Challenges in implementing a South African curriculum in Eswatini

by

Baguma Deo Tumwine

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

Philosophiae Doctor

in the faculty of Education

at the

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

Declaration

I declare that the thesis, which I hereby submit for the degree of Philosophiae Doctor at the University of Pretoria is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this university or any other tertiary institution.

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Ethical clearance certificate

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CHAIRPERSON OF ETHICS COMMITTEE: Prof Liesel Ebersöhn

CC

Ms Bronwynne Swarts
Prof Chaya Herman
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Ethical Statement

The author, whose names appears on the title page of this thesis, has obtained, for the research described in this work, the applicable research ethics approval. The author declares that he has observed the ethical standards required in terms of the University of Pretoria's *Code of ethics for researchers and the Policy guidelines for responsible research.*

Dedication

I dedicate this research to the following people:

- My mother who is suffering with dementia and my late father who loved education. They sacrificed all they had to afford me the best education. I will always be proud of them.
- My family- your support, sacrifice, patience and encouragement inspired me throughout this arduous journey.
- My children for being a source of great inspiration and whom I challenge to attain the highest qualification in their line of study.

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Abstract

Since 2010, some private and public high schools in Eswatini[1] have begun to offer the South African Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS). Demand for this increased from one school in 2010 to 13 schools in 2018. The study accordingly investigated the challenges inherent in the transferal and implementation of the CAPS Curriculum in secondary schools in Eswatini. Phillips and Ochs (2003) and Dolowitz and Marsh's (2000) model of policy borrowing were used as a theoretical lens to steer the study. The study adopted a qualitative case study as the research design in terms of which a sample of four schools was conveniently and purposively selected. Document analysis and semi-structured interviews with 33 participants were conducted. The study identified that the curriculum transfer was initiated by parents whose demand for the South African curriculum emanated from a number of factors such as low pass threshold, cheaper access, rejection of Swazi learners by South African public schools, limited professional courses and few universities in Eswatini. The challenges to such transferal and implementation were identified as lack of contextual suitability; lack of training for educators; border immigration requirements; high tuition fees and absence of a memorandum of understanding between the two countries.

Key terms:

Curriculum transfer, curriculum implementation, policy transfer, policy borrowing, cross-border curriculum monitoring, decontextualised curriculum.

[1] In 2018, the Kingdom of Swaziland officially changed its name to the Kingdom of Eswatini.

Language editor disclaimer

Alexa Barnby

Language Specialist

Editing, copywriting, indexing, formatting, translation

BA Hons Translation Studies; APEd (SATI) Accredited Professional Text Editor, SATI

Mobile: 071 872 1334

Tel: 012 361 6347

alexabarnby@gmail.com

10 December 2019

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I, Alexa Kirsten Barnby, an English editor accredited by the South African Translators' Institute, have edited the doctoral thesis titled "Challenges in Implementing a South African Curriculum in Eswatini" by Deo Baguma Tumwine.

The onus is on the author, however, to make the changes and address the comments made.

Acronyms and abbreviations

AS	Advanced subsidiary
ATP	Annual Teaching Plan
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements
CPD	Continuous professional development
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DMM	Dolowitz and Marsh Model
DoE	Department of Education
ECCE	Early childhood care and education
ECDC	Eswatini Curriculum Design Centre
ECOT	Eswatini College of Technology
EDSEC	Eswatini Education and Training Sector
EFA	Education For All
EGCSE	Eswatini General Certificate of Secondary Education
FET	Further Education and Training
GET	General Education and Training
HoD	Head of department
IB	International Baccalaureate
IEB	Independent Examinations Board
IGCSE	International General Certificate of Secondary Education
IMF	International Monetary Fund
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
LDC	Less developed countries
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MITC	Manzini Industrial Training Centre
MoET	Ministry of Education and Training
MoU	Memorandum of understanding
MP	Member of Parliament
NC (V)	National Certificate-Vocational
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NPPPR	National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NSC	National Senior Certificate

NTC	National Technical College
OBE	Outcomes based education
POM	Phillips and Ochs Model
REO	Regional Education Officer
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SA	Subject advisor
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SANU	Southern African Nazarene University
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SA-SAMS	South African School Administration and Management Systems
SBA	School Based Assessment
SWAPO	South West African People's Organisation
UDED	uMkhanyakude District Education Department
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESWA	University of Eswatini
UNICEF	United Nations
U-TECH	Ubombo Technical and Commercial
VOCTIM	Vocational and Commercial Training Institute
WSE	Whole School Evaluation

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

In most of the sub-Saharan countries, the obligation to provide relevant basic education to citizens is solely a competence of the government. However, unlike in the past when national curriculum designers prescribed the type of curriculum to be implemented in schools, in the 21st century, parents are increasingly involved in deciding what their children may study at school. When parents are dissatisfied with the national curriculum, some have tended to look beyond the borders of their countries in search of what they perceive to be quality education for their children. This has been made easier by globalisation forces which have led to the mobility and diffusion of policy and practice across borders, thus affording parents an opportunity to compare, contrast and then choose the best curricula to ensure economic prosperity for their children (McKenzie, Bieler, McNeil, 2015; & Hongbiao, 2013). This assertion was echoed by the United Kingdom’s Secretary of State for Education who opined that “children need an education curriculum as rigorous as any country’s so as to compete for college places and jobs with folks from across the globe” (Gove, 2013).

Tension is apparent between the trend towards neoliberalism and the human rights movements such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Education for All. Globalisation has revitalised neoliberalism which contributes to policy transfer/borrowing by advocating a shift from central control by governments to what parents deem fit for their children to study in schools. Driven by globalisation, education policy borrowing – which dates back to the 18th century – has become a growing global trend (Crossley, 2008). Together with neoliberalism, globalisation advocates a knowledge economy, leading to an increased demand for quality education. Consequently, there are parents who are dissatisfied with public education and are therefore seeking a different type of education for their children (Phillips & Ochs, 2003). An example of this trend is the considerable increase in the number of private education institutions in Eswatini. At the time of this study there were 61 private primary and 44 private secondary schools in the country (Eswatini, 2019).

The provision of quality education to any country’s citizenry is regarded as a panacea for human development. As was stipulated in the Universal Declaration for Human Rights Article 26(1) (1948) and later affirmed by the Jomtein and Dakar World Conference on Education For All (WCEFA) in 1990 and 2000 respectively, education is a human right. At

the 1990 conference, the consensus was that the realisation and provision of basic education in the majority of sub-Saharan countries was deficient, thus justifying reforms to ensure the education become more relevant, universally available and qualitatively improved (Jomtein Framework for Action, 1990 and Dakar World Conference, 2000). Accordingly, in the era of neoliberalism and globalisation, the provision of basic education has shifted from being solely a government responsibility and become a business venture. Entrepreneurs set up private schools to serve parents who prefer curricula which are different to those offered by the government. Hence the genesis of this study.

The study focused on the transfer of a Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (hereafter CAPS); a curriculum that was designed in the Republic of South Africa (hereafter South Africa) for South African schools but due to demands by Swazi parents was implemented in the Kingdom of Eswatini (hereafter Eswatini) albeit without adjustments being made to the curriculum nor the necessary preparation made to accommodate the implementation. The implementation was focused only on Eswatini secondary schools.

Whereas policy transfer in the literature often refers to governments as initiators (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000; Phillips & Ochs, 2003; Steiner-Khamsi, 2014; Tan, 2015; Forestier & Crossley, 2015) the transfer under investigation was initiated by parents who were sending their children to access CAPS in South Africa and then mainly by private schools which saw an opportunity to offer CAPS in Eswatini at a price.

1.2. Background and context of the study

1.2.1. The origin of CAPS and the structure of basic education in South Africa

In 1997, the South African government introduced the curriculum 2005 (C2005) commonly referred to as outcomes-based education (OBE). The aim of C2005 was to overcome the curricular divisions that had existed under the apartheid government with the OBE curriculum seeking to introduce a learner-centred approach in contrast to the rote learning approach that had seen mainly black children as the "hawkers of wood and drawers of water" (Soudien, 2010, p.41). The OBE curriculum was borrowed from curricular developments in New Zealand where it was seen as the best practice. The curriculum places significant emphasis on competency rather than knowledge. Based on the works of Jean Piaget (Noddings, 2018), it was argued that OBE acknowledged the way in which the mind works with learners being allowed to accumulate knowledge on the basis of prior knowledge and

experiences. Furthermore, the home language was seen as key to learning as it influences both culture and thinking (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2010).

Due to implementation challenges, OBE was reviewed and both the Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 and the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 were introduced in 2002. The continued implementation challenges prompted another review in 2009 that saw the combination of the two National Curriculum Statements for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12 respectively to form a single document known as National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12. The National Curriculum Statement (CAPS) that was introduced in 2012 represented a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools and runs from Grades R to12 where Grades R-3 comprises the Foundation Phase; Grades 4-6 the Intermediate Phase; Grades 7-9 the Senior Phase; and Grades 10-12 the Further Education and Training Phase (FET). Essentially, the CAPS Grades R-12 comprise Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) for all approved subjects; National Policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement; and National Protocol for Assessment (Republic of South Africa, 2011).

CAPS refer to a policy statement that guides and regulates the teaching and learning in the Basic Educational Sector (Grades R-12) in South Africa. The CAPS curriculum consists of a School Based Assessment (SBA) component that constitutes 25 per cent of the end of year final mark. This component demanded that teachers be trained before they commence running the curriculum in addition to close monitoring by subject advisors. Although in South Africa the curriculum runs from Grades R to 12, most of the schools offering the CAPS in Eswatini start at Grade 10 (equivalent of Form 3 in Eswatini) with very few schools starting at Grade 8.

1.2.2. The structure of basic education in Eswatini

Eswatini is a landlocked country in Southern Africa which is almost surrounded by South Africa with a small eastern stretch bordering Mozambique. It covers an area of 17 360 square kilometres and has a population of slightly more than 1.15 million people (UNFPA, 2017). There are 283 junior and secondary high schools with approximately 110265 learners (Eswatini, 2017). Each high school is led by a principal, who is assisted by a deputy principal(s). Subject heads of department oversee the operations and delivery of subject curricula in the departments. The country is divided into four administrative regions; namely, Hhohho Region, Manzini Region, Shiselweni Region, and Lubombo Region. The education

management in each region is overseen mainly by the subject inspectors who are supported by the Regional Education Officer (REO) who, in turn, reports to the National Director of Education.

Education for children in all public and majority of private school in Eswatini begins with Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) at the age of three years. At the age of six years children enter primary schools where they remain for seven 7 years. This is followed by three years at junior secondary schools (Kingdom of Eswatini, 2019). After Grade 7, the Grades are referred to as Forms with Grade 8 being Form 1 and going up to Grade 12 (Form 5). The first ten years (Grade 1 to Form 3 (Grade 10)) constitute Basic Education. Form 4 (Grade 11) to Form 5 (Grade 12) comprises high school, which forms the last part of general education and training and at the end of which the Form 5 learners sit for either the Eswatini General Certificate of Education (EGCSE) or the International General Certificate of Education (IGCSE) examinations that are accredited by the Cambridge International Examinations (CIE).

There are a few schools that offer foreign qualifications such as British Cambridge International Advanced Subsidiary (AS) and Advanced Level (A level); International Baccalaureate (IB); the South African Independent Examination Board (IEB) and the National Senior Certificate (NSC). On completion of high school, the learners enter universities or tertiary institutions. In common with other sub-Saharan countries, schools in the Kingdom of Eswatini have experienced high student dropout rates and the repeating of classes despite the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) policy stipulating that no more than 5% of the learners should repeat at either the primary or the secondary school level (Kingdom of Eswatini, 2018).

Although the MoET undertook: to oversee the running of private schools by putting in place guidelines (Eswatini. 1999) for registering private schools; and to monitor private schools as it does for public schools (Eswatini, 2018), little has taken place in making sure that private schools receive the same attention as public schools.

The Higher Education Sector consists of seven institutions of higher learning. These include one publicly funded university, namely, the University of Eswatini (UNESWA) which has three campuses at Kwaluseni, Luyengo and Mbabane. The Kwaluseni campus houses the Faculties of Commerce, Education, Humanities, Science and Engineering and Social Sciences while the Mbabane and Luyengo campuses house the Health Sciences, and

Agriculture and Consumer Sciences faculties respectively. There are three privately funded accredited universities and colleges, namely, the Southern African Nazarene University that was established in 2010 with the merging of the Nazarene College of Nursing, College of Theology and Nazarene Teachers College; the Eswatini Christian University focuses on medical education and which was established in 2012; and the Limkokwing University of Creative Technology was also opened in 2012. There is only one publicly funded polytechnic – the Eswatini College of Technology (ECOT). The specialised colleges include: the Ngwane and William Pitcher Teacher Training Colleges that train the country's primary and secondary teachers respectively. Other publicly funded technical and vocational institutions include the Gwamile Vocational and Commercial Training Institute (VOCTIM), Manzini Industrial and Training Centre (MITC), Nhlangano Agricultural Skills Training Centre and Siteki Industrial Training Centre. Generally speaking, degree courses for architects, engineers, actual sciences and medical practitioners are not offered at all these institutions, thus obliging high school leavers interested in these professions to study under government scholarships or private funding in the neighbouring countries of which South Africa is the major destination.

The philosophy of the Eswatini Education and Training Sector (EDSEC) is to promote the acquisition of those life skills by the adolescent and the youth that will lead to an enlightened and a participant citizenry with the skills and knowledge to contribute positively to the economic and social development of the country (Kingdom of Eswatini, 2011, p. 7). In addition, most of the guiding principles of the EDSEC are in line with national, regional and international conventions and global initiatives on education, notably, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the Education For All (EFA), Southern African Development Community (SADC) protocol on education and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. All these legislations, inform the education policy and advocate a partnership in issues and processes that are relevant to the development of education in member countries, hence protecting and promoting the rights and welfare of the child.

Added the well-stipulated policies that affect the provision of education in Eswatini are the non-negotiable global forces. The twenty-first century has seen the provision of education in sub-Saharan Africa states being affected by neoliberalism and globalisation. Neoliberalism advocates the "creation of an individual who is an enterprising and competitive entrepreneur" and a commitment which believes in a free market that regulates itself better than government or any other external force (Banya, 2010, p. 15). However, governments are, nevertheless,

also important role players in the development strategies of their countries. Consequently, liberalism views the state's role as creating the appropriate market by providing the conditions, laws and institutions that are necessary for its operation while neoliberalism has emphasised the importance of knowledge economy. Altbach (2015, P. 2) argues that education has become an internationally traded commodity and explains knowledge economy as an "economy where growth is dependent on the quantity, quality and accessibility of information available, rather than the means of production". According to Banya (2010, P. 16), the knowledge economy propels "the neoliberal project of globalism" which universalises policies and obscures both boundaries and regional differences. Hence, neoliberalism which started as a western dormant paradigm of public policy has crept into other countries, including sub-Saharan Africa where structural adjustment policies were imposed in return for International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank loans. Consequently, as Peter (2012), Altbach (2015) and McKenzie (2012) state, the realm of education policy has had to shift towards globalisation as globalisation is both inevitable and unstoppable. The emergence of the knowledge economy has limited governments' capacity to unilaterally formulate national education policy instead, they are being forced to do so in consultation with other national, regional and international policy regulators.

1.2.3. The structure of South African Education sector

Education in South Africa is divided into two sectors: the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) that oversees universities and other post-secondary education; and the Department of Basic Education (DBE) that oversees education from Grade R to Grade 12. There are 26 universities in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 2019a). Under basic education, there are 24292 public schools and 1455 independent schools (Republic of South, 2019b). At the end of Grade 12, the two categories of schools write different examinations that lead to the same National Senior Certificate. The public schools are further categorised into Quintiles 1 to 5 based on the socioeconomic status of the community in which the schools are located. Quintile 1 schools are in the most economically disadvantaged (poorest) communities and Quintiles 4 and 5 schools are situated in the most economically advantaged (wealthiest) communities (Hall & Giese, 2008). Quintiles 1 to 3 (section 20 schools) are non-fee-paying schools and receive funding per learner from the state, while Quintiles 4 and 5 (section 21 schools) pay school fess determined by their school governing bodies (South Africa, 1996)

Independent schools operated in Eswatini before CAPS was introduced. However, these schools were only affordable for a few affluent parents. The majority of the parents who wished to enrol their children for CAPS sent them to South Africa to access no-fee public schools.

1.2.4. The situation before CAPS was transferred to Eswatini

In the light of the above, some parents and guardians who want their children to enrol in courses other than those offered by local universities may look beyond the borders of their own countries. In the case of Eswatini, the most popular destination for such learners has been South Africa, primarily because of the wide range of courses offered at university and tertiary level. The South African National Curriculum Statement (NCS), which was revised to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) in 2012, are the policy statements that guide and regulate the teaching and learning in the Basic Educational Sector (Grades R - 12) of South Africa. Before the introduction of the South African National Curriculum Statement in Eswatini, parents who wished to send their children to South African universities took one of the following routes.

- Students who intended to enrol in professional courses such as engineering, medicine and architecture would finish their Bachelor of Science Degrees at the University of Eswatini (UNESWA) and upon graduation, enrol in South African universities in the first year of their desired courses.
- Most of the technikon universities in South Africa, offer a one-year bridging course to Eswatini high school leavers. On successful completion of these bridging courses, these students enrol for the first year at those universities.
- Parents interested in CAPS curriculum, enrol their children in South African schools in grade 8 through a study visas system to pursue the CAPS curriculum.
- Learners who live near the Eswatini-South African border illegally cross the border on a daily basis to study in South Africa.
- High school leavers in Eswatini enrol in Grade 10 t South African private high schools. The South African Qualifications Authority's (SAQA) recommendation of recognition based on structural comparison, excluding analysis of syllabi or assessment of learning outcomes, ranks the Eswatini General Certificate of Secondary Education (EGCSE) at level 3 of the National Qualification Framework (NQF) while the South African National Senior Certificate is at level 4. Hence, the EGCSE leavers'

certificate is equivalent to Grade 11 under the South African Further Education and Training phase (South Africa, 2016). However, the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination is a three-year programme and, therefore, EGCSE holders who wish to join the CAPS programme after Form 5, have to enrol in Grade 10 as per the registration requirements for NSC examinations.

- The South African private school providers established schools in Eswatini to offer tuition to learners wishing to pursue CAPS but registered them for NSC examinations under sister schools in South Africa. During the October/November examination period, these candidates would be booked into a hostel in South Africa at the parents' expense while they wrote the NSC examination (Eswatini, 2010).

1.2.5. Introduction of CAPS in Eswatini

The notion of transferring the CAPS curriculum to Eswatini was initiated by parents through Ubombo Technical and Commercial School, hereafter referred to as U-Tech. U-Tech was established as a high school in 1994 as a tripartite alliance between the Government of Eswatini, the Ubombo Sugar Company and the parents, the majority of whom were employees of the Ubombo Sugar Company. At that time, U-Tech offered one curriculum- the Eswatini General Certificate of Secondary Education (EGCSE). U-Tech is situated in the Lubombo Region in the low veld that borders South Africa and Mozambique. In 2008 the Management Board and School Management Team (SMT) of U-Tech approached the Eswatini Ministry of Education and Training who then requested the South African High Commission in Eswatini to approach the South African National Directorate Examinations, Measurement and Assessment about seeking approval from the South African Department of Basic Education to register U-Tech as an assessment centre to administer and manage the NSC Examinations in Eswatini (Eswatini, 2008).

U-Tech's application to offer the South African Curriculum dates back to 1996 when U-Tech was granted a certificate to run the National Technical College (NTC), N-Series programme, by the National Department of Education (Republic of South Africa, 1996). At the time of the study, the National Certificate (Vocational) (NC (V) after the phasing out of the N-Series in 2008 U-Tech has been offering the NC (V) since 1996. The phasing out of the N-Series in favour of NC (V) prompted U-Tech to apply to be re-considered in the new programme and also provided U-Tech with an opportunity to request for NSC Centre status at the same time (Kingdom of Eswatini, 2008). U-Tech was to offer the CAPS curriculum alongside the local

EGCSE curriculum. Parents would be given an opportunity to choose a curriculum they deemed fit for their children. U-Tech was influenced by the fact that it was running the NTC-N-Series examination in its premises successfully while it also had the capacity to bear all related costs involved in running the centre. In addition, Eswatini learners interested in pursuing the CAPS curriculum were deterred by financial and study permit issues. Thus, all interested learners would easily access the CAPS curriculum locally at a much cheaper cost.

In September 2008, the South African High Commissioner in Eswatini responded by notifying U-TECH that a delegation from the National Department of Education would visit U-Tech led by the Chief for National Examination, Assessment and Measurement (Republic of South Africa, 2008a). In November 2008, the Chief for National Examination, Assessment and Measurement wrote a letter detailing the plans to implement the project which would be known as the U-Tech Project. It would be a historic event for the Swazi learners to study and write the NSC examination in the Kingdom (Republic of South Africa, 2008b). The launching of the NSC and NC (V) by the South African Chief for National Examination, Assessment and Measurement took place in the same month. In attendance were not only the U-Tech Management Board and Parents' Committee but also representatives from MoET, universities, colleges and civic groups. Although, the MoET came on board to support the introduction on the CAPS curriculum, there were misgivings on the part of some ministry officials who felt that the transferred curriculum would marginalise the existing local curriculum. However, the MoET continued to play a central role by paying teachers' salaries and learners' school fee subsidies in the public schools that offered CAPS curriculum. The MoET also remained a link to the officials at the South African national Department of Basic Education.

A series of Memoranda of Understanding (MoU) between the government of the Kingdom of Eswatini and the government of the Republic of South Africa on cooperation in the field of Basic Education were initiated. The first MoU in 2008 reiterated the South African Government's commitment to upholding the Millennium Development Goals as cited by the United Nations General Assembly (UN, 2009), especially in terms of all nations' obligations to the SADC region. Of significance, was Goal number eight which stresses the notion of the development and sharing of best practice (UN, 2009).

However, in 2009, when the South African Department of Education spilt into two ministries, namely, the Department of Basic Education and the Department of Higher Education, the

process of drafting the MoU lost momentum as the channels of operation changed. Nevertheless, this did not deter U-Tech from starting preparations for the initiation of the CAPS curriculum in 2010. In 2009 curriculum development courses were organised with schools and district subject advisors in KZN and Mpumalanga Provinces to prepare U-Tech teachers for the new curriculum. Schools such as Lincoln Heights in Newcastle, South Africa, were identified and approached to assist U-Tech teachers with CAPS curriculum development issues (Kingdom of Eswatini, 2009; South Africa, 2009). Later that year, a meeting was held at U-Tech between various stakeholders, including MoET officials, representatives from institutions of higher learning in the country, parents' committee members, representatives from the Directorate of National Examination, Assessment and Measurement in South Africa and members of civic society. At this meeting not only did the MoET pledge to take a leading role in pursuing the U-Tech Project but the institutions of higher learning also promised to admit NSC certificate holders to their institutions. Clearly some would also enrol at South African institutions (Dlamini, 2009).

In 2010 U-Tech admitted the first batch of Grade 10 learners. However, in the same year, an emergency arose when learners from Eswatini who enrolled for NSC in neighbouring South African schools were required to have study permits as a prerequisite for their registration to write examinations in the country. Consequently, the Eswatini Government was approached by parents whose children had not been registered in South Africa. The MoET intervened by requesting U-Tech to allow those learners to write their NSC examinations at U-Tech. The MoET immediately requested the assistance of the South African National Department of Examination, Assessment and Measurement to allow the candidates to write their 2010 NSC examinations in Eswatini (Kingdom of Eswatini, 2010).

The Republic of South Africa's Chief Directorate of National Examination, Assessment and Measurement temporarily attached U-Tech to the Ehlanzeni District Education Department under the Mpumalanga Provincial Department of Education. However, U-Tech was not given a centre status as candidates were attached to another centre under the Ehlanzeni District. The Ehlanzeni District Examinations Department officials made numerous trips to Eswatini to inspect, prepare and assess U-Tech's state of readiness to run the NSC examinations. Since the CAPS curriculum includes a Continuous Assessment component that contributes 25% to the final subject mark of Grades 10 to 12 learners, the teachers were trained and attended robust curriculum development workshops with special emphasis on managing School Based Assessment (SBA). U-Tech was attached to the Ntiyi Circuit near the border with Eswatini

and where the subject SBA tasks were accessed with subject advisors assisting to moderate the tasks.

During the October/November 2010 examination period, examination papers were brought by car every day from the Ehlanzeni District Education Department office in Nelspruit to U-TECH. The Royal Eswatini Police (RSP) escorted the question papers from the border to the school and back with the candidates' answer scripts. Unfortunately, the synergy was very short-lived and in December 2010, the Mpumalanga Provincial Department of Education informed U-Tech of their inability to continue assisting Eswatini learners to write the NSC examinations across the border (Republic of South Africa, 2010).

As a result of the Mpumalanga Provincial Department of Education discontinuing their assistance to U-Tech, a meeting was held in July 2011 at Pietermaritzburg between U-Tech and the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) Provincial Education officials at which the South African Directorate National Examination, Assessment and Measurement advised U-Tech to become attached to UDED under the KZN Province. In September 2011, officials from the KZN Provincial Education Department visited U-Tech College to assess the state of examinations readiness; later that month U-Tech was granted an NSC Examination Centre status as an independent school. The UDED adopted and assisted U-Tech with all curriculum development and examination management requirements by attaching U-Tech to the Emanyiseni Circuit near the border with Eswatini.

Meanwhile, negotiations were underway between the Eswatini and South African governments on areas of teaching the CAPS curriculum and running of the NSC examinations in Eswatini. A task team was set up by a delegation comprising officials from the ministries of education and foreign/international affairs of the two countries to draft a MoU that was to guide the implementation of the U-Tech Project. In the meantime, the Minister of Basic Education in South Africa wrote a letter authorising the transportation of the examination papers and the managing of the writing of NSC examinations at the U-TECH Centre by the UDED Examination Officials (Republic of South Africa, 2011). Subsequently, U-Tech was designated as the NSC Examination centre in Eswatini.

In 2012, the Cabinet of the Kingdom of Eswatini deliberated on and approved the request by the MoET to adopt a bilateral agreement on Basic Education between the Kingdom of Eswatini and the Republic of South Africa (Eswatini Government, 2012). Later that year a meeting was held in Pretoria between the officials of the two ministries; namely, the South

African Ministry of Basic Education and the Eswatini MoET. In addition, the Chief Director of National Examination, Assessment and Measurement in South Africa, the First Secretary of the Eswatini Embassy in South Africa, principal of U-Tech, the South African Directors for International Affairs and Curriculum, and the Chief Educational Specialist under the South African Ministry of Basic Education also attended the meeting. However, since the MoU had not been signed by the time the NSC examinations were about to be written, the KZN Provincial Department of Education did not have the authority to print, transport and manage the NSC examinations in Eswatini until a day before the examinations began. Later that year, the Head of Department (HoD) met with the Eswatini MoET officials to expedite the signing of the MoU.

In 2014 a second draft MoU between the governments of Eswatini and South Africa on cooperation in Basic Education was completed and presented to the two Ministers for approval/amendment. (Kingdom of Eswatini, 2014; Republic of South Africa, 2014). This second time, the MoU listed the areas of cooperation among others, as

- the registration of Swazi students in preparation for the writing of the South African National Senior Certificate examination in Eswatini with U-Tech as a centre under the supervision of the South African Department of Basic Education. The management and administration of examinations would be executed by the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Department of Education
- facilitating the SADC Protocols in education
- strengthening bilateral links between Eswatini and the Republic of South Africa by developing a global partnership for social development and cooperation.

Unfortunately, the delay in signing this MoU time led to some candidates not being able to write their examination papers. However, special arrangements were made for them to complete their examinations at the end of the whole examination session.

In 2015, the Eswatini schools offering CAPS were visited by the Director of South African National Examination, Assessment and Measurement together with officials from the South African Department of Basic Education and UMALUSI (the body that maintains quality within the South African education system). In 2017 the South Africa Minister of Basic Education communicated with the MoET in Eswatini that the holding of NSC examinations in Eswatini and anywhere outside the borders of South Africa would be phased out in November 2019 (South Africa, 2017). The circulation of this news prompted the Eswatini

parliament to table an urgent motion to address the issue. The Members of Parliament (MPs) blamed the Minister of Education and Training for the delay in signing the MoU, with the Minister of Education and Training reporting that he had been misled by two senior officials in his ministry (Sukati, 2017, p. 4). As one MP noted, the signing of the MoU was an opportunity that should have been seized without delay as it was expensive for Swazi parents to educate their children in high schools in South African high schools. The MP further questioned the Minister's refusal to allow parents to send their children to South African schools in the view of the fact, out of approximately 8500 Swazi learners who qualified annually for university education, 1500 only are absorbed by the local university with the rest being denied this opportunity. The parliament resolved that a committee be selected to engage the South African Department of Education with a view to expediting the signing of the MoU.

Despite all these attempts, visits and meetings, at the time of this study the MoU remained unsigned. The future of writing the NSC examinations in Eswatini hangs in the balance after 2019 which was the time scheduled by the South African Minister of Basic Education for stopping authorising the KZN Provincial Department of Education, to conduct examinations in Eswatini. Nevertheless, the Curriculum and Examination Departments under the uMkhanyakude District Education Department are continuing to assist the Eswatini cluster in curriculum management issues and the writing of the common tests that contribute to SBA. In addition, the subject advisors are continuing to invite Eswatini cluster educators to attend all workshops and are providing them with up-to-date the annual teaching programmes for each subject offered by the Eswatini Cluster.

Over the years, schools that needed to offer the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini would approach U-Tech (the only centre in Eswatini) which eventually would orient the schools to the major requirements needed to implement the curriculum. The number of schools offering the CAPS Curriculum and the learners in those schools have increased, with the majority of the schools offering CAPS from Grades 8 to 12. Originally, the main purpose of implementing the CAPS in Eswatini was to enable learners to join South African universities. The provision eventually became a business venture as parents only needed the South African secondary school education. Children from EGCSE with a primary leaving certificate would easily cope with CAPS at the secondary level.The appendix 3 shows the trajectory of the number of schools that sat for the NSC in Eswatini, the total number of full-time and part-time candidates writing each year and the pass rates.

1.3. The problem statement

The implementation of a curriculum designed outside the country for another country with monitoring and support being sought across the border poses serious challenges (Jansen, 2004; Spreen & Vally, 2010; Steiner-Khamsi 2014; Tan, 2015). In order to be successful, the challenges of the implementation of education curricula which originate across the border need to be clearly evaluated, and well understood by the policy implementers. As Lor (2014) and Phillips and Ochs (2003) argue, there are contextual forces that must not be ignored during policy transfer as a successful policy in one country may fail in another country due to such contextual forces. The similarities and differences between the origin and the recipient countries, in addition to the potential effect of the target country on the internalisation of the education policies and the practices in the home country, must be considered. Scholars such as Dolowitz and Marsh (2000), James and Lodge (2003) as well as Evans and Davies (1999) have also asserted that policy transfer has a higher chance of failure if its original goal is different from the one set in the home country. The stakeholders in this research included the school management teams (SMT) that oversee the management of the curriculum in the schools; teachers who impart subject content knowledge to the learners and sometimes have to travel to South Africa for curriculum development workshops and SBA moderation; parents who have not only opted for this curriculum but also pay for the services; the South African Department of Education officials who manage and monitor the curriculum across the border and the Eswatini Education Department officials under whose authority the schools where the CAPS curriculum is implemented fall. Accordingly, this study sought to explore the experiences of the stakeholders in their day-to-day processes of implementing and monitoring the CAPS across the Eswatini- South African border.

1.4. Rationale for the study

Since 2010, I have been motivated by various factors to undertake this study, in particular, the steadily increasing preference for the CAPS curriculum over the national EGCSE curriculum in Eswatini. Also, my interest was drawn by the prevailing cross-border curriculum implementation and running of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini with the relatively good NSC results as presented in (Appendix 3). Moreover, this was an interesting case of borrowing a curriculum that has itself been borrowed from another country and revised. In addition, the paucity of literature on this type of policy borrowing motivated me to undertake the study.

Contrary to the process of policy borrowing usually being initiated by governments who then embed what is borrowed in the country's existing curriculum through a process of movement and translation (Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012; Burdett and O'Donnell, 2016; Dolowitz and Marsh, 2011; Hongbiao, 2013; Leang 2012; Lor, 2015; Raffe, 2011; Khamsi, 2010).Based on the research by McKenzie et al., (2015) and Phillips and Ochs (2003), the curriculum transfer in Eswatini portrayed a different scenario, with the CAPS curriculum being transferred and implemented without any modifications. The authors argue that, for a country to reform its curriculum, there must be either a strong belief on the part of the curriculum designers in that country that something is sufficiently wrong with the prevailing curriculum or a consensus about possible solutions. The reform should be informed by contextual factors such as strategic plans, trade unions and the laws in the country in question.

However, in the case of Eswatini, the curriculum transfer was initiated by the parents who opted for a different curriculum. Unlike the assertion by Beyer and Davis (2012), and Zhu, Ennis, and Chen (2011) that the process of curriculum implementation requires educators to be supported and professionally developed on how to adapt the curriculum material, the situation in Eswatini differed in that the cross-border monitoring and support appeared to be the only avenue to assist CAPS teachers in Eswatini. Lastly, as argued by Hongbiao (2013) and Phillips and Ochs (2003), the implementation of a curriculum designed in South Africa for South Africans in Eswatini represents a conflict with the conventional knowledge on policy borrowing in that curriculum implementation should, in addition to addressing the country's problems, be consistent with the culture, laws and aspirations of the people in such country. Similarly, the drafting of the CAPS curriculum in South Africa was based primarily on the democratic values enshrined in the South African Constitution (Republic of South Africa, 1996) and Ball (2012) and Maguire, Ball and Braun (2010) further argue that the way in which educational policy is enacted depends on environmental factors and institutional factors such as the culture and ethos of the country in question. Accordingly, there was no information on implementation in Eswatini of a curriculum designed in another country under different contextual forces with such curriculum being supported and monitored from outside the borders of the recipient country in the existing literature.

It was hoped that the study would make a contribution to the theoretical and practical literature on policy borrowing, especially on how the role players, other than government policy actors, may influence curriculum transfer- a school curriculum may be taught in one country while support and monitoring tools are sourced and controlled in a foreign country

and how the curriculum content designed for one country under different contextual forces may be effectively implemented in another country.

1.5. Purpose statement

The purpose of this study was to explore the stakeholders' (educators, SMTs, parents, South African and Eswatini officials from the ministry of education) understanding and experiences of transferring and implementing a curriculum designed in one country into another country. Accordingly, the study explored the processes of policy transfer and how CAPS stakeholders in Eswatini understood and experienced the phenomenon of policy transfer. The study investigated the understanding and experience of Eswatini high school stakeholders in relation to the implementation of CAPS in their high schools. Thus, the proposed research sought to answer the underpinning research questions.

1.6. Research questions

Research questions are regarded as guides that may help point towards specific areas of theory under investigation and helps in designing the study (Maxwell, 2008). Since qualitative studies reveal how people experience and think about events and social relations, it is essential that qualitative research questions take advantage of the unique capabilities exhibited by the respondents. Agee (2009) argues that, in qualitative studies, there is a continuous process of questioning, which then becomes an integral component of understanding the unfolding lives and perspectives of others. Thus, the research question(s) should articulate exactly what the researcher intends to find out. Although most qualitative research questions are linked implicitly to the specific field of study, Agee (2009, p. 434) posits that "qualitative research questions deal with describing states and processes". She further argues that the questions should be focused on both the particularities of the local and the thick description of human interaction in the context in question, exploring either how people experience an event or the perspectives of the participant. Finally, Richards (2005) notes that research questions should be answerable in the given researcher time frame and resources. Therefore, against the above background of the study, the researcher set out to answer the following central research question:

How do Eswatini high schools' stakeholders understand and experience the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in their schools?

This key question led to the following sub-questions:

- What factors contribute to the demand for CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?
- How is the CAPS curriculum implemented in Eswatini high schools?
- What are the challenges involved in implementing the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini high schools?

The factors that led to the adoption of a CAPS curriculum are categorised as pull and push factors. In the context of this research, pull factors are those factors that attracted Eswatini parents to the CAPS curriculum while push factors are the factors that pushed parents away from the local curriculum (EGCSE).

