

2.4.1 Historical origins

Dorsner (2004: 366) suggests that until the 1990s, development of poor people rested on the shoulders of governments and international agencies. When governments and these agencies could not adequately address poverty challenges in the communities, a new paradigm emerged as a vehicle for development, especially rural development (Shepherd, 1998: 179). CP emerged as this new vehicle to deliver development. The rationale behind CP was that it would enhance efficiency, accountability, transparency, ownership, and empowerment of people. Dorsner (2004: 367) states that the concept of CP became the subject of abuse, as governments used it when asking for funds from banks and donors. More recently, the term, community, gave birth to other terms: the poorest of the poor, people with special needs, minority groups, women and children and so on, with the same objective of soliciting funds (Shepherd, 1998: 179).

Arnstein's (1969: 217) so-called Ladder of Citizen Participation indicates that the concept of CP originated much earlier than the 1990s. In support, Samah and Aref (2011: 189) provide a long list of scholars who began writing about CP as early as 1965. In 1981 the United Nations' World Health Organization also contributed by characterising CP as comprising three types of involvement: marginal (the lowest form of participation), substantive (moderate involvement), and structural (actively involved) (Kintz, 2011: 3).

In my view, the dawn of independence, in the 1960s, especially in Africa, gave rise and prominence to the concept of CP, along with Nyerere's (1967) concept of self-reliance. Communities rose up and developed themselves through active involvement in development activities, instead of asking for donations from the colonial master. Thus, CP was an act and political ideology of resistance to achieve freedom; however, after attaining independence, its meaning became neutral, as in other parts of the world, where there was no struggle for independence.

2.4.2 Conceptualisation

CP is made up of two distinct words: community and participation, which must be defined. Community means a group of people who live together, who recognise one another and identify themselves as "we", and are held together by custom and solidarity (Inglis & Aers, 2008: 49). Stacey (1955, cited by Samah & Aref, 2011: 186), defines community as a "local social system," which embraces the social, economic and the political. Words such as community project, community centre (hall), community service, community school, also help to illuminate the meaning of community, and show that a community has institutions that are shared in the locality. In general, a community enjoys togetherness, connectedness, belongingness and commonness of place. Samah and Aref (2011: 187) observe that there are four basic components of the concept: area, people, interaction, and interest. However, a community is not always homogenous; it can also be heterogeneous in membership (Burkey, 1993: 163; Dorsner, 2004: 368; Uemura, 1999: 1).

Participation, on the one hand, means taking part in identifying the needs and solving problems to improve livelihoods of community members; it means initiating

action, planning, deciding and putting those plans into action in order to achieve the goals people set for themselves (Aikara, 2011: 160-161). Zadeh and Ahmad (2010: 13) describe participation as a vehicle for community development. The rationale for participation is multifold: it promotes efficiency, accountability, transparency, enhanced ownership and empowerment, all of which become paramount to poverty alleviation (Dorsner, 2004: 366).

CP, therefore, can be defined as the active involvement of people who share social, economic, political and geographical dimensions, to transform or maintain their system (Shepherd, 1998:180). CP means “having the authority to initiate innovations,” taking action and driving the transformative agenda (Shaeffer, 1994: 17), thereby increasing motivation, confidence and self-esteem of community members in their effort to improve their lives. CP improves decision-making and sustainability of self-reliance projects, or services, because the community identifies its needs, initiates action and manages its activities and resources, and thus reduces costs, risks and failure (Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13). Stakeholders influence and guide development initiatives, and can target the use of resources efficiently and effectively (Uemura, 1999: 12). The process of CP empowers and leads people to take control of their lives, and to confront multiple-issues that affect their development. CP strengthens the community by increasing inclusion and connectedness, and by “decreasing social isolation and division” (City of Whitehorse, 2014: 1), so that problems are confronted in unison. It captures various ways in which people play an active role in their communities (Pius, 2013: 587).

Today, CP has been reinvented, and is no longer, like in the past, a consequence of research being conducted by experts who come into the community to extract information through observation and interviews, and disappear, and then use the information for purposes that do not directly benefit the community (Eruera, 2010: 1). Today, community members become part of the research that seeks to uplift them from conditions of poverty and squalor (Hlalele, 2014: 104).

In this study, community members, teachers and learners worked together to determine how to alleviate poverty through the learners’ sale of craft products, which, essentially, was a way of practicalising tourism. The study relied on the strength of the community as articulated in Yosso’s (2005: 69, 76-77) CCW, and by Moeller and

Bielfeldt (2011: 85), who claim a community has multiple strengths, resources, assets, skills, talents, and experiential knowledge, that can be transmitted to the younger generation at school and beyond, for their survival and self-reliance.

2.4.3 Rationale

The rationale for CP is captured in its earlier definition. The main rationale for using CP is that there can be no community development without it (Pius, 2013: 587; Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13), because community members know their problems well, and can make plans and decide on how to solve them better than outsiders or experts can (Eruera, 2010: 1; Hlalele, 2014: 103). Having identified their problems, the community mobilises appropriate resources and uses them in a cost-effective and sustainable manner (Uemura, 1999: 12; Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13), so that future generations may also benefit from resources. Solving problems for themselves gives the community confidence and self-esteem (Kintz, 2011: 17). Accountability and transparency are assured by the support and security provided by the community through its self-reliance projects. Above all, CP enhances oneness (City of Whitehorse, 2014: 1), and the chances are all stand to benefit from community initiatives.

2.4.4 Strategies for community participation

This part of the study deals with strategies for CP. It explores how community members come together to participate in community initiatives by developing appropriate and relevant structures/committees for different functions and purposes. I will also outline the processes that have to be taken to effect CP in a systematic way that ensures positive outcomes.

2.4.4.1 How community members come together

Every community has a natural mobiliser, who will organise people and approach the community leader, or local government representative, about the problems and needs of the community. Samah and Aref (2011: 191) consider the skilled mobiliser

and organiser to be central, since s/he initiates action and influences others to attend meetings and participate meaningfully in identifying needs and addressing collective problems. The community leader will then convene a community gathering at a space used for gatherings, or into a community hall, if there is one. Thus, the leader provides facilities to enable the gathering to take place. Community members will elect a chairperson to chair the proceedings, a secretary to write down the minutes, and a treasurer to keep funds if financial contributions are made.

At the gathering, community members will deliberate on their problems and grievances, provided they are given freedom and treated with respect and dignity by other community members and leaders. If, for example, the problem is that learners are being raped at night, the gathering will talk about it, giving examples of what they know, and in some cases what they saw, heard and did, including how the police was alerted and became involved. Many suggestions will be made on how the community should protect itself, until, eventually, a group of men attending the gathering, will volunteer to patrol the streets and guard the learners and other community members. In Lesotho these volunteers are called *mahokela*. The police usually present training workshops for *mahokela* to equip them with the necessary skills and knowledge, so that they do not become law-breakers in the process of apprehending law-breakers. The initiative, or service, of patrolling the streets at night is likely to be successful and sustainable, since the solution was suggested by community members themselves, in a bottom-up approach (Aikara, 2011: 169-170; Ofiri, 2008: 4).

According to Schermerhorn (1999, cited by Muganda, Mgonja & Backman, 2013: 85), there are usually four ways of reaching a decision in a gathering. The first is through the authority rule, where the leader makes decisions for community members. The second way involves the minority rule, where two or three people dominate discussions in decision-making and others follow them. The third is the majority rule, where voting takes place to reach a decision; and finally, the consensus decision, where a decision is favoured and agreed to by all.

Majority rule and consensus are good recipes for full and spontaneous CP, because these approaches signify a common understanding of the problem that needs to be addressed. Tosun (1999: 494) asserts that spontaneous CP is ideal, as the

community is fully responsible for its decisions and implementation to solve its problems. The community is not induced, coerced or manipulated into spontaneous participation, to use Arnstein's (1969) and Shaeffer's (1994) words. The community is driven by a desire to act, and is happy to find space and freedom to do so.

2.4.4.2 The process of community participation

a) Conduct a community needs assessment

For participation to be meaningful, the current situation should first be assessed (Hubball & Burt, 2004: 55), to establish the needs and priorities of the community, so that time and energy are saved on important things that need to be done.

b) Ensure that initiatives are community-driven

If initiatives are community-driven, they will enjoy support and security for success and sustainability; it becomes easy to mobilise resources and assets, as articulated by Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77), and Moeller and Bielfeldt (2011: 85). Resources are used cost-effectively (Uemura, 1999: 12; Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13), as they are targeted to addressing local problems community members know and understand well (Kintz, 2011: 1), and an "expert" is not needed (Eruera, 2010: 1). This is consistent with some strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum, namely, *conduct comprehensive needs assessment and develop closer links with the community*.

c) Set goals and develop plans

The overall "mother" committee should, with the help of other community members, set goals that should be achieved within a reasonable time-frame. Strategies and plans to achieve the goals should be drawn up and revised together by community members (Hubball & Burt, 2004: 55; Malik & Malik, 2011: 103).

d) Form structures for coordination with local authorities and government

Various committees should be formed and tasked with certain specific duties and responsibilities, and to report progress on CP. These committees should develop links with other formations in the community to tackle common problems in a coordinated manner and to avoid overlaps and duplication of effort (Kintz, 2011: 13,

15; Shankar, 2014: 75). Cooperation with local leaders and government ensures harmony and availability of various resources for the benefit of the community, which must ensure that its plans are part of the national development agenda and budget allocations (Kintz, 2011: 13, 15). The implementation of an integrated curriculum also requires *the formation of various working groups and committees with roles and responsibilities* to link and engage with local authorities and government.

e) Avail capacity building opportunities

Capacity building through training workshops is always essential to augment existing skills and for acquiring new ones (Kintz, 2011: 15). Training should include personnel, leadership and financial management, and evaluation of projects. Training increases confidence and self-belief, and enables community members to take on greater responsibilities (Kintz, 2011: 15; Malik & Malik, 2011: 99-100; Shepherd, 1998:102), and enhances responsiveness and sustainability. Capacity building through *staff training* also features very strongly in the integrated curriculum (Park, 2008: 308-309).

f) Ensure inclusive and equal participation

All groups in the community should be considered equally for participation: women, minority groups, the youth, the disabled, religious groups. They should all feel welcome and encouraged to play a role in the process of CP, and should be made to feel that they will benefit equally from participating. Groups should not compete, but should cooperate and collaborate (Kintz, 2011: 15).

g) Flexible in approach

Community circumstances such as culture, beliefs and needs should be taken into consideration to maximise participation. Sensitivity regarding extreme poverty and prevalence of HIV/AIDS should also be exhibited when soliciting contributions and inviting involvement (Kintz, 2011: 15). Poor people should be allowed to contribute in kind. One of the strategies of the integrated curriculum encourages *pragmatism* and *gradualism*; that is, starting slowly and carefully, learning from mistakes and avoiding them going forward.

h) Ownership results in long-term commitment

It is believed that, when projects are long term, community commitment and ownership take root and last (Kintz, 2011: 16). Mutual trust, confidence, and behavioural and attitudinal changes, which promote sustainability of a project, all need time to develop. In this study, the self-reliance project of making craft products and selling them was meant to be a life-changing endeavour at school and beyond. The learners' productive and entrepreneurial skills to alleviate poverty would have been entrenched.

i) Conduct continuous monitoring and follow-up

The "mother" committee should monitor and follow-up on progress made regarding CP, for purposes of reporting. Doing so will help with plans that must be modified or adapted for local contexts when there is lack of progress (Hubball & Burt, 2004: 55; Malik & Malik, 2011: 103). If there is external assistance, it should be subjected to scrutiny to ensure it plays a positive role.

In this study, the progress made by the focus group in learning how to make crafts, and selling them to alleviate poverty was continuously monitored and followed up by teachers and community members. As with every self-reliance project, there were challenges along the way that required plans to be changed and new targets set.

It is important to note that all these requirements for effective CP are mirrored in the strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum: *conduct comprehensive needs assessment; establish working groups with responsibilities; determine outcomes; train staff; commit to re-evaluation and revision; develop closer links with the community ...* (see 3.2.5). This shows that CP and an integrated curriculum need each other for reinforcement and effectiveness, to ensure the success and sustainability of the learners' project, to alleviate poverty and to strive to achieve self-reliance.

2.4.5 Community participation in schools

This part of the study shows the rationale for using CP in schools, and explains the strategy for CP in schools through school governing bodies. The last part of the

section investigates the effects of CP on learners, teachers and community members themselves.

2.4.5.1 Rationale for community participation in schools

Education is an essential service that the community participates in, and consumes for its well-being, and that contributes to nation-building (Abomeh, 2012: 2). The results of participating in and consuming education is the acquisition of knowledge, new skills, values, and attitudes on the part of community members and learners (Aikara, 2011: 162). Pius (2013: 587) adds that, if the curriculum includes and supports the culture and heritage of the local community, it could promote and uphold a sense of pride. Save the Children-USA (2013: 7) notes that a good education has multiplier effects for national development, and provides the skilled workforce needed for economic growth. In this study, underprivileged learners were taught survival skills by community members; they made and sold crafts to create jobs for themselves, and would probably employ others in the future. All these changes and improvements can contribute to economic growth.

Hlalele (2014: 103) asserts that schools are centres of community life; schools are often the biggest employer in the area, particularly in rural areas. In this case education contributes to the economy through employment of teachers, clerks, cooks, gatekeepers and watchmen. Education also creates an informed society that can participate in national debate, and therefore contributes to building a knowledge-based economy. Education has transformational power through the maximisation and use of limited local resources (Kintz, 2011: 1; Save the Children-USA, 2013:7). Above all, CP creates and nourishes community-school partnerships and ownership, which are necessary for the sustainability of school self-reliance projects, and opens learning opportunities for children by improving access, retention and completion (Kintz, 2011: 3; Uemura, 1999: 9). Experiencing school ownership makes community members look for and find viable solutions for their school's problems, because they have an indepth understanding of its problems (Kintz, 2011: 1).

CP in schools empowers community members beyond representation in school governing bodies (Russell, 2009: 48). If community members are allowed to experience a sense of ownership, they can contribute resources that build up their

school, and at the same time demand accountability regarding their use. They are able to assert their democratic rights and needs (Russell, 2009: 48) regarding the future of their sons and daughters. They become more conscious and supportive of the children's learning, and offer help when needed. Community members feel like real stakeholders and actively participate in school activities, rather than being passive collaborators (Shaeffer, 1994: 17).

Addressing school and education problems, by offering a sense of ownership, results in some members acquiring useful skills, which becomes a social capital and resource, which could be called upon to strengthen teaching and learning (Russell, 2009: 52). Thus, CP builds the capacity and capability of the community, enabling it to lift itself out of underdevelopment. This study is a case in point. Community members were called upon to offer instruction and capacitate underprivileged learners on how to make craft products, from indigenous material such as wood, straws and clay, to strengthen learners' understanding of tourism as a concept, and using the skills to alleviate poverty.

The rationale for CP also centres around the need to raise funds, which could be used to improve infrastructure and other facilities, to build, maintain and repair the school. Other contributions take the form of local materials such as rocks, poles from trees, land, sand, gravel, water, and tools (shovels, wheel-barrows), and labour and spontaneous participation (Tosun, 1999: 494). According to Russell (2009: 23) this type of CP is more prevalent in hard-to-reach areas, where the assistance by government and development partners does not often materialise.

Another rationale for using CP results from the demand for accountability (Russell, 2009: 36, 43). Accountability relates to explaining to community members how resources and funds have been used in the school, and why school performance has improved or declined. Performance includes sports, arts, music, and other extra-curricular activities (Lunenborg, 2011: 1-2). Accountability and transparency improve community members' trust and confidence in its dealings with the school. Community formations such as civil society organisations, which are rights-based and non-governmental, make schools accessible, transparent and accountable to parents through the rights they advocate, particularly the Right to Education. Save the Children-USA (2013: 20-21) provides a few examples of these organisations. In

India and Pakistan there are Annual Status of Education Reports (ASER), which provide detailed information about the academic performance of schools and ensure that quality education is attained. In East Africa, the Uganda Women's Efforts to Save Orphans (Uweso), operates in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania, doing similar work to that of ASER. In South Africa, Equal Education works to repair the ills and disparity caused by the apartheid system in education (Save the Children-USA, 2013: 21). These organisations conscientise and politicise society about human and democratic rights, particularly in education, and thereby increase the answerability of schools to communities.

Through studying research and literature, Russell (2009: 33) found that the five most common decisions reached by community members were about building and maintaining their school, supplying school material, mobilising resources, monitoring teachers, and conducting budget oversight. Russell (2009: 33) found that community members seldom made decisions on the training of teachers, providing incentives to teachers, selecting textbooks, setting goals (vision), and developing school programme/curriculum plans. Russell's findings have implications for using CP, and exploring ways to maximise on its advantages.

Relevance and the quality of education improve because community members provide input in the curriculum, which is relevant to their local needs and aspirations. Improvements regarding enrolment and access occur because community members direct their children to attend certain schools, and to avoid others. Uemura (1999: 9) suggests that, in some cases, community members form village education committees to monitor, supervise, and manage schools, thus positively assisting school administrations.

2.4.5.2 Participation through school governing bodies

Community members choose other community members to represent them in legalised school management committees, usually comprising the principal, a representative of teachers, the local chief or leader, a government representative, and parents who represent community members. The size of school governing bodies varies between 9 and 15 members, as is the case with Lesotho and India respectively (Aikara, 2011: 181-182; Education Act, 2010: 180). In Lesotho, 33

percent of school management committee members are parents, 3 of 9 members, while in India 80 percent of the members are parents (12 of 15 members). In Kenya school management committees have a total of 14 members; 8 are parents; that is 57 percent (Kimu, 2012: 86). The representation is important, because certain decisions are arrived at through voting in the meetings of school management committees (Education Act, 2010: 181). In general, school management committees ensure that schools use resources wisely and account for the resources' use for the benefit of schools and education.

2.4.5.3 Effects of community participation on teaching and learning, and on community members

a) Effects on teaching

Teachers' morale improves when they see the parents' concerns about and commitment to their children's education (Fan & Williams, 2010: 53); teachers work harder and skip fewer classes (Russell, 2009: 36). In addition, teachers are more likely to take part in community projects when community members participate meaningfully at school (Bulawa & Mhlauli, 2012: 224). Working hand in hand with parents minimises truancy on the part of children, and improves the children's focus on school work, making academic success more likely.

b) Effects on learning

Uemura (1999: 9) suggests that community members prepare children to be ready for school by providing meals and books, and by ensuring learners' regular school attendance and completion of classes. Russell (2009: 36) demonstrates how CP protects the right to education, and claims that it has a positive effect on access, retention and academic performance, increases the retention rate at school, while decreasing failure and drop-out rates. Children work harder and behave better when they know and can see their parents' involvement in education. Relevance of the curriculum also improves because the community has some input (Russell 2009: 39). Learners are motivated when they realise that what they learn is of immediate importance and use in their lives. This was particularly the case in this study, when attempts were made to foster self-reliance to alleviate poverty.

c) *Effects on community members*

CP in schools empowers community members beyond representation in school governing bodies (Russell, 2009: 48). Community members feel a sense of ownership, and can therefore contribute resources that build their school, and at the same time demand accountability regarding the use of the resources. Community members are able to assert their democratic rights and needs (Russell, 2009: 48), regarding the future of their children. They become more conscious and supportive of the children's learning and offer help where needed. Community members feel like real stakeholders and contribute by actively participating in school activities, instead of by passive collaboration (Shaeffer, 1994: 17).

2.4.6 Models of community participation

This part of the study describes and discusses four models of CP. The first is Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation, and the second, Shaeffer's (1994) Ladder for Analysis of Participation in Education, which emphasise the levels at which CP takes place. Other models emphasise the strengths and assets of the community as articulated in CCW, namely, Asset-Based Community Development, and Cultural Complementarity.

2.4.6.1 Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation

Arnstein's (1969: 217) ladder has eight levels/steps for ascending and descending. At the lowest rung of the ladder, the first is *manipulation*, followed at the second level by *therapy*, then by *informing*, *consultation*, *placation*, *partnership*, *delegated power*, and, finally, at the eighth level, at the top of the ladder, *citizen control*. At the bottom of the ladder, manipulation and therapy are characterised by non-participation by citizens; here citizens are simply manipulated or cheated. Community members are coerced into participating on something they do not understand. They simply take up a passive presence and accept the status quo.

In the middle of the ladder, informing, consultation and placation are characterised by degrees of tokenism in which CP is cosmetic or symbolic, not real, sometimes

only meant to hoodwink outside donors. Hubley (1990: 5) points out that, in this case, there is a pretense of letting people make decisions, while, in actual fact, community members are being controlled like puppets. At the top of the ladder, partnership, delegated power and citizen control, levels 6, 7 and 8, are characterised by degrees of citizen power. Citizens feel empowered and take responsibility for and control of their actions (Hopkins, 2013: 108-109). Participation has a clear agenda and objectives to achieve for the benefit of the community.

Although Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation uses the term *citizen*, he means community, and the model, therefore, still refers to CP. When the community is manipulated and simply informed about the needs of the school, as shown at the bottom of the ladder under *manipulation*, without community members being meaningfully involved in decision-making, the school loses out on what the community could offer in terms of suggestions and contributions. At the top of the ladder, citizen control means an empowered community that has a sense of ownership, and therefore participates optimally to achieve school's success and sustainability (Hopkins, 2013: 108-109).

2.4.6.2 Shaeffer's (1994) Ladder for Analysis of Participation in Education

Apart from an emphasis on education, Shaeffer's (1994) ladder is similar to Arnstein's (1969) in structure. It has seven rungs, instead of eight. The lowest level is described as – *use of service*, which refers to parents merely sending children to school; the second level is described as involving *attendance and receipt of information* - parents attend meetings and are informed of fees and school regulations, but parents do not contribute ideas; the third level is *involvement through contribution*, though parents did not necessarily agree about the contribution. The fourth level – *consultation on particular issues*– involves parents being asked, for instance, if girls should wear trousers, or to comment on the colour of school uniform. At the fifth level – *delivery of a service* - parents could volunteer to do some gardening and cooking for the children; while, at the sixth level - *implementation of delegated powers*- some parents represent village chiefs on school boards, while others represent churches with certain interests and influence. At the seventh level, there is *participation in real decision-making at every stage*. In

this study CP should be perceived being on the seventh rung of Shaeffer's (1994) ladder; that is, participation in real decision-making at every stage. This position resonates with Arnstein's (1969) eighth rung, at the top of his ladder - citizen control.

In Shaeffer's (1994) ladder, the four bottom levels, from level 1 to level 4, are described as community involvement, while the three levels towards the top-end of the ladder are described as CP. Thus, community involvement, in Shaeffer's (1994) view, has an element of collaborative passiveness and acceptance of the status quo, while real CP involves active, physical vibrancy, and the freedom to make decisions and implement them. However, Pew (2009: 828) elevates the position of involvement by arguing that it is not so much about the physical presence of people and action, but it is about how people perceive and relate to the suggested innovations, and how they conceptualise the innovations in relation to their lives and needs. From Pew's stand-point, there is a stronger overlap between involvement and participation than suggested by Shaeffer's (1994) description of the two terms. Community engagement can be likened to community partnering, for instance, where the school tourism club partners with the village tourism club to address common themes and problems relating to the concept of tourism in the public sphere. Community engagement builds social ties and networks for effective CP (Pew, 2009: 828-829), which, in turn, improve the community members' lives and wellness.

Figure 2.1 below summarises the levels of CP typologies by Arnstein (1969), Shaeffer (1994), and Tosun (1999, 2006). Even though Tosun's (1999, 2006) typology of CP has not been discussed in detail, I referred to it when I discussed the strategies for CP, and showed how democratic processes function, when the majority or minority decision is accepted, and how consensus is reached, resulting in spontaneous participation.

Level	Arnstein (1969)	Shaeffer (1994)	Tosun (1999, 2006)
High	citizen control	- real decision-making at every stage	spontaneous participation
	delegated power	- implementation of delegated power	
<hr/>			
Moderate	placation	- consultation on some issues	induced participation
	consultation	- involvement through contribution	
<hr/>			
Low or None	therapy	- attendance and receipt of information	coercive participation
<hr/>			
	manipulation	- use of a service	

Figure 2.1: Summary of community participation typologies and their levels

2.4.6.3 Asset-Based Community Development Model

This model, also called the ABCD model, was developed by Kretzmann and McKnight in 1993. It brings together community's assets and capacities for the community's development (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993: 4; 1996: 25). The model's focus is on the strengths of the community and how these promote the community improvement activities, instead of seeing the community as deficient or lacking in assets and means to help itself out of poverty and underdevelopment (ABC Institute: Online).

The community participates through making useful decisions in meetings and through making financial contributions where possible; its cooperation, support and protection of the self-reliance project make the project successful, because community members have a deeper understanding of problems, and can suggest viable solutions (Kintz, 2011: 1). The community also has manpower that can be volunteered for constructing the project. In addition, the physical environment of the

community may provide material, such as building sand, rocks, water and trees if they are needed, thereby lowering the cost of the self-reliance project (Uemura, 1999: 12; Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13). In this study, the cost of material needed for the craft products, that is, wood, straws and clay, was considered as the learners did not have the start-up capital.

2.4.6.4 Cultural Complementarity

This model was pioneered by Fiske (2000) of the University of California, Los Angeles. According to Fiske (2000: 76), cultural complementarity is a model that harnesses and synergises diverse cultures within a community to transform the community. In this model, fear of differences is replaced by collaboration and cooperation. Cultures complement one another to build strength, because unity is power. The understanding is that many cultures and experiences together are more powerful than one. Thus, diversity should be appreciated, as community wealth and strength that can be used to bring about development (Garcia, 2010: 2).

This model is similar to the ABCD model (see 2.4.6.3 above) in that the community amasses what it has to strengthen itself for effective participation and development. Diversity in cultures can also improve tourism ventures in a community, and boost its revenues since tourists want to see diversity. However, closer investigation reveals that these two models are components of Yosso's (2005) CCW, which confirms that communities have wealth, multiple strengths, resources, assets, talents, skills, experiential knowledge and belief systems that together can be used to solve problems, including those of school-going children (Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85; Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77). With the exception of Fiske's (2000) Cultural Complementarity model, which saw limited application in this study, the other models were used in abundance and in equal measure, to explain different phenomena and scenarios when and where it was appropriate and relevant. This thesis does not single out one model over the others.

2.5 CONVERGENCE OF COMMUNITY CULTURAL WEALTH AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

At the intersection of CCW and CP lies the community. On the one hand a community is the manufacturer of its own wealth in the form of aspirational, familial, social, linguistic, navigational and resistance capital (Yosso, 2005). On the other hand, CP is the activation of this wealth into action. What is important in this study is that the wealth of a community is not only acknowledged and used, while community members are kept away. In this study, community members are at the centre of fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, by transferring their wealth, experiential knowledge and skills for making crafts to underprivileged learners, who learn to reproduce the crafts and sell them to generate income.

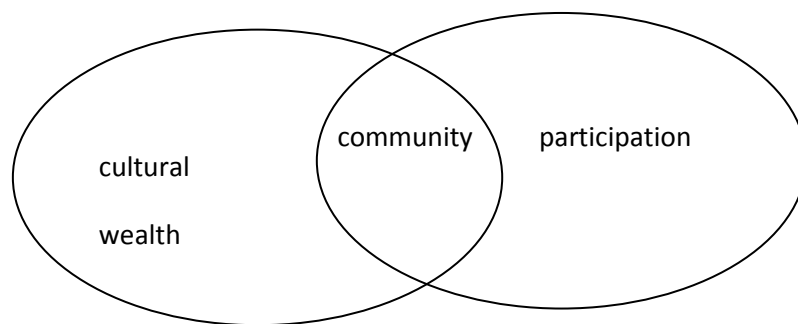


Figure 2.2: Community at the intersection of CCW and CP

The other point of convergence is that CCW acknowledges indigenous knowledges in the community, and considers community members as experts who are capable of solving problems in their environment (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Mahlomaholo, 2013: 319, 321; Moana, 2010: 1, 10), and this was the reason why community members' skills and knowledge were sought and brought into the classroom. It is the physical presence of community members themselves in the classroom that differentiates this study from many others, which simply acknowledge that the community is powerful. In this study community members are physically present and involved in the transfer of indigenous knowledge and skills; CP is not only a point of reference.

2.5.1 Common principles of community cultural wealth and community participation

a) Initiatives are community-driven

It becomes easier to mobilise resources and assets when the needs are community-driven. The use of resources becomes cost-effective as they are targeted towards well-known local problems (Kintz, 2011: 1; Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13).

b) Inclusivity and equity

All community groups should feel welcome to participate in a community project, whose benefits should be shared equally. No one should feel marginalised and discriminated against. Cultural differences and diversity should be viewed as complementary (Fiske, 2000: 76; Garcia, 2010: 2). Democratic principles of fairness should be observed, while being sensitive to the poorest of the poor by allowing alternative ways of contributing towards the project (Kintz, 2011: 15).

c) Indigenous knowledges are valued

The asset-based approach towards a community acknowledges that the community is endowed with multiple strengths, resources, assets, resources, experiential knowledge, skills and talents that explain its existence and survival (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Moana, 2010: 1, 10; Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85). Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77) explains these community's wealth and assets by means of the six forms of capital every community has, which can help its children succeed at school and beyond.

d) Community ownership is necessary for sustainability of projects

It is generally agreed that community ownership of a project results in its sustainability because there are many hands and eyes looking after it, and mainly because the project is community-driven (Hubley, 1990: 2). Projects should be sustainable is important, because they are aimed at transforming the lives of community members; however, projects are expensive, and are sometimes made possible through external assistance and, therefore, it is imperative to look after them.

e) CCW and CP work best in a bottom-up approach

A community can be adversely affected by external factors which may hamper its decisions and plans, and their implementation. Examples of such factors could be unfavourable and oppressive political decisions enforced from the top, leading to low or non-participation in local development activities. Employment and income patterns can also influence the extent of CP, because this determines how an individual can contribute time and resources (Dorsner 2004: 368-369).

f) Skills transfer to others, especially to younger generation

Generation after generation learn the survival skills from wise elders and community leaders so that CCW lives on. Children become adults and community members who inherit CCW, which is related to the community's way of life: their language, dress, means of production, ways of fetching water and cooking meals, how they eat, the medical herbs they use for illnesses, celebrations, song and dance. Knowledge about these aspects will be transferred to the next generation, which will keep the wheel of transfer spinning.

2.5.2 Relevance of CCW and CP to the study

The relevance of CCW and CP to the study should be judged from their ability to solve the problem to foster self-reliance among underprivileged learners through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP. Regardless of how underprivileged the learners under discussion were, CCW provided hope and aspiration that they could be assisted because they already had something of value, Yosso's (2005) forms of capital, which needed to be activated through CP.

CCW embraces democratic principles that provide space, freedom and an opportunity for every voice, and promotes principles of social justice and equity, so that underprivileged people can control their destiny, because they are empowered (Mahlomaholo, 2012: 5). CCW places people and the community at the centre of investigation. Hence, in this study co-researchers comprised all classes of diverse individuals: teachers, "ordinary" community members, tourism business people, CEO of the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Culture, and learners. They all listened to one another with genuine interest and respect as co-producers of

knowledge (Freire, 1970: 58, 85), and provided possible solutions to emancipate the poverty-stricken learners.

In addition to achieving success, in improving the material conditions of the underprivileged learners, the study demonstrates the value of CCW and CP, by exposing other benefits to the community: consciousness, emancipation, empowerment, mobilisation and capacity building, and as a resource to teaching and learning. These benefits are discussed briefly below.

2.5.2.1 Consciousness

Consciousness is the state of acquiring new knowledge or understanding that something of value exists (MEDAL, 2002: 294). Community members developed awareness of their wealth when they were invited to the school, a place they always thought was the exclusive reserve of the educated, those who spoke polished English “through their noses”. Similarly, learners developed awareness of the contribution “ordinary” community members could make in the learners’ academic environment. Genuine mutual respect and reciprocity developed and improved between the two groups of participants, and was evident throughout the period of study. CCW opens the eyes of the community psychologically. It awakens the giant who was unaware of his powers, making community members feel they are worthy human beings with immense potential to improve themselves and the learning of their children. According to Fairclough (1989: 1), “[c]onsciousness is the first step to emancipation.”

2.5.2.2 Emancipation

Emancipation means freeing or liberating (MEDAL, 2002: 451). Emancipation means community members and learners are free to be assertive in their demands, and at the same time, critical of their environment. Community members and learners are no longer gullible and vulnerable to unscrupulous liars and crooks because emancipation enables them to distinguish between truth and falsehood (Sharp, 2013: 428). Emancipation removes social and psychological obstacles, and improves conditions of freedom and social justice (Mahlomaholo, 2012: 102). Because of the

emancipatory property of CCW, it seems to relate to critical emancipatory theory, which emphasises the objective of emancipation from, above all, social injustice. Yosso's (2005: 80-81) navigational and resistance capital provide ample ammunition and opportunity for the underprivileged to emancipate themselves from unsavoury conditions of poverty and squalor, which this study sought to address.

2.5.2.3 Mobilisation and capacity building

CCW mobilises the community by awakening and making members aware that they have strengths, resources and assets, which, at first, they were unaware of. Once it is clear that the strengths, resources and assets are available, as Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77) reveals, they can be used by teachers to capacitate learners at school to achieve academic success. CCW is a capacity builder of teachers, learners, and the community itself through providing self-awareness and self-esteem in solving problems. The cultural wealth of the community is availed to improve teaching and learning, thus benefiting learners, particularly regarding the transfer of survival skills to alleviate poverty, which is at the core of this study.

2.5.2.4 Empowerment

Empowerment means being strengthened and given the power to make plans and decisions about one's life (Pius, 2013: 587; Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13). Once liberated and capacitated, people begin to notice, and use opportunities that can improve their lives. They are now able to participate in the transformative agenda and implement their ideas in a conducive and enabling environment (Shepherd, 1998: 180). In addition, empowerment has the effect of distributing wealth equitably among citizens, between the privileged and the underprivileged, because there are checks and balances against corrupt tendencies, owing to a functioning democracy, transparency and a justice system.

In this study, learners rubbed shoulders with community members, discussed and shared ideas, solving real-life problems, and refrained from seeing problem-solving as belonging to the upper classes of society (Mahlomaholo, 2010: 16). Solving problems was indeed empowering, in the sense that co-researchers and the focus

group thought of ways to implement their own suggestions. Co-researchers and the focus group were responsible for their thoughts, plans and actions, aimed at integrating tourism for self-reliance.

2.5.2.5 As resources for teaching and learning

Yosso (2005: 69) and Moeller and Bielfeldt (2011: 85) claim that, if teachers could make use of the six forms of capital in CCW, they could provide a solid foundation for academic success. I provide two examples from aspirational and social capital. Learners bring to school hopes and dreams as articulated in aspirational capital (Yosso, 2005: 77-78). They have high expectations of education, and are curious to learn, which, if harnessed and channelled, can keep them motivated to learn. Social capital (Yosso, 2005: 79-80) is exemplified by inviting community members to school, to share their knowledge of tourism with learners. Community members are a human resource, while wood, straws/grass, and clay for making craft products, are a material resource. It is good pedagogical practice to use these resources to enhance understanding, and acquisition of knowledge and skills by learners.

2.6 EPISTEMOLOGY AND ONTOLOGY OF COMMUNITY CULTURAL WEALTH THEORY AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Epistemology refers to the study of knowledge, and the way it is related to similar notions, such as truth, beliefs, opinions, and, most importantly, how these notions are logically arrived at, justified and reasoned (McNulty, 2013: 525). To exercise logic in thinking, one needs to understand how knowledge is acquired through the senses, and the way concepts are developed in the mind (McNulty, 2013: 526). Knowledge is historically and socially located within cultural contexts (Mertens & Yamashita, 2010: 43), which explains why individuals' opinions are, to a large degree, informed by their belief systems and cultures to which they belong. This claim resonates with the view of critical theorists and social constructivists, that there is no such thing as objective truth, but that knowledge is subjective and relational, guided by a set of numerous relations that one has with other people, the environment and the universe (Chilisa, 2012: 40). Indeed, as Burchinal (2005: 30)

holds, there are many ways of knowing, or achieving epistemological growth, other than the scientific method. The acquisition of knowledge is bound by social and background contexts, that equip people with justification and reasons for their beliefs, truths and opinions, and knowledge itself.

Epistemological understanding of how knowledge is acquired, therefore, makes it necessary to approach each learner as an individual since contextual backgrounds of learners differ (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4). Understanding the context of each learner improves their chances of acquiring knowledge. Experimenting on changing the learning environment by having peer group discussions, and discussions with community members, instead of applying the usual teacher-centred approach, can be refreshing. Interacting and communicating with community members helped the learners to stay motivated and focused throughout the period of study in pursuit of fostering self-reliance. Moreeng (2009: 112) affirms that the ability to communicate and interact with others is the most important factor dominating the discussion about community-based learning environments for the co-production of knowledge.

Ontology is the study of what exists in the world through social interaction (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011: 717). Its assumptions are concerned with what constitutes social reality. Different versions of reality are acknowledged because human beings are greatly influenced by the society in which they live, and the context in which they work (Higgs & Smith, 2008: 69). CCW acknowledges multiple interpretations of the world, and rejects a positivistic ontology in which there is only one objective reality.

According to some studies, subjective knowledge seems to emanate mainly from two social orientations: learning through social interaction and the socio-economic position. This view resonates with the assertion that reality is created by people in CP and other forums, and constructed through social interaction; it is not an externally created entity waiting to be discovered. Thus, learning shapes and re-shapes social reality as people grow through learning. People become engineers of their own social worlds through social interaction (Boog, 2003: 428), which leads to the structuring and re-structuring of their social reality, and to the formation of knowledge.

Socio-economic provides multiple realities that represent social and economic worlds (Mertens & Wilson, 2012: 172). Underprivileged people view the world from a

disadvantaged viewpoint and dissatisfied position, while privileged and powerful people view it from an elevated point of advantage and satisfaction. For example, an underprivileged person may see mountains as a nuisance because of their deep valleys, steep ascents and descents, because he takes days to travel on foot or on horse-back to traverse them. However, a privileged person finds mountains refreshing, and enjoys travelling through them in his powerful vehicle that takes minutes to pass the mountains; he wonders why tourism is not flourishing in his country. It is, therefore, the function of theories such as CCW to close the ontological gap of inequality, by harmoniously bringing learners and CP together for interaction and collaboration in discussing and sharing ideas, shaping, re-shaping, nurturing and enriching their realities in a shared praxis, to ultimately and collaboratively acquire knowledge that could improve their lives, by fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, using both CCW and CP.

2.7 THE ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER WHEN USING COMMUNITY CULTURAL WEALTH AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

As the researcher I played several roles in the study: creator, initiator, mobiliser, convener, coordinator, leader, co-researcher and interpreter. First, I had to create a conducive learning environment, in which learners could benefit from a strengthened understanding of tourism, not only for passing examinations, but also for alleviating poverty. Secondly, after creating a space for social interaction, community members were identified, mobilised, and invited into the school to take part in the teaching and learning of their children. By bringing community members and learners together, I became a coordinator and convener who ensured that learners and community members were at ease and comfortable with one another. Through initiating dialogue, I was able to break barriers, and I motivated other co-researchers to take charge and ownership of the study (Keistin & Stichter, 2011: 98).

The researcher empowers co-researchers, making them feel comfortable and that they are worthy partners (Boog, 2003: 423, 425). I, as the researcher, also became a co-researcher, contributing to finding solutions to the problem of poverty, acknowledging that I could not provide solutions to the problem at hand on my own, and that the solution, or knowledge, could come from multiple perspectives. The

benefit of treating others with humility and care is that they assume the ownership of problems (Mahlomaholo & Netshandama, 2012: 40).

Finally, I was left with the task of acting an interpreter. Rosenthal and Khalil (2010: 72) indicate that the researcher should interpret other people's interpretations to create meaning, otherwise a great deal of data, verbal and written, could easily lose meaning. In this study, I had to select relevant information and interpret what was said by other co-researchers in the discussions relating to the aim of the study.

2.8 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE RESEARCHER AND CO-RESEARCHERS

Barry (2012: 18) contends that the initial interaction between the researcher and co-researchers is vital for establishing meaningful relationships. The relationships should be based on respect, trust, recognition of one another, openness and open-mindedness in communication. Meaningful dialogue, as a method of collecting data (Chilisa, 2012: 23), encourages freedom of expression, leading to social change and transformation. The study had a transformative agenda, seeking to improve the lives of the people who participated in it, particularly the learners, and at the same time enhanced equality regarding knowledge production between the researcher and co-researchers. In the process of bringing together teachers, learners and community members, the researcher sincerely humbled himself, and made them feel welcome, and showed them that their views would be respected, as an answer or solution to solving the poverty challenges of the underprivileged learners.

2.9 LIMITATIONS OF COMMUNITY CULTURAL WEALTH AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Moeller and Bielfeldt (2011: 92) contend that Yosso's (2005) CCW was developed in the context of marginalised Hispanic cultures, and wanted to tell a counter story. They maintain that the validity of CCW has not yet been tested in a Native American context. In agreeing, Ako-Asare (2015: 23) makes the point that research done on CCW remains limited in scope, and therefore does not provide a full understanding of the theory. In my view, the shortcoming of CCW lies largely in the fact that Yosso (2005) provides a one-sided argument, in favour of People of Colour and low-income

communities. I want to hear the voices of privileged White people too. I am interested in their views on their own cultural wealth, and not only the cultural wealth of underprivileged cultures. Apart from Bourdieu (1986), who else talks about White culture being superior to others? What exactly do other scholars say to support Bourdieu? This alternative viewpoint would make CCW a more balanced theory.

Another critic of CCW is Gladwell (2008), who contends that academic success, and many other successes in life, do not depend on Yosso's (2005: 69-91) six forms of capital. He calls CCW a myth. He believes that it is not enough to hustle and work hard. The most important mix of prerequisites for success, according to him, is luck, being at the right place at the right time; and secondly, being born into a wealthy family with royal or political connections, which makes climbing the social ladder easy. He provides examples of billionaires who achieved success because of luck and inheritance of wealth. In other words, success can be bought. Without the means to buy it, as is the case with underprivileged communities, the chances of achieving success are slim. Gladwell also values experiential knowledge, and claims that it takes about 10 years practising one skill in order to become good and successful at it.

I agree with Gladwell (2008) on the value of experiential knowledge, which was why community members were invited to impart this knowledge and skills to the learners. However, I generally find Gladwell (2008) too dismissive of other good values, such as being ambitious and hardworking, even if one does not become very successful in financial terms. Secondly, he does not suggest what should replace the values he rejects, to emancipate and empower needy and underprivileged people. At least, in addition to being ambitious and hardworking, Yosso (2005) suggests that we try to achieve success by applying CCW principles. Yosso (2005) is not opposed to luck, or inheriting wealth, or practising a skill until someone achieves mastery, or having royal and political connections.

Learners took action to uplift themselves from poverty by engaging in a self-reliance project to sell crafts, assisted by teachers and community members at the initial stage. Doing this for months improved their entrepreneurial skills and experiential knowledge, which would benefit them beyond school too. Moreover, their attitudes towards the environment, as a useful resource that provided them with wood, straws

and clay to enhance their learning and livelihood, changed and became more positive. They began to appreciate how their lives were connected to other people, and to the environment, and therefore understood why they had to be more caring towards them.

A limitation of CP is that sometimes the idea that what belongs to everybody belongs to nobody could develop; that is, ownership and responsibility over the common good could be weakened by being shared by too many individuals, unless there is a strong leadership in the form of a chief and working-committee structures under him or her, to provide oversight, supervision and monitoring of the community's project. However, if firm action is taken against those whose participation is questionable, bad blood and animosity may develop among community members, destroying the desired harmony and cooperation needed for the success and sustainability of the project.

The composition of the community could be a limitation. For example, certain religious groups may oppose working on Saturdays, or certain cultural practices in the community, such as boys attending initiation school. Thus, cultural diversity may not always be complementary. In some cultures women and girls are prevented from carrying out certain duties, which means their participation is discriminated against. Shepherd (1998: 149, 183) elaborates on gender issues and training needs to improve the quality of CP. Certain community projects may need technical skills, and, therefore, special capacity-building endeavours, which may not always be available. Thus, the heterogeneity of the community necessitates a delicate balancing act, which may not always be successful.

2.10 CONCLUSION

In an attempt to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, the study used CP and referred to Yosso's (2005) CCW, which demonstrates and values the community's strengths, assets, talents, skills and lived experiences, as capital that can help the community's school-going children to cope with school challenges. CP strategies and their application were considered, and community members were invited into the classroom to demonstrate their talents and skills for making crafts to needy learners, who could reproduce and sell the products to address the life

challenges of poverty, and strive to achieve self-reliance, as encouraged and expected by Lesotho's 2009 integrated curriculum policy document. Lemmer (2007: 218) claims that CP has a positive effect on teachers, learners, and parents, irrespective of the socio-economic background in which it takes place (Van Wyk, 2008: 5).

I could conclude that school administrations should pay special attention to Shaeffer's (1994) Ladder for Analysis of Participation in Education, which lays a useful model, or framework, which indicates the levels of CP, from zero participation (because the school administration is undemocratic and oppressive), to 100 percent participation (because the school administration values democratic principles and promotes freedom of expression for all stakeholders, including learners and parents, thereby contributing to building the school and quality education). The convergence of CCW and CP appears to be convenient as it places the community at the centre of the study.

CHAPTER 3 : RELATED LITERATURE ON FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The study aims to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, using CP and CCW. To achieve this broad aim, the chapter begins by defining curriculum and integrated curriculum, followed by models of an integrated curriculum, and Harden's (2000) steps of integration. Next I explain the philosophy behind the introduction of Lesotho's 2009 integrated curriculum, which marked a departure from the 1966 examination-oriented curriculum (Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 1-2). Strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum and its benefits for teachers, pedagogy, and learners, are dealt with. The benefits of an integrated curriculum are provided, with a focus on the transfer of learning to foster self-reliance.

Tourism as a school subject is another important component of this chapter, hence its definition, followed by reasons advanced by different countries for its inclusion in curricula. I indicate the similarities and differences between these reasons, and ultimately discuss Lesotho's rationale for introducing tourism education in 2011. The study demonstrates that tourism teaching in Lesotho is mostly theoretical, and fails to meet the expectations of the 2009 integrated curriculum, which emphasises the teaching of practical, creative, productive and entrepreneurial skills, which would lead to the alleviation of poverty, self-reliance and self-employment (MoET, 2009: viii-3, 18). The study also explores alternative ways of teaching the integrated tourism curriculum that might yield better results and improve conditions facing underprivileged learners. The remainder of the chapter is dedicated to assessing an integrated tourism curriculum, and responding to the objective questions of the study through literature, ending with a conclusion.

3.2 DEFINITION OF CURRICULUM

According to Pratt (1994: 5), the term curriculum originates from the Latin word, *currere*, which means a racing course or track. In the 19th century, the term metamorphosed into curriculum, and described a classical education, taught in Greek. In the 20th century the description of curriculum included subjects at schools. Wood and Davis (1978:16) define curriculum as all the subjects that make up a programme of study offered by a school. The culture and needs of the local community used to be strongly reflected in past curricula, but today, because of the internationalisation of education, globalisation and technology, that is no longer the case (Hayden, 2012: 2).

Contemporary definitions of curriculum have become broader, going beyond subjects and syllabuses. Lunenburg (2011: 1) defines curriculum as organised content or subject matter, with a plan of teaching that has elements of evaluation, including learning experiences by learners based on the content learnt, and as behavioural objectives to show learning outcomes, based on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy, which suggests that evaluation should be on cognitive, affective and psychomotor attributes. Thus, curriculum encompasses academic subjects such as languages, mathematics, literature, sciences; practical skills for enjoyment, through the arts, drama and music; professions requiring both academic and practical skills, as in law, medicine and teaching; and vocational skills, as in welding, agriculture, plumbing and tourism (Lunenburg, 2011: 1-2).

Su (2012: 153) defines curriculum as a means of, "achieving specific educational goals and objectives", and evaluating what has been achieved. Su (2012: 154) emphasises methodology in the teaching/learning of content, so that curriculum is not only about what is taught, but also about how it is taught. The definitions of Wood and Davis (1978) and Su (2012), highlight an important point, namely, that different scholars define curriculum differently, depending on their inclinations. In this case, Wood and Davis (1978:16) emphasise content, while Su (2012: 153-154) emphasises goals/objectives and methodology. A more encompassing definition is provided by Stabback (2016: 6-8), who understands curriculum as the "what, why, how and when students should learn" to acquire and develop knowledge, skills and values for self and national development.

Including all these curriculum components in a definition of curriculum is important, though I think the focus should be on the sequence of the components. First, should come a vision for national development, followed by developing goals and a rationale from the vision; then, developing the content/subject matter for the vision and goals, having teachers for planning, and methodology for the delivery of content, refining goals into manageable objectives for the content, providing teaching aids/resources and facilities, teaching and learning, learning experiences, assessment of the learning experiences or outcomes, a conducive environment, and extra-curricular activities such as sports and music. Ultimately, as Wang (2008: 16) asserts, curriculum must address societal socio-economic challenges through the programmes and studies it offers. In this study, an integrated tourism curriculum was expected to alleviate poverty and foster self-reliance among underprivileged learners at Phela High School, where I teach.

Finally, it is worth noting that there are different types of curricula. One type of curriculum is the intended curriculum, that is, the planned, the written/formal, supported, operational, taught or enacted curriculum, which is usually an assessed curriculum (Porter, 2004: 1; Stabback, 2016: 8) that is implemented in guided and controlled settings. Another type of curriculum is the unintended curriculum, or hidden curriculum, which is taught in settings that are uncontrolled, mainly outside the classroom, impacted by relationships between learners and their teachers, between learners themselves, by societal and cultural structures, and by socio-economic conditions (Stabback, 2016: 8). Both intended and unintended curricula constitute what is called the learnt curriculum. An integrated curriculum falls within the intended curriculum, and it is the one about which this study was undertaken.

3.2.1 Definition of integrated curriculum

An integrated curriculum is an educational approach that uses interactive cross-curricular means to produce knowledge, or to enhance the understanding of concepts (Brauer & Ferguson 2015: 314; Park 2008: 308-309). In integrated curriculum, themes and topics are interrelated, and teaching and learning are viewed in a holistic and interactive way, cutting across subject-matter lines, bringing together various aspects of the curriculum into meaningful association, reflecting the real

world, and providing learners with unified knowledge (Malik & Malik, 2011: 99). Curriculum integration refers to the synthesis of knowledge/facts, skills and attitudes, what Bloom et al. (1956, cited in Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314) call cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains. Thus, an integrated curriculum broadens the scope of understanding of the subject-matter, from different angles and disciplines in an integrated manner, and leads to realistic, life-long learning. An integrated curriculum supports the view that education should not departmentalise subject matter, but should make contextual connections to solve problems by looking at multiple perspectives, and to incorporate facts and knowledge from different sources. An integrated curriculum teaches learners about connections between concepts and ideas through the interaction of various disciplines, and discourages old-fashioned ways of learning, such as memorisation and recitation of isolated facts and figures. Learners should be guided to understand that subjects are connected and complement one another (Daly et al., 2012: 6), which broadens learners' scope of understanding. Beane (1997, cited in Magoma, 2016: 27), succinctly summarises definitions of integrated curriculum by saying that more integration means better benefits for learners, who perform better in standardised tests than learners being taught through conventional curricula, based on the assumption that, "most world problems are multidisciplinary in nature," and can be addressed best through an integrated approach. Shah and Jain (2016: 1430-1431) agree, and state that, "integrated teaching is more effective than traditional teaching," because learners understand the learning skills and the subject matter better.