1.7. Research design and methodology

It was felt that the research questions would be better answered by adopting a qualitative, multi-site-case study approach. An interpretative paradigm was used to explore participants' experiences, the processes followed and the meanings attached to the findings. Interviews and document analysis were conducted in a convenience and purposive sample of the four schools selected from the 13 schools that offered the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. The study initially targeted 42 participants of who included principals, heads of departments (HoDs) parents and educators. Also interviewed were Eswatini subject inspectors from the three administrative regions in which the schools operated. The participants also included subject advisors, examination specialists and circuit managers from the uMkhanyakude District Education Department (UDED) in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) in South Africa. The primary data collection instrument used was semi-structured interviews. The data consisted of interview transcripts, historical records, memoranda and letters between the schools and the Department of Education officials in South Africa. The interview memoranda were transcribed and coded using Atlas-ti software. Each theme was analysed to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' perceptions and motivations regarding the phenomenon under investigation.

1.8. Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework for the study emerged from the two policy borrowing models provided by Phillips and Ochs (2003) and Dolowitz and Marsh (2000). The model proposed by Phillips and Ochs (2003) is premised on a four-phase process which include cross-national attraction, decision making, implementation and internalisation. On the other hand, the model suggested by Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) model presents the concept of 'continuum' to explain the degree of policy transfer. The resultant framework helped me to explain how implementing the transferred curriculum was challenging as well as relate the research topic to the wider spectrum of knowledge. The framework incorporated the factors that lead to policy transfer; role players in policy transfer; processes for transferring and implementing the borrowed curriculum; and the challenges that are involved in the transferring and implementing such a curriculum.

1.9. Organisation of the thesis

The chapters in the thesis are outlined as follows:

Chapter One introduces the study by explaining the background to the study, stating the research problem, explaining the rationale for the study and the aims and objectives of the study as well as stating the research questions. In addition, the methodology and the research framework used are briefly discussed. The chapter demonstrates the demand for the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini and the channels parents followed to enrol their children for this curriculum amidst all the challenges that exist. The initial literature review shows that countries are sometimes attracted to foreign curricula and policy agents in the borrowing countries and then decide on the aspects of the curriculum to borrow in order to strengthen the existing curriculum.

Chapter Two provides a comprehensive review of available relevant literature on the reasons for policy transfer in the light of the existing global forces that emanate from: globalisation; neoliberalism; knowledge economy as well as domestic and international laws and conventions. The literature also highlights the various types of policy borrowing together with the conditions necessary for successful policy transfer. In order to understand the success or failure of policy transfer, I also had to review existing literature on curriculum implementation including planning, enacting, adopting, adaption, and evaluation. The gaps in the literature that prompted this investigation were also identified. In the view of the fact that Eswatini government policy actors were less involved in the implementation processes, the

implementation of the borrowed curriculum lacked the planning and designing phase. In addition, the policy transfer was initiated by parents with the monitoring support sought from the lending country.

Chapter Three explains the genesis of the theoretical framework that was used as a lens through which to analyse the data which had been collected. After reviewing the relevant literature on the research topic; stating the problem statement; and formulating the research questions, the chapter presents a theoretical framework based on the theories, ideas and models of other researchers on the topic of policy borrowing. The ideas of Phillips and Ochs (2003) and Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) were found to be very useful in explaining the findings; drawing genuine conclusions; and suggesting relevant recommendations based on the study.

Chapter Four presents the detailed strategy which was used to carry out the research. It discusses the research instruments used in the study and explains the choice of the research design and the methodology. An in-depth view of sampling methods, data collection strategies, data analysis and data interpretation as well as the steps taken to enhance the credibility of the finding and ensuring ethical standards were adhered to is provided with the chapter discussing why and how the specific research actions were taken.

Chapter Five presents the data that was collected and the processes of coding and the categorising of the various topics and themes to make sense of the data. The semi-structured interviews and document analysis revealed the reasons behind the Eswatini parents' attraction to the South African curriculum; the way in which the curriculum was transferred and, eventually, implemented; and the challenges encountered in transferring the curriculum.

Chapter Six analyses the data that was collected using the theoretical framework to compare the data with the existing literature on education policy transfer and implementation. The data analysis helped me to identify areas where the data collected was either consistent or inconsistent with the existing literature on policy transfer. Although the parents had achieved their objective of enabling their children to access the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini, the transfer had overlooked key processes that are essential when a curriculum is borrowed from elsewhere. The study presents a unique case of policy borrowing that was initiated by parents and by educational entrepreneurs who seized the opportunity to open private schools with a view to making money.

Chapter Seven is the last chapter and presents both the conclusions and recommendations for future research. In short, the study demonstrated that the parents are key partners when governments decide on the curriculum policy it wishes to offer. With the growth of social media, information on education provision diffuses easily through borders and parents with disposable income are able to decide on the type of education they deem to be fit for their children.

The findings revealed that Eswatini parents were attracted to the CAPS curriculum because, on completion of high school, the learners were able to gain access to the South African and other universities abroad at ease. Compared to the sole public university in Eswatini which offers limited courses only, there are numerous universities in South Africa which offer more professional courses. However, the implementation of the transferred curriculum was faced with numerous challenges that included both contextual suitability and the lack of proper training of all the stakeholders in Eswatini who were tasked with implementing the CAPS curriculum.

1.10. Conclusion

This chapter provided the introduction to the study as well as an overview of the background to the study. In addition, the research problem, the purpose and the significance of the study were discussed and a summary of the research methodology, data collection and data analysis presented. The next chapter will contain a review of the relevant literature that guided the researcher.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant literature on curriculum policy transfer. Since curriculum is a policy document, the first section of the literature review discusses the nature of policy with a view to understanding the nature of policy as well as its enactment, transfer and implementation. The review also identifies the pull and push factors that lead to stakeholders such as educators, school governing bodies, parents, learners and employers in one country preferring a foreign curriculum to their own. In addition, the literature review focuses on the transferring and implementing processes from a point at which notions to adopt a foreign curriculum policy is conceived of to the point at which the curriculum is fully adapted in the recipient country.

In particular, the literature on curriculum policy transfer provides not only knowledge on education policy and its mobility but also on the causes, challenges and evaluation of policy transfer. In addition, the relevant literature offers information on improving the process of curriculum transfer. A discussion on globalisation and neoliberalism has also been included in order to understand the context of policy transfer, not only as a precursor of a knowledge economy but also as a facilitator in relation to the flow of information between nations with minimum state control. The impact of globalisation, neoliberalism and the knowledge economy on the global education agenda is analysed in order to understand the consequences thereof.

Moreover, not only does the literature review identify the contextual factors affecting the successful implementation of a curriculum policy derived from elsewhere but it also identifies the similarities and differences between the prevailing and existing traditional approaches to curriculum transfer so as to draw lessons in order to avoid the possibility of transferring a curriculum policy based on people's own perceptions. Furthermore, by unpacking the processes of curriculum design, adoption, enactment and adaption, the experiences of stakeholders and the processes involved in the curriculum policy transfer from South Africa to Eswatini are explored with a view to identifying the gaps that informed this research. The chapter also highlights the researcher's own understanding of the processes of curriculum policy transfer, as supported by the literature review, in an attempt to evaluate the

challenges encountered in transferring a CAPS curriculum designed in South Africa to Eswatini.

2.2. Policy and its transfer mechanism

Various definitions of policy have been proposed different writers. While Bates and Eldredge (1980, p. 12) refer to policy as: "a statement that provides a guide for decision-making by members charged with the responsibility of operating the organisation as a system", Brooks (1989, p. 16) defines policy as "the broad framework of ideas and values within which decisions are taken and actions, or inaction, is pursued by government in relation to the problem". Whereas Lor (2015) and Legrand (2012) regard policy as a "statement or principle of action adopted or proposed by a government, party or individual to solve a problem affecting the public", Dolowitz and Marsh (2012) refer to policies as guidelines embodying a principle or set of principles intended to guide future decisions although policy conjures up more complex political processes involving human agency. In short, all the definitions above portray policy as a set of principles, agreed upon by the policy enactors to guide a course of action towards a certain goal or to solve an impending problem.

Many scholars, including Raffe (2010), Legrand (2012), Dolowitz and Marsh (2012), Lor (2015), Hongbiao (2013), Phillips and Ochs (2003), and Stone (2010), have written extensively on the topic of policy transfer. Not only have they provided an insight into policy transfer by explaining the reasons why some nations prefer foreign curricula to their own (national curricula), but they have also formulated a framework for analysing and understanding curriculum policy transfer. In particular, Dolowitz and Marsh (2000 coined the concept of 'policy continuum' to explain the different types of policy transfer. The actors who are usually engaged in this exercise of curriculum policy transfer process are suggested by Stone (2010) to include, but are not limited to, political parties, bureaucrats, transnational corporations, think tanks, supra-national governments and non-governmental institutions.

2.3. Types of policy transfer

There are various ways in which the process of curriculum policy transfer is manifested. The literature on comparative studies on education uses terms like: policy borrowing (Hongbiao, 2013; Noah, 1986); lesson-drawing or policy learning (Raffe, 2011); policy convergence; policy diffusion (Rogers, 2002; Stone, 2010); policy copying and emulation (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2011); policy assimilation and appropriation; and hybridisation (Dolowitz & Marsh,

2011) to mean the different processes of policy transfer. Although these terminologies and their focus vary, nevertheless all are concerned with the process by which policy attributes, in the form of goals, policy structure and content, ideologies, administrative arrangement, institutions and ideas and attitudes as well as negative lessons in one country may be used in the development of policy administrative arrangements, institutions and ideas in another country (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000; Legrand, 2012; Stone, 2010). The next section briefly describes some of the different approaches of policy transfer.

The first approach is policy learning. According to Raffe (2011, p. 2), policy learning refers to a process of "drawing valid policy lessons from cross-national comparison and a country's own policy history or from more effective flows of information between the contexts of policy and practice". The recipient country takes time to study the original country's system(s) and the information gathered is then used to design a policy that fits the home context.

The second approach is known as policy borrowing and is a process whereby countries search the international policy experience for the best transferable practice. Hongbiao (2013, p. 350) refers to policy borrowing as a process whereby international experience is learnt for the purpose of transferring the best practices back home. As Noah (1986, cited in Phillips & Ochs, 2003, P. 452), argues, policy borrowing resides not in the wholesale appropriation and propagation of foreign practices but in a careful analysis of the conditions under which certain foreign practices deliver desirable results, followed by a consideration of the ways in which to adapt such practices to conditions prevailing at home. Thus, policy borrowing involves investigating what is happening in other systems of education in order to learn by means of example, to make adjustments and to explore the possibilities for reform at home. The model of policy borrowing proposed by Phillips and Ochs (2003) was adopted as a theoretical lens for the purposes of this study and is elaborated upon later in Chapter 3.

The third approach is policy diffusion. Rogers (2002) and Stone (2010) refers to policy diffusion as the process through which an innovation or policy is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system. The policy decisions in a given country are systematically conditioned by prior policy choices in other countries. Diffusion suggests a natural, autonomous process and comprises the four elements of "innovation, communication channels, time and social system" (Stone, 2010). What is transferred is referred to as the innovation while the communication channels are the porous

mechanisms that sieve the information from outside the country. The media often plays a significant role is selecting the data to present to the public. The time taken for the policy to diffuse through the border is crucial in that the shorter the time, the better the process.

Policy copying is the fourth approach and involves a direct and complete adoption of a programme in use elsewhere without any changes (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2011). Policy copying may be verified by examining the wording of the policy copied whereas emulation takes place when a country considers a particular policy elsewhere as a basis for designing a policy at home. This type of transfer resembles the policy transfer under study. It assumes that the contextual factors relevant to both the source and recipient countries are the same. However, there is no such a thing as a homogeneous environment even if the two countries are neighbours

The fifth approach is policy hybridisation, also referred to as policy synthesis. This refers to the situation when "two or more policies from different countries are combined together to form one desired policy at home" (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2011, p. 371). The policy actors take time to scout around for the qualities desired in the new curriculum policy. Based on contextual factors, features copied from various curricula are then put together to design a new curriculum.

Alternatively, policy transfer may be classified as either soft or hard policy transfer. In soft policy transfer, norms and expertise are spread between nations with the state playing a lesser role while, in hard policy transfer; there are policy tools, laws, and practices which are pursued by the state or any other transferring agency. Dolowitz and Marsh (2012, p. 370) note that, initially, most studies concentrated on the hard transfer of policy instruments, institutions and programs between governments but, with the advent of globalisation, the soft transfer of ideas, ideologies and concepts as well as elements of policy started to circulate among non-state actors. Hence, the curriculum transfer under investigation in this study may be seen as a soft policy transfer.

2.4. Reasons for transfer

Various reasons drive nations to adopt foreign curricula. The descriptors suggested by Phillips (2015) and Phillips and Ochs (2003) that lead to cross-national attraction include the antecedents that foster policy borrowing and which encompass impulses and externalising potential. These scholars explain that impulses are internal preconditions that attract policy

borrowing. Creeping internal dissatisfaction, system collapse or dissatisfaction with existing policy create a demand for alternative curricula. Poor results in international comparison, alignment and obligations as well as research findings may also bring a country to the realisation that the existing curriculum requires reviewing. Furthermore, innovation in knowledge and skills and political change or opportunism, as being pushed by economic change or competition, may also force a country to import a curriculum from those countries which are deemed to be prosperous. Other impulses that lead to policy borrowing include a similarity in language and/or institutional arrangements, ideological compatibility, regional or local configurations (e.g. globalisation and neoliberalism) and uncertainty.

Other scholars such as Dolowitz and Marsh (2000), Steiner-Khamsi (2014) and Lor (2015) have also provided reasons for policy borrowing. They introduced the concept of the ‘space-gate’ moment and externalising potential that lead to policy borrowing, arguing that, for policy borrowing to occur, there must be a deficiency with the existing system. According to Lor (2015), for a successful policy transfer to take place, there must be a space-gate moment. This space-gate moment refers to the window of opportunity during which circumstances are propitious for transfer (Lor, 2015). Thus, the space-gate moment implies that a curriculum policy transfer is facilitated when a particular policy or practice exists in one country at a time when circumstances in another country make it receptive for the implementation of the policy in question. Hence, it is incumbent on the policy actors to evaluate foreign policies before adopting them.

2.5. Degrees of policy transfer

The degree of policy transfer refers to the extent to which a policy is transferred. Some policies are transferred in their entirety while, with others, desired component only is transferred. Based on the relationship that exists between the recipient and the source of policy, two types of policy transfer, namely, voluntary and coercive transfer are identified. It is, however, sometimes, not easy to distinctively differentiate between voluntary and coercive transfers although, by using a continuum process of policy transfer, it is possible to easily examine the extent to which the borrowing is happening/has happened. The concept of a continuum suggests that there is no clear distinction between a coercive and a voluntary transfer with Dolowitz and Marsh (2011) maintaining that policy transfer is not an all-or-nothing process. This offers an explanation for the transfer of policies in different ways leading to various types of degrees of policy transfer. These varying degrees are best viewed

using a continuum, with voluntary and coercive transfers at the extreme ends of the continuum. All the types of policy transfer lie on this continuum with the continuum running from lesson-drawing to the direct imposition of the policy. The various degrees that exist, ranging from the voluntary end to coercive end, include photocopying; emulation; hybridisation; synthesis; disciplined inspiration; adaption; selective imitation; non-transfer; failed transfer; and the transfer of negative lessons (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2011; Rogers, 2009; Rose, 2002;).

2.6. Conditions for success and failure of policy transfer

For a curriculum policy to be successfully transferred and implemented, certain conditions have to be fulfilled. Since policy transfer is intended to address a particular policy, issue or problem, the way in which data is used for the intended use depends on a range of factors associated with both the policy making environment and situations which are often beyond the control of those who initiated the transfer process (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2012). A policy designed outside the country targets the problems of the source country at particular time. Dolowitz and Marsh (2012) further argue that the main challenge involved in transferring a foreign designed curriculum emanates from the difficulty in involving new actors and institutions in use of the transferred information.

There is significant emphasis in the literature, on policy transfer successes. However, policy transfers do sometimes fail. The failure or success of policy transfer may be gauged by the extent to which a policy realises the aims it was intended to achieve. Failures in policy transfer have been attributed to searching for a policy in a hurry as an instant solution to an urgent problem. However, a policy transfer conducted in haste is unlikely to be successful due the limited time accorded to the processes of searching for appropriate models (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000). Accordingly, the assumption that which are policies successful in one country will be successful in another is a fallacy as the transferred policy often exposed to overwhelming cultural, ideological and contextual challenges. As Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) and Phillips and Ochs (2003) explain, this assumption often causes problems. Firstly, the uninformed policy transfer results in the borrowing country acquiring insufficient information about either the policy or the institution in question and how borrowed policy operates in the host country, thus resulting in operational problems. Secondly, in the context of curriculum transfer, the incomplete curriculum transfer of crucial elements that ensured the success of the policy or institutional structures in the host country may lead to the non-functioning of the

curriculum within the new environment. Thirdly, and also specifically in the context of curriculum transfer, an inappropriate transfer arising from insufficient attention being paid to the differences between the economic, social, political and ideological contexts in the host and target countries may lead to the non-compatibility of the curriculum implementation. If not addressed before a curriculum is transferred, all these problems may lead to the failure of the curriculum implementation.

Furthermore, Dolowitz (2011, p. 372) suggests that “other intervening factors that constrain policy transfer (to) involve 'cognitive' obstacles and domestic public opinion in the implementation phase in the recipient country”. In the transfer phase Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) cite either peer-to-peer constraints or the constraints that exist between two governments and which may impede the transfer. Dolowitz (2011) explains that policy makers are sometimes not willing to move beyond the status quo unless there is a shock or a significant failure. Other obstacles may result from the programmatic characteristics of the policy or exporter jurisdiction versus importer jurisdiction and their wider social and policy context, which may in turn impede the transfer process.

The contextual forces which affect both the stages before and after policy development are discussed in the next section.

2.7. Effect of contextual factors on policy transfer

Context plays a vital role in any discussion on curriculum policy transfer and implementation. In the literature on curriculum policy transfer, the term context refers to the “institutional or administrative framework in which the innovation is sourced and introduced; and the broader societal milieu or circumstances in the source and recipient countries at the time of transfer” (Lor, 2015, p. 102). Lor (2015) further opines that “if the context from which the borrowed policy is different from the context in which it is to be implemented and this is not taken into account, the transfer may fail”. Basing on the literature on information systems design for developing countries, Lor (2015) suggests various contextual gaps that may result in incompatibility between the borrowing and lending countries. Firstly, there are the hard-soft gaps which are caused by the technology (hard) and the context of the social, economic and political (soft) differences in both the source and recipient countries. Secondly, private-public gaps may also render the compatibility difficult as policies that work in the private sector may not necessarily work in the public sector. Thirdly, there are country-context gaps

because policies that work for the developed countries may not work in the less developed countries.

Thus, transferring a curriculum across a border often involves surmounting numerous barriers as a curriculum designed elsewhere is being 'transplanted' to several cross-cultural, ethnic and communities. For this reason, Lor (2015, p. 102) posits that, for a policy transfer to be successful, there should be at least a degree of congruence between the source and recipient contexts. Failure to take contextual factors into consideration may lead to policy failure. The next section discusses some of the recent examples of curriculum policy transfer in South Africa, Namibia and South Korea.

2.7.1. Curriculum transfer in South African, Namibia and Hong Kong

The failure of the implementation of Outcomes Based Education (OBE) also referred to C2005 in South Africa, was clearly articulated by Jansen and Christie (1999) who blamed the failure on both a lack of adequate information supplied to the teachers on the new curriculum policy as well as the complex vocabulary which resulted in the intended policy implementers finding it difficult to understand the processes. The implementation failure was also attributed to the scale of unpreparedness (especially in the case of the majority of black teachers), miscalculation and a failure to understand the environment in which the policy transfer was to be implemented. Eventually, it emerged that the protagonists of C2005 were merely seeking a curriculum which would undo the apartheid policies but without placing much emphasis on curriculum change. Scholars such as Harley and Parker (1999) criticised the OBE notions of "all children could learn" and "there are no pupil defects" but advanced the notion that learning is about the "learners' realisation of innate potentialities that simply need the right environment to develop". According to these scholars, the right environment for the successful implementation of C2005 did not exist. However, it is also important to note that, even if there had been knowledgeable teachers, the implementation of the C2005 in South Africa was bound to be difficult because the environment in the country in the wake of apartheid was totally different to that in the countries where OBE had originated (New Zealand and the United Kingdom).

Furthermore, Jansen and Christie (1999) notes that, despite the teachers being referred to as the implementers, a small elite group of teachers, experts and white educators drove the learning area committees while the majority of the teachers were not informed about OBE. Nevertheless, these untrained teachers were expected to understand the new terminology and

facilitate and monitor school-based assessment activities. In addition, OBE placed significant emphasis on outcomes than on content capacity, in spite of content being required to achieve the outcomes.

In Namibia a classical example of curriculum transfer failure is represented by the implementation of Life Sciences in the Namibian school curriculum after Namibian had gained its independence from South Africa in 1990. Prior to independence, Namibian schools had offered the South African Bantu Education Curriculum. This curriculum was premised on white supremacy, racial and ethnic oriented (Jansen, 2004). Life Sciences was intended to spearhead not only the education reforms, but also the social reforms in order to eliminate the racial inequalities that had characterised pre-independence education (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). While in exile in Zambia, SWAPO members had been impressed by the way in which Life Sciences were taught in Zambian schools.

The initial opposition to the transfer and implementation emanated from the bureaucrats who linked the transfer to political transformation. However, as Chisholm and Leyendecker (2008) pointed out, the eventual failure of the implementation of Life Sciences was neither due neither to the political link nor to the lack of resources. Firstly, there was a failure to articulate the actual application of the learner-centred education and the scope of the intended change. Secondly, the instructional methodologies and Life Sciences curriculum never resonated with the local culture, classroom realities and social expectations of the Namibian people. Thirdly, there were few Namibians with the expertise required to monitor, assess and/or teach this curriculum. This forced the implementers to retain some Afrikaner bureaucrats as well as allow an influx of foreigner expertise to teach and as Jensen (2004) argues, allowing such critical positions to be occupied by Afrikaner conservatives and foreigners undermined both the transformation and the implementation process. Finally, the decision to transfer was a “quick fix” which was carried out in the haste to correct the past imbalances while teachers outside of Windhoek were not involved in the decision-making process although they would have to implement of the curriculum.

One success story of curriculum transfer happened with the curriculum transfer between Hong Kong and the United Kingdom (UK). While curriculum transfer is often a one-way process the curriculum borrowing between Hong Kong and the United Kingdom was a two-way borrowing process with where both countries borrowed from each other. The transfer of the curriculum took place when Hong Kong was a colony of the United Kingdom. During

this time Hong Kong modelled its education curriculum on that of England until the late 1960s when it became autonomous although it then still continued to offer the same curriculum in its schools. In 1997, when Hong Kong entered the one-country-two system model, it gained autonomy from China and took greater control of its education system than had previously been the case. Hong Kong worked to improve on the education policy it had borrowed from United Kingdom (Forestier & Crossley, nd) to suit the Hong Kong context. This saw Hong Kong join Singapore and Shanghai to become one of the high performers in international rankings under PISA. This high performance prompted the United Kingdom to emulate some of the educational policies their former colonies Hong Kong and Singapore were offering in schools.

According to Forestier and Crossley (nd), the secret behind Hong Kong's success was its approach to teaching and learning which involved a culture of 'learning to learn' instead of traditional text-book teaching; exploratory activities and project work in scientific literacy and generic skills that included critical thinking and problem solving. Hong Kong also introduced 'reading to learn' for the purposes of reading literacy. The policymakers capitalised on both their strengths and weaknesses. This was in line with the Confucian heritage cultural context that advocates accommodation and compromise with the traditional and progressive approaches such as memorisation and understanding, collaboration and competition and the didactic and constructivist being intertwined. Thus, as Leang (2012) and Steiner-Khamsi (2010) point out, both simplistic borrowing and uncritical international borrowing from high achieving countries that are insensitive to local context are likely to fail. In order to ensure that Hong Kong education system succeeded, it mixed local cultural factors and historical circumstances. It also diverged from the colonial transferred model and merged the borrowed concepts of lifelong learning, assessment for leaning, learning skills and key learning areas with school accountability and varied pedagogical approaches to better cater for learner differences (Forestier & Crossley, nd., p. 8, 9). In addition, during the implementation stage, both supporters and opponents were involved in the enactment of the desired changes. Due to the robust engagement of teachers, the school based assessment (SBA) mechanism was modified and monotonous paper work discarded. Furthermore, the success of Hong Kong may be attributed to the lack of political interference by the state. The "policy making process was to be driven by educational values and evidence not politics, but strive for balance and commitment to genuine and sustained consultation" (Foreister &

Crossley, nd., p. 17). The next section discusses the effect of some global phenomena on curriculum policy transfer.

2.8. Global phenomena that drive curriculum policy transfer

Neoliberalism and the associated notions of globalisation and the knowledge economy form part of the context in which some transferred curricula are implemented. Accordingly, this section attempts to identify the impact of these phenomena on both education and the process of curriculum transfer.

2.8.1. Globalisation

According to Hongbiao (2013), globalisation refers to “the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole”. Hongbiao (2013) argues that globalisation has led to the export of theory, policy and practice from some systems that are regarded as developed to the systems that are still developing. It may also be said that globalisation is partly to blame for placing limits on state autonomy and national sovereignty by removing competence from the national context and undermining the institutions which civil society uses (Torres, 2002). Globalisation may also be associated with the increasing integration and movement of people, ideas and cultures within countries, across national borders (Apple, 2011; Matus & McCarthy, 2003). Educational globalisation is believed to have been prompted by the combination of the economic restructuring in the world and also the powerful ideological conceptions of how education delivery needed to be changed with in a competitive global market. Consequently, the majority of the nations of the world have restructured their education systems to accommodate the demands of the economic competition for human qualities (Hongbiao, 2013). However, as McKenzie et al. (2015, p. 323) note, “as policies move from one location to another, they are also transformed through the process of movement and translation” and, thus, they end up not achieving the same results as were achieved in the source nation. This suggests that policies are not static but are a dynamic mechanism which depend on the space and time in which they occur.

Torres (2002) and Tchamyou (2017) further argue that globalisation is responsible for the emergence of global knowledge economy, the expansion of the transitional linkages between economic units, thus creating new forms of collective decision making, the development of inter-governmental and quasi-supranational institutions and the intensification of transnational communications and the creation of new regional and military order, among others. Globalisation has also brought about changes in education through Education For All

(EFA) and other global declarations and schooling as well as serving as a ceremonial induction into modern society as it symbolically transforms society (Torres, 2002). Globalisation further facilitates the comparison between different curricula in the world through communication channels that are not state controlled. By comparing the different curricula, the protagonists of curriculum transfer choose the curriculum they deem fit for their children.

The literature on globalisation and internationalisation offers a sound explanation as to why policy-makers are influenced by factors beyond their borders (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2012; Legrand, 2012; Stone, 2010). Following the above line of thought, it may be said that the most recent curricula reforms taking place in sub-Saharan Africa are being partly influenced by the globalisation forces as globalisation increases the demand for education that equips the learner to compete in the global job market upon completion of his/her decision. In the era of globalisation, the integration of education policies has become a universal characteristic of educational reforms with educational policies and practices from mainly western systems being either imported or simply diffused across borders to blend with those in the traditional systems, thus creating a new curriculum (Daun, 2007; Hongbiao, 2013) that is then adapted to enable the country in question to meet the ever changing global needs. To this end, globalisation is one of the most significant externalising potentials that encourage curriculum policy transfer. As Crossley (2008) and Ellili-Cherif, Romanowski and Nasser (2012, p. 472) posit, the commodification of the education sector draws close to the concept of transferring educational policies from one national context to another. Accordingly, the next section discusses the emergence and effects of neoliberalism on the provision of education.

2.8.2. Neoliberalism

Neoliberalism is a policy that was originally economic in nature (with connections back to liberalism), but now goes beyond economics. Neoliberalism supports a global free market without government regulation, with business and industry being operated for profit by private owners. However, Ball (2012) argues that the transferred policies cost money which most sub-Saharan African countries are not able to afford. This leaves the privatisation of education as the only option to provide quality education. Hursh and Henderson (2011) also suggest that neoliberal economic and education policies have had devastating consequences not only for economic and environmental reasons but for education as well. They argue that neoliberalism has created a free-market economy which has exacerbated inequalities as well

as undermining education by increasing the gap between the rich and the poor (Giroux, 2010; Hursh & Henderson, 2011).

Meanwhile, on the global scene, neoliberal policies are often imposed on less developed countries (LDCs) by the Western countries through the World Bank and IMF policies using loans and grants that are contingent economic structural adjustment programmes (Giroux, 2010). However, the introduction of these policies is limiting the role of government in the running of the state business in most sub-Saharan African countries. On the other hand, however, Hursh and Henderson (2011, p. 173) opine that "the neoliberalism creates a good business climate to optimise conditions for capital accumulation regardless of its impact on employment and social wellbeing". Hence, the anti-neoliberalism proponents argue that the normalising of individualism and entrepreneurialism, corporate profitability, equating individual freedoms with self-interest choices, making individual citizens responsible for their own well-being and defining citizens as consumers and clients have exacerbated the income inequality in the world (Giroux, 2010; Hursh and Henderson, 2011). This has also spilled over into the education sector where the middle-class citizens prefer to send their children to private schools in search of the quality education which, it is believed, will help them to become prosperous by propelling them into a highly competitive job market. As a result, private schools charge high school fees which often prevent learners from financially struggling parents from attending such schools, thus creating a class-divided society.

Just like in most sub-Saharan countries, the drastic increase in the student population at public schools in Eswatini may be blamed on: the Millenium Development Goals (MDG 2) that aimed at achieving universal primary education by 2015 (UN, 2000); and the emerging of sustainable development goals (SDG 4) aiming at ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education as well as promote lifelong learning opportunities for all (UN, 2015). Without infrastructural and human resource investment amongst others to match the unprecedented student enrolment, the increase in student population is hindering efficient and effective teaching and learning and therefore adversely affecting the standards of education at public schools. As this has become a serious bottleneck to the provision of quality education through the public school system, private schools have sprung up. The tension between public and private provision of secondary schools has risen necessitating the state to engage with the rapidly growing private sector to find amicable solutions for the two sectors to co-exist. The tension is partly addresses by SDG 4 by suggesting that issues of equity need structural transformation in the education sector as both public and private schools facilitate

learning (UNESCO, 2015). For the above reasons, neoliberalism may be considered as one of the factors that drive the protagonists of curriculum policy transfer to outsource an alternative curriculum outside their countries.

As demonstrated thus far, the commodification of education has led the proponents of policy transfer searching for the best curriculum policies that enable their children to become marketable persons. The next following section discusses briefly the concepts of knowledge economy and quality education with a view to understanding their contribution to the protagonists' desire for a curriculum that prepares learners to navigate the challenges of the 21st century.

2.8.3. Knowledge-based economy

This section explores knowledge as commodity and as more tilted towards neoliberalism. Noddings (2018) refers to knowledge as an objective that is attainable through either reasoning or experience while Godin (2008: 7) relates knowledge to "anything that is known by somebody". Hence, a knowledge-based economy is based on knowledge and ideas where the key factor in prosperity and economic growth is the superior knowledge of capitalisation dominated by the global influences (Tocan, 2012). The United Kingdom White Paper, (cited in Peters, 2009) defines a knowledge-based economy as one in which the generation and the exploitation of knowledge plays a predominant part in the creation of wealth. It is an economy that depends entirely on the production and distribution of knowledge (OECD[2], 1999). A knowledge-based economy is dominated by the transformation of the knowledge into the base materials, capital, products and production factors which are essential for the economy and through the economic processes whereby the generation, selling, acquisition, learning, stocking, developing, splitting and protection of knowledge becomes vital for economic growth, wealth creation and employment. Thus, a knowledge society thrives on the notion that knowledge which is created must be shared for the purpose of improving the general wellbeing of the people as well as ensuring that the knowledge thrive. The parents seem to compare different curricula in search for 'quality education'. The next section briefly discusses what quality education entails.

[2] Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development: An intergovernmental organisation composed of 36 members, concerned with multilateral development.

2.8.4. Quality education

The term 'quality education' is widely used in the education sector, thus making it difficult to define. Quality education is a dynamic concept whose definition depends on the relevant stakeholders' expectations. In addition to literacy, numeracy and life skills, quality education is also linked to components such as the quality of the teachers and the availability of essential teaching and learning materials. Curriculum content, teaching methods, examination systems and the school management also have a direct relationship with attainment of quality education. Pre-school education and English proficiency as well as the socioeconomic status of the parents and the neighbourhood also have a direct impact on the provision of quality education.

Thus, the notion of quality education and its quantity are not straight-forward concepts. Nevertheless, some International Standardised Achievement Tests (ISATS) that base the judgement of the provision of quality education on the learners and school characteristics have been put in place to use and to compare the education systems of different countries (Patrinos & Angrist, 2018). These tests include PIRLS[3], TIMSS[4], PISA[5], and SACMEQ[6]. However, scholars such as Sellar and Lingard (2013) cast doubts these assessments. They argue that the success in international tests reflects the quality of formal schooling and policies forgetting that historical, cultural, social factors outside the school have a bearing on learners' performance. However, these international benchmarked assessment processes do not provide us with information on the employability of the final product of a given curriculum despite the fact that employability is one of the characteristics of quality education.

Accordingly, Pigozzi (2010) suggests that children should learn the right things that will enable them to forge ahead in a fast-changing world as well as prepare them for their adult roles as creative thinking parents who are able sustain themselves and contribute to the well-being of their families, countries and societies. From the parents' perspective, the type of education that enables their children to break through employment barriers constitutes quality education. Therefore, quality education is needed to drive neoliberalism and the knowledge

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[3] Progress in International Reading, Literacy Study. Assesses learners on Reading Literacy.

[4] Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study. Tests 4th and 8th Graders every 4 years on Mathematics and Science skills.

[5] Programme for International Student Assessment. Covers 15 -year-old learners' literacy levels in Reading, Mathematics and Science.

[6] Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality. Assesses 6th Grade learners' abilities in Mathematics and reading English.

economy. Consequently, the desire for a better future drives parents, scholars, policymakers and governments to search for quality education curricula that will equip their children with both competitive and survival skills. Since a transferred curriculum has to be implemented in the recipient country before it may be evaluated, the next section reviews the literature basing on curriculum implementation. This next section explores ways and means for implementing a borrowed curriculum.

2.9. Implementation of a transferred curriculum policy

According to Zhu et al (2011), curriculum is a policy of planned education experiences for both students and teachers, offered by the schools and which may take place both within and beyond the schools. Curriculum implementation in schools also manifests itself as a change process in which one curriculum replaces another. Hongbiao (2013) and Phillips and Ochs (2003) proposed three phases that make up curriculum change namely, initiation, implementation and institutionalisation. Initiation refers to the beginning phase during which curriculum implementers prepare and plan for the new curriculum. Implementation involves the translation of what have been officially designed into syllabuses, schemes of work and lessons to be delivered to students (https://www.reserachgate.net). The institutionalisation of the curriculum entails the integration and blending of the implemented curriculum into the local contextual realities. Hongbiao (2013) and Phillips and Ochs (2003) further explain that curriculum implementation is driven by the processes of adoption, enactment and adaption where adaptation refers to the suitability of context as well as the support or resistance from the various policy actors. The process of curriculum transfer involves reform processes that facilitate the curriculum implementation. These processes include reform goals, curriculum structure, curriculum standards, teaching and learning, the development of the teaching material, curriculum evaluation, curriculum management, teacher training and the organisation of curriculum reform (Phillips & Ochs, 2003). For a successful curriculum implementation to be achieved it is essential that all these processes are addressed.

Accordingly, the curriculum implemented by any state should be able to address the problems of the country and also be consistent with the culture and the aspirations of the people. For example, when China was implementing a new curriculum borrowed from the West, it aimed at establishing a system of basic education consistent with the requirements of quality-oriented education that would cultivate among the students a spirit of patriotism, collectivism and love for socialism as well as inheriting and carrying forward Chinese traditions

(Hongbiao, 2013). In South Africa, the education transformation was based on the democratic values enshrined in the South African constitution namely, “social justice and equity, access, redress, credibility, quality, efficiency, non-racism and non-sexism, human dignity, open society, accountability, respect, rule of law and reconciliation” (Republic of South Africa, 1996). Therefore, before a curriculum is chosen, it is imperative that the local context is assessed together with the aspiration of the people. The desired aspects of the curriculum are then imported to strengthen the already existing curriculum.

In view of the fact that curriculum implementation is not an event but, rather, a change process, another type of curriculum implementation termed enactment, emerged. This model refers to the intra-contextuality of the change process and explores how meaningful educational experiences are shaped by the evolving constructs of both the teachers and the students (Bolin, Snyder & Zumwalt, 1992). During this stage, the lived experiences of the implementers are incorporated into the already designed curriculum.

2.9.1. Factors that affect the implementation of a curriculum

The value of the curriculum depends on its straightforwardness as well as responsiveness to the needs and interests of the community as well as learners it serves. According to Hipkins, Cowie, Boyd, Keown and McGee (2011), curriculum management requires an effective team that quickly detects and reinforces the functioning components of the curriculum and adjusts the non-functioning components. In addition, the teachers must be guided and mentored by their supervisors, for example, heads of department and principals, on how to effectively use the curriculum materials. This has a greater impact on student learning than teacher characteristics such as education level, and experience as well as knowledge of the subject (Stein & Kaufman, 2010). Stein and Kaufman (2010) argue that teachers, especially more experienced teachers are more likely follow the curriculum when their beliefs are in alignment with the pedagogical orientation of the programme. Otherwise, if their beliefs are in conflict with the underlying programme theory, they may be resistant to using the curriculum material and may leave the learners to rely on the curricular material.

Unfortunately, as Greyson and Rogan (2003) note, policymakers and politicians are too often concerned with 'what' is desired in the curriculum change and they neglect the 'how'. Referring to the education changes in the United States and Australia, Greyson and Rogan (2003) observed that policymakers are too often concerned with creating policy by enacting the relevant legislation but neglecting the implementation. The poor implementation of what

was initially a good curriculum results in poor outcomes. Therefore, giving attention to the implementation phase is crucial to successful curriculum change as schools differ in different ways including educational structures, educational programme, social services and availability of scholastic materials.

On the other hand, Scott (1994, p. 157) argues that "spending money on new programmes, introducing new textbooks, providing for mainstreaming, focusing on school climate, and providing incentives for teachers without attending to the administrative subsystem that includes budgetary, emotional, collegial and administrative support is recipe for failure". He explains that the implementation of a curriculum is a continuous process that involves the growth and development of the organisation through specific processes that meet the organisation's needs and are geared to solving the existing problems. He also highlights that there must be a meaningful role in staff development decisions emanating from the top-down curriculum interface. It is vital that the curriculum change meets the needs of the classroom. The teachers, as the main role players in curriculum implementation, should be given sufficient support to enable them to acquire the new skills, time and resources required to accomplish the task.

Although teachers control not only the rate but also the degree of change of any curriculum, decisions, are, in many cases, made elsewhere. Teachers are usually called upon only to perform the classroom activities. However, this often isolates the teachers from their colleagues and the change process and may also add to the general teachers' apathy towards the work of the teachers who lack public recognition, professional support and adequate resources with which to teach. Therefore, at all stages of the decision making, teachers should be involved in the decision making to avoid any duplication of effort since they are the ones who will be affected by the decisions taken. By integrating the curriculum planning, monitoring, evaluating and staff development phases, the teachers will be fully involved and made to own the change process.

2.9.2. Processes of curriculum implementation

In an attempt to understand the implementation process, there must be attention paid to curriculum planning, enactment, adoption and adaption and the evaluation of the implementation process in relation to the transferred curriculum policy. The cyclic process mentioned above follows sequentially.

The first two phases are curriculum planning and enactment or design. The planning phase quickly feeds into the design phase. The design process begins with planning with all the stakeholders coming together and expressing their expectations and possible avenues to achieve their goals. The existing and the intended curriculum are compared during the policy enactment phase that also involve creative the processes of interpretation and contextualisation. As Ball et al., (2012, p. 3) articulate, this involves the "translation of texts into action and the abstractions of policy ideas into contextualised practices". Therefore, before the policy is enacted, it is imperative that the policy actors have a correct assessment of the situation. As Ball (2012) and Ball and Braun (2010) explain, ignoring environmental and institutional factors may lead to the policy being either constrained or disruptive. Although several of the policies implemented in schools are designed by government, "their agencies or other influential stakeholders, that assist to make policy at all levels negotiate, contest, or struggle between different groups who may lie outside the formal machinery of official policy making" (Ozga, 2000).

There are four different players in the curriculum policy enactment process (Ball et al., 2017). The process begins with the entrepreneurs and interpreters who drive the way in which policy is selected and understood. They are followed by the transactors and translators who are the middle level implementers who transform the texts into action and actions into outcomes. The critics and refusers then come into play to influence the policy direction and bring other rationalities into play. Finally, the copiers and the defenders, who are at the receiving end of the policy in the classrooms and corridors, put the curriculum into practice in the classrooms. Although the policy may arrive fully formed, putting the policy into practice is a creative, sophisticated and complex process. Therefore, based on Ball's (2017) assertion, policy may not be implemented as was envisaged, as the process of enactment often involves adhockery, borrowing, reordering, displacing, making do and reinvention by all the above stakeholders.

The second phase deals with the adoption of the curriculum policy. According to Rangaswamy and Gupta (2000) and Rogers (2003), adoption refers to the decisions that individuals make each time that they consider taking up an innovation with this process starting with the initial hearing about an innovation to the final implementation phase. Since two important elements of teaching and learning are content, assessment and pedagogy, the adoption of a curriculum depends on the factors that influence the decisions to adopt an innovation. These decisions hinge on the "attitudes of teachers towards the curriculum, organisational factors at a school and system level as well as personal characteristics such as

educational level, age, gender, educational experience" (Buabeng-Andoh, 2012, p. 136). Concerning the attitude of the teachers towards work, Lorsbach (2008, p. 77) explains that "teachers with limited time for planning and little intellectual contact with their professional colleagues are unlikely to redefine curriculum content radically". Referring to the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development's (2006) findings on the teaching time and teachers' working time in several countries, Lorsbach (2008) found that primary teachers in the United States spent the greatest amount of time teaching as compared to primary teachers in Finland although Finnish learners achieved high scores in international tests. He attributed this to the Finnish teachers spending considerably less time teaching and more time planning as compared to their counterparts in the United States.

The third phase is the adaption of the implemented curriculum. According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2019), adaptation refers to the process of changing to 'fit some purpose' or 'situation' while Meidl and Meidl (2011, p. 16) regard curriculum adaptation as a portrayal of the ways that the participants 'tweak the curriculum'. By 'tweaking the curriculum' Meidl and Meidl (2011) refer to the way in which the curriculum is perceived to be adapted in creating a 'good programme' with what works in the classroom and what does not work. They argue that the educators adapt a curriculum when it conflicts with what they believe is good teaching. Adaptation is assisted by curriculum integration which combines supplementary resources with the existing curriculum to fill the gaps or meet student needs where the core curriculum is perceived not to do so. Furthermore, the teachers' use of curriculum adaptation and integration to make curriculum decisions is based on both their beliefs about creativity and the best practices learned throughout their experiences (Meidl & Meidl, 2011; Remillard, 2005). Carrim (2013, p. 51) refers to these best practices as "strong and effective leadership; effective teaching; motivated teachers and learners; proactive teachers, transparent as well as timely in dealing with conflict". These practices are essential if teachers are to successfully adapt the curriculum materials in response to the needs of the learners and specialised contexts.

Curriculum evaluation constitutes the final phase of the curriculum implementation process. It involves an assessment which is intended to check whether the implemented curriculum is compatible with the environment in which it was implemented. Therefore, curriculum implementation involves an internalisation process of assessing the impact on the existing system where the motives and objectives of the policymakers are examined in conjunction with contextual factors existing at the time (cultural relativism). In order to evaluate any

curriculum implementation exercise, Stufflebeam and Zhang (2017) suggest the application of the CIPP evaluation model which comprises the four aspects of context, input, process, and product. Beginning with context evaluation, the educational needs of the country are assessed in line with the prevailing context. Next, the prevailing problems are identified and possible solutions suggested by conducting a stock-take of the assets and human resource available. Lastly, curriculum implementers must make informed decisions based on goals and priorities.

2.10. Sustaining a transferred curriculum

For a successful curriculum policy transfer to be maintained there must be ways in which to nourish and sustain the transferred curriculum. It is, therefore, vital that the implementers are up-to-date with the ever-emerging global education trends. This requires the teachers to keep abreast of new trends in their fields of expertise. Day (2002), Ball and Cohen (1999) and Laal and Salamati (2012) identify lifelong learning, continuous professional development for teachers and school leadership as mechanisms that enable teachers to remain updated with the emerging trends in relation to teaching a responsive curriculum.

As Hipkins et al. (2011) explain, a responsive curriculum "openly creates an environment for lifelong learning where everyone is a learner" and, when everyone is a learner, "learning becomes a key focus for the organisation and mistakes or weak areas are quickly seen and expertise called in to assist". King (2011) and Singh and Little (2011) also argue that formal and informal education as well as lifelong learning whereby individuals undergo lifelong learning at their workplace have become a global process, mandated effectively by a global culture that nations may ignore at the peril of their economic growth.

On the other hand, continuous professional development (CPD) of teachers may be said to include any activity which is aimed at enhancing the knowledge and skills of teachers through orientation, training and support (Lessing & De Witt, 2007). CPD is often referred to as in-service education or staff development and serves different purposes. Firstly, the teaching profession often includes a number of unqualified teachers. Certification of these unqualified teachers improves the profession by giving these teachers a sense of belonging. Secondly, CPD assists in "upgrading and preparing teachers for new roles through refresher or curriculum dissemination courses" (Ono & Ferreira, 2010, p. 1). CPD is achieved through workshops, seminars, conferences or short courses. However, these medium are sometimes

criticised for being fragmented, brief, incoherent encounters that are decontextualised and isolated from real classroom situation (Ball and Cohen, 1999).

Nevertheless, the success of any curriculum implementation depends on the school environment which, in many ways, is shaped by the prevailing leadership style. Leadership is seen as an interactive process between all role players rather than the performance of a single person. Effective leadership facilitates curriculum implementation management through all the phases - beginning with curriculum enactment up to the evaluation stage. According to Choi, Cho and Lee (2014), good leadership style during the curriculum implementation stage as important as the decisions made. The types of leadership that creates a conducive environment for the implementation of a transferred curriculum include instructional, distributed, shared, team, democratic and transformational leadership (Carrim, 2010). These types of leadership all embrace team work with individual stakeholders' suggestions and input being respected and capitalised for the purpose of achieving better results for the school in question.

2.11. Conclusion

The literature review revealed that for a curriculum to be transferred from one location to another there should be desired qualities which are targeted by the recipient country. A curriculum policy transfer is presented as a systematic process whereby the recipient country prepares for the transfer and imports mainly what would strengthen the existing curricula. The literature links curriculum policy transfer to globalisation (that blurs national borders), neoliberalism (that advocates for the privatisation of the means of education provision) and the emergence of the knowledge economy that compels parents to seek a curriculum that will enable their children to compete in the competitive job market.

Therefore, the type of education envisaged by the curriculum transfer protagonists is one that fosters job creation and bridges the gap between high school and tertiary institutions. The literature also revealed that these protagonists are sometimes driven by the desire for quality education. Although it is not easy to define quality education, it is often regarded as a precursor to prosperity and easy integration into the job market. Based on the literature reviewed, it is clear that the planning and enactment phases are crucial stages as they contextually align the transferred curriculum to the environment in the recipient country.

However, the literature fails to account for the type of curriculum policy transfer and implementation processes where the planning and designing phases are omitted as in the case under study. The literature is also silent on curriculum transfer which is initiated by parents with minimum government involvement. Accordingly, this study entered the debate by exploring the processes and challenges involved in such a curriculum transfer and implementation.

The study used the conceptual lenses on policy transfer of Phillips and Ochs (2003) and Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) which then extended by the existing literature on curriculum transfer. The theoretical framework which underpinned the study is discussed in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Introduction

A theoretical framework is the model that a researcher chooses to adopt as a lens through which to analyse the research findings. The definition of the word theory assisted me to understand the meaning of a theoretical framework. According to Creswell (2008), Imenda (2014) and Hitchcock and Hughes (1995), theory is specifically concerned with the development of the knowledge of the social world by employing the use of interrelated concepts, synthesis, models, structures, beliefs and ideas to make statements about events or activities, with a view to analysing their causes, consequences and processes. In addition, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007, p. 22) posit that theory helps an interpretive researcher to account for human and social behaviour; understand the interpretations of the world as well as attach meanings which yield insight into and an understanding of people's perspectives on the phenomenon under investigation.

In the research context, based on the problem statement, the theory sets the stage as a blueprint for the representation of the research question that drives the investigation (Agee, 2009). According to Imenda (2014), a theoretical framework refers to the application of a set of concepts drawn from the theory in an attempt to offer an explanation of the phenomenon under investigation. The theoretical framework further provides reference points back to the literature, assisting the researcher to make meaning of the data which has been collected and provide a structured approach to communicating the findings (Smyth, 2004).

As a whole, the theoretical framework which underpinned this study helped me to steer the whole study and served as an anchor to the entire research. By having a focal point, I was able to understand the processes involved in transferring the CAPS curriculum from South Africa and its eventual implementation in the selected high schools in Eswatini. In particular, the framework assisted me to formulate the research questions and also analyse and interpret the data which had been collected from the interviews and document analysis.

3.2. Theoretical framework for policy transfer

The literature makes mention of just a few scholarly attempts to theorise a framework for policy transfer. Notably, there are two outstanding models that I used to formulate a

theoretical framework to use in this study. The two models of policy borrowing, namely, those of Phillips and Ochs (2003) and Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) created a foundation for understanding the process of policy borrowing. The two models acknowledge that government is the main policy actor and are context-sensitive as they acknowledge that it is essential that both curriculum transfer and its implementation take into consideration the context of both the borrowing and lending countries.

The models form a sequence of events and processes that may provide an analytical tool with which to explain the transfer. The stages to be analysed in both models are almost similar, except for the way in which they are applied. I begin by discussing each of the two models used and then demonstrate how the research framework that I used to explain the transfer to and implementation of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini emerged.

3.2.1. Phillips and Ochs (2003) model

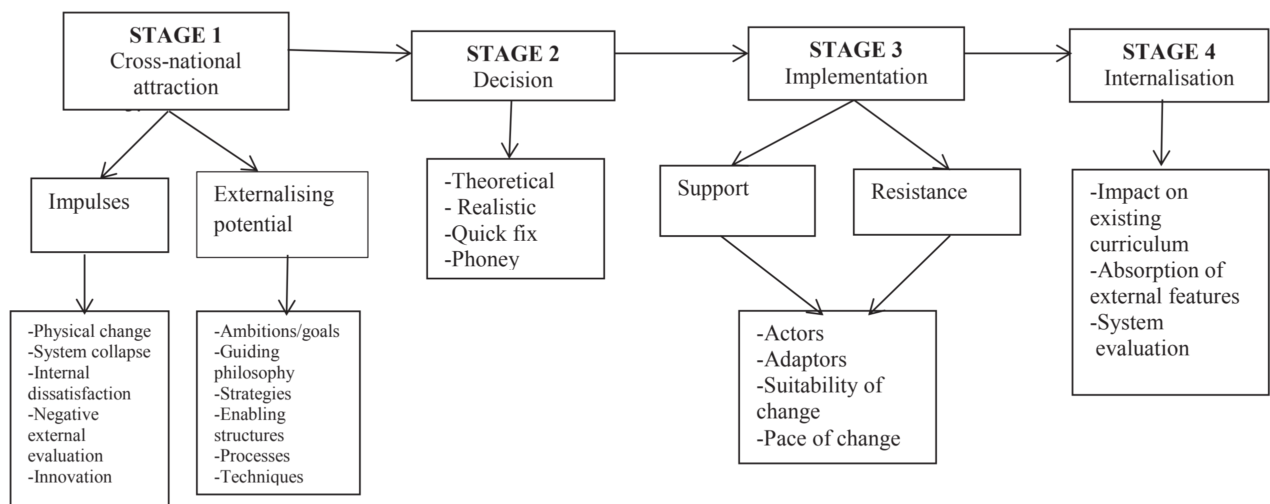

Figure 3.1: Graphical model for the framework of policy borrowing basing on Phillips and Ochs (2003)

The Phillips and Ochs (2003) model (POM) above illustrates the stages involved in POM. The model was developed based on observations of education borrowing between England and Germany after the Second World War (Chow, 2014). It was also used by Chow (2014) to analyse the impact of borrowing the New Senior Secondary (NSS) curriculum in Hong Kong in 2009. This replaced the Secondary School System that Hong Kong had had since 1974. The POM was also employed by Jansen (2004) and Spreen and Valley (2014) to understand the borrowing and implementation of the Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) in South Africa

that later evolved into CAPS curriculum. The (POM) (Figure 3.1) comprises a four-stage analytical model for understanding policy borrowing. The POM may be explained using a four-stage cyclic process that involves cross-national attraction, decision making, implementation and finally, internalisation (Phillips & Ochs, 2003).

3.2.1.1. Cross-national attraction

This stage is composed of stimuli and externalising potential (Phillips & Ochs, 2003). The stimuli are the preconditions for borrowing whiles the externalising potential refers to the prevailing circumstances at the time the borrowing took place.

Impulses

In this context the impulses are internal preconditions that inform the curriculum transfer. The impulses occur in situations in which policy actors decide that the future education policy will be influenced by more specific aims such as choice and diversity notions copied from elsewhere. Examples of preconditions include among others a creeping internal dissatisfaction on the part of the policy actors. This dissatisfaction may be caused by a system collapse that leads to poor results an international comparison benchmark; for example, TIMSS, PISA, PIRLS and SACMEQ. These ratings, as discussed fully in the literature review, are regional benchmarks that focus on recognised and measurable outcomes. Furthermore, as more people start to study and research, they start to compare their home policies with foreign policies. This leads them to critique their own domestic policies.

The other precondition is created when new politicians take office. New politicians tend to manipulate the existing policies to appease their electorate. This is sometimes done regardless of whether the old policy worked or not. This is usually done under the guise of searching for economic prosperity and better standing on the world stage. Countries' ambitions and goals as well as enabling structures and equipment may drive them to acquire a different curriculum. The availability of structures and equipment may also push countries to adopt curricula that will fully utilise such structures and equipment. Furthermore, the new world order; regional educational obligations or local configurations as well as the emergence of globalisation and neoliberalism have set preconditions with countries striving to acquire new skills in order to be competitive on the world stage. In the globalisation era, education is seen as the main driver of a country's competitiveness. However, the provision of free basic

education has compromised the provision of quality education and private education entrepreneurs have taken advantage of the situation to set up private schools.

Externalising potential

According to Steiner-Khamsi (2014), externalisation involves understanding why foreign policies should be borrowed. In addition, Lor (2015) argues that, for a successful policy transfer to take place, there must be a space-gate moment which provides a window of opportunity during which circumstances are favourable for transfer. The externalising potential of the recipient country represent the conditions that encourage curriculum change. Such potential consists of the guiding ideology of the education system of the other country as well as its ambitions or goals; strategies; enabling structures; processes and/or new skill requirements (Phillips & Ochs, 2003; Phillips, 2015). However, Phillips (2015, p. 138) notes that in studying foreign systems of education, we should not forget that "things outside the schools matter even more than the things inside the schools and govern and interpret the things inside". Furthermore, Phillips (2015) argues that there is much in a country's approach to education that may influence practice elsewhere. Nevertheless, "influence does not imply borrowing unless there has been quite a deliberate attempt to copy, appropriate and import" a policy or practice elsewhere which has been identified as being of potential value in the home country (Phillips, 2015, p. 138). A borrowed policy may either glorify or scandalise the home situation. Phillips (2015) argues that scandalisation dominates when successful practice elsewhere is used as an opportunity to criticise provision at home without taking contextual factors into considerations. After a policy agent has been attracted to another policy and the conditions at home are favourable for implementation, then decisions have to be made on the way in which to transfer the curriculum.

3.3.1.2.Decision making

The decisions to be made depend on either realistic or practical situations that include measures that have clearly proved successful in a particular location and which the country thinks will improve service delivery at home. There may also be quick fix decisions hurriedly made to solve an urgent problem. For example, quick fix decisions occur when politicians rush to fulfil their campaign promises without addressing fundamental contextual differences. Other decisions, which are regarded as phoney are meant to trick or convince people that a pending problem is being solved. Policy agents then engage in re-contextualisation after

decisions on “What to transfer?”, “How to transfer?” and “Where to transfer from?” are made. The next phase involves the transfer and implementation of the policy.

3.3.1.3. Implementation

The implementation stage begins with the policy actors modifying and appropriating policy reforms from elsewhere to fit the local context. The relevant stakeholders, in the form of actors and adaptors, as well as the contextual factors are identified to ascertain the suitability of the transfer and an attempt is made to address the anticipated challenges. Since policy borrowing is part of a change process, policy actors may either support or resist the implementation. Uncertainty is addressed by policy actors explaining to the policy implementers and all stakeholders the why, where and how questions to convince them to support the implementation.

During the implementation phase, there are three possible scenarios. Either the imported policy may completely replace the existing policy, a policy hybrid that involves elements of both the old and the borrowed policies is generated or the existing policy is reinforced (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014). In the case of a curriculum change, the pace at which curriculum change is expected to be executed is determined in consultation with all the stakeholders. However, despite the change of curriculum, care must be taken not to disrupt the teaching order. The policy then moves into the implementation phase during which the curriculum implementers (principals, heads of departments and educators) systematically implement the curriculum policy. After the policy transfer and implementation have taken place, the internalisation phase commences.

3.3.1.4. Internalisation

The internalisation phase involves evaluation to ascertain whether the curriculum transfer has achieved its intended purpose. During this phase the impact of the borrowed policy on the existing structures, policies, and practices is evaluated. If the borrowing country is happy with the results, the policy is adapted and the older policy set aside. At this stage, it is important that the policy actors guard against any deviation from the intended purposes of the original borrowed policy because as Burdett and O’Donnell (2016) posit, the re-contextualisation exercise may lead to policy being lost in translation. On the other hand, if the policy fails to meet the purpose for which it was intended, the entire process of transferring and implementation starts afresh or the whole borrowing intention is discarded.

While the POM model details the borrowing processes by separating the cross-national attraction and decision making, other scholars such as Steiner-Khamsi (2014) and Burdett and O'Donnell (2016) portray cross-national attraction and decision making as happening simultaneously. The next section discusses the policy transfer model of Dolowitz and Marsh (2000).

3.3.2. Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) model

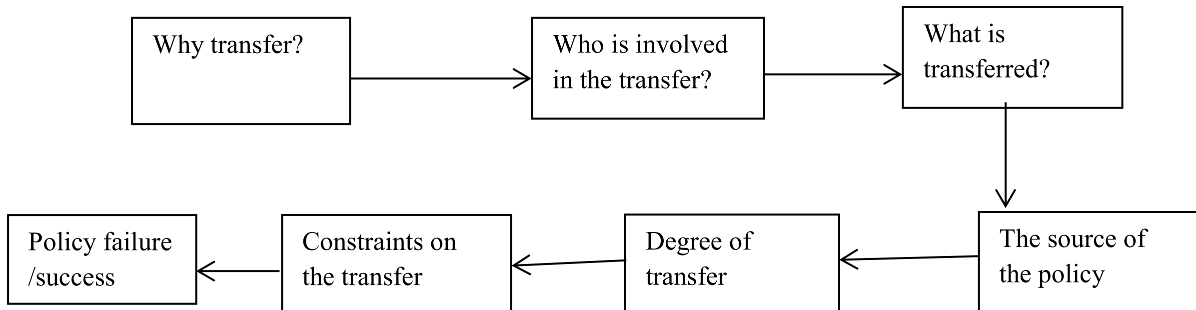

Figure 3.2: Graphical model for the framework for policy transfer basing on Dolowitz and Marsh (2000)

The Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) model (DMM) depicted in Figure 3.2 above uses questions to illustrate the process of policy transfer. In other words DMM uses questions such as 'Why transfer?'; 'Who transfers?'; 'What is transferred?' and 'Where is it transferred from?' to probe the processes behind the transfer of a policy. Like the POM, the DMM acknowledges that there are constraints which have to be overcome when transferring a borrowed curriculum. In the end, policy actors evaluate the success or failure of the transfer and either adopt the policy or begin the processes again.

In answering the questions posed in the model, the DMM suggests that a country's reason for borrowing a foreign policy may be dissatisfaction with existing policy or a desire to be aligned with international obligations. In addition, political opportunism, similarity of language or institutional arrangements, ideological compatibility, public disquiet, perceptions of policy failure, political competition and/or uncertainty may entice a country to adopt a foreign policy. According to Dolowitz and Marsh (2012, p. 340), "policy transfer is usually intended to address a particular policy, issue or problem". However, the way in which the transferred policy is used for the intended use depends on a range of factors which are often beyond the control of those who initiated the transfer process. The original reasons for the policy transfer may change as new actors and institutions enter the policy-making process bringing different sets of knowledge, interest and motivations in relation to the transfer and use of information.

3.3.2.1.Why the transfer?

Different policy actors have a range of reasons for transferring policies from elsewhere. The DMM suggests that both the supporters and the opponents of various policies use the lessons learnt elsewhere to gain an advantage in the struggle to get their ideas accepted. In attempt to explain why transfers occur, the DMM categorises policy transfer as either voluntary or coercive transfer. In voluntary transfer, the policy transfer is prompted by dissatisfaction or the failure of policies at home, for example, in the case of unemployment and financial crisis where there is uncertainty about the cause of the problem. Benson and Jordan (2011, p. 370) cite the major causes of dissatisfaction among policymakers as “being public disquiet, perception of policy failure by either government, the need to legitimate particular policy actions and uncertainty”.

Coercive transfer is broadly categorised as either direct coercive or indirect coercive transfer. According to Dolowitz and Marsh (1996), direct coercive transfer denotes a forced transfer and is applied only by supra-national institutions such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank when enforcing their programmes as conditions for their loans. On the other hand, indirect coercive transfer involves functional mutual interconnectedness between nations where countries come together to solve a common problem, for example, environmental, technology, economic integration and climate change policies.

3.3.2.2.Who is involved in the transfer?

Policy agents are needed to transfer a policy from one place to another. According to the DMM, the agents engaged in the policy transfer process are usually elected officials, political parties, bureaucrats or civil servants, pressure groups, policy entrepreneurs or experts, transnational corporations, think tanks, supra-national governments, non-governmental institutions, quangos and consultants (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996). However, when international organisations become involved in the policy transfer process, they often recommend that particular consultants be hired in exchange for financial help. Whereas political parties usually intend to drive their different agendas and ideologies, bureaucrats and civil servants tend to act under international pressure, cultural obligations, attitudes and institutions’ demands to borrow a policy.

3.3.2.3.What is transferred?

The DMM lists the transferred items as policy goals, content, instruments, ideas, ideology, administrative techniques, attitudes and concepts, programs and negative lessons. The DMM also highlights various scenarios, for example, policy actors may be concerned with the programme structure rather than the effects, both policy ideas and specific policy instruments are transferred or the borrower picks and chooses what to borrow in which case a specific policy idea is borrowed but the policy instruments are left out.

The transferred components may also be categorised as a hard and soft transfer. A hard transfer involves the transfer of instruments, institutions and programmes between nations while a soft transfer involves the transfer of the ideas, ideologies, concepts and elements of policy. However, Stone (2004) posits that both soft and hard transfers sometimes coexist and complement each other.

3.3.2.4.The source of the policy

The source of the transferred policy may be either endogenous or exogenous. According to the DMM there are various places where the policy actors may search for policies. Firstly, the logical place to begin when searching for lessons is endogenous as in the case of learning from the country's past. By examining the past, the DMM argues that policy agents learn not only what worked in the past but avoid repeating the mistakes of the past. Secondly, in nations where multi-party democracy exists, policy actors may also draw lessons from other political parties within the same nation. On the other hand, the exogenous policy sources are outside of the country's borders. For example, policies transferred from one nation to another. NGOs, think tanks, advocacy coalitions and inter-governmental bodies such as SADC are some examples of the transfer of policies from one nation to another. Countries and regional bodies that are regarded as 'policy leaders' indirectly export their innovations to other countries which willingly opt to emulate their policies. Policy leaders may be seen as the 'super pack' in quality education or thriving economies.

3.3.2.5.The degree of transfer

Unlike the POM, the DMM brings to the fore the concept of continuum in the debate on policy transfer. The policy transfer continuum refers to different types of degrees of policy transfer that may take place under any transfer process (Rose, 1993). The degree of policy transfer refers to the extent to which a policy is transferred. Basing on the DMM, all types of

policy transfer are placed on the continuum that ranges from voluntary to coercive policy transfer with a mixture of the two transfers in the middle. There is no clear boundary between adjacent policies. At the voluntary extreme end of the continuum lies lesson drawing where perfect rationality is applied and only those features missing in the home policy are transferred with a view to strengthening and improving the existing policy. On the other hand, on the coercive end lies direct imposition by outside forces, pressure groups, political parties, policy entrepreneurs and/or experts. These outside forces engage unilaterally in policy transfer without robust engagement with all stakeholders.

Voluntary **Mixture** **Coercive**
Lesson drawing ⟵————————————————⟶ Direct imposition
(Copying, emulation, hybridisation, synthesis, disciplined inspiration, adaption, selective imitation)

Figure 3.3: Graphical model for the continuum of policy transfer suggested by Dolowitz and Marsh (2000)

Figure 3.3 shows that in the middle of the continuum, there is a mixture of both voluntary and coercive policy transfer but that as the distance from the centre increases, the policy transfer becomes either more voluntary or more coercive. Unlike the previous scholars like Phillips and Ochs (2003), Dolowitz and Marsh (1996) distinguishes between policy copying, emulation and hybridisation. Copying occurs when a country adopts a programme in use elsewhere without any changes. This implies that, in copying, there is no change in the policy legislation. In policy emulation, a programme elsewhere is used as a standard for designing legislation at home whereas in hybridisation and synthesis policy elements found in two or more countries are combined to develop a policy which is best suited to the borrowing country.

3.3.2.6.Challenges to policy transfer

The DMM postulates that, when drawing lessons across nations, geographical propinquity does not equate with policy transfer because ideological and resource similarities are necessary preconditions when in adapting the transferred policies. Furthermore, Rose (1993) argues it is difficult to transfer desirable lessons if the implementation is beyond the country resource capabilities. Other constraints to policy transfer include path dependency arising from past decisions; institutional and structural impediments as well as insufficient technological, bureaucratic and political resources (Benson & Jordan, 2011).

In addition, Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) identify challenges to the transfer process under three transfer scenarios namely, uninformed, incomplete and inappropriate. In uninformed

transfer, policies are transferred with insufficient information with the elements that made a policy work in the jurisdiction from which it is being sourced being ignored. In incomplete transfer scenarios some policy features are transferred but others are left out. Unfortunately, the success of the policy in the original jurisdiction may have depended at least in part on the features not transferred, thus resulting in the failure of the transferred policy. Finally, in the inappropriate transfer, "insufficient attention is attached to differences between the economic, social, political and ideological contexts in the two countries" (Benson & Jordan, 2011, p. 372). The other challenges refer to application as they depend on the cost of institutional adjustments, domestic change and modification of the policy so that it may be transferred successfully.

3.3.2.7.Failure or success of policy transfer

As suggested by the DMM, the cross-national transfer is exposed to significant challenges that manifest as policy complexity when a recipient country lacks either the human or physical resources required to implement the policy. The role of policy implementers (on the ground) relates to Lipsky's notion of "street level bureaucrats" where it is argued that the necessary coping mechanisms that individual school personnel use to manage the demands of their jobs may constrain and distort the implementation of the new curriculum (Lipsky & Weatherley, 1977). Furthermore, negative publicity in the media may affect the environment in which the transferred policy has to be implemented by negatively affecting the appetite of the recipient and personnel to implement the policy. In addition, success or failure of past policies may impact on the new policy as people may fear change. Moreover, lack of structures and technology (hard and software) may offer an implementation challenge. Finally, ideological, cultural, economic, bureaucratic and language barriers may lead to a sound policy fail to yield the desired results. The DMM also suggests that for a policy transfer exercise to be successful, it is essential that it is understood by all the policy implementers in the recipient country. Such understanding and awareness may be achieved through both the print and electronic media, reports, conferences, meetings, visits and written or verbal statements.

The failure of a policy transfer may also be caused by the partial transfer of the original policy, whereby some components essential for the successful implementation of the policy are left out. Furthermore, policy transfer may fail when an inappropriate transfer takes place, as is usually the case in quick fix situations. The recipient country may, without thorough

study and assessment, transfer a curriculum policy only to realise that it is incompatible with the existing contextual realities.

3.4. The theoretical framework for the study

Using both POM and DMM discussed above, the framework in Table 3.1 was constructed to steer the investigation. Table 3.1 presents a synopsis for the creation of the theoretical framework using the two models.

Phillips and Ochs model	Dolowitz and Marsh model	Theoretical framework for the study
Cross national attraction (impulses and externalising potential)	Why transfer?	Reasons for choosing South African CAPS curriculum in Eswatini
Decisions for transfer	Who transfers and from where? Continuum transfer What is transferred?	Source and recipient countries Analysis of stakeholders Type of transfer
Implementation	How did the transfer and implementation take place?	Processes involved in CAPS transfer and implementation Challenges faced in CAPS transfer and implementation
Internalisation	How were the challenges mitigated?	Internalisation of CAPS curriculum
		Lessons learnt by role players Way forward Recommendations

Table 3.1 Constructing the Theoretical Framework for the study

Like the POM the theoretical framework used in the study involved a four-phase cycle. The first phase focused on cross-national attraction with the factors that pushed the protagonists for CAPS curriculum transfer to choose the CAPS curriculum being explored. Since the transfer of the CAPS curriculum to Eswatini had been initiated by parents, the policy actors in both the POM and DMM models were replaced by parents in the study framework. The model identified both South Africa and Eswatini stakeholders involved in the process of transferring and implementing the CAPS curriculum to Eswatini. While the stakeholders in South Africa include subject advisors; circuit managers; and examination officials from the uMkhanyakude District under KZN in South Africa, those in Eswatini include principals, heads of departments, educators selected from the four schools which participated in the study; the parents of learners enrolled at the time of the study or previously enrolled for the CAPS curriculum in any of the four selected schools and MoET officials such as the REO, national inspectors of schools and school managers.

Having identified all the relevant stakeholders, the next phase in the framework involved the re-contextualisation of the transferred curriculum. During this phase, the processes involved in the transferring, implementing and monitoring of the CAPS curriculum as well as the challenges experienced by all the stakeholders at each stage were explored. The next phase was the internalisation phase during which the implementation strategy and steps taken to mitigate the challenges experienced during the adoption of the curriculum were evaluated. Finally, based on the existing challenges, recommendations for improving the processes involved in transferring and implementing the curriculum were made. The theoretical framework that steered this research study is depicted graphically in Figure 3.4 below.

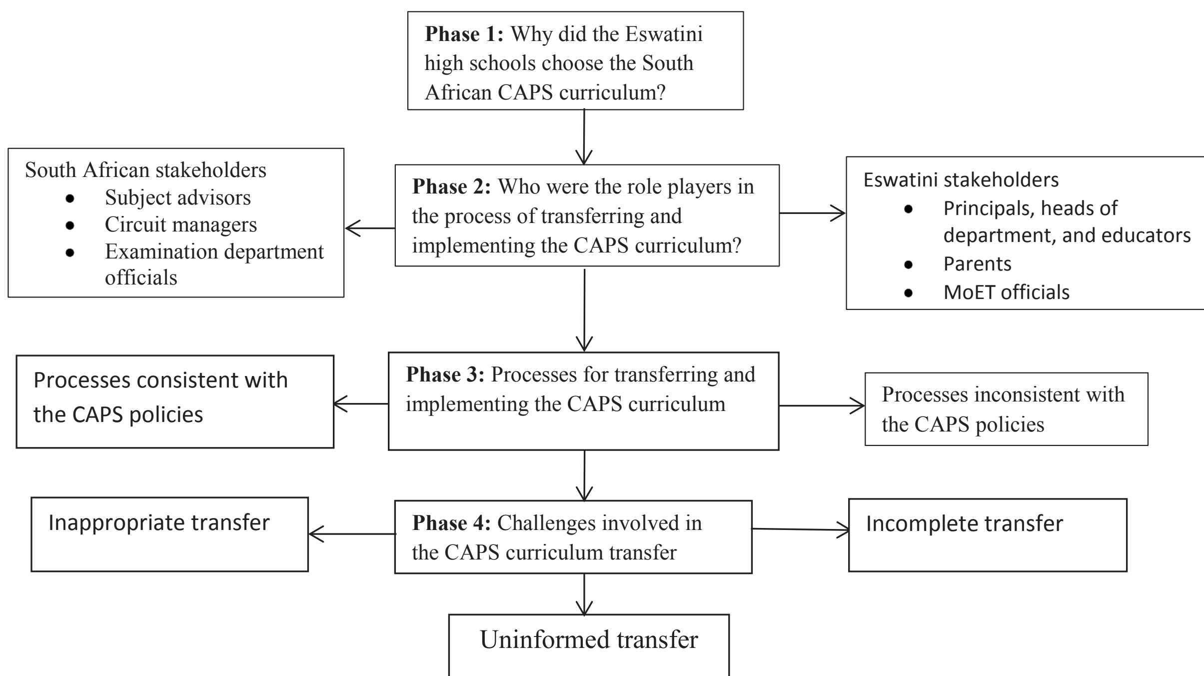

Figure 3.4: Theoretical framework (adapted from: Phillips & Ochs, 2003 and Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000)

3.5. Conclusion

The above discussion demonstrated the processes that were followed to generate the research theoretical framework using the POM and DMM. The framework was mindfully created to equip me with the tools required to investigate the push-and-pull factors that had an impact on the transfer and implementation of a curriculum designed in South Africa for South Africans to Eswatini countries with different contextual background and different goals. The

framework assisted me to explore the participants' experiences, perceptions and views on the transfer to and implementation of the CAPS curriculum in some Eswatini high schools.