The overall theme of integrated curriculum is that meaning, understanding and knowledge of a concept, such as tourism, should be learnt from more than one discipline: from mathematics, accounting, geography, development studies, agriculture. In this study, teachers of these subjects at Phela High School came together for a specified time to teach and discuss the concept of tourism with learners in a Form B (Grade 9) class, while, at the same time, paying attention to the vocational aspects of the subject by inviting community members with skills and talents for making crafts, to visit the school and transfer these skills to underprivileged learners. As stated in the problem statement, tourism teaching in Lesotho is still, however, generally theoretical and academic, despite the introduction

of an integrated curriculum in 2009, hence, the relevance of this study, which aimed to show how the status quo could be changed.

3.2.2 Models of an integrated curriculum

Several models of an integrated curriculum exist, but this study focuses on four of them: horizontal integration, vertical integration, problem-based and theme-based forms of integration.

3.2.2.1 Horizontal integration

Brauer and Ferguson (2015: 314) define horizontal integration as, “integration across disciplines but with finite period of time”. An example is the teachers of geography and development studies for Grade 9, who agreed to cover these objectives of tourism between January and June: defining tourism and tourist, identifying tourist attractions in Lesotho and in SADC countries (teacher X, January – March); advantages and disadvantages of tourism, ways to improve tourism (teacher Y, April – June). The advantage of this form of integration is that it brings teachers together to share expertise, co-plan the content that needs to be covered within the given time frame, and co-teach a class. Learners benefit from listening to different voices addressing different topics in the same subject, which is more refreshing and exciting than having to endure the same voice all the time. Because of this study, horizontal integration is now practised at Phela High School.

3.2.2.2 Vertical integration

This model, by Brauer and Ferguson (2015: 314), could be described and likened to the shape of a prism, in which a great deal of content is taught in the lower grades (8 and 9) of the secondary level, and less content at the upper level of Grade 10, to allow time for practicals, such as making and selling crafts to generate income for poverty alleviation and achieving self-reliance. The advantage of this model is that teachers still come together to share knowledge, based on qualifications, individual abilities and preferences, and agree who teaches the lowest grade, in this case

Grade 8; who teaches Grade 9, and who teaches the highest grade; that is, Grade 10. Given the opportunity, I would always teach the lowest grade, because the innocence and eagerness of young children appeals to me. Unfortunately, I am always confined to the upper grades at Phela High School. The disadvantage of this model is that much of content that had been covered at the lower grade might be forgotten by the time learners reach the upper grades, or even considered irrelevant by learners, because it was taught by a different teacher. This model, therefore, needs monitoring and follow-up by heads of department, to ensure that disadvantages do not prevail.

3.2.2.3 Problem-based model

Loepp (1999: 23-24) explains that the problem-based model poses complex high-order questions to learners, which require cross-curricular attempts to solve, including the use of technology. Loepp (1999: 23) exemplifies this model by asking, “How can the waste produced in a community be turned into an asset?” While the question is problem-based, it is also cross-curricular in nature, and requires responses from different disciplines. Answers could include references to recycling, preventing soil-erosion or making manure. At Phela High School the question that is frequently asked is, “How can we make our environment attractive to tourists?” Responses range from preventing soil erosion, planting trees, and joining community clean-up campaigns, and these suggestions are followed up by action. Learners in different grades are brought together, because the problem posed to them is of a general, but realistic, nature. The problem-based model encourages learners to look for answers and for the circumstances that surround the answer (Armitage, 2010: 4; Knyviene, 2014: 187).

3.2.2.4 Theme-based model

This model, by Loepp (1999: 24), is based on common themes across disciplines. For example, themes, such as resources, conservation, trade, industry, and agriculture, were identified in the subjects of geography, development studies, agriculture, and in tourism, at the secondary level at my school. As tourism is also

defined as a business, the teacher of accounting taught lessons relating to commerce and bookkeeping. The teachers co-plan and co-teach at an agreed time to save resources and time. This approach could be the commonest form of integration at schools, through both the horizontal and vertical forms of integration. For example, if resources and their conservation had been covered in Grade 8, there would be no need to do it in Grade 9, except for revision purposes for examinations. If trade and industry was taught in Grade 9, there would be no need to repeat it in Grade 10. The advantage in this model is that the themes are handled by teachers who are comfortable with the content. This is also practised at Phela High School. Themes inclined towards geography are taught by the researcher; themes inclined towards development studies are handled by the development studies teacher, and those that relate to agriculture are taught by the agriculture teacher. While integration took place at the academic and theoretical level, community members transferred their craft-making skills to underprivileged learners, thereby integrating tourism with practice to address practical life challenges of poverty and unemployment.

3.2.3 Harden's (2000) 11 Steps of Integration

Harden (2000) suggests that there are varying degrees of integration, with Step 1 below being unintegrated, and Step 11 being the most integrated. Educators can compare and measure integration in their institutions against Harden's (2000) 11 steps. The steps are self-explanatory, because Harden provides brief notes about each step. For example, Step 1 is characterised by isolated subject teaching; there is no co-planning or co-teaching of a subject by teachers. At Step 2, teachers develop some awareness that what they teach is found in other disciplines. At Step 3, teachers begin to think of harmonising common themes, and so on. By and large, Harden's (2000) model is reasonably detailed and elaborate, and easy to follow by schools that want to start the process of curriculum integration (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Levels of Harden's 11-step model of integration

Step number	Level	Action
Step 1	Isolation	Isolated subject-teaching takes place
Step 2	Awareness	Teachers are aware that what they teach is found in other disciplines too
Step 3	Harmonisation	Communication and bringing together similar content
Step 4	Nesting	Infusion takes place between courses
Step 5	Temporal coordination	Similar content covered in parallel across courses
Step 6	Sharing	Joint teaching on similar topics occurs occasionally
Step 7	Correlation	Integrated teaching introduced
Step 8	Complementarity	Several disciplines contribute to a theme
Step 9	Multidisciplinarity	Themes identified for co-planning and co-teaching, and effected
Step 10	Interdisciplinarity	Further development of commonalities between disciplines takes place
Step 11	Transdisciplinarity	Curriculum focuses on process of learners constructing meaning from different disciplines

Teaching at Phela High School has reached Step 6 (sharing) and Step 7 (correlation). Teachers have identified common themes in the subject of tourism, arranged them, and decided when and how to teach them, applying the horizontal, vertical, and theme-based models. However, as Raselimo and Mahao (2015: 8-9) observe, curriculum integration can be problematic in schools where teachers and departments do not get along well. What is important for teachers is to stay focused on the practical side of tourism by developing survival skills in learners to alleviate

poverty. Because most teachers lack the skills themselves, they should invite community members to transfer the skills to learners. Community members can be a useful resource for teaching and learning, and for the acquisition of practical and productive skills, as was the case at Phela High School.

Forgaty (1991) and Drake and Burns (2004) also developed continuums for an integrated curriculum, similar to Harden's (2000) model. Park (2008: 310) cautions that more or less integration does not necessarily mean good or bad, because contexts and circumstances of schools matter.

3.2.4 Philosophy behind Lesotho's integrated curriculum

Faced with a high unemployment rate, slow economic growth, poverty and disease such as HIV/AIDS, Lesotho's MoET sought to intervene through the introduction of an integrated curriculum in 2009. This initiative was a significant departure from the examination-oriented curriculum that had been in force since Lesotho had gained independence in 1966 (Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 1-2). MoET (2009: 6) reasoned that an integrated curriculum seeks to integrate theory/knowledge, skills/practicality and attitudes (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314; Malik & Malik, 2011: 99), thereby bringing back and emphasising the concept of "education with production" for self-reliance, in order to defeat problems of unemployment, poverty and disease (Nhlapo, 1998: 53-54). While learners are taught, every opportunity should be exploited to relate theory/knowledge with the outside world of practice, to achieve self-reliance. Learners should use education to emancipate themselves from poverty, by being creative, productive and entrepreneurial (MoET, 2009: 11). The integrated curriculum, therefore, brought a shift in the method of teaching, from the teacher as a transmitter of knowledge, to the teacher as a facilitator of learning; that is, from teacher-centredness to learner-centredness (Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 7). Teachers should help learners to discover knowledge, instead of providing it, and guide them to find ways of applying the acquired knowledge and skills to solve real-life problems (Mahlomaholo, 2010: 16-17). Learners should take greater responsibility for their learning (MoET, 2009: viii).

To solve their problems, Basotho believe in *matsema* [group work or cooperatives], like the saying, "together we stand, divided we fall" (MoET, 2009: ii, 6). Basotho

believe that *lefu la noha ke ho tsamaea e le 'ngoe* [the weakness of a snake is to walk alone]. They believe that *kopano ke matla* [unity is power]; that *lets'oele le beta poho* [a crowd can overpower a bull]; that *lehlanya lea bokaneloa* [a lunatic can be brought under control by many people; there is no problem that can defeat many people]; that *ntja-peli ha e hloloe ke sebata* [two dogs cannot be defeated by a lion]. Through cooperation and collaborative effort, there is no challenge that can defeat a school or a community. Van Roekel (2008: 1) holds that today's approach to education includes, school-family-community partnerships, mothers and fathers, stepparents, grandparents, foster parents, other relatives and caregivers, business leaders and community groups, all participating in goal-oriented activities, at all grade levels, linked to student achievement and school success.

This attitude fits in with the Basotho's spirit of *matsema* for solving problems. Togetherness, cooperation and collaboration, in learning and solving problems, are hallmarks of an integrated curriculum.

Basotho also have a proverb, *mphe-mphe ea lapisa molekane, motho o khonoa ke sa ntlo ea hae* (MoET 2009: 5), which means, unless you have your own, you will never be satisfied. This maxim encourages individuals to work hard for self-reliance, economic growth and independence. When wealth has been accumulated in households through hard work, Basotho are conscious of those who have been left behind and, therefore, make a contribution through a system called *mafisa* (MoET, 2009: 6). A poor household is given a cow so that its members have milk to drink and eat. In the future, the cow will bear calves that will grow to become cattle, which may be shared further, until that poor household and community have been lifted out of poverty. This generosity and benevolence is in keeping with the Basotho saying, *motho ke motho ka batho*, meaning, one is what s/he is because of others. In Lesotho, this attitude is referred to as *botho* – aspects of humanity, such as helping the needy (MoET 2009: 6); in South Africa it is called *ubuntu*.

It is through this spirit of generosity and human caring that vulnerable and orphaned children are looked after and taken care of in the community, and efforts applied to ensure they attend school, like other children. Community members ensure that these children have food, shelter and clothing, while the school assists to find scholarships for other school requirements. "Thus, the Basotho is a rich legacy from

which education should learn a great deal”, because Moshoeshe I founded the Basotho nation “on principles of justice, peace and aspects of humanity” (MoET 2009: 6). When Basotho greet one another, they say “peace!” (*khotso!*). These aspects of Basotho life are portrayed in the Constitution of Lesotho (1993) and in the Education Act (2010), both of which declare free primary education for all Basotho children.

In the context of this study, aspects of *ubuntu*, such as humility, respect, generosity, hospitality, sharing, cooperation and collaboration, were revived and conveyed to the focus group of 10 learners, who were supposed to be assisted to make craft products to sell for a living. They were expected to participate and contribute to the discussion of finding solutions to their plight, while, at the same time, affording community members the same respect learners showed to their teachers, in keeping with the Basotho culture of respect.

The MoET policy document highlights the fact that the new curriculum is aimed at exposing learners to “the world of work” by equipping them “with knowledge and skills to participate in productive and income generating” ventures. “Learners should develop entrepreneurial skills that will facilitate [the] creation of employment and alleviation of poverty.” For learners to realise this broad objective, they are expected to exploit resources in the environment in a profitable but sustainable manner, and “develop and demonstrate positive attitudes and values towards self-reliance and world of work” (MoET, 2009: 18). Figure 3.1 shows the cover page of this document.

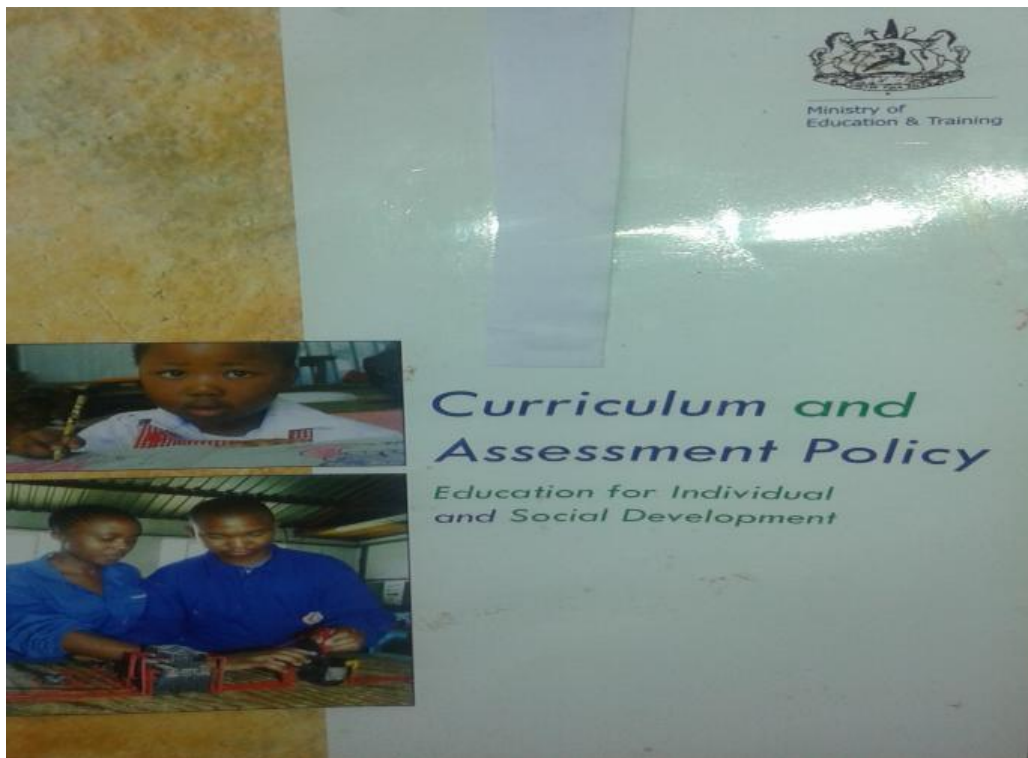


Figure 3.1: Cover page of the MoET integrated curriculum policy document (2009)

However, as was indicated in the problem statement (see 1.3), teachers in Lesotho are not following the 2009 integrated curriculum; learners are not taught skills that expose them to the world of work, or taught entrepreneurial skills for the creation of employment and alleviation of poverty. Learners are taught theory so that they can pass examinations; hence the relevance of this study to bridge the gap between theory and practice, by using community members with appropriate talents and skills, which teachers do not have, to teach learners to make and sell crafts to generate income.

3.2.5 Strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum

Malik and Malik (2011: 99-100) state that it is important to know the different levels of an integrated curriculum in order to change an existing one, or to implement a new one. Implementers should also decide whether integration is to be done gradually, or

whether the whole institution is to be covered at once – these decisions will depend on availability of qualified personnel, resources and facilities. The following suggestions by a range of literature could be useful (Badugela, 2012: 21; Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 312-315; Daly et al., 2012: 11; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011: 717; Hubball & Burt, 2004: 55; Malik & Malik, 2011: 99-103; Freire, 1970: 58, 85; MoET, 2009: v, 21-22; Park, 2008: 314; Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 7; Shankar, 2014: 75).

- Conduct a comprehensive needs assessment;
- Train the staff members;
- Decide on the level and scope of integration;
- Strive for both horizontal and vertical integration;
- Establish working groups and clarify their responsibilities;
- Determine high-order learning outcomes, not narrow and simplistic outcomes;
- Identify content for knowledge, skills and attitudes;
- Identify common themes that promote the transfer of learning;
- Prepare a comprehensive and comprehensible timetable;
- Select appropriate assessment methods;
- Communicate with staff and learners;
- Commit to re-evaluation and revision;
- Develop closer links with the community;
- Adopt a pragmatic approach to integrated curriculum; and
- Avail adequate resources and facilities.

Read together with the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum policy document, these strategies could serve as a useful guide to teachers in Lesotho. However, they don't seem to be aware of this advice, as they have failed to integrate the curriculum, particularly of tourism, and to equip underprivileged learners with survival skills for making and selling crafts to generate income. Perhaps, teachers do not realise that community members could come to their rescue, by providing the skills and talents that they (teachers) do not have. Perhaps, capacity-building through workshops by the MoET was also lacking. Without adequate knowledge and understanding of an integrated curriculum, teachers continue teaching tourism as if it is an academic, not a vocational subject.

3.2.6 Benefits of an integrated curriculum

This part of the study focuses on the benefits of an integrated curriculum to teachers, pedagogy, and learners, and how it facilitates the transfer of learning, whether positive, negative or neutral transfer. I present the theory of generalisation of experience, since it also hinges on the transfer of learning.

3.2.6.1 Benefits of an integrated curriculum for teachers and pedagogy

It has been demonstrated that an integrated curriculum brings different teachers and disciplines together in the spirit of teamwork to address common themes and topics, depending on their interrelatedness (Park, 2008: 309); to take advantage of the brain's capacity to make better connections in multiple contexts; and to deepen and broaden the learners' understanding in all domains: cognitive, psychomotor, affective (Bloom 1956, cited in Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314). An integrated curriculum enhances a sense of community among teachers, as professionals, through collaborative meetings to address wide-ranging questions on rationale, philosophy, vision, pedagogy, content for knowledge, skills, attitudes, and assessment methods. Teachers plan together, revise plans, implement them, and revise the implementation strategy to help learners acquire new knowledge and skills.

The rationale and justification for applying an integrated curriculum originates from teachers' frustration that there is never enough time to finish the syllabus (Park, 2008: 312). Teaching overlapping concepts and ideas by sharing them to avoid duplication, could save resources and time so that the syllabus can be completed, and strengthen understanding and retention. In addition, interaction among teachers and other professionals in the field of education promotes team spirit and team teaching. Social and academic interaction leads to the construction of new meaning, understanding, ideas, concepts and knowledge, as advocated by social constructivism (Boog, 2003: 428; Chilisa, 2012: 40; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011: 717). Learners learn and make connections across disciplines, and making connections among several disciplines enriches the learning environment for problem-solving (Mahlomaholo, 2013: 2).

The idea that teachers work as facilitators is based on the understanding that every child or adult learner, comes to school from the community and nation, bringing with him or her community and national values, such as identity, unity, patriotism, peace, tolerance, norms, morals, integrity, attitudes, sense of respect and justice, equality before the law, and respect for fundamental rights (MoET 2009: 5). These ideals resonate with Yosso's (2005) CCW, which learners bring with them from their communities. Like in CCW, an integrated curriculum recognises indigenous knowledges, wisdom, lived experiences, talents and skills of community members (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Mahlomaholo, 2013: 317-318), who could be brought into the classroom as teaching aids and resources to show how tourism could benefit the learners in a practical sense.

3.2.6.2 Benefits of an integrated curriculum for learners

Central to an integrated curriculum is the active construction of knowledge by learners from multiple perspectives (Park, 2008: 308-309). Their motivation for schooling grows; they participate more, are more diligent about doing school and homework, and take charge of their learning. Instead of competing amongst themselves, learners collaborate and cooperate more. There is greater intellectual curiosity among learners, because world problems require integrated solutions (Loepp, 1999: 21). When learners focus on real problems that are worth solving, their motivation for learning increases, they attend classes and do more schoolwork, and improve their performance overall.

Apart from gaining a strengthened and holistic understanding of concepts, learners acquire new knowledge and skills to solve the life challenges of poverty and unemployment. Their attitudes to manual work become more positive; they become productive and entrepreneurial -- after all, few white-collar jobs are available (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 238; Msuya, Ahmad, Kalunguizi, Busidi, Rwabali & Machinda, 2014: 103-104; Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 9, citing Ansell, 2002). The main goal of an integrated curriculum is to help learners acquire knowledge, through broader and deeper understanding, and the ability to retain it, and to acquire skills, and apply them in their everyday lives (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 312).

Gardner's (2000) theory of multiple intelligences, cited in Lake (2000: 3), reveals that the brain organises new knowledge on the basis of previous experiences and contexts, and that the brain processes many things at the same time, so that holistic experiences are recalled quickly and easily. The brain seeks patterns and resists information that is fragmented and presented in isolation, as in a subject-based approach. The human brain enables learning to take place faster and more thoroughly when learning is presented within meaningful contexts, a condition that is encouraged in an integrated curriculum. Park (2008: 308) supports this view by indicating that there is a discrepancy between learners' holistic perceptions of the world and the artificial fragmentation of content in textbooks, resulting in learners being alienated and disconnected from teaching and learning. When subjects and teachers are brought together to interact and provide learners with context-based explanations, transfer of learning takes place easily, and understanding is enhanced.

3.2.6.3 Transfer of learning as a benefit of an integrated curriculum

In an integrated curriculum social interaction facilitates the transfer of learning within and across disciplines; that is, inter- and trans-disciplinary transfer, in contrast to the memorisation and recitation of facts and figures in an isolated subject-based approach (Daly et al., 2012: 6; Loepp, 1999: 21). Transfer of learning means the carrying over of knowledge, skills, habits and attitudes from one situation to another (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4). An integrated curriculum becomes fertile ground for this process to take place, because it brings together learners and teachers from different disciplines. Previous experience and knowledge of constructing new knowledge is vital in an integrated curriculum, including knowledge that has to be transferred from other disciplines. Learning in the past should be transferred to the present, so that the brain can find patterns and networks, and connect the dots to construct new knowledge. There are three ways learning can be transferred: positive transfer, negative transfer, and neutral transfer.

a) Positive transfer of learning

Positive transfer occurs when learning in one situation facilitates learning in another situation. For example, skills in riding a donkey by a tourist facilitate learning to ride a horse. Thorndike and Woodworth (1901, cited by Royer, 1978: 10-11), suggest that

most transfer occurs when learning is between similar or identical elements, as in the case of riding a donkey and later learning to ride a horse. The degree of transfer increases as the similarity of elements increases, as in the case of community members teaching children how to make grass hats in their communities, and then transferring the same teaching to school, this time teaching learners to make straw hats. Grass and straw are basically the same.

b) Negative transfer of learning

Negative transfer occurs when the learning of one activity makes the learning of another task harder (Royer, 1978: 2-3). For example, if a tourist learns to ride a bicycle, it will not help learning to ride a horse, because the skills that are learnt are not similar. The skills needed to ride a bicycle may make learning to ride a horse harder, since a horse is a large, unpredictable animal with four legs; unlike a bicycle, a horse can jump, kick and bite!

c) Neutral transfer of learning

Neutral transfer is also called zero transfer, because learning of one activity neither facilitates nor hinders the learning of another task (Royer, 1978: 42). That is, learning of one activity is an end in itself; it has nothing to do with the next task. A tourist learning to ride a bicycle has nothing to do with learning to ride donkeys and horses. Similarly, it would mean community members make hats, wood sculptures and clay artefacts for themselves in the community, and do not transfer their knowledge, talents and skills to learners in the school environment.

3.2.6.4 Theory of generalisation of experience

This theory assumes that what is learnt in X transfers to Y, because in studying X the learner developed a general principle that applies in part or completely to both X and Y (Moloi, 2013: 489). Knowledge, skills, experiences, habits and attitudes gained in one situation help learners to cope and adapt in another situation. Generalisation involves perceiving and understanding what is common to a number of situations. The ability of individuals to generalise knowledge varies with intelligence. General knowledge could be likened to learners possessing Yosso's (2005) six forms of capital, which they bring from their communities (X), which help them cope in an

unfamiliar and sometimes hostile and unsupportive educational environment (Y). The general knowledge they have acquired in the community, of communicating, interacting, navigating and resisting, is transferrable and applicable, and can help them to cope at school.

Another analogy can be drawn from the fact that, in rural Lesotho, boys perform two distinct roles: the first is looking after cattle and working in the fields early in the mornings (04:00 to 06:00) and after school (16:00 to 18:00), and the second role is attending school, learning. While looking after animals, which mow grass repetitively without talking, boys become lonely and bored, and keep themselves busy by making hats from straw/grass, which they wear on their heads to protect them from the sun's heat. They acquire the skill to make hats from their fathers or brothers. Sometimes, they sell these hats to passing tourists, and to other community members, to generate income for themselves. Their general knowledge of making hats and selling them (X), has to be revived, transferred and applied at school (Y), this time under the supervision and guidance of community members and teachers, to alleviate poverty and foster self-reliance.

In brief, firstly, the transfer of learning occurs easily when the material being learned shares common features with previously learned material; secondly, transfer is also concerned with, "how the acquired knowledge and skills in schools can help learners solve real world problems" (Royer, 1978: 3), leading to self-reliance.

3.2.6.5 Self-reliance as a benefit of an integrated curriculum

Perhaps, the most important benefit of an integrated curriculum is that it fosters self-reliance, due to its emphasis on the teaching and learning of practical and productive skills (MoET, 2009: viii-3). This benefit is significant and central to the study, and is therefore strongly advanced and justified, by, among other investigations, defining self-reliance, outlining its historical origins, its objectives, principles of procedure to effect it, and strategies for its implementation. Challenges to the implementation of self-reliance conclude this part, with a view to avoiding challenges, where possible.

a) Definition of self-reliance

According to Ezeh and Ekemenzie (2015: 227), self-reliance is synonymous with self-sufficiency and self-independence; that is, doing things for oneself without expecting external assistance, or support, for survival. Self-reliance is the ability to address problems independently in a sustainable manner. Decision-making is self-sufficient, with the opportunity to ask for advice, if necessary. Ezeh and Ekemenzie (2015: 227) show, further, that self-reliance refers to having achieved personal autonomy through the acquisition of survival and practical skills through self-employment courses, personal management courses, creative thinking, entrepreneurship, financial management, vocational and technical courses, and information communication technology. Ezeh and Ekemenzie (2015: 228) conclude that academic courses that do not lead to the acquisition of entrepreneurship skills do not prepare students for “different career paths in a constantly changing world”.

Omede (2012: 296) claims that self-reliance is seen as the production of job-creators, not job-seekers. And this, according to him, can only happen if students are exposed to practical and entrepreneurial subjects. This resonates with Shepherd (1998: 58-59) and Ezeh and Ekemenzie (2015: 227), who contend that self-reliance is synonymous with self-help efforts for personal and national development, and is achieved through acquisition of practical and entrepreneurial skills.

b) Historical origins

Julius Nyerere, former president of Tanzania, popularised the concept of self-reliance in 1967, in his book, *Education for Self-Reliance*. He called on all Tanzanian schools and institutions of higher learning to prepare learners to become future self-reliant citizens, by doing production programmes or self-reliant activities that are community-based. In the early 1960s, during the dawn of independence in Africa, Nyerere and others complained that Western education was too theoretical and academic, and prepared learners only to be job-seekers of white-collar jobs, instead of being job-creators. He held that curricula need to be vocational, and should emphasise practical skills, so that learners would be able to address the practical life challenges of poverty in their communities.

Harper (1989: 72) agrees that literature on self-reliance arrived with Nyerere's *Education for Self-Reliance* in 1967. Before then, literature spoke of education with

production, political education, democratic learning, and relevance education. The rhetoric was in tune with Africa's quest for independence of the time; however, these politically laden terms also proposed an integrated approach to learning, in which theory had to be balanced with practice, as a key to full intellectual development (Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 30). It would appear that the concept of self-reliance embodied these concepts that preceded it, all of which emphasised acquiring practical, creative, productive and entrepreneurial skills (MoET, 2009: viii-3) for personal self-employment and self-fulfilment.

Dodd (1969: 6) states that curriculum was expected to reflect the needs of the community, and depended on school location. For example, in an agricultural area, focus would be on agriculture; in a pastoral area, focus would be on animal husbandry; in urban areas, focus would be on commerce and industrial subjects; girls did homecrafts, while boys did wood- and metalwork. Due to this kind of specialisation and work-related school programme, Morrison (1976: 59) reports that, after completing the sixth grade at primary school, learners could be employed or become self-employed, because of the skills they had acquired.

Work-related schooling was transferred from America and Europe to Australia, New Zealand, the West Indies and Africa, mostly by church missionaries and colonial governments. Africa started offering agriculture as a subject in the 1880s in Sierra Leone and the Gold Coast (Cote d'Ivoire), and then in Kenya and Tanzania in the 1920s (Graham, 1971: 61). It was believed that relevant rural education that encouraged and emphasised practical and work-related programmes, could offer an answer to transformation efforts and community upliftment in Africa.

Among the factors that influenced Nyerere, could have been the Progressive Education Movement in the USA, which was championed by John Dewey in the early 1900s (Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 2). This movement emerged out of discontent with academic education that emphasised disciplinary knowledge over work-related programmes. Dewey argued that education should democratise schooling, so that learners were free to air their views, and help them acquire practical skills in preparation for the world of work.

c) Rationale and justification for educating for self-reliance

The aim of education for self-reliance is to produce school leavers with the necessary knowledge and skills to create jobs for themselves and for others, and contribute to the country's economic growth and development. Higher education seems to have failed to produce learners who are equipped with creative and entrepreneurial skills, who are job-creators instead of aspiring to enter white-collar jobs (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 238; Nyerere, 1967: 2; Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 64, 83-84; Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 9, citing Ansell, 2002).

Msuya et al. (2014: 103-104) explain that education for self-reliance develops in learners a positive attitude to agriculture and other hands-on skills. The habits of doing manual work, working hard and endurance, take root, and young people develop the capacity to transfer school knowledge necessary for self-employment to real-life situations. Msuya et al. (2014: 104) advise that education for self-reliance should be matched with national socio-economic development plans, so that the education does not take place in isolation, but is part of a national transformative agenda.

The quest for self-reliance makes learners develop positive attitudes and values, such as self-esteem, resourcefulness, creativity, initiative, courage, responsibility, discipline, diligence, loyalty, endurance, obedience, being painstaking, honesty, critical thinking, hard work, commitment and dedication (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227; Osalusi, 2014: 734). Individuals who hold these diverse virtues/values are able to work collectively in teams and independently as individuals; they are highly flexible, adaptable and productive.

However, it has to be remembered that these development of attitudes and values find fertile ground in Yosso's (2005) CCW, whose central thesis is that learners bring with them from the community the six forms of capital: aspirational, linguistic, familial, social, navigational and resistance capital, which help them succeed at school and in life (see 2.3.4). What is of significance at this juncture is to demonstrate that Yosso's (2005) theory makes a contribution to achieving self-reliance.

d) Objectives of education for self-reliance

Two versions of these objectives are presented. The first is the original set of objectives for self-reliance proposed by Nyerere (1967) himself, which have been

simplified and paraphrased by Twalo (2010: 835). The second set represents an improvement of the earlier objectives of education for self-reliance by Sinclair and Lillis (1981: 81). These objectives, those of the 1960s and of the 1980s, provide a useful guide to what work-related programmes aim to achieve. Most of the objectives are self-explanatory. Nyerere's original set of objectives is as follows (Twalo, 2010: 835):

- Education should be oriented to rural life, because the majority of people live in rural areas.
- Teachers and learners should engage in productive activities together, with learners participating in the planning and decision-making of such activities.
- Productive work should become an integral part of the school curriculum and provide a meaningful learning experience through the integration of theory and practice.
- The importance of examination should be downgraded.
- Children should begin school at age 7, which is old enough to engage in self-reliant and productive work when they leave school.
- Primary education should be complete in itself, instead of merely serving as a means to secondary education.
- Learners should become self-confident and cooperative, and develop critical and enquiring minds.

These earlier objectives for self-reliance have been improved and summarised as follows by Sinclair and Lillis (1981: 81):

- Give learners knowledge and skills that lead to productivity in manual occupations for self-employment and community upliftment.
- Influence learners' attitudes so that they embrace manual occupations and rural life.
- Develop qualities of character conducive to social stability and worker productivity, as well as to personal improvement on moral rectitude, perseverance, accuracy, creativity, self-reliance and cooperation.
- Lower the cost of schooling through the sale of the learners' crafts or agricultural produce.

- Attract learners to school by improving the relevance of education for addressing local life challenges of poverty and unemployment, and presenting outdoor activities as a learning aid and a rest from mental work.

A thorough evaluation of these self-reliance objectives and their relevance to the objectives of this study is done in 5.7.9. For these objectives to be implemented successfully, Sinclair and Lillis (1980: 121) suggest laying the groundwork in the form of principles for effective self-reliance implementation, as outlined below.

3.2.6.6 Principles for effective self-reliance implementation

a) Explain the rationale for self-reliance to learners and parents, and request input

The school should make sure that reasons for self-reliance initiatives are explained to learners and parents, and should ask for their input in the form of suggestions and mobilisation of resources. Involvement of learners and parents in decision-making right from the beginning of the project results in feelings of ownership, which augur well for the project's sustainability. Explaining the rationale helps to remove misconceptions that schools or teachers want to make money for themselves (Sinclair & Lillis, 1981: 122).

b) Involve learners in planning and administering activities

When learners understand the rationale for the self-reliance initiative, they should be involved in planning, so that they do not feel as if the project is imposed on them (Sinclair & Lillis, 1981: 123). Learners with leadership qualities can help the school administration by ensuring that deadlines of certain tasks are set and met. Learners who deviate from the vision and mission of the self-reliance project should be returned to the right track, and encouraged to focus on what has to be accomplished.

c) Teachers to share in the work

Teachers should do their share in the self-reliance work in order to be exemplary, and enhance the work to be done in the eyes of learners (Sinclair & Lillis, 1981: 123). They should provide learners with direction and leadership, and help them see the value of practical, hard work. Above all, teachers must motivate pupils to get

involved in work-related programmes. When teachers “get their hands dirty”, they cause learners to push themselves harder.

d) Activities should generate interest, and should be rewarded

Self-reliance activities should generate interest and excitement among learners, and should not be repetitive (Sinclair & Lillis, 1981: 123). When learners have succeeded in their endeavours of carrying out a project, they should be rewarded by sharing in the profits, so that they can see the fruits of learning (Keistin & Stichter, 2011: 98), and the practical efforts of the self-reliance initiative immediately.

e) Learners must work in small groups and as individuals

Learners should be allowed to express themselves in any way they feel comfortable, whether working in groups or as individuals in the self-reliance project. This stimulates creativity and divergent thinking (Sinclair & Lillis, 1981: 124).

f) Maximise learner choice

As far as possible, learners should be allowed to choose the self-reliance project they want to engage in, so that their creativity is stimulated. Naturally, learners will identify more with projects they selected for themselves (Sinclair & Lillis, 1981: 125). This principle is related to the principle in (e) above, which states that learners must be allowed to work in groups and as individuals, so that they can express themselves in the most creative, productive and comfortable manner.

g) Guiding learners towards self-direction and cooperation

The focus of the self-reliance project should not be lost, namely, teaching learners to become self-employed and self-directed in life, working in collaboration and cooperation with others, and not in competition (Sinclair & Lillis, 1981: 125). Their creativity and productivity in the project need the teacher’s guidance.

h) Using local resources

Learners should identify and make use of cheap local resources for starting the self-reliance project, because they do not have start-up capital. By identifying cheap local resources, they are already exhibiting creativity and resourcefulness.

i) Teach theory as well as practical work

The self-reliance project should emphasise the need to teach theory and practical work; indeed, for knowledge to be useful, it should be integrated into practice (Altun, 2013: 366). An integrated curriculum teaches knowledge and skills and improves attitudes towards work-related programmes.

j) Involve learners with local people and outside experts

Where teachers are short of adequate knowledge and skills, they should invite local people and outside experts who possess these skills and knowledge, to come to school and transfer them to the learners. In this study, community members were invited to the school to transfer their skills and talents for making crafts to underprivileged learners, so that the learners could make and sell the crafts to alleviate poverty and strive to achieve self-reliance.

Most of these principles are similar to those of effective CP, such as *flexibility in approach* and *inclusivity and equity*. This proves that these principles pull in one direction and reinforce one another in striving to achieve self-reliance. Strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum, such as being *pragmatic in approach*, *communicating with staff and learners*, and *developing links with the community*, can be added to the above mix to reinforce and improve effectiveness in realising self-reliance (see 3.2.5).

k) Strategies for implementing self-reliance

Strategies for implementing self-reliance programmes necessitate meetings, briefings, brainstorming, discussions and question-and-answer sessions, in order to understand the rationale and vision of the self-reliance project. Also paramount is ensuring emotional and psychological readiness to engage in the project for achieving self-reliance. At school level, a self-reliance project should be a consultative, collaborative and democratic activity between teachers, learners and community members, and should have a transformative agenda; it cannot be forced down the learners' throats. Sufficient efforts should be applied to make learners understand and appreciate the project's value, so as to enlist their full participation. School funds should be set aside to promote self-reliance initiatives.

It has been suggested that personnel training for capacity-building could be necessary for a successful implementation, depending on the magnitude and nature of the self-reliance project (Omede, 2012: 296; Shepherd, 1998: 183). In some cases, pre-service training in a sound vocational technical school might be needed from the onset, to avoid expensive mistakes in the project. At national level, self-reliance projects in schools should be budgeted for by government if they are to prosper.

1) Challenges to the implementation of self-reliance projects

Many challenges hamper the implementation of self-reliance projects. Few parents, especially in rural areas, regard manual or practical work highly (Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 64); this could be because their children are already exposed to practical work. Boys do gardening, raise pigs and chickens; feed and milk cows; make straw/grass hats, and even sell them. Girls have a reasonable knowledge of cooking, at least enough to satisfy their future husbands. So, parents do not expect their children, when they come to school, to get themselves dirty from soil and mud from outdoor activities. Parents expect their children to be taught in the classroom in order to pass the end-of-year examination, and to get a decent, well-paid job in town.

From the researcher's experience, vocational subjects have the stigma of generally being associated with academic underachievement. As a result, when learners are advised to follow a vocational career, they often feel insulted, and parents take them to another school. It is, indeed, a mammoth task to convince a learner and parents of the value of work-related subjects that could lead to self-employment and self-reliance, without giving them the impression that the learner is an academic underachiever.

The next challenge is that there is a thin line between teaching children to do manual work and illegal child labour, as exemplified by learners digging a long and deep horizontal furrow above the plots to prevent soil erosion. Some community members may wonder why such a "heavy-duty" task is carried out by children, and not by adults, and may raise their concerns and anger in parent meetings.

The most powerful and persistent argument against manual labour has been the low and uncertain earnings involved, compared to non-manual employment (Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 85), such as being a doctor, a lawyer, an engineer, a lecturer, or an

accountant. Thus, practical work and entrepreneurship involve risk-taking, and call for other related skills, such as marketing and promotion of the products to be sold. Selling craft products, for example, also depends very much on a stable political climate in the country; the absence of which could doom the self-reliance project to failure.

Another challenge is a possible mismatch between objectives of self-reliance at school level, with national priorities (Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 86). Schools in Tanzania were expected to offer agriculture to equip learners with survival skills, but schools did not have sufficient land to make the subject practical. Where land was available, there was water shortage, which meant they could not irrigate. Thus, the success of self-reliance in the country depends on holistic and coordinated planning from the grassroots to the top. Funds must be budgeted for self-reliance projects, so that they can achieve success and be sustainable at school and national levels. Tali, Mbaws and Abe (2012: 2) summarise the challenges facing self-reliance projects as a result of lack of curriculum integration, lack of instructional materials, poor government policy, too many learners, which may impede effective demonstration during practicals, and poor remuneration of teachers, among other factors.

3.3 TOURISM AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT

3.3.1 Definition of tourism

Tourism is the business of providing services for people who are travelling for holiday purposes (MEDAL, 2002: 1522), sight-seeing and visiting places of interest for leisure, refreshment, adventure and pleasure, usually for a period of between 24 hours and a year (Debeshe et al., 2005: 66; Haling, 2011: 15). Tourism is broadly defined as spatial mobility, “connected with a voluntary, temporary change of place, the rhythm of life and its environment and involving personal contact with the visited natural, cultural as well as social environment... more an instrument of integration and globalisation” (Przeclawski 1993, cited in Haling, 2011: 16).

Places that tourists like to visit usually possess natural beauty in the form of mountains, valleys, waterfalls, flowers and wildlife. These places could also be quiet and peaceful places, such as deserts, and deserted lakes and oceans. Man-made

structures, such as huge stadiums, skyscrapers, places of deep cultural and religious significance also attract tourists. Natural disasters, such as earthquakes, volcanic eruptions and tsunamis, cause tourism activities too, because people want to watch them as do huge sporting competitions, such as the FIFA World Cup or Miss World pageant. In these cases, host countries prepare to market themselves through the provision of services and customer care. The Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education Syllabus (2017: 8) on Travel and Tourism, identifies nine types of tourism, based on the above activities: educational tourism, business tourism, religious tourism, event tourism, sport tourism, adventure tourism, community-based tourism, cultural and heritage tourism, eco-tourism and health tourism.

Debeshe et al. (2005: 66) suggest that tourism should be seen as a service and a resource. As a service, tourism means making arrangements and preparations for visitors, providing information on their arrival; providing guidance, transportation and protection; changing currency, preparing meals and lodging; teaching them, if they so wish, common phrases in the local language. As a resource, tourism can be used as a means of earning a livelihood, by providing temporary (seasonal) and long-term jobs in the tourism industry. In other words, as a resource, tourism is a business, a source of income. Being employed to wash dishes at a hotel during Christmas and New Year holidays can be classified as temporary, while being a hotel receptionist, chef or hotel manager, could be a long-term job.

According to Leiper (1979, 1995, cited in Mayaka, 1999: 6), tourism is basically geographical. Domestic tourism involves people visiting places in their own country; while outbound tourism involves residents visiting other countries, and inbound tourism involves visitors coming to a certain country from their home countries. Tourism education at the secondary school level in Lesotho focuses mainly on inbound tourism, and a little on domestic tourism. Because of unemployment and poverty, Lesotho residents rarely visit other countries (outbound tourism), and if they do, a group of Basotho usually travel by bus. Therefore, the self-reliance crafts project of the underprivileged learners was targeted at both domestic and inbound tourists, including local customers.

Leiper (1995, cited in Mayaka, 1999: 9), suggests that tourism can be divided into at least seven sectors: marketing sector, carrier sector (transportation), accommodation

sector, attractions sector, tour operator sector, coordinating sector (organisations and associations involved), and a miscellaneous sector. When designing a tourism curriculum, great care should be exercised to incorporate all these sectors, depending on the level or class to be taught.

3.3.2 Reasons for tourism education

From literature, there seems to be two main reasons why countries include tourism in school curricula. The first reason that is frequently given is that tourism contributes significantly to the economic growth of countries. According to Lovrentjev 2015: 555) tourism contributes 30 percent of Croatia's GDP (gross domestic product), even though tourism is not performing to its best. Tourism also contributes to the national economy in Australia (City of Whitehorse, 2014: 10; Jafari, 1990: 33), in Kenya (Mayaka, 1999: 42), and Ghana (Sarkodie & Adom, 2015: 114). Dube (2014: 154) and Petersen (2015: 11) assert that the introduction of tourism as a school subject was due to its contribution to the South African economy and GDP, and redress the apartheid past by providing employment opportunities to previously oppressed people. In Lesotho, the Lesotho Tourism Development Corporation (2017: 34) reports that the travel and tourism industry contributed 11.8 percent to the GDP in 2015, translating into 79 500 jobs. This is a significant contribution in a country with a population of 1.953 million people (Lesotho Statistics Bureau & Population Census, 2016).

The second reason why the subject of tourism is included in curricula, is that tourism provides job opportunities in the tourism industry, and therefore plays a role in national development. Tourism accounts for about 13 percent of Croatia's employment rate (Lovrentjev, 2015: 556). Learners are taught skills needed by the tourism industry, so that they are immediately employable. In Ghana, Sarkodie and Adom (2015: 114) call this undertaking, of producing a skilled labour force, "bridging the gap" between tourism education and the tourism industry. "Bridging the gap" is also mentioned by Mayaka and King (2002: 113-114) with regard to Kenya. From the state level, down to district education departments, and to schools, these reasons or aims for tourism education in different countries are similar. However, when the aims

are refined into more specific objectives that are appropriate for teaching/learning in the classroom, small differences appear.

Indeed, similar objectives for tourism education in different countries are that learners need to understand travel and tourism; domestic, regional and international tourism; theory of the travel and tourism industry, and related sectors; practical abilities related to working in the travel and tourism industry; and developing critical awareness of the physical and socio-economic environment in which travel and tourism takes place. These similarities are true for the United Kingdom, India, Ghana, Kenya and Lesotho (Cambridge IGCSE, 2014: 7-8; Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education Travel and Tourism Syllabus, 2017: 7-8). In South Africa the objectives are far more detailed; they include culture and heritage tourism; marketing the country; communication and customer care; mapwork and tour planning (DBE, 2014: 1-13).

The above reasons/aims and objectives of teaching tourism echo those of Lesotho's integrated curriculum of 2009, by emphasising the acquisition of knowledge and productive and business skills relating to travel and tourism, and that these skills are for improving life (MoET, 2009: viii-3, 13). Unfortunately, these reasons/aims and objectives are not captured in the textbook objectives used in Lesotho secondary schools as shown below from Debeshe et al. (2005: 66-74); Lelala et al. (2004: 97-115), and Mokhosi (2005: 104-112):

- To define tourism and a tourist;
- To identify major tourist attractions in Lesotho and in the SADC region;
- To describe benefits and problems associated with tourism in SADC;
- To suggest ways of improving the tourism industry in Lesotho and in SADC; and
- To identify communication networks and modes of transport, and their impact on the environment.

These classroom/textbook objectives do not correspond with those of the 2009 integrated curriculum policy document, which aims to equip learners with creative, productive and entrepreneurial skills so that they can face and solve life challenges of poverty, and achieve self-reliance (MoET 2009: 18). These classroom/textbook objectives do not help teachers to satisfy the aspirations of the integrated curriculum.

There is a glaring gap between the two sets of objectives, a mismatch that this study attempts to bridge by practicalising tourism.

3.3.3 Integrated tourism curriculum teaching methods and approaches that can lead to self-reliance

This section explores tourism teaching methods and approaches that can lead to the attainment of self-reliance by every learner who should gain skills. The methods to be discussed are collaborative and multidisciplinary approaches, skills-based teaching, project-based teaching, WIL, and problem-based learning.

3.3.3.1 Collaborative and multidisciplinary teaching approaches

Collaborative and multidisciplinary teaching means teachers from different disciplines come together as professionals to share knowledge and expertise and methods of delivering the content, because learners should be taught that subjects are interconnected and complement one another (Daly et al., 2012: 6).

At Phela High School, the Grade 9 teachers of agriculture, mathematics and accounting decided to collaborate and teach tourism learners as follows. The agriculture teacher taught them to prevent soil-erosion by planting trees and grass, and how doing so, combined with community clean-up campaigns, would serve to attract tourists to the area surrounding the school. A mathematics teacher taught the same tourism class about foreign exchange, demonstrating how Lesotho gains from this concept. Visitors from other countries have to buy the Maluti currency at a profit to the country, so that the tourists are able to pay for services of transport, accommodation, food, entertainment. Some learners, who had visited Botswana in the past, recalled that, to buy P100.00 (Hundred Pula in Botswana currency), they had to pay a commission of P30.00. Then, the accounting teacher taught the same learners about proper bookkeeping practices and procedures, so that the proceeds of tourism can be saved and used to grow the industry for individual and national development. The accounting teacher emphasised that self-reliance cannot be achieved through wastefulness and extravagance, but through sound entrepreneurship practices, prioritisation and fiscal discipline.

The collaborative efforts of the three teachers of agriculture, mathematics and accounting in the Grade 9 tourism class illustrate the concept of the multidisciplinary teaching approach that took place at Phela High School in an effort to implement the integrated tourism curriculum, with the ultimate goal of helping learners achieve self-reliance (MoET, 2009: 18). Because of this study, this way of teaching has become common at Phela High School. The teachers' efforts consolidated the community's efforts of transferring skills for making crafts to underprivileged learners.

3.3.3.2 Skills-based teaching

Skills-based teaching involves helping learners to acquire practical skills for making or producing something of value with their hands, which can be used for survival or for business purposes (ILO, 2011: 2). Examples of skills taught at Phela High School are making tables and chairs from the subject of basic handcraft (known as carpentry until the 1980s, and then woodwork until the early 2000s). According to the International Labour Organization (2011: 2, 6), if vocational education is lacking in schools, vocational institutions beyond high school can train learners in various skills needed by employers to close the "gulf" between what is taught in schools and what is needed in the world of work. In some Sesotho traditional and cultural lessons, learners are taught how to cook traditional food-stuffs as they used to be cooked in the past. However, this activity is seasonal, limited to when the ingredients for the dishes are available, usually around March/April. It is important to emphasise that these activities also took place at Phela High School before, though for examination purposes. In this study, skill acquisition does not mean acquiring communication skills or English skills or writing skills or proficiency/competency in mathematics skills; it means producing something for survival purposes.

This research changed the mindset of the teachers of basic handcraft and Sesotho traditional and cultural lessons. Instead of teaching learners to make chairs and tables, learner are now more creative, and carve Lesotho birds and the ponies tourists hire for travelling in the mountains. The carvings can be sold to tourists or locals, as happened in this study. This creativity is extended to making traditional food-stuffs that appeal to tourists, as well as to locals, most of whom have lost knowledge of the food-stuffs of the past. Examples of these dishes are *motoho*

(traditional soft porridge from sorghum), *nyekoe* (a mixture of sorghum and beans cooked together), and *lipabi* (fried and ground maize, spiced with salt and sugar). In addition to this study's goal of promoting the agenda of self-reliance, traditional dishes could market the country and preserve its national identity and heritage (DBE, 2014: 1-13), thereby becoming a marketing tool to encourage more tourists to visit Lesotho. Schools that have better resources and facilities than Phela High School could, in sewing and knitting or fashion and design lessons, make beautiful *seshoeshoe* dresses, the *seana-marena* blanket, and other forms of cultural dress, instead of teaching learners how to apply decorations to tablecloths and curtains year in and year out (see Figure 3.2).



Figure 3.2: Mosotho woman wearing a seshoeshoe dress, seana-marena blanket and mokorotlo hat

In addition to making traditional dishes, traditional songs and dances, such as *mokhibo*, *ndlamo* and *mohobelo*, could be practised to entertain tourists where they pass by roads on weekends, and to make money (Tankiso-Mphunyane, 2014: xvii) (Figure 3.3). In these endeavours, community members with relevant knowledge, skills and talents could be invited to impart knowledge to eager and curious learners, who can use it to generate income, with a view to making a living and achieving self-reliance while they are still at school and thereafter (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228; Omede, 2012: 296).