The next chapter discusses the research design and research methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter describes and justifies the research design and methodology which were employed to explore the processes involved in transferring to and implementing the South African CAPS curriculum in selected high schools in Eswatini. According to Campbell (1999, p. 532), "research is a systematic approach to provide abstract and general answers to questions". The research methodology selected assisted me to understand the experiences and perceptions of the participants in the study. In an attempt to describe the research design and research methodology used, sub-topics such as research paradigm, approach, research design, selection of participants, data collection and data management as well as validity and ethical issues are explored in this chapter.

4.2. Research paradigm

I adopted a context-sensitive interpretivist world of view, which was best suited to the purposes of study as it added weight to the research by filling in the methodology gaps often overlooked by a most positivist approach. Bryman (1984), Filstead (1979) and Grover (2015) suggest the three principals of an interpretivist as: constructing meaning trough interacting with the world; making sense of the world basing on personal historical and societal perspectives; and the generation of meaning is social from and within the community. This study was informed by the ontological belief that truth is relative and is constructed by human beings as well as being situated within both a historical moment and a social context (Glesne, 1999). The interpretive paradigm is characteristic to qualitative research, not only because it accommodates multiple meanings but also because it is explanatory rather than providing casual explanations of human life. In addition, it seeks to deepen and extend the understanding of why social life is perceived and experienced in a specific way (Carr & Kemmins, 1986).

Epistemologically, the interpretive paradigm assisted me to work closely with the participants into constructing knowledge together by exploring their experiences as well as the processes and meanings attached to the research findings. In view of the fact that this paradigm addresses with the meanings and understanding of the participants' perceptions, I was able to answer the research questions. According to Cohen et al., (2007, p. 21), "an interpretive

paradigm has a concern for the individual, and is used to understand the subjective world of human experience". In addition, the interpretive paradigm also allowed me to interact with participants, thus allowing for the reality to be contextually subjective and constructed as the situation obtains on the ground. The interpretive paradigm presupposes that knowledge is fluid, socially constructed and everywhere and, therefore, "specific accounts inform each other as the world is unpredictable but constructed by individuals in myriad ways" (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009, p. 3). Consequently, the interpretive paradigm enabled me to recognise and interpret the data which was collected without either predicting or controlling the reality. In addition, the interpretive paradigm was reinforced by the constructive paradigm that views knowledge as socially constructed and changing, depending on the circumstances (Golafshani, 2003, p. 603). Based on the interpretive paradigm, I was able to probe for deeper understanding rather than relying on the first responses from the participants.

4.3. Research approach

The nature of the interpretive paradigm in terms of which truth is a matter of dialogue through a consensus emerging from multiple perspectives prompted me to adopt a qualitative approach. This approach enabled me to gather data that satisfactorily answered the research questions, thereby leading to an understanding of the phenomenon under study. Creswell (2008, p. 15) opines that "qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore social or human problems". In addition, Campbell (1999) and Golafshani (2003) highlight that qualitative research uses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings. For the purpose of this study, the contextual factors were crucial to the understanding of the phenomenon of transferring and implementing a foreign designed curriculum into Eswatini.

The qualitative researcher relies on the views of participants which emerge from asking broad and general questions as well as collecting data consisting primarily of words or texts from participants (Campbell, 1999; Creswell, 2008; Golafshani; 2003). I consciously and robustly conducted the inquiry in a subjective, biased manner. Qualitative research also deals with data in the form of words, pictures, drawings, paintings, photographs, films, videotapes as well as music or sound tracks (Merriam, 2002). Accordingly, Denzin and Lincoln (2000), emphasise that the term qualitative refers to "qualities of entries". This implies that a qualitative study tends to rely more on processes that are not experimentally examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency. In addition, the constructivist

nature of qualitative research demands that the methods used to understand the data, assumes multiple realities that are socially constructed through both individual and collective perceptions or views of the same situation (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

Underpinned by the interpretivist or constructivist paradigm, qualitative research portrays the world in which reality is socially constructed, complex and changing continuously. To this end, the characteristics of qualitative research that were relevant to my study included the research being conducted in a natural setting and the requisite collected using words and/or pictures (Adendorff, 2004). In addition, the outcomes were processed to arrive at my findings rather than conducting a product analysis focusing on particular aspects. This approach was deemed to be the most appropriate for the purposes of this study because I intended to uncover, explore and describe the participants' perspectives and life experiences in order to illuminate, understand and extrapolate to similar situations regarding the transfer and implementation of a foreign curriculum with support and monitoring emanating from outside of country in question.

4.4. Research design

A multi-site case study was thought to be well suited to this research at the study involved an examination of the specific phenomenon of transferring and implementing a curriculum policy across a border. I was interested in gaining an insight into this phenomenon through the interpretation of the data which had been collected. This approach was in line with Creswell's (2008) definition of a case study as an in-depth exploration of a bounded system, based on an extensive data collection. By a bounded system, Creswell (2008) and Cohen et al., (2007) mean that the case is separated out for research purposes in terms of time, place and physical boundaries. The case study helped me to explore the perceptions of the participants as the study portrayed what it was like to be in a particular situation and in so doing, captured both close reality and thick description. Furthermore, since a case is a unique bounded context that forms a unit, the four schools selected to take part in the study provided me with an opportunity to extend my research to compare data from different research sites. After cross comparing the data collected from these sites, I adopted a thematic analysis approach to analysing the themes that emerged from the data. This was done in order to "gain a fuller picture by focusing both within and across different sites" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 253). The case in question for this study was the transfer and implementation of a curriculum policy designed for South Africa into Eswatini. By collecting data from different sites, the

research took on the form of a multi-site case study. In line with the views of Nieuwenhuis (2010) a case study enabled me to understand how the participants interacted with each other in a specific situation and how they provide the reader with the phenomenon under study.

Using a multi-site case study, data was collected from four conveniently selected schools in Eswatini. The data collected in the four schools was reinforced by data which was gathered from other purposively selected stakeholders (parents, subject advisors and school inspectors) who were involved in the processes of transferring to and implementing the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. These stakeholders were purposively selected from two countries and included district subject advisors and district examination officials from uMkhanyakude District Education Department (UDED) in South Africa and the manager of the Emanyiseni Circuit KZN in South Africa while in Eswatini, the bounded sites included four schools offering CAPS in Eswatini. The other stakeholders included REOs in the Lubombo, Manzini and Hhohho administrative regions as well as the Under Secretary and the Senior School Inspector from the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET). The boundaries were a defining factor in the study as they enabled me to understand the process of transferring and implementing a curriculum across a border.

4.5. Selection of participants

Both convenience and purposive sampling techniques were used in the study. This approach is in line with Creswell's (2008) and Etikan, Musa and Alkassim's (2016) postulation that in convenience sampling, the researcher selects the participants based on certain criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, and willingness to participate in the study. In addition purposive sampling allowed me to select participants who understood the central research phenomenon and would be able to provide answers to the research questions (Etikan et al., 2016). Although convenience sampling is affordable and easy and participants are readily available, the samples are likely to be biased and the results cannot be generalised. Another disadvantage with convenience sampling is the issue of outliers which the researcher considers as not belonging to the data and yet may provide important information for the study.

In view of the fact that the goal of the research was to study the experiences and perceptions of the stakeholders in relation to the processes of transferring the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini and then implementing it, I purposively selected participants who were directly involved in these processes. The majority of the participants were from the Eswatini MoET

and three of the four administrative regions in Eswatini, namely, Hhohho, Lubombo and Manzini. The remainder of the participants were from the neighbouring UDED in South Africa. A convenient and purposive sample of four schools was selected from the 13 schools that were currently offering the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini at the time of the study. One school that has been offering the CAPS curriculum for at least three years was selected from each of the three administrative regions in Eswatini. Selecting schools from different regions guaranteed some variation in participants and ownership (public or private).

Letters of request were personally delivered to the selected participants two weeks before the start of the data collection. This was done not only to confirm their participation in the study and, explain ethical issues and other queries but also to explain the data collection method which would be used as some of the participants had never been involved in any research process before. It emerged that some participants had thought the interview was a test and, as such, they did not want to embarrass themselves by failing to answer the research questions. I allayed their fears and suspicions by assuring them that whatever they told me would be confidential that the interviews must be seen as a dialogue aimed at giving me, the researcher, and the opportunity to hear their opinions on the interviews. I requested them to be as truthful as possible as their contributions were not intended to affect or change action on the ground, but to inform my thesis. I contacted more than the expected number of participants to make provision for those who would eventually withdraw from the study. From the beginning, the participants were made aware of their right to withdraw from the research study at any time so as to ensure that they did not feel obliged to participate.

Of the 41 participants originally targeted, 33 only were interviewed. From Eswatini, there were four principals; six heads of departments; five parents; and nine educators purposively selected from the four high schools offering the CAPS curriculum; one regional education officer from the region where the majority of the schools offering the CAPS curriculum operated and two government officials from the MoET in Eswatini. In addition, there were six participants from UDED in South Africa who provided assistance and monitoring to the Eswatini schools offering the CAPS curriculum. They included three subject advisors, two examination department officials and one circuit manager. Table 4.1 presents a summary of the countries of origin, positions held by the research participants and the numbers of participants in each category.

Country	Type of participant	Number
Eswatini	Educators	9
	Head of department	6
	Parents	5
	Principals	4
	Regional education officials	1
	Officials at MoET	2
South Africa: UDED	Examination dept. officials	2
	Subject advisors	3
	Circuit manager	1

Table 4.1: The participants' country of origin, position and numbers of participants from each category

The selected schools reflected maximum variations in terms of size and geographical location. They included both private and public schools of which some offered CAPS Curriculum from Grades 8 to 12 and others from Grades 10 to 12. These schools should have been offering CAPS for at least three years. The SMT members were either principals or deputy principals while the educators were a member of the teaching staff who had taught the CAPS curriculum for more than one year in the school. The regional educational officials were either a Regional or Deputy REO while the two MoET officials included an under-secretary and a senior schools inspector. However, as Nieuwenhuis (2010) suggests, ultimately the number of participants suitable in a study is determined by the frequency with which the themes and categories that emerge are repeated during the data collecting process. In fact, there was detailed and in-depth information that provided evidence of data saturation towards the end of data collection process but, nevertheless, I continued collecting data from all the participants.

4.6. Data collection and management

The requisite data was gathered over a period of two years using semi-structured face-to-face interviews and document analysis. The data collection was initially divided into three phases - phase one involved collecting data from the three schools; phase two involved collecting data from the Eswatini MoET and the three regional administrative offices while phase three involved the collection of data from UDED and Emanyiseni officials. However, as the data collection proceeded, some of the participants started changing the dates of their appointments because of both official and personal engagements. I, therefore, decided to continue collecting data from those were available on other sites and returned later to those whom I had missed. In all cases, the interviews, document analysis and data transcribing were conducted on the same day to allow for the easily triangulation of the data. According to Thurmond (2001, p. 253), "triangulation is the combination of at least two theoretical perspectives, methodological approaches, data sources, investigators, or data analysis methods". This study made use of the data sources and methodological triangulations. Data source triangulation involved collecting data from different people and places, while methodological triangulation was achieved through semi-structured interviews and document analysis. The venues selected for the interviews collection were quiet, comfortable and devoid of interruptions, background noise or intrusive curiosity.

4.6.1. Interviews

An interview in the research context may be defined as an "organised conversation between two or more people (the interviewer and the interviewee) for the purposes of eliciting information" (Campbell, 1999, p. 539). The in-depth, semi-structured interviews allowed me to gain access, through the medium of words, to both the participants' constructed realities and their interpretations of their own lived experiences and, in addition, further enabled me to seek an understanding of the participants' perspectives of their experiences or situations through the repeated, face-to-face encounters (Taylor, 2001). The order of the questions and their exact wording were at my discretion and were such that they allowed me to respond flexibly to issues raised by the participants and ask questions. They also provided the participants with opportunity to discuss issues they deemed to be important (Appendix 8).

Based on the steps in qualitative data collection using interview schedules (King, 2011), I developed an interview guide and planned the interview by deciding how to capture the information gathered from the interviewee - either by noting it down or by audio recording

the responses. Although the interview venues were suggested by the interviewee, I politely requested venues with minimum noise, good lighting systems and minimal intrusion and obstruction from the environment. Some of interviewee switched off their cell phones before we started while others did not. Although many of them did switch off them off when they rang, a few answered their calls. In such cases I would turn off my audio recorder. After each interview session, I expressed my gratitude to the interviewee for setting time aside for the interview.

According to King (2011), an interview guide serves as an interviewer blueprint for carrying out the interviews. In the case of structured interviews, it lists the topics to be discussed without dictating the exact wording or the order and arrangement of the questions to be asked. King (2011) further suggests that, since it is not possible for the interviewer to record every word that the interviewee says, a previously tested audio-recorder should be used. However, Zimmerman (1995) is of the opinion that the presence of a recording device may affect the interviewees' behaviour and that time involved in transcribing a recording is longer than the interview itself. Nevertheless, despite Zimmerman's (1995) concerns, I documented the interviews unobtrusively by using a note book in addition to the audiotape after seeking the participants' permission to do this and ascertain that they felt comfortable about being audio recorded. I also noted both their body language and other nonverbal cues. The interviews lasted between 30 and 75 minutes. Some interviewees answered questions hurriedly in short answers. Much as I tried to probe it seemed that they, were always the next question. Nevertheless, the response rate was generally high as most of the participants gave themselves sufficient time and answered the questions in detail.

The interview data was collected in two stages – first, data was collected and then participants were afforded an opportunity to cross-check their answers and make changes where necessary. In two cases, participants had transferred to other schools, so I had to follow them to their new schools to confirm the data. The interview questions were given to the participant a week before their interviews to give them ample time in which to reflect on their experiences and prepare for the interviews. It also saved the time taken to introduce the study on the day of the interview. In addition, probing during the interviews allowed me to clarify any misunderstandings and unravel complexities, challenges and tensions. This is demonstrated as follows:

Example 1

Question:	How many curricula does your school offer?
Answer:	If the answer was not "one"
First probing question:	Could you please name them (e.g. CAPS, EGCSE, IGCSE, A Level and AS Level).
Second probing question:	How are teachers timetabled to teach these curricula?
Third probing question:	How are these multi-curricula managed?

Example 2

Question:	To which curricula have the learners you admit in Grades 8 to 12 been exposed?
Answer:	If answer is not CAPS, then
Probing question:	How do you link the two curricula?

Based on the advice of McNiff and Whitehead (2011), I ensured I was a good listener by controlling my body language and demonstrating to the interviewees that what they were saying was both was interesting and valued. I did this by giving them visual clues, such as affirmative nodding, and verbal encouragement such as, 'Anything more?', and 'Oh yes!' I carefully chose when to give feedback so as not to interrupt their train of thought. Where necessary, I repeated what the interviewees had said in order to confirm their line of thinking as well as give them the confidence to expand on what they had said. The interviewees' pauses were accepted and appreciated as such pauses sometimes allowed them to gather their thoughts and muster up the courage to continue. Nevertheless, the interview process was both time and money consuming. In some cases, I had to visit the research site three times - taking the research questions to the participants, carrying out the interview, and then taking the transcripts back to the interviewees for corrections.

On another note, the original research questions were modified during the data collection phase. This was prompted by participants' failure to understand some questions, necessitating the researcher to explain the question.

Example:

The first question originally read as: "*What are the push and pull factors that led to the demand for the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?*" The words '*push*' and '*pull*' seemed to confuse most participants.

I changed the question to read: "*What factors led to the demand of CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?*" During the analysis phase, I then categorised the factors under '*push*' and '*pull*' factors.

4.6.2. Document analysis

In the research context, documents are public and private records that qualitative researchers obtain about either a research site and/or the participants in a study (Creswell, 2008). During the data collection process in this study many of these documents were posted or available on notice boards in the staffrooms and principals' offices. I obtained permission to view them and, once such permission was granted, I examined them for accuracy by checking the letter heads, dates, signatories and stamps. Where there were no notice boards, I first established the type of documents I required and then requested the principals for permission to view the document files. In some of the schools there was both verbal and visible facial expression resistance to handing over their files to me; however, when I emphasised that the information, I needed would be kept strictly confidential and that I needed it only to inform my study, they agreed and handed them over.

The documents which were analysed were mainly public in nature and included official memorandum, school timetables, workshop invitation letters, summaries of learner lists, promotion schedules, assessment and moderation diagnostic reports and emails as well as policies and reports from South Africa (UDED and the National Departments of Education) as well as Eswatini (MoET). In addition, I requested newspaper extracts as well as head of departments' (HoD) files in all the schools. The HoD files offered me an opportunity to view the assessment programmes, subject improvement plans, diagnostic analyses, curriculum coverage control sheets as well as the minutes of departmental meetings and individual one-on-one meetings with educators in the departments. I made copies of the documents I viewed and filed them in order to transcribe them at a later stage. As the case study is a triangulated research study (Tellis, 1997), the two data collection methods, namely, semi-structured interviews and document analysis, assisted me to confirm my research findings. The document analysis and interviews well all conducted on the research sites. The data which had been collected was then transcribed using Atlas.ti software.

4.6.3. Data management

The process of managing the data involved the transcribing, encoding, storage, retrieval, presentation and analysis of the data. The equipment used included notebooks, working files, data boxes, a computer loaded with Atlas.ti, a good filing system, highlighters of different colours and a printer. I kept a note-book with me for jotting down ideas that stuck me. As suggested by Cohen et al., (2007, p. 370), transcribing the data gathered involved "noting lateral statements, nonverbal and paralinguistic communication". However, as Cohen et al. (2007) points out, data from the original encounters is inevitably lost during transcriptions. However, audio recordings reinforced the interview data by proving all the verbal data by accurately both capturing the tone and pitch of the participants' voices as well as the exact words spoken although they could not capture non-verbal communication in the form of gestures.

Data storage involved organising the data in a physical safe place. I used Atlas.ti software to encode, sort and label the data. This software enabled me to transcribe each participant's data as soon as I had collected it and save it using the codes assigned to the participants. The participants were assigned codes in the order in which I had interviewed them. For example, the first and last participants to be interviewed were coded P1 and P33 respectively.

4.7.Data presentation and analysis

The three phases of data collection, data presentation and data analysis were blended throughout the study to ensure flexibility, which, as Cohen et al. (2007, p. 469) suggest, is important for a qualitative research study in order to "change a line of inquiry and move in a new direction as new evidence emerge". At all stages of the data collection, I enhanced my reflexibility by being cautious of the existing knowledge I brought into the research process. Data analysis usually involves "organising what the researcher saw, heard and read so as to make sense out of it" at all stages of the data collection (Glesne, 1999, p. 147). While the analysis of the transcribed data followed Miles and Huberman's (1994) process of data reduction and data display, the drawing of conclusions was in alignment with the processes recommended by Cohen et al. (2007) where the audio-recorded interviews and transcripts are coded around the various topics and the themes that emerge are identified and noted. In this study different categories and sub-categories were identified under each theme. The themes that emerged were categorised as follows:

- nature of the schools offering the CAPS curriculum
- factors that contribute to the demand for the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini
- processes of implementing and monitoring the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini
- challenges in relation to the implementation and monitoring of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini
- the way forward with the CAPS curriculum offered in Eswatini.

4.8. Trustworthiness

The quality of a qualitative research study depends on the extent to which the research generates an understanding of a phenomenon under investigation through enhancing the credibility, neutrality, dependability, and transferability of the research findings (Golafshani, 2003; Nieuwenhuis, 2010). In addition, trustworthiness – establishing confidence in the findings of the study – is guaranteed by "exploring subjectivity, reflexibility, and the social interaction of interviewing" (Davies & Dodd, 2002, p. 281). Since the phenomenon of transferring and implementing a curriculum across a border involved human beings, capturing their perceptions and lived experiences played a significant role in guaranteeing the authenticity of the study. In this study, I chose to use terms such as credibility and trustworthiness in place of validity while reliability was conceptualised as, dependability.

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), dependability refers to the stability of the collected data overtime and over conditions. They opine that a dependable study must be both accurate and consistent. Dependability in this study was achieved by providing a thick and rich description of the methods and procedures involved in gathering the requisite research data. The rich description corroborated the in-depth understanding of commonalities that existed between situations and was bolstered by the provision of a detailed description of the settings, participants, data collection process, and data analysis procedures (Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002). Furthermore, the rich description of the methods used provided information to the future researchers who wished to repeat the same study.

On the other hand, the credibility or trustworthiness of qualitative research findings is concerned with establishing that the research results are believable. Nevertheless, the credibility of qualitative research findings remains a contested area. Carlson (2010, p. 1102) argues that, since collecting and analysing narrative data presents a plethora of "unique challenges emanating from human nature experience, thought, memory and interpretations

that is by nature subject to continuous change and transformation", there may be "unintentional omission or commission in research procedures that may compromise the credibility of the research finding". However, this was minimised in the study by increasing the trustworthiness through prolonged engagement with the participants, triangulation, member checks, peer debriefing, reflexibility, audit trails, and thick and rich descriptions of data. By maximising the trustworthiness, the findings were rendered credible and defensible.

Triangulation began with collecting the requisite data from the various participants who were stakeholders in the processes of transferring the CAPS curriculum to Eswatini and then implementing it. Next data was collected using semi-structured interviews and document analysis. Triangulation was further enhanced by the researcher taking notes during the interviews and also audio recording the proceedings. Later on, triangulation was not only enhanced by collecting data from different sites at different times and employing different methods, but also by choosing a diversity of participants who included school principals, HoDs, educators, parents, REOs, the under-secretary in the MoET and a senior schools inspector in Eswatini as well as subject advisors, circuit managers and examination officers from the neighbouring UDED in South Africa and then interviewing them.

Member checking also known as informant feedback or respondent validation, offered an opportunity for the participants to approve the quality of the information which had been collected, thus enhancing the accuracy, validity, credibility and transferability of the research findings. In line with the recommendations of Creswell (2008) and Doyle (2007), the participants were requested to edit, clarify and elaborate on their own words from the narratives and, at times, delete them. This was done during the data transcription when I had failed to make sense of the verbal data which had been captured using both an audio recorder and a notebook. Since the process was influx, the member checking also assisted in updating the data initially collected. Although the two participants who were contacted agreed to clarify the misconceptions, they were not able to recall the responses they had given during the interviews but, with further probing, I clarified the matter. Member checking was further enhanced by ensuring that before publishing the findings, I invited the participants on WhatsApp to help me to make meaning of what they had told me during the interview sessions. However, some of those who agreed to do so never returned the transcripts and, I was forced to listen to the audio recordings several times. Essentially, I was also cognisant of the fact that, while information from member checks is valuable, it was also important that such information accrue from my own interpretation of the research findings.

Reflexibility is linked to the fact that all researchers have personal biases that influence their interpretation of data (Creswell, 2008 & Straus and Corbin, 1998). Since at the time of the study I was working one of the schools that had implemented the CAPS curriculum, I recognised that I have had a significant influence on the research findings. Accordingly, I made every effort to be transparent in everything I was doing and did not include the school where I was working in the study and used "diaries to record my thoughts, feelings, uncertainties, values, beliefs and assumptions" (Carlson, 2010, p. 1104). The audio recordings also helped me to articulate my findings during the data analysis phase. I also used peer examination during the data analysis and conclusion stages in order to critique my study. Thus, not only did I ensure reflexibility, but I also maintained neutrality.

According to Krefting (1991), neutrality in the research context refers to the freedom of the research from any predispositions on the researcher's part and includes personal notions that may be carried into the research arena. I endeavoured to be impartial and avoided any temptation to manipulate the research participants' responses. I also kept the preliminary research data to confirm the results. In addition, when I was in any doubt, I listened to and compared the audio messages to the transcripts so as to include data that I may have missed.

An audit trail served to enhance the confirmability of the research findings. Cutcliffe and McKenna (2004, p. 1) maintains that, in the research context, an audit trail is a "security-relevant chronological record of steps taken from the start of the research process to the development and reporting of the findings". Such and an audit trail process involves an external auditor establishing whether or not the findings of the research were a consequence of the natural progression of the research events (Krefting, 1991). To this end, the audit trail records in this study included the steps taken to gather the raw data namely, field notes and audiotapes, as well the steps involved in the data reduction and data analysis processes. In addition, notes on the data reconstruction and synthesis products, that included the themes, categories and sub-categories of interpretations as well as research processes namely, research design, research methodology, data collection instruments and quality control measures, notes formed part of the audit trail.

Generalisation in qualitative research is interpreted as comparability and transferability with the findings being generalised with the issues of the setting, people and situations. Generalisation is also linked to internal validity, which refers to a particular event or set of data which a piece of research provides and that may be sustained by data (Cohen et al.,

2007). Generalisation was achieved by peer examination of the data which had been gathered to ascertain whether it answered the research questions while the internal validity of the study was further enhanced by the credibility, dependability and confirmability of the study.

4.9.Ethical considerations

McNiff and Whitehead (2011, p. 80) refer to ethics as "a way to live a life that is conducted in accordance with our values". In the research context, the research methodology selected relates to the researcher's philosophical and ethical stance on the purpose and nature of the research (Glesne, 2006). Throughout this research, the ethical standards pertaining to research were kept in mind and applied in various ways.

The research topic chosen was certified as ethically correct by my supervisor as well as the Ethics Committee of the University of Pretoria (Appendix 6). Also, as an interpretivist researcher, I treated the participants and the persons who controlled access to the research sites with both respect and dignity. In addition. I provided the participants with sufficient information about the study in advance so that they could make informed decisions about the possible impacts of their choices. I also informed them that they were free to withdraw from the study at any point.

In the view of the fact that qualitative researcher studies other people's lives, Agee (2009, p. 439) suggests that "reflexivity and ethical considerations need also to be taken into consideration when developing research questions". In line with this suggestion, I tried to be reflective about how the questions posed could affect the participants' lives by putting myself in their place.

As a further ethical consideration I sought permission to conduct the research from the National Director of Education in Eswatini (Appendix 4 & 9) as well as the Head of the Education Department of KZN Province in South Africa (Appendix 5 & 10). The research participants were kept informed of the progress of the research in a letter thanking them for their participation. The letters requesting for participants' permission were distributed to the selected participants while their signed consent letters stored (Appendix 11 & 12). The participants were also informed that the data will be safely stored by the university for a period of 15 years. Throughout the research, I endeavoured to uphold the obligations of openness while carefully and respectfully probing for more information.

In addition, during the reporting stage, I weighed the study against the standard of normal obligations as well as the standard of ethicality, and I always ensured that ethical standards were strictly adhered to. I ensured the confidentiality of both the information and the participants' identities. Hence, information that involved anything personal or which would have compromised their identity was not revealed. Furthermore, names of people and places were replaced with initials and numbers identifying the participants (Table 4.3).

Participants' codes

Country	Site	Participants	Participants' Codes
Eswatini	Four schools	Educators	P1, P2, P5, P7, P13, P14, P15, P22, P23
		HoDs	P6, P9, P11, P12, P27, P28
		Principals	P8, P10, P16, P24
		Parents	P18, P19, P20, P21, P26
	Regional education offices	Regional educational officers (REO)	P17
	MoET	MoET officials	P25, P29
Republic of South Africa	UDED	Examination section	P4, P32
		Curriculum section	P3, P30, P31
		Circuit manger	P33

Table 4.3: Participants' codes

In view of my being aware of any of the ethical dilemmas that may arise during the research process, whenever I felt uneasy about the data I had received from the participants compared to what I was giving back, the participants were assured that the research findings would be

published in my thesis and used to help other researchers as well as policy designers. I kept this promise and published only the data that I had acquired in my role as a researcher and not as a friend in order to avoid causing discomfort and betraying the participants' loyalty. However, none of the information I acquired could be construed as dangerous. In addition, I was tactful about any distressing behaviour, although I remained aware that researchers do not 'fix' the problems they encounter but collect data and leave the research site(s) unchanged. Moreover, I acknowledged the time sacrificed and the cooperation demonstrated by the participants by thanking them as well as listening carefully as well as being generous with information, cautious and respecting their fundamental duties and rights.

I addressed the conflicts of interest that sometimes arose as a result of my prior interaction with the participants, for example research participants already knew me in their professional roles as teachers. The participants had to know clearly that there is no pressure to participate and that those who agree to participate could change their mind at any time without having to give a reason.

Since I worked in the same region, the dual role of the researcher as both a worker and a researcher arose and had to be separated so as avoid causing conflict. I kept in mind the assertion of King's College London (2011) that the "researcher should try as much as possible to identify the potential of such conflict as early as possible; discuss it with the supervisor; familiarise his/herself with the obligation relevant to research; and explain to participants exactly what he/she is obliged to disclose".

4.10. Conclusion

This chapter described and justified the choice and use of the methods employed in conducting the research. The chapter also highlighted the data collection and analysis method as well as the nature of the inquiry conducted. The trustworthiness of the study was guaranteed by my adherence to relevant ethical measures, such as confirmability, neutrality, reflexibility, and the resolution of the 'dual role' conflict. The next chapter presents the data which was collected.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH DATA

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an exegesis of the empirical data which was collected during the study. The data collected from 33 participants through semi-structured interviews was triangulated with document analysis and presented using the themes which emerged. The categories and sub-categories within each theme were then developed with a view of answering the main research question "How do education stakeholders in Eswatini high schools understand and experience the implementation of the South African CAPS curriculum in their schools"?

5.2. Thematic discussion

Four themes aligned with the research questions emerged from the data gathered. These themes are presented as follows, namely, nature of the schools offering the CAPS curriculum; factors that contribute to the demand for the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini; processes involved in implementing and monitoring the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini; and challenges encountered in implementing and monitoring the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini as well as the way forward in relation to offering the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini.

5.2.1. Theme 1: Nature of the schools offering the CAPS curriculum

At the time of the study a total of 13 schools were offering the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. Although all 13 schools were affiliated to the Ubombo Technical and Commercial, alias U-Tech -the only official examination centre in Eswatini-, the majority of them were privately owned with the exception of 2 which were government-aided. In addition, except for the three schools located in the Lubombo and Shiselweni regions, the other schools were strategically situated in towns (Big Bend, Siphofaneni, Manzini and Mbabane) close to the Mbabane-Big Bend corridor (Figure 5.1), thus facilitating the easy daily commuting of the learners, most of whom were day scholars although one school offered boarding facilities and then only to Grade 12 learners. The regional distribution of the schools was as follows: nine in Manzini, two in Hhohho, one in Lubombo and one in Shiselweni. In view of the fact that Eswatini is a small country covering an area of 17 363 sq. km (UNICEF, 2016) with a good road network and a reliable transport system, it was easy for the learners to reach school on time for the beginning of classes every day. In addition, since the majority of the parents were

employed they were able to afford the high tuition fees charged by the schools offering the CAPS curriculum.

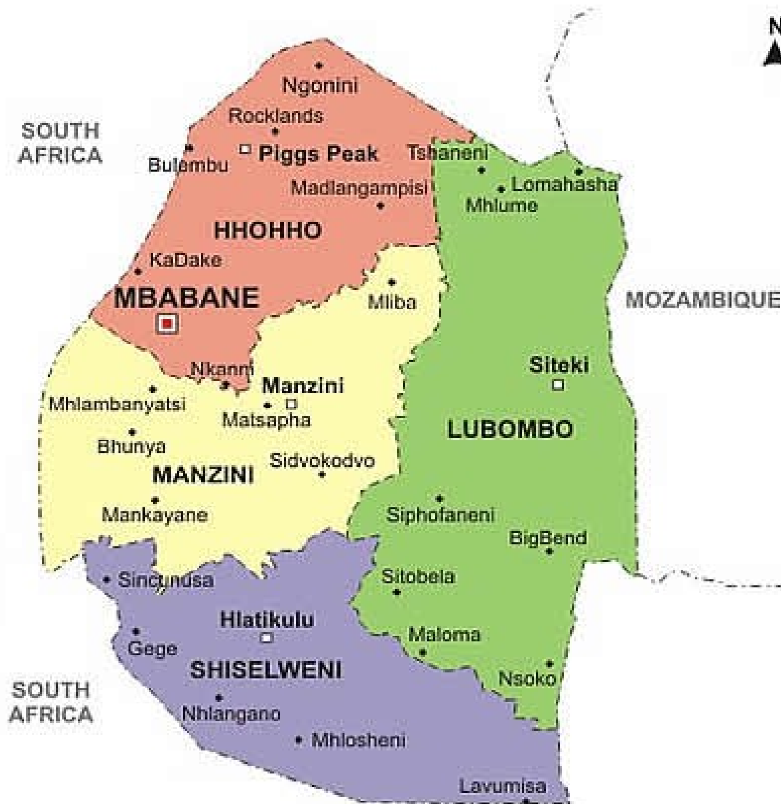

Figure 5.1: Regions and major towns along the Mbabane-Big Bend corridor

Source: http//www.Eswatinihappenings.co.za

Of the 13 schools that offered the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini at the time of the study, four were conveniently and purposively sampled for the purposes of this study. Three of the four schools that I sampled were private schools while one was a mission-founded school in a tripartite alliance with parents and the state. In three of the schools, the CAPS curriculum was run parallel to the Eswatini General Certificate of Secondary Education (EGCSE) while one school offered two curricula under separate management structures but reporting to the same principal. Table 5.1 presents a summary of information about the schools.

Table 5.1 Information about the school

School	Type of School	School Information			No. of Educators	Rural or Urban	Year School was founded
		Curricula	Learners	Percentage of CAPS Learners			
1	Public	CAPS	70	22	19	Urban	2002
		EGCSE	250				
2	Private	CAPS	248	100	12	Urban	2011
3	Private	CAPS	487	80	22	Rural	2000
		EGCSE	120				
4	Private	CAPS	768	100	42	Rural	2010

5.2.2. Theme 2: Reasons for the demand for the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini

The second theme focuses on the reasons for the demand for CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. The data indicated that the demand for CAPS was initiated primarily by parents, with some other entrepreneurial educators (educators turned businessmen) in the country seeing an opportunity to join the education industry. This theme explored the demand for the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. The next section expounds the practical considerations that existed in Eswatini prior to the transfer process in 2010.

5.2.2.1.Category 1: Practical considerations

The primary concern of many parents was to ensure that their children were able to access higher education in South Africa. Since the EGCSE was not accepted by the majority of South African institutions of higher learning, it was difficult for some Eswatini children to enrol in these institutions without first going through the laborious process of obtaining a South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) certificate or doing a one-year bridging course before university admission. Subsequently, some parents in Eswatini preferred their children to obtain a South African matriculation exemption instead of the SGSCE. Historically, parents discovered that enrolling their children in South African high schools would enable them to obtain the NSC that hastened their admission into South African universities. However, as one parent described below this was an expensive and complex process:

> "*Prior to the CAPS curriculum being offered at U-Tech, I had wanted my child to do engineering at the Tshwane University of Technology. However, he was denied entry because he did not have a matric certificate. As a result, my child felt*

dejected. Then I was advised to let him do a bridging course but I decided to 'pay through my nose' and send my child to a South African private school. When U-Tech introduced the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini, I transferred my child from White River Metropolitan in South Africa to U-Tech" (P18).

The findings revealed, that prior to 2010, parents who wanted their children to gain a South African matriculation could choose on one of the three following routes: enrol their children at one of the few schools that offered the South African Independent Examinations Board (IEB) curriculum in Eswatini; enrol their children at a private or public high school in South Africa; or enrol their children at one of schools in Eswatini that offered tuition only to candidates who were registered for examinations in a South African public school close to the border between the two countries. One of the principals of a school that offered tuition only elaborated as follows:

"*I started offering the old South African curriculum in 2007. This was before U-Tech was given permission by South Africa to operate as a centre in Eswatini. The IEB schools were too expensive yet we needed our children to sit for matric examinations. We only admitted and assisted Grade 12 learners. We would teach learners in Eswatini and register them in South Africa under a certain school. During the exam period we would transport learners to and from U-Tech every day to write their exams"* (P16).

Another SMT member of the school which pioneered the offering of tuition in relation to the South African high school curriculum in Eswatini added,

"*We offered tuition in Eswatini and took candidates to South Africa to write their final exams. It was a very expensive venture for the parents. We would register the learners at a sister school in Nelspruit in South Africa and secure accommodation for candidates during the exam period. At that time, there was no School Based Assessment (SBA). We would prepare learners for the final exams only. All tuition material was sourced from South Africa*" (P24).

5.2.2.2.Category 2: The plight of Swazi learners attending South African public schools

During the registration of the 2018 NSC candidates, some Swazi learners who attended South African public schools were never registered as the registration forms required the personal identification number that appears on the South African identity document (ID). It had

previously been alleged that Swazi learners would either obtain South African IDs illegally or register without IDs. Consequently, some NSC certificates for Swazi learners were cancelled after it was discovered that they had obtained the ID numbers illegally. In addition, the undocumented Swazi learners were blamed for overcrowding the South African schools along the border, hence denying the South African learners the opportunity to benefit fully from their government education grants. The South African subject advisors explained:

> "*Schools along the border had to contend with an influx of Swazi learners who illegally cross the border to illegally access the CAPS curriculum. They congested these schools. As inspectors for these schools we found it unworkable but could not chase away innocent children who were searching for an education. We are reciprocating Eswatini's assistance to South Africa during the fight against the apartheid regime.*" (P4).

> "*The most painful part is that the learners mentioned above are children of low-income earners in Eswatini who cannot afford the high tuition fees charged at Eswatini private schools*" (P10).

The regular border crossing into South Africa for learners' educational excursions and educators' workshops was frustrating for both the learners and the educators because of the expense involved, for example, visa fees for non-Swazi learners and educators as well as transport and accommodation for educators and learners as well as the amount of time involved in the cross-border travelling. South Africa required entry permits, also known as visas, from non-Swazi educators and learners. In view of both the expenses and the time taken for the visas to be granted, some educators missed workshops while some learners missed educational excursions. Educators and learners outside SADC required entry permits that were expensive and which often took a long time to obtain. Some educators missed workshops because they could not secure these entry permits. Moreover, every learner below the age of 18 required the consent of both parents before crossing into South Africa. Since it was sometimes difficult for some learners to obtain both parents' IDs and signatures to accompany the parental consent forms, they would be prevented from going on some of the educational excursions. A SMT member explained:

> "*Our non-Swazi educators need money to get South African visas. In addition, educators need to have money to spend on trips in South Africa. The recently*

introduced Consent forms are also a headache. We cannot always find both parents" (P10).

5.2.2.3. Category 3: Reasons for choosing the CAPS curriculum

There were a number of reasons why the parents chose the CAPS curriculum.

Financially, teaching the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini schools relieved parents of the high cost of fees, transport to and other costs related with studying in South African boarding private schools. However, there were a number of parents who wanted the CAPS curriculum for their children but were not able to afford the tuition fees charged by schools in Eswatini. These parents then resorted to sending their children to South African public schools illegally to access the free basic education offered in the country. A parent explained:

> "*Having our children access the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini will save us from the high costs of fees and keeping our children in South African schools. Some of our parents were still taking their children to South African public schools*" (P10).

However, with the introduction in 2016 of the South African School Administration and Management Systems (SA-SAMS), a programme that registered all South African learners in public schools, Swazi learners could no longer be registered for the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examinations; thus the undocumented Swazi learners had to either transfer to South African private schools or return to Eswatini. For those who were not able to afford to study the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini, mechanisms were put in place to reintegrate them into the Eswatini public schools that offered EGCSE. An official lamented:

> "*Our children who had registered in South African public schools recently returned to the country because South African schools failed to register them, yet some of them were in Grade 12. Therefore, some of the children joined CAPS in Grade 11 in Eswatini, because their parents could afford the fees while the rest were reintegrated into EGCSE against their will*" (P10).

Included among the undocumented learners who illegally accessed the CAPS curriculum in South Africa were some learners who crossed the border illegally on daily basis while others rented rooms close to the schools they attended. The parents of these learners were worried about their safety and well-being as they were exposed to numerous risks.

> "*Our learners living alone in rented rooms are not safe. Without our supervision, they start behaving badly. Learners are also sometimes harassed while using illegal border crossings guarded by soldiers*" (P10).

In addition to the financial reasons, the demand for the CAPS curriculum also hinged on the perceived merits for the CAPS curriculum as well as the proximity and commonalities between South Africa and Eswatini. Most of the participants were of the view that Eswatini and South Africa have much in common socially, economically and ethnically and that if Eswatini learners enrolled for the CAPS curriculum, it would help Eswatini learners to access the South African job market upon completion of their education, eventually, contributing to the development of Eswatini. Below are some of the views expressed by the parents:

> "*Eswatini is part of South Africa. It is almost a 10th province. After school, some of our learners will work in South Africa. Thus, why deny them that opportunity! Eswatini is too reliant on South Africa for many things. Eswatini has always relied on the Cambridge curricula. Why not adopt the CAPS curriculum that is closer to us and every learner may benefit. Economically, Eswatini is an extension of South Africa. Part of our GDP comes from the Common Custom Union that was instituted by the apartheid regime. Our life style and languages are related. Besides, the CAPS curriculum cuts across different cultures within South Africa - what is relevant for KwaZulu-Natal may not be relevant for the North West or Limpopo provinces. Since it caters for all provinces, it will cater for us as well. South Africa should remember that helping our learners to access the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini will lessen their immigration troubles*" (P14).

> "*All we need is quality education for our children so that they can get good jobs in future. With the South African qualification, they may easily be employed in South Africa and elsewhere*" (P10).

The low pass threshold requirement in the South African NSC was another factor that increased the demand for the CAPS curriculum. The study found that most of the participants preferred the CAPS curriculum because the pass threshold was lower than that of the EGCSE and also less dependence on the English language. Whereas the pass threshold for Certificate Pass in the NSC examinations was a minimum pass threshold of 40% in three subjects including a Home Language and a minimum of 30% in three more subjects, the EGCSE required a minimum of 50% in six subjects, including English. In addition, the local curriculum was criticised for being discriminatory and failing Swazi learners on the basis of the English language. The SMT members explained:

> "*EGCSE fail and condemn our learners who would have passed under the CAPS curriculum. Out of 25 000 Grade 7 candidates who sit for the Primary Leaving*

Examinations (PLE), 2000 fail because of the English Language. At the Eswatini Form 3 (Grade 10) level, out of 13 000 candidates who write the Junior Certificate Examinations (JCE), 1000 fail because of the English Language" (P5).

"*The CAPS curriculum is easy to pass. Learners who would have failed under the EGCSE pass and enrol for degree courses in local and international universities. Some learners fail the JCE but enrol for the CAPS curriculum in Grade 10 and pass with a Bachelors in Grade 12*" (P26).

Furthermore, the CAPS Curriculum support and assessment structures endeared it to the parents. The findings revealed that the CAPS Curriculum was well packaged, supported and organised, making it user-friendly. Moreover, the common tests administered by the Provincial Department of Education on a quarterly basis were regarded as a good idea, since parents were able to monitor and gauge their children's performance basing on standard tests. Below are some parents' comments,

"*The easy access to teaching and revision materials on internet also makes life much easier*" (P8).

"*With standardised common tests, we are able to constantly monitor our children's performance at school*" (P5).

"*The CAPS curriculum is like a buffet menu with so many subject combinations that attract many of our children. Let our government assist parents who wish to enrol their children under this curriculum*" (P17).

"*The CAPS curriculum caters for all learners' abilities. Weak or strong, a learner finds something to do. The existence of past papers with memos online and teachings on SABC Channel 101 make revision easier*" (P7).

Most of the participants suggested that CAPS curriculum was in high demand because it prepared learners better for a South African university education by equipping them with the thinking skills that are required in universities. An educator asserted that:

"*The CAPS curriculum prepares learners better for university by equipping them with research skills. The CAPS curriculum is recognised in most international higher institutions of learning in Eastern Countries, for example, Russia, Ukraine, China, Korea, India and Turkey. When educated, these citizens will come back to*

develop the country. In addition, an educated work force will also promote the country's economy by being marketable abroad and remitting foreign exchange back home" (P14).

The nature of the two curricula (CAPS versus EGCSE) came under discussion with some of the parents suggesting that the CAPS curriculum was superior to EGCSE. However, the MoET official argued that this high demand was due to South African universities' entry requirements and not the superiority of the CAPS curriculum per se. Most of the SMTs and educators contended that the mathematics and science subjects covered work that is taught at the university level in Eswatini. However, in terms of coverage, mathematics and physical sciences were reported as being narrow. On the one hand, one of the MoET officials was of the view that the EGCSE was not internationally marketed, asserting that:

"*I am confident that the EGCSE is far better than CAPS and could have taken our children to South Africa universities but South Africa is trying to control the numbers by putting a restriction on the use of CAPS … otherwise there is no problem with the EGCSE. Sometimes, it is also due to peer pressure. It is now 'the thing' to have your child doing CAPS but there is nothing much. It boils down to South Africa being self-reliant with enough universities and able to dictate the terms*" (P29).

On the other hand, a principal explained that:

"*The CAPS curriculum is deeper in mathematics and sciences. Some of the work I teach in Grade 12 is taught in first year of at the University of Eswatini (UNESWA) although some chapters are omitted. It is tailor-made to feed their universities*" (P14).

An important factor that influenced the parents' decision to enrol their children for the CAPS curriculum was that enabled learners to enrol for higher education in South Africa. Many factors contributed to this state of affairs:

At this time of the study there was only one public university in Eswatini, the University of Eswatini (UNESWA). This university offered limited professional courses which frustrated many of the parents and also lengthened the education of EGCSE certificate holders who wished to enrol for professional courses such as medicine, engineering, surveying, mining, astronomy, etc., at South African universities. These learners sometimes first need to complete a Bachelor's degree at UNESWA before enrolling for first year at a South African university. Hence, EGCSE was prolonging their education because they had to study for an additional three years before entering a South African university. An educator explained that:

"*The CAPS curriculum enables learners to cast their nets wide and enter tertiary institutions in South Africa. In Eswatini we have limited institutions of higher learning and those offer limited courses. UNESWA still offers same courses it offered ten years ago. You need to have a bachelor's degree to be admitted in most of the prestigious South African universities*" (P8).

The local university's failure to admit all deserving learners was also identified further triggering the demand for the CAPS curriculum. The UNESWA admission for a degree programme required a minimum of six passes in EGCSE or the equivalent while the passes included 50% or above in the English language and four other relevant subjects (UNESWA, 2019). One parent lamented that:

"*The education system in the country needs overhauling. Out of 10 000 learners who qualify each year to enter UNESWA only 1200 are admitted. The rest have to enter one of two nursing colleges, one technical college and four teacher colleges. Others drop out of school. There are more than 300 secondary schools feeding one public university. The other new private universities offer few courses, the Southern African Nazarene University (SANU) offers nursing and teachings while the University of Limkokwing offers mainly design courses at an associate degree level*" (P26).

In addition, the introduction of fees at UNESWA (UNESWA, 2018) had contributed to the parents' desire to enrol their children for the CAPS curriculum since some parents who were able to afford to pay the fees for their children at South African universities preferred to pay for the courses at South African universities they deemed would be of benefit to their children rather than paying for courses at UNESWA which they regarded as inferior. The willingness for the Eswatini Scholarship Board to sponsor NSC Certificate holders who wished to pursue courses not offered in Eswatini also encouraged more parents to enrol their children in schools offering the CAPS curriculum. A parent commented that:

"*Since UNESWA introduced tuition fees for some courses, some parents prefer to pay fees at South African universities for courses of their choice. The government offers the same bursaries for studying at UNESWA to NSC Certificate holders who wish to study abroad*" (P22).

In addition, it appeared that parents were also impressed by the infrastructure of the South African universities as well as their ranking on the world stage. One parent mentioned:

"*I would like my child to study in a best university and most of these are in South Africa*" (P22)

Another factor contributing factor to the demand for the CAPS curriculum was the advent of internet and social media as, unlike in the past, most parents were well-informed about the dynamics of the global education system and, especially the educated parents, were knowledgeable about the entry requirements for most foreign universities. In view of the fact that the parents were aware that the CAPS curriculum was recognised in most foreign universities, they regarded it as one way for Swazi learners to gain world standard qualifications that would enable them to compete in the global knowledge economy as well as respond to the needs of local industry. A parent explained that:

> "*There is more information available online for all to see, unlike in the past. Children now talk of courses that were not available in our day. However, our university is still stuck in the past. It does not respond to the needs of our local industries. There are many Eswatini learners studying course at South African universities that UNESWA does not offer. However, that is also why you do not hear of a Eswatini learners who are studying law in South Africa because our university offers law courses*" (P24).

In line with the market approach of supply and demand, as well as democratic sentiments, parents expressed their desire for the freedom to choose the best curriculum for their children. As they financed their children's education, the parents were of the view that their children had a right to enrol for the education of their choice. In addition, they expected the government to facilitate the realisation of this goal. The participants mentioned that:

> "*The coming of internet and children's rights have equipped children with the information required to have a say in the type of career they wish to pursue. It is very painful to convince your child to pursue a career in which he is not interested. Some of the learners end up dropping out of university or resort to drugs and alcohol*" (P17).

> "*The demand for the CAPS curriculum is associated with the demand for courses not available at UNESWA and the CAPS curriculum is the short cut. We are looking forward to the newly constituted Eswatini Higher Education Council (SHEC) to institute a change in the courses offered at our local university*" (P25).

> "*Since we pay fees for our children, government should allow us to choose a curriculum for ourselves. They should listen to us and not impose …*" (P14).

Sustaining the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini was also credited to UDED's willingness to continue facilitating the transfer on the grounds of Eswatini NSC's good performance in the NSC examinations, thereby boosting the UDED's NSC results and raising the district's NSC's performance ranking. The UDED attributed the good NSC results attained by the Eswatini candidates to their understanding of the English language. The subject advisor explained that:

> "*Swazi candidates have boosted our results as a district and we wouldn't like to lose them. Swazi learners have a good command of the English language. They can read and understand and I guess that is why they perform well*" (P31).

Finally, the demand for the CAPS curriculum in the country was promoted by the market reaction towards the parents' demand with this being seen as an opportunity to do business and, resulting in businessmen setting up private schools as business ventures. A principal elaborated further:

> "*The CAPS curriculum gave us an opportunity to do business. It is a win-win situation. The parents achieve their dream of sending their children to South African universities and we also make some money to survive on.*" (P27).

It was also evident that South Africa was benefiting by facilitating Eswatini children's access the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini because this meant that South African public schools along the border, which had sympathetically enrolled Swazi learners would not be congested. South Africa was also obliged by SADC Protocol on education to share its education policies with other SADC countries. The SADC (1997) Article 3(f) that encourages member states to:

> "W*ork towards the reduction and eventual elimination of constraints to better and freer access by citizens of member states to good quality education and training opportunities within the region*".

This section highlighted that the reasons for the transfer of the CAPS curriculum to Eswatini and its implementation the subsequent demand hinged primarily on the CAPS curriculum being beneficial as far as its requiring a lower pass threshold as compared to the EGSCE; well supported with teaching materials; cheaper and safer to access in Eswatini and a basic entry requirement for all South African universities to which most Swazi learners aspired. The existing in Eswatini of only one public university offering limited professional courses was forcing parents to look for alternative universities which offered the desired courses not

offered in Eswatini. Furthermore, the failure of South African public schools to register Eswatini ID holders for the NSC examinations had compelled many learners who attended those schools to return home. The parents were aware of their democratic right to choose a curriculum that would enable their children to acquire the professional qualifications needed to compete in the global job market. In line with the principles of demand and supply, as the number of learners that required the CAPS curriculum outmatched the capacity of U-Tech, other entrepreneurial educators in the country seized the opportunity to build private schools advertising the CAPS curriculum in the country. Equally important was the fact that sustainability of the CAPS Curriculum in Eswatini was based on the good performance in the NSC examinations by Eswatini schools that raised the ranking of the uMkhanyakude District.

5.2.3. Theme 3: Implementation and monitoring of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini

This theme explored the participants' perceptions of the processes involved in the CAPS curriculum transfer, its eventual implementation and its monitoring in the Eswatini high schools. Since all the stakeholders (educators, SMTs and parents in Eswatini, subject advisors, District and National Departments of Education officials in Eswatini and South Africa) had played a different role in the implementation of the CAPS curriculum, I chose to explore each stakeholder's responses separately. This enabled me to compare and understand their views. The implementation processes encompassed subject combinations; educators' training and support; subject delivery as well as admissions, promotion and progression processes. The theme further sought to understand both whether curriculum monitoring was taking place and also the techniques employed in the monitoring process. While collecting the requisite data, I discovered that the future of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini was uncertain with the majority of the participants expressing the view that this uncertainty had had a negative impact on the implementation and monitoring processes. The genesis of this uncertainty is discussed next.

5.2.3.1. Category 1: Prevailing circumstances

The uncertain climate in which the CAPS curriculum was being implemented had had a direct impact on the implementation processes. At the time of collecting the data in 2018, not only had some schools not admitted Grade 8 learners, but some educators had also started seeking alternative jobs for fear of the schools closing in 2019 because of the uncertainty that

surrounded the continuity of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. The findings revealed that the uncertainty of the future of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini was worrying most of the participants and also the decision- making exercise difficult. It transpired that each year from 2010, the South African Department of Basic Education (DBE) wrote letters granting permission for the CAPS Curriculum to continue to be in Eswatini (DBE, 2017). However, the most recent letter had stated that the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini was to terminate in 2019. According to the letter, the absence of a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) on basic education between the South African and Eswatini governments was making it difficult for the DBE to sustain the implementation and management of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. Although the DBE was willing to allow Swazi children access to the CAPS curriculum, the sister Department of International Relations and Cooperation had never supported the cross-border implementation of the national curriculum. Hence, the DBE always allowed for a short-term extension of the permission to transfer the CAPS Curriculum to Eswatini and implement it in the hope that an amicable solution would be reached (DBE, 2017).

The majority of the participants were concerned about the lack of information on the future of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. Despite the fear of the looming termination of the implementation of the curriculum, four schools had admitted learners in Grade 8 hoping for another extension in 2019. It further emerged that in spite of the Eswatini parliament having offered to assist in fast-tracking the signing of the MoU, its term of office had expired before the intervention was realised. Most of the participants expressed the need for a legal instrument that would streamline and legalise the processes of transferring and implementing the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. A member of SMT expressed the following view:

> "*We never admitted this year due to the announcement from the DBE that offering of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini is ending in 2019. We don't know why our government has not signed the MoU so that we have stability. Other curricula are taught in the country without this frustration. The problem…no one tells us why the signing does not happen*" (P7).

Without the MoU, the KZN Provincial Education Department was not allowed open more examination centres in Eswatini to cater for the increasing demand, 52 candidates in 2010 to 885 in 2018. The steep demand for the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini had resulted in the overcrowding of the only officially recognised NSC Examination Centre – the U-Tech

Centre. All the candidates from the other 14 schools travelled long distances a daily basis to write the examinations at U-Tech, the furthest school was situated 267km from U-Tech. A large marquee was pitched on the school soccer pitch to accommodate the high number of candidates. An SMT member elaborated that:

> "*All Grade 12 Candidates had to travel to U-tech to write the October/November NSC examinations. These candidates have to wake up at 4am to catch the bus to U-tech (160km away) and when a paper ends at 5pm, they arrive at their homes late and tired. In 2018 the centre accommodated 885 candidates. The candidates were expected to be seated in the exam room by 8am*" (P13).

The next section explores the participants' perceptions on the implementation of CAPS Curriculum in the prevailing circumstances.

5.2.3.2. Category 2: Educators

Educators, as essential drivers of curriculum implementation, are responsible for most of the educational processes that take place in the classroom. My interest was focused on the educators' experiences as guided by their preparedness in relation to the skills and knowledge required to implement the CAPS curriculum. Although most of them had never been trained to teach the CAPS curriculum, nevertheless, most of them were aware of the structure of the CAPS curriculum and the teaching methods involved. They were visibly motivated and committed to the implementation of the CAPS curriculum. They indicated that they had acquired knowledge in filing their own work and the learners' school-based assessment (SBA) from using the leaners' portfolio of evidence. Furthermore, most of the educators mentioned that along the way, they were enriched by the CAPS curriculum and that they were using the knowledge acquired to teach the EGCSE curriculum. In addition, the majority of the educators noted that teaching the CAPS curriculum was facilitated by the availability of teaching support materials from the KZN Education Department as well as online. The educators commented that:

> "*I was never trained to teach this curriculum yet it requires a different approach to preparing, teaching and assessment. Teaching CAPS requires different teaching approaches. I have to be flexible while teaching. The CAPS curriculum is challenging so it makes me to read a lot and prepare ahead of teaching*" (P12).

> "*The CAPS curriculum is technology oriented and exposes a teacher to new information. It pushes you to know more*" (P11).

"*I have appreciated the importance of SBA and its management*" (P10).

The exploration of the educators' qualifications revealed that most of them had never trained as teachers although they did have degrees and diplomas in the subjects they were teaching. Nevertheless, despite educators not having qualified as teachers, most of them expressed their confidence in teaching the CAPS curriculum. They attributed such confidence to the workshops they attended at the beginning of each academic year. At these workshops, they were not only informed of the new changes in the work schedules, but the memoranda of the previous NSC examinations were also discussed. Moreover, subject advisors from the UDED made educators annual teaching plans (ATP), teaching scopes and the program of assessment (PoA) available to the educators. These policy documents were intended to facilitate the CAPS curriculum delivery and provide uniform work schedule for all schools in KZN. In addition, these workshops provided the Eswatini educators with an opportunity to meet and network with their counterparts in South Africa. One educator indicated that:

> "*We usually attend the beginning of year workshops where we are given ATPs, scopes and timetables for assessment. These documents are straight forward. There is no way you can fail to teach because you are told what to teach and how far to go*" (P31).

However, in spite of the educators being confident about teaching the CAPS curriculum, the SMTs expressed their frustrations at their inability to find qualified teachers. The situation was exacerbated by the government paying higher salaries as compared to those paid at the schools offering the CAPS curriculum and as a result, the educators willingly went to public schools whenever there were any job opportunities.

Another factor that had affected the implementation of the CAPS curriculum was the prerequisite that all candidates registering for the NSC take one home language; in Eswatini that had to be siSwati. However, since siSwati was not widely taught in KZN Schools, the siSwati educators in Eswatini had to seek assistance from the Mpumalanga Provincial Education Department where siSwati was not only a native language, but it was also taught in most of the schools. Hence, Eswatini siSwati educators received curriculum support from Mpumalanga. However, this meant that Eswatini siSwati educators had to travel to a high school in Mpumalanga where siSwati senior examiners would offer them a workshop on curriculum issues. A siSwati educator explained that:

"*We have a specialist from Mpumalanga to assist us with curriculum issues. We travel to Mpumalanga each time we need assistance in siSwati. Surprisingly, siSwati in Mpumalanga is not the same as Eswatini siSwati. It is not taught as we teach it in our EGCSE schools*" (P27).

The CAPS curriculum assessment protocol stipulates that schools in one locality form a cluster. The formation of an Eswatini CAPS educators' cluster provided a platform for the educators to set common tests as well as assist one another with curriculum issues. The KZN Provincial Education Department provided the Eswatini schools with all Grade 12 quarterly standardised tests but only Mathematics, Mathematics Literacy, Physical Sciences, Life Sciences and Accounting tests for Grades 10 and 11. Both the formal tests that were not provided by the KZN Province and informal tasks were set at the cluster level. The educators formed a cluster in the form of a community of learners. The cluster meetings enabled novice educators to 'learn on the job' thus promoting both job satisfaction and morale. An educator commented that:

"*We have workshops at cluster level where we set common tests and assist one another. We set formal and informal common tests that we don't get from the UDED. I feel more comfortable teaching CAPS curriculum than EGCSE*" (P22).

In addition to the assistance the educators received from their colleagues, there were also quarterly (March, June, September and December) submission of performance monitoring reports to the UDED's Examination Department, SAs and SMTs. The Examination Department expected every school to submit the school's result analysis after each set of quarterly tests. This analysis assisted the Department to identify problem areas with remedial measures then being instituted to assist under-performing subject educators. At school level the SMTs monitored the: correct usage and coverage of ATPs, provision of the right content to learners, administration of moderated tests to learners and proper marking. An educator noted that:

"*We mainly receive help from the UDED's education specialists mainly through social media. Each year we invite mathematics, physical sciences and accounting educators from schools in uMkhanyakude District to come and revise with our learners*" (P4).

The following step in the implementation process involved the availability of text books. Most of the schools had the required prescribed textbooks with some having the original textbooks while others were using photocopies of the textbooks. The educators mentioned

that textbooks made their teaching far easier. Like all other scholastic materials, the textbooks were bought using school funds. Unlike in South Africa where public schools are fully funded by the state, in Eswatini, the public schools charged tuition fees to supplement the government funding (MoET, 1999). Although the government stipulated the maximum fees that a public school could charge, private schools were allowed to charge the fees they deemed appropriate. The cost of the scholastic materials was embedded in the tuition fees. Initially textbooks were sourced from South Africa. However, in 2017, South African and local booksellers seized a business opportunity and opened bookshops in Eswatini to sell the textbooks. The emergence of book sellers in Eswatini reduced the cost of textbooks and enabled learners to acquire textbooks. This made teaching much easier. One of the educators mentioned that:

> "*Before the opening up of bookshops selling CAPS text books in Eswatini, we had to go to South Africa or order online and this would take time. Unlike in Eswatini, book sellers in South Africa did not stock text books. It is easier to teach using textbooks. You move together, give assignments and we encourage learners to read ahead of the teacher*" (P7).

This category revealed that, although most of the educators in the private schools offering the CAPS curriculum had never trained as educators, they, nevertheless, the CAPS curriculum user friendly. Educators were empowered in their subject areas through workshops and the formation of subject clusters. In addition, the availability of textbooks in Eswatini as well as the UDED making available relevant policies, circulars and quarterly assessment tasks facilitated teaching.

5.2.3.3. Category 3: Parents

The parents, as partners in education played an integral role in the curriculum implementation. All the schools held consultation days or open days where the parents had to meet with each subject educator in the presence of the learner to discuss the learner's academic progress. However, some parents expressed their disappointment at government's reluctance to support the processes involved in implementing CAPS curriculum. A parent articulated that:

> "*The school invites us to school on open days where we discuss our children's academic issues. I also buy revision materials from South Africa to supplement the schoolwork and assist my child to revise. Our government does not care about our*

> *children's future although there is much in Eswatini that is copied from South Africa*" (P14).

It appeared that Mathematics was a primary point of contention for both parents and schools. The parents often expressed the wish that their children could take Mathematics instead of Mathematics Literacy while the SMT often yielded to the demands of the parent without taking the learner's abilities into consideration. If they were not able to cope with Mathematics, the learners then had to change back to Mathematics Literacy in the higher classes. Since the CAPS curriculum employed a spiral approach (what is taught in Grade 10 links to Grades 11 and 12), changing a subject in Grades 11 or 12 would mean the learner would have missed the work covered in the previous grade/s. The parents' preference for Mathematics was based partially on the UNESWA's reluctance to admit learners with Mathematics Literacy. Although the UNESWA did eventually admitted these learners, most of the parents were sceptical about allowing their children to enrol for Mathematics Literacy.

It emerged from the interview responses that the U-Tech centre performed poorly in Mathematics, Mathematics Literacy, Physical Sciences and Accounting and, as a result, parents hired private tutors to help their children with extra lessons during weekends and holidays.

Since NSC holders were also admitted by UNESWA, parents wondered why UNESWA's admission points for NSC were the same as those for EGCSE holders yet SAQA rated EGCSE as equivalent to the South African Grade 11. UNESWA originally rated the NSC highly rated, but later downgraded it because, according to an official in the MoET, concerned Swazis wondered why a foreign high school certificate would be preferred to their own. A parent expressed the following view:

> "*In the beginning, learners with Mathematics Literacy were never admitted at UNESWA. We were told that Mathematics Literacy was useless. We had to change our children to Mathematics yet our children failed Mathematics. We organised outside people to coach our children. I have issues with UNESWA awarding both CAPS and EGCSE subjects the same admission points*" (P26).

Another parent shared similar sentiments about Mathematics Literacy,

"*The negativity towards Mathematics Literacy also drives learners to choosing Mathematics. Learners are told by some educators and parents that Mathematics Literacy is useless. So why should learners choose a useless subject?*" (P10).

This category disclosed that the parents played an important role in the implementation of a school's curriculum by continuously checking their children's academic record and having a say in the choice of a future career of their children. However, other than this, the parents had not played an active role in the actual implementation of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini.

5.2.3.4. Category 4: School Management Teams (SMTs)

Both SMTs and HoDs played an important role in the implementation and monitoring processes. Being experts in their subject areas, the HoDs play a significant role in determining the teaching standards. The findings revealed that the SMTs boosted teaching morale by encouraging and recognising educators' contribution, procuring teaching resources and facilitating the adaption of standard procedures.

The SMT competence involves advising learners on matters involving admissions and subject combination as well as promotion and progression of learners. A form had to be designed whereby parents consented to the subject choice made by the learners. The SMTs involved subject educators, parents and school career guidance departments in this. Mathematics and Mathematics Literacy guided the SMTs when channelling learners to science and humanity subjects. Learners with low Mathematics marks were not allowed to take science subjects - they were instead encouraged to choose some commercials subjects. Only one school was able to produce a policy on the choice of subjects (DBE, 2017) at the school. It also emerged that, in pursuit of their children taking popular courses such as medicine and engineering at the university, some parents would push their children to take subject combinations that were beyond their capabilities. However, the final decision had to be made by the learners after taking all factors into consideration.

Furthermore, it was mentioned that some learners chose subjects because of peer pressure only to realise after Grade 10 that their talents lay elsewhere. The study found that most of the schools encouraged all the lower achieving learners in Grades 10 to 12 to take tourism because it was easy to pass would boost their university entry points. A principal commented:

> "*The choice of subjects is supervised by educators and in consultation with parents. Some learners choose subjects that appeal to them, whereas some are pushed by their parents and by peer pressure ... In the end, these learners fail and either repeat classes or change subjects altogether*" (P14).

Although it emerged that all the schools knew the admission policy, not school had an admission policy (DBE, 1998). In addition, it also emerged from the data that most of the schools started the CAPS curriculum in Grade 10 although two of the schools admitted learners from Grade 8 upwards. In addition, some schools illegally admitted learners – EGCSE holders who were Grade 12 leavers – in Grade 11. The SMT argued that that EGCSE was equivalent to Grade 11 (level 3) on the South African National Qualification Framework (NQF) scale. This was confirmed by a SAQA certificate available in one school (South Africa, 2019). A principal mentioned that:

> "*We admit EGCSE holders in Grade 11 and such learners perform exceedingly well. The SAQA evaluation report ranks our EGCSE Grade 12 as equivalent to the South African Grade 11*" (P13).

The promotion and progression of learners were conducted in line with the South African Department of Basic Education Policy on the Programme and Promotion Requirements (DBE, 2017). According to the CAPS curriculum's National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements (NPPPR):

> "*No learner is allowed to stay longer than four years in a phase. For example, if a learner has failed and repeated in Grade 10, such a learner would not repeat the same phase unless the failure had been caused by deliberate absenteeism*" (DBE, 2017).

All the schools had soft copies of the promotion and progression policies in their files. The SMTs indicated that educators, parents and career guidance department personnel engaged during progression cases. An HoD expressed the following view:

> "*We promote as per promotion policy, making a learner to repeat once in each phase. Learners with special needs are usually assisted to apply for concession from the KZN Provincial Education Department*" (P13).

Since curriculum implementation requires effective monitoring, the principals and their deputies monitored the class attendance of both learners and educators; punctuality and the

availability of scholastic materials while the HoDs handled curriculum delivery and coverage in the classroom. They all worked as a team. Each school chose one member of the SMT to act as a coordinator, who liaised with a national coordinator at U-tech on matters pertaining to the implementation of the CAPS curriculum. All correspondence from the KZN Education Department was sent to the national coordinator at U-tech who distributed it to other coordinators, using mainly social media such as WhatsApp.

The study found that the majority of the HoDs carried out class visits and encouraged team teaching. There was a dual system for checking official books (preparation books, scheme books or ATPs, and records of marks) in some of the schools where the HoDs checked the educators' official books then forwarded them to the deputy principal in-charge of academics for counter checking at the end of each academic term. In order to monitor curriculum content and coverage, the HoDs randomly picked learners' exercise books and checked their notes and classwork. Where help was needed, educators were engaged and assisted with a view to affecting an improvement. The HoD articulated that:

> "*I work hand in hand with the administration in making sure that my department prep and scheme of work was according to the policy guidelines. I check and submit our official books to the deputy principal every Friday. I monitor classroom activity by checking a sample of exercise books*" (P 5).

This category showed that HoDs and the principals played a vital role in the curriculum implementation processes by monitoring and maintaining teaching standards.

5.2.3.5. Category 5: MoET officials

The MoET as the custodian of the education policy in the country was expected to be involved in the CAPS Curriculum implementation processes. However, it emerged that the MoET did not actively support the UDED in the implementation processes; for example, even in the two public schools that offered the CAPS curriculum, the MoET maintained the school premises and paid the educators' salaries without any involvement in the standardisation and monitoring of the implementation processes. Surprisingly, some of the MoET officials viewed the implementation of the CAPS curriculum as requiring MoET intervention despite the almost non-existent relationship between the schools offering the CAPS curriculum and the MoET. According to a MoET official, this unhealthy relationship had developed in 2018 when the MoET had advised all the schools offering CAPS not to admit learners in Grade 10.With the exception of one school, none of the schools had heeded

this advice. In addition, the official mentioned that some of the schools offering the CAPS curriculum were operating illegally.

Since most of the learners in these schools were the children of the elite middle-class citizens, the MoET had adopted a policy of silence for fear of criticism. Consequently, the absence of the MoET in the implementation process had created a supervisory gap that had led to a lack of clarity on the transferred curriculum. Consequently the parents who approached the MoET officials were given no advice on issues concerning the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. Apart from the school-based monitoring structures, there were no other internal monitoring structures that assisted the schools which offered the CAPS curriculum. As expressed by a MoET official, this absence had created a vacuum.

> "*Let us have many curricula but the ministry should guide parents. Parents need to be told whether the CAPS is fit for their children or not. There are some parents who keep on asking for my opinion on the CAPS curriculum but I choose to keep quiet. Mainly, it is the elite parents who enrol their children for CAPS. Maybe, they have seen the advantages of the CAPS curriculum*" (P29).

The district monitoring system in Eswatini was drawn by the regional education officer (REO) and subject advisor (locally known as school inspectors). In common with the officials at the national level, the district education officials in Eswatini had never actively taken part in the processes involved in implementing and monitoring of the CAPs curriculum, with the school inspectors expressing their ignorance about the CAPS curriculum implementation. The REO expressed the following view:

> *"We were never consulted before the schools implemented the curriculum. We know nothing about the curriculum. A principal of one of the schools decided on his own to introduce this curriculum. It's a pity we cannot monitor the schools. Since it involves Swazi children, we are supposed to be involved. It is a tricky situation. We cannot stop the schools because the parents need the curriculum and are financing it but at the same time we cannot be seen encouraging them to continue*"

5.2.3.6. Category 6: The uMkhanyakude District Education Department official

The subject advisors from uMkhanyakude District, where the Eswatini schools were registered for NSC examinations, had assisted in the implementation of the CAPS curriculum

by inviting and meeting Eswatini educators in their offices at Mkuze (the headquarters of uMkhanyakude District) in KZN. Mkuze is 45km from the Eswatini border (Figure 5.2). The subject advisors acknowledged that the UDED had assisted educators in the FET phase by providing policy documents. However, only the SAs of three subjects (Mathematics, SiSwati and Accounting) had organised workshops in Eswatini with a view to identifying learning gaps and assisting educators. The Senior Phase (Grades 7-9) was never monitored. The UDED's examination specialists expressed their willingness to assist Eswatini schools privately with the SBA management but lamented over their inability to go to Eswatini freely. The SAs lacked the finances required to visit the Eswatini schools.