Images by Lesotho Tourism Development Corporation (2017: 47) (top), and Debeshe et al. (2006: 85) (bottom).

Figure 3.3: Women performing mokhibo (top), men performing ndlamo or mohobelo (bottom)

3.3.3.3 Project-based teaching

MEDAL (2002: 1128) defines a project as a “piece of work that has a particular aim.” In this case “work” is practical, not academic. In keeping with this definition, the

phenomenon of projects in Lesotho secondary schools is common; that is, learners are expected to conduct practicals, particularly in the subjects of development studies, business studies and agriculture. Like in skill-based teaching, project-based teaching involves something being produced by an individual or group (Bell 2010: 39-40) – a product that can be used for survival purposes. Given that learners choose projects they want to engage in, projects can be a source of motivation that deepens understanding and liking of a subject (Bell, 2010: 39-40; Edmunds, Arshavsky, Glennie, Charles & Rice, 2017: 3). In Lesotho, learners do projects more to satisfy examination requirements than to achieve self-reliance, usually, learners choose two vocational subjects in a school.

In development studies, a group of learners may propose to visit a village nearby to find out how elderly and disabled people make a living, and which of their needs are not addressed. The learners would then compile a report detailing what they did; how they did it; and what they discovered, and make recommendations to improve the lives of these people. In business studies, learners may propose to make small financial contributions, think of something to buy and sell with a view to making a profit, which they would share amongst themselves at the end of the year. Again, a detailed report should be written highlighting shortcomings and successes of the project. Perhaps the most familiar projects are in agriculture, where learners engage in crop or vegetable production, or piggery or poultry farming, or engage in grass/tree planting to prevent soil erosion and beautify the school environment. They grow the crops or animals or trees, nurture and provide necessities for them, including medication, and in the end consume their crops. Again, a detailed report for examination purposes should be produced. Figure 3.4 shows learners planting trees and cleaning their school yard.



Figure 3.4: Learners participating in a tree-planting project (top) and cleaning up to beautify their school yard (below)

Han (2017: 529-530) found that a project-based learning approach inspired and motivated learners to do STEM subjects (science, technology, engineering, mathematics), which are generally avoided throughout the world. In tourism education in Lesotho, there is no talk of tourism projects, because none exists at the moment, hence the relevance and importance of this study for stimulating the talk or rhetoric in the tourism direction. What is more, the proposed tourism project of this study was aimed at alleviating poverty and achieving self-reliance through the expertise and help of community members.

3.3.3.4 Problem-based learning

A problem-based learning approach involves learners learning how to solve open-ended problems, whose answers come from multiple perspectives (Armitage, 2010: 4; Knyviene, 2014: 187; Plato & Alrich, 2014: 541). This approach encourages learners to search for answers, and the circumstances that surround answers; thus learners go beyond simply finding a solution, but dig deeper to give reasons for the solution. The learners' interest, inquisitiveness, and intrinsic motivation are heightened by wrestling with the question/problem. An example of an open-ended question that is often posed to the learners at Phela High School is: What can we do to make our environment attractive to the tourists? Learners form groups of four or five, and discuss the question for 60 minutes. Each group presents its answers, and defend them, thus developing defensive reasoning skills (Suskie, 2009: 60). The answers are scrutinised further until the most plausible stands out.

What is important afterwards, and where possible, is that solutions should be followed by action to make learning meaningful by seemingly addressing real problems, and for learners to learn to "walk the talk", as it were. When the solution to a problem is actualised, it becomes a project, because then a product is expected. This is where project-based learning and problem-based learning overlap. The former is more practical, while the latter is more academic. Both are learner-driven and, therefore, create independent thinkers through exposing learners to extended forms of inquiry into real-world problems (Bell, 2010: 39-40), even though a project needs closer supervision than a problem (Edmunds et al., 2017: 3).

This study also started as an academic question/problem: How can we foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum in Lesotho using CP? Efforts to solve this problem started with explanations/discussions, continued with theories/concepts, literature, methodology, and implementing these elements into a practical research project to find solutions that can uplift the lives of underprivileged learners.

3.3.3.5 Work-integrated learning

WIL refers to learning while doing work in the related subject, achieved by exposing learners to places of work through internships or placements, and letting them practise the work themselves under supervision, increasing their employability when they graduate (Rowe & Zegwaard, 2017: 87-88). In the case of tourism education, it would mean sending learners to work at hotels for weeks or months, to learn how to receive visitors; how to act as guides and provide visitors with the necessary information; to arrange transport for them; to prepare accommodation and lodging; to prepare meals; to market the hotel and the country; and to coordinate various tourism activities. WIL bridges theory with practice, so that learners can see the immediate fruits of learning (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Mahlomaholo, 2013: 317-318), that is, the prospect of employment after high school graduation.

Kramer and Usher (2011: 15-18) elaborate on the benefits of WIL, namely, that it impacts positively on critical and analytical thinking, problem-solving and decision-making skills. It makes learners appreciate the application of concepts learned in the classroom in the real world. The world of work reinforces and strengthens understanding of concepts and knowledge learned in the classroom, and exposes learners to technical skills related to the field of study, which are not taught in the classroom. WIL provides better understanding of the workplace culture, norms and behaviour, which impact positively on learners' communication and interpersonal skills, work in a team, and on conflict-resolution efforts.

Visits and internships by learners to the tourism industry are considered necessary by Nkumane (2008: 115), as these visits help to change and improve learners' attitudes towards tourism as a subject, and to the tourism industry's world of work, in general. Exposure through internships also enhances learners' love and motivation

for tourism, as the opportunities tourism offers to defeat the ills of hunger and unemployment, become real and clearer. Sometimes learners are given stipends while on internships or small remuneration packages for their “work”, and this motivates them further. The learners’ and community’s attitudes towards tourists, can also be practised through role-play in tourism education, for instance, through role play as a receptionist, information officer or tourist guide (Armstrong, 2003: 2-3).

3.3.4 Assessment relevant to teaching tourism for self-reliance

With regard to assessment of learning in tourism, it is clearly stipulated in the United Kingdom’s Travel and Tourism Syllabus that the subject is “creative, technical and vocational” (Cambridge IGCSE, 2014: 4). Assessment, therefore, follows the vocational route that emphasises the application of practical skills. Some strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum are, *select appropriate assessment methods*, and *commit to re-evaluation and revision*. In the final examinations, learners write three papers, Paper 1 (core paper, questions covering all topics), Paper 2 (scenario-based or situational application of the content, alternative to coursework), and Paper 3 (coursework investigation in no more than 3 000 words, centre-based assessment). It appears that most Anglophone countries, which were once under British colonial rule, such as Australia, India, Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, South Africa and Lesotho, consider tourism education to be vocational, and follow the United Kingdom’s pattern of assessment. Lesotho used the United Kingdom syllabus from 2011 to the end of 2016, and only recently developed its own Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education Travel and Tourism Syllabus, which became operational in 2017. Its mode of assessment is still, in many respects, similar to that of the United Kingdom, except that the vocational aspect of tourism is not practicalised as it is in the United Kingdom.

In my school it was agreed that allocation for content would be 50 percent, and 50 percent for the practical section, thus following the United Kingdom model of assessment for tourism education, unlike the 60/40 model in Lesotho, that favours more content than practical. The 50/50 mode of assessment is well-balanced and bodes well for practicals, which are a prerequisite for efforts to alleviate poverty and achieve self-reliance.

3.4 LITERATURE ADDRESSING THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This part of the study, firstly, deals with challenges relating to fostering self-reliance through integrated tourism curriculum using CP. Then, the study attempts to find solutions to the challenges, and then examine enabling conditions under which the solutions could work. This is followed by an investigation into plausible threats that might derail fostering self-reliance through integrated tourism curriculum using CP. The section ends with indicators of success against the perceived threats and challenges.

3.4.1 Challenges relating to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

In the following paragraphs the attention is on the challenges facing tourism teaching that necessitate the use of CP for fostering self-reliance. These challenges relate to understanding tourism as a vocational subject, teacher qualifications and knowledge, resource availability and use, tourism teaching methods and approaches, CP in tourism education, understanding an integrated curriculum, implementation of an integrated curriculum, WIL, and assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum.

3.4.1.1 Challenges relating to understanding tourism as a vocational subject

Some subjects originated from the transformative agenda of the state (Bernstein, 2000: 159; Englund, 2010: 1), while tourism originated from the need for vocational skills in the travel, hotel and hospitality industry (Airey 1984, cited in Petersen 2015: 15). Educators were approached by the industry to organise and provide related lessons to teach the skills it needs, and to “train learners wanting to enter the industry” (Pawson, 2002: 2). Debates about whether tourism is geared to developing skills needed by the tourism industry, or whether it is an academic discipline, have ensued (Abomeh, 2012: 14; Pawson, 2002: 23; Petersen, 2015: 19-20), posing further challenges relating to conceptualisation and definition. It is not always clear whether tourism should be loaded with content that focuses on theory, or on practical

skills needed by the tourism industry (Sean, 2010: 34), the latter of which would be impacted negatively if a work-related curriculum were not offered (Sean, 2010: 39). These challenges arise because tourism is still a young subject, whose existence is still questioned, and has to be justified (Petersen, 2015: 80).

Dube (2014: 153) suggests that tourism is viewed as having a low status in South Africa, because the National Curriculum Statement for Grades 10 – 12 does not designate it in the list of subjects for university entrance; a certificate or a diploma can be earned if the discipline is pursued beyond high school (Dube, 2014: 156). However, despite what Dube claims, some tertiary institutions have introduced the tourism subject. It, therefore, seems that the real problem with tourism is being a young subject (Petersen, 2015: 80), which is not well recognised at the tertiary level. This is also the case in Croatia, for tour guides (Lovrentjev, 2015: 555, 557). Consequently, where alternatives exist for subjects giving university entrance, learners drop tourism, as learners, parents, teachers and district education officials believe that it is an unnecessary burden that takes learners nowhere.

3.4.1.2 Challenges facing teacher qualifications and knowledge

When tourism was introduced in Australia between 1987 and 1990, Marland and Store (1991: 19) observed that there were no qualified teachers to teach the subject. Teachers were recruited from geography, history and economics. Similarly, Saunders (1994, cited in Armstrong, 2003: 2; Sean, 2010: 39), observes that, in the South African context, tourism teachers were recruited from geography, history and economics when tourism was introduced as a school subject between 1994 and 1996. Sean (2010: 39) further mentions that teacher training institutions have not yet covered the methods and approaches of teaching tourism, due to it being a relatively new subject. The same situation exists in Lesotho, where tourism was introduced in 2011. Teachers for the subject were recruited from geography, history and development studies. Teachers lack proper qualifications for the subject, and it is clear that the knowledge base among teachers is low. This means they are unable to provide clear explanations with examples, illustrations and analogies (Shulman, 1987: 8), and cannot ask appropriate questions for assessment to determine if learners understand a lesson.

3.4.1.3 Challenges relating to resource availability and use

According to Marland and Store (1991: 19), there was no funding for textbooks and field excursions when tourism was introduced in Australia between 1987 and 1990. In Nigeria, no libraries had tourism books to help learners enhance their understanding of what was taught in class (Abomeh, 2012: 14). Lesotho also faces an acute shortage of resources. To start with, there are no properly qualified teachers. Libraries, relevant textbooks, maps, globes, compasses, overhead projectors and computers, which could guide the proper teaching of tourism, are in short supply. And because of poverty, many learners are unable to pay for educational excursions to visit tourist attractions in the country and in the SADC region. Similar challenges of access and affordability in tourism education, especially with regard to educational excursions, have been raised in Australia by Mayell and Davies (2014: 14).

Given that teacher training institutions have not yet covered the methods and approaches of tourism teaching (Sean, 2010: 39), it follows that, even in cases where resources and facilities are available, it is a challenge to use them properly. From experience I know that many teachers in Lesotho find it challenging to use overhead projectors, computers, and related equipment as part of their everyday teaching.

3.4.1.4 Challenges relating to tourism teaching methods and approaches

In Lesotho, tourism teachers originally taught geography and development studies, mainly because tourism content has been integrated in these subjects for a long time. Tourism is, therefore, taught like these subjects are, with a teacher-centred approach, which encourages passiveness and rote learning (Johnston, 2000: 4). Teachers select relevant material from textbooks and give notes, partly because many learners do not have the prescribed textbooks, because it is unavailable in the bookshops, or because they cannot afford to buy it. In Lesotho, free education is still at the primary school level. Very few learners at secondary level are able to pay for educational excursions to tourist attractions, which are made annually.

Most importantly, the selection of convenient teacher-centred approaches to teaching tourism in Lesotho means that teachers neglect learner-centred methods and approaches that would foster self-reliance, such as skills-based and project-based teaching, and WIL, all of which emphasise the vocational aspect of tourism, which would address poverty challenges.

3.4.1.5 Challenges of community participation in tourism education

In South Africa, Nkumane (2008: viii, 33) found a lack of participation by communities in tourism, in general, particularly in tourism education, due to lack of tourism knowledge, exposure to tourism activities and potential job opportunities. In Botswana, Tsayang (1998: 102-104; 161-162) discovered that the community never participated in curriculum design and teaching matters, for fear of crossing professional boundaries, and that curriculum areas for CP were never clarified. It is, therefore, possible that this study could be among the first that directly connects communities with learners in the classroom in relation to tourism education.

In India and Kenya it was found that community members suffered from inferiority complexes due to low levels of education; the same applies to Botswana, where citizens hesitate to approach schools and teachers (Kimu, 2012: 3; Save the Children USA, 2013: 17-18). Other factors that prevent community members from participating fully in schools include unemployment and poverty in developing countries (Kintz 2011: 17). This was found to be the case in India (Save the Children USA, 2013: 17-18); Kenya (Kimu, 2012: 87); Zambia and Zimbabwe (Sango, 2015: 6), and Lesotho (Chere-Masopha, 2007: 3-4). Community members spend most of their time looking for ways to make a living, to feed, clothe and send their children to school. Some parents complain that the times scheduled for parent meetings are awkward, and that they might attend if the meetings were held in the evenings, after work. Others complain of distances between homes and schools (Bulawa & Mhlauli, 2012: 232-234). Most of these CP challenges are prevalent in and relevant to Lesotho (Institute of Education, 2008: xi – xiv), including the perception that community members who serve on the school governing body are the only ones who are supposed to participate in school matters.

3.4.1.6 Challenges relating to understanding an integrated curriculum

Tankiso-Mphunyane (2014: xvii) discovered that teachers in Lesotho have little knowledge of the 2009 integrated curriculum, and that this could be one of the reasons they fail to implement it. According to Tankiso-Mphunyane, teachers think an integrated curriculum is only meant to help learners to pass their subjects and improve their grades. Their line of thinking is close to Park's (2008: 314) assertion, that some teachers in South Korea saw the integrated curriculum as a minor variation of what they did every day – some kind of a teaching method – instead of applying it to create and construct knowledge in a new way. Park also found that some teachers used the integrated curriculum in their teaching without being aware they were using it. Others were just reluctant to change their old ways of teaching, and they were supported by conservative parents who wanted their children to be taught the same way they, the parents, had been taught, according to a subject-based approach (Park, 2008: 314). Kobola (2007: 204-208) posits that resistance to change could emanate from lack of personal control over unfolding events, and from unpleasant experiences related to change.

Research findings in the USA, United Kingdom and Canada show that the language and vocabulary accompanying the integrated curriculum can be confusing. Terms, such as multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary, are often used interchangeably, as if they mean the same thing (Daly et al., 2012: 2-3). The teachers' limited understanding of these terms, and their poor mastery of appropriate language for applying the integrated curriculum, lead to uncertainty and lack of clarity and unity when it comes to implementation (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 313-314; Park 2008: 314).

3.4.1.7 Challenges facing implementation of an integrated curriculum

Park (2008: 314) explains that, in South Korea, limited understanding of an integrated curriculum was the most persistent reason for teachers being reluctant to implement it, or which led to poor implementation. Park (2008: 315) also notes that there was the invalid notion that more steps of integration mean better integration, whereas circumstances in schools differ and may require different approaches. In Lesotho there is no implementation at all, particularly in relation to the integrated

curriculum for tourism. Additionally, Raselimo and Mahao (2015: 8-9) warn that it should not be assumed that a collegial environment exists at schools; teachers and departments can be at loggerheads, making implementation a nightmare.

There are also fears that an integrated curriculum expects too much from learners and teachers, burdening them in the process (Daly et al., 2012: 10). The approach of letting learners discover knowledge on their own while the teacher acts as a facilitator, as proposed by the integrated curriculum, is sometimes compared to letting learners build a house with the teacher, who is also struggling to grasp the salient features of quality building. Daly et al. (2012: 10-11) observe, further, that there are no arguments against an integrated curriculum and its benefits, but what is lagging behind is its understanding and implementation, due to pressures of national standards and assessments organised by disciplines. Advocacy and rationale for integrated curriculum outweigh its implementation.

In general, it would appear that, in Lesotho, when the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum was introduced, it was not accompanied by strategies guiding implementation, such as *conducting needs assessment; training staff; deciding on the level and scope of integration; establishing working groups; and developing closer links with the community* (see 3.2.5). Hence, implementation failed.

3.4.1.8 Challenges facing work-integrated learning

WIL is learning while doing some practical work related to the subject, achieved by exposing learners to places of work through internships, and letting them practise the work themselves under supervision (Rowe & Zegwaard, 2017: 87-88). Unfortunately, WIL is not incorporated into the Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education Travel and Tourism Syllabus 2017, except for opportunities for learners to visit the tourism industry of their choice for short periods to do data collection, or representatives of the tourism industry giving lecture on how the industry works (LGCSE Travel and Tourism, 2017: 31). These limited opportunities mean it is difficult for the learners to develop a realistic picture of the tourism industry. Opportunities that could attract learners to the industry are lost. Schools in Lesotho do send learners to hotels for a short period to hone their skills in the real situation, which could inspire and motivate them further, as Nkumane (2008: 115) suggests.

Furthermore, it was observed by Rowe and Zegwaard (2017: 89) that WIL alone does not guarantee employability, unless WIL is firmly grounded on curriculum and knowledge of the subject matter, including proximity to places of placements for internship and relevant WIL activities. It is not clear whether employers prefer numerous shorter internships in different areas of work, or a long internship, and whether internships should be done early or later in the learner's programme of study (Rowe & Zegwaard, 2017: 90-91). Assessment of WIL can be problematic, as it includes issues that are difficult to measure, such as respect for and collaboration with others, responsibility and professional judgement in the learners.

3.4.1.9 Challenges facing the assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

In the Netherlands, Shankar (2014: 75) found that reaching agreement about the areas of the integrated curriculum that had to be assessed, and how many marks to allot to each part, was challenging. Attempts to satisfy everyone lead to "a little of everything" approach (Jacobs, 1989, cited in Lake, 2000: 14). In the same vein, Malik and Malik (2011: 103) discovered, in Malaysia, that if issues that were related to assessment were not identified and addressed early on, in the curriculum planning and design stages, there could be a mismatch between teaching and assessment later, leading to implementation failure. In South Africa, Umalusi (2013: 106) also found discrepancies between the intended curriculum and the examinations conducted in some secondary schools in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. Some strategies suggested for the implementation of an integrated curriculum are, *select appropriate assessment methods*, and *commit to re-evaluation and revision*. These strategies were not applied in the case of the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum; and the failure to implement the strategies led to the failure in implementation, and, hence, the failure to practicalise tourism for alleviating poverty and achieving self-reliance.

3.4.2 Possible solutions for fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

This section offers possible solutions to address challenges relating to understanding tourism as a vocational subject, teacher qualifications and knowledge, resource availability and use, tourism teaching methods and approaches, CP in tourism education, understanding the integrated curriculum, implementation of an integrated curriculum, WIL, and assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum.

3.4.2.1 Solutions for misunderstanding of tourism as a vocational subject

Lovrentjev (2015: 561) suggests explaining what tourism is, including its economic value, to all relevant stakeholders, including community members, to enhance understanding. This view is supported by Dube (2014: 159), who adds that tourism offers career and job opportunities, which could contribute to alleviating unemployment and poverty. It also appears that the location of schools near tourism sites and activities has a positive impact on learners, because there are immediate spinoffs when they leave school (Dube, 2014: 159). Learners can also find employment while they are still at school. Schools that are far way from tourism sites and activities need to undertake regular excursions to develop a realistic tourism feel, and to develop a positive attitude towards it.

Dube (2014: 159-160) suggests that the National Curriculum Statement in South Africa should designate tourism, so that it can admit students to university for degree programmes. Doing so might increase tourism's academic content to boost its standing in the curriculum, even though it is a vocational subject, which equips learners with skills to work in the tourism industry, or to be self-employed. Strengthening its content could help in its conceptualisation. In general, emphasising the positive aspects of tourism and tourism education could work to enhance its status in the school curriculum.

3.4.2.2 Solutions for inadequate teacher qualifications and knowledge

Content knowledge refers to knowledge of theories, facts and concepts about the subject matter (Kleickmann et al., 2013: 91). Altun (2013: 366) contends that a competent teacher should be able to integrate knowledge of the subject matter with practice, so that the knowledge learners gain becomes useful to their lives. Tertiary institutions introduced tourism courses in Lesotho up to university level. What is lacking is methods and approaches of delivering the content (Sean, 2010: 39), particularly the vocational aspect of it, which would help learners acquire the necessary practical skills to address challenges of poverty through the creation of opportunities for self-employment, and, in time, to achieve self-reliance. Thus, as a solution, institutions of higher learning in Lesotho should work harder to develop teaching methods and approaches to teaching tourism, and follow up interns to ensure that they apply these in delivering content knowledge in their internship programme.

Another way of understanding tourism as a vocational subject is encouraging high school learners to enrol after high school for tourism education courses available at the tertiary level. This solution applies to Lesotho, in particular, because tourism provides university entrance in Lesotho, unlike in South Africa. Teachers who are already in the field should be capacitated through workshops to increase their content knowledge levels, and they should be trained on proper methods for and approaches to teaching tourism, with emphasis on its vocational aspect. These efforts can improve teachers' confidence in explaining tourism concepts with examples, illustrations and analogies (Shulman, 1987: 8).

3.4.2.3 Resource availability and use

Resource availability and use relate to the availability of teaching aids and materials, including people, that are necessary for teaching and learning, and how these resources are used when they are available. Examples of resources are maps, globes, compasses, textbooks, magazines, wall charts, computers, the internet, libraries, funds for excursions, and qualified tourism teachers. These are basic school needs that contribute to learners' academic performance (Atieno, 2014: 1). Excursions to tourist information centres and tourist attractions, including visits to

hotels and lodges, should be made possible and affordable for learners as part of learning (Mayell & Davies, 2014: 14). Relevant and appropriate teaching aids and resources, which are compatible with teaching methods and approaches that emphasise the acquisition of knowledge and practical skills, should also be identified and availed. Using these resources should strengthen the understanding of tourism, and its vocational value.

According to Atieno (2014: 2), textbooks and supplementary materials are the most important resources that every school should have for proper teaching and learning. The second-most-important resource is well trained and motivated teachers, and the third is adequate physical facilities (classrooms, laboratories, workshops, halls).

3.4.2.4 Varying the methods of and approaches to teaching tourism

Methods of and approaches to teaching should vary, to cater for different learning styles and backgrounds of learners (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4). As a vocational subject, tourism cannot be taught like geography and development studies, which are predominantly academic, theoretical and teacher-centred. Undoubtedly, teaching practical and vocational subjects is expensive (Akyeampong, 2002: 4). For example, learning to drive a tractor requires a qualified instructor and a tractor; learning to build a house needs a qualified instructor, cement, bricks and roofing material. Similarly, teaching learners to acquire skills requires tools and equipment. Pursuing the project-based and WIL approaches require learning materials, as well as internship or placement programmes (Nkumane, 2008: 115), to ensure that learners are not only good thinkers, but good practitioners too (Wang, 2008: 126). Schools in Lesotho do not have these tools, materials and equipment.

Armstrong (2003: 14-15) explains that teaching tourism effectively may also involve role play and simulated and dramatised activities, such as practising being a receptionist, a tour guide, an arriving tourist who needs information and assistance, or a waiter providing meals to visitors at a hotel. These simulations help learners to develop skills, such as customer care, oral communication, negotiation, decision-making, attention to detail, marketing, adaptability, teamwork, confidence, leadership and management (Mayaka & King, 2002: 122-123, 125-126; Wang, 2008: 114, 116).

Creating opportunities to play these roles is expensive in terms of time, scope of the play, facilities (open space or a hall), and the number of participants needed.

3.4.2.5 Appreciating community participation in tourism education

Community members need to be appreciated in the school environment (see 2.4.5.1), particularly in tourism teaching. They should be guided to understand vocational subjects, and the concept of self-reliance and its potential benefits for learners, such as promoting self-employment and job creation. Involving the community in the teaching and learning process adds lived experiences and feelings to lessons, which makes learning realistic and exciting (Spaull, 2013: 1, 4).

In this study, community members became useful teaching aids and resources, through their presence in the classroom to impart their skills, talents and knowledge of making craft products to the learners, who then made the products themselves and sold them to generate income for alleviating poverty and achieving self-reliance. Recognising the multiple strengths of the community is in keeping with Yosso's (2005) CCW, which recognises the wealth, resources and assets the community has, and can offer to help its children succeed at school and in the rest of life (Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77).

The fact that many community members have low levels of education should not be an excuse for schools to overlook or undermine them. Schools should be compassionate and should find ways to encourage and uplift community members into taking part in school affairs, including helping them understand the integrated curriculum and its practical benefits, such as those for tourism education. They should be encouraged to undertake adult education to raise their literacy levels and self-esteem. Yosso's (2005) forms of capital from the community should not only benefit the community's children, instead, the community itself should benefit from its strengths, resources, skills, talents and assets. Flexible parent meeting times should be explored to enable all parents to attend and participate. CP should not only occur through school governing bodies.

Finally, community members should abolish the colonial mentality that white-collar jobs are superior (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 238; Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 64, 83-84),

because even if they were superior, they are not available. Given the rising unemployment rate, poverty levels, and the extent of HIV/AIDS in the SADC region, the notion of self-reliance, as articulated by MoET (2009: 18), could not have come at a better time.

3.4.2.6 A thorough understanding of an integrated curriculum

According to Daly et al. (2012: 10-11) understanding an integrated curriculum and its benefits is no longer a contentious issue. Advocacy for the integrated curriculum has succeeded; what is lagging is implementation. According to Park (2008: 314), some teachers in South Korea use the integrated curriculum in their teaching without being aware that they are using it, suggesting that the concept can be executed. An integrated curriculum has three main underpinnings that should be understood: it is cross-curricular, interactive/learner-centred, and practical/creative/productive.

Indeed, understanding of an integrated curriculum alone is not sufficient for its successful implementation. Park (2008: 314) discovered in South Korea, Malik and Malik (2011: 99-100) discovered in Malaysia, and Shankar (2014: 75) discovered in the Netherlands and USA. There are other facets at play too, such as the scope and level of integration, the availability of trained staff, the threat of loss of freedom enjoyed in a subject-based system, facilities and appropriate textbooks, and adequate communication with other stakeholders, such as parents and the wider community, to obtain their support (Loepp, 1999: 25; Park, 2008: 313, 315-316; Shankar, 2014: 75-76).

Park (2008: 308) emphasises that, for implementation to be successful, and to avoid confusion, there should be uniformity and unity in understanding the language of the integrated curriculum. In particular, the terms that are usually referred to are multidisciplinary (topics of tourism are taught in other disciplines too, for example, teaching agriculture, mathematics and accounting to Grade 9 to advance learners' understanding of tourism, or teaching in a cross-curricular manner), interdisciplinary (themes/topics of tourism are shared by the disciplines within the tourism department), and transdisciplinary (focusing on how learners construct knowledge from various disciplines after interactive and integrative learning activities). As the researcher, I ensured that these terms were conceptualised uniformly by the co-

researchers, particularly the teachers, so that there was no confusion regarding implementation and assessment of the self-reliance project.

3.4.2.7 Inclusiveness in the implementation of an integrated curriculum

Successful implementation of an integrated curriculum calls for regular meetings, and adequate communication with all stakeholders, learners, trained staff/teachers, and community members, to iron out differences, in an attempt to reach consensus and garner support (Loepp, 1999: 25; Park, 2008: 313, 315-316). One of the principles of effective CP is *inclusivity and equity*, which resonates with the strategy of *developing closer links with the community* for the implementation of an integrated curriculum. There has also been emphasis by Shankar (2014: 75-76) on the availability of facilities, resources and appropriate textbooks to effect change.

According to Park (2008: 314) and Brauer and Ferguson (2015: 314-315), it is fundamental and integral to successful implementation that terms, such as multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary, as well as the theoretical underpinnings of an integrated curriculum, are understood. Park (2008: 315) further cautions that school circumstances should be viewed as unique, and therefore recommends a step-by-step and pragmatic approach to implementation.

3.4.2.8 Solutions for WIL

Nkumane (2008: 115) suggests that schools should request the tourism industry to provide internships or placement opportunities for learners, so that work can be integrated with learning, as one of the ways learners can acquire practical skills to work in the tourism industry. During the festive season, when there are many tourists, hotels and lodges can absorb learners to practise skills that can increase the learners' chances of future employment, as well as opportunities for self-employment. This practice can inform schools what the tourism industry wants and expects, so that the relevance of the tourism curriculum can be improved. What is taught in schools can gradually respond to industry needs. Rowe and Zegwaard (2017: 87-88) found that WIL inspired and motivated learners to greater heights, strengthened their understanding of the subject-matter and provided technical know-

how relating to practice. Thus, WIL seems to contribute to knowledge creation and expansion, and therefore needs to be included in the curriculum.

3.4.2.9 Collaborative assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

Malik and Malik (2011: 103) and Umalusi (2013: 106), suggest that issues that are related to assessment should be thought of and addressed at an early stage – at the curriculum planning and design stages – to avoid a mismatch between teaching and assessment later on. In addition, Shankar's (2014: 75) idea of holding regular meetings to agree on which parts of the integrated curriculum are to be assessed, and how many marks are to be allotted to each part, could be useful.

Parents and community members should be well informed through school meetings, of the learners' practical activities, that of selling craft products. This is an important self-reliance project that should not be trivialised, and appropriate support, encouragement and resources should be provided to the learners, to ensure the success and sustainability of the project for assessment purposes, and for improving their lives.

For assessment to be effective, there should be sufficient feedback that eliminates misconceptions and strengthens learning (Sadler, 1989: 209). According to Carver and Scheier (1990: 87), this feedback should be descriptive in nature, detailing what the learner did right, instead of listing what the learner did wrong. In this way, "feedback becomes a tool for empowerment", enabling the learner to reflect on her/his learning (Roger, 2006: 676).

3.4.3 Conditions conducive to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

This section discusses conducive conditions that are needed to address challenges facing understanding tourism as a vocational subject, teacher qualifications and knowledge, resource availability and use, tourism teaching methods and approaches, CP in tourism education, understanding an integrated curriculum,

implementation of an integrated curriculum, WIL, and assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum.

3.4.3.1 Conditions that enhance the understanding of tourism as a vocational subject

Dube (2014: 166) suggests that thorough advocacy for tourism education and its benefits, by the education directorate, should be conducted and disseminated to schools when they introduce the subject of tourism. It should be clear from the onset that tourism is a vocational subject aimed at equipping learners with productive and entrepreneurial skills that would give them employment opportunities. Emphasising the benefits of tourism will improve its status. The second important condition is budgeting for the subject, so that there are adequate teaching aids and resources, textbooks, libraries and facilities. Tourism training workshops should also be conducted. There should not be a perception that tourism was introduced by accident; instead, there should be a positive, welcoming atmosphere for the subject.

As was suggested by Dube (2014: 166) earlier, Nkumane (2008: viii, 33) also suggests that community members should also be informed about this new, practical subject called tourism, about its value to learners through employment opportunities that it could provide to learners while they are still at school, and beyond. After all, strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum advocate *developing closer links with the community* with a view to capacitating community members to take control of their lives through better decision-making about the well-targeted use of resources, and avoiding risks and failures (Uemura, 1999: 12; Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13).

3.4.3.2 Teacher qualifications and knowledge

To achieve impeccable delivery of tourism education, teachers should be well qualified, with university degree; their knowledge of the subject should be unquestionable. Teachers should demonstrate competence, and should deliver knowledge in a manner that learners can make sense of and understand (Ward, Kim, Ko & Li, 2015: 130). Teachers should also be able to integrate knowledge with

practice (Altun, 2013: 366), so that the knowledge becomes useful in life, for it is practice and hands-on skills that enable learners to explore ways of alleviating poverty by engaging in work. Teachers should be aware of career opportunities in tourism, and should pass on this information to learners, and motivate them further, through tourism education, to become future tourism teachers.

3.4.3.3 Resource availability and use

Resources and facilities should be available for proper teaching of tourism (Atieno, 2014: 1). Schools should have budgets to acquire adequate resources: relevant textbooks, maps, globes, compasses, TV sets, wall charts, money to subsidise excursions to tourist attractions, a library, a hall, and community members who can be invited to transfer tourism skills to the learners. These resources should not be available by accident. Schools should prepare themselves thoroughly by budgeting, because fostering self-reliance requires planning and effort. Resources should be used efficiently and cost-effectively, to extend their use. Teachers and learners should be conscientised about this, without discouraging them to use resources.

Lyimo, Too and Kipng'etich (2017: 104) propose categorising instructional materials into textual and non-textual materials. Textual materials comprise textbooks, reference books, maps, globes, magazines, journals, newspapers, wall charts, brochures, and flyers. Non-textual materials comprise teachers, chalk, chalkboards, dusters, apparatus, instruments, compasses, chairs, desks, tools, weather stations, rocks, plants and animals that can be used for demonstrations. Although there is an overlap between instructional materials and physical facilities, Lyimo et al. (2017: 104-105) see physical facilities as offices, kitchen facilities, classrooms, laboratories, health facilities, workshops, halls, libraries, toilets, water, electricity, computers, printers, photocopiers, internet connectivity, and recreational facilities. The conditions in which these resources and facilities are available can affect the motivation of both teachers and learners, because these resources enhance the clarity of what is taught and learned, and help learners acquire knowledge and skills. Without resources and facilities, teachers teach subjects in an abstract and dry manner (Lyimo et al., 2017: 104-105), leaning towards passive teacher-centredness.

3.4.3.4 Conditions that promote variation in tourism teaching methods and approaches

Teachers should have the freedom to vary their methods of teaching to suit specific lessons/topics and to enhance learning, bearing in mind what the learners should acquire in an integrated curriculum: knowledge, skills, and new, more positive attitudes and values. Teachers should not be handicapped by a lack of teaching aids and resources. Teaching methods and approaches should lean towards learner-centredness, thereby satisfying Dewey's (1902) democratic learning, and social constructivism theorists, such as Freire (1970) and Vygotsky (1986), who believe that learners should interact and be exposed to real-life problems, and should take responsibility for their learning (Keistin & Stichter, 2011: 98; Mahlomaholo, 2013: 317). Taking responsibility is also important for learning to address poverty challenges, and attempting to achieve self-reliance, which requires commitment and dedication.

In Lesotho, tourism teachers at the secondary level still use academic, teacher-centred approaches when they teach, because the 2009 integrated curriculum is not functional. Workshops were held in June/July 2017 to ensure that the curriculum is implemented from January 2018. But many of the resources and facilities mentioned above are still not available in schools to teach tourism effectively.

3.4.3.5 Conditions conducive to community participation in tourism education

Conditions conducive to CP in tourism teaching relate to an enabling school environment that encourages community members to visit and transfer their skills and talents to learners to enhance the process of teaching, particularly the teaching of tourism. Teachers should feel free to invite community members with experiential knowledge, skills and talents for making craft products that could benefit learners. Community members can serve as a useful teaching aid and resource to strengthen learning. Increased involvement by community members and other stakeholders reinforces teaching/learning, as they contribute lived experiences and feelings, and make learning meaningful and realistic (Spaull, 2013: 1, 4).

Moreover, CP requires freedom to express rights and opinions as a condition for optimal participation in a bottom-up approach (Aikara, 2011: 169-170; RISE, 2010: 29). Community members need to be conscientised that participation in education is their democratic right (Kintz, 2011: 19-20). They have the right to know the conditions under which their children are taught, by whom, with what kind of qualifications, and whether the school administration and teachers are performing to the best of their professional abilities. Community members should feel that they are partners with the school, and are operating at the levels of *partnership* and *citizen control* (Arnstein 1969), and Shaeffer's (1994) level of *participation in decision-making at every stage*, so that community members own up to the school problems, and solutions, because ownership results in long-term commitment.

3.4.3.6 Conditions that enhance understanding of an integrated curriculum

Conditions that enhance understanding of an integrated curriculum relate to a conducive atmosphere, in which teachers can meet and collaborate to plan and co-teach in an interactive, integrative, synergistic, and cross-curricular way. They can succeed when they understand the theoretical underpinnings of an integrated curriculum, along with its terminology (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314-315; Daly et al., 2012: 6; Malik and Malik, 2011: 99; Park, 2008: 312, 314). Understanding an integrated curriculum is central for its successful and sustainable implementation. Daly et al. (2012: 10-11) concede that advocacy for an integrated curriculum has succeeded; its legitimacy can no longer be questioned. Indeed, there is no better condition to enhance the understanding of an integrated curriculum than consensus on understanding the importance and usefulness of an integrated curriculum. It would also be beneficial if community members could attend information sessions and training, so that they can appreciate what an integrated curriculum entails, particularly with its inherent vocational benefits, which bring about self-employment and self-reliance for learners, and community members themselves.

3.4.3.7 Conditions conducive to the implementation of an integrated curriculum

Conditions conducive to implementing an integrated curriculum involve being prepared and ready to kick-start the process of curriculum integration. Implementation of an integrated curriculum can succeed where a thorough needs assessment had been conducted before the curriculum is introduced (Hubball & Burt, 2004: 55); where staff had been trained in advance to prepare them for the level and scope of curriculum integration to be undertaken (Malik & Malik, 2011: 99-100); where content had been developed to cater for the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be transferred (Malik & Malik, 2011: 101) via a learner-centred approach (MoET, 2009: 22; Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 7); and where links with the community had been developed to ensure their input and support by providing manpower and resources that could be used at school (Myende, 2014: 54). It is under these conditions and with these strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum that success could be realised.

Some principles for effective implementation of ways to ensure self-reliance, which resonate with the strategies for implementing an integrated curriculum, mentioned above, are that teachers should teach theory and practice, or knowledge and skills; they should stimulate learners' interest by participating in projects; they should maximise learners' choices; and learners should be encouraged to use local resources, which are cheap and readily available, for their self-reliance projects.

3.4.3.8 Conditions conducive to work-integrated learning

Schools should have cordial relations with surrounding tourism establishments, so that they are able to place learners in internships during which learners integrate content knowledge with practical work. Fortunately, at Phela High School there are many opportunities for internships. There are two hotels and about ten lodges within a radius of 40 kilometres of the school. Another tourist attraction is the Lesotho Water Highlands Project dam, 'Muela, from where water is transferred to South Africa. Large numbers of tourists pass near the school on their way to these locations. However, until this study was undertaken, it was not obvious that WIL could take place and succeed. Even though no learners have been placed in

internships to date, preparations and efforts will be made in the near future, as a follow-up to this study, to ensure that it happens. Gellerstedt, Johansson & Winman (2015: 38) state WIL is a necessary marriage between academia and the world of work – as long as the activities of WIL are authentic, meaningful and relevant to the related subject, and are adjacent to the school (Rowe & Zegwaard, 2017: 89-90).

3.4.3.9 Ideal conditions for the assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

An integrated curriculum can be assessed successfully if an appropriate assessment method had been identified well in advance, thereby avoiding a mismatch between what had been taught and learned, and what has to be assessed (MoET, 2009: v; Umalusi, 2013: 106). Thus, assessment objectives should stipulate in advance what learners are expected to know, as the expected outcome of learning. Above all, learners should demonstrate that they can integrate the learned knowledge with practice, because an integrated curriculum emphasises the vocational part of learning, the “doing”, the making and selling of the craft products to address life challenges of poverty, with the help of community members who transfer skills to learners. These community participants can include people who are knowledgeable about the tourism industry beyond crafts, such as hotel and lodge owners, and the CEO in the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Culture, who could provide information on legal imperatives and the national vision.

3.4.4 Threats that could derail the attainment of self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

This section outlines threats that could impact on understanding tourism as a vocational subject, teacher qualifications and knowledge, resource availability and use, tourism teaching methods and approaches, CP in tourism education, understanding an integrated curriculum, implementation of an integrated curriculum, WIL, and assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum.

3.4.4.1 Threats to understanding tourism as a vocational subject

According to Marland and Store (1991: 17), the introduction of tourism as a school subject competes with the already existing education system, in which it is believed that secondary education prepares learners for further education, not for specific vocations. Parents have, over time, developed faith in traditional school subjects, which they believe provide opportunities for university entrance and employment, and view new subjects, such as tourism, with suspicion (Marland & Store, 1991: 19).

Additionally, tourism suffers from a number of paradoxes: first, it is perceived to be important in terms of its contribution to the national economy and development, by providing job opportunities, but it has a low status, due to being vocational and lacking hard-core content and theory (Dube, 2014: 159-160). Second, even though tourism is vocational, it does not address the daily operational needs of the tourism industry (Airey, 2005 cited in Wang, 2008: 32), resulting in a small percentage of graduates getting employed in the industry (Wang, 2008: 123). In fact, tourism employers prefer to train workers formally or informally on the job, instead of employing school leavers who had studied tourism (Mayaka, 1999: 112). The most startling paradox of all is that tourism industry employers attach greater value to subjects relating to law, accounting finance and economics, than to tourism studies, such as tourism management and marketing (Dube, 2014: 118-119). Students in Spain do not believe that it is necessary to have a degree in tourism to get a job in the tourism industry, resulting in students dropping out from tourism courses (Cervena-Taulet & Ruiz-Molina, 2008: 67). There is also a perception that jobs in tourism are low-paying, seasonal and unsustainable, “only few and frustrated people take them” (Ejiofor, Ajake, Oba & Okpara, 2012: 41). These factors threaten tourism as a school subject, and its status, and prevent tourism from becoming a subject of choice.

According to Ejiofor et al. (2012: 41), there is a serious lack of environmental and tourism education taking place in communities. Consequently, communities do not take care of the environment, and if the environment has been destroyed, tourists are not interested in visiting. Community members do not relate the absence of tourist in their areas with their own behaviour, because they do not know what attracts or discourages tourists, and what benefits tourism offers. Nkumane (2008:

39-40) observed this phenomenon in Kwa-Zulu Natal, South Africa, where a community suffered from a lack of awareness about tourism due to lack of meaningful exposure to the industry. This situation leads to a vicious circle of poverty, because community members fail to make decisions that could improve the environment and their lives, while tourists do not visit places where the environment has not been taken care of.

3.4.4.2 Threats to teacher qualifications and knowledge

Many teachers who teach tourism in Lesotho used to teach geography, development studies, history and economics. Furthermore, teachers who graduate in tourism do not necessarily enter the teaching profession. Degree holders investigate the best job opportunities before they settle on teaching.

Government does nothing to attract learners to continue education in tourism at higher levels, so that teaching vacancies can be filled by qualified teachers who have content knowledge of the subject. Because teachers who lack deep knowledge in the subject cannot teach it competently with examples, illustrations and analogies (Kleickmann et al., 2013: 91; Shulman, 1987: 8), few learners are inspired to further their studies in tourism education at a higher level. To start with, learners who perform poorly in tourism at high school may not qualify to major in tourism at university. The result is fewer and fewer qualified teachers with proper content knowledge in tourism. This is the scenario in Lesotho at present.

3.4.4.3 Threats to resource availability and use

In addition to a lack of qualified human resources with unquestionable knowledge of the subject, resources for teaching tourism are not available (Atieno, 2014: 1; Lyimo et al., 2017: 104-105). In Lesotho, tourism shares resources, such as textbooks, maps, globes, and compasses, with academic subjects such as geography, development studies and history, because tourism itself is still generally perceived as an academic subject. As a result, it is often recommended that educational excursions relate to all four disciplines, tourism, geography, development studies and history. Because of poverty in schools, it is rare that learners go on a trip

focusing on tourist attractions and the tourism industry alone, which would be far more educational for tourism, and more efficient, effective and inspiring (Mayell & Davies, 2014: 14).

3.4.4.4 Threats to tourism teaching methods and approaches

The most serious threat to tourism teaching methods and approaches relates to its competition with other vocational subjects, some of which have been part of the education system for a long time. Tourism has to compete with other subjects for funds to acquire the resources required to satisfy the needs of a teaching method and approach that bridges the gap between theory and practice, and ensures the acquisition and realisation of practical, occupational and business skills. These goals can be achieved through learner-centred approaches, which foster deep and lifelong learning (Boyce, Williams, Kelley & Yee, 2010: 41). Without adequate funds, resources and facilities, the subject of tourism may lose its vocational focus, and may instead end up being taught like academic subjects, such as geography, development studies and history, in a teacher-centred fashion. A teacher-centred approach involves information being transferred to passive learners (Hense & Mandl, 2012: 21), in the process encouraging surface or rote learning (Bates, 2010: 5) and short-term memorisation of facts for the sole purpose of passing examinations. In these circumstances, the vocational aspect of tourism may not materialise. Thus, schools in Lesotho should be conscious of the negative impact of the competition faced by tourism as a new subject, and be proactive about addressing the threat.

3.4.4.5 Threats to community participation in tourism education

Until community members realise that their indigenous knowledges, skills and talents are not inferior to formal education, they will be reluctant to participate in education or curriculum matters, particularly in tourism teaching. I believe that this distorted belief was entrenched by colonialism, in which symbols of educational worth were materialistic, for instance, wearing a suit and being employed in a white-collar job, and speaking English like an Englishman. One of the solutions to CP in tourism education, I believe, is to help community members discard this veneer of Western

trappings of self-worth, particularly in tourism teaching. Community members need to be reminded that, before the colonialists came, they had self-contained and self-reliant lives of their own. They did not owe anybody anything. This generally unfavourable description of CP in education, in which community members are reluctant to come forth, is true of Lesotho too.

3.4.4.6 Threats to understanding an integrated curriculum

Park (2008: 308) observes that few studies have focused on the experiences and attitudes of teachers in the implementation of an integrated curriculum. Such research would have enhanced understanding of an integrated curriculum, since teachers are the ones who do the spade-work on the ground. Even though Lake (2000: 7-8) refuted this claim by asserting that the teachers' perceptions are considered in the development and implementation stages of an integrated curriculum, there is no evidence from literature to support her claim, leaving me, the researcher, with no option but to agree with Park (2008: 308). Indeed, theories and models for an integrated curriculum are abundant, however, what seems to be lacking is empirical evidence that addresses teachers' experiences and perceptions, which could provide useful feedback about and insight into the operation, relevance and understanding of an integrated curriculum.

Park (2008: 313) suggests that there is a fear that an integrated curriculum could reduce the rigour of a discipline. If content is diluted or weakened due to too much interactive exposure, it could result in a weakening of the foundation of a discipline. It is not clear why "too much interactive exposure" could not have the effect of strengthening a discipline; nevertheless, this fear poses a threat to improving understanding of an integrated curriculum.

3.4.4.7 Threats to the implementation of an integrated curriculum

The most persistent threat, according to the literature, with regard to the implementation of an integrated curriculum, is the failure of school administrations to realise the value of staff training, so that staff thoroughly understand an integrated curriculum before implementation (Park, 2008: 308-309). What exacerbates matters

is that teacher training institutions do not expose trainee teachers to an integrated curriculum (Park, 2008: 316). In-service training is not readily available, and is not always effective (Park, 2008: 313), leading to a situation where classroom teachers “simply continue what they had been doing” (Loepp, 1999: 23), which is teaching isolated subject matter academically without practice.

In general, there is an acute lack of information on matters relating to an integrated curriculum in schools, and among teachers and learners, coupled with other practical obstacles, such as lack of resources (appropriate textbooks), facilities (a school bus, a library and a science laboratory) and infrastructure (extra classrooms and a hall) for a successful implementation (Park, 2008: 313). Malik and Malik (2011: 99) attribute some of these limitations to a lack of will and understanding of the process of change on the part of school administrations. Some strategies for the successful implementation of an integrated curriculum are that *there should be continuous communication between staff and learners*, and that *adequate resources and facilities should be availed* (see 3.2.5).

3.4.4.8 Threats to work-integrated learning

Many schools in Lesotho are not as privileged as Phela High School, which is close to resorts, lodges, hotels and tourist attractions. For other schools, finding internship placements for learners could be a problem. Finding placements far from the school will be inconvenient, because learners may have to leave their homes for weeks or months to work in a new environment, and would involve expenses for travelling for the learner and for the supervisor who has to supervise the learner. In the end, schools may be unable to afford WIL. Another threat is that there may be more schools and tourism learners than can be accommodated by the few WIL placements that are available. This situation is real, especially in deep rural areas of Lesotho, where there are schools, but no hotels, lodges, bed and breakfasts or resorts.

3.4.4.9 Threats to the assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

According to the Michigan Department of Education (2014: 4), achievement scores of learners in the traditional curriculum, and those in the newly introduced integrated curriculum, seem to be the same, negating earlier views by Beane (1997, cited in Magoma, 2016: 27) and Loepp (1999: 21), that an integrated curriculum improves test scores. In other words, even though researchers agree that an integrated curriculum enhances comprehension and retention of the learned content, achievement scores show no sign of significant improvement against the traditional curriculum (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314; Daly et al., 2012: 6; Shah & Jain, 2016: 1430-1431). This finding is a serious threat, because it seems to support the skeptics' view that an integrated curriculum only makes claims, but delivers nothing.

Brauer and Ferguson (2015: 18) highlight another threat in the assessment of an integrated curriculum: the shortage of “published long-term effectiveness” in assessing an integrated curriculum. Brauer and Ferguson (2015: 18) note that many studies assessing integrated curricula are of a snappy, short-term nature, and fail to provide a realistic long-term picture of its effectiveness. Thus, taking the risk of introducing an integrated curriculum does not provide the assurance of long-term success, because no studies providing evidence to that effect have been published.

3.4.5 Indicators of success to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using community participation

The following paragraphs explain the indicators of success regarding understanding tourism as a vocational subject, teacher qualifications and knowledge, resource availability and use, tourism teaching methods and approaches, CP in tourism education, understanding of an integrated curriculum, implementation of an integrated curriculum, WIL, and assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum.

3.4.5.1 Success in understanding tourism as a vocational subject

Evidence of success is demonstrated when learners are able to express themselves in defining tourism and a tourist better; when they can identify tourist attractions in

Lesotho and in the SADC region; when they can describe the benefits and identify challenges of the tourism industry in Lesotho and the SADC region; identify communication and transport networks in the SADC region and describe their impact on the environment; and suggest ways to improve the industry (Debeshe et al., 2005: 66; Lelala et al., 2004: 97; Mokhosi, 2005: 104).

Success is also exhibited when learners could recognise the physical beauty (mountain peaks, valleys, waterfalls, forests) and social beauty of their country (culture, expressed as dress, art, music, dance), and serving as marketing tools for tourism (DBE, 2013: 1-11; 2014: 1-13), resulting in learners appreciating the value of environmental and cultural preservation. Taking responsibility and caring for ecosystems and biodiversity is an indicator of success and of best practices.