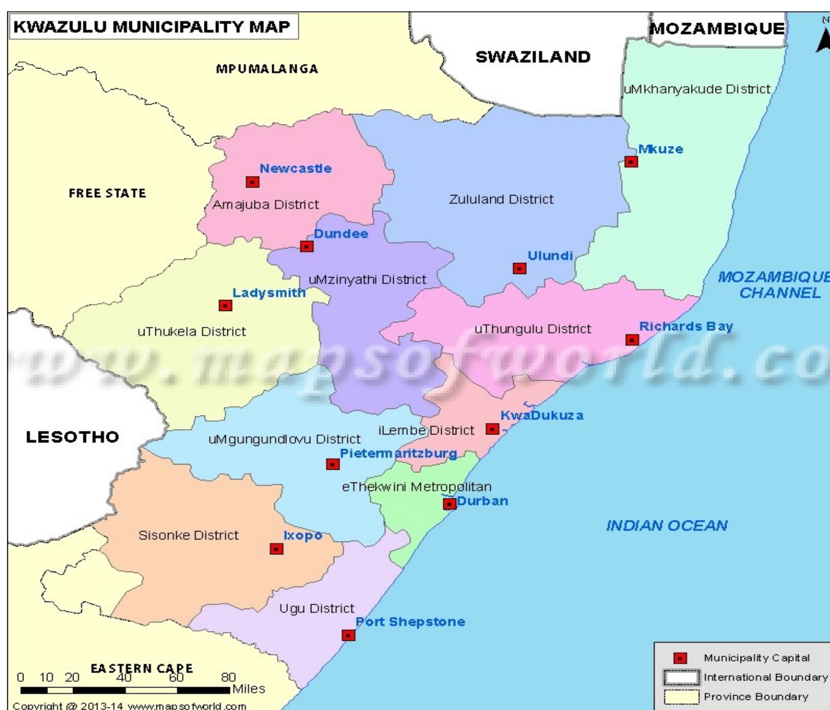

Figure 5.2: Map of KwaZulu-Natal showing the position of Mkuze from Eswatini border.

Source: http//www.mapsofworld.com

In addition, monitoring the Eswatini schools was viewed as an additional workload to the officials' already tight schedule. Their monitoring processes involved running both the October/November NSC examinations and the February/March supplementary examinations. This was always a cumbersome exercise as the examination officials from the UDED had to transport the examination papers from South Africa to Eswatini daily basis. An examination specialist stated that:

> "*The CAPS curriculum assessment is not well monitored as our officials have to work in another country without legal authority. We provide quarterly assessment tests (March, June, September and December) to all schools through U-Tech. We analyse the performance to establish problem areas and then contact the curriculum department for remedial action. During October/November examinations sessions, we receive support from provincial, National Department of Education and Umalusi. We transport the examination papers to Eswatini every day. We always find Eswatini police at the border to escort the papers from the border to the examination centre and they remain at the examination venue with us in order to provide security. The U-Tech Centre covers all the expenses*" (P4).

The examination officials revealed that they experienced difficulties in starting the examinations on time. They expressed the wish that the examination papers be stored in Eswatini by the Examinations Council of Eswatini (ECOS). In the prevailing system, common tests were issued by UDED's examination department on the morning of the day on which they were written, with the Eswatini schools having to collect the papers from the UDED offices on those days. Since the border only opened at 7 a.m., the Eswatini schools started writing the tests after KZN had started writing. In order to minimise leakage of the tests, UDED made an arrangement with Eswatini schools that started writing the papers early to collect question papers immediately their learners had finished writing. A HoD commented that:

> "*The common tests and scopes are good at setting the teaching pace. However, common examination papers always reach us late. So, we always start our papers late yet schools like U-Tech near the KZN border start on time. We are given one copy to duplicate and sometimes we experience paper jams and power blackouts while photocopying and we have to postpone the papers to the next day*" (P5).

The monitoring process also involved subject advisors visiting Eswatini schools which offered the CAPS curriculum in 2018 to conduct a whole school evaluation (WSE) that includes moderation. The policy on School Based Assessment (DoE, 2017, p.17) requires that:

> "*District support services co-ordinate staff development programmes in response to educators' individual professional needs, the findings of WSE, and the requirements of provincial and national policies and initiatives*".

The subject advisors considered the exercise to be beneficial as they were able to identify and assist the educators with some implementation challenges such as drawing a timetable, lesson preparation and schemes of work. A subject advisor explained that:

> "*We did a thorough monitoring exercise in Eswatini only once in 2018. A group of ten subject advisors monitored one school for a whole day checking and assisting the educators with all curriculum issues. It was beneficial to us and the schools. We are now able to assist them based on tangible evidence. Some schools knew nothing at all. We suspended the exercise and inducted them*" (P22).

Another subject advisor supported this view stating that:

> "*The monitoring assists us to find out whether the educators have interpreted and understood the policies and to advise them accordingly. Monitoring also helps us to check whether educators understand the content. Workshops are then organised to help educators where gaps exist. We also check for the presence of formal and informal tasks in the learners' note books. We also check whether the learners' tasks are marked according to the standards set as well as checking the evidence of evaluation using the record of marks*" (P30).

Despite the fact that monitoring is a crucial component of every curriculum the subject advisors made frequent references to their failure to visit the Eswatini schools on a regular basis. However, by private arrangement with the Eswatini schools some of the subject advisors had managed to visit schools and assist the educators. Nevertheless, this category reveals that the subject advisors appeared to have very little information on the way in which the CAPS curriculum was being implemented in Eswatini and that they relied solely on an analysis of the marks from the quarterly tests. However, although subject advisors were concerned about the way in which the schools were interpreting the policy documents and managing the implementation they were not able to intervene.

As far as the management of the NSC examinations in Eswatini were concerned, it emerged that officials from the National Department of Education, the Examination Department and Umalusi (the department under the DBE that monitors the integrity of the NSC examinations) in South Africa visited the U-Tech examination centre each time examinations were written in October and November. They checked the processes involved in managing the NSC examinations records in the visitors' logbook and that, in one school, the logbook indicated

that all the officials were not happy with the large number of candidates registered at one centre (DBE, 2018).

Overall, theme three revealed that the SMTs were managing the implementation of monitoring processes at the school level. The processes included, but were not limited to, the provision of teaching materials and a conducive teaching environment; class visits, team teaching; harmonising teaching loads and class sizes; formation of subject clusters and regular checking of official books. However, it emerged that the education and examination specialists rarely visited the Eswatini schools although they did make sure that all the educators received ATPs, examination scopes, programmes of assessment, common tests and other revision materials. All the educators were invited to the uMkhanyakude district offices. The management of the SBA provided a

> "*four tier model at the School, District, Province and National levels all concerned with amongst others, to establish whether the assessment was conducted in a fair and correct manner so as to provide feedback on the quality assurance findings with a view to improving the quality of SBA*" (DBE, 2017, p. 8).

The SBA mark also helped the subject advisors to conduct a performance assessment of each school affiliated to U-Tech and advise the educators accordingly. Since curriculum implementation and monitoring require the involvement of all stakeholders the lack of full participation on the part of the subject advisors had complicated the implementation exercise.

5.2.4. Theme 4: Challenges in transferring and implementing the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini

Theme four explored the challenges faced by all the stakeholders in the processes involved in transferring and implementing the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. The challenges faced by each group of stakeholders were identified and categorised together as contextual issues, subject delivery, inadequate teaching support, finances, uncertainty, lack of legal instrument, immigration issues, minimum involvement on the part of the MoET and the absence of the lower curriculum (fundamental and senior) phases.

5.2.4.1. Category 1: Contextual suitability

One of the challenges involved in transferring the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini was the contextual unsuitability in the borrowing country, namely, Eswatini. Such context included

the available school funding, constitutional and legal systems, student characteristics, language patterns, teacher' abilities, parents' expectations and cultural values. The findings revealed the following as major contextual challenges:

Firstly, all the curriculum textbooks and examples were based on the South African context. In addition, the language used in the CAPS policies and textbooks was based on the Constitution of the Republic South of Africa (1996) which was foreign to Eswatini educators and learners. The educators indicated that:

> "*The difficulty is that some topics cannot be related to Eswatini context e.g. current affairs. Learners have to be taught to assume that they are in South Africa.*" (P27).
>
> "*The examples given in most textbooks are taken from South Africa. The learners rarely find examples on Eswatini. In some subjects, such as business studies, we are expected to use South Africa newspapers to teach and trace share measurements on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange about which our learners have no idea*" (P14).

Second, the discrepancy in the two countries' school calendars was a challenge. I gathered that the majority of the Eswatini schools offering the CAPS curriculum followed Eswatini's school calendar with those that followed the KZN calendar recording low student attendance when the Eswatini schools were on holiday. In addition, some cultural events and holidays fell on the days when the KZN schools were open whereas some South African public holidays fell on Eswatini's school days. A member of SMT commented:

> "*The school calendars of our two countries are not aligned. Eswatini has three school academic terms while South Africa has four school terms. Schools end up not going on holidays at the same time. The two countries' holidays also fall on different dates. This hampers the smooth running of the CAPS curriculum. For example, in the third term, the trial examinations begin while the Eswatini schools are still on holiday. These holidays cannot be tampered with as they are of cultural importance to the nation*" (P13).

Thirdly, some of the participants felt strongly that Eswatini's sovereignty was guaranteed and propagated by its education system and, thus that the products of its education system would guarantee the continuity of both, in terms of culture and sovereignty. Hence, the opponents of a foreign curriculum argued that the CAPS curriculum would erode Eswatini's culture, even

accusing some South Africans of behaving in a patronising way by not only always criticising Eswatini's system of governance but also advocating change in the country. They were of the view that a country's norms and values are inculcated into the citizens partly through its education system. They cited some differences between the two countries such as abortion, religious education, sexual orientation and system of government. Members of the SMT explained that:

> "*We should remember that the CAPS curriculum in South Africa was designed to cater for their values and culture. Some CAPS teachings contradict the traditional values in Eswatini. For example, there is freedom of religion in South Africa and all religions are taught in schools while Eswatini promotes Christian education only. Eswatini was declared a strictly Christian state in 2017. However, whereas teaching of Bible knowledge was made compulsory in all schools, all the CAPS private schools do not offer Bible knowledge. The CAPS Curriculum may in the long run, prove toxic to Eswatini society*" (P10).

> "*Laws like abortion laws and same sex marriage contradict Eswatini laws. When teaching, you need to be alert as a teacher and keep on channelling learners, otherwise they will end up getting confused*" (P27).

Fourthly, the majority of the parents were not able to assist their children with their school work because most of the content taught was different to what they had covered in their school days. One parent said:

> "*As an educator myself, I would love to assist my child, but I don't know where to begin. Their stuff is different*" (P19).

Fifthly, all the participants expressed the view that South African CAPS curriculum had been designed to address the past curriculum discrepancies that were unique to South Africa. Moreover, they mentioned that, at the time of the study, the CAPS curriculum was still in transition as the country was still working towards an ideal curriculum. They argued that implementing such a curriculum would be costly because, each time South Africa changed the curriculum, Eswatini would have to follow suit by not only changing the curriculum, but by also changing the textbooks as each news curriculum usually require new textbooks. They stated that the Eswatini school curriculum should be informed by the country's past challenges and future aspirations. An official of the MoET stated:

"*The CAPS curriculum was meant to address the CAPS curriculum of the oppressed in South Africa. We need to adopt it with caution. Let us pick only what works for us and combine it with ours ... A sovereign state cannot adopt another country's curriculum. This is patriotism at play. Politics also play part in the CAPS curriculum choice. South Africa changes its curriculum so frequently. This would mean that, each time it changes, Eswatini also has to change. This will end up being costly*" (P27).

Sixthly, the lack of involvement by the MoET in taking a leading role in the monitoring of the implementation of the CAPS curriculum had posed implementation challenges as some schools offering the CAPS curriculum had flouted some policies. An official in the MoET wondered why the government had not stopped the implementation of the CAPS curriculum rather than allowing schools in the country to operate without supervision. An official from the MoET argued that:

"*It is ok to have many curricula, but the ministry should guide parents. I think the government is relaxed and does not want conflict with the CAPS schools in the country. The MoET are relegating its responsibility*" (P29).

5.2.4.2. Category 2: Curriculum delivery

Although, as a change process, a curriculum change implementation process required adequate follow-through, including expert consultation, demonstrations and in-service training, the Eswatini CAPS educators had never experienced this and had to teach a curriculum about which they knew either little or nothing. The educators had never attended any teacher professional development programmes. Furthermore, they educators were not allowed to mark the October /November NSC examinations despite the fact that marking is a way in which to gain experience. It transpired that the UDED could not submit their requests to the KZN Provincial Education Department without the approval of the South African Democratic Teachers Union. Curriculum delivery was also affected by the UDED slotting in-service training on teaching days which the educators viewed as interfering with their teaching. Moreover, attending workshops proved expensive for some Eswatini schools whose personnel had to travel long distances and sometimes sleep over in South Africa. These workshops often involved hiring vehicles and securing cross-border permits to transport educators and learners to and from South Africa. An educator explained that:

> "*Travelling to South Africa for workshops demands lots of money yet our bosses are businessmen who aim at maximum profits. We rarely attend workshops in South Africa. We have slowly learnt on the job. Unfortunately, the learners we learnt on suffered*" (P10).

The teaching environment and resources for teaching posed a further challenge. In some schools the high numbers in class as well as the shortage of educators and scholastic materials were mentioned as obstacles to teaching. In addition, few schools had science laboratories while others mentioned that they used mobile laboratories. In addition, too many teaching periods a week was a demotivating factor for most educators. Educators lamented:

> "*Most schools exploit educators. They overload us with many periods but pay us peanuts. In some schools, my colleagues teach 120 learners. Some educators never mark tests. They simply award marks to keep their jobs. The management knows but does nothing. Imagine the output! No one monitors what is going on in my school. Our boss does as he pleases*" (P7).

It is essential that the policies which needed to be interpreted and applied to the implementation of the CAPS curriculum were being applied and interpreted by educators who were not able to do this properly. The educators decried the huge volume of policy paper work and the accompanying circulars. This was contrary to one of the objectives of introducing of CAPS curriculum, namely, to lighten the teachers' workload and reduce the portfolio files of the learners and teachers that were associated with the RNCS (DBE, 2011).

The high turnover of educators in the majority of schools exacerbated the problem. The majority of the schools were able to retain educators for more than a year. Each time new educators were hired, the SMT had to explain the policies to them. This was challenging for the majority of the SMTs. In addition, low salaries together with the fact that salaries were sometimes not paid forced educators to always be on the lookout for other opportunities. Moreover, subjects were being taught by educators who had never trained as teachers; for example, in one school that offered Afrikaans, an unqualified Afrikaner speaker had been hired as an Afrikaans teacher despite the person having no teaching qualifications in the subject. In another school which had a new principal, the management of the CAPS curriculum had been delegated to an educator who advised the principal on implementation issues. One Subject advisor mentioned:

"*Our recent visit revealed that some schools were not taking the CAPS Curriculum seriously. Some principals delegated their duties to their HoDs. In one school I visited, the principal knew almost nothing about CAPS. He relied on educators to interpret the CAPS policies. Much more serious is the high turnover of educators*" (P3).

The offering of more than one curriculum was also proving problematic for some schools, for example, three schools offered more than one curriculum (CAPS, EGCSE and IGCSE). In addition, the same educators taught all the three of the curricula except in one school where each curriculum had its own educators. The teaching of more than one curriculum was placing huge stress on the educators as they had to switch between the two/three curricula on a daily basis while in one school, the CAPS and EGCSE learners were taught together. In the school that offered the three curricula separately, different educators were hired to teach each curriculum. Learners studying the CAPS and the EGCSE curricula in the same school started the academic term and closed for holidays at different times of the year. In addition, the salaries of the CAPS curriculum educators were not only negotiable but were also paid by the school using school fees paid by learners whereas the EGCSE educators were paid by the government. An educator lamented:

"*We have always requested that the school hires separate educators for each curriculum but our requests fall on deaf ears. Mostly, the EGCSE suffers as the CAPS curriculum is very demanding. When we are away for workshops and termly SBA moderation, our EGCSE learners are left alone. We also aligned our assessment calendar to the CAPS calendar*" (P7).

Although most of the educators regarded the CAPS curriculum very highly, one SMT member considered the CAPS curriculum shallow because certain topics which formed part of the general knowledge for a high school leaver had been eliminated while in subjects such as Mathematics and Physical Sciences, some important topics were excluded. The SMTs complained:

"*The CAPS curriculum suffers from the examination syndrome and teaches only what is going to be examined. Hence, their latest school campaign has been dubbed operation 'JIKA INFUNDO'. The CAPS curriculum is very shallow. The CAPS curriculum produces less knowledgeable learners. The rest of the content is put aside. We need high school leavers who are knowledgeable*" (P16).

Eswatini's inability to start CAPS in the fundamental and GET phases, coupled with some schools flouting the CAPS admissions policy (1998) in the FET phase, was creating a transition problem, with the majority of the learners failing to understand certain topics in FET phase. Hence, the educators struggled to ascertain whether the learners had forgotten the material taught in the preceding phases or had never been taught at all. However, some educators mentioned that learners with EGCSE integrated into the CAPS curriculum in most subjects with the exception of Mathematics and Science. One educator emphasised:

> "*We need some schools to start CAPS curriculum in Grade R. There is assumed knowledge in subsequent classes. Learners end up being confused in Grades 8 and 10. Our main challenge now is how to link our curriculum right from primary level to FET. We allow learners to join the school in any grade up to grade 12 and we pass them*" (P3).

Curriculum delivery required needed the support of subject advisors; hence, the subject advisors expressed their willingness to assist the Eswatini CAPS educators but were constrained by both financial and border requirements. In the main, they ended up giving the Eswatini educators assistance based on the mistakes discovered in South African schools. The only time they visited the Eswatini schools, the subject advisors found that in some schools, one educator taught up to four subjects. The SAs further noted that the marking of tasks in some schools was below the required standards. Some educators even awarded marks without actually marking learners' work. In addition, the teaching timetables in all the schools were not aligned with the CAPS timetable policy of 30 minutes per period. In some schools a subject assigned five hours a week was given one hour. A subject advisor stated:

> "*During termly SBA moderation, you find one teacher teaching up to four subjects in the same grade. While moderating, I remarked one script and most marks dropped by over 20%. This educator had spent only one month teaching the CAPS curriculum*" (P31).

Lastly, the slow pace at which he Eswatini Curriculum Design Centre (ECDC) was streamlining the high school curriculum was of great concern to the SMTs, with the ECDC being blamed for the failure to formulate a curriculum that addressed the country's needs. Most of the participants were of the view that the ECDC should have evaluated the EGCSE curriculum and advised the MoET on how to benchmark it with the CAPS curriculum. A principal lamented:

"*The Eswatini Curriculum Centre is to blame for the curriculum chaos in the country's high schools. They have failed to articulate the proper curriculum for the country. They have relegated their duty of designing and monitoring curricula to the ECoS who have positioned themselves as the curriculum designer and assessor as well as quality controller*" (P26).

5.2.4.3. Category 3: High tuition fees

Whereas in South Africa education in public schools was free, in Eswatini public high schools charge government-regulated tuition fees, and private schools charge tuition fees based on demand and supply. The study finding revealed that low income parents could not afford to pay the high fees levied by the private schools that offered the CAPS curriculum. Nevertheless, these parents enrolled their children for the CAPS curriculum, and then often defaulted on fees payment. Consequently, their children were being excluded from the schools because of the non-payment of the full fees. This had an adverse on the smooth running of the schools because of shortfalls in the budgets which had been drawn up based on the total enrolment. This often resulted in late payment of salaries which had a direct, negative effect on the morale of the educators, compromising their motivation to teach properly. On the one hand, some parents expected the CAPS curriculum to be inexpensive since it was free in South Africa while, on the other hand, the schools offering the CAPS curriculum justified their high school fees on the grounds of having to pay the educators' salaries and also meet other costs of running the schools, for example rent, electricity and water bills and many others. Most of these private schools had started as colleges offering business management courses with part-time learners upgrading their NSC subjects. However, they had ended up admitting full-time students. One parent explained:

"*The schools offering the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini are very expensive yet the CAPS curriculum in South Africa is free for all. The school fees and other requirements such as trips and laptops make the cost of maintaining a child under the CAPS curriculum very high" (P7).*

5.2.4.4. Category 4: Lack of a legal instrument and border immigration documents

The absence of a legal document allowing Eswatini to offer the South African CAPS curriculum was an impediment that majority of the participants cited as an obstacle to the implementation processes. For example, the UDED subject advisors lamented their inability

to carry out effective monitoring in Eswatini due to bureaucracy, protocols and different legislation governing the two countries. The subject advisors had to apply to the KZN Provincial Head of Education Department which in turn had to apply to both the National Department of Basic Education and the Department of International Relations and Cooperation for permission to monitor Eswatini schools. The absence of a legal instrument also rendered the subject advisors' operation in Eswatini difficult. They had to work outside their official working hours and sometimes use their personal savings in order to assist Eswatini schools. A subject advisor lamented:

> "*We need an instrument that guides and empowers us to operate in Eswatini. We are currently helping our brothers; otherwise it is illegal to interfere in another country's education system*" (P30).

Moreover, since the examination officials from UDED, who crossed the border every day to transport the October/November NSC examinations materials to and from Eswatini, had no legal document to allow them to take South African examination papers outside the country. They had to rely on negotiations with border authorities and this sometimes caused delays. An official from the examination department complained:

> "*At the beginning the examination papers were subjected to border searches. The border formalities delayed the question papers reaching Eswatini. The border opens at 7 a.m. and we had to drive a distance of 65km to the centre. One day I got a puncture rushing to the exam centre*" (P4).

The examination officials further expressed their frustration at having to manage the U-Tech Centre where, in the three years preceding the study, number of learners that had written their examinations at the centre were more than the maximum prescribed number of 500 candidates for the centre. The Regulations Pertaining to the Conducting, Administration and Management of Assessment for NSC Examinations states:

> "*The total of candidates at an examination centre may not exceed 500 for any one session, unless prior approval has been obtained from the Head of Assessment body*" (DBE, 2008, p. 33).

An official from the UDED Examination Department clarified:

> "*In 2018, the total number of full-time candidates was 885. Controlling the examination papers and answer scripts was a big challenge. In the past candidates ended up writing wrong papers. This was common with Mathematics and Language papers*" (P4).

Although most educators complied with the CAPS curriculum policies, the subject advisors expressed their frustration at their inability to assist some non-compliant educators in Eswatini because they had no legal authority to act, for example, they could not take any action against a principal who admitted learners in Grade 11 instead of Grade 10. One subject advisor mentioned in this regard:

> "*It is not possible to assist deserving educators in Eswatini as South African subject advisors do not have authority over Eswatini educators. In South Africa we transfer a non-performing principal to another school that performs better in order to assist the principal. We are unable to do the same in Eswatini as South African education laws do not apply in Eswatini. If Eswatini continues with the CAPS curriculum, their schools must comply*" (P8).

In the view of the fact that transfer of the CAPS Curriculum happened across the border, learners and educators in Eswatini, as well as the subject advisors in South Africa, had to comply with the immigration requirements whenever they needed to cross the border into either country. However, some of the subject advisors and educators in Eswatini did not have the required travel documents to cross the border. It transpired that some subject advisors had never travelled outside of South Africa and saw no need to have a passport. However, this lack of travel documents denied them an opportunity to assist in Eswatini. One subject advisor highlighted:

> "*We have financial challenges monitoring schools in another country as, our country does not finance our activities in Eswatini. We only force matters because most of the educators need assistance and close monitoring. As it is now, we only meet Eswatini educators once a term during the moderation period and for only four hours. Some schools do not attend the above meetings*" (P31).

5.2.4.5. Category 5: The minimum involvement of the MoET

Despite the MoET being the custodian of the education policy in Eswatini the study revealed that the MoET had a strained relationship with the principals of the schools that offered the CAPS curriculum. The implementation of CAPS in Eswatini was scheduled by the South African Department of Basic Education (DBE) in letters sent to the MoET in Eswatini. These letters would indicate that after a stipulated time, the schools should have stopped offering CAPS. However, the schools concerned would continue admitting learners for CAPS with or without permission from the DBE and outside the mandate of the MoET. This displeased the

MoET officials who thought the directors of the schools offering CAPS were not taking their advice seriously.

It was found that, although the senior MoET officials had instructed the schools to stop offering the CAPS curriculum, the instruction had gone unheeded.
Accordingly, junior MoET officials feared to assist or become involved with the schools offering the CAPS curriculum. As a result, the schools offering the CAPS curriculum operated unsupervised. However, some officials acknowledged that the CAPS curriculum was, in fact, empowering Eswatini children although they still hesitated to support the curriculum for fear of being labelled as unpatriotic and rebellious by their superiors. Consequently, the MoET officials had no information on the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in the country despite the fact that the Eswatini Education Policy stipulates:

> "*School supervision and monitoring was a competence of the REO together with Regional Inspectors who amongst others ensure direct support for education services and quality assurance thereof*" (MoET, 2018).

An official from the MoET asserted in this regard:

> "*The MoET has little information on the CAPS implementation in Eswatini. Schools write at U-tech in Big Bend. A group of schools decided on their own to arrange with the South African government to transfer the CAPS curriculum into Eswatini. The CAPS curriculum has helped Swazi parents to achieve their dreams. We need permission to become involved in CAPS issues. Otherwise, it is the mandate of the ministry to oversee all educational activities in the country and to check that appropriate education is taught in the country*" (P17).

Moreover, there appeared to be conflicting views about the CAPS Curriculum in Eswatini. Some of the junior MoET officials held the view that since education is a human right, parents have a right to choose the type of curriculum they deem fit for their children. It was revealed that the 2018 Eswatini Parliament had become involved to fast-track the signing of the MoU between Eswatini and South Africa. Unfortunately, the term of the parliamentarians had ended before the selected committee completed the task. The senior MoET officials viewed the parliament's involvement in the matter as interfering in the work of the MoET. An official declared:

> "*People have a right to choose the type of education they want. After all, they pay their own money but we as the MoET cannot simply embrace another country's curriculum. We cannot*

teach our children to feed a foreign university! The situation has been complicated by some MPs who had little knowledge of curriculum issues and who started interfering. It seems as if there are forces outside the ministry that ran the show and the minister has no powers at all, to the extent that sometimes he is scared to act.

Moreover, most of the MoET officials held the view that the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini was a business venture for those schools offering the CAPS curriculum and the MoET had not put measures in place to protect parents. According to the MoET official, eight of the 13 schools only that offered the CAPS curriculum in the country were officially registered and known to the MoET with rest operating illegally. Nevertheless, despite the criticism, the MoET official equated the CAPS Curriculum to a buffet, with both learners and parents having a wider choice of the subjects they wanted. An official commented:

> "*Many schools are cashing in on offering of the CAPS curriculum. These schools are unregulated and, worse still, South African schools inspectors cannot easily operate in Eswatini. Confusing as it is, the CAPS curriculum has helped many of our children to enter professional courses. Few years to come, we shall be having young Eswatini doctors and engineers*" (P17).

5.2.4.6. Category 6: Uncertainty of CAPS existence in Eswatini

The majority of participants expressed their worries about the uncertainty of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. The SMTs mentioned that both parents and educators were always asking whether or not the CAPS curriculum would continue to be offered in the country after 2019. Some parents had been hesitant to enrol their children for the CAPS curriculum in 2018 while the teachers were also looking for jobs elsewhere. The schools were in possession of letters informing them of the decision to stop implementing the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini by 2019. These letters had caused anxiety and had prevented educators from delivering in the schools as they were expected to. A member of the SMT lamented:

> "*We are always receiving conflicting reports from the MoET and U-Tech Principal. We are worried because the CAPS curriculum may end anytime. We don't know where to put these learners and our jobs are at stake*" (P8).

5.3. Conclusion

To summarise, the discussion above revealed the six main challenges that had influenced the transfer of the CAPS curriculum to Eswatini and its implementation there.

First, the transferred curriculum lacked contextual suitability while, second, the overcrowded classes; running more than one curricula in one school; shortage of qualified teachers and scholastic materials as well as inadequate assistance from the South African subject advisors hampered the delivery of the CAPS Curriculum. Third, the absence of primary schools offering the CAPS curriculum in the country, together with some learners joining FET in Grade 11 created a transition mismatch that negatively affected learner performance. Fourth, the high fees charged by most of the schools offering the CAPS curriculum made it difficult for children of the lower-income citizens to enrol at these schools. Some of the learners who had managed to enrol for the CAPS but their parents had not paid any other fees after the deposit fees. These learners had then eventually been excluded for defaulting on the payment fees, thus resulting in some of those learners missing some classes and common tests. Fifth, the absence of a legal instrument between South African and Eswatini governments made it difficult for the two countries to operate. Sixth, the border formalities and immigration expenses frustrated the subject advisors, educators and learners who had to cross the border frequently for monitoring and workshop purposes. Lastly, the non-involvement of the MoET had resulted in the schools offering CAPS operating unmonitored by MoET officials.

The next chapter discusses these findings through the lens of the adopted theories on curriculum transfer.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter re-examines the data which was collected through the lens of the theory which was adopted for the purposes of the study and discussed in Chapter Three as well as in the literature review in Chapter Two. The data analysis was framed by a theoretical framework developed in Chapter Three. The analysis begins with examining the nature of the policy transferred; the events that led to the cross-national attraction and the decisions that were made both before and during the transfer. In addition, all the challenges experienced during the transfer and implementation phases are discussed.

6.2. Nature of policy transferred and stakeholders

According to Dolowitz and Marsh (2000), the various aspects of policies that may be transferred from one system to another include÷ goals; content; instrument; programmes; institutions; ideologies; ideas and attitudes; and negative lessons. Whereas a programme is a complete course of action, a policy is a theory that may include multiple programmes; for example, a curriculum is a policy document comprising different programmes such as syllabi of the various subjects. Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) further suggest that a policy consists of a set of principles agreed upon by the policy enactors to guide the course of action to be taken to solve an impending problem. Although, traditionally, policy transfer is usually undertaken by government policy actors to improve a situation at home, the study found that the Eswatini education policy enactors had been less involved in the initial processes of transferring and implementing the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. The transfer had been driven mainly by parents through some private high schools. In order to realise the transfer and implementation goals, there was a combination of the South African Department of Education officials and other stakeholders in both the borrowing (Eswatini) and the lending (South Africa) countries had steered the initial transfer and implementation processes.

The transfer was motivated by parents and, eventually, educational practitioners had established private schools to offer the transferred curriculum. The transfer had been a ‘wholesale’ transfer. With the exception of negative lessons, the components of the CAPS Curriculum, for example, goals; content; instrument; programmes; ideologies; ideas;- and

attitudes were transferred and implemented in Eswatini schools as they had been implemented in South African public high schools.

6.3. The Degree of Transfer

The nature of policy transfer also depends on the degree to which the policy is transferred. Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) proposed four degrees of policy transfer, namely, copying, emulation, combination and inspiration.-Of these types of transfer, the transfer of the CAPS curriculum resembled the copying scenario, with a direct and complete transfer of all the policy categories taking place. In order to further understand the degree of policy transfer, Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) introduce the continuum concept that distinguishes between voluntary and coercive transfers. It was clear from the data collected that the-, CAPS curriculum transfer into Eswatini fell at the voluntary end of the continuum. The parents' demand for the CAPS curriculum was taken up by the directors of schools who then approached officials in the Department of Basic Education (DBE) in South Africa. The DBE officials voluntarily offered to assist the Eswatini schools in the implementation processes,-.This was highlighted by a parent who mentioned, *"We received enough support from the South African government which allowed our children to access CAPS curriculum in Eswatini."*

6.4. Policy borrowing

The CAPS curriculum transfer followed the four stages of policy borrowing as discussed by Phillips and Ochs (2003) as well as Dolowitz and Marsh (2000). These stages include cross-national attraction; decision making; re-contextualisation; and internalisation of the transferred policy. The stages complemented the themes that had emerged during the data collection phase. The factors that led to the transfer of CAPS curriculum into Eswatini are explored in the next section on cross-national attraction.

6.4.1. Cross-national attraction

The findings discussed in this section answered the research question, "What factors contributed to the demand for the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?" According to Phillips and Ochs (2003), the factors that influence cross-national attraction fall under two strands of cross-national attraction, namely, stimuli and externalising potential. Whereas the stimuli are the preconditions for borrowing, the externalising potential encompasses the circumstances that were in place at the time when the borrowing occurred. In this study-, the stimuli were

the attributes of the local syllabus that had resulted in some parents in Eswatini seeking foreign curricula that would offer a better curriculum policy. The next section discusses the factors that led to the transfer of the CAPS curriculum by examining each 'stimulus' to the transfer.

6.4.2. The Stimuli to CAPS Curriculum Transfer

The study revealed that the '-stimuli-' for the CAPS curriculum transfer to _ Eswatini comprised mainly the dissatisfaction of some parents with the Eswatini High School Certificate that was not recognised by most South African universities. As Phillips and Ochs (2003) point out, the impending internal dissatisfaction by policy agents (parents in this case) result in their scouting for a better policy (alternative school leaving certificate in this case). The focus fell on the CAPS curriculum that would allow Eswatini school leavers to register at South African universities but also a few other universities in Eastern Europe and far Eastern countries.

The wish of some Swazi parents to enrol their children at South African universities predates 2010 when the CAPS curriculum was first implemented in Eswatini. Before 2010, interested parents either enrolled their children either in South African high schools or at study centres in Eswatini. The study centres in Eswatini,- offered Grade 12 learners only tuition and transport to South African high schools at the end of the year to write the final NSC Examinations. However, keeping their children in South African schools proved too costly for most middle-class parents who began agitating for the transfer of the CAPS curriculum into their country and its implementation there. The agitation was expressed by a parent who indicated, *"The tuition fees and the cost of other needs like transport and upkeep was too high for us"*.

The state and ranking of most of the South African universities also attracted the majority of parents to CAPS curriculum as an avenue to enrolling at these high-status universities. Nine of the South African universities appeared in the top ten best universities in Africa and two in the top 200 best universities in the 2019 world rankings (https://www.timeshighereducation.com/). The world university rankings is a demonstration of neoliberalism and the knowledge economy. Unlike in the past when parents would rely on governments to decide on the type of education children would receive at schools, parents today can easily access information on other universities through social media. Most parents believed that the CAPS curriculum was better than EGCSE because it was a gateway to

South African and other international universities. It therefore appeared to be a curriculum of convenience.

Furthermore, parents argued that the South Africa NSC would shorten their children's tertiary education as they would not first either have to complete a four year BSc UNESWA or, do a one or two year bridging course before enrolling at South African universities for courses such as medicine, engineering, and surveying as they would have to do if they had the Eswatini General Certificate of Secondary Education (EGCSE) which was not recognised by most reputable universities in South Africa.

The scramble for the one public university in Eswatini was compounded by the rapid growth of the number of candidates completing high school in Eswatini, for example, by 2018, there were 277 secondary schools, with 20 299 candidates registered for the EGCSE examinations (ECoS, 2019). Of these candidates, 2286 qualified for university – passed with a C and above in five subjects including English. The UNESWA admissions for a degree programme required a minimum of six passes in EGCSE or the equivalent with the passes including a 50% or above in English and four other relevant subjects (UNESWA, 2019). However, due to limited spaces, the university was able to accommodate the best performing candidates. In addition, the use of a foreign language (English) as a required subject, coupled with high cut-off points for the existing courses at UNESWA, further prevented some learners from enrolling at UNESWA. A parent stated in this regard, *"South Africa has many universities that offer a variety of courses while our university still offers courses that I did in 1991. Some learners are condemned as failures because there is no university space. The easy way to silence them is to brand them failures."*

The failure to offer deserving learners an opportunity to attain an university education is contrary to the Eswatini Education Sector (EDSEC) policy goal that aims at:

> "*providing an equitable education that affords all learners the opportunity to continue with life-long education as well as training that enhances their personal development and global competitiveness*" (MoET, 2018, p. 7).

A principal explained the scramble for university places as follows: "*Out of 10000 candidates that sit for the EGCSE examinations, approximately 1200 are admitted by UNESWA. The rest have to find other places in local institutions or drop out of school*". The lack of sufficient university opportunities in Eswatini was also echoed by UNESCO (2010) and the MoET

(2018, p. xi) which pointed out that there were limited tertiary opportunities that provided the correct mix of skills to ensure the provision of an education in Eswatini that was able to meet national, regional and international market demands.