Moreover, evidence of success is demonstrated when the learners' parents and community members visit the school to gain information about the subject of tourism and how it could benefit them and their children/learners through self-employment and job opportunities in the tourism industry (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228; MoET, 2009: 18; Nkumane, 2008: viii, 33; Omede, 2012: 296). Explaining clearly, from the onset, the significance of the self-reliance project to other stakeholders is paramount (Esau, 2013: 4).

3.4.5.2 Indicators of success regarding teacher qualifications and knowledge

A teacher with qualifications and knowledge is indicated by the expression competence and confidence in relation to knowledge, theories, facts and concepts of the subject matter (Kleickmann et al., 2013: 91). Such a teacher is also able to deliver the subject matter in simpler and understandable units that make sense to learners, because it is explained with relevant and lived examples, illustrations, and analogies (Shulman, 1987: 8), and not in complex and abstract terms. Altun (2013: 366) adds that a competent and knowledgeable teacher would be able to integrate the subject matter with practice, so that the content knowledge becomes useful to the lives of the learners and people who are faced with hunger, unemployment and disease. This is an ideal scenario, which schools in Lesotho should emulate in collaboration with institutions of higher learning, which, as Sean (2010: 39) observes,

have not started applying appropriate teaching methods for and approaches to teaching tourism as a vocational subject.

3.4.5.3 Indicators of success in resource availability and use

Resource availability and use determine how the teacher will teach tourism. When resources are not available chances are that the teacher will teach according to a teacher-centred approach. It is therefore critical that schools budget for resources and facilities, so that the integrated tourism curriculum is taught through collaborative and multidisciplinary approaches, which are integrative and interactive, and therefore learner-centred. Teaching should focus on skills, which requires tools, materials and equipment for learners to practise the skills taught. Teaching should be project-based, and requires learners to work individually or collectively, engaging in activities that improve their lives. Learners should participate in WIL, which exposes learners to the tourism industry through internships; and problem-based learning, which exposes learners to exploring multiple perspectives for addressing problems, and developing skills to defend their solutions (Armitage, 2010: 4; Knyviene, 2014: 157; Plato & Alrich, 2014: 541). The point is, these methods and approaches need resources, and if a school makes resources available, it could indicate success.

3.4.5.4 Successful tourism teaching methods and approaches

The best indicator of success regarding tourism teaching methods and approaches would be having convinced the school administration of the significance of the tourism education project, and the administration budgeting for the purchase of teaching aids and resources that are compatible with suitable teaching methods and approaches, which immediately lean towards learner-centredness. Because resources and facilities can be expensive, school administration could use secondary assets and resources, which are available in the vicinity of the school, but just outside its compound -- “semi-immediate” (Myende, 2014: 43), to enhance teaching and learning. Using these resources means ownership of the school is distributed to the community, in the process reducing the cost of buying resources and building facilities.

Another indicator of success is teaching methods and approaches becoming more learner-centred through group discussions and social interaction for the construction of knowledge (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011: 717; McGregor & Murane, 2010: 423). Participants share ideas and opinions about abstract concepts, such as the meaning of tourism, and tangible phenomena they can see, hear, touch, smell, taste, such as straw hats, wooden carvings of birds, model ponies made of clay, traditional songs and dancing, making *motoho* (traditional porridge), which can all be used as opportunities in the tourism industry for the benefit of underprivileged learners. Social constructivism enriches and facilitates the transfer of learning between disciplines, and between individuals, teachers, learners, and community members, while at the same time focusing on the practice of making craft products to sell, in order to help underprivileged learners raise funds.

3.4.5.5 Successful community participation in tourism education

Success would be demonstrated when learners' parents and community members visit Phela High School voluntarily, to be informed about the subject of tourism and how it could benefit them and their children/learners through self-employment and job opportunities available in the tourism industry (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228; MoET, 2009: 17-18; Nkumane, 2008: viii, 33; Omede, 2012: 296). Explaining clearly, from the onset, the significance of the self-reliance project to other stakeholders is paramount (Esau, 2013: 4). Clear explanations were given by learners when they displayed their crafts for sale, and some community members indicated how impressed they were with the learners' work.

The researcher had also suggested a parent meeting to the school administration, to inform community members about tourism benefits to the national economy and job opportunities, and about tourism as a school subject, and how parents could help the school by mobilising and providing resources. The researcher took advantage of Russell's (2009: 33) finding that community members like to participate in building and improving their schools by mobilising and providing resources. Some community members became involved voluntarily later on, and enquired about the self-reliance project after missing the parent meeting. The community as a whole embraced the subject of tourism and the project undertaken by the learners, to the extent that the

spirit of volunteering was inculcated. Above all, as Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77) and Moeller and Bielfeldt (2011: 85) indicate, it is the community that provides multiple strengths, resources, skills, talents and assets for the project to succeed, and be sustainable.

Successfully utilising community members is indicated by increased diversification in social interaction, which reinforces teaching and learning, and makes the process enjoyable and exciting. One of the objectives of Yosso's (2005) CCW is to portray the community as a resource of teaching and learning through its forms of capital, which were explained at length in 2.3.4. The forms of capital provide a rich contextual background for the learners' education. By using CP to bridge the gap between theory and practice, the study reached the learners' capabilities, depending on their backgrounds and talents. Those who were not strong on theory could find a sanctuary in practicals, and feel motivated to learn by doing, thus making education truly democratic, and a tool for emancipation (Freire, 1970: 58, 85). In contrast, teacher-centred education becomes a tool for passiveness and domination (Baker, 2011: 208; Freire, 1970: 71), because it is "authority driven" (Petersen, 2015: 75).

3.4.5.6 Success in understanding an integrated curriculum

There is evidence of success when teachers and learners understand that an integrated curriculum has two components: a theoretical component, and the application of theory, or knowledge, to achieve self-reliance (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228; MoET, 2009: 18; Omede, 2012: 296). Thus, what underpins an integrated curriculum is acquiring knowledge and developing skills to be productive and entrepreneurial, in order to address life challenges of unemployment and poverty, with the help, when possible, of skilled and talented community members. Long-term success would involve a change in learners' attitudes towards hands-on skills, manual work, and work-related programmes (Msuya et al., 2014: 103-104). In addition, values, such as hard work, resilience and being painstaking, which bear similarities to Yosso's (2005) aspirational, navigational and resistance forms of capital, were developed. Thus, a thorough understanding of an integrated curriculum incorporated both theory and practice. An integrated curriculum should synthesise

knowledge, skills and attitudes (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314), and this was achieved in this study.

3.4.5.7 Successful implementation of an integrated curriculum

For implementation to be successful, Park (2008: 308) emphasises the importance of uniformity and unity in understanding the language of an integrated curriculum. If this does not happen, confusion can derail the process. The particular terms that are usually referred to are multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and transdisciplinary (which were explained in 3.4.2.3). I ensured that these concepts were clearly conceptualised uniformly by the teachers at Phela High School, so that there was no confusion regarding the implementation of the self-reliance project. Park's (2008: 308) views are shared by Malik and Malik (2011: 99-100), Daly et al. 2012: 10-11), and Brauer and Ferguson (2015: 314-315), all of whom emphasise comprehensive staff training to achieve unity of understanding for successful implementation.

3.4.5.8 Indicators of success in work-integrated learning

Success can be achieved if most learners are placed in internships in the tourism industry, in the sector of their choice, whether the sector relates to accommodation, marketing, carriers (transport), tour operation, coordinating or attractions (Leiper, 1995 in Mayaka, 1999:9). Working and learning in a sector of their choice would be highly motivating for learners, and could mean that some of them would be absorbed by the industry permanently soon after high school graduation.

It is advisable that learner feedback at school should show gaps in the curriculum between the content knowledge learned at school, and the real world of work where the internship took place. Schools should learn about the skills the industry needs most, and should restructure their curricula to meet these needs. Tourism industry employers would gain a glimpse of what schools teach, and could contribute and inform schools of their needs, leading to curriculum restructuring to make it more relevant and responsive to the outside world.

3.4.5.9 Success in the assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

There was evidence of success at Phela High School when there was clarity and agreement over the allocation of marks for content (50 percent) and marks for the practical section (50 percent), thus following the model of assessment for tourism education followed in the United Kingdom (Cambridge IGCSE, 2014: 7-8), unlike the 60/40 model in Lesotho, which favours more content than practical work.

Success was also shown through collaboration among staff at Phela High School in operationalising the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum. This effort was important, because, sometimes, there is lack of cooperation between teachers and departments regarding what has to be assessed and how many marks have to be allocated in an integrated curriculum (Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 8-9; Shankar, 2014: 75), which may develop into a mismatch between what has been taught and what has to be assessed.

3.5 CONCLUSION

The study aimed to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP and CCW. To achieve this aim, the study investigated the benefits of an integrated curriculum, among which were to facilitate the transfer of learning from different disciplines, through interactive and integrative activities, and by emphasising the vocational aspect of tourism education. At the heart of the learners' project's success was the use of skilled and talented community members, who provided learners with indigenous knowledge for making and selling crafts to generate income for alleviating poverty. Community members offered skills and talents that teachers did not have. Additionally, the literature reviewed helped to demonstrate that, if conducive conditions prevail in the implementation stage of an integrated tourism curriculum, and work against the prevailing challenges and threats, self-reliance could be achieved by making use of the available facilities of other vocational subjects. A strong argument has been offered in this study, that it is not necessary for every vocational subject to have its own individual workshop, but that workshops and facilities can be shared to minimise the cost of presenting vocational subjects. Schools need to be creative in applying resources in and outside the school compound to keep the costs of vocational subjects down.

CHAPTER 4 : RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY FOR FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The study sought to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP and CCW. To achieve this aim, this chapter focuses on the design and methodology guiding the study, through the use of participatory action research (PAR), which operationalises CP and CCW. Community members were invited to come to school, to train underprivileged learners to make craft products that they could sell to make a living for themselves. The study describes the research design, and methods of generating and collecting data, and its analysis. It also discusses the fundamental components and themes defining PAR under the subheadings: historical origins, its objectives, formats, steps, ontology, epistemology, the role of the researcher, relationship with the co-researchers and the focus group. Furthermore, PAR's cyclical steps are explained, namely, identifying and clarifying the problem, developing a plan for improvement, implementing the plan, observing and documenting the effects of the plan, reflecting on the effects of the plan for further planning, and taking informed action.

Ethical considerations will guide all aspects of interaction with the co-researchers and the focus group; the study progressed in ways that would not harm or pose a threat of any kind to their persons. The research site profile, selection of the co-researchers and the focus group, and their contribution, will also be described. The mechanisms and opportunities for monitoring the progress of the self-reliance project will be clearly stated, because working with human beings calls for observance and care in certain procedures.

Once data was generated, it was subjected to SWOT analysis, which is a prognosis tool to identify strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in a self-reliance project, and analyse them on three levels by means of CDA, an analytical tool that

primarily studies language and the underlying meaning of utterances, depending on the context in which they are made. The chapter ends with a conclusion.

Themes defining PAR are discussed below under each section and subsection.

4.2 PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH

This section discusses the historical origins of PAR, its definition, objectives, formats, steps, ontology, epistemology, the researcher's role, and how the researcher relates to co-researchers and the focus group. The relevance of PAR is that it is people-centred and community-based, which is where the research activities will take place to transform the lives of all involved, particularly the underprivileged (Amaya & Yeates, 2014: 3; Lykes, Hershberg & Brabeck 2011: 24; Muligan, Wilkinson, Lusty, Dolome & Bong, 2015: 97). PAR enables the community to lead research and generate the qualitative and quantitative data needed through the maximisation of local, indigenous and traditional knowledge systems that reflect the community's norms and values, and which leads to strong research ownership (IIED, 2017).

4.2.1 Historical origins of participatory action research

Lewin is considered the founder of action research (1944, cited in Gillis & Jackson, 2002: 264; Baum, MacDougall & Smith, 2006: 866; McNiff & Whitehead, 2006: 36). Lewin believed that people would be more productive at their workplaces if they were involved in decision-making. Action research today involves the following steps: observing, reflecting, planning, acting, evaluating and modifying (MacDonald, 2012: 37), until a solution is found. In addition, Lewin, a Prussian psychologist and a Jewish refugee from Nazi Germany, assisted people to resolve issues of segregation, discrimination and assimilation (MacDonald, 2012: 37).

PAR can also be traced back to Freire (1974), who referred to it as community action research, and believed that social change could be achieved through dialogue, conscientisation and critical consciousness (MacDonald, 2012: 37; Ozanne & Saatcioglu, 2008: 431). Finally, PAR emerged from movements such as international economic development assistance, which provided aid to the poor, and in the

process empowered adult education and the social science paradigm by denouncing societal domination and oppression of the underprivileged (Baum et al., 2006: 866; Maquire 1987: 60-69; MacDonald, 2012: 37-38).

In keeping with the objectives of PAR stated above, the study aimed to uplift underprivileged learners from unpalatable conditions of poverty they found themselves in and which had resulted from the deaths of their parents from AIDS, by integrating the theory of tourism with practice. With the help of community members, learners produced crafts with their hands and sold them to generate income to address their needs.

4.2.2 Definition of participatory action research

PAR is an approach in which community members with varying power and status in terms of education, wealth and influence, collaborate to solve their socio-economic problems (Maquire, 1987: 87; McTaggart, 1991: 169). PAR sees the researcher and participants as partners, irrespective of whether they are “ordinary” community members, hence, the use of the term, co-researchers. It is an approach that emphasises that community members should not only be researched, but should participate in the research process themselves (Eruera, 2010: 1; Hlalele, 2014: 103; Vollman, Anderson & Mcforlane, 2004: 129). In this way, PAR fosters capacity, empowerment, participation, social justice and community development.

Throughout the research process, the researcher treats the participants with respect and honesty, revealing their feelings and views without manipulation and control (MacDonald, 2012: 34). This illustrates that PAR is caring, realistic, “democratic, equitable, liberating and life-enhancing” (MacDonald, 2012: 34). Action research and PAR are qualitative methods that are descriptive and interpretative, and aim to understand human behaviour and problems from their natural settings without prediction and control (MacDonald, 2012: 37).

The bleak living conditions of underprivileged learners were observed in their natural setting, in the community. Through free attitude interviews, the main instrument for generating qualitative data, and the self-reliance project of making and selling crafts, attempts were made to find life-saving solutions. In contrast to quantitative research,

there was neither a prediction/hypothesis, nor a control group to help predict the outcome of the research. The researcher, co-researchers, community members, and the learners themselves, engaged to find out how they could be assisted to improve their plight. There were discussions, debates, twists and turns along the way, until a solution was arrived at.

4.2.3 Objectives of participatory action research

First, PAR empowers underprivileged people through capacity-building and provision of opportunities for development (McTaggart, 1997: 585; Pant & Odame, 2009: 160-172; Vollman et al., 2004: 129). Second, PAR ensures that the knowledge gained is utilised immediately in order to change the lives of ordinary people (Cameron & Gipson, 2005: 317). Third, PAR provides space for the individual to understand the importance of being part of the community, collaborating and cooperating, through democratic processes, on issues of economic growth and development (Lybeck, 2010: 91; MacDonald, 2012: 38). Finally, PAR enables ordinary citizens to become experts in identifying their problems, and in finding ways to solve them through acquired skills and knowledge (Boog, 2003: 426). This involvement creates a powerful, sustainable, and lifelong learning environment (Mahlomaholo & Netshandama, 2012: 4).

A powerful learning environment was, indeed, exhibited and witnessed during various collaborative and consultative meetings between the teachers, learners and community members at the research site, Phela High School (pseudonym), which was a space used to find ways of capacitating and empowering underprivileged learners (the focus group of 10 learners), through making crafts, and selling them to generate income for themselves in order to address life challenges of poverty, and strive to achieve self-reliance while they were at school, and beyond. Thus, the knowledge gained was utilised to improve and transform lives, as articulated by PAR. To achieve this feat, combining Yosso's (2005) CCW and PAR was central. CCW demonstrates the strengths, resources, assets, talents, experiences a community has in the form of capital, while PAR provides the approach and the methodology of using them. Both CCW and PAR acknowledge that community members are experts at finding solutions in their environment.

4.2.4 Formats of participatory action research

PAR is part of action research, which manifests itself through a variety of terms, depending on the focus of the study: participatory action research, participatory research, community-based participatory research, feminist participatory research, participatory appraisal and other forms of participative inquiry (McTaggart, 1989: 562; MacDonald, 2012: 35). All terms are aimed at transforming the social conditions of the underprivileged through action.

This study made use of the five themes that result from the above PAR formats. The first relates to giving voice to the voiceless (Nkoane, 2010: 317), thus balancing power relations and providing notions of fairness, social justice, freedom and hope between the researcher and co-researchers (Netshandama & Mahlomaholo, 2010: 79). The study created space for underprivileged learners to voice their personal problems to an audience that was interested in and willing to assist them. Communicative space opened up between participants. People have the opportunity to meet and become aware that they face similar challenges, and therefore they begin to support one another through collaboration and cooperation by holding meetings and discussions, and reaching consensus (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2007: 271-329).

The second theme relates to networking. PAR provides opportunities to communicate with participants who have diverse knowledge, experience, skills and talents (Watters & Comeau, 2014: 9). Communication opportunities promote a sense of interconnectedness, and build lasting relationships and networks with other community organisations, professionals and government officials in the process of doing research. It was expected that underprivileged learners would make use of interconnectedness and networks between co-researchers, which would inform their decision-making to improve and transform their lives, while they were at school and beyond.

The third theme relates to the intrinsically empowering nature of PAR. People involved develop awareness of their conditions, and the need to change it. Skills and knowledge acquired through capacity-building enhance confidence and self-esteem and help address problems, which leads to social transformation (Kintz, 2011: 15 - 17; Watters & Comeau, 2014: 10). Community members share knowledge and learn

by doing, thus, strengthening their self-belief. The experience of training learners in a school environment was new to the community members; it enhanced their self-confidence, while at same time empowering the needy learners.

The fourth theme relates to the growth of collaboration in the community, from small beginnings with a few individuals in the initial stages of PAR, to bigger community groups coming together to address their common problems (Flicker, Maley, Ridgley, Biscope, Lombardo & Skinner, 2008: 287). The involvement of the wider community leads to more cohesion and unity in terms of voicing their concerns (Watters & Comeau, 2014: 10). By inviting some community members into Phela High School, others realised the importance of their skills and talents, and even voluntarily visited the school, to find out if they could help with the skills transfer. This kind of interaction between school and community members was a humbling experience.

The last theme of PAR is effecting social change (Amaya & Yeates, 2014: 3; Lykes et al., 2011: 24; Muligan et al., 2015: 97). All the other themes – giving voice, networking, empowerment and collaboration – build up towards social change, through the use of research findings and recommendations (Macaraan, 2013: 5; MacDonald, 2012: 40). Research findings can be used to solicit external assistance from donors and government to make improvements in the community.

4.2.5 Steps in participatory action research

There are eight steps in PAR, which provide sequence and logic in following through with its processes (MacDonald, 2012: 39). The steps are assessing community needs, gaining entry into the community, identifying and clarifying the problem, developing a plan to solve the problem, implementing the plan, observing and documenting the effects of implementation, reflecting on the effects of implementation for further planning, and maintaining the project's success and sustainability. Progression from one step to another does not take place haphazardly, but only after ensuring that the first step is satisfactorily completed. The discussion below unpacks each step in some detail.

4.2.5.1 Assessing community needs

A strong vision and rationale for any new self-reliance project aimed at uplifting the lives of an underprivileged community should be well researched and spelled out (Hubball & Burt, 2004: 55). The community's full participation can only come from understanding, and being aware of the benefits that await them. Emphasis in PAR is effecting social change, in which the primary beneficiary is the community (MacDonald, 2012: 39-40).

4.2.5.2 Gaining entry into the community

Any point of entry into the community should be based on trust, respect, honesty, non-judgemental and non-directive approach (Dworski-Riggs & Langhout, 2010: 227; MacDonald, 2012: 45). There should be clear evidence of professionalism and a desire to improve the lives of the affected on the part of the researcher (Hill & Tyson, 2009: 741). In my school I gained entry into the community through the learner members of the focus group, who had been selected based on extreme vulnerability and distance they lived from school, and who had shown an interest in the self-reliance project. Their guardians were invited to the school and informed of the tourism project and its likely benefits.

4.2.5.3 Identifying and clarifying the problem

PAR elevates the position of community members by making them co-researchers, and this gives them motivation and confidence to articulate their needs and problems. The researcher does not impose problems or solutions. Problems come from community members (MacDonald, 2012: 39).

4.2.5.4 Developing a plan to solve the problem

Community members consider their strengths and weaknesses in terms of available resources, and how to use the resources in a cost-effective manner to accomplish their objectives (MacDonald, 2012: 40). In the self-reliance project in this study each of them indicated the areas of their interests and strengths, and what they were good

and effective at in relation to their skills and talents for the process of craft-making. For example, some community members were good at making hats from straw and grass; others were good at using wood for carving. Teachers shared duties and decided which areas of craft-making they would monitor, while community members trained underprivileged learners to do the crafts.

4.2.5.5 Implementation stage

Plans that were developed were put into action by training the underprivileged learners how to make the crafts, which they would later sell to generate income. The ultimate goal of PAR is action! Priorities were selected and dealt with incrementally and systematically, starting with easier tasks before moving on to more demanding ones, so as to avoid surprises and fear of the unknown (Mertler, 2011: 37). In this study co-researchers asked the focus group of learners to choose between making clay artefacts, wooden carvings/sculptures and straw hats. Raw materials were provided free of charge; this was important, because learners did not have capital in the form of cash to kickstart the self-reliance project.

4.2.5.6 Observing and documenting the effects of implementation

During implementation the researcher and co-researchers observed and noted areas that needed improvement to maximise the benefits of the project, and to eliminate threats. Convenient times to make the crafts that did not interfere with classes were determined; convenient times for the teachers and community members who would monitor the learners were also considered and agreed upon. Any obstacle that stood in the way of implementation was noted and addressed. For example, there was the question of whether lunch should be provided for the community members. The issue was resolved by approaching the principal, who readily agreed that they should eat at school, explaining that it would have been cumbersome for them to come to the school in the morning, and then go back home at lunch, and come back to school once more, and then go home again at the end of the day. On the other hand, bringing their own (poorly-prepared) meals could cause embarrassment to some of them.

4.2.5.7 Reflecting on the effects of implementation for further planning

This is the time to revise and evaluate what has taken place through meetings, discussions and reports, the effects that had been observed earlier and documented with the objective of further planning, because the PAR process is cyclical – steps of planning, acting, observing and reflecting spiral into another cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflecting (Baum et al., 2006: 826; Vaccarino, Comrie, Murray & Sligo, 2007: 3).

Bulman and Schultz (2004: 232) suggest that the reflection stage has other intricate stages, as listed below:

Stage 1: select a critical activity to reflect on;

Stage 2: observe and describe that experience;

Stage 3: analyse the experience;

Stage 4: interpret the experience;

Stage 5: if necessary, explore alternatives; and

Stage 6: follow the action plan.

The role of reflection in PAR is to learn from previous mistakes, and avoid them when moving forward with the self-reliance project. Figure 4.1 presents a diagram showing the intricate reflective stages of PAR suggested by Bulman and Schultz (2004: 232). First, it was important to select a critical activity from among many activities that could help underprivileged learners to address poverty and strive to achieve self-reliance. Once the selected activity had been put into practice, it had to be observed and described to be well understood. Then, the activity had to be analysed using the SWOT analysis, in order to avoid previous mistakes, and identify and build on opportunities going forward. What was important was to make the activity, or in this case the crafts project, sustainable. Alternatives, to enhance and improve the project, were explored, leading to the action plan for implementation, as suggested by Bulman and Schultz (2004: 233).



Figure 4.1: Intricate reflection stages (Bulman & Schultz 2004: 232)

4.2.5.8 Maintaining the project's success and sustainability

If the project works well, co-researchers ensure that everything runs smoothly and harmoniously, according to the strategic plan, on a daily, weekly and monthly basis, with continuous feedback on what takes place through the SWOT analysis, and determining if there is a need for change and adaptation (Baum et al., 2006: 856; Vaccarino et al., 2007: 3). Sustained monitoring is crucial at this stage, to ensure effectiveness, continuity and quality in the outcome of the self-reliance project.

4.2.6 Ontology in participatory action research

According to MacDonald (2012: 36), ontology manifests itself in reality that shifts, making objectivity impossible. What exists are multiple realities that require subjective, multiple interpretations from various experiences (Chilisa, 2012: 40; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011: 717). In PAR, meaning and reality are socially constructed through language and communication by people who live within the environment. When community members have ideas, and their voices are heeded without manipulation and control, they feel free and make more helpful contributions to improve their lives (Lybeck, 2010: 91; McGregor & Murane, 2010: 423). By helping underprivileged learners address poverty and unemployment challenges, community members were making a contribution to themselves, because these learners were their children.

4.2.7 Epistemology in participatory action research

Epistemology is the study of knowledge, and how it is arrived at, so that knowledge is not mistaken for belief. PAR acknowledges that there are multiple ways of knowing other than the scientific method (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011: 717). With the help of co-researchers and community members, social interaction in PAR can be a rich source of knowledge production (Boog, 2003: 428). Indeed, the interaction between teachers, learners and community members in this study provided a rich atmosphere of learning and knowledge sharing, particularly in relation to tourism and how to make crafts for sale.

4.2.8 Role of the researcher in participatory action research

The researcher became many things in the study: creator, mobiliser, coordinator, convener, motivator, initiator, interpreter, director, leader, manager. I had to create a conducive learning environment in which learners could benefit theoretically and practically from the concept of tourism. I also had to mobilise community members who had skills and knowledge for making crafts to come to school and share and impart their skills to the learners, so that the learners could make the products for themselves to generate income. I had to establish rapport with other co-researchers

and motivate them to take responsibility for the study (Keistin & Stichter, 2011: 98). I also had to interpret co-researchers' interpretations to create meaning (Rosenthal & Khalil, 2010: 72). Finally, I had to lead and manage the research process, from the beginning to the end, while humbling myself and empowering co-researchers (Boog, 2003: 425) to find solutions to the problem of poverty faced by underprivileged learners at my school.

4.2.9 Relationship with co-researchers in participatory action research

The initial interaction between the researcher and co-researchers should be impressive, so that it has the potential to last (Barry, 2012: 18). The relationship should be based on trust, openness to communication, respect and recognition of one another. The benefits of treating others with trust, humility and care are that co-researchers assume ownership of the problems (Mahlomaholo & Netshandama, 2012: 40). Ultimately, since PAR has a transformative agenda, it is important that all participants are free to express and voice their opinions for social change to take place. In the process of bringing together the co-researchers, community members and underprivileged learners, the researcher humbled himself and genuinely respected each one of them. I made them feel welcome, and assured them that their contributions in discussions, debates and brainstorming sessions would be important, as they would provide answers and solutions to the problems of the underprivileged learners, and thus make a valuable contribution to the study.

4.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical clearance and permission were granted by the University of the Free State, Faculty of Education. The researcher had to ensure that all relevant persons and authorities had been consulted (MacDonald, 2012: 45). Parents or guardians of the learners were also approached to give consent, and to sign permission forms allowing their children to take part in the research.

The researcher had to explain why the research was being undertaken, and explain its benefits to the parents, as community members, and to the learners and co-researchers. Participants were assured of confidentiality throughout the research

process (Baum et al., 2006: 6), I would not report their true names, or give their ages or marital status (Silverman, 2013: 30, 161-162). They were also informed that they were free to answer or refuse to answer interview questions, and could withdraw from the research at any stage, without having to give reasons for their withdrawal. Before publishing the research work, the participants' points of view would be taken into consideration and agreed upon (MacDonald, 2012: 45).

4.4 DATA GENERATION STRUCTURE (DESIGN)

This section, firstly, introduces and describes the research site where this study took place. Secondly, the researcher is introduced, followed by an explanation of how he developed an interest in addressing the plight of underprivileged learners in a Form B (Grade 9) class for which he was the geography and tourism teacher. Thirdly, the section introduces and describes the co-researchers.

4.4.1 Research site profile

The research site is Phela High School, located in a rural area at the foothills of Butha-Buthe District, north-eastern Lesotho. The school is situated along the road to Mahlasela Afri-Ski Resort, which attracts many tourists. It is also along the road to Mokhotlong District, where activities of the second phase of the Lesotho Highlands Water Project are in progress. This project is responsible for selling water to South Africa. Mokhotlong is also where the highest peak in the SADC region is found, Thabana-Ntlenyana, at 3 482 m above sea level. All these tourist attractions are within 100 km of Phela High School. The closest attraction is the Muela Dam, which is about 10 km from the school, and from where a tunnel transfers water to South Africa.

Literature indicates that rural schools, such as Phela High School, face staggering challenges (Showalter, Klein & Johnson, 2017). They struggle to attract and retain qualified staff, because urban areas are more attractive; they lack infrastructure, such as roads for transport, internet for teaching, learning, information and communication; they lack adequate facilities, such as specialised classrooms,

laboratories and halls; and external services such as health centres; banks and police may be hard to access.



Figure 4.2: Muela Dam, from which water is transferred to South Africa

Not far from the Muela Dam is the Liphofung Caves (Figure 4.3) which contain famous Bushman drawings. It is also believed that Moshoeshe I used the Liphofung Caves as a shelter in 1804, before he became the Basotho King in 1816.



Figure 4.3: Liphofung Caves, 15 km from Phela High School

The community around Phela High School depends on subsistence farming to survive. Fields are cultivated mostly through the use of cattle. Homes have vegetable gardens; although, because of persistent drought, crops are a rare sight. Boys often miss school to look after animals, and to work in the fields (Figure 4.4). Longer absences, of three to six months, are a result of attendance of initiation school. Girls walk long distances to collect firewood and water for cooking. They often marry very young, at 15 years, as a strategy to escape poverty (Kimane, 2005: 27-29). Poverty has worsened since the start of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, which has orphaned 30 percent of school children in Lesotho (Kimane, 2005: 27-29); hence, the relevance of this study to intervene and provide assistance to some learners.



Figure 4.4: Subsistence farming is the primary source of making a living (from the learners' textbook by Debeshe et al. 2004: 48, 103)

4.4.2 The researcher's profile

I have been a teacher for 30 years. At present I teach geography at Phela High School. My interest in tourism education developed when I taught tourism as a concept in geography. Tourism activities around the school, as outlined in 4.4.1, made me wonder if these activities could be used to help underprivileged learners. Fortunately, the newly introduced integrated curriculum emphasised the acquisition of practical, creative, productive and entrepreneurial skills by learners to address the life challenges of poverty, and to strive to achieve self-reliance (MoET, 2009: 18). I also observed that the integrated curriculum was not being implemented. This was enough motivation for me to consider implementing it, to bridge the apparent gap between theory and practice, in order to help the underprivileged learners. I started considering this project seriously in 2010, during the FIFA World Cup in South Africa, when tourism activities were at their peak in the SADC region, though I only started my studies with the University of the Free State in January 2016.



Figure 4.5: Tourism Information Centre after crossing the Caledonspoort into Lesotho, the closest border to Phela High School in the Butha-Buthe District

I became interested in reading government documents on poverty alleviation, with a particular interest in how tourism education might help needy learners at schools. I went through the Lesotho's Poverty Reduction Strategy 2004/2005 – 2006/2007, Vision 2020, Budget Speeches in Parliament from 2010 to the present, The Lesotho Review: An Overview of the Kingdom of Lesotho Economy – 2017 Editions, prepared by the Lesotho Tourism Development Corporation, and many others. I also started reading academic literature on how tourism helps the poor in different parts of the world, with particular attention to tourism education and poor learners who need practical assistance, not just words of encouragement.

4.4.3 The co-researchers' profile

Co-researchers comprised the teachers, community members and the CEO of the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Culture. Next, I describe who they are, and how and why they were involved in the study. All names, including the school name, are pseudonyms.

4.4.3.1 The teachers

I worked with two teachers in the study, Mr Sam and Ms Mona. Both are in their late 40s. Each has 20 years experience of teaching. Mr Sam has a BEd degree, and teaches development studies, which has many themes and topics that are similar to those of geography. Together, we planned which topics I could present to learners in tourism, while he presented others in development studies, and for which topics we needed to be in the same classroom together. This integrated approach helped us to avoid duplication in our teaching, which saved time and resources. For example, he would not teach about tourism attractions in the SADC region in his subject, development studies, while I taught it in geography. We shared one classroom, for example, to discuss with the learners advantages and disadvantages of tourism. Mr Sam had never taught at any other school except Phela High School, probably because the school is situated in his home community, where he grew up, got married and built his own home. His inclusion in the study was invaluable, because he knew the learners and their home situations very well; he also knew most community members and what they did for a living.

Ms Mona has a BSc (Agric) degree with education, and teaches agriculture and science. I asked her to join us because her subject produces material that could be used in craft products, such as, wood from tree planting, and straw from grass planting. Apart from producing material for tourism activities, the practical activities Ms Mona teaches prevent soil erosion and beautify the land, making it attractive, also to tourists. Ms Mona had previously taught in other high schools around the country before coming to Phela High School. She could compare poverty levels of learners at Phela High School with her previous schools. In addition to the value of her subject knowledge and experience, she is very active in and useful to the school; she is the type of person who wants to solve and fix every problem. She is what you could call a utility teacher or a handyman (I have never heard of a handywoman!).

4.4.3.2 Community members

There were four community members. The first is Mr Pinda, who owned Pinda Lodge, and who agreed that the learners' craft products could be sold from his lodge. He provided space outside the lodge where the learners' crafts could be displayed

for the passing tourists and other customers. He offered the study a wealth of entrepreneurship experience, which he shared with the learners and other co-researchers. His lodge is about 10 km from Phela High School. Mr Pinda was in his 70s, and had spent his adult life as a businessman.

Other community members were Mr Lekeno, a wood carver; Mrs Sibeko, grass and straw-hat maker; and Mr Seepa, who made clay artefacts, saucers and cups, and miniature animals. They were subsistence farmers in their 60s, and engaged in craft products to augment subsistence farming to eke out a living.

Community members were to train underprivileged learners to make craft products. Thus, the selection of community members was based on the knowledge and skills they possessed, which could contribute to the self-reliance project. These community members lived within a short walking distance from the school. Only Mr Pinda was from further away; fortunately, he had vehicles for travelling.

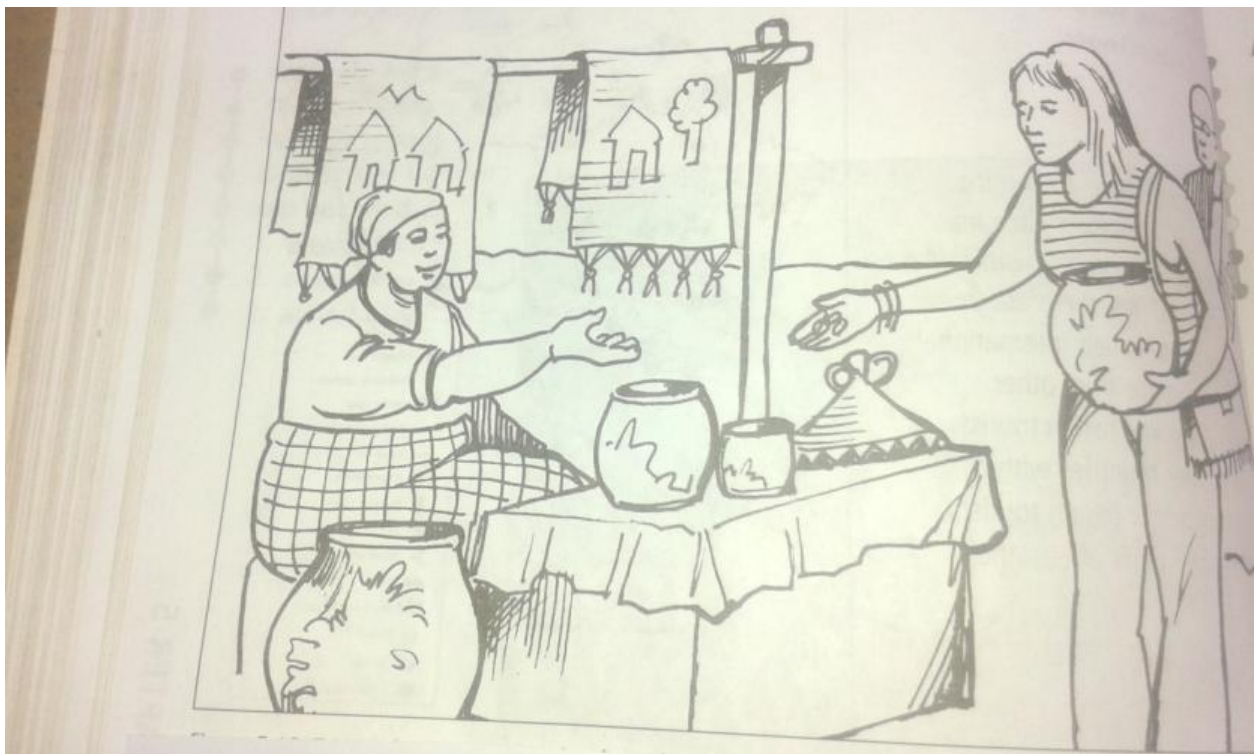


Figure 4.6: A community member selling crafts (from the learners' textbook by Debeshe et al. 2006: 84)

4.4.3.3 Chief Executive Officer of the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Culture

The CEO, Mr Maqu, was in his mid 40s. We invited him to articulate the government's policy and laws pertaining to the travel and tourism industry, and to relate them to tourism education. He had been working in the travel and tourism industry for 20 years at the headquarters in Maseru, 160 km from Phela High School, and therefore only attended our meetings when it was really necessary, such as to present workshops for the other co-researchers, owing to his vast knowledge of the sector, including policies and laws. Between meetings I kept him updated by phone; I informed him what we agreed upon, and reported back to the other co-researchers on his thoughts and ideas.

4.4.4 The focus group

The focus group comprised 10 learners, five boys and five girls in a Form B class (Grade 9). Learners in Form B are about 14-15 years of age in Lesotho, and understand their deprived circumstances, including that of their communities (Myende, 2014: 81). Improving the learners' academic performance cannot succeed unless they take part in the learning activity, and are given a chance to air their views, and are listened to (Myende, 2014: 81). A minimum of six individuals and a maximum of 12 is deemed adequate for a focus group (Abomeh, 2012: 12). Some researchers suggest a minimum of seven and a maximum of 12; others suggest a maximum of 10 (Ohio State University, 2012: 1). It is believed that this number can generate sufficient data and provide deeper insight into the subject under study, exchange experiences and contribute to the construction of knowledge (Abomeh, 2012: 13; Kinaliski, Paula, Padoin, Neves, Kleinubing & Cortes, 2017: 425).

Learners were selected on the basis of depth of poverty: being double orphans; their fees paid by a donor; having lunch provided at school, and this being the only meal of the day; poorly dressed and barefoot in spite of severe and freezing weather. A walking distance of no more than three km to and from the school was also considered a criterion for selection, as it would allow the learners to arrive early and leave late, if necessary, providing time flexibility in the research process. The principal and other teachers of Form B (Grade 9) assisted the researcher with the

selection of the neediest underprivileged learners after the the principal and teachers had been informed of the tourism education self-reliance project.

4.5 DATA GENERATION METHODS (METHODOLOGY)

This section sheds light and elaborates on the activities that were used to generate data, such as minute-taking in meetings, in which discussions, debate and brainstorming took place; keeping field notes and diaries; conducting free attitude interviews; engaging in participant observation and using audio-visual recordings. Using a variety of data collection methods enabled observations from different angles. However, it is important to note that the same activities that were used to generate data were also used to collect it. The discussion that follows provides details on how the above activities generated data.

4.5.1 Minute-taking in meetings

In meetings we discussed and agreed on activities that were to take place at daily, weekly and monthly intervals. Deadlines were set, after which there would be reporting. Co-researchers appointed Mr Pinda as the chair, while Mrs Sibeko, as the secretary, wrote the minutes of the meetings, and noted anything important from discussions, debates and brainstorming exercises. From the beginning, all members were encouraged to take notes for themselves. The researcher supplied the co-researchers with small notebooks and pens for this purpose, but they had to feel free from pressure in the process; failing to write anything in the notebook was not a crime.

Brainstorming took place in the meetings. Brainstorming is a way of developing new ideas through discussions that involve several people; the best ideas are chosen and adopted by the group (MEDAL, 2002: 159). In this study brainstorming was used to decide on the types of crafts that the learners were to make, and what raw material was needed to make them, and which was the best place to get the material. Learners provided useful suggestions, because they knew community members from the community setting, and village chiefs from whom requests could be made to

obtain the material to make the craft products, and where the raw material could easily be found.

4.5.2 Field notes and diaries

Co-researchers, including learners, were encouraged to note down anything valuable from field trips in the same small notebooks I had provided, and in their personal diaries. The researcher emphasised that what might seem trivial today might turn out to be of immense significance tomorrow; it was advisable to avoid leaving anything to chance. Emerson (1995: 2) emphasises that taking field notes is valuable for further references. Note-taking and minute-keeping proved useful for triangulation/comparison and for complementarity, when the researcher wanted to compare his notes to that of other participants; or when he did thematic analysis.

4.5.3 Free attitude interviews

Free attitude interviews were the most important instrument for generating data in this study. From time to time, and with minimal formality, the researcher conducted unstructured free attitude interviews on a one-to-one basis, and with small groups tasked with a certain activity, and at different times with the full group of the co-researchers and the focus group. The researcher transcribed dialogues/conversations verbatim, with the intention of interpreting, analysing and synthesising them later to make meaning within the parameters of the study. Free attitude interviews offer freedom and flexibility to both the interviewer and interviewees in allowing debate, discussions and different points of view on a question, elaborating and expanding on it, exploring various issues, and negotiating and constructing meaning. The researcher does not only ask questions, but he listens to the responses attentively as well, and is sensitive to the cultural norms and beliefs of the interviewees (Alshenqueeti, 2014: 39-40; Ohio State University, 2012: 1). The researcher's main task during the interviews was to make sure that the responses addressed the aim of the study and its objective questions.

4.5.4 Participant observation

Participant observation is the recording of human behaviour in a social setting in which participants function (Munhall, 2003: 1-19). It is a rich source of data that is used in PAR, and includes seeing, hearing, and “experiencing the reality of the social situation” as it unfolds (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). Thus, the researcher becomes the participant-observer and notes down any social situation that unfolds before him/her, among the co-researchers and the focus group, to be corroborated and used later with the minutes from meetings, discussions and from brain-storming for interpretation, analysis and synthesis.

4.5.5 Audio-visual recordings

In some activities and meetings, audio-visual recordings were used to capture the co-researchers’ images/pictures, with their surroundings, movements, facial expressions, discussions, gestures, and the mood and tone of conversations. Indeed, the saying, “a picture is worth a thousand words” rings true, because written minutes and notes have limitations imposed by silence and stillness. However, at the beginning, when I first met the participants, audio-visual recordings were used sparingly, and only with permission, to avoid scaring participants, while we were still in the process of building trust and working relationship.

4.5.6 Other activities related to data generation methods

These activities had to do with providing an atmosphere conducive to facilitating data generation and collection methods. These activities were knowing one another, and establishing rapport between the co-researchers and the focus group members, so that it would not be difficult to interact and engage in discussion. Other activities were prioritising and strategising, and detailing the events that would take place.

4.5.6.1 Knowing one another, establishing rapport, and defining roles

The purpose of the first meeting was for co-researchers to get to know one another through introducing themselves by saying their full names. In Sesotho culture, one

should also mention the village of origin, and mention the names of the village chief. Further, participants had to mention what they did for a living, after which they gave a reason why they were part of the research group at Phela High School. This exercise inadvertently spelled out the aim of the study, namely, that participants were there to foster self-reliance for needy learners through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP. The researcher highlighted the benefits of the self-reliance project to them, including the need to be strong and to guard against pitfalls experienced along the way.

After establishing rapport, and making everyone at ease, it was important to set out and define key roles, such as having someone to write down the minutes, and someone to chair meetings. As explained earlier, Mrs Sibeko was elected secretary through a democratic process, while Mr Pinda became chairperson. The researcher would primarily work with them to facilitate, coordinate, lead and manage the research process and related activities, while humbling himself and respecting the co-researchers. Despite allocating roles to some members, all members were encouraged to keep notes of activities and meetings for themselves, and to feel free to ask questions for clarity whenever the need arose.

4.5.6.2 Prioritising and strategising

It was essential to sequence activities. For example, it was important that we knew one another before drawing up a long timetable of events, so that we concentrated our energies on what was immediate, before forging ahead. Co-researchers had to know the principal, teachers and learners at the research site, Phela High School. It was also important for them to know when they would start training the learners on how to make the crafts; how long the training would take; when and where the learners would get the raw material to make the crafts; and how and when coordination and reporting of progress would take place. Some of the questions were answered by this timetable:

Table 4.1: Timetable for activities

Month	Week	Activity
Aug 2017	1st week	Co-researchers meet and pay homage to school administration Co-researchers meet parents and learners, the focus group Village chief and sub-chiefs approached for craft materials
	2nd week	Co-researchers begin training learners on making crafts
	3rd week	Craft training continues
	4th week	First craft products displayed at school for co-researchers Meeting to assess the learners' craft performance Tourism workshop with co-researchers and focus group
Sept 2017	1st week	Crafts displayed at Pinda Lodge for sale
	2nd week	Meeting to assess the learners' sales performance

From November 2017, community members stopped monitoring the learners' performance on a daily basis, because they were satisfied with the quality of the learners' products. Community members only visited the school when they were consulted, either by the learners themselves or by the teachers. Learners were now on their own, with only the teachers monitoring their progress. Learners continued to display their craft products for sale at Mr Pinda's Lodge for passing tourists and other customers. In addition to compiling the timetable, it was also important to decide on other activities that would be done in between.

Learners had been asked to freely choose among wood carving and making clay artefacts and straw hats. The reason for offering these products was that these products could be made from free, cheap, natural and affordable materials, even by poor learners who did not have capital in the form of cash to kickstart the self-reliance project. It was also a way of showing them that creativity could be sufficient to start a business from a zero balance. The outcome of their choice was as follows:

Wood carving – 3 boys (responsible community member, Mr Lekeno)

Clay artefacts -- 2 boys, 2 girls (responsible community member, Mr Seepa)

Straw/grass hats -- 3 girls (responsible community member, Mrs Sibeko)

4.6 MONITORING THE SELF-RELIANCE PROJECT

Monitoring means regularly checking or watching someone in order to find out what is happening, so that corrections are made, if necessary (MEDAL, 2002: 918-919). Monitors should be in place to do the checking and watching, putting what has been learned by the learners into practice, and giving immediate feedback to correct their mistakes as learners go forward with further learning. The overall implementation of the self-reliance project should proceed under guidance and supervision, with minimal or no mistakes in the output.

First-line monitors were the community members, who were closest to the learners, in terms of being the ones training them on how to make the crafts every day. Second-line monitors were the teachers, who taught the learners at school, and could ask them directly about their progress in making the crafts, and could confirm what the learners told them by observation. Teachers also received regular feedback from the expert community members, on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays. The researcher was the last-line monitor, concerned with the overall management and progress of the self-reliance project. I focused on coordinating the implementation process. However, in order to share responsibilities fairly, and avoid overloading other teachers, I took the responsibility of focusing on Mr Seepa, who trained learners interested in making clay artefacts. Mr Sam focused on Mr Lekeno (wood carvers), while Ms Mona focused on Mrs Sibeko (straw/grass hat makers). Figure 4.7 presents the monitoring structure.

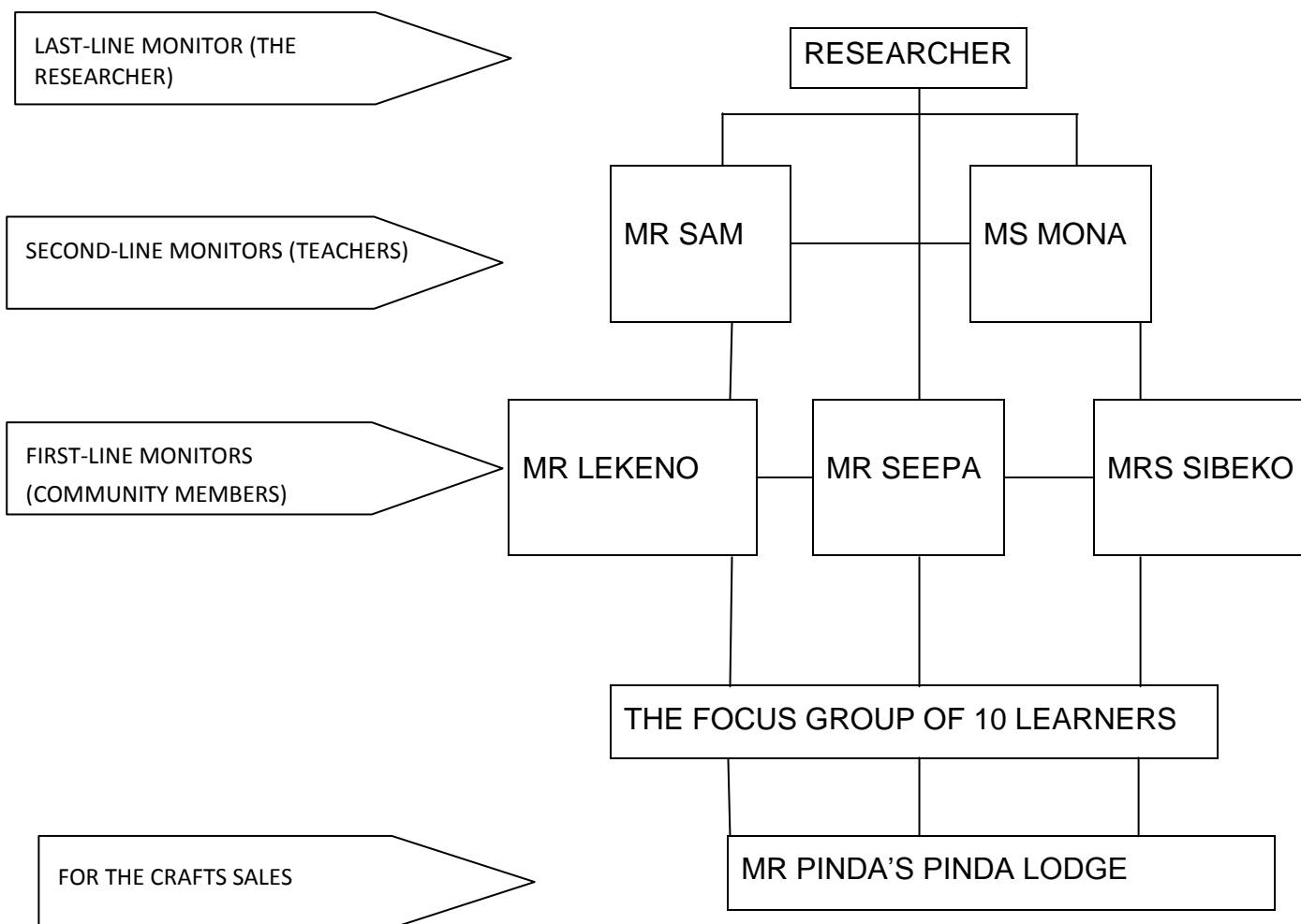


Figure 4.7: Monitoring structure

In practice, the researcher could still talk to the focus group to find out from them how things were going in a free attitude interview. The researcher also visited Pinda Lodge regularly to see for himself how the crafts sales were progressing. Communication was horizontal and vertical at any stage and level of the research, so that any stumbling block could be removed immediately.

As shown in Table 4.1, training was expected to last for two weeks, over the second and third weeks of August 2017. Thereafter, the focus group members were expected to make the crafts with little supervision, before the learners were completely on their own, with the researcher and teachers only providing them with encouragement and advisory support to ensure sustainability of the self-reliance project.

4.7 THE CYCLICAL PROCESS OF PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH

PAR is a learning process that involves planning, acting, observing and reflecting, and this cycle is repeated continuously (Boog, 2003: 427), in order to improve the quality of the service or product, as was the case in making the crafts for the tourists and other customers. Figure 4.7 illustrates how the cyclical process of PAR unfolds.

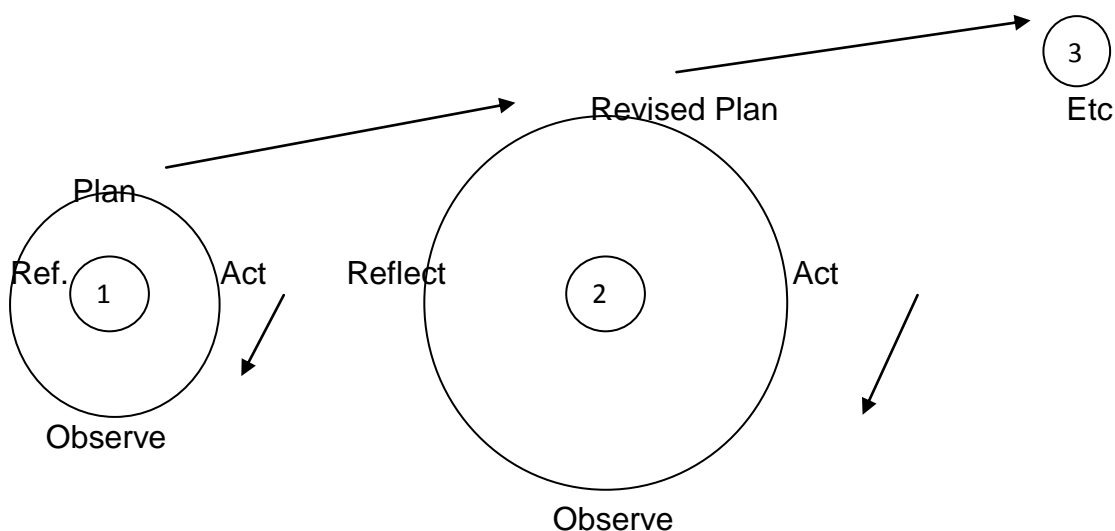


Figure 4.8: The cyclical process of PAR (adapted from Jasper 2003: 16)

In practice, the cyclical process is not smooth; instead, stages overlap (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2007: 276-277). The success of the process depends on the participants' sense of development and fundamental change in their practices and situations (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2007: 275).

4.7.1 The planning stage

This is the stage in which the teachers, co-researchers and the focus group met to make plans to kickstart the self-reliance project, ensured that everything was in place, and that all participants shared a common vision through discussions. The aim of the study was thoroughly revised and revived, which is the way to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP.

It was also at this stage that community assets and resources had to be earnestly mobilised to be used in the implementation stage. Both PAR and Yosso's (2005) CCW acknowledge the strengths, assets, talents, skills, and indigenous knowledges of the community (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85; Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77), which can be mobilised and used to uplift the community and its children at school and from the shackles of poverty.

4.7.2 Implementation stage

This is the action phase for the co-researchers and the focus group, who put plans into practice. Firstly, it was important that individuals understood their responsibilities from the onset, to avoid confusion and clumsiness at the implementation stage. It was expected that Mr Lekeno understood his responsibility to train three boys interested in learning wood carving; that Mr Seepa understood his responsibility to train four learners (two boys and two girls) interested in making clay artefacts; and that Mrs Sibeko understood her responsibility to train three girls interested in making straw/grass hats.

Secondly, it was crucial to show trust in the value of the experiential knowledge and expertise of the co-researchers, particularly the community members, to carry out and follow the prescriptions of the self-reliance project to the letter, while working

with and training the learners. Thirdly, it was crucial to pay attention and observe the time frames set for the completion of the tasks – daily, weekly, monthly, as set out at the planning stage.

Co-researchers also made sure that fear of the unknown, and resistance, were dealt with and quashed (Mertler, 2013: 37). Having steadied the ship, as it were, full implementation of the self-reliance project was now in motion. It was essential to maintain the project's momentum to yield the intended outcome, that is, quality craft products that could be sold to tourists and other potential customers. The final part of the implementation stage was ensuring the project's success and sustainability, from which teachers, learners and community members were fully immersed and came out as better people, who could participate collaboratively in a project and look forward to rip the benefits.

4.7.3 Reflection stage

Reflection provides a chance to correct any observable mistakes, and to implement changes, after which reflection occurs again (Vaccarino et al., 2007: 3), depending on how various actions were performed in the implementation stage. Bulman and Schultz (2004: 232) list six steps of reflection (see 4.2.5.7), which offer a chance to circumvent a challenge through the use of knowledge and skills acquired, in order to arrive at the desired outcome. Thus, reflection provides a chance to learn from previous mistakes.

4.8 SWOT ANALYSIS

SWOT is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. SWOT is a prognosis tool that helps to identify strengths, with the purpose of capitalising and building on them, and to identify weaknesses, in order to counteract them in an organisation or self-reliance project. The analysis also identifies opportunities, which can be exploited to eliminate threats in the environment (Gao & Peng, 2011: 796). SWOT was useful in evaluating progress with regard to the production of the craft products by the learners, so that the project moved forward with care, maximising on strengths and opportunities, and minimising weaknesses and threats.

4.8.1 Strengths

Co-researchers were dedicated to the self-reliance project; they wanted it to be successful and sustainable. Thus, the strength was dedication and having a clear and common vision for the project. From the onset, guardians gave consent and allowed their children to participate in the research. Community members agreed to participate as well, contributing their knowledge, skills and talents, and they were willing to share and impart them to the learners, who, on their part, were ready to receive and contribute the little they had. The village chief was cooperative too; he allowed the learners to obtain the necessary raw material to make the craft products: wood, clay and straw/grass. The school principal gave space and unused classrooms that could serve as a regular venue where the co-researchers and the focus group could meet.

4.8.2 Weaknesses

There was a debilitating feeling at the school that the self-reliance project was only meant to satisfy the researcher's academic desires. This was because the integrated curriculum had been introduced in 2009, but had been neglected, even by the MoET itself. As a result, in the initial stages, the study seemed to have little or no effect on the school's 20 teachers and 200 learners.

Another challenge was that, when the researcher started this study, tourism was still in its pilot stage in the country, even though it had been introduced six years previously, in 2011. The pilot stage ended at the end of 2016 (Molise, 2016: 1-2). Unfortunately, no report had been written to indicate how the pilot stage had performed holistically in the nine selected high schools, except for a statement that learners had performed reasonably well in the final examinations. At the beginning of 2017 about 13 more high schools, bringing the total to 22 schools, from the original nine piloting schools, decided to offer the Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education Travel & Tourism Syllabus 2017. The absence of a full report on the performance of the pilot gives the impression that management of the pilot stage and the transition from the pilot stage to implementation, was poor, because even if learners had performed well in examinations, there was no information about the quality of tourism teachers in terms of qualifications and content knowledge,

availability of resources and facilities at schools, methods and approaches used for teaching tourism, and involvement of other stakeholders, such as the community and tourism industry employers, which could pave the way for work-integrated learning initiatives.

The third problem was funding, to ensure adequate human and material resources at schools for this new subject. The MoET has been reluctant to attend to staffing shortages at schools, arguing that government did not have the money to pay teachers. The evidence for this claim was that, since 2010, many newly employed teachers had not received their salaries on time, including those who were acting in positions, such as head of department, deputy principal and principal. Until the present (2018), it is not uncommon to be paid only after six to 12 months, without arrears being paid. Seeing an additional classroom being built at existing schools is a rare sight. If a new school is built, it is usually the result of a donation. Co-researchers would sometimes arrive late for a meeting, or send an apology for their absence due to unforeseen family circumstances, or due to unfavourable weather conditions.

4.8.3 Opportunities

Regularly talking with the development studies teacher about how the researcher would teach tourism, by selecting and sharing tourism topics and themes to save time and resources, eventually caught the attention of some other teachers at the school. They realised that topics/themes such as *trade, industry, pollution, conservation, agriculture*, for example, appear in many subjects - commerce, business studies, geography, development studies, history, economics, agriculture, and chemistry. If teachers of these subjects met and planned together, they could decide who taught *industry* or *pollution* in a class they all shared, while others tackled other topics in their subjects, to save time and resources, and at the same time making learners aware of the connections between subjects.

It is the function of an integrated curriculum, which is an educational approach that uses cross-curricular means to produce knowledge (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314; Park 2008: 308-309), to highlight the interrelatedness of themes and topics that have to be taught in a holistic, synergistic and interactive way (Malik & Malik, 2011: 99),

while saving time and resources. A Sesotho teacher became aware that she could “sell” traditional music and dance to the tourists by letting learners perform near the road, even if only once a week, say, on Friday after lunch, as a form of recreation, at the same time generating income to assist needy learners, and complying with the integrated curriculum that encourages creative, productive and practical learner-centred approaches to teaching (MoET, 2009: viii-1, 3; Tankiso-Mphunyane 2014: 10-14).

4.8.4 Threats

Some learner members of the focus group had to be prevented from being too preoccupied with making money from the self-reliance project, at the expense of their studies. It was important to guard against learners being over-confident, which might turn into pomposity, and leading to them forgetting the purpose of the project and where they came from. The other threat concerned the community members’ feeling of inferiority due to their low levels of education, as reported by Save the Children USA (2013: 17-18) in India, by Kimu (2012: 3) in Kenya, and by Tsayang (1998: 102-104, 161-162) in Botswana. The researcher had to make sure that the learners’ motivation was always high, which would impact positively on their participation.

SWOT analysis was applied persistently, even at our regular meetings, as an evaluation tool to ensure that co-researchers treaded carefully through the open and free contribution of ideas, leaving no stone unturned, as the self-reliance project moved forward.

4.9 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

CDA was used to analyse and interpret data, which was, generally, disordered and scattered in the form of minutes, fieldnotes and audio-visual recordings, in order to make meaning and sense out of it. CDA aims to explore and emphasise the relationship between language and power (Breeze, 2011: 495), “usually with a commitment to social change” (p. 499). Powerful members of the community use language to maintain the status quo, control and hegemony. The weaker members

should also use language, to extricate themselves from bondage. Language can be in spoken or text form (verbal or written discourse), and can be complex and obscure, hence the need for its “critical” analysis (Fairclough, 1989: 9).

Three levels of analysis, textual, sociological and contextual, as explained by Fairclough (1993) and Van Dijk (1993, 1995, 2008), were used in this study, to analyse and interpret the generated data. I listened with these three levels in mind.

4.9.1 Textual analysis

This level of analysis studies how discourse and communication work to maintain discursive practices and unequal power relations. Fairclough’s (1993: 135) and Van Dijk’s (1995: 17-18) interest is in finding out how language, or text, upholds and reproduces the hegemonic status quo, which could be exemplified by a skewed power relation between teachers and learners, with the former having control over how the latter have to learn. In this study, it was important for teachers, through the use of respectful language, to disempower themselves and treat community members as equals, not individuals with low levels of education. Yosso’s (2005: 77-78) linguistic capital in CCW provides a useful context here for understanding textual analysis, since the language children bring to school comes from their families and community.

4.9.2 Sociological analysis

This level of analysis seeks to understand social structures, power relations and power abuse in the structures, and how power abuse came to be internalised and legitimised. For example, each community has children, boys and girls, who are taught different and stereotyped gender roles as they grow up: they are teachers, school-going children and drop-outs, herd-boys and kitchen-girls, priests and congregants, farmers and civil servants, housewives and nurses, police and prisoners, soldiers, chiefs and kings. Of these social structures, some are more powerful than others, and these social arrangements are a reality of life. From the standpoints of Van Dijk (1993: 250-252) and Fairclough (1993: 135), CDA seeks to understand how power results in power abuse, injustice, inequality and bias, and

how these effects are internalised, sustained and ignored. Understanding these negative effects of power dynamics could lead to solutions for them (Bloor & Bloor, 2007: 12).

Yosso's (2005: 79-80) familial and social capital in CCW could also provide insights into the legitimisation of power abuse in communities. Children are taught to listen to parents' and community elders' advice and wisdom, and are expected to obey their orders and teachings, and respect them. Children bring these internalised values to school, and it takes time to doubt and question their significance.

4.9.3 Contextual analysis

Contextual analysis means analysing the background or environment from which an utterance comes in order to fully comprehend what it means (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2007: 276-277). For example, when a teacher utters the statement, "My children gave me a tough time today," she may mean that her class asked many difficult questions, which required difficult explanations of concepts. However, a community member who utters the same statement may mean that her children did not want her to leave home, and she had to devise ways of disappearing from their sight without them noticing. Thus, the context of individuals, or their backgrounds, helps to illuminate what they say and mean. Van Dijk (2008: 90) and Rocha-Schmid (2010: 355) equate contextual analysis to social analysis, because every individual has society as a background context.

4.10 CONCLUSION

The study aims to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP and CCW. To achieve this aim, PAR was used as an approach to give guidance on what the best way was to exploit the community in order to fully make use of its strengths, resources, assets, skills and talents, in a practical and productive way, by coming face-to-face with underprivileged learners. The collaborative nature of PAR brought together a diverse group of individuals in this study: teachers, community members, and learners, to interact and find solutions for alleviating poverty, and striving to foster self-reliance among underprivileged learners. PAR takes advantage

of Russell's (2009: 33) findings, namely, that community members like to mobilise resources and supply needed material to build and improve their schools.

CHAPTER 5 : PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This part of the study aims to present, analyse and interpret the data that was gathered through free attitude interviews and from the minutes, fieldnotes, diaries and audio-visual material, during meetings with co-researchers and the focus group. Participant observation was also conducted silently by the researcher, during meetings and brainstorming sessions, when he noted expressions, activities, movements or stillness – whatever was of interest – and subjected this data to analysis and interpretation. Analysis and interpretation of data was done by means of CDA. The data came from the broad area of challenges, solutions, enabling conditions, plausible threats and indicators of success related to the thesis: fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP. Each of these broad areas deals with the conceptualisation of tourism as a vocational subject, teacher qualifications and knowledge, resource availability and use, tourism teaching methods and approaches, CP in tourism education, understanding an integrated curriculum and its implementation, WIL, and assessing an integrated tourism curriculum, all of which were discussed thoroughly in the literature review (see 3.4). The actual voices and feelings of those who were involved and who participated in the research are brought up to be listened to, and then compared and synthesised with literature. Finally, the objectives of the self-reliance education by Sinclair and Lillis (1980: 81) are interrogated to assess and evaluate whether they were met by this study. The chapter ends with a conclusion.

First, it is important to understand what guided and informed the analysis and interpretation of data gathered from the free attitude interviews, in order to understand why certain questions were asked or not asked; why comments of co-researchers were expected in certain instances and not necessarily in others. The guiding principle was whether the utterances addressed the aim and objectives of the study, that of fostering self-reliance among underprivileged learners through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP.

5.2 WHAT GUIDED AND INFORMED THE FREE ATTITUDE INTERVIEWS

The main instrument for generating and collecting data for this study was free attitude interviews (see 4.5.3). It was supported by the minutes that were recorded during discussions and brainstorming, and by fieldnotes and diaries, and, to a lesser extent, by audio-visual material. After every session, towards the end of meetings, co-researchers and the focus group were asked if they could identify common challenges, solutions, conditions, threats and indicators of success in relation to poverty alleviation and in striving to achieve self-reliance, to uplift the lives of underprivileged learners, and if there was something that needed to be clarified.

It is important to note that we had a session for challenges, solutions, conditions, threats, and indicators of success alone or in combination with others, after we had firmly established the aim of the research. In some cases, the co-researchers and the focus group were asked for permission to photocopy the minutes and fieldnotes they had made, to compare the themes under challenges, solutions, conditions, threats and indicators of success. The themes would form the basis of the free attitude interviews with individuals or groups. Related comments that flowed naturally from co-researchers and the focus group during the interviews were also welcomed. Audio-visual material helped to fill gaps left by written texts when doubts cropped up. When I was satisfied that I had all the information pertaining to challenges after discussing and analysing the challenges, solutions after doing the same for solutions, conditions, threats and indicators of success, I analysed and interpreted the information using CDA, where applicable. Another source of interview topics was the reviewed literature.

In cases where co-researchers and the focus group agreed about a response made by others, sometimes with a gesture or positive shake of the head, I would not go around to ensure that everybody said yes or no. I did my best to leave the dialogue or conversation as natural as possible. This explains why not all co-researchers and focus group members were expected to comment every time about all matters. Their lack of response would not necessarily be because they did not have anything to say, but because they agreed with what was said, through body language. In cases where I thought it would be effective to paraphrase what had been said, I did so. But where I thought the voice would be more effective, the voice came out.

This approach was not without problems. The first problem was legibility of handwriting on photocopies of minutes and fieldnotes of the co-researchers and focus group members. The second challenge was that some of the participants did not always perceive challenges as challenges, solutions as solutions, conditions as conditions, and so on. Sometimes this required the researcher to go back to them and ask, “I have eye problems and sometimes don’t see well; what have you written here, is it an S or a 5? What do you mean here, *boikutlo* or *boiketlo*? [consciousness or comfort?]. Finally, translation presents the usual limitations of misrepresentations, regardless of how hard one tries to be accurate.

5.3 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF CHALLENGES

5.3.1 Challenges related to understanding tourism as a vocational subject

Challenges related to understanding tourism as a vocational subject are deep and widespread among teachers in Lesotho. Mr Sam and Ms Mona indicated their understanding of tourism from the learners’ textbooks used in Grades 8, 9 and 10. They understood tourism as the activity of providing accommodation, lodging and meals to visitors, giving information, and guiding visitors to places of adventure and entertainment. Their level of understanding was comparable to that of the learners at the secondary level, who were also aware of domestic and international tourism, but were not familiar with the terms, inbound and outbound tourism (Leiper, 1979, 1995, in Mayaka, 1999: 6). Moreover, teachers seemed unaware of other types of tourism, such as educational tourism, business tourism, religious tourism, event tourism, sport tourism, community-based, cultural and heritage, and eco-tourism (LGCSE Travel & Tourism, 2017: 8-9). But as soon as these types of tourism were mentioned, teachers had an idea of what they meant.

Hey, ho thoe thuto ha e tsofalloe. Ho ba karolo ea phuphutso ena ho re butse mahlo. Re ne re haelloa ke lintlha tse ngata tsa bohlokoa mabapi le thuto ena ea tourism. E tla re phuphutso ena e fela, khetsi e tla be e tletse tsoete, eleng se tla etsa hore re be matichere a betere’s’ana ho feta pele. [Hey, they say one is never too old to learn. To be part of this research has opened our eyes. We were lagging behind on many important issues [content knowledge] related to the

subject of tourism. When the research comes to an end, our bags will be full of knowledge and information, which will make us better teachers.] - Mr Sam

Some of the tourism types, which teachers were clearly happy to know about, were mentioned by the CEO of the Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Environment (henceforth referred to as the CEO) in one of the workshops with the co-researchers. He provided a great deal of statistics about visitor arrivals from other countries; about the number of visitors passing through each border post; and the number of beds in the country's hotels, inns, lodges, bed and breakfasts and resorts. He indicated that community-based tourism could help to increase the number of beds, and to give tourists an experience that differs from that offered by hotels and casinos. To show challenges facing tourism in Lesotho, in one of his sessions, the CEO said,:

Matsatsing ana balisana ba lisetsa pel'a mebila ele hore ba tle ba kope chelete, lipompong, lijo, haholo-holo ho ba Basoeu. Ha ba sa fane ka letho ba betsoa ka majoe. Empe ntho! Taba ena ke qholotso e kholo ho lona baithuti, hore le eo fetola likelello tsa bo-mphato ba lona. Kea lumela batsoali ba tla le thusa. Paramente e se ntse e etsa melao e thata khahlanong le litloli tsa molao malebana le bahahlauli.

[These days herd boys and shepherds look after animals near roads so that they beg for money, sweets, food, especially from the Whites. If tourists give nothing, they are pelted with stones. It's terrible! This is a big challenge for you, learners, to go and change the mindset of the other youth; I'm sure community members will assist you. Parliament is already thinking of putting in place tough laws against perpetrators of violence against tourists] - CEO

As the CEO said, the challenge was for the teachers and the learners to pass on the message to herd boys about the dangerous habit of looking after animals near roads because animals might be hit by vehicles, and asking for sweets or money from tourists. It was in these sessions that participant observation was fruitful, as it was important for the researcher to ensure that everybody paid attention, and wrote something down as notes while the CEO was speaking. Also, throughout the study, even in the co-researchers' meetings without the CEO, the researcher had to ensure

that teachers did not dominate the discussion because of their exposure and level of education. In these cases the researcher had to lead and manage the workshops. He had to ensure that everybody was at ease, and could ask the CEO questions when he had made presentations, and could comment on the responses of others. The researcher had to be observant and sensitive to the needs and conditions of others, such as the need for break, lunch time, when co-researchers seemed to be tired or not well, or afraid of lightning and thunder. Close participant observation made this possible, even though there were challenges, such as having to cater for the shorter attention span of the learners, and therefore having to think of activities that could keep them attentive throughout, like suggesting a short break.

The CEO went some way to helping teachers understand tourism beyond textbooks, for it was dangerous for teachers that they did not exhibit deeper knowledge than learners, so that teachers could present and explain tourism concepts comfortably and provide examples and illustrations (Kleickmann et al., 2013: 91; Shulman, 1987: 8). Worse still, the learner textbooks did not define tourism as a vocational subject, and did not emphasise its practical aspect that was necessary for the acquisition of practical and entrepreneurial skills to alleviate poverty, and achieve self-reliance (MoET, 2009: 18), as an instrument of transformation in the lives of the underprivileged learners.

Teachers seemed to understand the reasons for the introduction of tourism from the textbooks, not from the MoET's (2009) integrated curriculum policy document, as revealed by the following response.

Tourism e etsa tlatsetso moruong oa naha, hape le batho ba fumana mosebetsi industring ea tourism. [Tourism contributes to the country's economy, and people get job opportunities in the tourism industry.] -
Ms Mona

Teachers spoke of tourism's contribution to the country's economy, and provision of job opportunities in the tourism industry, just as the textbooks do (Debeshe et al., 2005: 66-74; Lelala et al., 2004: 97-115; Mokhosi, 2005: 104-112). Textbooks inform and teach knowledge about economic growth and job opportunities, but they do not teach practical and hands-on skills, such as making and selling crafts to tourists for poverty alleviation, and for achieving self-reliance through self-employment.

Teachers missed this vital vocational component in their everyday teaching, because it was missing in the textbooks.

Figure 5.1 shows the cover page of a Form A/Grade 8 geography textbook, followed by table of contents (next page), to show where a chapter on tourism comes in.

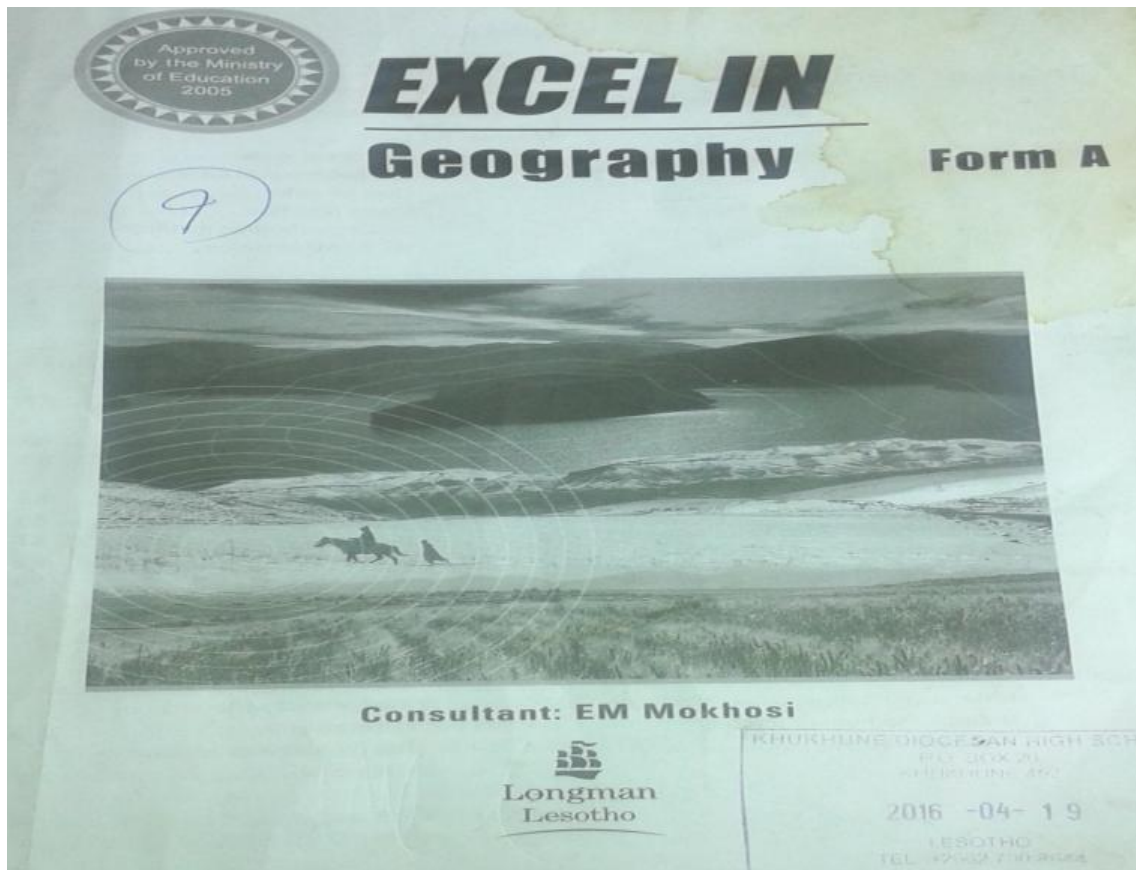


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Figure 5.1: A textbook cover page of Geography textbook for Form A/Grade 8 (Mokhosi, 2005)(top), and table of contents from the same textbook (bottom).

As the table of contents shows, tourism is covered in three pages. These pages contain the Lesotho map with tourist attractions and information on benefits and problems of tourism. It does not recommend activities that learners could engage in, such as going to a nearby tourist information centre, or visiting a nearby tourist

attraction, or decorating their school to attract visitors, or making crafts. It is important to note that, in most textbooks, tourism is covered in the last chapters of geography or development studies textbooks, as is the case in Figure 5.1.

Generally, in addition to having an understanding of tourism equal to that of learners, teachers at Phela High School also understood tourism as an academic social science subject, because of it being integrated into geography and development studies. Even in neighbouring schools, where it was presented as a fully-fledged subject, tourism was still understood to be an academic social science subject. The introduction of tourism in 2011 by MoET was perceived as increasing the number of social science subjects in the curriculum.

Re ne re nahana hore ho eketsoa lithuto tsa li social science. [We thought the number of social science subjects was being increased.] -
Mr Sam

There was also some speculation by teachers that, perhaps, tourism was going to replace development studies, because of the widespread rumour that the latter was going to be phased out at the National University of Lesotho, owing to it being too multidisciplinary in nature, having a little of everything in its content – geography, agriculture, history, commerce, politics, mathematics, culture. Teachers were not aware that tourism was also multidisciplinary (Wang, 2008: 27), in the sense that its content originates from many other subjects. The teachers forgot that a mathematics teacher is sometimes requested to calculate and explain the concept of foreign exchange in a tourism class; an accountancy teacher sometimes taught learners about proper bookkeeping principles to save their profits, and that the agriculture teacher seasonally, in spring and autumn, taught tree and grass planting to make Phela High School and its surrounding community attractive. It was after being reminded of these cross-curricular multidisciplinary examples that it dawned on the teachers that tourism was as multidisciplinary as development studies.

Ah, ke hona re hlokomelang. [Ah, it's only now that we notice.] - Ms
Mona

However, Dube's (2014: 153) finding that tourism suffers from low status because of being perceived as shallow on theoretical content, and therefore not being designated for university entrance in South Africa, does not apply to Lesotho,

because tourism was perceived as an academic social science, with equal status to geography, history or development studies. However, this was an erroneous understanding, because tourism had been introduced as a vocational subject.

The understanding of the subject of tourism was far lower among community members around Phela High School, including those who had been invited to take part in the study. This confirmed the findings of Lovrentjev (2015: 555) in Croatia, Ejiogor et al (2012: 4) in Nigeria, Nkumane (2008: viii, 33-40) and Dube (2014: 159-160) in KwaZulu-Natal, namely, that communities were not exposed to tourism and its opportunities, specifically tourism as a vocational subject. Part of the reason for their lack of understanding is that, it is not usual for schools, particularly in Lesotho, to invite and inform parents about a new subject and its benefits, or about phasing out an old one, and the reasons behind doing so. Challenges of CP in tourism education are detailed in 5.3.5.

5.3.2 Challenges relating to teacher qualifications and knowledge

Empirical evidence confirms the literature, that most tourism teachers do not have proper qualifications, and therefore lack adequate content knowledge on the subject. Teachers are still being recruited from geography, history, economics and development studies, because tourism is integrated in these subjects. Indeed, when tourism was introduced in Australia in 1987–1990, Marland and Store (1991: 19) observe, there were no qualified teachers to teach tourism, hence, they were recruited from other subjects. Saunders (1994, cited in Armstrong, 2003: 2) makes a similar observation about when tourism was introduced as a school subject in South Africa. This situation exists in Lesotho, where tourism was introduced in 2011; teachers of the subject of tourism were/are mainly recruited from geography and development studies.

Without proper qualifications in the subject, it is clear that the tourism-knowledge base among teachers is low. This means they are unable to provide clear explanations with examples, illustrations and analogies (Shulman, 1987: 8), and cannot ask the learners appropriate questions for assessment. A competent teacher with sufficient knowledge should be able to simplify knowledge into smaller, comprehensible packages the learners can understand (Kleickmann et al. 2013: 91),

and should also be able to integrate content knowledge with practice, so that learners acquire practical means of survival (Altun, 2013: 366). Interestingly, when teachers were asked whether they felt inadequate and insecure in handling the subject matter of tourism at Phela High School, they answered no, even though they did not know the salient facts and theoretical underpinnings of tourism, and were unable to bridge the gap between theory and practice, as required by the MoET (2009: viii-3). To them, teaching tourism as an academic subject, which was their comfort zone, appeared to be an end in itself.

5.3.3 Challenges relating to resource availability and use

Literature shows clearly that resources for tourism teaching, such as funding for textbooks and field excursions, and libraries with stocks of tourism books to help learners understand what is being taught in class, are not available (Abomeh, 2012: 14; Marland & Store, 1991: 19). Lesotho also faces a shortage of resources. To start with, there is a shortage of qualified personnel; neither Mr Sam, nor Ms Mona or the researcher, was a qualified tourism teacher. Mr Sam is a qualified geography and development studies teacher; Ms Mona has a degree in agriculture, and the researcher is a geography and English teacher. Libraries, relevant textbooks, maps, globes, compasses, overhead projectors and computers, which would assist proper teaching and learning of tourism, are not available. Because of poverty, many learners are unable to pay for educational excursions to visit tourist attractions. Similar challenges have been raised in Australia (Mayell & Davies, 2014: 14).

Mr Sam and Ms Mona admitted that, even if some teaching aids, materials and resources could be availed today, it would take a long time for them to learn how to use it in tourism teaching, particularly overhead projectors and computers, because they had never been exposed to these resources at university. This confirms Sean's (2010: 39) claim that teacher training institutions are lagging behind regarding methods and approaches of teaching tourism. A useful categorisation of school instructional materials and physical facilities by Lyimo et al. (2017: 104-105) was presented in 3.4.3.3, but what is important to note at present is that resources are not available in Lesotho schools, which could enhance the teaching of tourism and

the acquisition of practical and survival skills. Materials that were generally available were red pens for marking the mistakes of learners, dusters, chalk and chalkboards.

5.3.4 Challenges relating to tourism teaching methods and approaches

There are challenges with regard to tourism teaching methods and approaches. In the first instance, when this study started, tourism was being taught, at Phela High School and at schools where it was a fully-fledged subject, as if it was an academic subject. Mr Sam had the following to say about this phenomenon:

Ke thuto joaloka tse ling; re tla e ruta. [It is a subject like any other; we will teach it.] - Mr Sam

Applying Fairclough's (1993: 135) and Van Dijk's (1995: 17-18) textual analysis, Mr Sam's utterance emphasises two important issues, namely, that he emphasises the role of teachers by using the pronoun *we* and the verb *teach*. The latter is inclined towards teacher-centredness, and teaching tourism *like any other*, without the vocational aspect, like teaching geography, development studies or history. Johnston (2000: 1, 4) describes teacher-centredness as a surface approach to learning, characterised by memorisation and rote learning, in which learners are passive and demotivated. Learner-centredness, on one hand, is a deep approach to learning, which encourages learners to take responsibility for their own learning (Keistin & Stichter, 2011: 98; Mahlomaholo, 2013: 317), and learners therefore understand and retain the learned content better.

Extending the discussion further, Bates (2010: 1) and Keistin and Stichter (2011: 98) see teacher-centredness as a tool for domination in education, because it works under passiveness, while learner-centredness can be a tool for emancipation, because it encourages participation and democratic learning (Baker, 2011: 208). These assertions are reminiscent of Freire's (1970: 71, 76) ideas on education as a tool for domination and oppression, or liberation and empowerment. Thus, even though Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77) demonstrates that learners bring with them six forms of capital – aspirational, linguistic, familial, social, navigational and resistance – to help them succeed at school, it is still crucial to expose them to the conducive

atmosphere of learner-centredness that supports deep and democratic forms of learning.

Confirming that a teacher-centred approach, which is linked to memorisation and rote learning (Baker, 2011: 208; Johnston, 2000: 1, 4), was being applied, learners in the focus group confirmed that they had pages and pages of notes on tourism that they had copied from the chalkboard.

Re lula re fuoa li notes joaloka geographing le DSeng hobane ha re na li-textbook tsa tourism. [We are always given notes, like in geography and development studies, because we don't have the tourism textbook.] - Girl 4

(The oldest girl was Girl 1; the youngest was Girl 5; this was also how the five boys in the focus group were identified). As the extract shows, there were no appropriate textbooks for tourism, which meant learners depended entirely on the notes given by the teacher on the chalkboard. This was true, because the researcher had searched for proper textbooks in different bookshops, to no avail. I communicated with teachers at other schools in the country through cell phones and other media, and determined they faced the same situation. The notes were from geography and development studies textbooks used in Grades 8, 9, and 10.

Dependence on the teacher's chalkboard notes prevented learner interaction and participation in learning. Thus, other healthy, pedagogic ways to construct knowledge, and acquire practical and entrepreneurial skills to address practical life challenges were throttled, making efforts to achieve self-independence, self-sufficiency and personal autonomy in learning, as expounded by the MoET (2009: 18), Omede (2012: 296), and Ezeh and Ekemenzie (2015: 227-228), hard to achieve. Developing learners' attitudes and values, such as self-esteem, resourcefulness, creativity, responsibility, discipline, endurance, being painstaking, hard work, commitment and critical thinking, towards tourism and its practical benefits (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227; Msuya et al., 2014: 103-104; Osalusi, 2014: 734), is also missed.

In addition, it was observed that note-taking from the chalkboard does not bring the desired shift, from teacher-centredness, or examination-oriented approaches, to learner-centred, interactive and integrative approaches, as intended by the MoET

(2009) integrated curriculum (Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 7), in which the teacher stops being the transmitter of knowledge, but facilitates learning by helping learners discover knowledge. Discovering knowledge for themselves enables learners to take responsibility for their own learning (Keistin & Stichter, 2011: 98; MoET 2009: viii; Mahlomaholo, 2010: 16-17; 2013: 317). Silently giving chalkboard notes and expecting learners to copy them into their notebooks, is one of the most frequently used methods of the teacher-centred approach to tourism teaching. Figure 5.2 below depicts this “silent method” of teaching.



Figure 5.1: Learners silently copying tourism notes from the chalkboard

Figure 5.3 shows the lesson plan for the above chalkboard “silent method” of teaching.

Form B Class Lesson Plan 30 August 2017

1. For the period of 40 minutes
2. Objectives: Learners to know the benefits and problems of tourism in Lesotho
3. Intoduction: A few questions asked about the meaning of tourism and tourist to remind the learners of these basic tourism concepts. (10 minutes)
4. Lesson development and presentation: Notes on the benefits and problems of tourism for learners to copy into their notebooks (from Excel in Geography for Form A/Grade 8, by Mokhosi 2004: 96; Trends in Geography for Form B/Grade 9, by Lelala et al. 2004: 100-103). (20 minutes)
5. Evaluation: Learners asked a few questions to see if they understood the lesson. (3 minutes) Then they are asked to categorise benefits into social and economic, and problems into social and economic as well. (7 minutes)

Expected answers for benefits:

- People learn new ways of doing things from tourists, e.g. dressing and eating (social).
- Lesotho earns foreign exchange (economic).
- Infrastructure, such as roads to remote areas and hotels, is built (economic).

Expected answers for problems:

- Some tourists undermine Basotho culture (social).
- Prostitution escalates (social).
- Tourism is seasonal and has low-paying jobs (economic).

6. Conclusion:

- Learners are asked to ask questions where they do not understand the notes.
- Learners urged very strongly to go and read their notes.

Figure 5.2: Lesson plan for the chalkboard “silent method” of teaching

Teacher-centred approaches give no space for collaborative and multidisciplinary approaches to teaching and learning, no space for skill-based teaching, no space for project-based teaching, WIL, or problem-based learning approaches, which were

explained and discussed in detail in 3.3.3; nor are there engaging teacher-learner activities. Every day learners write down copious notes from the chalkboard; they sit down quietly and are glued to their desks, only raising their heads now and then to see which words and sentences are to be copied next. If a student is absent for a day, there is a lot of catching up as far as writing notes is concerned. Indeed, the learners' tourism notebooks were full of notes. The researcher saw the notes being given and copied every day. The next step for the learners was to memorise the notes for examinations; the teacher urged the learners daily and strongly to, "*Go and read the notes*". Learners expressed their dissatisfaction with this "silent method".

Ha re botsa lipotso moo re sa utloising, Sir oa re araba, empa hangata o re re bale li-notes. O re ntho e ngoe le e ngoe e hlalositsoe hantle mono. [When we ask questions for clarification, Sir answers us, but most of the time he tells us to read our notes. He says everything is clear there.] - Boy 1

From the extract, it can be reasoned that note-giving is also a way the teacher hides his/her inadequacy or insecurity regarding the subject matter, and uses the position of power and dominance to dismiss the inquisitive learners. Even though the teacher asked the learners to ask questions, he does not answer them, or he answers them selectively. Teaching through note giving meant that tourism was taught as an isolated subject, not through interactive and integrative means to produce knowledge (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314; Park, 2008: 309). There was no involvement by the mathematics, agriculture and accounting teachers in the teaching of tourism in ways that were proposed earlier under collaborative and multidisciplinary teaching (see 3.3.3). The interrelatedness and connections between subjects, concepts and ideas, cutting across subject matter, reflecting the real world (Malik & Malik, 2011: 99), is missing in the "silent method" of note-giving. An integrated curriculum discourages old-fashioned ways of learning, such as memorising facts and figures.

5.3.5 Challenges facing community participation in tourism education

Challenges facing CP in tourism education were clearly indicated by Nkumane (2008: viii, 33-40) and Dube (2014: 159-160) in KwaZulu-Natal. Parents did not know

about this subject and the job opportunities it could offer. When community members were asked about their knowledge of the tourism subject, Mrs Sibeko said:

Lintho tseno li tsejoa ke lona matichere; hoa rona ke ho lefa sekolo-fisi hore bana ba rutehe.... Empa he, ree 'ne re utloi ka eona thuto eno; hana ho thoe ke eang, bohahlauli? [Those things are known by you teachers; ours is to pay fees for children to get educated.... But then, we have heard about that subject; what do they call it, tourism?]
- Mrs Sibeko

Mrs Sibeko attempted to distance herself from education matters by appearing ignorant. However, her response indicated that she was not as ignorant as she wanted to sound, because at the end she gave the correct answer, that learners were doing tourism as a new subject, even though her response was given as a question. She could have thought that giving the correct answer right away might lead to her being asked tougher questions, and given tougher roles and assignments in the research project. Her behaviour corroborates findings by Tsayang (1998: 102-104, 161-162), Kimu (2012: 3), and Save the Children USA (2013: 17-18), that community members with low levels of education were reluctant to participate in academic matters for fear of overstepping professional boundaries. Even when it was explained to them that they were being invited to take part in the study because of their natural and inherent, God-given strengths, as postulated by Yosso (2005), this did not seem to comfort them or allay their fears.

When Mrs Sibeko was pressed harder to explain the meaning of *bohahlauli* [tourism], she said:

Ke ha Makhooa a chakela naha ea rona, kapa ha ho joalo? Ee, 'na ke utloisisa jaolo. [It is when Whites visit our country, or is it not like that? Well, that is how I understand it.] - Mrs Sibeko

From the above extract, Mrs Sibeko's understanding of tourism went as far as inbound or international tourism for sightseeing, entertainment and adventure. Her conceptualisation of tourism was far less than that of the teachers, who understood both domestic and international tourism, even though they had gained their knowledge from the learners' textbook. In addition, in Lesotho, community members, including those who were invited to train learners in making crafts at Phela High

School, had not been informed about the introduction of tourism in 2011, thus confirming literature on the lack of information on tourism, as a subject and in general.

Another community member, Mr Lekeno, expressed his lack of knowledge about tourism as a vocational subject as follows:

'Na ha ke tsebe letho ka n'thoeno. Joalokaha 'M'e Sibeko a bonts'itse, rona re itsebela Makhooa ana a rekang lihlaioa tsa rona.

[I know nothing about that thing [tourism as a vocational subject]. As Mrs Sibeko has shown, what we know are these Whites who buy our crafts.] - Mr Lekeno

Mr Lekeno expressed the same basic and general knowledge about tourism, particularly inbound tourism, that is, that whites were the main customers of their craft products. Neither Mrs Sibeko nor Mr Lekeno knew about tourism as a vocational subject, even though it had been introduced in schools in 2011 by the MoET (Molise, 2016: 1-2). It follows that, if the community did not know much about tourism as a subject, they would not mobilise resources and provide the necessary support to the school, as encouraged by literature (Park, 2008: 313, 315-316; Shankar, 2014: 75-76). Generally, in Lesotho, parents hear from their children what subjects are presented at school, but they lack information about subjects' history and economic benefits. According to Van Dijk (1993: 250-252; 1995: 17-18) and Fairclough (1993: 135), CDA's sociological point of view indicates that this treatment of parents by schools in Lesotho is unfair, though internalised. Accountability to parents is not at the level it should be. It is as if parents do not have the democratic right to know what is taking place in schools.

The other challenge is that, even though community members were repeatedly shown how important they were to the study, they seemed to undermine their indigenous knowledge, perceiving it as not that valuable (see conversation below). Thus, contrary to Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77), Moeller and Bielfeldt (2011: 85), and other scholars who see community members as possessing worthy forms of capital, resources, assets, skills, talents and experiences, community members still do not think highly of themselves and their indigenous knowledges. From Van Dijk's (1993: 250-252; 1995: 17-18) and Fairclough's (1993: 135) CDA's sociological perspective,

community members believe that they are worthless in academic settings, because they are not “educated”. Indeed, making them unlearn these beliefs remains one of the toughest challenges.

Unfortunately, some schools and teachers do undermine community members who possess low levels of education (Myende, 2014: 155), making it harder for them to participate in education settings. Community members who were part of the research team showed reluctance and timidity in participating in the school environment. Although they were determined to help the school where they could, community members who participated in this study expressed their fears as follows:

Rona le sekolong ha rea hlaha ha kaalo; re ne re mpa re tl’o thusa moo re ka thusang, ho latela memo ea sekolo. [We are not that educated; we just honoured the school’s invitation to come and help where we can.] - Mr Seepa

Re ik’holetse re alosa, re sebetsa le masimong, nako ea sekolo e le sieo. Sekolo e ne e le nth’oa banana. [We grew up looking after animals, and working in the fields. Schooling was for girls.] - Mr Lekenso

It became the task of the researcher, as the leader and manager of the study, to allay the community members’ fears, calm them down, and at the same time magnify their value by pointing out the talents and skills they were bringing into the school, and which the teachers at Phela High School did not have. These talents and skills could make the implementation of the integrated tourism curriculum for fostering self-reliance successful and sustainable. Unfortunately, learners’ workbooks did not help the situation much; they did not have space to record the involvement of community members in the teaching/learning process in schools. Participation would increase community members’ authenticity, reduce their fears and boost their motivation and morale in relation to participating in education. After all, CCW, CP and PAR recognise the value of indigenous knowledges, and that initiatives should be community-driven if they were to be successful and sustainable.

Some discursive power dynamics between the community and the school, as highlighted by Van Dijk’s (1993: 250-252; 1995: 17-18) and Fairclough’s (1993: 135) CDA, can impede school development. Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77), Russell (2009: 33)

and Moeller and Bielfeldt (2011: 85) demonstrate that there are many other ways in which community members can contribute their strengths, resources and assets, in the form of history, tradition and discipline, which can be used for developing holistic and solid characters in young persons. However, if community members are undermined, young persons can be severely disadvantaged.

5.3.6 Challenges related to understanding an integrated curriculum

Understanding an integrated curriculum is a major challenge in Lesotho schools (Tankiso-Mphunyane, 2014: xvii). An integrated curriculum is a cross-curricular, multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary way of teaching to strengthen the understanding of a concept or to produce new knowledge, as well as integrating this knowledge into practice for learners to acquire practical skills, to address practical life challenges of poverty and unemployment, and achieve self-reliance (MoET, 2009: viii-3, 18). It has been shown that teachers in Lesotho teach for the acquisition of knowledge and understanding only, and that these approaches are not integrated into practice for the acquisition of hands-on skills.

Tankiso-Mphunyane (2014: xvii) discovered that teachers in Lesotho have little knowledge of the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum as a policy document. Some teachers thought it was meant to improve the learners' grades. Tankiso-Mphunyane's (2014: xvii) findings corroborated those of Park (2008: 314) in South Korea, who found that teachers thought an integrated curriculum was a variation of what they did every day, some kind of a teaching method to improve the learners' learning, "rather than a new way of producing knowledge." Empirical evidence suggests that this is still the case, as shown by the remarks of one of the teachers:

Haesale re utloa ka eona; ha re tsebe hore na e sebetsa joang. Le 'muso ha o etse li-workshop; ho thotse feela ho itse tu! [We have heard about it [integrated curriculum], but we don't know how it works. Government does not even conduct workshops. It is dead silent! Nothing takes place.] - Ms Mona

Many teachers around the country reported the same lack of activity. No workshops or training were presented, which would have helped them understand the MoET

(2009) integrated curriculum better. This integrated curriculum had been launched when the global economy was suffering from a recession that had started in 2008, and so the government of Lesotho had no money to conduct dissemination workshops around the country, and that was why it was “*dead silent*” until 2017.

However, until there is clarity and unity of understanding of an integrated curriculum among teachers in Lesotho, implementing the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum will be a mammoth task (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 313-314; Daly et al., 2012: 2-3). Worse still, if teachers lack an adequate understanding of how they should teach tourism properly, in an integrated curriculum, learners cannot improve their understanding. As indicated earlier, in 5.2.4, learners are taught tourism by being given the chalkboard notes, extracted from the textbook by the teacher. This practice was confirmed by one of the focus group members:

Tichere ea rona e refa li-notes. [Our teacher gives us notes.] - Girl 1

Asked whether there were practicals in the notes given, the same girl answered emphatically, “no”. Thus, the learners’ understanding of tourism was the same as that of their teachers: tourism was an academic and theoretical subject, like geography, history, development studies, without the opportunity to acquire practical and productive skills to address life challenges. From the extract in 5.2.4, it was observed that learners were not necessarily happy with the way they were taught, that is, being relentlessly given the tourism notes on the chalkboard, exacerbated by the fact that the teacher did not always answer questions to clarify the notes, which were not even integrated into practice. Community members showed a similar lack of understanding and knowledge about the integrated curriculum, because schools have not bothered to help them understand it.

This disregard of community members in matters of integrated curriculum was contrary to many suggestions in literature that the involvement of other stakeholders, such as the community, is important, because they can provide support and mobilise resources (Loepp, 1999: 25; Park, 2008: 313, 315-316; Shankar, 2014: 75-76). In Lesotho, integrated tourism teaching did not get the community’s blessing and support in terms of providing resources, which would reduce the subject’s cost to the school. This would have been important, given the competition new subjects face from traditional and well established subjects.

5.3.7 Challenges relating to the implementation of an integrated curriculum

The main challenge facing the implementation of the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum was that teachers had not been trained and capacitated with the necessary knowledge and understanding, and the technical know-how of using an integrated curriculum. From literature, *staff training* is high in the list of strategies for the successful implementation of an integrated curriculum. Other strategies are *deciding on the level and scope of integration*; *establishing working groups*, and *developing closer links with the community* (see 3.2.5). These strategies need to be implemented in Lesotho.

At Phela High School, neither Mr Sam nor Ms Mona knew when the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum had been introduced in Lesotho. Mr Sam thought it was in 2013, while Ms Mona thought it was in 2015, or “there about”. They were misled by the activities of the integrated curriculum workshops in June/July 2017, and therefore thought the introduction of the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum could not have been as far back as 2009. Both teachers, and of course many others in Lesotho, did not understand an integrated curriculum, and therefore could not implement it.

For their part, community members also knew nothing about an integrated curriculum either, and therefore could only contribute by attending parent meetings, which were usually about the learners’ behaviour and discipline, to send learners to school in the proper uniform and looking presentable, and buying them notebooks, pencils and pens. Parent meetings were also a way of reminding parents to pay school fees on time, and to contribute labour and equipment, such as wheelbarrows and spades for a school project, building a dam or a classroom. These activities did not help the community to understand an integrated curriculum better.