Moreover, the parents expressed their dissatisfaction with the unregulated high failure rate, the high repetition and dropout rates in Eswatini high schools (Appendix 1 & 2). Some linked this failure to the limited subject combinations that are offered by the EGCSE curriculum. Unlike the CAPS curriculum which includes 44 learning areas – 11 languages and 33 non-languages (DBE, 2019), the EGCSE comprises 11 learning areas (MoET, 2019) thus limiting learners' opportunities to find subjects that match their talents. The study by Khumalo (2013) reveals that Eswatini had the highest dropout rates in SADC at 40% as compared to Botswana at 13%, Zimbabwe at 19% and Zambia at 28% (Appendix 2). A parent lamented, *"My child failed Grade 11 twice and I decided to enrol him for CAPS curriculum. He finished university with a bachelor degree and is currently working."*

Unlike the EGCSE, the CAPS Curriculum National Policy pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements (NPPPR) states that no learner is allowed to remain in a phase for longer than four years, for example, if a learner failed and repeated Grade 10, such a learner would not repeat in the same phase for the second time unless his/her failure had been caused by deliberate absenteeism (DBE, 2017). Learners who failed twice not only progressed to the next grade, but intervention measures were also put in place for such learners. However, in Eswatini, parents were concerned about the absence of a policy to regulate promotions in high schools. Hence, the perceived 'easy-to-pass' nature of the CAPS curriculum was a stimulus for implementing the curriculum.

It is important to note that the absence of a national policy on promotion guidelines in Eswatini meant that each school decided on its own minimum promotions standards in order to produce better results in the classes that wrote national examinations. Appendix 1 shows that more learners repeat Forms 2 and 4 than any other classes, mainly because the subsequent classes (Form 3s and 5) write external examinations. The publication of the Junior Senior Certificate (JSC) and EGCSE results' merit lists without taking into account the nature of the schools and the background of the learners also created a situation where schools avoided admitting low performing learners. Moreover, despite the existing Eswatini EDSEC long-term strategy to achieve a repeat rate policy of 5% (MoET, 2018), learners sometimes repeated the same grade more than once, upon which they were advised to either find another

school or be registered as private candidates to avoid tarnishing the school results. A parent agonised, *"...the promotion criterion used in our high schools is not clear as each school decides on who should proceed or repeat. We live at the mercy of the school principals".* The high repeat rates frustrated many learners and led to some of them losing interest in and dropping out of school (Appendix 2 which shows that the dropout figures in Form 4 are higher than those in Form 5). In addition, Appendix 2 suggests that more girls drop out as compared to their male counterparts, with this being blamed on the country's policy that does not allow girls who become pregnant to repeat at the same institution. The friendly promotion policy in the CAPS curriculum also attracted many parents.

Another catalytic stimulant for the importation of the CAPS curriculum to Eswatini was the parents' mistrust of the Eswatini curriculum which many condemned as volatile. In an attempt to find a curriculum that would address both the parents' and country's concerns, the MoET had moved from the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) to the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) in 2005 and EGCSE 2010. However, some parents were still not happy with the curriculum, partly because of the expenses involved in each change. Unlike in South Africa where the government pays for the textbooks whenever a curriculum is changed, in Eswatini, textbooks are paid for by the parents. The findings revealed that most of the parents who enrolled their children for the CAPS curriculum believed that the curriculum was not only stable, but that it was also internationally benchmarked. This was encapsulated in a parent's appraisal comment that- *"the CAPS curriculum is more advanced than EGCSE. It is internationally recognised".*

In short, the stimuli for the transfer of the CAPS curriculum into Eswatini included inadequate public universities in Eswatini; limited university courses offered at UNESWA; English being used as a university admission criterion; high repeat rates at high school; and parents' under-rating the Eswatini education system.

The next section discusses the 'externalising potential' factors that attracted parents to the CAPS curriculum.

6.4.3. Externalising Potential

The externalising potentials involve external stimuli that foster change (Phillips & Ochs, 2003). Phillips and Ochs (2003) suggest six circumstances of attraction that explain the concept of externalising potential, namely, the guiding philosophy; ambition or goals;

strategies; enabling structures; processes; and techniques. In this study, the attraction had stemmed from the notions of÷ choice and diversity; global configurations; Eswatini government sponsorship; availability of parents with disposable income; proximity and homogeneity; enabling structures; assistance from South African subject advisors, and availability of extra teaching materials. The section below discusses the use of some of these foci in the analysis of the data that was collected.

The first attractive feature of the CAPS curriculum was 'choice and diversity'. The transferred curriculum presented learners with the opportunity to register for a wide range of professional courses offered at many of the South African universities once they had left school. A parent explained it as follows: *"Our children needed courses like mining, medicine, engineering, astronomy and ... some of these courses are new on the market".* Hence, this choice and diversity was a guiding philosophy for most parents.

In addition, the advent of global communication avenues such as the internet and other social media - global forces that attempt to control the global agenda - enabled the protagonists of the CAPS curriculum transfer to easily find and compare information on different education systems around the world and then make an informed decision without relying on the MoET officials to prescribe an education system for their children. It was evident from the findings that some of the parents followed global education trends on social media and internet. For example a participant declared that *"Interested parties are able to access information on education matters from internet".* Another effect of globalisation was the way in which it appeared that some of the Eswatini parents were aware that the South Africa government was compelled by the SADC Protocol on Education to assist South African children access the type of education they needed. This is clearly stipulated in SADC (1997) Article 3(f) that member states are encouraged to *"work towards the reduction and eventual elimination of constraints to better and freer access by citizens of member states to good quality education and training opportunities within the region"*. The finding on the impact of social media is in line with the work by Kefela (2010) and Castells (2010) who argue that the development of horizontal global networks of interactive communications has intensified and broadened the scope of globalisation and the fast growth of the knowledge economy.

Thus, global configurations such as globalisation and neoliberalism as well as the emergence of the knowledge economy had clearly had a significant effect on how parents viewed the Eswatini education system. In addition these configurations have increased the ability of

countries to market themselves which has resulted in countries being attracted to foreign curricula. This is consistent with the studies by Hongbiao (2013) and Steiner-Khamsi (2014) who found that the majority of nations in the world restructure their education systems so as to meet the demand for a "quality" human resource. They also suggest that, in today's global market place, governments are competing with each other over exporting their own education trademarks to other countries in order to attract students from other countries as, the provision of "quality education" attracts learners from other countries, thus making education a foreign exchange earner. This may be seen in South Africa indirectly exporting its university education. Thus, despite the challenges, the greater the number of learners who enrol for the CAPS curriculum, the higher the number who enrol at South African universities with, the South African government then earnings foreign exchange through the payment of tuition fees.

Some of the participants were of the view that the CAPS curriculum was better than the EGCSE curriculum and they argued that Eswatini should align its education policies to globally accepted standards. The world leaders in quality education provision using PISA, TIMSS and TERCE[7] Standards includes Singapore, Hong Kong, South Korea, Japan and Taiwan (OECD, 2016). It is interesting to note that the participants' view that the CAPS curriculum was of a higher quality compared to EGCSE was not borne out OECD studies on the global provision of quality education. On the OECD ratings South Africa was ranked 139 out 143 (OECD, 2016).

A further attractive feature was the willingness and financial affordability of the Eswatini government to sponsor NSC certificate holders to study at foreign universities. The Eswatini Scholarship and Selection Board (2019) prescribes that all Eswatini citizens who apply for sponsorship are treated equally after taking into account their grades and fields of study. This was confirmed by a parent who acknowledged that *"our government indirectly encourages Swazi parents to enrol their children for the CAPS curriculum since on completion, it pays their fees at South African universities".* In view of the fact that it was relatively easy to pass the CAPS curriculum, there was a good chance that learners who studied the CAPS curriculum would be able to continue with tertiary education. Thus, the availability of scholarships was an externalising potential that encouraged interested parents to enrol their children for the CAPS curriculum.

[7] Third Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study: Tests proficiency on Latin American 3rd and 8th Graders on Mathematics and Science abilities.

The availability of parents with disposable income was a further positive force. The emergence in Eswatini of an educated, middle-class citizenry capable of paying for their children's education acted as externalising potential. Moreover, this class of parents appeared to be aware of their rights including the right to an education of their choice for their children. This finding is consistent with Castells (2010) and Torres (2002), who found that globalisation has brought about a global network society with a borderless communication system that means that, unlike in the past, governments are no longer the source of information. Since this middle-class group of parents financed their children's education at high school and the majority could afford to pay university tuition fees abroad, the government could not dissuade them from enrolling their children for the CAPS curriculum. A participant confirmed that *"in the past, parents would rely on government to pay for their children's university education. These days some parents have the means to sponsor their own children".*

Yet a further positive feature was proximity and homogeneity, with the Eswatini's proximity to South Africa acting as an externalising potential. Geographically, Eswatini is almost surrounded by South Africa and most of its goods and services are sourced from South Africa. In addition, a common border; speaking the same native language and having relatives on either side of the border made it easy for the transfer to take place as – the stakeholders on either side were often related to one another. In fact, this was the reason why, the 8 years preceding this study, the CAPS curriculum had been implemented in Eswatini without a Memorandum of Understanding between the two countries. Hence, a participant's emphasis that *"you cannot differentiate between a South African and an Eswatini Swazi. We look alike and speak the same language. We have relatives across the borders who are willing to assist".*

Furthermore, Enabling structures were a further positive feature. certain features of the CAPS curriculum had impressed some of the Eswatini parents, for example, among others, SBA, common standardised tests with marking guides, high pass rates (Appendix 3) and concessions for learners with disabilities. Most of the parents regarded the CAPS curriculum as user friendly. The high pass rates and the ability of the CAPS curriculum to cater for learners of all abilities acted as an externalising potential, as the parents believed that SBA contributed to the high pass rates. On the other hand, the SBA constituted 25% of the final NSC Examination mark. In view of the fact that SBA was conducted at the schools, it created a basis for more frequent, formal testing that enabled parents to keep track of their children's

performance and encourage them to perform better. This was clarified by a parent who stated that *"the existence of ATPs, SBA, common test, concessions for the disadvantaged children, and contests makes CAPS Curriculum user friendly to our children and easy for us to follow".* Some of the parents rejoiced their children, who had been branded as failures by the EGCSE curriculum were able to pass the CAPS curriculum and enrol at university.

A further positive feature and externalising potential was the assistance offered by South African subject advisors on the processes involved in implementing the CAPS curriculum. However, although the monitoring of the CAPS curriculum involved the subject advisors in South Africa assisting SMTs in Eswatini, the subject advisors were, however, not always readily available to assist the Eswatini curriculum implementers; although policies and other relevant documents were easily available on the DBE website (www.education.gov.za).

Furthermore, unlike in South African where quarterly moderation of the SBA took place in schools, the Eswatini educators took their SBA documentation to the UDED offices for moderation. The curriculum assistance from the subject advisors was mainly received primarily through social media as was highlighted by an educator who said, *"Subject advisors are available to assist us through WhatsApp and emails. We managed to pull through though we would like them to visit our schools".*

Easy access to extra teaching and learning resources was another incentive for the importation of the CAPS curriculum into Eswatini. The extra support that was available to Eswatini educators and learners included revision booklets; past papers and their accompanying marking guides; examination guidelines; annual teaching plans; and examination scopes. In addition the online and television channels to disseminate curriculum information which was easily accessible to both learners and educators. In addition, the National DBE provided not only learning and teaching support materials, but also past NSC examinations papers on their website (www.education.gov.za). Furthermore, Eswatini schools followed the KZN schools assessment programme result in – some Eswatini educators networking with their South African counterparts for assistance. One of the curriculum support activities that Eswatini schools adopted was the setting up of winter schools and participated in joining competitions such as the Physical Sciences and Mathematics Olympiads. The varied support that the educators received, empowered most of them to follow their instructional teaching methods. The frequent testing assisted learners to

understand the curriculum. An educator emphasised that *"the availability of teaching material supplied to schools as well as online makes our teaching simple"*.

In short, the externalising potential factors that were consistent with those mentioned in relevant literature included choice and diversity; global configurations; and network communities. In this study, I also highlighted other externalising potential factors that facilitated the wholesale transfer of a curriculum from one country to another and during which there was indirect encouragement by both the South African and Eswatini governments. The homogeneity and proximity between the countries; the support that was provided to the Eswatini curriculum implementers; and the availability of learning and teaching resources online all facilitated the transfer processes.

6.4.4. Decision making

Phillips and Ochs (2003) regard decision making as a crucial phase in the transfer and implementation of a borrowed curriculum. Decision making in this context involves the measures taken by policy actors in carrying out the actual transfer and implementation of a borrowed curriculum. Parents had decided to enrol their children for the South African curriculum long before the CAPS curriculum was transferred into Eswatini. When some parents, in conjunction with the owners of private schools,' embarked on the process of transferring CAPS into Eswatini, the UMkhanyakude District Education Department (UDED) officials in KZN-South Africa had to decide whether or not to assist the parents.

The U-tech Centre was initially affiliated to the Mpumalanga Provincial Education Department (MPED) but, after writing the 2010 NSC examinations, the MPED informed the U-Tech Centre of their inability to continue facilitating the cross-border curriculum implementation (MPED, 2010). With the assistance of the DBE KZN Provincial Education Department in South Africa, U-Tech was attached to the UDED (DBE, 2011). Despite the additional work involved in the implementation, the UDED willingly accepted the minister's request.

Some of the South African National Department of Education and UDED officials saw a long-term benefit in affording Swazi children an opportunity to study the CAPS curriculum at home. They believed that transferring and implementing the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini would decongest South African schools along the borders of the two countries. By making a decision to facilitate Eswatini schools to offer the CAPS curriculum at home, the numbers of

Swazi learners in the schools along the border decreased. A subject advisor noted that, *"I believe implementing the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini will decongest our schools along the border and allow Eswatini learners to access the CAPS curriculum at home."*

The failure on the part of South African public schools to register Eswatini learners under SA-SAMS further motivated the UDED officials to continue to assist the Eswatini schools. These officials were already sympathetic to the Swazi learners who went through all the risks of crossing the Eswatini-South Africa border illegally or who hired a single rooms in towns along the South Africa border in order to access free education. Using the principle of the best interest of the child, it was reasonable of the DBE to allow for the transfer of the CAPS curriculum into Eswatini so that interested learners could access it in their own country.

The demand for the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini was viewed by some as a business opportunity. Hence, this demand in Eswatini was seized upon by entrepreneurs who saw an opportunity to profit from education. A parent indicated, "*Most of the schools offering the CAPS curriculum are private schools. They charge high school fees which some parents cannot afford".* A director of one of the schools confirmed, "*We provide the required education to the learners and make a little money for ourselves".* The decision by private school owners to offer the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini made it possible for learners to access it in Eswatini. However, Eswatini public schools offered the EGCSE as they wary of offering a foreign curriculum without the permission of the MoET. This finding contradicts Ball's (2012) assertion that neoliberalism advocates for the privatisation of education as one way in which to provide education. However, Ball (2012) notes that this has brought about change in education by altering social connections and power relations to less democratic and caring forms. The CAPS transfer which started as a project with only two schools, saw the number of schools grow to 13 by 2018.

In short, the role players in the decision-making exercise include Eswatini parents, the owners of private schools as well as officials from the UDED. The decisions were influenced mainly by both the desire on the part of Eswatini children to access the CAPS curriculum at home and to decongest South African schools along the borders with Eswatini.

6.5. Transferring the CAPS curriculum from South Africa into Eswatini

Two main features characterised the curriculum transfer, namely, wholesale transfer and an indirect resistance to its implementation.

The curriculum transfer discussed in this study was unique in that it was supposed to be implemented in its entirety in Eswatini, as it had been in KZN in South Africa, with, all the policies that regulated the implementation processes in Eswatini resembling those in KZN. To ensure that this happened, the transfer processes were managed by officials from the UDED. In addition, the processes were monitored by KZN subject advisors who used the same monitoring instrument in Eswatini that they use in KZN. Although some re-contextualisation had to be carried out by the Eswatini educators in order for meaningful learning to take place, this was minimal and unofficial in that it did not involve any selection or re-contextualisation by policy agents. This wholesale transfer contradicts Phillips and Ochs (2003), Dolowitz and Marsh (2011), and Steiner-Khamsi (2014), who suggest that re-contextualisation should follow after selective aspect of the foreign policy have been transferred to the borrowing country. The lack of re-contextualisation led to a number of challenges such as inappropriate content, different ideologies, unsynchronised school calendars and contradiction in the legislation of the two countries.

In addition, there was an indirect resistance to the wholesale transfer of the South African curriculum into Eswatini although this was privately ignored by government officials. One participant explained that *"patriotism is also part of the cause of the resistance. How can you simply embrace a foreign curriculum?"* It was evident that some of the MoET officials avoided supporting a curriculum that was viewed as competing with the local curriculum, this despite the fact that their own children were pursuing the CAPS curriculum in private schools in either Eswatini or South African. Their open support would contravene the National EDSEC Policy objectives that guided the Eswatini National Development Strategy (NDS) and stated that "the education and training adopted in the country was to be of appropriate quality and relevance to the envisaged socio-economic and cultural needs of Eswatini and its citizens" (MoET, 2018). The counter argument was that the country's education system was strongly inclined towards that of Eswatini's former colonial masters – the United Kingdom. The education system was blamed for creating mainly white collar job- seekers at the expense of vocational and technical courses that would produce artisans with the skills required to create jobs. The next section discusses the challenges that the curriculum implementers faced during the implementation of the CAPS curriculum into Eswatini.

6.6. Challenges of curriculum transfer

According to Dolowitz and Marsh (2000), the challenges involved in a curriculum transfer may be analysed based on three causes of a failure to policy transfer, namely, incomplete transfer; uninformed transfer; and inappropriate transfer. Despite the fact that the Eswatini parents had achieved their goal of children being able to follow the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini, the transfer was both incomplete and inappropriate. The transfer was also uninformed in that contextual challenges were never catered for. Bearing in mind that policy success refers to the extent to which a policy transfer achieves the aims set by the actors involved in the processes, these three strands of challenges provided a framework in terms of which to analyse the data that emerged on the challenges.

Incomplete Transfer

As Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) postulate, when some policy features are transferred leaving others out, the implemented policy will not achieve the desired objectives. In this study, the incomplete transfer manifested in the following ways:

First, the admissions policy for the CAPS curriculum was not followed during admissions in Eswatini. For example, whereas in South Africa, the CAPS curriculum encompasses Grades R-12, only the FET Phase (Grades 10-12) was implemented in most Eswatini schools with the majority of learners admitted in Grade 10 switching from the EGSCE curriculum in Grade 9 to the CAPS curriculum in Grade 10.

Second, some schools had never observed the three years that comprise the FET phase. EGCSE holders in Grade 11 in accordance with the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), which equated the EGSCE to the South African Grade 11 (South Africa, 2019c).

Third, the lack of access of the Eswatini educators to the marking of the NSC examinations denied them an opportunity to gain experience in their teaching subjects. Educators believe that marking external examinations provides an avenue for them to correct their misconceptions about some of the topics they teach.

Fourth, the absence of an effective monitoring mechanism from both the South Africa and Eswatini schools' inspectorates meant that the schools offering the CAPS curriculum were forced to operate without a monitoring office in Eswatini. The lack of accessibility of the subject advisors to the Eswatini curriculum implementers forced most of them to interpret

and implement the curriculum as they understood it and, sometimes, making interpretations that subject advisors picked up only during the quarterly moderation exercises at the district offices.

Fifth, another inconsistency in the processes involved in implementing the transferred curriculum was the significant number of educators who lacked the knowledge required to prepare and keep teaching and learning records while it appeared that those who did keep records concentrated only on Grade 12 SBA and gave little attention to Grades 10 and 11.

Sixth, the MoET Officials in Eswatini also never visited the CAPS offering schools, despite the Eswatini Education Policy stipulating that *"school supervision and monitoring was a competence of the (REO) together with Regional Subject Inspectors, who, amongst others, ensure direct support for education services and quality assurance thereof*" (MoET, 2018). For example, when faced with serious issues such as the non-compliance of educators, there was no office to which the SMTs in Eswatini could report.

Seventh, the lack of proper training was blamed for the failure of some SMTs to interpret the CAPS policies. It emerged that, in executing their duties, some SMTs were interpreting the policies incorrectly. This had devastating effects. For example, an SMT mentioned *"We need proper training on this curriculum. Last year we filled in the computerised mark sheet wrongly because we were never told how to fill it in".*

The need to train educators as well as SMTs is emphasised by Phasha, Bipath and Beckmann (2016), who note that principals, as the managers of schools, should be trained in all curriculum issues so as to enable them to offer curriculum support. A distributed leadership style with a decentralised control was suggested as one of the avenues through which to manage the curriculum implementation processes (Hipkins, et al, 2011). When the principal is in control, the school environment becomes conducive for teaching and learning.

Eighth, the poor management of school based assessment (SBA) was inconsistent with the policies on the implementation of the CAPS curriculum. The policy on the management of SBA required the "principal in collaboration with the SMTs to monitor on a quarterly basis the setting, marking and moderation of SBA at the school level" (DBE, 2017a, p. 8). The policy further expected the principal to report all irregularities to the District Assessment Irregularities Committee (DAIC). However this was not the case in Eswatini, as the South African subject advisors had no instrument with which to reprimand non-performing

educators in Eswatini and, in addition the MoET was not interested in CAPS curriculum issues.

Ninth, although the subject advisors insisted that the Eswatini implementers follow the CAPS policies verbatim, there were sometimes operational challenges. Since the transfer had been effected without modifications, Eswatini curriculum implementers sometimes had to re-contextualise the implementation processes to fit the Eswatini context without the permission of the UDED. This re-contextualisation conflicted with the set regulations, thus leading to the original intentions of SBA being lost.

6.6.1. Inappropriate transfer

Although the laudable aim behind the implementation of the CAPS curriculum was to afford Eswatini learners' access to professional courses of their choice after they had left school failed to address the contextual issues. The transfer was inappropriate because little attention was paid to the economic, social, political and ideological contexts in the transferring and borrowing countries. In common with the one-way curriculum policy transfer that happened in South Africa (Jansen, 2004) and Namibia (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008) after Namibia had gained its independence and, where OBE and Life Sciences respectively had been implemented in a rush, the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini was beset with contextual challenges right from the start, the most common of which were part of the inappropriate transfer. Some of the contextual challenges are discussed below.

First, the inappropriate content. The content used to teach the transferred curriculum was aligned with South African examples, policies and legal pronouncements which the Eswatini learners struggled to understand. In an effort to circumvent this problem, some schools took numerous educational trips to South Africa and encouraged learners to use South African examples when answering questions, for example, an educator pointed out, *"when teaching about stock market exchange, I need to get South African newspapers to complete certain tasks so that my learners are able to answer questions in the examinations".* A successful policy borrowing should fit within the budgetary and technical capacities of the borrowing country (Verger, 2015). However it is evident that the extra expenses, for example, those noted above had impeded the implementation process as some schools did not have sufficient funds to circumvent such problems.

The inappropriate content also manifested in the teaching of the siSwati language. There was a difference in the way in which siSwati was spoken in the two countries to the extent that, during the oral assessment tasks, subject advisors from the MPED had to consult with the Eswatini educators each time a different pronunciation came up. Although siSwati was spoken on both sides of the border, the Eswatini siSwati educators complained that Mpumalanga's siSwati was pronounced differently. An educator lamented, *"Eswatini's siSwati is different from Mpumalanga siSwati and our learners are sometimes unfairly penalised during oral examinations."*

The inappropriate content had been experienced by the Life Orientation (LO) educators who felt that some of content was abstract to the Eswatini learners because, as one educator pointed out, *"The content was mainly based on the South African cultures, legislation and issues like the xenophobia and service delivery demonstrations that affect their societies"*.

Second, the different school calendar. The two countries' school calendars were not synchronised, thus resulting in the Eswatini schools missing important activities; for example, during the Eswatini second term school holidays, Eswatini maidens started preparing for the annual Reed Dance Ceremony at the time that the September trial examinations were starting. This finding contradicts what Verger (2015) terms 'institutional fit' – for a smooth diffusion of policy from one territory to another, the two countries should share similar institutional arrangements.

Third, heavy teaching loads and high class numbers also contributed to a further inappropriate transfer. In some schools, the educators taught over 40 one-hour periods a week while they were over 100 learners in some classes. Both the absence of MoET monitoring and the inapplicability of the South African Educator Employment Laws in Eswatini meant that Eswatini educators had no forum through which to express their grievances. In South Africa, the introduction of the CAPS curriculum was intended to streamline the implementation by addressing, among others, the teaching loads and training of educators in order to support the curriculum implementation. This is consistent with the study by Ono and Ferreira (2010) who found that high class numbers and heavy teaching loads created an unfavourable environment for curriculum implementation.

Fourth, uncertainty of the continued existence of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. Most of the stakeholders involved in the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini were demotivated by the uncertainty in relation to its longevity in the country. The Ministry of

Basic Education in South Africa authorised the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in the country for short periods of time – ranging from two years to three years. Each time the period expired, there was no guarantee that permission would be granted again. This uncertainty had resulted both in parents withdrawing their children and schools resorting to offering only the FET phase for fear of being left with learners in the lower classes in the event that the implementation was halted. The SMT member's comment below encapsulate the unpredictability and insecurity:

> *No one even our minister knows whether the permission will be extended or not. All we have is the letter terminating the implementation in 2019. In 2013, we were granted permission in October – two days before the candidates started the theory papers. They missed the practical papers. Learners wrote their examinations without being registered. Imagine teaching not knowing whether your learners will write or not.*

This uncertainty was forcing some educators to leave seek employment elsewhere. However, frequent turnover of educators affected the curriculum implementation as some schools resorted to employing new educators without any teaching experience. The detrimental effects of the high turnover rate of educators was highlighted by one SMT member who pointed out that *"in subjects like Mathematics and Physical Sciences [it] creates inconsistency in curriculum delivery and compromises the implementation"*. This finding is consistent with the study by Fullan (2007), who revealed that educators need to be motivated to accept the new curriculum, as well as study by Guro and Weber (2010) who posit that, if educators' concerns are not taken into account, curriculum implementation may have unexpected outcomes.

Fifth, the scarcity of CAPS textbooks and scholastic materials. Whereas South African government sponsored the public schools with almost all the prescribed textbooks and teaching materials, the Eswatini schools had to rely on tuition fees to buy textbooks and other teaching materials. Publishers in South Africa relied on public school orders in order to produce textbooks. An educator's frustration was expressed as follows: *"Without textbooks, you cannot move together with your learners because you need to be the only source of information and it becomes difficult to give assignments"*. To further complicate the situation, there was study material that was produced and supplied only to public schools by the DBE with this material being intended for South African schools. Since Eswatini schools never

directly received all the teaching materials supplied by DBE, they had to either rely on the residue or else source single copies from the UDED which were then duplicated for their learners.

6.6.2. Uninformed transfer

In the main the uninformed transfer took the form of some contextual challenges. In other words, the recipient environment was different from the original environment.

First, high school education was not free in Eswatini while the CAPS curriculum was borrowed from an environment that provided free basic education – Grades R-12 – with almost all educational services free [even in high school]. However, in Eswatini only primary school education was free. Since a significant portion of the tuition fees in Eswatini was paid by the parents, charging them for all services provided in South African schools proved to be very expensive. An SMT member noted, *"It is not easy to implement a curriculum that is totally financed by South Africa. We end up doing what we can and leave out the expensive parts".* However the absence of some components of the implementation process had compromised the whole exercise and rendered the implementation inappropriate.

The exorbitant tuition fees by some schools were prohibitive. Private schools determined their own fees, making their schools inaccessible to lower income parents. This finding resonates with the studies by Ball (2012), Hursh and Henderson (2011), and Giroux (2010), which reveal that in the era of neoliberalism, education policy and agenda are no longer the domain of the state, rather they are domain of an increased infused and driven financial sector. Unfortunately, learners whose parents defaulted on the payment of school fees were sent home and ended up missing classes with some even dropping out of school.

Second, most Eswatini private schools taught more than one curriculum. However the teaching of the CAPS curriculum alongside the EGCSE curriculum demotivated educators and, they revealed that teaching two curricula – coupled with the volumes of paperwork that the CAPS curriculum required – was too demanding of their time and commitment. Although some educators did eventually learnt new teaching methods and broadened their knowledge base, those who lacked the requisite patience and resilience gave up. Switching from one curriculum to another frustrated all the educators involved. The SMTs in most schools never engaged all the stakeholders, especially the educators, to explain to them and hear their grievances at every step of the implementation process. This finding contradicted the study

by Scott (1994) which revealed that listening to grievances and providing incentives as well as explaining every step of the change process motivates educators.

Third, government never regulated the educators' salaries. The situation was exacerbated by the fact that some educators were being remunerated proportionately to their extra workload. Most of the educators expected extra pay from their schools commensurate with the added responsibility, but this never happened. The perceived low salaries, late payment thereof or sometimes non-payment at all demotivated the educators and led to a high staff-turnover in some schools.

Fourth, the reluctance on the part of the MoET to embrace the CAPS curriculum. The MoET official bemoaned the rush by parents and CAPS schools to implement the curriculum before the contextual issues that were conflicting with the aspirations of the Eswatini nation had been addressed. However, the CAPS curriculum had been operating in Eswatini schools since 2010. The parents argued that, if government had wanted to support the implementation of the CAPS Curriculum, it could have done so since other foreign curricula such as IEB, IGCSE, A levels and AS, were taught in the country. The MoET's hesitation to embrace the implementation of the transferred curriculum resonates with the study by Burdett and O'Donnell (2016) which revealed that despite increased globalisation, each country has its own educational philosophy with different goals. The feeding of the young generation with another country's agenda was viewed as a recipe for disaster in addition to, depriving apart from eroding the country of foreign exchange. A participant explained:

> *'We should not encourage our children to enrol at foreign universities. Besides the country losing foreign exchange when paying the fees, some of the students never come back home. A medical student pays over R120000 towards tuition, accommodation and food a year at a South African university. We have other foreign-based curricula such as A levels, IGCSE and AS Level being taught in the country.' Let government treat CAPS like one of these curricula.*

Fifth, logistical and financial challenges. The crossing of the Eswatini-South African border by educators and learners placed a heavy financial burden on both schools and parents. Documentation, such as passports, cross-border bus permits and immigration visas required money and took a long time to be processed. Consequently, some Eswatini schools sometimes failed to honour invitations issued at short notice due to a lack of proper the

documentation required to cross the border. This compromised the implementation of the CAPS curriculum.

Sixth, one NSC examination centre in Eswatini. Candidates travelled long distances daily to write the NSC examinations at U-Tech in Big Bend – the sole examination centre. Since it was impossible for the invigilators to known all the candidates, each school had to send an educator on a daily basis daily to identify its students. However this proved to be costly and stressful as the educators had to accompany their candidates for every sitting. The single examination centre accommodated 13 schools with over 900 candidates in 2019. This was contrary to the Regulations Pertaining to the Conducting, Administration and Management of Assessment for NSC Examinations which state that "the total of candidates at an examination centre may not exceed 500 for any one session, unless prior approval has been obtained from the Head of Assessment body" (DBE, 2008, p. 33).

In short, the challenges faced by the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini indicated that that transfer was incomplete, inappropriate and uninformed. The transfer was incomplete in relation to the following aspects, namely, the absence of Grades R-9; ignoring the admissions and promotions policy; denying Eswatini educators an opportunity to mark NSC examinations; lack of monitoring mechanisms; and inadequate training of the curriculum implementers. The inappropriate implementation was caused mainly by issues such as: content taught not in line with CAPS prescribed content; the school calendars of the two countries not being synchronised; heavy teaching loads large numbers; uncertainty about the continued existence of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini; and the shortage of textbooks and scholastic materials. On the other hand, the uninformed transfer manifested in the prohibitive tuition fees; schools offering more than one curriculum; unregulated salaries for educators; the reluctance on the part of the MoET to embrace the CAPS curriculum; and logistical as well as financial challenges.

6.7. Internalisation of the CAPS curriculum

Having analysed the challenges faced by the implementation of the CAPS curriculum, this section discusses the impact of these challenges on education in Eswatini. This process refers to the internalisation or indigenisation which is the last stage in the adoption of a new curriculum - when the policy becomes part of the system of education in the borrowing country (Phillips & Ochs, 2003). I will use the four indicators suggested by Phillips and Ochs (2003) to analyse the internalisation of the curriculum under study.

Firstly, the introduction of the CAPS curriculum led to an increased number of private schools offering the curriculum in the country increased to 13 in 2019. Consequently, there were an increased number of Swazi learners enrolling at South African universities. The implementation of the curriculum in Eswatini also made some parents withdraw their children from South African high schools to enrol them in Eswatini high schools.

Secondly, the CAPS curriculum encountered various contextual challenges, some of which were circumvented whereas others were continuing to affect the processes for policy implementation. The only contextual forces that existed are those that affected the implementation processes. These were not presented in sufficient detail in the previous section. The curriculum borrowing discussed in the study had missed the ownership of government, leading to the implementation processes not being well monitored. The retention stage of the borrowing had lacked government policymakers to ensure that the processes were included in the government policy. This finding is consistent with Verger (2015, p. 74) who found that the "retention of new education policies meant their inclusion into the regulatory framework, and into the network of educational technologies and practices of the system".

Thirdly, it was difficult to devise various strategies for implementing the CAPS curriculum as there was no MoU that regulated the wholesale implementation of CAPS curriculum in Eswatini. In addition there was no consensus among the stakeholders as to what should be adopted and eventually retained. All that the parents required was a curriculum that would enable their children to enrol at South African universities and businessmen were willing to do this as a price. It was a classic demand-supply situation. This is contrary to the studies by Phillips and Ochs (2003), Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) and Verger (2015), who suggest that it is essential that the opinions of all stakeholders about the new proposal are robustly explored through negotiations that may lead to either the transformation or partial or total rejection of the new policy.

Fourthly, based on both Eswatini and South African stakeholders in the transferring processes, the parents' objective was realised as their expectation that they would be able to send their children to South African universities were fulfilled. However, the absence of an effective monitoring mechanism in Eswatini to supplement the assistance of the UDED subject advisors compromised all the processes involved in the transfer and implementation of the CAPS curriculum. This is consistent with the assessment by Tan and Reyes (2014) that

the internalisation of a borrowed curriculum across natural systems of education and consequent to a globalised world is proving to be problematic. They attributed the problems to the borrowing of curriculum policies without fully appreciating the local context.

6.8. Conclusion

As it has been shown in the discussion in this chapter, the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in Eswatini presented a unique case of policy borrowing initiated by parents. However, this is contrary to what was documented in the literature review. Scholars, such as Steiner-Khamsi (2014), Phillips and Ochs (2003) and Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) whose studies indicate that policy borrowing is the domain of governments which after diagnosing the problem at home, search elsewhere for either a better policy or components of a policy that would improve the home practice. Although the aspirations of Eswatini parents to ensure their children would be able to enrol at a university education of their choice were laudable, the curriculum transfer into Eswatini was incomplete and inappropriate. Although on the surface, the transfer appeared to be successful, however the existence of mainly contextual challenges, coupled with the absence of a MoET schools inspectorate to monitor the implementation processes, defeated the reason for transferring the curriculum.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study findings; the implications of the findings; recommendations; and suggestions of areas for future research. The research space is consolidated by summarising the research methods, findings and claims based on both the literature review and the theoretical framework which was designed for the purpose of the study. The findings are discussed in relation to both the themes that emerged during the data analysis phase as well as the research questions posed.

7.2. Background

Although the transfer of a curriculum from one jurisdiction to another has been extensively researched in the past few decades, preceding this study, the 'wholesale' transfer of a curriculum has remained relatively unexplored and unexplained. The transferred (CAPS) curriculum was designed for South African high schools but was also implemented by high schools in Eswatini. The major stakeholders in the transfer processes included parents, educators, SMTs, subject advisors in South Africa and education officials in Eswatini. Other factors that contributed to the transfer included the CAPS pass threshold being lower than that of Eswatini; cheaper access; rejection of Swazi learners attending South African public schools; limited professional courses and few universities in Eswatini. The demand for the CAPS curriculum was motivated by parents and seized by business entrepreneurs who saw profit opportunities by setting up private schools in Eswatini offering the CAPS curriculum. In view of the fact that the transfer of the CAPS curriculum did not ever go through the normal processes of de-contextualisation by government actors before implementation, the implementation of the undecontextualised curriculum presented numerous challenges which this study highlighted.

7.3. Summary of the conclusions to the findings

The summary is based on the themes that emerged during the data analysis phase. The themes were developed based on the following three research questions, namely, the factors that led parents to opt for a transferred-foreign curriculum; the processes involved in implementing the transferred curriculum; and the challenges experienced in the implementation of the

transferred curriculum. The conclusions are also based on the literature reviewed and the theoretical framework as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3 respectively. The conclusions based on the research questions are presented below.

7.3.1. Factors that led parents to opt for a foreign curriculum

The factors that resulted in the parents being drawn to the CAPS curriculum were threefold: those that pushed parents away from the local curriculum (SGCSE); those that pulled parents towards the transferred curriculum; and those that discouraged parents from sending their children to South African schools.