5.3.8 Challenges relating to work-integrated learning

The first challenge is that WIL is not incorporated into the Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education Travel and Tourism Syllabus 2017. WIL involves learning while doing work related to the subject, in this case tourism. This is achieved by exposing learners to places of work through internships or placements at hotels, inns and lodges, for example, and letting the learners practise the work

themselves at these hospitality and accommodation resorts under the supervision of the hotel or lodge manager, and the learner's teacher back at school. Unfortunately, as stated above, WIL is not incorporated into the LGCSE Travel and Tourism Syllabus 2017; learners can only make short visits to tourism venues to see how they are operated, and for data collection for their school projects. Once in a while, someone from the tourism industry may come to the school to give a lecture on the workings of the industry (LGCSE Travel and Tourism, 2017: 31).

The failure to integrate work with learning means that a realistic picture of what takes place in the tourism industry, is lost. Learners have to depend on the teacher's information and the notes copied from the chalkboard to know what takes place in the industry. Potential opportunities that might arise and attract learners to the industry are lost. Schools in Lesotho do not adequately send learners to hotels, inns and lodges for WIL experience, and to inspire and motivate them for tourism studies, as suggested by Nkumane (2008: 115).

Another challenge is that tourism employers do not visit schools to ask for interns. Perhaps, if they did, schools would see the need to send the learners to the industry until the practice of WIL is entrenched. The practice could also serve as some kind of feedback on the relevance of the school tourism curriculum, through the reports interns would produce on completion of internships or placements in different sectors of tourism, such as the marketing, carrier (transport), accommodation, attraction, tour operator, or coordinating sectors (Leiper, 1995 cited in Mayaka, 1999: 9). Each of these sectors can be unpacked further, resulting in yet more opportunities for placements, which would help the learners to choose careers in tourism. The challenge is to ensure that WIL takes off sufficiently in schools.

Observations by Rowe and Zegwaard (2017: 89-91), that WIL does not guarantee employability unless grounded on solid curriculum, were regarded with great uncertainty by teachers, since they did not know much about WIL in tourism education. After hearing at length what it meant, they thought WIL might work, but they were not sure what the nature of internships should be: many and shorter or few and long, and whether internships should occur earlier or later in the learners' study programme.

5.3.9 Challenges relating to assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

The main challenge with regard to the assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum centres around an understanding of the theory and practical parts of a subject. Teachers at Phela High School indicated that they assessed tourism as an academic subject, as they did geography and development studies. Even in schools where tourism was presented as a fully-fledged subject, assessment was still predominantly academic. Part of the reason was that the MoET had not exposed them to the integrated curriculum in general, but specifically to the assessment of integrated tourism. This was captured by Mr Sam, who said:

Nth'oena ha re s'o e utloisisi; re sa ntse re hloka tataiso hore re qetelle re assessa bana hantle. [We still need to understand this thing, so that we can end up assessing the learners properly.] - Mr Sam

Later, as more explanations were given in relation to their understanding of an integrated tourism curriculum, teachers became increasingly aware of the need to meet and discuss how they would assess different topics of tourism academically and practically, as advised by Shankar (2014: 75). The teachers believed that regular meetings to iron out differences and find common ground were necessary. In fact, one of the functions of an integrated curriculum is to bring teachers together as professionals to share ideas in a cross-curricular, synergistic and interactive manner, and learn from one another in the construction of knowledge (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314-315; Daly et al., 2012: 6; Malik & Malik, 2011: 99). This should be done while guarding against a mismatch between the taught and the assessed, as observed by Malik and Malik (2011: 103) in Malaysia, by Umalusi (2013: 106) in South Africa, and by Shankar (2014: 75) in the USA and the Netherlands.

Despite the teachers' awareness of the requirements of an integrated curriculum, the assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum remained academic, and lacking in the vocational aspect, and therefore not leading to practical solutions for poverty alleviation and achieving self-reliance. Assessment meant learners read and memorised their notes, wrote examinations, and were told after a few weeks that they have passed to the next grade, without producing anything with their hands. For example, learners could be taught to produce *mose oa khomo*, a traditional dress for

Basotho women, and *lepesho* for men, both from animal skin, and be assessed on these topics. They could be taught to produce the *seshoehoe* dress, the *seana-marena* and *serope-sa-motsoetse* blankets in the subjects sewing & knitting or fashion and design, with the aim of displaying and promoting the cultural heritage of Lesotho. They could make the iconic *mekorotlo* hats, clay saucers and cups with drawings of the Maluti Mountains on them to market the beauty of the country. They could make wooden carvings of Lesotho birds and ponies that are used as a means of transport in the mountains, using the basic handcraft or design & technology workshops already presented by the school.

In addition to academic tourism examinations, production of these examples of hand-made products could form part of integrated tourism assessment to prepare learners for the world of work. The products could be made individually or collectively, as in a project or in a skill-based learning approach. Unfortunately, this is not the case at present in Lesotho schools, hence the relevance of this study. Mr Sam confirmed that practicals were not part of assessment.

Ho sa ntse ho ngoloa paper 1 le paper 2 ebe ke phetho. Paper 1 ke potso tse khuts'oane tse nang le multiple-choice, ha paper 2 e le potso tse telele tsa li-essay. Ha ho na li-practicals. [They write paper 1 and paper 2; and that's it. Paper 1 comprises short questions with multiple-choice, while paper 2 comprises long essay questions. There are no practicals.] - Mr Sam

Since tourism was not done as a full, stand-alone subject at Phela High School, the above extract means that there were tourism questions in both Paper 1 and Paper 2 of geography and in development studies, and usually counted to a total of 10 -15 percent of each subject. The proposition in this study has been that, whether tourism is taught inside other subjects or as a fully-fledged stand-alone subject (usually called travel and tourism), both theory and practice should be taught and assessed equally, on a 50/50 basis (see 3.3.4).

5.4 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF SOLUTIONS

5.4.1 Solutions to prevent misunderstanding of tourism as a vocational subject

One of the solutions for preventing tourism being misunderstood as a vocational subject could be achieved if teachers' knowledge of tourism and reasons for its introduction were not only derived from the learners' textbook, which does even define tourism as a vocational subject, as the MoET does (Molise, 2016: 1-2). Teachers need to be well-read, and highly competent regarding the subject matter, theories and facts surrounding the subject, beyond the textbook (Kleickmann et al., 2013: 91). They should also read government documents on related subject issues, so that they are always informed, and stay on top of their game. Textbook knowledge and understanding is shallow, and does not delve into tourism types and its many sectors, as elaborated upon in 3.3.1. It has been shown that shallow knowledge means teachers can't give examples and illustrations that help learners understand concepts (Shulman, 1987: 8). Learners sometimes ask awkward questions which call for deeper knowledge and understanding of the content knowledge beyond the textbooks. Altun (2013: 366) suggests that teachers should be able to integrate knowledge with practice, so that knowledge becomes useful to the lives of people and addresses the life problems of poverty and unemployment, and helps them achieve self-reliance.

Dube's (2014: 153) assertion that tourism does not provide university entrance in South Africa, even if the assertion is no longer correct, lowers its standing among other subjects, and works against it being a subject of choice. Much needs to be done to improve the content of tourism, even while remaining a vocational subject. Fortunately, tourism has the same status as geography, development studies and history for university entrance in Lesotho, because of the previously held understanding that it is an academic social science subject.

The CEO was instrumental in strengthening the understanding that tourism is a vocational subject. He educated teachers about tourism activities that take place in the country, and buttressed the fact that tourism is an active subject, not confined to the classroom and chalkboard notes. He talked of activities that improve Lesotho tourism, such as celebrating Cultural Day (11 March, previously called

Moshoeshoe's Day), when the Basotho culture can be displayed through dress, song and dance. He talked of skiing and rock-climbing, as sports that tourists enjoy doing in the country. He talked of the annual Roof of Africa car and motor-bike race, pony-riding, canoeing, boating, and that boys, too, should be encouraged to learn to cook, so that they can become chefs at hotels, lodges, and inns, and can start their own bed and breakfast establishments.



Figure 5.3: Learning to become a chef, illustrated by the textbook (Debeshe et al., 2004: 53)

The CEO discussed arts, drawings depicting Basotho and their ways of life, and the making of handicrafts, as proposed in this study. He said learners should be exposed to and taught about these activities, so that, after completing their high school education, they can decide where they want to be employed in the tourism industry, or how they wish to be self-employed. He referred to the beautiful scenery of Lesotho, the mountains, the flowers, the birds and wild animals. He said ways should be found to teach learners how to preserve the environment, so that the beauty of Lesotho lasts for generations to come. He talked of exposing learners to WIL, and that he was working tirelessly with the MoET to ensure that WIL started in earnest in the near future. Indeed, the CEO's speech and presentations at other workshops served to strengthen the understanding of tourism as a vocational subject.

Figures 5.5 to 5.7 show scenery in Lesotho, and tourist activities that generate income for the country:



Figure 5.4: Lesotho scenery - mountains, rivers and boats; locals who look after the waters earn income for allowing boats and fishing (Picture by LTDC 2017: 44)



Figure 5.5: Snowboarding at Mahlasela AfriSki (photo by AfriSki, LTDC 2017: 34)

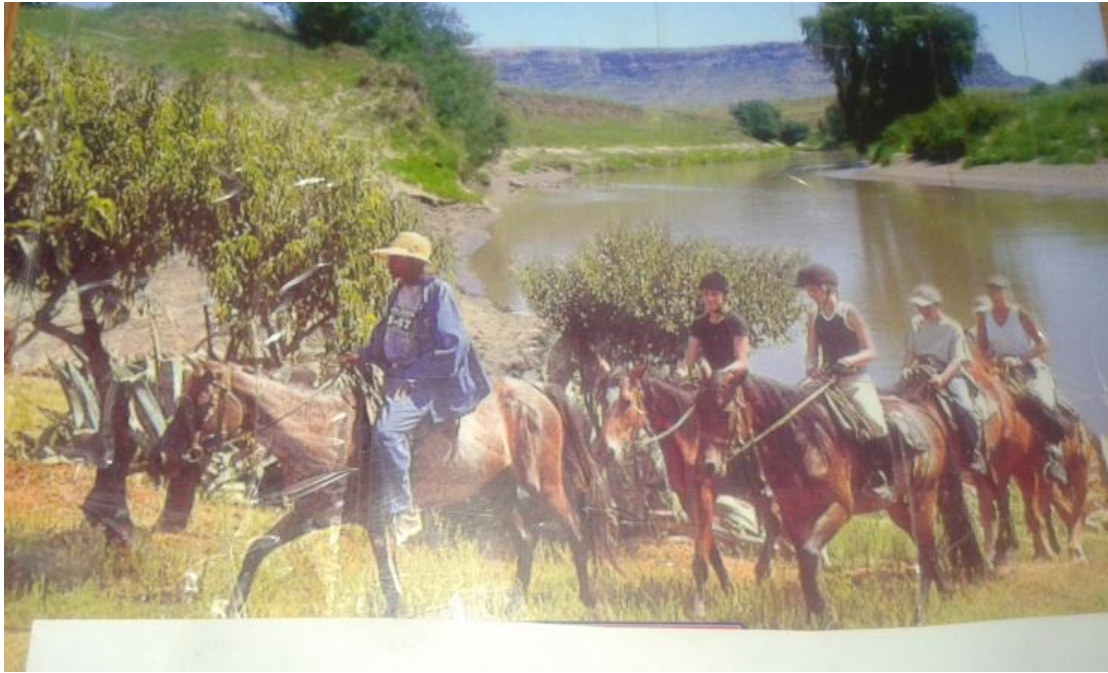


Figure 5.6: Pony trekking in Lesotho (Lelala et al., 2004)

The ponies shown in Figure 5.7 are hired and generate income for their owners. The guide also earns income.

5.4.2 Solutions for inadequate teacher qualifications and knowledge

Acknowledged teacher qualifications in tourism from institutions of higher learning are essential, so that teachers are competent and thoroughly conversant with the tourism content knowledge, facts and theories (Kleickmann et al., 2013: 91). At present, few teachers are qualified in tourism because it is a young subject (Petersen, 2015: 80), which was introduced after tourism industry employers had approached schools and asked them to introduce the subject to meet their skills needs (Pawson, 2002: 2; Airey 1984 in Petersen, 2015: 15). Since tourism has always been integrated into social science subjects, such as geography, development studies, history and economics, teachers of these subjects could teach tourism at the initial stages of the subject.

In addition, teacher training institutions should introduce and emphasise methods and approaches of delivering the tourism content (Sean, 2010: 39), particularly the vocational aspect of it, which would help learners to acquire the necessary practical

skills to address challenges of poverty through the creation of opportunities for self-employment, and for the achievement of self-reliance. Thus, as a solution, institutions of higher learning in Lesotho should work harder to develop teaching methods for and approaches to teaching tourism, and follow up on interns, to ensure that they apply these methods and approaches when they deliver tourism content knowledge in their teaching practice.

Another solution is that high school learners should be encouraged to enrol for tourism education courses at the tertiary level after finishing school. Teachers who are already in the field should be capacitated with workshops to boost their content knowledge levels, and follow proper methods of and approaches to teaching tourism, with emphasis on its vocational aspect, to equip learners with hands-on skills for addressing poverty and unemployment challenges, thus integrating knowledge with practice (Altun, 2013: 366).

5.4.3 Resource availability and use

With the help of the tourism department, schools should budget for resources, such as maps, globes, compasses, magazines, wall charts, a library, overhead projectors, computers, and internet connectivity (Wi-Fi). Specialised classrooms and libraries should be built. Teaching staff should undergo training sessions on how to use these teaching aids, materials, resources and facilities. They should also attend regular workshops to refresh and boost their content knowledge, to become an effective human resource, and to strengthen their understanding of the subject, and its vocational value; that is, the subject's academic and practical aspects, so that the learners can acquire practical skills to address life challenges. Qualified teachers with adequate content knowledge regarding tourism should be available as human resources, to help new and inexperienced teachers. Excursions to tourist information centres and tourist attractions, including visits to hotels and lodges, should be arranged, and be made accessible and affordable to learners (Mayell & Davies, 2014: 14).

5.4.4 Varying methods of and approaches to teaching tourism

Teachers should vary their methods of and approaches to tourism teaching to cater for thinkers and doers, because learners differ, due to their different upbringing and backgrounds (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Wang, 2008: 126). During the study at Phela High School the two aspects of teaching, the academic and the vocational, gradually entered the teachers' consciousness and awareness, so that they saw the need to vary their teaching methods and approaches, to methods that favour participatory and interactive pedagogy (MoET 2009: 4-6), and lean towards learner-centredness. Okoroma (2012: 468) concludes that bad teaching contributes to falling education standards in Nigeria. The same conclusion was reached in Brazil, where it was argued that pumping more money into education was not the solution; instead, the solution was teaching better. Different teaching and learning methods and approaches are explained at length in Section 3.3.3.

In Figure 5.8, learners are discussing what they can make with their hands that can be sold to tourists and other people, and the materials needed to produce those hand-made products. In a learner-centred approach, learners are active, participatory and interactive, as opposed to the "silent method" of copying notes from the chalkboard. Figure 5.9 shows possible products learners could make to sell.



Figure 5.7: Discussions during learner-centred teaching approach



Figure 5.8: Hut with straw roof (top left); mortar and pestle (top right); three-legged stool from a tree branch (bottom left); mohope and mopotjoane for drinking (bottom right)

The mathematics teacher demonstrated that, if the above products could be made, priced and sold, they could generate income. The accounting teacher advised the learners to practice good bookkeeping procedures, and to open bank accounts to save their money. This illustrates how tourism could be taught as a vocational subject that provides survival and practical skills against poverty and unemployment

(Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228). It was also taught from an integrated curriculum point of view, with emphasis on productive and entrepreneurial skills, in a holistic way, cutting across disciplinary boundaries (Malik & Malik, 2011: 99), to enhance self-employment and self-reliance, to produce school-leavers who could create jobs for themselves and others (Msuya et al., 2014: 103-104; Omede, 2012: 296).

The school administration also became more cooperative, and relaxed its grip on funds to buy appropriate instructional materials, as the principal conveyed below:

Bana ke ba rona, re tla bona hore na ba thusoa joang. [These are our children; we'll see how they are assisted.] - Principal

Through Fairclough's (1993: 135) and Van Dijk's (1995: 17-18) textual analysis of the principal's utterance, the use of the pronouns *our* and *we* showed that the principal had become committed, and had adopted ownership of the project, which boded well for its success and sustainability. The academic and practical aspects of tourism teaching were being realised and internalised, to become part of the teaching culture of the school. Excursions to tourist attractions became more frequent, even if not to satisfactory levels; and applications to donors to build a library multiplied.

The principal's tone had changed from the past, when she used to say, *Re tla bona* [We'll see], when requests for tourism instructional materials were brought to her office. At the start of the study there was no specific budget for tourism teaching. The budget was allocated to the department of social sciences, from which tourism would receive a minor share – not enough to cover the needed resources. Later, her understanding and appreciation of the project had improved to the extent that colleagues remarked,

U mo entse joang na motho eo? [What have you done to this person to soften her?] - Mr Sam

Moreover, the presence of community members in the school environment helped the principal to build trust and develop good relations with them, as encouraged by literature (Bulawa & Mhlauli, 2012: 232; Kintz, 2011: 1). For the purposes of this study, community members were also an emancipating and empowering resource for teaching and learning (Mahlomaholo, 2012: 102), through their various forms of

capital, indigenous knowledges and assets (Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85; Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77).

5.4.5 Solutions for community participation in tourism education

Solutions to encourage CP in tourism education are important, because they can reduce the subject cost to the school. This can be achieved by explaining what tourism is to all stakeholders, particularly to community members, so that they take advantage of its opportunities to improve their lives, or maximise opportunities that already exist (Dube, 2014: 159; Ejiolorun et al., 2012: 4; Lovrentjev, 2015: 56; Nkumane, 2008: 33). This was particularly true of the community members who had been invited to Phela High School to teach learners to make crafts. These community members had learned to make the crafts as a hobby; later the hobby had become commercial and generated income for them. They took advantage of the tourism opportunity that presented itself, even though it was on a small scale.

Ha re bona hore lintho tseo re li etsang lia thahaselloa, re ile ra be re se re nka monyetla, re li etsa ha hangata ho feta pejana, re li rekisa, re khona ho reka paraffininyana. [When we saw that people were interested in what we made, we took advantage and made more crafts than before, and sold them, so we could buy a little paraffin.] -

Mrs Sibeko

The CEO advised the community members and the learners to form cooperatives and produce their crafts on a larger scale. He also opened their eyes to other opportunities, such as community-based tourism. He suggested they convert unused houses into tourist accommodation for tourists who want to taste community culture and rural life. His eye-opening workshop illuminated the meaning of tourism as a subject for school and beyond, particularly its vocational aspect. Tourism could fulfil aspirations of entrepreneurial skill acquisition for survival and achieving self-reliance (MoET, 2009: 18). It is the democratic right of parents to know the subjects their children are involved in at school, and the benefits of such subjects; the conditions under which the children are taught, and the qualifications of the teachers (Russell, 2009: 33, 43; Save the Children USA, 2013: 20-21). Parents have this right because

in most cases they provide the necessary support and resources for the subjects offered at school.

Exposure to tourism is important, because poor communities tend to think that tourism is only for Whites and wealthy people (Nkumane, 2008: viii, 33), because holiday-makers display luxurious life-styles and excess in that short holiday period they have budgeted for (even if, in reality, they are not wealthy). Tourists may travel in a beautiful bus, far better than buses available in the community (but whose fare is cheap), have beautiful bags hanging from their shoulders, carry cameras and be ready to shoot; eating braai-vleis [barbecued meat], and drinking fruit juices and fizzy drinks (not dirty water from wells and rivers, which is what locals are accustomed to), and seeming to sleep in expensive hotels (even if, in reality, they sleep in cheap youth hostels and student dormitories). Also, locals may not be aware that, by saving money, little by little, over time, they can also hire a beautiful bus and travel, as tourists too. This explains why exposure as a solution is important. It helps the community unlearn entrenched discursive practices they had taken for granted and had internalised over a long time, which perpetuate injustice, inequality and bias against them (Fairclough, 1993: 135; Van Dijk, 1993: 250-252; 1995: 17-18).

5.4.6 Thorough understanding of an integrated curriculum

Literature indicates that a thorough understanding of an integrated curriculum requires a firm grasp of its theoretical underpinnings, including its unusual terminology (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314-315; Daly et al., 2012: 6; Malik & Malik, 2011: 99; Park, 2008: 312, 314). Teachers should be exposed to an integrated curriculum through training and information sessions, so that its academic and vocational components are well understood (I explain some terms relevant to an integrated curriculum in 3.2.3 and 3.4.2.3). Community members should also be exposed to information sessions about the teaching materials tourism teaching requires, so that they can prepare themselves and support teachers (Shankar, 2014: 75-76).

Asked whether they saw the production of crafts as a viable alternative to white-collar jobs, community members did not appear to value their craft-making highly:

Re tla reng, e se e le hona hore e 'ne e ke motho oa sebetsa. [What can we say, it is just to keep busy for one to feel as if s/he is working.]
- Mr Seepa

E se e le hore bana bana ba lule ba ikopantse le ha ba se ba qetile sekolong joaloka ha Ofisiri ea M'uso e bonts'itse. Mohlomong ba tla atleha ho feta rona. [It would be better for these learners to stay in a cooperative as the Chief Government Officer advised, even beyond their schooling days. Perhaps that may make them more successful than us.] - Mrs Sibeko

Mr Seepa's fears confirm the findings of Sinclair and Lillis (1980: 64, 83-84), Ezeh and Ekemenzie (2015: 238), and Ansell (2002, in Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 9), that rural communities tended to value white-collar jobs more highly. According to Twalo (2010: 832), this is a sign of dependency syndrome, caused by colonialists who had entrenched in the minds of Africans that their African ways of living were inferior. Thus, from contextual analysis (Fairclough, 1993: 135; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2007: 276-277; Rocha-Schmid, 2010: 355; Van Dijk, 2008: 90), I deduce that community members were afraid that training the learners to make crafts would lead them astray, as they would not achieve success in life. Colonialism had led them to believe that success was achievable only through white-collar jobs.

Mrs Sibeko, on the other hand, while expressing similar doubts about the value of making crafts, captured the essence of the study when she recognised the value of working together, because *kopano ke matla* [unity is power], in order to earn a living and become self-reliant beyond high school. The success of the learners depended on their collaborative and inclusive efforts to assist one another, under the supervision of teachers and community members, to integrate tourism by practicalising it by making crafts in this study. Other studies could concentrate on training tour guides, or teaching art/drawings, or traditional songs and dances, or producing chefs and waiters for the hospitality industry, to demonstrate that knowledge should be integrated with practice to be useful for providing a means of survival to prevent hunger and unemployment.

5.4.7 Inclusiveness in the implementation of an integrated curriculum

Inclusiveness in the implementation of an integrated curriculum calls for strategies that were highlighted in the implementation of the integrated curriculum, such as *train staff; decide on the level and scope of integration; identify common themes that promote the transfer of learning; communicate with staff and learners; and develop closer links with the community* (see 3.2.5). In South Korea, Park (2008: 314) found that teachers believed more integration meant better integration, and that less meant poor integration. However, circumstances at schools differ, and schools may need step-by-step forms of integration, applied in an inclusive manner to ensure that everybody understands the integrated curriculum and its processes, and the role each should play to make it successful and sustainable. Unless it is handled well, an integrated curriculum could be confusing and burdensome – these difficulties could be caused by overzealousness (Daly et al., 2012: 10). Strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum should always be considered in a pragmatic and progressive way.

As alluded to earlier, community members should also be briefed on the integrated curriculum, so that they provide the necessary support and mobilise resources (Loepp, 1999: 25; Park, 2008: 313), and take on greater responsibilities (Kintz, 2011: 2; Shepherd, 1998: 183). In addition to inclusiveness and training, literature also suggests that facilities and appropriate textbooks should be availed (Shankar, 2014: 75-76).

The researcher believed that asking teachers at Phela High School about the models, levels and types of integration at this stage would be unfair, since understanding the concept of an integrated curriculum, on its own, was lacking. Recall that Ms Mona had said they had heard about it, “*but we don’t know how it works*”. But both Ms Mona and Mr Sam agreed with literature that training, availing resources, facilities and relevant textbooks, and inclusiveness with regard to staff, learners and community members, were pivotal for smooth, successful, and sustainable implementation.

However, it is important to note that failing to express awareness about the horizontal or vertical forms of integration does not mean that teachers did not apply them in practice. They did, and were successful, just as Park (2008: 308-309)

discovered in South Korea, when teachers implemented these forms of integration without being aware of doing so.

5.4.8 Solutions for work-integrated learning

WIL should be a requirement for a learner to graduate from high school. LGCSE Travel and Tourism Syllabus 2017 should include a component for WIL, so that learners can acquire practical skills for working in the tourism industry. Exposing learners to real tourism work can motivate them and open their eyes to a vast array of opportunities for employment and self-employment in tourism, even before they complete high school. WIL can also provide feedback to schools, so that they are aware what the tourism industry wants and expects from learners in terms of skills needed in the industry. What is taught in schools can gradually answer industry needs, which, in turn, would contribute to the country's economic growth and national development through the creation of job opportunities.

Nkumane (2008: 115) adds, further, that schools should approach the tourism industry to request learner internships or placement opportunities, thereby integrating work with learning. During the festive season, when there are many visitors, hotels, inns and lodges can absorb many learners to practise many skills that can increase the learners' chances of future employment, as well as create opportunities for self-employment. Rowe and Zegwaard (2017: 87-88) found that WIL inspired and motivated learners to understand the content knowledge and apply it in practice. Thus, exposure to WIL was helpful to learners.

5.4.9 Collaborative assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

Timely planning and collaborative assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum requires regular meetings between departments and teachers to decide what has to be taught and assessed, and on the allocation of marks (Shankar, 2014: 75). Regular meetings also help to iron out differences that might exist between departments and teachers (Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 8-9), which are usually overlooked.

Malik and Malik (2011: 103), Umalusi (2013: 106) and Shankar (2014: 75) assert that, for assessment to be successful, outcome objectives should be thought of early on, at the planning and design stages, to avoid a mismatch between the taught and the assessed. Furthermore, literature affirms that assessment should involve speedy feedback, to remove misconceptions (Sadler, 1989: 209), and should be a tool for reflection for and emancipation and empowerment of learners (Carver & Scheier, 1990: 87; Roger, 2006: 76). Assessment should support learning by stimulating reflection.

After teachers at Phela High School had been exposed to the integrated curriculum, they were able to explain in their own words what an integrated tourism curriculum would involve if it were to be assessed in a similar fashion to other practical and vocational subjects, such as agriculture, design and technology, and basic handcrafts, in which theory and practice were considered equally in awarding marks. This is the case with the mode of assessment used in the United Kingdom (Cambridge IGCSE, 2014: 7-8), specifically for tourism education.

Re nahana hore thuto ena ea bohahlauli, e lokela ho hlahlojoa joaloka bo-agric, moo ho shejoang tsebo, kapa kutloisiso ea ngoana, hammoho le seo aka se etsang ka matsoho a hae hore a iphelise.
[We think assessment in tourism should be similar to agric, where consideration is on knowledge or understanding, including what the learner can produce with her/his hands for survival.] - Ms Mona

It was, indeed, encouraging to hear from Ms Mona how learners should be assessed in an integrated curriculum, particularly because she had, earlier, expressed scanty understanding, and had wished the MoET would present many training workshops.

5.5 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF CONDITIONS

5.5.1 Enhancing understanding of tourism as a vocational subject

It seems that two things must happen in Lesotho to improve the conditions of understanding tourism as a vocational subject: a relaunch of the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum policy document, and a relaunch of tourism as a vocational subject, which was initially done in 2011. Their (integrated curriculum and tourism)

rationale and the philosophy of education in Lesotho should be revived in the minds of teachers, school principals and other stakeholders, including community members. Uniformity and unity of understanding cannot be overemphasised. Teachers should undergo training and refresher courses to make sure they understand the integrated curriculum, particularly the integration of tourism at the secondary level, to strengthen theory and practice of the subject, as well as the attitudes towards it.

Dube (2014: 166) suggests that thorough advocacy for tourism education and its benefits by the education directorate should be conducted and well disseminated to schools. It should be clear from the onset that tourism is a vocational subject aimed at equipping learners with productive and entrepreneurial skills that would present them employment opportunities, and lead them to self-reliance. Emphasising the positive aspects of tourism will also improve its status. The second important condition is budgeting for the subject, so that there are adequate resources and facilities. It should not appear as if tourism has been introduced by accident; there should be a positive, welcoming atmosphere for the subject, and teachers must be taught how to integrate it, to achieve its practical benefits.

In agreement with Dube (2014: 166), Nkumane (2008: viii, 33) suggests informing community members about this new practical subject called tourism, about its value to learners through the employment opportunities it provides learners while they are still at school, and beyond. After all, strategies for the implementation of an integrated curriculum advocate *developing closer links with the community* with a view to capacitating community members to take control of their lives and the lives of their school-going children through better decision-making.

5.5.2 Improving teacher qualifications and knowledge

Teachers should be well qualified, with degrees from university; their content knowledge and delivery of the subject-matter should be impeccable and unquestionable. Learners should have full confidence in their teachers. Teachers who are already in the field of work should undergo training to improve their content knowledge and methods and approaches of delivering it. Teachers should demonstrate competence, and should deliver their knowledge in a manner that

learners can make sense of and understand the content (Kleickmann et al., 2013: 91; Ward et al., 2015: 130). A teacher should also be able to integrate knowledge with practice (Altun, 2013: 366), so that the knowledge becomes useful in life, for it is the practice and the hands-on skills that enable learners to explore ways of alleviating poverty by engaging in productive work, and thus taking control of their own lives and learning (Espinosa, 2013: 37; Keistin & Stichter, 2011: 98).

Schools should encourage teachers to increase their knowledge base by reading, and by using distance and part-time learning opportunities to improve their qualifications. Also, schools should ensure that there are computers and internet connectivity (Wi-Fi) that are accessible to teaching staff and learners, so that they can find information related to their subject. Teachers should be aware of career opportunities in tourism, and they should transfer this information to learners, to motivate them regarding tourism education, and influence them to become tourism teachers in the future.

5.5.3 Resource availability and use

Resources and facilities should be made to be available for the proper teaching of tourism. Schools should always have a budget for adequate resources. These resources should not be available by accident. Schools should prepare themselves thoroughly for tourism teaching by budgeting for it, because fostering self-reliance is not an easy task. Resources should be used efficiently and cost-effectively, so that they last for a long time. Teachers and learners should be conscientised about this, without discouraging them to use them. School administrations can achieve proper budgeting if they are assisted by teachers and departments to plan and make decisions about the teachers' and learners' needs by means of a bottom-up approach (Aikara, 2011: 169-170), and as demonstrated by Shaeffer (1994: 17) in his ladder for analysis of participation in education. Involving the community in education strengthens teaching, because learners benefit from the lived experiences of the community, and this makes learning meaningful and exciting (Spaull, 2013: 1, 4).

5.5.4 Variation of tourism teaching methods and approaches

Varying tourism teaching methods and approaches is necessary and inevitable, because learners learn differently due their different upbringing and backgrounds (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4). Inviting community members into the school setting adds variation to teaching methods and approaches. Teaching is not simply academic and teacher-centred. Through interaction with community members, learning becomes learner-centred and fun, through interaction when learners make crafts to sell to generate income. Theory and practice are integrated and balanced, and this brings joy to learning, as one learner in the focus group revealed:

Re se re natefelo a ke thuto ena ka ho e kopanya le mosebetsi oa matsoho. [We now enjoy learning this subject [tourism] by combining it with manual work.]- Boy 3

Certainly, the experience of learning collaboratively with community members, teachers and peers, interacting and constructing knowledge together, while bridging the gap between theory and practice, is an approach that satisfies the cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains (Bloom *et al.*, 1956, cited in Brauer & Ferguson 2015: 314). Doing so caters for different learning styles, caused by learners' varied contextual backgrounds and abilities (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Wang, 2008: 126), as one of the conditions for the best learning practices, to achieve the desired ontological and epistemological growth. Other conditions were addressed by the school administration's budget for addressing tourism teaching needs, and in realising the significance of the study. Thus, this study was in tune with what literature recommends, that is, social inclusion and social constructivism, which were not present at Phela High School before the study commenced.

5.5.5 Promoting community participation in tourism education

Conditions conducive to CP in tourism education have been explained above. For example, Dube (2014: 166) believes that advocacy for tourism has not been loud enough, in view of its benefits to economic growth and job opportunities. His thoughts echo those of Nkumane (2008: viii, 33), whose study in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, demonstrated that community members did not think tourism was for

them, because they had never been exposed to it. They thought tourism was for white people, as was the case during the apartheid regime, and for the wealthy and enlightened black people. Ejiolor et al. (2012: 4) found that rural communities in Nigeria lacked exposure, while Lovrentjev (2015: 556) found the same situation in Croatia.

Community members who had been invited to Phela High School had similar observations, namely, that the larger community had to be exposed to tourism for it to have a triple impact: on the community members themselves, to uplift their lives through the sale of crafts; on schools through skills' transfer from community members to learners; and on the tourism industry, which would employ capable learners with skills and knowledge. Upliftment and improvement of life is in keeping with the main objective of the founder of PAR, Lewin (1944), which was opposing the socio-economic domination of the underprivileged.

By indicating the need for exposure, due to its importance as a solution and condition to maximise CP, one community member at Phela High School said:

Ho na le batsoali ba ka iphelisang ka bohahlali, ba ka khonang le ho isa bana likolong, haholo-holo ha ho ne ho ka thehoa likoporasi joalokaha Ofisiri ea 'Muso e bonts'itse. [There are parents who could earn a living out of tourism, who could even send children to school, especially if cooperatives could be formed as was suggested by the Government Official.] - Mrs Sibeko

Mr Seepa added:

Ha kutloisiso ea likoposari e ka anela sechabeng, joalokaha 'M'e Sibeko a bonts'a, e ka anela baneng le likolong. [Indeed, if cooperatives could be understood and formed in the community as Mrs Sibeko has said, that could be transferred to learners and schools.] - Mr Seepa.

Repeated mention of the importance of cooperatives was in line with the Basotho philosophy of working in *matsema* (working together in large groups) to defeat life challenges (MoET, 2009: 5-6), because *ntja-peli ha e hloloe ke sebata* [two dogs cannot be defeated by a lion]. Participants emphasised that unity is power, *kopano*

ke matla. In my view, this notion is heightened by banks in Lesotho, which tend to lend money to cooperatives rather than to individuals wanting to start a business project. Thus, the Basotho philosophy of working together in *matsema* is consistent with PAR's objectives of fostering *cohesion and unity* and *capacity building* (Pant & Odame, 2009: 160-172; Watters & Comeau, 2014: 10) (see 4.2.3). Togetherness brings professionals, experts, talents and skills together in one place, and thereby improves networking and communication, which are essential for national development (Watters & Comeau, 2014: 9).

Over time, community members also seemed to come to appreciate the fact that tourism is a vocational subject, and that the transfer of skills from community members to schools, and to the learners to improve their lives, is necessary. In fact, it is one of the objectives of PAR, that gained knowledge and skills should be utilised to bring about change among underprivileged community members (Lybek, 2010: 91; MacDonald, 2012: 38). Teachers did not have the talents and skills to make and sell crafts, and therefore could not cause the desired transformational change on their own.

Community members confirmed findings by Nkumane (2008: viii, 33), Ejiofor et al. (2012: 4), Dube (2014: 166) and Lovrentjev (2015: 556), who found that the wider community had to be exposed to tourism education, in order to successfully take advantage of tourism opportunities. After all, it is the function of PAR to activate communities to act and transform their living conditions; in this way PAR instigates action. Teachers should feel free to invite community members with experiential knowledge, skills and talents to make craft products for the benefit of the learners, as was the case in this study. Community members can be a very useful teaching aid and resource for strengthening learning. Increased involvement by community members and other stakeholders reinforces teaching/learning, as they contribute lived experiences and feelings, and help to make learning meaningful.

Moreover, CP requires freedom to express rights and opinions as a condition for optimal participation, in a bottom-up CP approach (Aikara, 2011: 169-170; RISE, 2010: 29). Community members need to be conscientised that participation in education is their democratic right (Kintz, 2011: 19-20). They have the right to know the conditions in which their children are taught, by whom, with what kind of

qualifications, and whether the school administration and teachers are performing to the best of their professional abilities. Community members should know that they are partners in the school, and should operate at the levels of *partnership* and *citizen control* (Arnstein, 1969), and Shaeffer's (1994) level of *participation in decision-making at every stage*.

5.5.6 Enhancing understanding of an integrated curriculum

Conditions that enhance understanding of an integrated curriculum need to be available and improved by the school administration and government. Teachers at Phela High School believed they would be in a better position to understand the integrated curriculum if education officials with knowledge and expertise could conduct workshops in the school.

Ke 'nete motho o se u utloisisa nth'oena hanyane. Ho hlokahala li-workshop, re tsebe ho etsa lintho tseo re li utloisisang hantle. [It is true that one now understands this thing [integrated curriculum] a little. Workshops are needed so that we do what we understand well.]
- Ms Mona

Mr Sam reminded Ms Mona that the Minister of Education and Training had alluded to government operating with "limited financial resources", probably due to the economic downturn that had started in 2008. No meaningful national workshops to disseminate information on integrated curriculum had been presented after the curriculum launch in 2009, particularly for the secondary school level.

Tsietsi ke hore haesale 'muso o lla ka bosieo ba chelete bakeng sa li-workshop tsa matichere. Ha ho ne ho ka etsahala, likolo le ne li tla fetisetsa thuto ena batsoaling hore ba etse tlatsetso. [The problem is that government has been crying from lack of money for holding workshops for teachers. If money had not been a problem, schools would disseminate education [on integrated curriculum] to parents/community members so that they provide support.] - Mr Sam

What Mr Sam said, affirms the literature, which reveals that information on the integrated curriculum is not readily available to schools and among staff (Park,

2008:309), and that it is important that staff are well informed, through training and regular information sessions that also involve community members, because *kopano ke matla* [unity is power].

It is important to note that both Mr Sam and Ms Mona had earlier expressed their appreciation of an integrated curriculum and its benefits. However, after applying Fairclough's (1993: 135) and Van Dijk's (1995: 17-18) CDA to participant responses, the repeated mention of the need for further workshops by MoET shows that there are inherent doubts in participants' understanding of an integrated curriculum, which needs further discussion, explanation and follow-up to assess their understanding *ho fihlela hore qi!* [until everything is clear and intact]. Teachers' doubts about understanding an integrated curriculum refers back to the repetitive cyclic process of PAR (Jasper 2003: 16), which requires that, until understanding and a quality outcome are arrived at, planning, taking action, observing the effects of the action, taking further action, reflecting, and replanning should continue. This means doubts are normal until more satisfactory explanations are found for a better outcome, in this case a better understanding of an integrated tourism curriculum and its benefits.

5.5.7 Implementing an integrated curriculum

Conditions for the implementation of an integrated curriculum are spelled out in the strategies for implementing an integrated curriculum (see 3.2.5), and in the principles for self-reliance implementation. From inputs by teachers at Phela High School, training of staff was a priority regarding preparation for implementing an integrated curriculum. This view agreed with suggestions in literature (Daly et al., 2012: 6-10; Malik & Malik, 2011: 99; Park, 2008: 312-314). Literature shows that community members also need to attend information sessions on integrated curriculum for the community's support and mobilisation of resources (Loepp, 1999: 25; Russell, 2009: 33; Shankar, 2014: 75-76).

Teacher training colleges should shift their focus to learner-centred teaching approaches (MoET, 2009: 22; Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 7), which encourage greater interaction among learners, and learning from one another in the construction of knowledge to achieve ontological and epistemological growth. Training should also recognise the community's contribution, through its resources,

assets and manpower, agreeing with literature that capacity building is one of the key factors for successful and sustainable implementation of an integrated curriculum.

5.5.8 Conditions conducive to work-integrated learning

To improve conditions for WIL, schools should have cordial relations with surrounding tourism industry establishments, so that schools are able to place learners on internships so that they can integrate their content knowledge with work. Fortunately, Phela High School is surrounded by many opportunities for WIL as there are hotels, inns and about 10 lodges within a radius of 40 km of the school. There is also the Lesotho Water Highlands Project dam, 'Muela, from where water is transferred to South Africa. There is a considerable passing traffic near the school to these locations.

However, until this study was undertaken, it was not obvious that WIL can take place and succeed. Even though no learner has ever been placed for internship yet, it could happen as part of a follow-up to this study. Gellerstedt et al. (2015: 38) see WIL as a necessary marriage, or condition, between academia and the world-of-work, as long as WIL's activities remain authentic, meaningful and relevant to learners' areas of study (Rowe & Zegwaard, 2017: 89-90).

5.5.9 Assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

Ideal conditions for the assessment of an integrated curriculum would have to be similar to those of other vocational subjects available at the school, in which assessment outcomes, or objectives, had to be thought of and stipulated well in advance, so as to avoid a mismatch between what has to be taught and assessed (Malik & Malik, 2011: 103; MoET, 2009: v; Umalusi, 2013: 106; Shankar, 2014: 75). Content for knowledge, skills and attitudes should be developed and assessed by teachers accordingly (Malik & Malik, 2011: 101). This is done on a quarterly basis at Phela High School on a 50/50 basis, as Ms Mona indicated:

Qalong ea kotara e 'ngoe le 'ngoe rea lula, ho rala seo bana ba lokelang ho se tseba, ebe qetellong ea kotara rea ba hlahloba. [At the beginning of each quarter we sit and decide what learners should know for that quarter, and then assess them at the end of it.] - Ms Mona

Ms Mona based her comment on the way they schemed together every quarter to plan the way they would teach agriculture; how they recorded work done every week, and how major tests were drawn up and given to the learners at the end of each quarter. All these activities were preplanned, as recommended by literature. Above all, it has been demonstrated that assessment should encompass speedy feedback, which helps learners to fill misconception gaps, and motivates them to reflect on their work, and have the self-belief that they can improve. Bennet (2011: 8) sees assessment as a tool that assists teachers to know “where their learners are; where they want to go; and how best to get there.”

5.6 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THREATS

5.6.1 Threats to understanding tourism as a vocational subject

When tourism was introduced in Australia between 1987 and 1990, it faced a threat in the form of competition from traditional vocational subjects (Marland & Store, 1991: 17). The competition involved funding, resources and facilities. In the case of tourism in Lesotho, however, Marland and Store's (1991: 17) argument does not hold, because tourism was treated as an academic social science, similar to geography, history and development studies. Teachers at Phela High School had never understood tourism as a practical and productive subject until this study persuaded them otherwise, and their new perception was reinforced by the MoET workshops on enhancing the understanding of an integrated curriculum in June/July 2017.

Ho fihlela u hlaha ka taba ea hore bana ba etse likatiba, likhomo tsa letsopa, le lintho tse ntsoeng ka patsi, haesale re nka thuto ena e its'oanela le tse ling feela. (Until you came along with the idea of

learners making hats, cattle from clay and wooden sculptures, to us tourism was just like any other subject.] - Mr Sam

Another threat that was raised by Marland and Store (1991: 17) is that the status of vocational subjects at secondary school level is low, because parents see this level of education as a launching pad for tertiary education, not as an end in itself. We will recall that Nyerere (1967:2) wanted the secondary and primary levels of education to be complete in themselves, so that, even if learners stopped schooling at these levels they could be self-sufficient and make a living. However, parents in Australia do not expect learners to go to work after the secondary level, and this can be said about many parents around the world. Given the high unemployment rate in Lesotho, deep poverty, and the scourge of HIV/AIDS, all of which result in a high school dropout rate (Chere-Masopha, 2007: 3-4; Kimane, 2005: 1), there seems to be no time to spend working towards a university degree before a young person has to start working. There is ample justification, these days, at least in Lesotho, for alternating school with work (Chere-Masopha, 2007: 3-4). It can, therefore, be argued that promotion of self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, as one of the strategies for fighting the daily challenges of hunger and unemployment, came at the right time, as confirmed by one of the community members:

Linako li fetohile, bana ba bangata ba ea ikholisa, ha ba na batsoali, ke likhutsana. Ho ithuta ba ntse ba sebetsa ho ka ba thusa haholo.
(Times have changed, many children raise themselves up with no parents around; they are orphans. Schooling while working could help them a great deal.) - Mrs Sibeko

Thus, even though vocational subjects were allocated low esteem by parents, especially in rural areas, as Sinclair and Lillis (1980: 64, 83-84), and Ezeh and Ekemenzie (2015: 238) show, empirical evidence recognises the urgency of the situation. High unemployment, rampant poverty and HIV/AIDS require immediate solutions – while learners are still at school. It is a matter of survival, and achieving self-reliance is a long-term solution (MoET, 2009: 18).

To a large extent, the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum appears to corroborate Nyerere's (1967: 2) views of balancing theory with practice, or work-related programmes, so that learning to be educated and learning to live happen at the

same time. It is also one of the objectives of PAR, that gained knowledge should be utilised to bring transformational socio-economic change in the lives of people (Cameron & Gipson, 2005: 317; Watters & Comeau, 2014: 10). The overall objective is empowering underprivileged learners, so that they take control of their lives.

Another disturbing threat to understanding tourism as a school subject is reluctance to designate and include it among other subjects that provide university entrance in South Africa, as determined by the National Curriculum Statement (Dube, 2014: 155-156, 159-160). Excluding it from the list of subjects that can be taken for a university degree lowers its status, and means that it will not be a favoured choice at school, even though it is seen as important for economic growth and national development through the job opportunities it creates (LTDC, 2017: 34; Lovrentjev, 2015: 555). A problem experienced in South Africa can have an impact in Lesotho, since South Africa is a powerful neighbour with a strong socio-economic influence in Lesotho.

5.6.2 Threats to teacher qualifications and knowledge

The main threat relating to teacher qualifications and knowledge stems from a lack of knowledge about the existence of tourism courses at college and university levels in Lesotho. Indeed, nothing, or very little, is known about tourism at the tertiary level. There is a need to disseminate information to schools through career guidance efforts and by the MoET itself. If it does not happen, the situation will not change: there will be few teachers with proper tourism qualifications and adequate content knowledge. Presently, few workshops have been presented for dissemination purposes. The number of teachers who were involved in these workshops was also very low, as teachers represented their regions, and were entrusted with the responsibility of holding further workshops in their respective regions and schools to disseminate information.

Unfortunately, there are no follow-ups by the MoET to ensure that teachers do hold the regional workshops, and whether these regional workshops are successful. In my experience, few teacher representatives hold workshops in their regions and in their schools, because, to start with, they have to find a suitable time for the workshops. Then, they have to request permission from principals to hold the workshops, and in most cases principals believe that teaching time is wasted

through these numerous and endless workshops, which also need travelling and food allowances to be paid.

5.6.3 Threats to resource availability and use

The most potent threat to schools is poverty. Schools receive funds from parents through fees. Free education applies only to the primary school level. Many parents whose children attend school at the secondary level do not work, due to the high unemployment rate in Lesotho and, therefore, fail to pay fees, or fail to pay on time. Another problem in Lesotho's secondary and high schools is that, from 2011, fees have been reduced considerably by government, in an attempt to standardise fees. Since then, schools have not been allowed to increase fees (for the past eight years now). Complaints by school principals that they are unable to run schools effectively have not been entertained by the government/MoET. Increasing school fees has become a political issue, particularly in a country that has, between 2007 and 2017, held four national elections (2007, 2012, 2015 and 2017). The result is a chronic and acute lack of resources in schools, even for basic maintenance of doors and windows (Nhlapo, 2012: 22). It is, therefore, hard to imagine where the resources and facilities for teaching tourism properly, and integrating it for practical purposes, will come from. Schools are poor; they have no money.

5.6.4 Threats to tourism teaching methods and approaches

The gradual realisation that tourism is a vocational subject means it could pose a threat to other vocational subjects, some of which are old and well established. This threat is a result of vocational subjects being expensive to present (Akyeampong, 2002: 4). Schools have limited funds, resources and facilities available to provide the preferred teaching methods and approaches, and the excursions to tourist attractions that may be required from time to time.

Fortunately, the principal at Phela High School changed her way of looking at the self-reliance project; she became cooperative, particularly when she witnessed how community members regularly visited the school to help the focus group. However, the rhetoric of self-reliance is still not prevalent in government documents and in

political speeches, and is, thus, not considered seriously by schools around the country. Literature recommends that, for self-reliance to be successful and sustainable, school efforts for achieving self-reliance should be in line with national efforts to avoid a mismatch of priorities (Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 86). The school should preach what is preached at national level, the country's education philosophy. Indeed, until the rhetoric of self-reliance is elevated to the required level, the success of fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, using CP at Phela High School, will depend solely on the will of the school administration, teachers, learners, and community members at the local level.

5.6.5 Threats to community participation in tourism education

Literature affirms that there is no tourism education in rural communities that aims to arming communities with knowledge and skills to take advantage of tourism opportunities (Ejiofor et al., 2012: 4; Nkumane, 2008: 39-40). Community members at Phela High School agreed with this negative observation in literature, because they have never been formally exposed to tourism education or awareness, which would have helped them take advantage of tourism opportunities to uplift their lives, and thereby attract more tourists to their areas, to the benefit of their attempts to make a living.

From the extract in 5.3.5, it is clear that community members who found themselves making crafts did so by chance, or it was simply because they liked working with their hands. They did not make crafts as a result of information being formally disseminated at community gatherings. As a result, community members do not take care of their environment to the extent they should, to attract tourists to their area.

5.6.6 Threats to understanding an integrated curriculum

The threat is that understanding the integrated curriculum and changing the teachers' attitudes from teacher-centredness to learner-centredness will take time. Ensuring that tourism addresses poverty challenges faced by learners, while pursuing the dream of self-reliance through the integrated tourism curriculum, will also take time. Given that each of these processes must be evaluated before moving

on to the next, it remains to be seen whether the workshops on the integrated curriculum will forge a successful way forward, to realise the aspirations of the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum sooner, rather than later. One of the strategies for effective integrated curriculum implementation advises, *commit to monitoring, evaluation and revision* of the project to ensure its success and sustainability. It appears that 2017 could be the year for consolidating the theoretical understanding of the integrated curriculum, given the June/July 2017 workshops by the MoET, but it could be too little, too late.

The main question is whether the MoET will be able to increase and train enough staff, so that there is capacity, effectiveness and efficiency in dealing with these massive changes, from the examination-oriented curriculum to the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum, and from teacher-centredness to learner-centredness. The problem is that the June/July 2017 workshops involved too few teachers countrywide to make the required impact. In some parts of the country teachers were unaware of the workshops. This has a negative effect on the required uniformity of understanding an integrated curriculum (Park 2008: 308-309).

Furthermore, schools must increase resources and facilities in readiness for the integrated curriculum implementation phase in 2018. The problem is that secondary schools in Lesotho do not have money, because of the rationalisation of fees that took place in 2011 (Nhlapo, 2012: 22). It is feared that coordination between schools and the MOET will be poor, and will result in problems and confusion, particularly in rural schools, which are far from the city and hard to reach, due to the rough terrain, and poorly resourced in terms of qualified staff and infrastructure. In the most recent Lesotho national election, on 3 June 2017, helicopters were the only means of transport that could transport ballot papers to some remote constituencies, otherwise horses and donkeys would have had to be used.

Asked whether they perceived the June/July 2017 workshops on the integrated curriculum as having had the effect of reducing the rigour of their disciplines, teachers at Phela High School responded as follows:

Ache, ha ke kholoe ho tla ba joalo. [Ah no, I don't think that will be the case.] - Mr Sam

Le 'na ha ke bone e ka ho ka ba joalo, ha feela re plena [etsa moralo] hantle hammoho seo re tlang ho se ruta, ebile re assessa bana 'moho. [I also don't think it will be like that, as long as we plan together what we are going to teach and assess.] - Ms Mona

Thus, the teachers did not agree with Park (2008: 313), who foresees that too much integrated curriculum activities might reduce individual disciplinary rigour regarding content knowledge. These responses give comfort over the short term; though it is not clear what may transpire over the long term, given Brauer and Ferguson's (2015: 318) finding that there is no long-term publication on integrated curriculum. It is not known what may transpire in the education system after using integrated curriculum for 20 or 30 years. Studies on implementation and assessment are only based on a short-term period.

5.6.7 Threats to the implementation of an integrated curriculum

According to Park (2008: 313, 316), the most persistent threat to the implementation of an integrated curriculum is the failure to see the value of staff training before curriculum is implemented, particularly because teacher-training institutions do not adequately arm teachers with skills for the integrated curriculum environment that applies at schools. This results in teachers reverting to the old, traditional way of teaching (Park, 2008: 314), which is examination-oriented and teacher-centred, lacking in creative and entrepreneurial skills that would enable learners to face life challenges of poverty and strive to achieve self-reliance.

The June/July 2017 MoET workshops on integrated curriculum involved too few teachers, presumably due to limited financial resources, and this limited involvement raises doubts about their effectiveness. This was confirmed by teachers at Phela High School who had attended the workshops. They did not seem to know what to do with the information they had received at the workshops. They believed there would be follow-up workshops to the June/July 2017 sessions. Some said inspectors would be coming in September 2017 to see how implementation was unfolding; others said inspectors would come in January 2018. They are not certain what should be done to implement the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum. Empirical evidence seems to support Park's (2008: 313, 316) finding, that adequate staff

training before implementation is critical for a smooth and successful implementation of an integrated curriculum.

5.6.8 Threats to work-integrated learning

The most serious threat to WIL is that many schools in Lesotho are far away from hotels, lodges, bed and breakfast establishments resorts and tourist attractions that could offer learners opportunities for WIL. For many schools, finding placements for internships far away will be inconvenient, since learners may have to leave their homes for weeks or months and be accommodated in a new environment, which would be expensive in terms of travelling for the learner and for the supervisor. In the end, many schools will find WIL unaffordable. Many schools and many tourism learners compete for few placements, especially in deep rural areas of Lesotho, where there are no hotels, lodges or resorts. Indeed, the application of WIL needs some serious thinking.

Phela High School is close to many tourist attractions as was explained in the research site profile (see 4.4.1), and therefore should not have a problem with WIL placements. Many learners can find placements within 10 km of the school, which enables them to pay the cheapest local fare by public transport, M13.00 to and fro daily, M65.00 weekly. Many tourism industries provide transport for their workers, especially after sunset, further reducing the fare, and making public transport cheaper. Perhaps, legalistic threats may arise in the case of accidents, regarding who takes responsibility between the school, parents and the tourism industry.

5.6.9 Threats to the assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

The Michigan Department of Education (2014: 4) asserts that an integrated curriculum does not seem to improve learners' scores. This is contrary to earlier assertions by Beane (1997, cited in Magoma, 2016: 27) and Loepp (1999: 21), that it does. This argument, or debate, raises doubts about the effectiveness of an integrated curriculum for improving understanding and retention of content (Brauer & Ferguson 2015: 314; Daly et al., 2012: 6; Shah & Jain, 2016: 1430-1431). In the researcher's view, test scores, particularly in vocational subjects, could be improved

by reducing theory and making room for practicals, or production activities, whose scores are usually high. If, indeed, this is the case, the argument of improved scores would favour Beane (1997) and Loepp (1999: 21), due to less theoretical content being included in vocational subjects.

Teachers at Phela High School agreed with Beane (1997) and Loepp (1999: 21) by saying:

Lithuto tsa mosebetsi oa matsoho li pasoa hantle haholo mona sekolong, bana ba ea li rata, le matichere a tsona a sebetsa ka thata.

[Vocational subjects are performed very well here at school. Learners like them; their teachers also work hard.] - Mr Sam

Pass rate lithutong tseno ke 90 – 100 percent mehlaena. (The pass rate in those subjects is always between 90 and 100 percent.) - Ms Mona

The teachers' observations did not go deeper into the reasons that could be attributed to the improved performance in vocational subjects, apart from favourable attitudes among learners' towards the subjects and the teachers' hard work. The fact that theory accounted for 50 percent, and the vocational part 50 percent, eluded the teachers. Another important factor contributing to seemingly improved scores was that vocational subjects are generally done as electives in school. If a learner does not want to do music, for example, s/he can do fashion and design; if s/he is not happy with fashion and design, s/he can do basic handcraft or food and nutrition, or agriculture, or tourism. Sometimes learners are given the whole first week of the year to decide which two electives (vocational subjects) they want to do, to add to the five or six core academic subjects. Having elected what they like, it is hard to see why they would then perform poorly in the tests. Schools expose learners to various subject combinations, depending on the availability of qualified staff, infrastructure and facilities, and depending on the type of future careers learners want to follow.

However, after all this discussion, the question still remains: does an integrated curriculum improve test scores or not? Until the question has been answered satisfactorily, the value of an integrated curriculum will remain dubious.

5.7 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF INDICATORS OF SUCCESS

5.7.1 Successful understanding of tourism as a vocational subject

Successful understanding of tourism as a vocational subject was achieved at Phela High School. The empirical evidence indicated this with words such as *Ke hona ho chabang... Re ne re sa hlokomele... Ah, ke hona re hlokomelang...* [It is only now that we see.... We were not aware.... Ah, it's only now that we notice...], being expressed by the co-researchers and the focus group. It is increasingly clear that learners are expected to produce something with their hands to bridge the gap between theory and practice, so that they are both critical thinkers and doers (Wang, 2008: 126), due to the learners' different upbringing and background (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4). The MoET's (2009) integrated curriculum policy document also states that learners should be doers who can provide solutions to the daily ills of hunger, and strive for self-reliance (MoET 2009: 18). This vocational aspect is missing in schools, and in the textbooks, which is why this study was undertaken to prove that it can be done. In agreeing, the teachers expressed this view as follows:

Ke hona ho chabang ho rona hore na thuto ena e seng; re lokela ho e atamela joang. [It has just dawned to us what kind of subject [tourism] it is, and how we should approach it.] - Ms Mona

Pele re ne re nkile e its'oanela feela le Geography, History le Development Studies; athe che, e hloka li-practicals hore bana ba iphelise ka tsona. [Before we had understood it [tourism] in a similar fashion to geography, history and development studies; but now we can see and understand that it has a practical side that has to be fulfilled, that can help learners to eke a living.] - Mr Sam

Both teachers indicated that their previous understanding of tourism as a school subject had shifted, from being just an academic subject, to being a vocational subject, which learners could use to make a living by targeting what tourists and locals like, and come up with a business project to satisfy their customers. This was a very encouraging and important achievement, because it is at the heart of this study.

On the academic side, there have always been clear textbook objectives that learners were expected to achieve and display, as outlined by Lelala et al. (2004: 97), Debeshe et al. (2005: 66;), and Mokhosi (2005: 104), for the Form B class (Grade 9). Geography and development studies, as academic social science subjects, in which tourism is integrated, are always well performed by learners at Phela High School. However, it cannot be denied that the study strengthened and filled gaps on the academic side as well, by broadening and deepening the understanding of tourism beyond the textbook.

5.7.2 Indicators of success in teacher qualifications and knowledge

Teachers with qualifications and knowledge are identified by expression of competence and knowledge, theories, facts and concepts of their subject (Kleickmann et al., 2013: 91). Such teachers are also able to deliver the subject matter in easier and comprehensible units that make sense to learners, because content is explained with confidence, and with relevant and lived examples, illustrations, and analogies (Shulman, 1987: 8), not in complex and abstract terms that learners memorise without understanding. Altun (2013: 366) adds that such teachers should be able to integrate the subject matter with practice, so that the content knowledge becomes useful in the lives of the learners, and to people who are faced with hunger, unemployment and disease. This is an ideal scenario, which schools in Lesotho should emulate in collaboration with institutions of higher learning, which, as Sean (2010: 39) observes, have not started teaching teachers appropriate methods of and approaches to teaching tourism as a vocational subject.

5.7.3 Indicators of success in resource availability and use

Resource availability and use determine how a teacher will teach tourism. When resources are not available, chances are the teacher will teach in an abstract and teacher-centred way. It is therefore critical that schools budget for resources and facilities so that the integrated tourism curriculum is taught through collaborative and multidisciplinary approaches which are integrative and interactive, and therefore learner-centred; and skill-based, which requires tools, materials and equipment for

the learners to practise the taught skill; and project-based, in which learners work individually or collectively, engaging in an activity that aims to improve their lives; and incorporating WIL, which exposes learners to the tourism industry through internships; and through problem-based learning, which exposes learners to exploring multiple perspectives in addressing a problem, and developing skills to defend their answers (Armitage, 2010: 4; Knyviene, 2014: 157; Plato & Alrich, 2014: 541). Armstrong (2003: 2-3) suggested using role play as one of the ways in which tourism could be taught. The point is that these methods and approaches need resources such as facilities, tools, equipment, materials, teaching aids, maps, wall charts, globes, computers, internet, and for a school to avail them would be a great indicator of success. Teachers need these instructional materials and resources to teach learners professionally and expertly.

5.7.4 Successful tourism teaching methods and approaches

Successful tourism teaching methods and approaches should accommodate different learning styles of learners, and their different background contexts (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Wang, 2008: 126), to ensure the learners' ontological and epistemological growth. It is good practice to consider various ways of teaching, which allow the transfer of knowledge to learners. Social constructivism holds the view that understanding, learning and constructing new knowledge comes from various experiences and interaction with the environment (Chilisa, 2012: 40; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011: 717; Hense & Mandl, 2012: 21).

Social constructivism thrives with learner-centred approaches. Activity model theorist, Barron (2013: 32), believes that everyday interaction among learners, teachers and community members contribute immensely to learners' learning, and to achieving autonomy, independence and self-reliance. Principles for effective self-reliance implementation encourage learning activities involving the environment, and experiences involving other people, to maximise the chances of interaction and the construction of new knowledge. Teaching and learning is a complex process that requires a variety of methods and approaches (Bartlett, 2012: 63) in order to determine where the learners are, and where they want to go (Bennet, 2011: 8). Different ways of teaching tourism as a vocational subject were explored in detail in

3.3.4. A successful teacher will apply these methods and approaches, mindful that acquiring knowledge and skills is always cumulative, and moves from the simple to the complex, and from the known to the unknown (Fox, 2013: 4; Jorgensen & Lowrie, 2013: 130; Novak, 2011: 1). For example, knowing about the tourist attractions in a small country such as Lesotho leads learners to knowing about tourist attractions in a larger region, the SADC. Figures 5.10 and 5.11 show Lesotho and SADC maps with tourist attractions.

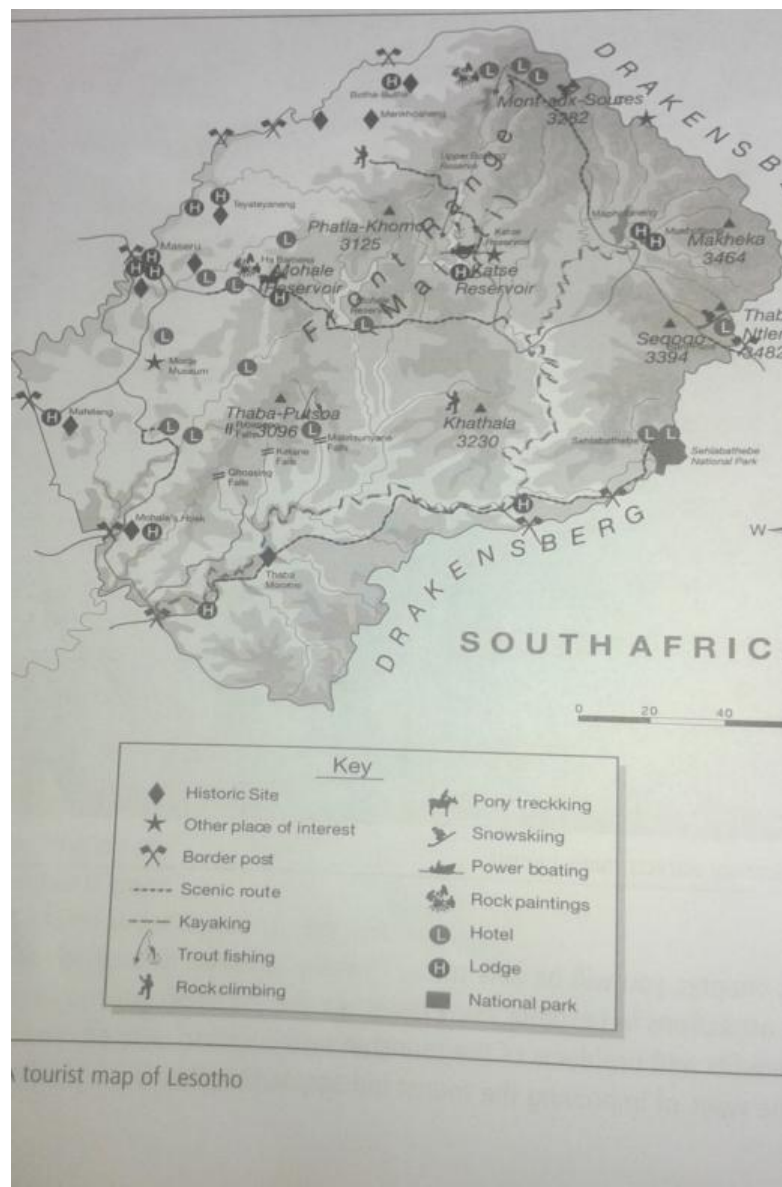


Figure 5.9: Lesotho map showing tourist attractions (Mokhosi, 2005: 94)

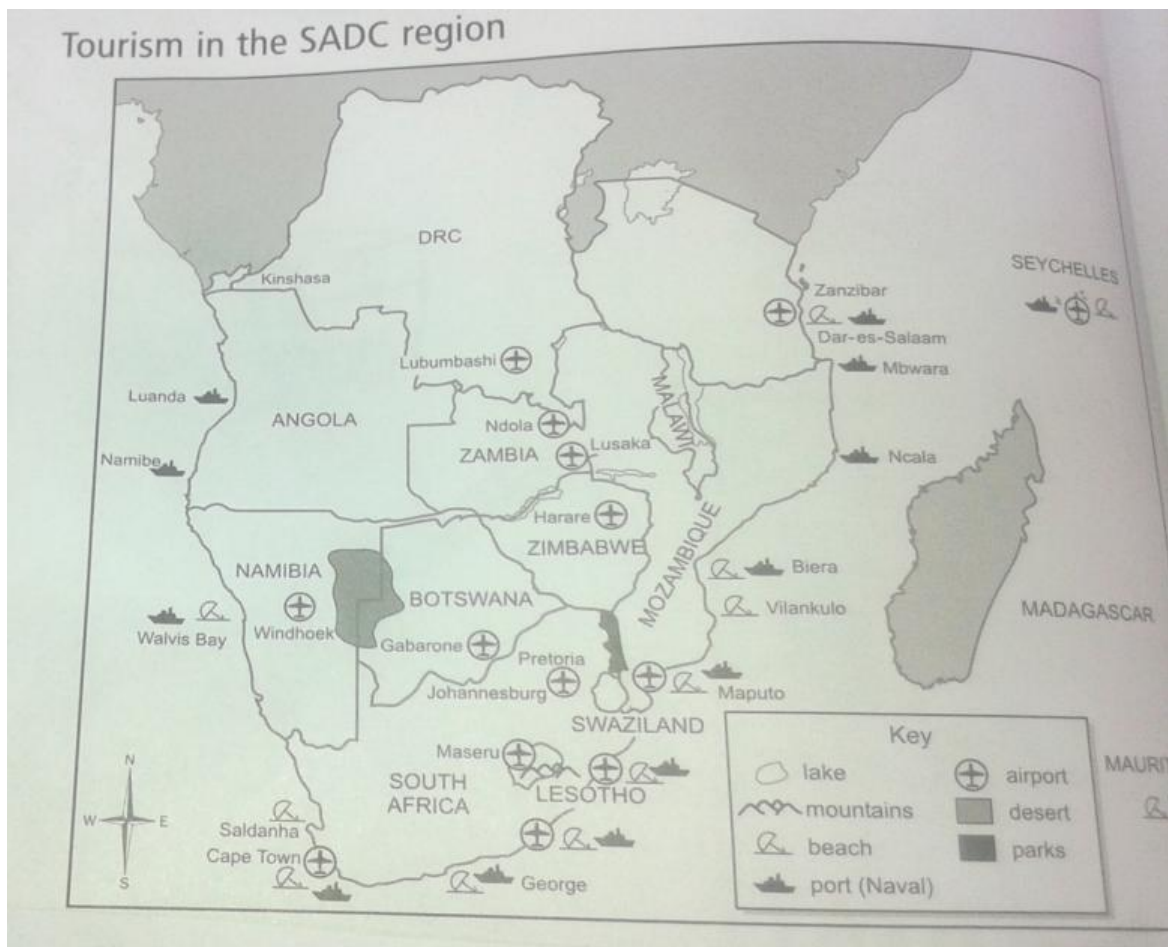


Figure 5.10: Tourist attractions in SADC (Lelala et al., 2004: 98)

5.7.5 Successful community participation in tourism education

When teachers understood tourism as a vocational school subject, it helped to strengthen and speed up its understanding by community members. Community members understood why their talents and skills for making crafts were sought by the school, and why it had to be transferred to the learners - to defeat poverty and unemployment. In this case, community members were not only providing Yosso's (2005) six forms of capital to the learners to capacitate them, as advanced by CCW, by physically visiting the school, they came to do it and see with their own eyes how the six forms of capital were used to emancipate and empower underprivileged learners. Community members could make better decisions about the use of resources to avoid risks in and failure of the self-reliance project, since they were

allowed to take control of their lives and were transferring the control to underprivileged learners (Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13).

The other significant undertaking and success resulted from encouraging the school administration to call a parent meeting to inform them of tourism in general; its contribution to the country's economic growth; and immediate benefits of job opportunities for economic emancipation and empowerment. Parents were also informed of tourism as a school subject, and how they could support teachers with textbooks and instructional materials needed for the learners' learning. Most importantly, parents were guided to understand and know that tourism is a vocational subject, and that vocational subjects are expensive to present (Akyeampong, 2002: 4), hence the need for their unwavering support.

The exercise of convening the parent meeting heeded the advice of Nkumane (2008: 33), Ejiofor et al. (2012: 4), Dube (2014: 159-160), and Lovrentjev (2015: 561), that communities need to be informed about tourism if they are to understand it and take full advantage of it to uplift and improve their lives. By doing this, the study not only benefited underprivileged learners, but it also went a way to assisting and uplifting community members' lives. This is in keeping with Lewin (1944), founder of PAR, whose main objective was to ensure the emancipation and empowerment of underprivileged people.

The presence of community members in the school compound had the effect of encouraging and motivating the school administration to improve the execution of its functions, including embracing the tourism project. There was an inner feeling that the school could not be outdone by "ordinary" community members. This presented a healthy competition within the school, because, from then on, the school administration did not hesitate to provide teaching aids and instructional materials suitable for various teaching methods and approaches geared to a learner-centred approach (MoET, 2009: 22; Raselimo & Mahao, 2015: 7) and interactive and integrative activities as recommended by literature (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314; Malik & Malik, 2011: 99). These resources included facilitating educational excursions to tourist attractions.

5.7.6 Successful understanding of an integrated curriculum

The most successful and important understanding of an integrated curriculum that this study achieved was that tourism is both academic and vocational, so that learners could be exposed to work-related experiences that might provide them with self-employment (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228), making education relevant in terms of addressing daily poverty challenges. In fact, some of the objectives of self-reliance point to this: *give learners knowledge and skills leading to productivity in manual occupations for self-employment and community uplift, and improve the relevance of education in addressing local life challenges*. These self-reliance activities take place under the umbrella of the integrated curriculum.

Inviting community members into the school environment was already evidence of success, given the findings of Tsayang (1998: 102-104, 161-162) in Botswana, Kimu (2013: 3) in Kenya, and Save the Children USA (2013: 17-18) in India, that community members suffer from an inferiority complex in relation to schools, due to their low levels of education. Their presence at Phela High School added value to the teaching and learning process, because they brought with them talents, skills and assets that were used at school, and which teachers did not have. Their presence also portrayed the school as creative and resourceful in finding ways to strengthen teaching and learning in an exciting and refreshing way (Spaull, 2013: 1, 4), as was expressed by a teacher:

Re ne re sa hlokomele hore re ka sebelisa batsoali hore bana ba utloisise ntho eo ba neng ba sa e utloisisi, esita le ho thusa moo bana ba etsang li project. [We were not aware that we could use parents to make learners understand what they previously did not understand, even in helping with projects.] - Mr Sam

In a separate interview with the focus group, members echoed similar satisfaction about being aware of the two components of an integrated curriculum, theory and practice:

Re hlaketsoe joale hore re lokela ho utloisisa thuto ea tourism, re be re its'oarele ka matsoho molemong oa bokamoso ba rona. [It is clear now that we should understand the subject of tourism, and at the same time do manual work for the benefit of our future.] - Boy 4

Re hlaketsoe ho feta bana ba bang ba sekolo, bao e seng karolo ea focus group. [Our understanding is now better than that of the other learners who are not members of the focus group.] - Girl 1

It was important that learners also understood the integrated curriculum and its positive implications for their lives through the realisation and elevation of manual work, which had the potential to counteract the white-collar-job-dependency syndrome (Twalo, 2010: 832). The learners indicated that it was refreshing that teachers sometimes took turns to teach them in a horizontal form of integration (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314), and explain recurring topics and themes that were common to different disciplines/subjects, thus reinforcing the understanding of concepts from different angles in a multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary fashion. Doing so made teaching and learning exciting (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, & Billman, 2011: 52; Spaul 2013: 1, 4).

5.7.7 Successful implementation of an integrated curriculum

Park (2008: 308) attributes the greatest success regarding implementing an integrated curriculum to uniformity and unity in understanding it. In this study, both teachers and learners showed similar, positive signs of understanding the integrated curriculum as the research progressed, and this was an indicator of success. It meant that attempts to foster unity and uniformity of understanding of an integrated curriculum had been achieved.

Success in understanding the concept does not mean there were no problems in the implementation process. It has been shown by PAR that implementation takes place in spirals of planning, observing, acting, reflecting, re-planning (Jasper, 2003: 16), until there is an acceptable quality outcome. Reflection on its own has six other, intricate, inner processes, according to Bulman and Schultz (2004: 232). Thus, implementation of an integrated curriculum comes a long way, and it is a commendable feat to reach that stage. This is so when taking into account all the arduous processes that have to be undertaken before learners are able to produce and sell quality crafts to generate income for themselves to alleviate poverty through the assistance of community members.

The success of teachers at Phela High School in planning their lessons together to integrate the teaching of tourism horizontally in Grade 9, lead them to experiment with implementing vertical integration as well (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314); that is, teaching classes from the lower grade to the upper one, or visa versa. Together, they planned what topics and themes needed to be taught in tourism at Grade 8 and Grade 10 to complete the secondary level, as they were already dealing with Grade 9. The study helped them to grow in self-esteem and confidence, to strengthen teaching and learning, and at the same time, expand their ontological and epistemological professional parameters.

Gradually, teachers started following some of the strategies recommended for the implementation of an integrated curriculum: *attempt both horizontal and vertical integration; identify common themes and promote the transfer of learning; adopt a pragmatic approach to integrated curriculum; and develop closer links with the community* (see 3.2.5). Linking with the community was important for accessing the community's different forms of capital and support, and to mobilise resources, experiential knowledge, skills, talents, assets and manpower, as acknowledged by Kretzmann and McKnight (1993: 4; 1996: 25) in their asset-based community development, Fiske (2000: 76) in cultural complementarity, and Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77) in CCW. Thus, resourcefulness and creativity in the implementation of an integrated curriculum, by inviting community members to participate, elevated the significance of the community and made it instrumental for the success and sustainability of the underprivileged learners' self-reliance project.

In operationalising Yosso's (2005) CCW, PAR strived to achieve equality of participants in research, that is, teachers, learners and community members, so that their views and contributions were equally important, and therefore accepted in addressing the objectives of the study. PAR denounces domination over underprivileged people (Baum et al., 2006: 866; MacDonald, 2012: 37-38; Maquire, 1987: 60-69). Treating all members with sensitivity, and fostering equality ensured that interaction between co-researchers and the focus group in the implementation of an integrated curriculum was genuine, not skewed or one-sided in favour of those who were perceived to be powerful (researcher and teachers), at the expense of those who were perceived to be weak (learners and community members). PAR recognises that ordinary citizens can be experts at finding solutions in their

environment and backyard (Boog, 2003: 426; Mahlomaholo & Netshandama, 2012: 4). In this study, community members were the experts, who were able to assist the learners to find raw material to make the crafts. They knew where to find the material better than anybody in the research team. They also knew the correct quality, and how to use the material better than anybody in the research team. Their voices carried indigenous knowledge, lived experiences and authority.

The learners made the crafts the way they were trained by the community members, until they could display their products for sale at Pinda Lodge. The sale of the crafts was an indicator of success in a skill-based and project-based learning approach to tourism education. It was the culmination of a long journey that had started with the invitation to the community members with skills and talents to visit the classrooms of Phela High School, to train underprivileged learners how to make crafts, such as wooden carvings, clay artefacts, and straw hats, in order to make a living from selling these products, and to strive to achieve self-reliance as inspired by the MoET (2009: 18). Table 5.1 presents details of the craft sales.

Table 5.1: Performance of the craft sales

September 2017	Wooden sculptures	Clay artefacts	Straw/grass hats
Week 1	Birds 7 @ M12	Herd boys 5 @ M10	Cap style 2 @ M70
	Dogs 5 @ M15	Cattle 3 @ M20	Cowboystyle2 @ M100
	Horses 4 @ M20	Girls 7 @ M12	Mekorotlo 2 @ M100
TOTAL	M239	M194	M540

Table 5.1 shows that, in the first week of September 2017, when the crafts were placed at Pinda Lodge for sale (some pictures of the crafts are shown in Figure 5.12), 7 wooden carvings of birds were sold at M12 each, 5 wooden carvings of dogs were sold at M15 each, and 4 wooden carvings of horses were sold at M20 each, amounting to the total of M239 (equivalent to ZAR239.00 (South African currency, or \$17.70 USD. When this study started, \$1.00 was equal to R13.50)). Table 5.1 shows further that 5 clay artefacts of herd boys, 3 cattle and 7 girls were sold, amounting to

M194. Under straw hats, 2 cap-style straw hats, 2 cowboy-style straw hats, and 2 *Mekorotlo* hats (plural of *Mokorotlo*, the iconic traditional Lesotho hat) were sold, amounting to M540. Thus, for this week, the income from craft sales totalled M973.

A detailed table showing all the sales made by the focus group in the weeks of September and October 2017 is shown in Appendix K. As the details show, the second week of September yielded a total of M1 128; the third week M1 217; the fourth M1 414; the first week of October M1 412; the second week M1 494; the third M1 516, and the fourth M1 522. What the study indicates is that the learners earned a total of M4 732 in September and M5 944 in October 2017. This averages to M5 338 a month before the end of 2017; rounded off to M5 000 a month. This means each of the ten learners earned M500 every month, enough to buy 12.5 kg of maize meal (for cooking the staple food in Lesotho), which could last for a month; 1 litre of cooking oil; 5 kg beans; 4 heads of cabbage; and 10 litres of paraffin. After buying these food products, the learner was left with about M100 to address other needs, or to open an account and save the money in the bank. Thus, the study proved that achieving self-reliance is possible to execute. Until the end of July 2017, pensioners in Lesotho, 70 year and above, received M550 per month from government. This amount is close to what the learners made for themselves.

Even though the figures that are shown in this study are for the two months of September and October, a lot of ground work, and other activities, such as meeting authorities at the school and in the community, explaining and convincing them to allow and support the self-reliance project with resources, and assembling human and material resources, was started in June 2017. The sale of the crafts proves that self-sufficiency and personal autonomy and independence, which are synonymous with self-reliance for personal development, can be achieved (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228; Omede, 2012: 296). It is also in the spirit of Lesotho's philosophy of education, which says *mphe-mphe ea lapisa molekane, motho o khonoa ke sa ntlo ea hae* (MoET 2009: 5), which means, unless you have your own, you will never be satisfied. The maxim encourages individuals to work hard for economic growth, independence, and self-reliance.

Figure 5.12 below shows some of the crafts that the underprivileged learners made and sold.



Figure 5.11: A Mosotho herd boy driving cattle (top), hat in cap style (bottom left), mekorotlo made from straws and grass (bottom right)

5.7.8 Indicators of success in work-integrated learning

Success would be achieved if schools could identify placement sites for internships in the tourism industry, and make sure that every learner who takes tourism finds a place to do WIL. If learners could find placements for internships in the tourism industry, in the sector of their choice (Leiper, 1995 in Mayaka, 1999:9), it would motivate them in both in academic and practical terms in relation to the subject of

tourism (Rowe & Zegwaard, 2017: 89-90). Working and learning in a sector of their choice would ensure the learner's success, and would place them in good stead for permanent work soon after high school graduation. In addition, schools could learn, from the internship feedback, about the skills most needed in the tourism industry, and could restructure their curricula. Tourism industry employers would get a glimpse of what schools teach, and could contribute and inform schools of their needs, leading to curriculum restructuring that would make the curriculum more relevant and responsive to the outside world of work (Gellerstedt et al., 2015: 38).

5.7.9 Successful assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

Evidence of success in the assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum was shown when learners displayed understanding of tourism in an academic sense, as well as displaying the same understanding on the vocational side, just as the MoET (2009: viii-3) and Msuya et al. (2014: 103-104) encourage and expect. In addition to developing positive attitudes towards manual work, Msuya et al. (2014: 104) observe that learners develop other skills too when they are exposed to work-related programmes and activities: decision-making, listening to customers, paying attention to detail, negotiation, providing the required service, team spirit, leadership and management of time and resources. Learners in the focus group also developed new, favourable attitudes and values towards the world of work, such as resilience, perseverance, being painstaking, patience, generosity, caring, humility, respect among themselves, and towards visitors/tourists. These newly acquired skills, attitudes and values find fertile ground in learners, who, according to Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77), have brought with them the six forms of capital: aspirational, linguistic, familial, social, navigational and resistance, which should make them succeed at school and in the rest of their lives. Thus, a rich background was provided by CCW.

Success was evident in the development of the whole person, and producing responsible citizens, according to the MoET's (2009: 5-6) philosophy of education, as well as people who were useful to the world and to other people. Learners themselves remarked that they had acquired new skills, attitudes and values, without which assessment of an integrated curriculum would be incomplete. Their remarks were true, because it became clear to the teachers and community members what

each of the learners under supervision was good at and capable in in the self-reliance project.

Re tla sebetsa ka thata hore project e atlehe, esita le ha re se re qetile sekolong, hobane e tla be e le molemong oa bokamoso ba rona. [We will work hard for the success of the project, even beyond our schooling days, because it will be for the benefit of our future.] - Girl 2

When teachers embarked on implementing the integrated curriculum, they were watchful that what they taught was compatible with the expected objective outcomes, to avoid a mismatch between the taught and the assessed (Malik & Malik, 2011: 103; MoET, 2009: v; Shankar, 2014: 75; Umalusi 2013: 106), and that the allocation of marks for the theory and vocational parts were shared equally, as is the case in the United Kingdom's mode of assessment of travel and tourism (Cambridge IGCSE, 2014: 7-8). On Tourism Day 2017, South Africa's Deputy Minister of Tourism announced that her ministry would provide bursaries to hardworking learners to pursue tourism education at the tertiary level, on the basis of 30 percent theory, 70 percent practice. This was at variance with the 50/50 split set out in formal policy documents (DBE, 2013: 1-11; 2014: 1-13).

The study highlighted the importance of rapid feedback on learners' academic and vocational work, given the tendency of teachers to keep the learners' work over desks unmarked for a long time, or on the staffroom shelves, until learners forget about the work they had submitted. It was then important to find out from the focus group if their understanding of the concept of tourism had improved, and whether they understood the vocational part, as well, through a speedy feedback.

Ha re ts'oauoa kapele re khona ho utloisisa seo re se rutoang kapele. [When we are marked quickly, we understand quickly what we are taught.] - Girl 3

Ebile re thabela ho etsa mosebetsi oa sekolo. [We also enjoy doing school work.] - Boy 2

This free attitude interview with the learners was important, because they revealed how learners wanted to be taught. It is very rare in education circles that learners are

afforded the opportunity to say how they want to be taught. Teachers always think they know what learners need. If learners perform poorly at the end of the year, it is reasoned that they did not put enough effort in their work. Behavioural and disciplinary issues are cited as factors contributing to failure. The sociological analysis of this tendency of teachers lies in the abuse of power, in which the hegemonic status quo points to teachers' superiority over learners.

Learners were able to progress steadily regarding their learning, from the known to the unknown (Jorgensen & Lowrie, 2013: 130; Novak, 2011: 1), adding new knowledge and skills to the previous ones, because learning is cumulative (Fox, 2013: 4). What was done to the focus group with regard to speedy and timely feedback, had to be done to the other learners too, so that all learners benefited from assessment and from the study, which contributed to improving pedagogical practices involving the integration of theory with practice, which had been lacking at Phela High School.

At this juncture, it is important to restate the objectives of education for self-reliance, and assess how well they were addressed and achieved in the study as part of fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum. Success in the sales of the crafts should not obscure the evaluation of other important self-reliance objectives, which were developed by Sinclair and Lillis (1980: 81) from earlier self-reliance objectives. These objectives are important because they are about self-reliance, which is at the heart of this study.

5.7.9.1 Giving learners knowledge and skills, leading to productivity in manual occupations for self-employment and community upliftment

This objective is rooted in Nyerere's (1967) belief that the primary school level should not be simply for selecting learners for the secondary level, and the secondary level should not be for selecting learners for the tertiary level. Nyerere maintained that each level should offer a complete education in itself, arming learners with adequate knowledge and skills for self-employment in their communities (Twalo, 2010: 832-833). Nyerere had also stated that children should begin school at the age of 7, which made them old enough to engage in self-reliant and productive work when they left school (Twalo, 2010: 835). He was aware that

very few learners managed to reach the tertiary level in Africa, and that those who dropped out were neglected and left on the margins of society, and discriminated against. This meant that the inherited colonial education promoted inequality and elitism (Forojalla, 1993: 35).

It can be argued, therefore, that the 2009 integrated curriculum attempts to revive Nyerere's (1967) philosophy of self-reliance, by emphasising the teaching of creative, practical, productive, and entrepreneurial skills over theory, and by downgrading the importance of pencil-and-paper examinations (MoET, 2009: viii-3; Twalo, 2010: 835). So far, the application of the 2009 integrated curriculum has not materialised in Lesotho, except at Phela High School, where progress towards self-reliance has been achieved through the self-reliance project of making and selling crafts.

However, Sinclair and Lillis (1980: 83) assert that there is no evidence that school self-reliance projects result in community upliftment. They argue that community upliftment needs the direct intervention of government and rural development agencies. In their view, exposing learners to work-related programmes is only meant to balance the curriculum for holistic personal development (Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 90-91). Furthermore, even if the learners' self-reliance projects do succeed in uplifting the community, it would be difficult to evaluate the projects since their success would depend on many external factors, such as the prevailing political climate, road network, marketability, distance from school to market outlets (Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 95).

In my view, if children from the community benefit from the self-reliance project, the community benefits, because it can now focus on other challenges, such as dam-building, tree-planting, road maintenance, and village electrification, instead of focusing on underprivileged learners. What the learners benefit at school may have multiplier effects, through skills transfer, in the community, something that can be investigated through other studies. In addition, intervention by government and rural development agencies is likely to be sustainable only if it takes place within a community that understands and appreciates development projects and their benefits. Thus, the self-reliance craft project proposed in this study, small as was, benefited the learners and their community in ways that have been shown.

5.7.9.2 Influencing the learners' attitudes towards manual occupations and rural life

Nyerere (1967: 2-4) believed that education should prepare individuals for life, and influence the transformation of their immediate locality positively. However, as much as community needs should be reflected in the curriculum, and an attempt made to include them in the curriculum, there is also a need to globalise and internalise education (Hayden, 2012: 2). Important as is to influence learners' attitudes, so that they accept manual occupations and rural life, according to Cameron (1980: 109), Nyerere was also aware that his traditional practical education was inadequate, and needed to be balanced with today's academic and technological education, so that standards did not drop. Nyerere's (1967: 2-4) views, however, were generally well received by communities, who reciprocated by participating in education, mobilising and distributing resources to schools.

Influencing learners' attitudes is consistent with Freire's (1970: 15) standpoint, that there is no such thing as neutral education. If learners are expected to be passive, they are taught that. If they are expected to be creative and productive, and be free to come up with new ideas to change the socio-economic landscape, they are taught that too. Indeed, Twalo (2010: 833) points out that the South African school curriculum is aligned to the country's constitution, to influence learners' attitudes towards the desired socio-economic philosophy of the state.

Based on the foregoing, the MoET's integrated curriculum (2009) is the new philosophy, which is intended to respond to and address today's challenges of poverty, unemployment and disease. The learners' attitudes are influenced by this new curriculum, so that they become more creative, practical, productive and entrepreneurial (MoET, 2009: viii-3), with a view to achieving self-reliance (MoET, 2009: 18). The new curriculum discourages the type of education that Nyerere (1967: 2-4) said was only meant for selection for further education, and which promoted elitism and inequality.

Today, more than at any other time in Lesotho's history, underprivileged learners must alternate school with work for survival (Chere-Masopha, 2007: 3-4; Kimane, 2005: 26-28). Doing so is a matter of life and death. Communities in rural and urban

centres are overwhelmed by poverty-stricken orphans. The proposed craft-making project at Phela High School is one of the ways of helping learners to cope with schooling. Other projects could be helping learners act as tour guides, engaging in traditional shows, and being trained as life-savers of swimmers in dams. The success of the self-reliance project suggests that the learners have accepted manual occupations (see 5.7.7). Whether they have also accepted rural life, I think it is an issue for further investigation.

5.7.9.3 Developing qualities of character, such as improved morals, creativity and hard work

Osalusi (2014: 734) and Ezeh and Ekemenzie (2015: 227) indicate that the quest for self-reliance makes learners develop, among others, resourcefulness, initiative, creativity, courage, discipline, diligence, endurance, obedience, being painstaking, resilience, honesty, critical thinking, commitment and dedication. Learners in this study exhibited growth in these values and attitudes, while working independently as individuals, and as a collective. Respect for and humbleness towards others, including community members and buyers of the craft products, increased, while learners learned how to negotiate better deals. Some learners exhibited leadership and managerial skills; others showed exceptional persuasive communication skills that proved immensely useful in selling the crafts. Thus, the objective of developing qualities of character was achieved.

5.7.9.4 Lowering the cost of schooling through the sale of the crafts

The objective of this study was not to lower the cost of schooling, but to enable the underprivileged learners to cope with the demands of schooling by addressing the ills of poverty, unemployment and disease; by integrating the theory of tourism with practice (Altun, 2013: 366). Coping with the demands of schooling was achieved by making and selling the crafts, thereby generating income to address learners' needs. The learners had to eat before they came to school, and eat before they went to bed. They had to have soap to wash themselves and their clothes, to be healthy and neat. They had to have basic school requirements: a pencil, a ruler, a pen, an exercise book.

In my view, most self-reliance school projects in Lesotho are only meant to satisfy examination requirements, not necessarily to cope with the demands of schooling. Teachers never think of lowering school costs – that is the task of principals, as chief accounting officers of schools. Even in the case of this study, there are very few principals who think of lowering school costs through self-reliance projects, such as producing crops and poultry for meat and eggs; it is only those “with a high degree of managerial skill” (Sinclair & Lillis, 1980: 88). The tendency of most principals is to call parent meetings and convince parents of the need to increase fees, citing inflation and rising prices of office equipment, stationery, fuel (petrol, wood, coal), food and other school needs. Thus, by and large, schools in Lesotho never lower fees, or relieve parents of the burden of paying fees by engaging in self-reliance projects. The self-reliance project in this study had nothing to do with lowering the cost of schooling, but it was meant to improve the living conditions of underprivileged learners, so that they could cope with the socio-economic demands of schooling.

5.7.9.5 Attracting learners to school by improving the relevance of education to addressing life challenges of poverty and unemployment

It is difficult to determine whether the success of the self-reliance project would attract more learners to Phela High School, or to any other school with a successful project. In my view, reasons that prevent children from attending school will not disappear overnight simply because there is a relevant curriculum or a successful project. In Africa there are many cultural, political, and economic reasons for children ceasing to attend school, irrespective of whether there is a feeding scheme or free education (Chere-Masopha, 2007: 3-4; Kimane, 2005: 26-28; Pius, 2013: 586). For example, boys look after animals and go to the initiation school to be “men”, and many of them never return to the formal school; girls get married young. To them, education is not that valuable, irrespective of how relevant it is. These obstacles need to be investigated and addressed separately on their own, to encourage children to attend school. There is a strong need to advocate for the value of education, particularly in rural areas, where parents still take children to school “to simply gain literacy skills” (Institute of Education, 2008: xii).

5.8 CONCLUSION

The study aimed to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, using CP. Juxtaposing literature and empirical evidence resulted in arguments and counter-arguments relating to understanding the subject of tourism and methods of and approaches to teaching it; understanding and implementing an integrated tourism curriculum, and how it should be assessed successfully. Steadily, as the study progressed, teachers and learners acquired the expected understanding that an integrated curriculum has two components, theory and practice. Teachers developed confidence to experiment with horizontal and vertical integration (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314-315), while learners successfully carried out the practical part by making crafts and selling them to the tourists and other customers, using talents and skills, which teachers did not have, and still do not have, which learners had learned from community members. Sale of the crafts provided each learner with income almost equal to what pensioners in Lesotho receive from government, despite the fact that the self-reliance project was still young and growing, and the realisation of self-employment (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228; Omede, 2012: 296). These successes countered a dependency syndrome (Twala, 2010: 832).

The study also interrogated Nyerere's objectives of education for self-reliance as they were adopted by Sinclair and Lillis (1980: 81), to assess whether they were met in this study through the combination of literature study and empirical evidence. It appears that most of Nyerere's objectives were based on large-scale projects, especially agriculture in rural areas. Parts of these objectives were achieved in this study, while others need further investigation. The most important achievement of the study is fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP.

CHAPTER 6 :FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarises the findings of the study, which involved fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP and CCW. First, the background to the study is presented, followed by the theoretical and conceptual framework, and then the problem statement, as a reminder on where the study originated from. Then, findings and conclusions are provided, in answer to the aim and objectives of the study. Next, I present recommendations and areas for further research. Then I list the value of the study, followed by limitations, because in Sesotho culture, *ha ho nth'oe ntle tseke-tseke; kapa, ha ho tjaka hloka koli* [nothing is perfect; or, even the most handsome man has some imperfections]. At the end of the chapter, a conclusion is provided.

6.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The study explored ways of utilising CP to foster self-reliance, through an integrated curriculum for tourism studies in Lesotho that applies the CCW theory. The concept of self-reliance was popularised by the Tanzanian statesman, Julius Nyerere, in the 1960s, when he complained that Western education was too theoretical, and that curriculum needed to increase its vocational focus to emphasise practical skills (Nyerere, 1967: 2). CP involves people planning together, and then implementing the plans to improve their lives (Pius, 2013: 587; Shaeffer, 1994: 17). The study involved community members who contributed their experiential knowledge of the real world of tourism, of making crafts and selling them to tourists and other customers, and imparting this knowledge and skills to underprivileged learners, who would then reproduce the crafts to sell for themselves. The selection of the underprivileged learners (focus group) was based on their abject poverty: they were double orphans; had one meal in 24 hours, usually at school; dressed poorly and walked barefoot, even in severe and freezing weather. The Phela High School principal and teachers assisted with the selection of the learners, five boys and five girls.

Tourism was introduced as a fully-fledged subject in Lesotho in 2011 to equip learners with survival skills that would help them alleviate poverty as stipulated in the MoET (2009: 1-3) integrated curriculum. The integrated curriculum is a government strategy to increase the number of vocational subjects that could offer learners practical survival alternatives in the face of high unemployment, poverty and disease.

One of the challenges associated with fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, is that teachers in Lesotho still teach tourism as an isolated academic subject, not in accordance with the demands of the integrated curriculum, in which teaching should be both academic and practical, interactive, collaborative, multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary (Daly et al., 2012: 2-3; Harden, 2000: 232). The teachers' focus is on theory at the expense of practice. The challenge is to bridge the gap between theory and practice, and ensure that learners apply tourism content knowledge to practice, to make craft products to sell and generate income to improve their lives. The teachers' failure to integrate tourism results from a failure to think of and see CP as a solution to their problem. Community members have many talents and skills that teachers do not have, which learners can use to alleviate poverty, as exemplified by making and selling crafts in this study. The choice of the craft project was based on the ease of finding cheap, local and natural material; that is, starting a business project without cash. As the project grew, the learners could diversify their products based on market demands.

6.3 THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

The theory that guided the study is CCW as postulated by Yosso (2005: 69, 76-77). Yosso demonstrates that marginalised communities possess cultural wealth that teachers can use for the learners' academic success. She identified six forms of capital that learners bring with them from their communities into the classroom: aspirational, familial, social, linguistic, navigational, and resistance. CCW allows knowledge construction to happen among people, or through social interaction, in which there is freedom and opportunity for every voice (Mahlomaholo, 2012: 5). CCW supports the view that knowledge construction is multifaceted (Chilisa, 2012: 40). Fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum used community members, teachers and learners to dialogue, discuss, brainstorm and

produce ideas, meaning and knowledge, as evidence that knowledge construction is, indeed, multifaceted.

A CP approach was used as a conceptual framework in recognition of its inherent strength as represented by CCW, and its positive effects on education, teachers and learners (Barron, 2013: 32; Fan & Williams, 2010: 53; Fathi, 2014: 1052; Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85; Russell, 2009: 33-53). Some scholars have focused on the value of indigenous knowledge in the community, and how it can be used in the classroom to enhance the understanding of concepts (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4; Mahlomaholo, 2012: 2-4, 102). Others believe that involving community members is important, because they can provide support and mobilise resources (Loepp, 1999: 25; Park, 2008: 313, 315-316; Shankar, 2014: 75-76), and that CP ensures that these resources are used efficiently and effectively, thereby reducing costs, risks and failure (Uemura, 1999: 12; Zadeh & Ahmad, 2010: 13), and therefore providing security and sustainability to the project.

It was in view of acknowledging the existence of community strength that community members were invited to Phela High School to transfer talents and skills for making crafts to underprivileged learners, so that, in time, the learners could use the acquired practical skills to make their own crafts and sell them, generating income to alleviate poverty. Thus, CCW can be a resource and an asset to teaching and learning (Mahlomaholo, 2012: 102; Myende, 2014: vi-viii, 54). This study took advantage of the multiple strengths and indigenous knowledges that the community has, to emancipate and empower underprivileged learners through an integrated tourism curriculum. There is a strong convergence between CCW and CP, as both acknowledge, recognise and centralise the community in their functions and activities.

PAR was used to operationalise CCW and CP. This is because PAR is also community-based and people-centred. CCW identifies the community strength, while PAR explores ways to sensitively and ethically involve the community in research. Of importance is that, today, communities want to participate in research to find solutions to their problems, hence the relevance of CP, unlike in the past, when community members were passive and waited for experts to conduct research for

their own benefit before disappearing (Baumet et al., 2006: 856-857; Eruera, 2010: 1; Hlalele, 2014: 103; Minkler & Wallerstein, 2008: 2).

6.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Lesotho introduced the subject of tourism in high schools in 2011 to increase and diversify vocational subjects, which would help learners to acquire practical, creative, productive and entrepreneurial skills, which are necessary to address the life challenges of poverty and strive to achieve self-reliance (MoET, 2009: viii-3, 18). The problem is that, to date, teachers in Lesotho continue applying theoretical textbook objectives, such as defining tourism and tourists, spelling out the benefits, problems, and ways of improving tourism, identifying tourist attractions in Lesotho and the SADC, identifying communication networks and modes of transport, and tourists' impact on the environment (Debeshe et al., 2005: 66; Lelala et al., 2004: 97; Mokhosi, 2005: 104). This study, therefore, attempts to bridge the gap between what is currently taught – the theoretical content solely for passing examinations – and what is expected by the MoET integrated curriculum (2009) – the acquisition of creative, practical, productive and entrepreneurial skills that should equip learners with the means to earn a living; address daily ills of poverty, and eventually achieve self-reliance.

6.4.1 Research question

How can we foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum in Lesotho using CP?

6.4.2 Research aim and objectives

The study aims to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum in Lesotho using CP. The following are the objectives of the study:

1. To investigate challenges relating to fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP;

2. To suggest solutions for fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP;
3. To stipulate conditions that would enable fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP;
4. To anticipate plausible threats that might derail achievement of self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP, and
5. To illustrate indicators of success of fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP.

6.5 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Findings and conclusions are presented under the sub-headings: understanding tourism as a vocational subject, teacher qualifications and knowledge, resource availability and use, tourism teaching methods and approaches, CP in tourism education, understanding an integrated curriculum, implementation of an integrated curriculum, approaches to WIL, and assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum. These issues were explored in depth in both the literature review and empirical study, in answer to the aim and objectives of the study under challenges, solutions, conditions, threats and indicators of success. In this chapter, these factors are presented in a general sense as findings and conclusions. Here and there overlaps between issues will become evident, because all aspects are related in many ways. For example, it may not be possible to talk about tourism as a vocational subject without mentioning the teacher, or to talk about tourism teaching methods and approaches without mentioning the availability of resources and facilities.

6.5.1 Tourism as a vocational subject

In Lesotho, tourism enjoys the same status as geography, development studies, history and economics, because tourism was also initially perceived as an academic subject, not as a vocational subject. Despite the MoET presenting workshops in June/July 2017 to enhance teachers' understanding of the integrated curriculum, as a follow-up to the introduction of the MoET integrated curriculum (2009), which

emphasises the practical aspect, teaching tourism as a vocational subject in Lesotho has not started in earnest. However, contrary to Dube's (2014: 153) assertion that tourism suffers from low status in South Africa because the subject was not considered for university entrance, in Lesotho that has never been the case. Tourism has always been one of the subjects learners elect for university entrance; its status has been intact.