7.3.1.1. Factors that pulled parents towards the CAPS curriculum

- Most of the parents wanted a curriculum that would allow their children to access both the local and foreign universities without too many problems. Learners who completed high school with NSC certificates found it easy to enrol at South African universities.
- The CAPS curriculum was seen by many parents as a road to the fulfilment of their dreams for their children's future employment and/or job creation. The scarcity of jobs had made parents very particular about the courses their children enrolled for at university with most parents advising their children to take courses which upon completion, would enable them either to find employment or create their own jobs.
- It was much easier to enrol at South African university with NSC Certificate as compared to a foreign certificate which had to be equated to the local certificate by before it was considered. Parents tended to avoid the need for a SAQA certificate by enrolling their children in schools that offered the CAPS curriculum.
- The structures of the CAPS curriculum appealed to parents, who preferred curricula with continuous assessment as a component that contributed towards the final year mark rather than promotion decisions being based on a single examination at the end of the year.
- Parents found the CAPS curriculum to be well supported in that it offers online support and; uses print media and television to assist learners with examination exemplars and marking guides. Such extra curriculum support was popular with the parents who believed that learners should be able to find additional educational support elsewhere other than the school.

- Some parents were impressed by the rankings of the national universities as well as their infrastructure and reputation in the country and hence, parents strived to send their children to these ‘prestigious’ universities.

7.3.1.2. Factors that pushed parents away from the local curriculum

- The willingness on the part of the Eswatini Government to sponsor the enrolment at universities abroad of learners who finished high school with foreign high school certificates encouraged learners to enrol for the foreign curricula.
- The emergence of educated middle-class parents with disposable income to spend on tuition fees at private schools and foreign universities was another factor in their opting for a foreign curriculum. Having to rely on a government subsidy for basic education in public schools had certain implications that forced parents to enrol their children for government-designed curricula.
- The emergence of social networks, neoliberalism and the knowledge economy has facilitated easy access to information and accelerated the establishment of private schools that offer curricula that governments do not recommend. Facilitated by the growth of network societies, these private schools attract mainly the children of the elite who take pride in enrolling their children for curricula which are beyond the financial reach of the common man.
- Parents were concerned about the use of a foreign language as a passing criterion. Unlike the local curriculum that had English as a one of the passing conditions, the transferred curriculum used both indigenous languages and English as pas criteria. Coincidentally, SiSwati was recognised as a home language in both countries and most learners were able to obtain a pass threshold in SiSwati more easily than in English. The parents preferred a curriculum which recognised indigenous languages as a basis for admission to university.
- The stiff promotion practices at most of the schools offering SGCSE resulted in many learners having to repeat classes (Form 2 and Form 4) before the examination years. However, such learners tended to excel when they transferred to the CAPS curriculum. Learners who were deemed to be failures in the local curriculum often excelled in the transferred curriculum.
- The high repeat rates were also blamed on the narrow subject combinations that some schools offered. For example offering almost only science biased subjects provided no option for learners who were talented in mathematics and science subjects.

- There appeared to be a lack of trust in the Eswatini's high school curriculum on the part of parents. Despite numerous attempts to review the country's curriculum, some parents (mainly the elite) continued to enrol their children for with the CAPS curriculum or the IEB curriculum. The parents' understanding of a sound curriculum was based on the ability to deliver of the curriculum to equip their children to enrol for the professional courses that were offered at universities in neighbouring South Africa.

7.3.1.3. Factors that discouraged parents from sending their children to South African schools

- Most of the parents who opted to send their children to high schools in foreign countries were often unable to easily care for and guide their children. Their absence was blamed for some children's using in drugs and alcohol and indulging in other unbecoming behaviour that eventually affected their studies. In addition, the parents were worried about the crime and xenophobia that children may face while studying in South Africa and, thus, ensuring that the desired curriculum could be accessed in Eswatini would shield learners from such risks.
- The introduction of the online registration programme (SASAMS) that required South African national identity numbers as a key field made it impossible for undocumented learners to continue to illegally access the CAPS curriculum in their public schools.
- South African education officials were concerned about the undocumented learners coming from Eswatini that were congesting the schools near the border and, hence, creating stiff competition for the school resources that government allocated to its learners. On the other hand, some of the learners who crossed the border illegally to access the curriculum ended up being abused and tortured and, thus, these officials supported the notion of transferring the CAPS curriculum to Eswatini so that interested learners would be able access it in their home country.
- Learners who were not able to afford tuition fees at private schools in South Africa placed their lives to risks by illegally attending such public schools along the border in order to access the CAPS curriculum. These learners either rented single rooms near the schools along the border or crossed the Eswatini-South African border illegally to attend school.

- Enrolling learners in foreign schools is a cumbersome process. In addition to paying tuition fees, the learners have to obtain travel documents, apply for study permits, and meet immigration requirements; for example, children below 18 years of age required the consent of both parents before they could obtain travel visas and study permits.

In conclusion, the pull factors towards the CAPS curriculum implemented in Eswatini included: learners being able to access both local and foreign universities; professional courses that would render learners employable; the SBA component that contributed to the end of year mark; various, easily available support structures; and parents being attracted by the ranking of some South African universities. On the other hand, the push factors included: the Eswatini government willingness to award bursaries to study in foreign universities; parents being able to afford to pay the high tuition fees charged by private schools; the emergence of social networks; logistical and financial issues involved in obtaining the relevant documentation; UNESWA's use of English as an admission criterion ; high repeat rates in EGCSE schools; and a lack of trust in the local curriculum on the part of some parents. Lastly, the factors that discouraged parents from sending children to South African schools included: parents being able to monitor their children; avoiding the risks associated with learners living in rented rooms along the border as well as their crossing the border illegally.

7.4. The transfer and Implementation Processes

This section focuses on the implementation processes that were consistent with the policies of curriculum transfer as suggested in the literature. The literature suggests that, when government policy actors are not involved in the transfer processes involved in a borrowed curriculum, the policy is then not contextualised to fit the borrower's context. The study draws the following conclusions based on the implementation processes discussed in the previous chapter. Since the implementation of the curriculum in Eswatini was monitored by South African education officials, they used the standards set in their country to monitor Eswatini schools.

- When a wholesale curriculum transfer takes place, certain components of the policy, such as assessment programme; scope and annual teaching plans; and the management of school based assessment (SBA) remain the same. The failure to contextualise those components that are not in line with local context poses a challenge to the implementers. According to Hipkins, et al. (2011), in order to

implement a new curriculum, it is essential the implementers quickly detect and reinforce the functioning components of the curriculum in order to guarantee the success of the exercise.

- When a curriculum is not transferred by government policy actors, it is often not fully accepted by most of the citizens. The rejection of the transferred curriculum is then blamed on patriotism.
- Curriculum implementation should involve all the stakeholders. When some of the stakeholders are left out, some of the required roles will not be performed, thus leading to implementation failure. As Jensen (2000) argues, educators as key stakeholders in curriculum implementation of a borrowed curriculum require constant guidance and mentorship from other stakeholders.
- The formation of implementer' clusters facilitates the implementation processes with well-equipped educators being able to assist less experienced ones. The formation of clusters resonates with the South African policy on Whole School Evaluation which regard clustering as one of the ways in which to enhance educators' mastery of their subject matter through honest peer discussions (De Clercq & Du Plessis (2013).
- The channelling of learners to learning areas that are relevant to their learning abilities is sometimes complex. When implementing a wholesale transferred curriculum using implementers who have not mastered the subject content properly, allowing learners to choose subjects and change at a later stage gives some learners an opportunity to have ago with subjects they want to study.
- Practising a shadow education system with a wholesale transferred curriculum in an environment where a national curriculum is implemented may end up misleading learners. Private tutors who are unfamiliar with the transferred curriculum may tend to use the standards of the existing curriculum to assist learners.

7.5. Challenges to the curriculum implementation

This section concludes the findings on the challenges encountered when implementing a transferred curriculum in a different jurisdiction.

1. Using implementers from the original country. This involves the implementation of the transferred curriculum using curriculum implementers from the country of origin to monitor the curriculum implementation in the borrowing country. However, such

implementers usually lack knowledge of the borrowing country's context. For example, the South African implementers had no powers to influence policy in Eswatini and it became very difficult for them to carry out their work effectively. In the end, the implementation processes are compromised, as happens in cases where educators intentionally fail to comply with the implementation processes because no one reprimands them. As Bowe, Ball and Gold (1992) and Ball (2012) argue, when curriculum implementers are involved in the design of the curriculum, they tend own it and are willing to implement it.

2. Lack of initial training of implementers. The fact that the implementers (especially the educators) received little or no training in the methodology involved in implementing the curriculum posed a challenge. As Meidl and Meidl (2011) suggest, for meaningful curriculum implementation to take place, it is essential that educators are equipped with adequate knowledge on curriculum; assessment; pedagogy; and organisation. When educators implement a curriculum without initial training, they are forced to spend a lot of time trying to understand the curriculum. The curriculum implementers were informed about the subject but lacked the pedagogical, assessment and organisational skills which would they would have acquired during training before the curriculum implementation.
3. Little involvement on the part of the recipient government officials. The minimal involvement of the government policy actors jeopardised the implementation processes. Instead of interrogating the new curriculum to ascertain the relevancy and compatibility to the borrower's environment, the officials chose to distance themselves from it. Since each country has a guiding educational philosophy, implementing a wholesale borrowed curriculum inculcates foreign values in the children who are the future guardians of their country's values. As Noddings (2018) postulates, in designing a curriculum, each country considers among others: the aims of education; who should be educated; the role of the state in the provision of education etc.
4. Ignoring some aspects of the policy. When some components of a curriculum are ignored (missed lessons) during the implementation phase, such a curriculum often fails to achieve the intended objectives. According to Bruner (1996:p 23), the spiralling approach is intended to assist a learner by "constantly returning to previous learning and understandings in light of new learning and experience in order to make sense of the new experience and conceptualisations as they occur".

5. Ignoring contextual issues. A curriculum transfer that fails to take into account the relevant contextual factors is destined to fail. Each new environment has characteristics that must be synchronised with the new curriculum in what Phillips and Ochs (2003) refer to as cultural relativism. Cultural relativism was defined by Franz Boaz in 1887 and presupposes that cultural norms and values exist within a social context.
6. Demotivated staff. A demotivated staff is detrimental to a smooth implementation process. In situations where private schools' salaries are below the government scale, educators tend to use these private schools as a springboard to join government schools. The resultant frequent change of educators creates an unstable staff thus, making the implementation process very difficult as; each time new educators are hired, the processes of mentoring a new educator starts afresh. It must be remembered that the creation of conditions that support educators' ability to teach improves learner achievement (Eyal & Roth, 2011).
7. Lack of proper structures. Some private schools lacked basic facilities like laboratories, libraries and the equipment required to teach certain subjects.
8. Logistics and financial constraints. The implementation of a curriculum where some services and components are outsourced across the border often derails the process, because of limitations such as the need for visas and permits and custom checks; In addition, in light of child trafficking – some countries require parental consent when children under a certain age cross the border. Fulfilling these requirements often demands time and money.

In short, given all the challenges mentioned above, the implementation of a wholesale transferred curriculum is challenging particularly because of the contextual challenges. The major challenge which emerged in this study was that the transfer was initiated and financed by parents without major involvement on the part of the government actors. Despite numerous government effort to change and strengthen the local curriculum, the demand for the transferred curriculum continued to grow.

The uncontextualised curriculum faced numerous challenges during the implementation stage as the stakeholders have not been prepared for the changes that come with the new curriculum. It is essential that the National Department of Education policy agents involved all stakeholders in the planning and choosing of a new curriculum. All

stakeholders should know about the changes and the impact the new curriculum may have on their job security and earnings. Ignorance and uncertainty created fear among the curriculum implementers, leading to low morale and subsequently affecting the implementation processes.

7.6. Practical implications

Basing on the findings, the study suggests the following recommendations.

1. Before embarking on a wholesale curriculum transfer where the curriculum implementers are based on either side of the border, there is need for a Bilateral Agreement of Education between the two countries involved under which a MoU is formulated with the involvement of all stakeholders. The MoU should aim at establishing the: objectives of transferring the curriculum; guiding principles of the cooperation; composition, purpose and scheduled meetings of the commission; financial obligation; settlement of disputes as well as the duration, amendment and termination of the agreement. In addition, the MoU should address all the challenges involved in the logistics of implementing the transferred curriculum, such as the need to open more examination centres in the country and to train curriculum implementers before initiating the implementation processes as well as providing security to all the stakeholders.
2. There is a need for collaboration between neighbouring countries to devise a shared curriculum that takes into account all the contextual factors of the member states. By including all these' contextual features, learners would not only find it easy to apprehend the curriculum, but also, the natives of these countries will accept the curriculum. Alternatively, the Eswatini MoET could explore the possibility of offering an internationally benchmarked curriculum such as A 'Levels that is ranked above the borrowed curriculum so that those parents who wish to send their children to a foreign university would be able to do so.
3. The MoET as the custodian of education matters in the country should institute a secretariat that is responsible for monitoring private schools. The secretariat should familiarise itself with all the policies of the curricula implemented in these private schools so as to ensure informed and effective monitoring. There should be frequent meetings with the private schools to deliberate on issues affecting their operation and government should always be a willing partner to assist. The government involvement

should act as a mechanism to protect unsuspecting parents who are sometimes duped by schools that operate illegally in the country.

4. If the transferred curriculum does not have any implications for the state, parents should be allowed to exercise their democratic right to choose the curriculum they deem fit for their children. However, such rights should be balanced with the responsibilities demanded in terms of the country's norms and values.
5. There should be a mechanism to offer the entire curriculum from the fundamental phase to the FET phase. Offering a complete curriculum from pre-school to high school will avoid the transition gaps that exist between different phases (senior phase to FET phase; or fundamental to senior phase) when the CAPS curriculum is implemented starting in Grade 10 (FET phase). In addition, the tendency on the part of private schools to concentrate on candidate classes (Grade 12) denies learners the opportunity to explore their full educational potential.
6. The expertise of the local examination councils in the borrowing countries should be used to assist in the management of the external examinations of these borrowed curricula. The examination councils may act as a nodal point for all external examinations in order to assist the external monitors during the writing of final examinations. In addition, the Examination Councils should assist in storing the examination materials as transporting the materials on a daily basis over long distances exposes the exercise to leakages and unnecessary delays.
7. Subject inspectors from the lending country should devise a mechanism to capacitate curriculum implementers in the borrowing country by providing them with induction workshops as well as allowing them to participate in the marking of the final examinations. Both educators in the lending and borrowing countries should be accorded the same curriculum development opportunities.
8. Curriculum transfer requires charismatic (transformational) leaders who promote educators' intrinsic motivation to perform beyond their job satisfaction by assisting them rather than blaming them when they make mistakes.
9. Schools offering more than one curriculum should have separate educators to teach each curriculum in order to avoid over-burdening the educators and to provide room for the specialisation that leads to better results.
10. There is a need to effectively monitor private schools.

7.7. New knowledge and insights

The study contributed the following new insights to the body of knowledge

1. This case study was unique and differs from most policy borrowing cases in the literature because it involved parents as actors in the policy borrowing process. Moreover, CAPS was implemented in its entirety whereas normally at least some aspects of the curriculum being transferred are modified for the receiving country's context.
2. The study was unique in that it investigated policy borrowing while it was occurring and still in flux. Moreover, it was a case in which CAPS was chosen intentionally and not government driven. The reasons for this included- proximity to South Africa and parents' familiarity with it for facilitating access to higher education, rather than looking for best practices more broadly and settling on CAPS because it was the best.
3. The technique of using of two theoretical models to generate one model for the research may be applied to other studies.
4. The findings may be relevant to people and researchers involved in planning and choosing a new curriculum– especially in Eswatini and South Africa where the process of borrowing took place.
5. The findings give an insight on how the school curriculum is taught in one country while support and monitoring tools are sourced and controlled in a foreign country.

7.8. Limitations and challenges of the study

As with other qualitative case studies, the study was subjected to limitations and challenges that could have compromised the credibility of the findings. According to Price and Murnan (2004, p. 66), a limitation of a study design or instrument, is the "systematic bias that the researcher did not or could not control and which could inappropriately affect findings". Accordingly, the limitations and challenges included:

1. The availability of too much data during analysis. The research was swamped with data emanating from some participants who gave more than was required. During the interview phase, some participants would give answers that were not related to the questions asked. This could have been caused by failure to understand the questions (English was their second language) or the pronunciation of the words (the researcher and participants spoke different dialects).
2. It transpired that some of the findings could not be fairly presented in numerical form. I had initially contacted 41participants but only 33 took part in the interviews. The

rest could not pick my phones or kept on moving interview appointments till I gave up.

3. The findings of the study could not be generalised in a conventional sense because the investigation confined itself to four secondary schools. There was therefore no way to ascertain to what extent the four secondary schools were similar or different to other schools that offered CAPS in Eswatini.
4. The data was collected over a period of two years using a process that was very much in flux in terms of policies and ideas and sometimes participants had to move from their original sites thus proving difficult to trace. In addition, collecting data from different research sites proved costly.
5. Since I worked at one of the schools that offered CAPS and embarked on the study without pre-conceived ideas that could jeopardise the collection and discussion of the data, I sometimes got the impression that certain participants were concealing the truth. The impressions I had formed prior to the study sometimes clouded the way I interpreted the reality as presented by the participants.

7.9. Recommendations for future research

6. There is a need for more research to be conducted in situations in which where borrowed curricula are implemented without being contextualised and monitored from the country of origin. This would assist in generating a comparative study that would assist in understanding the challenges highlighted in this study.
7. There is a need for a research to extensively explore the parallel implementation of more than one curriculum in one school so as to ascertain its effectiveness and the effect it has on the country's education agenda.
8. Further study should be undertaken to explore the genesis of the low opinion demonstrated by some Eswatini of public their own education despite the fact that Eswatini education ranks amongst the best on PISA, TIMSS, PIRLS and SAQMEC rating scales.
9. Research is also needed to establish the causes of the shortage of popular professional courses in Eswatini and further weigh up the benefits of maintaining students in foreign universities against the benefits of introducing university faculties to offer these popular courses at home.
10. There is also a need to conduct research on the factors that popularise a national curriculum in order to address the haemorrhage of learners to foreign curricula.

11. In the era of internationalising higher education is being examined, there is a need to investigate why secondary schools final examinations in one neighbouring country may not be accepted in the other.

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List of Appendices

Appendix 1. Number of Repeaters by in all Eswatini secondary schools MoET (2017)

Sex	Grade	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	28+	Total
Fema le	Form 1	1	26	130	289	320	373	269	126	48	20	8	5	3					0	1,618
	Form 2			30	139	276	400	396	329	152	68	35	11	6	2				2	1,846
	Form 3			1	17	29	68	93	100	69	44	25	12	3	3		1		1	466
	Form 4				7	26	124	292	343	266	230	155	72	36	29	12	9	7	8	1,616
	Form 5						1	19	32	40	40	24	19	7	1	2	2		2	189
Female Total		**1**	**26**	**161**	**452**	**651**	**966**	**1,069**	**930**	**575**	**402**	**247**	**119**	**55**	**35**	**14**	**12**	**7**	13	5,735
Male	Form 1	2	22	79	247	314	439	356	243	133	54	26	17	2		2			0	1,936
	Form 2			17	83	219	376	438	400	310	189	97	44	18	7	1	1		1	2,201
	Form 3			5	11	33	58	77	99	95	105	58	39	23	9	2	1		0	615
	Form 4				7	14	77	198	308	317	296	232	159	74	37	12	2	3	4	1,740
	Form 5						2	10	22	21	24	23	19	15	9	3	2		0	150
Male		**2**	**22**	**101**	**348**	**580**	**952**	**1,079**	**1,072**	**876**	**668**	**436**	**278**	**132**	**62**	**20**	**6**	**3**	5	6,642
Grand Total		**3**	**48**	**262**	**800**	**1,231**	**1,918**	**2,148**	**2,002**	**1,451**	**1,070**	**683**	**397**	**187**	**97**	**34**	**18**	**10**	18	12,377

Appendix 2. Dropout in Eswatini secondary schools: Adopted from MoET (2017)

Sex	Grade	Absconded	Death	Disciplinary	Family Reasons	Pregnancy	School fees	Sickness	Transfer	Total
Female	Form 4	60	6	3	61	251	22	13	39	455
	Form 5	16	2	1	12	68	6	5	1	111
Female Total		**76**	**8**	**4**	**73**	**319**	**28**	**18**	**40**	**566**
Male	Form 4	106	5	35	85	50	30	14	53	378
	Form 5	14	5	5	12	22	9	5	4	76
	Form 6	1								1
Male Total		**121**	**10**	**40**	**97**	**72**	**39**	**19**	**57**	**455**
Grand Total		**197**	**18**	**44**	**170**	**391**	**67**	**37**	**97**	**1,021**

Appendix 3. The pass rate of the schools writing NSC examinations in Eswatini over the years

Year Exam Taken	No. of Schools with Grade 12	Number of F/T candidates	Number of P/T candidates	Percentage Pass rate.
2010	1	37	15	84.5
2011	2	58	36	73.8
2012	3	264	48	88.99
2013	5	330	43	88.81
2014	5	426	80	87.37
2015	6	546	89	89.73
2016	9	595	116	91.38
2017	11	570	84	86.96
2018	13	645	163	81.20
2019	13	754	138	

Appendix 4. Permission to conduct research: Ministry of Education and Training in

The Government of the Kingdom of Swaziland

Ministry of Education & Training

Tel: (+268) 2 4042491/5
Fax: (+268) 2 404 3880

P. O. Box 39
Mbabane, SWAZILAND

10th July, 2017

Attention:
Head Teachers:

SAIM High School	Mbalenhle High School
Letchwe Light High School	WEM High School

THROUGH
Manzini and Hhohho Regional Education Officers

Dear Colleagues,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA STUDENT – MR. B. D. TUMWINE.

1. Reference is made to the above mentioned subjects.
2. The Ministry of Education and Training has received a request from Mr. B. D. Tumwine, a student at the University of Pretoria, that in order for him to fulfill his academic requirements at the University of Pretoria, he has to collect data (conduct research) and his study or research topic is: *Transferring and Implementing a Curriculum Policy Across the Border: Challenges for Swaziland.* The population for his study comprises of Principals from the above mentioned schools, Head of Departments, Pupils, parents, inspectors of schools, government officials and examinations officials. All details concerning the study are stated in the participants' consent form which will have to be signed by all participants before Mr. Tumwine begins his data collection. Please note that parents will have to consent for all the participants below the age of 18 years participating in this study.

3. The Ministry of Education and Training requests your office to assist Mr. Tumwine by allowing him to use above mentioned schools in the Manzini and Hhohho regions as his research sites as well as facilitate him by giving him all the support he needs in his data collection process. Data collection period is one month.

DR. SIBONGILE M. MTSHALI-DLAMINI
DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

cc: Regional Education Officers – Manzini and Hhohho
Chief Inspector – Secondary
4 Head Teachers of the above mentioned schools
Prof. C. Herman – Research Supervisor

Appendix 5. Permission to conduct research: KZN Head of Education Department

education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Phindile Duma | Tel: 033 392 1041 | Ref.:2/4/8/1271

Mr BD Tumwine
PO Box 66
Big Bend
Swaziland
L311

Dear Mr Tumwine

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **"TRANSDERRING AND IMPLEMENTING A CURRICULUM POLICY ACROSS A BORDER: CHALLENGES FOR SWAZILAND"**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the Intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 07 July 2017 to 09 July 2020.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Miss Connie Kehologile at the contact numbers below
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report/dissertation/thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Office of the HOD, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to schools and institutions in KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

UMkhanyakude District

Dr. EV Nzama
Head of Department: Education
Date: 10 July 2017

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

...Championing Quality Education - Creating and Securing a Brighter Future

Postal Address: Private Bag X9137 • Pietermaritzburg • 3200 • Republic of South Africa
Physical Address: 247 Burger Street • Anton Lembede Building • Pietermaritzburg • 3201
Tel.: +27 33 392 1004/41 • **Fax.:** +27 033 392 1203• **Email:** Kehologile.Connie@kzndoe.gov.za/Phindile.Duma@kzndoe.gov.za •**Web:**www.kzneducation.gov.za
Facebook: KZNDOE....Twitter: @DBE_KZN....Instagram: kzn_education....Youtube:kzndoe

Appendix 6. Turnitin report

Challenges in implementing a South African curriculum in Eswatini

by Tumwine Baguma

Supervisor : Chaya Herman

Submission date: 31-Oct-2019 11:01AM (UTC+0200)
Submission ID: 1204162498
File name: 28629681_TURNITIN.docx (537.75K)
Word count: 49871
Character count: 280134

Prof Chaya Herman

Supervisor: [signature]

Challenges in implementing a South African curriculum in Eswatini

ORIGINALITY REPORT

8%	5%	3%	6%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

#	Source	%
1	repository.up.ac.za Internet Source	1 %
2	www.tandfonline.com Internet Source	<1 %
3	Submitted to University of Johannsburg Student Paper	<1 %
4	Submitted to North West University Student Paper	<1 %
5	uir.unisa.ac.za Internet Source	<1 %
6	Chow, Anthony. "Replanting the Flower in Different Soil? A Critical Analysis of Education Borrowing in Hong Kong", International Journal of Education, 2014. Publication	<1 %
7	en.wikipedia.org Internet Source	<1 %

Hongbiao Yin. "Implementing the National

Appendix 7. Letter approving the research title

Email: pulane.tau@up.ac.za Tel.: 012-420 2725 Fax: 012-420 5933

23 May 2019

Student no: 28629681

Tumwine Baguma Deo
BDTUMWINE@GMAIL.COM
mailto:lifutso26@gmail.com

Dear Tumwine Baguma Deo

APPROVED TITLE AND SUPERVISOR/CO-SUPERVISOR

I have pleasure in informing you that your title and supervisor for PhD is:

Title: Challenges in implementing a South African curriculum in Eswatini

Supervisor: Prof Chaya Herman«Supervisor»
Contact details: (012) 420 5665, chaya.herman@up.ac.za

Co-Supervisor: Dr CLM Kombe«Supervisor»
Contact details: (012) 420 5574, charity.kombe@up.ac.za

You are advised to acquaint yourself with Regulations in the publication 'General Regulations and information'.

Your registration as a student must be renewed annually before 28 February until you have complied with all the requirements for the degree. You will only be entitled to the guidance of your supervisor if annual proof of registration is submitted

Yours sincerely
Pulane Tau
Ms Pulane Tau
for Dean

Appendix 8. Interview schedule

Faculty of Education

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Section A

Educators and School Management Teams

1. How long have you been teaching the CAPS curriculum?
2. How many curricula does your school offer?
3. Is your school a public/private/business management centre?
4. What factors led to your school offering CAPS curriculum?
5. If you have ever taught SGCSE curriculum, in what ways does CAPS curriculum differ?
6. What do you understand by CAPS curriculum and NSC?
7. At what level do your learners enrol into the CAPS curriculum and for those who never enrolled in Grade R, how do you compensate for the background knowledge needed for some chapters?
8. Basing on Question 7, how do such learners choose subjects in grade 10 without prior knowledge the subjects in grades 8 to 9?
9. What factors facilitate or inhibit the teaching of CAPS curriculum in your school?
10. How do you get professional support in your subject area?
11. How is the CAPS curriculum managed and monitored at your school?
12. How do you describe staffing and availability of CAPS curriculum related scholastic materials in your school?

13. How has the teaching of CAPS curriculum impacted on your professional development?
14. In your opinion, how should CAPS curriculum be implemented in Eswatini?
15. In your opinion, should/should not Eswatini adopt a South African curriculum? Explain.
16. Is there anything else that you would like to say about this topic that we have not discussed?

Section B

Parents / Guardians

1. How long has your child/children been learning the CAPS curriculum?
2. How did you know about the CAPS curriculum?
3. Why did you enrol your child for CAPS curriculum?
4. Who pays for your child's fees?
5. What benefits/challenges have you experienced in maintaining your child under the CAPS curriculum?
6. In your opinion, what are the qualifying/disqualifying factors for teaching CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?
7. What course does your child wish to take after grade 12 and in which institution?
8. Who will fund your child's education in the institutions in 7 above and what happens if you fail to get the funds?
9. In your opinion, what should be the way forward regarding the demand of CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?
10. Is there anything else that you would like to say about this topic that we have not discussed?

Section C

UMkhanyakude Education Department (under KwaZulu Natal in South Africa). Officials

1. How long have you worked in this organisation?
2. Who monitors the teaching of CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?
3. How do you monitor the implementation of CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?
4. What are the factors that led to the demand for CAPS Curriculum in Eswatini?

5. What are your challenges in monitoring and supporting the implementation of CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?
6. In your opinion, why should/should not Eswatini adopt a South African curriculum?
7. Is there anything else that you would like to say about this topic that we have not discussed?

Section D

Eswatini Department of Education officials

1. How long have you worked in this organisation?
2. In your opinion, what are the mitigating factors that drive parents to enrol their children for CAPS curriculum?
3. How is the South African Department of Education facilitating the teaching of CAPS curriculum in Eswatini schools?
4. How do you monitor and manage the schools offering CAPS curriculum in Eswatini?
5. Briefly describe how CAPS curriculum is implemented Eswatini?
6. How does the teaching of CAPS curriculum in Eswatini contribute or affect your country's national educational agenda?
7. In your opinion, how should the teaching of CAPS curriculum in Eswatini be handled?
8. In your opinion, should Eswatini adopt a South African curriculum?
9. Is there anything else that you would like to say about this topic that we have not discussed?

Thank you for your time

Appendix 9. Permission from the Ministry of Education and Training in Eswatini

Faculty of Education

26 June 2017.

The Director,
Ministry of Education and Training,
P. O. Box 39,
Mbabane, Eswatini.

Dear Madam,

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH.

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study at three high schools currently offering the South African Curriculum Assessment and Policy Statement (CAPS) locally known as "***matric***" in the Kingdom. I am currently enrolled in the Faculty of Education at University of Pretoria in South Africa and am in the process of writing my Doctorate Thesis. The study is entitled **"Challenges in implementing a South African curriculum in Eswatini".**

I intend to conduct semi-structured interviews with the principal, two heads of department, three parents, four educators in each conveniently and purposively sampled school. Interviews will also be held with three officials from the Regional Educational Department, two senior officials at the Ministry of Education and Training as well as six officials that include: two Curriculum Implementers; two Examination Specialists; and one Circuit Manager from uMkhanyakude District Education Department under KwaZulu-Natal Province in South Africa. The interviews will be both noted down and tape recorded. The questions to be asked and the documents to be analysed are included in the interview schedule attached. The names of the participants and schools will be kept anonymous and their views will be kept confidential. If permission is granted, the participants will be interviewed individually in their offices or other quiet setting of their choice.

Our interviews will last for a period not exceeding one hour at a time convenient to the participants. The participants will be allowed to discontinue at any point. No cost will be incurred by the school or the individual participants. The participants will be routinely offered the transcriptions of the interviews to modify the information which they do not want to be used in the research. A copy of the completed thesis will be availed to the Ministry of Education and Training.

I hope the findings of the research will provide an insight to policy makers in both the Kingdom of Eswatini and Republic of South Africa on how policy designed in another country for that country can be implemented in an outside country with different contextual factors. The findings will add knowledge to the existing literature on policy borrowing.

If you agree, kindly provide me with a signed letter of permission acknowledging your consent and permission for me to conduct this study in the Kingdom. You may use my e-mail to reply me: bdtumwine@gmail.com

Thank you for assistance in this matter.

Faithfully yours,

____

____

Tumwine Baguma Deo. Prof. Chaya Herman.

Student Researcher **Supervisor**

Appendix 10. Permission from the Head of Education Department in KZN province

Faculty of Education

26 June 2017.

The Head of Department,
Department of Education,
Province of KwaZulu-Natal,
Republic of South Africa.

Dear Sir,

<u>RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH.</u>

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study at three high schools currently offering the South African Curriculum Assessment and Policy Statement (CAPS) in the Kingdom. I am currently enrolled in the Faculty of Education at University of Pretoria in South Africa and am in the process of writing my Doctorate Thesis. The study is entitled ***"Challenges in implementing a South African curriculum in Eswatini".***

I intend to conduct semi-structured interviews with the principal, two heads of department, three parents, four educators in each conveniently and purposively sampled school. Interviews will also be held with three officials from the Regional Educational Department, two senior officials at the Ministry of Education and Training as well as six officials that include: two Curriculum Implementers; two Examination Specialists; and one Circuit Manager from uMkhanyakude District Education Department under KwaZulu-Natal Province in South Africa. The interviews will be both noted down and tape recorded. The questions to be asked and the documents to be analysed are included in the interview schedule attached. The names of the participants and schools will be kept anonymous and their views will be kept confidential. If permission is granted, the participants will be interviewed individually in their offices or other quiet setting of their choice.

Our interviews will last for a period not exceeding one hour at a time convenient to the participants. The participants will be allowed to discontinue at any point. No cost will be incurred by the school or the individual participants. The participants will be routinely offered the transcripts to modify the information which they do not want to be used in the research. A copy of the completed thesis will be availed to the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

I hope the findings of the research will provide an insight to policy makers in both the Kingdom of Eswatini and Republic of South Africa on how policy designed in another country for that country can be implemented in an outside country with different contextual factors. The findings will add knowledge to the existing literature on policy borrowing.

If you agree, kindly provide me with a signed letter of permission acknowledging your consent and permission for me to conduct this study in the Kingdom. You may use my e-mail to reply me: bdtumwine@gmail.com

Thank you for assistance in this matter.

Faithfully yours,

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____

Tumwine Baguma Deo. Prof. Chaya Herman.
Student Researcher **Supervisor**

Appendix 11. Permission from participants to take part in the research

Faculty of Education

26th June 2017

The (*Designation)*

(Name of institution).

Dear Sir/Madam,

<u>RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH.</u>

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study with you at your (name of institution). I am currently enrolled in the Faculty of Education at University of Pretoria in South Africa and am in the process of writing my Doctorate Thesis. The study is entitled ***"*Challenges in implementing a South African curriculum in Eswatini*"*.**

I hope you will avail me an opportunity to conduct a semi-structured interview with yourself. Your name will be kept anonymous and your views will be kept confidential. If permission is granted, you will be interviewed in your office or other quiet setting of your choice. I will be grateful if you indicate when you will be able to afford me time to interview you. Otherwise, I will tentatively suggest that our interview takes place after 14:00 hours for those in school settings or any other convenient time for those outside a school setting. The interview will run for a period not exceeding one hour. No costs will be incurred by the institution or the individual participants.

Your institution has been conveniently selected so as to give the research study a broad view and to reflect the acceptable degree of diversity. Your answers to the questions will be treated in the strictest confidence, not even the Ministry of Education will have access to the notes. You and your institution will not be identified either by name or by implication by any reader or findings of this research. However, if in the course of my study I discover learners' /

human maltreatment, I will make yourself and the school / institution aware that I have an obligation to report such an act to the relevant departments. If you agree, permission from the Ministry of Education and Training (for Swaziland) or Basic Education (for RSA) will be sought. You will be routinely offered the findings and feedback and allowed to delete data which you do not want to be used or add what I left out in the research. In addition, you will be allowed to discontinue at any stage of the study.

I hope the findings of the research will be of great help to education policy makers in both the Kingdom of Swaziland and Republic of South Africa and will further add knowledge to the existing literature of policy transfer.

If you agree to participate in this research, kindly fill in and sign the consent form attached. I have attached an interview schedule for yourself beforehand. Should you have any difficulties or queries, feel free to contact me on 00268 7613 7222 or by email: bdtumwine@gmail.com.

Your assistance by taking part in this research is highly appreciated.

Faithfully yours,

____

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Tumwine Baguma Deo   Prof. Chaya Herman

Student Applicant   **Supervisor**

Appendix 12. Consent form

Faculty of Education

CONSENT FORM.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH STUDY ENTITLED:

Challenges in implementing a South African curriculum in Eswatini.

I ______________________________ the principal / head of department / educator / parent / Regional Education Officer / Official at Eswatini Ministry of Education and Training / Official at uMkhanyakude District Education Department in ____________________ region in ______________________ (name of country), hereby voluntarily agree to participate as an individual and to be interviewed in the above mentioned research. I declare that the following issues have been thoroughly explained to me by Mr B D Tumwine currently a PhD student at the University of Pretoria.

- The aims, scope, purpose, possible consequences and benefits,
- The method of collecting data needed for the research,
- The means by which the research will attempt to ensure confidentiality, anonymity and integrity of the data collected,
- That I am at liberty to withdraw from the study at any time.

____

Participant's signature