Nevertheless, it appears that Marland and Store's (1991: 17) argument that tourism might suffer from competition from other, established subjects, especially vocational ones, is a real possibility, particularly after the MoET workshops on the integrated curriculum in June/July 2017, which highlighted the fact that tourism is a vocational subject. Now that that has become clear, competition for funding, facilities and resources may emerge and play out, as vocational subjects are expensive to present (Akyeampong, 2002: 4). Before teachers had reached understanding about the vocational nature of tourism, there was no threat, because tourism had been perceived as another academic subject.

6.5.2 Teacher qualifications and knowledge

There are no teachers qualified to teach tourism in Lesotho, because tourism is a young subject (Petersen, 2015: 80; Seann 2010: 39). Many teachers who teach tourism are qualified to teach geography, development studies, history and economics. The teachers' knowledge of tourism is low and is limited to the contents of the learners' textbook, which does not even define tourism as vocational. Teachers cannot express tourism theories and facts with examples, illustrations and analogies with confidence (Kleickmann et al., 2013: 91; Shulman, 1987: 8; Ward et al., 2015: 130). If teachers do not have tourism qualifications or the requisite knowledge, as is the case in Lesotho at present, it would therefore be reasonable to expect teachers to be unable to integrate tourism for practical purposes (Altun, 2013: 366), and they would be unable to help underprivileged learners to address poverty challenges and strive to achieve self-reliance. Indeed, teachers never realised that tourism was a vocational subject; hence, their total failure to implement the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum.

6.5.3 Resource availability and use

There are no appropriate tourism textbooks in Lesotho; tourism is taught from the textbooks of geography, development studies and history, by teachers who are only qualified to teach these other subjects. There are no well-equipped libraries with adequate tourism material to augment the teaching and learning of tourism. Excursions to tourist attractions are scarce, just as Abomeh (2012: 14) and Ajiolor et al. (2012: 4) discovered in Nigeria, and Mayell and Davies (2014: 14) in Australia. Excursions could expose learners to tourist activities in the country, and would help to strengthen their theoretical understanding of tourism. There are no teaching aids for tourism teaching in Lesotho, no teaching materials, globes, maps, compasses, computers and access to the internet, and no specialised tourism classrooms as facilities. Lyimo et al. (2017: 104-105) categorise instructional materials and facilities (see 3.4.3.3).

Unfortunately, a culture of sharing available teaching facilities is also lacking. So far, the basic handcraft workshop is still focusing on teaching learners about making chairs and tables. Sewing and knitting focuses on teaching learners how to decorate curtains and tablecloths. Sharing workshop facilities would reduce costs and ensure that tourism is taught in a creative way, which would help underprivileged learners develop confidence, self-esteem, autonomy, independence of mind and action, self-sufficiency, and the belief that poverty alleviation and self-reliance are possible (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228; Omede, 2012: 296).

6.5.4 Tourism teaching methods and approaches

The dominant tourism teaching method and approach in Lesotho schools is the “silent method” of writing notes on the chalkboard, which is passive and teacher-centred. Empirical evidence shows that, sometimes, teachers refuse to explain the parts of the notes learners are unclear on, thus abusing their position of power to hide their inadequacies. The shift from teacher-centred and examination-oriented approaches to learner-centred approaches has not occurred, because the MoET’s (2009) integrated curriculum policy document is not yet functional. Various teaching and learning methods and approaches that are interactive, integrative and learner-centred, and which would allow learners to take responsibility for their own learning,

were discussed in 3.3.3 (Mahlomaholo, 2013: 317; Keistin & Stichter, 2011: 98). Some of these methods are part of collaborative and multidisciplinary teaching approaches (Armitage, 2010: 4; Knyviene, 2014: 187; Plato & Alrich, 2014: 541), skill-based and project-based teaching (Edmunds et al., 2017: 3; Han, 2017: 539-540), problem-based teaching (Bell, 2010: 39-40; Edmunds et al., 2017: 3), work-integrated learning (Kramer & Usher, 2011: 15-18; Nkumane, 2008: 115), and role play (Armstrong, 2003: 2-3). However, teachers in Lesotho do not use these teaching methods and approaches, which could provide an enabling environment for the learners to achieve self-reliance (MoET, 2009: 18).

6.5.5 Community participation in tourism education

Community members in Lesotho have not been informed about tourism in general, and tourism as vocational subject, and the potential for economic benefits and job opportunities for themselves and their children, just as Nkumane (2008: 33) and Dube (2014: 159, 166) discovered in communities in KwaZulu-Natal, Ejiofor et al. (2012: 4) in Nigeria, and Lovrentjev (2015: 561) in Croatia. This was confirmed by community members who were invited to Phela High School to transfer their skills for making crafts to learners. Parents attending parent meetings concurred with the community members who had been invited, that information on tourism was lacking. It appears that it is not customary for schools in Lesotho to inform parents about new subjects, or about phasing out the old ones. Power differentials between schools and parents play out, with parents having internalised the belief that schools are more knowledgeable than they are, and therefore cannot be questioned about subjects.

A related finding is that community members with low levels of education do not think highly of themselves and their indigenous knowledges in schools or education settings. Despite being told that they had been invited because of skills and talents they possess, and which teachers did not have, it was difficult for community members to appreciate this fact. They repeatedly reminded the researcher and other co-researchers that, *Rona le sekolong ha rea hlaha, re mpa re thusa feela moo re ka thusang* [we are not even educated, we are just helping where we can]. They could not let go of their inferiority complex, just as Tsayang (1998: 102-104, 161-162) found in Botswana, Kimu (2012: 3) found in Kenya, and Save the Children USA

(2013: 17-18) found in India. Making community members, especially rural ones, unlearn the perception that they are worthless in relation to education matters, remains one of the toughest challenges. Compounding the problem, there are no school record books to record CP activities at schools, something which might motivate community members and legitimise their participation, and thus reduce their inferiority complex.

Nevertheless, despite the above challenges, the continuous presence of community members at the school had a positive impact on the Phela High School administration, teachers and learners. The positive impact of CP on education is well documented (Barron, 2013: 32; Fathi, 2014: 1052; Fan & Williams, 2010: 53; Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85; Russell, 2009: 33-53). The principal became more cooperative in responding to the needs of the new tourism subject financially, and provided the space and workshop facilities necessary to carry out the self-reliance project. Teachers, starting with those who were part of the study, became more professional in their work, and taught better through collaboration and teamwork, experimenting freely with different models of integrated curriculum. Their morale and school ethos improved. The school was energised and abuzz with interactive and integrative activities by teachers, learners and community members, thereby strengthening teaching and learning (Spaull, 2013: 1, 4). Excitement and seriousness were evident in learners' academic work, while learners simultaneously carried out the self-reliance project of making crafts and selling them to uplift their lives, with a view to achieving self-reliance.

6.5.6 Understanding an integrated curriculum

Tankiso-Mhunyane (2014: xvii) discovered that Lesotho school teachers do not understand the integrated curriculum, just as Park (2008: 314) found in South Korea. Empirical evidence confirms that this is the case. Interventions to capacitate Lesotho teachers so that they develop a uniform understanding of the integrated curriculum have been lacking since the curriculum's inception in 2009. This only occurred at the June/July 2017 workshops, particularly for the secondary level. Unfortunately, few teachers were invited to attend the dissemination and training workshops, and some

of them are not even sure if the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum would be implemented in January 2018.

As a result of the June/July 2017 workshops, the rhetoric about integrated curriculum has improved. What has not improved is the rhetoric about self-reliance, which should go hand-in-hand with the integrated curriculum, as a benefit; this implies that self-reliance projects in Lesotho schools will not take place soon. Literature demonstrates that school priorities should be aligned with national priorities if self-reliance and its sustainability are to be achieved. Otherwise the project's success will depend solely on the will, devotion and commitment of an individual school, teachers and learners. This is the case with Phela High School at the moment.

6.5.7 Implementation of an integrated curriculum

The danger posed by poorly trained, or untrained, staff preparing to implement an integrated curriculum, is well articulated by Park (2008: 313, 316), who points out that teachers could easily revert to their old ways of teaching – a teacher-centred approach that depends heavily on the textbook, with little or no regard for the practical and vocational aspects of tourism, and the learner-centred approach. The persistent message has been that all stakeholders should thoroughly and inclusively understand the integrated curriculum (Shankar, 2014: 75), if implementation is to be successful. In Lesotho schools, there is no uniform understanding of the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum, and teachers continue with their old ways of teaching in a teacher-centred fashion, without helping learners to acquire creative, practical, productive and entrepreneurial skills, so that they can address life challenges of poverty and unemployment (MoET, 2009: viii-3). The recent June/July 2017 workshops by MoET have not changed anything, so far.

6.5.8 Approaches to work-integrated learning

WIL approaches are not applied sufficiently in Lesotho schools, just as skills-, project-, and problem-based teaching approaches are not applied to tourism teaching. There are no internships for learners in different tourism sectors – internships are not even mentioned in the LGCSE Travel & Tourism Syllabus 2017.

Tourism industry employers, on their part, have not approached schools to alert them of their skills needs, and have not offered opportunities for internships. Gellerstedt et al. (2015: 38) see WIL as a necessary marriage between schools and the tourism industry, and that activities, such as internships, inspire and motivate learners, deepening their content knowledge of tourism and its application in the real world (Rowe & Zegwaard, 2017: 89-90). So far, the “marriage” has not materialised.

6.5.9 Assessment of an integrated tourism curriculum

In Lesotho schools, tourism education assessment is predominantly academic, just as in geography, development studies and history. An official of the Examination Council of Lesotho said that a learner should simply mention and explain a business idea from any tourism venture or sector – it was not necessary to be practical and productive about it; suggesting an idea and explaining it was enough. Thus, even though LGCSE Travel & Tourism Syllabus 2017 states that assessment is based on a 60 percent theory and 40 percent practical split, in reality, there still is no practical.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

Experienced teachers and other educators should be encouraged to produce tourism textbooks, particularly for the junior secondary level, which should contain both theory and guidance to acquire practical, productive and entrepreneurial skills, with a view to assisting learners to solve daily challenges caused by poverty, and to achieve self-reliance. The textbooks should clearly strengthen the understanding of tourism as a vocational subject. School textbooks were produced in Lesotho in the past for subjects such as science, Sesotho, development studies and geography. There are teachers with good writing skills who can take the opportunity to write the textbooks.

However, the textbook should not dominate teaching and learning. Teaching methods and approaches, which were elaborated on in 3.3.3, including WIL, should vary to cater for learners’ differences and learning styles (Graven & Schafer, 2013: 4). Other sources of learning, such as libraries, with stocks of tourism material, should be constructed in schools. Library readership should be monitored strictly to

ensure that books are not lost. Learners should have opportunities to visit tourist attractions, to make tourism learning exciting. Availing textbooks and varying teaching/learning methods and approaches, should go hand-in-hand with availing other resources and funds for excursions, and making maps, globes, computers, the internet, compasses and overhead projectors available to advance and improve tourism education.

There is a need to follow-up on the June/July 2017 MoET workshops on integrated curriculum through regular meetings and workshops, to ensure that the vocational aspect of teaching, particularly tourism teaching, takes off. This means assessment should also change, from being only theoretical, to being practical, so that tourism teaching and assessment are well balanced, and earnestly follow the expectations of the MoET (2009) integrated curriculum policy document. Education officials and school administrations should make follow-ups, which include tracking how teachers are coping with the implementation of the integrated curriculum, as recommended by Park (2008: 308), so that obstacles can be removed quickly. A step-by-step but persistent approach to curriculum integration in Lesotho schools is recommended, to avoid overwhelming teachers with something they are still trying to understand (Daly et al., 2012: 10).

To circumvent the problem of unqualified staff, learners should be encouraged to pursue tourism education courses at college and university levels, so that they return as qualified teachers. In-service training for teachers who are already in the field should be available, to increase their content knowledge and understanding of the subject, including its benefits and opportunities. Training should include appropriate tourism teaching methods and approaches that lean to learner-centredness and encourage deep learning (Bates, 2010: 1; Keistin & Sticher, 2011: 98; Sharma, 2010: 132) and, at the same time, foster the acquisition of practical skills for learners to be creative and productive.

Hands-on skills and work-related programmes prepare learners for the world of work (Msuya et al., 2014: 104), and help them overcome poverty and unemployment hardships. Learners also develop positive attitudes towards hard work, discipline, commitment, endurance, perseverance, resilience, being painstaking, independence of mind and action, self-sufficiency, autonomy, self-employment; and values of

respect to the self and others, critical thinking, truthfulness, humility, generosity and caring (Ezeh & Ekemenzie, 2015: 227-228; Msuya et al., 2014: 103-104; Osalusi, 2014: 734). Learners also develop skills that link up with the attitudes listed above, such as paying attention to detail when listening and keeping records of sales, accuracy, communication, persuasion, negotiation and leadership, so that learners become well-rounded, responsible citizens, capable of looking after themselves and others. Developing these attitudes, values and skills, find fertile ground in Yosso's (2005) CCW, which is brought by learners from their families to the school environment. Thus, CCW is indeed a fertile ground on which new attitudes, values and skills germinate and flourish.

The other recommendation is that the MoET should elevate the self-reliance rhetoric as part of the practical aspect of an integrated curriculum. The rhetoric should ensure that the MoET's vision and priorities become clearer, so that schools align and match their own priorities with that of the MoET (Msuya et al., 2014: 104), to increase the chances of success and sustainability of the self-reliance project. Sinclair and Lillis (1980: 121) also suggest useful principles for effective self-reliance implementation. The assessment component of tourism education should require learners to produce something that can be sold to improve their entrepreneurial skills, not simply suggest and explain a hypothetical tourism business idea to pass examinations.

Inexpensive ways of starting self-reliance projects should be explored, as learners do not have start-up capital. One option is to consider using cheap, local and natural resources. Inviting community members with relevant talents and skills to come to school to transfer these skills to learners, could be another inexpensive local option. The project should start small and gradually grow, with participants learning from previous mistakes going forward, just as the cyclic stages of PAR suggest (Jasper 2003: 16), including the intricate reflection processes (Bulman & Schultz, 2004: 232). The craft products produced in this self-reliance project were limited in quantity and diversity for purposes of measurability on weekly basis. Once the project has been concluded, learners could increase and diversify their range of crafts, depending on market demands.

Facilities for other vocational subjects in the school should be shared and used to advance tourism self-reliance projects to reduce costs. For example, the subject of basic handcraft uses a lot of timber, planes and saws, which can also be used to make beautiful wooden sculptures. It is not necessary that every vocational subject has its own workshop, as it appears to be the case at present in most Lesotho schools.

Community members and parents should be exposed to tourism, its benefits and job opportunities (Dube, 2014: 166; Ejiofor et al., 2012: 4; Lovrentjev, 2015: 561; Nkumane, 2008: 33). They should also be informed of tourism as a school subject, and how it will benefit their children, so that they provide necessary support, mobilise resources (Shankar 2014: 75-76), and help with skills transfer, as was the case at Phela High School. As their inferiority complex wears off, community members can participate effectively in many other school development ventures. The MoET should produce record books that enable documentation of CP in schools. This could elevate the community members' sense of self-worth and boost their confidence about participating in various school ventures. Above all, community members should be encouraged to improve their education levels by engaging in part-time and long-distance learning. Enlightened members should organise themselves and help those who are in need of help.

From now on, the term *community participation approach* should be understood as a new construct used in education, particularly in integrated curriculum, demonstrating how powerful community members can be through the forms of capital they provide, through their multiple strengths, talents, skills, resources, manpower, assets, indigenous and experiential knowledges (Yosso, 2005: 69, 76-77; Moeller & Bielfeldt, 2011: 85), which teachers can use for the academic and vocational success of learners at school and beyond. After all, as Russell (2009: 33) discovered, community members like to build and improve their schools by mobilising and supplying resources. Their efforts can contribute to improving the conditions of underprivileged learners.

6.7 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Brauer and Ferguson (2015: 318) assert that there is no long-term research publication available on the integrated curriculum. This limitation causes doubt and uncertainty about its effectiveness over a long term. This assertion needs to be investigated, to allay fears over the use and relevance of the integrated curriculum over a long term.

Another area that needs research relates to the Michigan Department of Education's (2014: 4) contention that an integrated curriculum does not seem to improve learners' scores. This claim contradicts other, much-talked-about claims that an integrated curriculum improves understanding and retention (Brauer & Ferguson, 2015: 314; Daly et al., 2012: 6; Malik & Malik, 2011: 99; Park, 2008: 314; Shah & Jain, 2016: 1430-1431). Beane (1997, cited in Magoma, 2016: 27), and Loepp (1999: 21) had indicated that an integrated curriculum improves test scores. The exact factors that cause improvement, or lack thereof, should be investigated and clarified, once and for all.

There is also need to investigate whether tourism education, since its introduction in Lesotho in 2011, responds to the needs of the tourism industry. Such a study could improve the curriculum relevance of the subject, and boost its appeal and status by increasing employability, particularly if possibilities and opportunities for WIL approaches in Lesotho schools could be included in the investigation.

Finally, there is a need to investigate the extent to which community members in Lesotho are exposed to tourism, and whether they take advantage of tourism to improve their lives. This investigation should include questions about community members' awareness of tourism as a vocational subject. Such a study could investigate other forms of skills transfer from community members to schools, in addition to the ones used in this study, which could be harnessed and used to emancipate and empower underprivileged learners. In other words, in addition to the way community members have been used in this study, there could be other areas of tourism education in which community members can be invited and used to assist underprivileged learners.

6.8 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

The study is valuable because it shows how CP can help to foster self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum, which can benefit underprivileged learners at schools. Through CCW, community members discover that they possess cultural wealth that can be transferred to their children to benefit them at school and in the rest of their lives. Teachers, starting with those who participated in the study, should be persuaded to change their tourism teaching methods and approaches to incorporate a greater degree of learner-centredness, which is interactive, integrative and democratic, and encourages deep learning (Bates, 2010: 1; Keistin & Sticher, 2011: 98; Sharma, 2010: 132). The MoET may develop new policies in line with the findings of this study to promote the value of tourism in schools, and in communities, due to the study's practical benefits.

6.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

It was difficult to select 10 learners out of 60 in a Form B (Grade 9) class, without the guilty feeling of discrimination. All learners at Phela High School experience various hardships. Parents are either unemployed, very poor, suffering from HIV/AIDS, or dead. Relatives who are supposed to provide assistance to orphans after parents' deaths often fail to do so; instead, they misappropriate and squander the possessions and property belonging to the orphans, making their situation worse (Kimane 2005: 28). Thus, no learner had escaped hardship. However, time and resources forced me to impose qualitative and quantitative limits.

Another issue is that Phela High School is situated in a tourism activity environment, in the midst of several tourist attractions. I wonder whether the study would have yielded the same results if the school was far away from tourist attractions, in another setting; and whether community members from a different background would have accepted the invitation to come and share their knowledge of and skill for making craft products with the teachers and learners. After all, these learners would compete with them when they leave school in a few years, and also sell craft products.

Funds permitting, it would have been ideal to monitor and analyse the learners' self-reliance project beyond the scope of six months (June – November 2017), and follow their lives beyond high school, to gain a holistic view of the study's contribution to their lives, and the project's sustainability.

6.10 CONCLUSION

The study explored ways of fostering self-reliance through an integrated tourism curriculum using CP and CCW, which were operationalised by PAR. One of the principles of CP and PAR is that the needs of the community should be *community-driven*, by identifying their problems, and planning and deciding how to solve them. In this study, there was a need to help underprivileged learners in a single community. Community members with talents and skills for making crafts were invited to Phela High School, to transfer these skills to learners, who then reproduced the crafts and sold them to generate income for themselves. Community members wanted to help the children, even though research was instigated by the school. The situation of extreme poverty, unemployment and disease prevalent in Lesotho today, requires that learners alternate school with work (Chere-Masopha, 2007: 3-4; Kimane, 2005: 27-28), especially orphans who have no one to help them in times of need and despair.

The self-reliance project of making and selling crafts, as a source of livelihood, was a success, and there are signs that it may be sustainable, because it is *community-driven*. There is no doubt that the synergy and collaboration between the school and community members was emancipating and empowering to the school itself, to the teachers and learners. Understanding of an integrated curriculum was strengthened at Phela High School, as was the understanding of tourism as a practical and vocational subject, that can alleviate poverty and unemployment, and achieve self-employment and self-reliance.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LETTER TO PRINCIPAL

June 2017

Dear Principal

PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL

I hereby request permission to undertake research in your school. I am a PhD student at the University of the Free State, currently working on my thesis: **FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH**. The study will involve 2 teachers (Dev. Studies & Agric), 10 learners in a Form B Class (Grade 9), and 5 community members, for purposes of generating data.

The study aims to strengthen the understanding of tourism as a school subject, and how it can be used to practically benefit underprivileged learners through making craft products to be sold to the tourists and other potential customers, generating income for themselves in order to address life challenges of poverty, and strive to achieve self-reliance. Talented and skilled community members will be invited into the classroom to impart their knowledge of making crafts to the learners, who will then be expected to make the crafts for themselves.

If the study succeeds in its aim, it will be of great benefit to the learners academically and in life. Teachers will also benefit, as the success of their learners will improve their confidence and self-esteem in their work. They will know what works, and what doesn't for the benefit of the learners. The findings of the study will be public knowledge which the Ministry of Education and Training may adopt and use in its policies.

The study will use pseudonyms for the school name, teachers' names, learners' and community members' names, to conceal their identity, and protect them from any harm. Additionally, information regarding the age of participants, marital status, contact numbers or emails, will also be kept confidential.

Let me request further that we be allowed to use the old unused classrooms for our meetings and discussions, which will only take place after school and on weekends to avoid tampering with official times for teaching and learning, from Monday to Friday.

Finally, I also think it will be important that we meet you in person before we start with the research, so that we get words of wisdom and encouragement. This will be particularly vital to the community members who are not used to being in the school environment, so that they feel at ease.

Your positive response will be highly appreciated in this matter.

Yours sincerely

Mzamane Nhlapo (Mr)

Researcher

Email: mzamanenhlapo@yahoo.com

Dr B.B. Moreeng

Supervisor

boitumelo.moreeng@spu.ac.za

Dr B.B. Moreeng works together with Dr M.L. Malebese, malebeseml@ufs.ac.za

APPENDIX B: PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSE TO THE RESEARCHER

June 2017

Dear Mr Nhlapo

After consulting with the School Board, I am pleased to inform you that you can feel free to conduct your study with the University of the Free State. Use the old Form A block which has three empty classrooms for meetings. Just make sure the teachers' and learners' time is not compromised in any way. Use the after-school times and weekends as you suggested.

I wish you and your team well in this arduous task. Ah, I nearly forgot; let's meet on the last Friday of this month, at 2:00pm, in my office, to know one another.

Faithfully

The Principal

APPENDIX C: LETTER AND CONSENT FORM TO TEACHER

June 2017

Dear Teacher, Mr/s _____

I hereby request your participation in my research. I am a PhD student at the University of the Free State, currently working on my thesis: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH. The study will involve 2 teachers (Dev. Studies & Agric), 10 learners in a Form B Class (Grade 9), and 5 community members, for purposes of generating data.

The study aims to strengthen the understanding of tourism as a school subject, and how it can be used to practically benefit underprivileged learners through making craft products to be sold to the tourists and other potential customers, generating income for themselves in order to address life challenges of poverty, and strive to achieve self-reliance. Talented and skilled community members are invited into the classroom to impart their knowledge of making crafts to the learners, who will then be expected to make the crafts for themselves.

If the study succeeds in its aim, it will be of great benefit to the learners academically and in life. Teachers will also benefit, as the success of their learners will improve their confidence and self-esteem in their work. They will know what works, and what doesn't for the benefit of the learners. The findings of the study will be public knowledge which the Ministry of Education and Training may adopt and use in its policies.

The study will use pseudonyms for the school name, teachers' names, learners' and community members' names, to conceal their identity, and protect them from any harm. Information regarding the age of participants, marital status, contact numbers or emails, will also be kept confidential.

Finally, it is worth-noting that participation will be voluntary; if you feel uncomfortable at any stage of the research, feel free to withdraw without giving reasons. However,

it may be helpful to contact me to share information and see if a resolution to what bothers you may be found.

Your positive response will be highly appreciated in this matter.

Yours sincerely

Mzamane Nhlapo (Mr)

Researcher

Email: mzamanenhlapo@yahoo.com

Dr B.B. Moreeng

Supervisor

boitumelo.moreeng@spu.ac.za

Dr B.B. Moreeng works together with Dr M.L. Malebese, malebeseml@ufs.ac.za

Please fill in the blank spaces below and return this page to the researcher. Keep the letter above for future reference.

Study: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH

Researcher: Mzamane Nhlapo

Your name and surname: _____

Your age: _____

Contact number: _____

- I hereby give free and informed consent to participate in the above-mentioned research study.
- I understand what the study is about, why I am participating and what the risks and benefits are.
- I give the researcher permission to make use of the data gathered from participation, subject to the stipulations he has indicated in the letter.

By attaching your signature below, you declare that you are fully informed about this research project, and give your permission that the information/findings may be used for the research without identifying you as an individual.

Your signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX D: LETTER AND CONSENT FORM TO COMMUNITY MEMBER

June 2017

Dear Community Member, Mr/s _____

I hereby request your participation in my research. I am a PhD student at the University of the Free State, currently working on my thesis: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH. The study will involve 2 teachers (Dev. Studies & Agric), 10 learners in a Form B Class (Grade 9), and 5 community members, for purposes of generating data.

The study aims to strengthen the understanding of tourism as a school subject, and how it can be used to practically benefit underprivileged learners through making craft products to be sold to the tourists and other potential customers, to generate income for themselves in order to address life challenges of poverty, and strive to achieve self-reliance. Talented and skilled community members are invited into the classroom to impart their knowledge of making crafts to the learners, who will then be expected to make the crafts for themselves.

If the study succeeds in its aim, it will be of great benefit to the learners academically and in life. Teachers will also benefit, as the success of their learners will improve their confidence and self-esteem in their work. They will know what works, and what doesn't for the benefit of the learners. The findings of the study will be public knowledge which the Ministry of Education and Training may adopt and use in its policies.

The study will use pseudonyms for the school name, teachers' names, learners' and community members' names, to conceal their identity, and protect them from any harm. Information regarding the age of participants, marital status, contact numbers or emails, will also be kept confidential.

Finally, it is worth-noting that participation will be voluntary; if you feel uncomfortable at any stage of the research, feel free to withdraw without giving reasons. However,

it may be helpful to contact me to share information and see if a resolution to what bothers you may be found.

Your positive response will be highly appreciated in this matter.

Yours sincerely

Mzamane Nhlapo (Mr)

Dr B.B. Moreeng

Researcher

Supervisor

Email: mzamanenhlapo@yahoo.com

boitumelo.moreeng@spu.ac.za

Dr B.B. Moreeng works together with Dr M.L. Malebese, malebeseml@ufs.ac.za

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Study: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH

Researcher: Mzamane Nhlapo

Your _____ name _____ and _____ surname:

Your age: _____

Contact number: _____

- I hereby give free and informed consent to participate in the above-mentioned research study.
- I understand what the study is about, why I am participating and what the risks and benefits are.
- I give the researcher permission to make use of the data gathered from participation, subject to the stipulations he has indicated in the letter.

By attaching your signature below, you declare that you are fully informed about the research project, and give your permission that the information may be used for the research without identifying you as an individual.

Your signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX E: LENGOLO LE FOMORO EA TUMELLO EA MOAHI OA MONA

Phupjane 2017

Moahi seabakeng sena, 'M'e/Ntate _____

Kea u lumelisa Moahi ea khabane, 'me ebile ke u lakaletsa bophelo bo botle. Ke u ngolla tjena ke le morutuo Junifesithing ea Freistata, moo ke leng mofuputsi hona teng. Ka boikokobetso bo boholo u kopuo ho tla nka karolo phuputsong ea ka, tlas'a sehlooho sena: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH.

Sepheo sa phuputso ena ke ho tla ntlafatsa kutloisiso ea thuto ea bohahlauli baneng, le ho fumana mekhoha eo bana ba likhutsana le ba hlokang ba ka iphelisang ka teng, hore ba qetelle ba fentse bofutsana ba bile ba fihletse boitjaro. 'Me litsebo tsa baahi/batsoali litabeng tsa bohahlauli, haholo-holo ho etseng lihlaisoa tse ka rekisetsoang bahahlauli, li hlokahala haholo phuputsong ena. Ke ka hona u mengoang ho tla nka karolo.

Melemo ea phuputso ena ke ho thusa bana ba sekolo joalokaha ke bonts'itse. Litichere le tsona li tla ba morolo ts'ebetsong ea tsona ha bana ba thuseha ka tsela e bonts'itsoeng. Lekala la Thuto le Koetliso le ka 'na la qetella le fetola maano a lona ka baka la phuputso ena, hore na bana ba ka rutoa ka katleho joang likolong.

Ho nka karolo ha hau ke ka boithaopo le kutloisiso ea molemo oo u o etsetsang bana. U na le bolokolohi ba ho ikhula phuputsong ena haeba ho na le se sa u khotsofatseng, ebile ho sa hlokahale hore u fane ka mabaka. Empa le teng, u se k'a tsoafa ho nkatamela hore re shebisane taba, le ho e fumanela tharollo ha ho khoneha. Mabitso a hau, lilemo, litaba tse amanang le manyalo, li ke ke tsa hlaisoa phuputsong ena. Re tla sebelisa mabitso a boiqapelo. Ruri ke tla leboha haholo ha u ka ananela kopo ena ea ka Moahi ea khabane.

Oa hau

Mzamane Nhlapo (Mr)

Dr B.B. Moreeng

Mofuputsi

Mookameli

Email: mzamanenhlapo@yahoo.com

boitumelo.moreeng@spu.ac.za

Dr B.B. Moreeng o sebetsa le Dr M.L. Malebese, malebeseml@ufs.ac.za

Ha u qetile ho bala lengolo le ka holimo, le u kopang ho tla nka karolo phuputso, u ipolokele lona hore u lule u ikhopotsa litaba tsa lona. Honajoale u kopuo a ho tlatsa likheo tse latelang:

Sehlooho: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH.

Mofuputsi: Mzamane Nhlapo

Lebitsolahau: _____ Fane: _____

Lilemotsa hau: _____ Nomoro ea mohala: _____

- Ke lumela hore ke nka karolo phuputso ena ka boithaopo.
- Kea utloisisa hore phuputso ena e ikemiselitse ho fihlela eng, le hore hobaneng ke nka karolo. Ke utloisisa le mathata, esita le melemo, e ka hlahang phuputso ena.
- Ke lumela mona hore ke fana ka tumello ho mofuputsi ho sebelisa tsohle tseo a ka fumanang li le molemo phuputso ena, ha feela a ntse a ipapisitse le litumellano tsa se thathong, tsa ho etsa phuputso.

Moahi ea khabane, ha u tekena tokomane ena, u bolela hore u utloisisa hantle seo phuputso ena eleng ka teng, 'me u fana ka tumello hore litaba tsa teng li ka sebelisoa. Joalokaha ho bonts'itsoe pejana, mabitso a hau a ke ke a hlaisoa.

Tekena

mona: _____ letsatsi: _____

APPENDIX F: LETTER AND CONSENT FORM TO GUARDIAN

June 2017

Dear Guardian, Mr/s _____

I hereby request the participation of your child named _____ in my research. I am a PhD student at the University of the Free State, currently working on my thesis: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH. The study will involve 2 teachers (Dev. Studies & Agric), 10 learners in a Form B Class (Grade 9), and 5 community members, for purposes of generating data.

The study aims to strengthen the understanding of tourism as a school subject, and how it can be used to practically benefit underprivileged learners through making craft products to be sold to the tourists and other potential customers, to generate income for themselves in order to address life challenges of poverty, and strive to achieve self-reliance. Talented and skilled community members are invited into the classroom to impart their knowledge of making crafts to the learners, who will then be expected to make the crafts for themselves.

If the study succeeds in its aim, it will be of great benefit to the learners academically and in life. Teachers will also benefit, as the success of their learners will improve their confidence and self-esteem in their work. They will know what works, and what doesn't for the benefit of the learners. The findings of the study will be public knowledge which the Ministry of Education and Training may adopt and use in its policies.

The study will use pseudonyms for the school name, teachers' names, learners' and community members' names, to conceal their identity, and protect them from any harm. Information regarding the age of participants, marital status, contact numbers or emails, will also be kept confidential.

Finally, it is worth-noting that participation will be voluntary; if you feel uncomfortable at any stage of the research, feel free to withdraw without giving reasons. However,

it may be helpful to contact me to share information and see if a resolution to what bothers you may be found.

Your positive response will be highly appreciated in this matter.

Yours sincerely

Mzamane Nhlapo (Mr)

Dr B.B. Moreeng

Researcher

Supervisor

Email: mzamanenhlapo@yahoo.com

boitumelo.moreeng@spu.ac.za

Dr B.B. Moreeng works together with Dr M.L. Malebese, malebeseml@ufs.ac.za

Please fill in the blank spaces below and return this page to the researcher. Keep the letter above for future reference.

Study: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH

Researcher: Mzamane Nhlapo

Your _____ name _____ and _____ surname:

Your age: _____

Contact number: _____

- I hereby give free and informed consent to participate in the above-mentioned research study.
- I understand what the study is about, why I am participating and what the risks and benefits are.
- I give the researcher permission to make use of the data gathered from participation, subject to the stipulations s/he has indicated in the letter.

By attaching your signature below, you declare that you are fully informed about the research project, and give your permission that the information may be used for the research without identifying you as an individual.

Your signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX G: ASSENT FORM FOR GUARDIAN

June 2017

Dear Guardian, Mr/s _____

Please fill in the assent form below and return it to the researcher.

I hereby allow my child named _____ to participate in the research study: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH.

My name _____ Surname: _____

My signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX H: LENGOLO LE FOMORO EA TUMELLO EA MOHOLISI OA NGOANA

Phupjane 2017

Moholisi ea Khabane, 'M'e/Ntate _____

Kea u lumelisa Moholisi ea Khabane, 'me ebile ke u lakaletsa bophelo bo botle. Ke u ngolla tjena ke le morutuo Junifesithing ea Freistata, moo ke leng mofuputsi hona teng. Ka boikokobetso bo boholo u kopuo ho tla nka karolo phuputsong ea ka tlas'a sehlooho sena: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH.

Sepheo sa phuputso ena ke ho tla ntlafatsa kutloisiso ea thuto ea bohahlauli baneng, le ho fumana mekhoha eo bana ba likhutsana le ba hlokang ba ka iphelisang ka teng, hore ba qetelle ba fentse bofutsana ba bile ba fihletse boitjaro. 'Me litsebo tsa baholisi le batsoali litabeng tsa bohahlauli, haholo-holo ho etseng lihlaioa tse ka rekisetsoang bahahlauli, li hloka haholo phuputsong ena.

Melemo ea phuputso ena ke ho thusa bana ba sekolo joalokaha ke bonts'itse. Litichere le tsona li tla ba morolo ts'ebetsong ea tsona ha bana ba thuseha ka tsela e bonts'itsoeng. Lekala la Thuto le Koetliso le ka 'na la qetella le fetola maano a lona ka baka la phuputso ena, hore na bana ba ka rutoa ka katleho joang likolong.

Ho nka karolo ha hau ke ka boithaopo le kutloisiso ea molemo oo u o etsang bana. U na le bolokolohi ba ho ikhula phuputsong ena haeba ho na le se sa u khotsofatseng, ebile ho sa hloka hore u fane ka mabaka. Empa le teng, u se k'a tsoafa ho nkatamela hore re shebisane taba, le ho e fumanela tharollo ha ho khoneha. Mabitso a hau, lilemo, litaba tse amanang le manyalo, li ke ke tsa hlaisoa phuputsong ena. Re tla sebelisa mabitso a boiqapelo.

Ruri ke tla leboha haholo ha u ka ananela kopo ena ea ka Moholisi ea Khabane.

Oa hau

Mzamane Nhlapo (Mr)

Dr B.B. Moreeng

Mofuputsi

Mookameli

Email: mzamanenhlapo@yahoo.com

boitumelo.moreeng@spu.ac.za

Dr B.B. Moreeng o sebetsa le Dr M.L. Malebese, malebeseml@ufs.ac.za

Ha u qetile ho bala lengolo le ka holimo, le u kopang ho tla nka karolo phuputso, u ipolokele lona hore u lule u ikhopotsa litaba tsa lona. Honajoale u kopuo a ho tlatsa likheo tse latelang: Sehlooho: FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH. Mofuputsi: Mzamane Nhlapo

Lebitsolahau: _____ Fane: _____

Lilemotsa hau: _____ Nomoro ea mohala: _____

- Ke lumela hore ke nka karolo phuputso ena ka boithaopo.
- Kea utloisisa hore phuputso ena e ikemiselitse ho fihlela eng, le hore hobaneng ke nka karolo. Ke utloisisa le mathata, esita le melemo, e ka hlahang phuputso ena.
- Ke lumela mona hore ke fana ka tumello ho mofuputsi ho sebelisa tsohle tseo a ka fumanang li le molemo phuputso ena, ha feela a ntse a ipapisitse le litumellano tsa se thathong, tsa ho etsa phuputso.

Moholisi ea Khabane, ha u tekena tokomane ena, u bolela hore u utloisisa hantle seo phuputso ena eleng ka teng, 'me u fana ka tumello hore litaba tsa teng li ka sebelisoa. Joalokaha ho bonts'itsoe pejana, mabitso a hau a ke ke a hlaisoa.

Tekenamona: _____ Letsatsi: _____

APPENDIX I: FOMORO EATUMELLO EA MOHOLISI KA NGOANA

Phupjane 2017

Moholisi oa ngoana, 'M'e/Ntate _____

Ka boikokobetso tlatsa fomoro ena, 'me u e khutlisetse ho mofuputsi.

Mona ke fana ka tumello ho ngoana ea ikarabellang ho 'na, ea bitsoang _____ ho nka karolo phuputsong ena:
FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH AN INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH.

Mabitso aka: _____ Fane: _____

Motekeno: _____ Letsatsi: _____

APPENDIX J: UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE'S PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



[REDACTED]
Faculty of Education

27-Aug-2017

Dear Mr Mzamane Nhlapo

Ethics Clearance: **FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM: A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH**

Principal Investigator: Mr Mzamane Nhlapo

Department: School of Education Studies (Bloemfontein 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-HSD2017/0899**

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

Education Ethics Committee
Office of the Dean: Education
T: +27 (0)51 401 9683 | F: +27 (0)86 546 1113 | E: NkoaneMM@ufs.ac.za
Winkie Direko Building | P.O. Box/Posbus 339 | Bloemfontein 9300 | South Africa
www.ufs.ac.za



APPENDIX K: THE SALE OF CRAFTS

Sep 2017	W/den sculptures	Clay artefacts	Straw hats
Week 1	Birds 7 @ M12	H/boys 5 @ M10	Cap style 2 @ M70
	Dogs 5 @ M15	Cattle 3 @ M20	Cowboy 2 @ M100
	Horses 4 @M20	Girls 7 @ M12	Mekorotlo 2 @ M100
	M239	M194	M540
Week 2	Birds 7 @ M12	H/boys 6 @ M10	Cap style 3 @ M70
	Dogs 6 @ M15	Cattle 5 @ M20	Cowboy 2 @ M100
	Horses 5@M20	Girls 7 @ M12	Mekorotlo 2 @ M100
	M274	M244	M610
Week 3	Birds 8 @ M12	H/boys 7 @ M10	Cap style 3 @ M70
	Dogs 7 @ M15	Cattle 6 @ M20	Cowboy 2 @ M100
	Horses 6@M20	Girls 8 @ M12	Mekorotlo 2 @ M100
	M321	M286	M610
Week 4	Birds 8 @ M12	H/boys 7 @ M10	Cap style 2 @ M70
	Dogs 8 @ M15	Cattle 7 @ M20	Cowboy 3 @ M100
	Horses 7@M20	Girls 9 @ M12	Mekorotlo 3 @ M100
	M356	M318	M740
Oct 2017			
Week 1	Birds 9 @ M12	H/boys 7 @ M10	Cap style 3 @ M70
	Dogs 8 @ M15	Cattle 9 @ M20	Cowboy 2 @ M100
	Horses 7@M20	Girls 7 @ M12	Mekorotlo 3 @ M100
	M368	M334	M710
Week 2	Birds 8 @ M12	H/boys 9 @ M10	Cap style 2 @ M70
	Dogs 8 @ M15	Cattle 8 @ M20	Cowboy 3 @ M100
	Horses 8@M20	Girls 9 @ M12	Mekorotlo 3@ M100
	M396	M358	M740
Week 3	Birds 9 @ M12	H/boys 7 @ M10	Cap style 3 @ M70
	Dogs 8 @ M15	Cattle 8 @ M20	Cowboy 3 @ M100
	Horses 7@M20	Girls 9 @ M12	Mekorotlo 3 @ M100
	M368	M338	M810

Week 4	Birds 8 @ M12	H/boys 9 @ M10	Cap style 3 @ M70
	Dogs 8 @ M15	Cattle 7 @ M20	Cowboy 2 @ M100
	Horses 9 @ M20	Girls 8 @ M12	Mekorotlo 3 @ M100
	M396	M416	M710

APPENDIX L: TURNITIN REPORT

Thesis

ORIGINALITY REPORT

4%

SIMILARITY INDEX

3%

INTERNET SOURCES

1%

PUBLICATIONS

1%

STUDENT PAPERS

MATCH ALL SOURCES (ONLY SELECTED SOURCE PRINTED)

< 1%

★ link.springer.com

Internet Source

Exclude quotes On

Exclude matches < 5 words

Exclude bibliography On

APPENDIX M

EXTRACTS FROM THE CO-RESEARCHERS AND THE FOCUS GROUP

02 AUGUST 2017

ESTABLISHING THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH (EXTRACTS TRANSLATED FROM SESOTHO)

Interviewer: Ladies and gentleman, co-researchers and the focus group, this session is meant to ensure we all understand why we are gathered here today. I know I have talked to you as individuals and different groups. But today we are together (Interviewer focusing on the community members).

Mr Lekeno: I understand we are coming to train these learners to make hats and sell them.

Mr Seepa: And how the learners can use clay and wood to make artefacts that can be sold to generate income.

Mrs Sibeko: We are here to show the learners that school and work can mix for survival purposes.

(Interviewer now turning to the teachers)

Ms Mona: Hopefully, practicalising tourism will also strengthen its theoretical understanding.

Mr Sam: Yes, they say you hear you forget, you see you remember, you do you understand. Apart from financial benefits, learners will definitely have a deeper understanding of tourism by doing practicals.

(Interviewer turning to the learners)

Girl 1: As Mr Sam has said, I think we will understand tourism better.

Boy 3: And also how to make and sell artefacts for income, so that in the end we are self-reliant in addressing our needs.

Interviewer: Now that we have established the aim of the research, let us discuss challenges relating to fostering self-reliance through integrated tourism curriculum.

DISCUSSIONS ON CHALLENGES RELATING TO FOSTERING SELF-RELIANCE THROUGH INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM, UNDERSTANDING TOURISM AS A VOCATIONAL SUBJECT, INCLUDING METHODS AND APPROACHES OF TOURISM TEACHING (EXTRACTS TRANSLATED FROM SESOTHO)

Interviewer: It is important to understand tourism beyond the learners' textbooks. For example, are you aware of the different types of tourism – educational tourism, business tourism, religious tourism, event tourism, sport tourism ...?

Mr Sam: Hey, they say one is never too old to learn. To be part of this research has opened our eyes to more information about the subject. We were lagging behind on many important issues related to tourism. When the research comes to an end, our bags will be full of knowledge and information, which will make us better teachers.

CEO: Let me say a few things about challenges. These days herd boys and shepherds look after animals near roads so that they beg for money, sweets, food, especially from the whites. If tourists give nothing, they are pelted with stones. It's terrible! This is a big challenge for you, learners, to go and change the mindset of the other youth; I'm sure community members will assist you. Parliament is already thinking of putting in place tough laws against perpetrators of violence against tourists.

Interviewer: Okay CEO, before coming up with more challenges, can we say why tourism was introduced in Lesotho in 2011?

Ms Mona: Tourism contributes to the country's economy and people get job opportunities in the tourism industry.

Interviewer: To get jobs needs teachers to teach skills to their learners. Skills can drive learners towards self-employment, right?

Ms Mona: Yes, you are right; we must not only think of employment in the tourism industry, but self-employment and self-reliance. But to tell you the truth, we thought tourism was increasing the number of social science subjects.

Mr Sam: We were not aware of its vocational component.

Interviewer: Now that you are aware of the vocational component, do you think from now on you can teach the vocational part successfully?

Ms Mona: No, it will take time. Besides, we don't have the experience and the hands-on skills. For now, we have to depend on the skills of the community members.

Mr Sam: To add to that, our school does not have appropriate instructional materials and facilities to make it easy for us to teach tourism as a vocational subject. Even if resources and facilities were available, it would take time to learn to use them. For now, it is a subject like any; we will teach it.

(Interviewer turning to the learners)

Girl 4: We are always given notes, like in geography and development studies, because most of us don't have the tourism textbook.

Interviewer: Why?

Girl 4: Books are expensive; also, most of the time they are not available in the bookshops.

Boy 1: When we ask questions for clarifications, Sir answers us, but most of the time he tells us to go and read our notes. He says everything is clear there.

(Interviewer turning to the community members)

Interviewer: How much do you know about the subject of tourism?

Mrs Sibeko: Those things are known by you teachers; ours is to pay fees for children to get educated.... But then, we have heard about that subject; what do they call it, tourism?

Interviewer: Yes, what does it mean to you?

Mrs Sibeko: It is when the Whites visit our country, or is it not like that?... Well, that is how I understand it.

Mr Lekeno: I know nothing about that thing [tourism]. As Mrs Sibeko has shown, what we know are these Whites who buy our crafts.

Mr Seepa: We are not educated; we just honoured the school's invitation to come and help where we can.

Mr Lekeno: We grew up looking after animals, and working in the fields. Schooling was for girls.

(Interviewer turning to the teachers)

Interviewer: Let us now discuss integrated curriculum. How much do you understand it?

Ms Mona: We have heard about it, but we don't know how it works. Government does not conduct workshops. It is dead silent!

Mr Sam: We still need to understand that thing so that we can end up assessing the learners appropriately. Presently, the learners are assessed as though tourism is an academic subject. They write paper I and paper II. Paper I comprises short questions with multiple-choice questions, while paper II comprises long essay questions. There are no practicals.

Interviewer: Having looked at a few challenges about understanding tourism as a vocational subject, I want us now to think of the solutions and indicators of success. We will discuss them when we meet on 04 August 2017.

04 AUGUST 2017

DISCUSSIONS ON SOLUTIONS AND INDICATORS OF SUCCESS RELATING TO FOSTERING INTEGRATED TOURISM CURRICULUM, UNDERSTANDING TOURISM AS A VOCATIONAL SUBJECT, METHODS/APPROACHES OF TOURISM TEACHING AND ASSESSMENT (EXTRACTS TRANSLATED FROM SESOTHO)

Interviewer: How is the school principal helping you to find solutions to the challenges of teaching tourism as a vocational subject?

Mr Sam: What have you done to this person? She has become soft and cooperative, and willing to find solutions with us.

Ms Mona: All she has to do now is to budget for the tourism subject, so that, slowly but surely, appropriate resources and facilities are bought to help teachers with learner-centred approaches when teaching.

(Interviewer turning to the community members)

Interviewer: What made you spend your life on crafts?

Mr Seepa: What can we say, it is just to keep going for one to feel as if one is working.

Mrs Sibeko: When we saw that people were interested in what we made, we took advantage and made more crafts than before, and sold them, so we could buy a little paraffin.

Interviewer: There is no need for you to look for white-collar jobs?

Mrs Sibeko: If we were educated, of course, we would have become lawyers, teachers, accountants, doctors, lecturers. We don't value what we are doing; we are surprised that you seem interested in it.

CEO: Well, we can't all be educated. But there are parents who earn a living out of tourism, who feed, clothe and even send children to school. To produce your crafts on a larger scale, you should form cooperatives and open bank accounts where you can save your income as it accumulates. You should also consider venturing into community-based tourism because some tourists do not like hotels and casinos. You can get more information on community-based tourism from the Ministry. They will explain more and give you some pamphlets.

Mrs Sibeko: It would be better for these learners to stay in a cooperative as the Chief Government Officer advises, even beyond their schooling days. Perhaps that may make them more successful than us.

Mr Seepa: Indeed, if cooperatives could be understood and formed in the community as the CEO and Mrs Sibeko have said, that could be transferred to learners and schools. That way, self-employment and self-reliance can be achieved.

Interviewer: And there will be no need for your children to look for white-collar jobs?

Mr Seepa: Yes, but from the point of view of the ordinary man in the street being a doctor, or lawyer, or accountant, seems more attractive than being an artist or a farmer.

(Interviewer turning to the teachers)

Interviewer: Earlier you showed little understanding of an integrated curriculum. How do you feel now as the study progresses?

Ms Mona: It is true that one now understands this thing a little better. Workshops are needed so that we do what we understand well. Before we had understood tourism in a similar fashion to geography, history and development studies; but now we can see and understand that it has a practical side that has to be fulfilled, that can help learners to eke a living. That is what teaching in an integrated curriculum means.

Mr Sam: The problem is that government has been crying from lack of money for holding workshops for teachers. If money had not been a problem, schools would disseminate education [on integrated curriculum] to parents/community members so that they provide support where they can. Another important point is that we were not aware that we could use parents to make learners understand what they previously did not understand, even in helping with projects.

Interviewer: This little understanding of integrated curriculum that you have, includes assessing tourism as a vocational subject?

Ms Mona: We think assessment in tourism should be similar to agric, where consideration is on knowledge or understanding, including what the learner can produce with her/his hands for survival. At the beginning of each quarter we sit and decide what learners should know, and then assess them at the end of it. Before undertaking this study, we would not have thought of treating tourism like that.

(Interviewer turning to the learners)

Interviewer: During this research we have focused more on the practice of tourism, so that it is not only theory, as is the case with geography, history and development studies. How do you feel about doing more practicals in tourism?

Boy 3: We now enjoy learning this subject, by combining it with manual work.

Boy 4: It is clear now that we should understand the subject of tourism, and, at the same time, do manual work for the benefit of our future.

Girl 1: Our understanding is now better than that of the other learners who are not members of the focus group.

APPENDIX N

CONDUCTING PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

Participant observation was concerned with

- the climate of conducting research within and outside the classroom used for research at Phela High School;
- ensuring that the co-researchers and the focus group did not disturb school activities;
- acceptable weather conditions; if too cold, or too rainy, meetings cancelled;
- members paying attention during presentations; a break suggested if necessary; for example, if there were signs of fatigue, dozing, sighing; body language instrumental here;
- tea and biscuits organised if sessions took too long;
- care and caution for a balanced discussion; teachers and the CEO did not have to dominate discussions owing to their education and exposure;
- encouraging shy members to speak, and that everyone was at ease;
- ensuring that all members have appropriate stationery to record important points from discussions and activities;
- guarding against destructive dialogue and quarrels during sessions;
- ensuring that discussions and activities were always on track, and were responding to the objectives of the study;
- ensuring that everyone understood what was discussed before moving on to the next issue;
- ensuring that members were in good health and frame of mind; a sick member was excused, but informed of the progress of the study.