

**The place and case for tourism in the
educational curriculum in the “new” South Africa**

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Summary

Tourism as a subject in South Africa has been a very little researched topic to date. This dissertation aims to consider the history of curriculum development in schools in South Africa post 1994 with specific reference to the school subject tourism. The focus will be on how, when and why tourism was brought into the school curriculum internationally as well as nationally. It will interrogate whether tourism as a subject in the South African school curriculum is justifiable and what the rationale for its introduction was. This will be achieved through an analysis of the educational decision-making process at educational authority level as well as the various school curricula implemented over the past quarter century. The place of tourism as a school subject will be contextualised by considering the domain of tourism within the South African economy, as well as a brief consideration of tourism as a school subject in other African destinations as well as international destinations. Curriculum knowledge cannot be neutral, it can either be used as an instrument to integrate students into the logic of the status quo or it serves as the means of enabling people to critically transform their world. If the curriculum is described as a product and expression of political interest, values and knowledge of a dominant social group, powerful insights into the past and current dilemma of the construction of the curriculum can be gained.

Thus, it is with the South African background in mind and international benchmarking that we investigate the viability of tourism as a subject in its current role in South African schools.

Keywords: Tourism; South African schools; education; curriculum; inequality; race

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

ABET - Adult Basic Education and Training

ANC – African National Congress

AZAPO - Azanian People's Organization

APS - Admission Point Score

BBR - Bank Buying Rate

BSR - Bank Selling Rate

C2005 - Curriculum 2005

CAPS - Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

CATHSSETA - Culture, Art, Tourism, Hospitality, and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority

CPD - Continuous Professional Development

COLTS - Culture of Teaching and Learning

COSATU - Congress of South African Trade Unions

CNE - Christian National Education

DBE - Department of Basic Education

FET - Further Education and Training

FETC - Further Education and Training Certificate

GDP - Gross Domestic Product

GET- General Education and Training

GNU – Government of National Unity

ICT- Information and Communication Technology

NCOP - National Council of Provinces

NCS – National Curriculum Statement

NDE - National Department of Education

NDT - National Department of Tourism

NP - National Party

NSC - National Senior Certificate

NTCE - National Tourism Careers Expo

NQF – National Qualifications Framework

OBE – Outcomes Based Education

PAC – Pan African Congress

PIRLS - Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS)

RI - Religious Instruction (RI)

RNCS – Revised National Curriculum Statement

SA - South Africa

SATI - South African Tourism Institute

SACMEQ - Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality

SADC countries – Southern African Development Communities

SANParks - South African National Parks

SANAC - South African Native Affairs Commission

SAQA – South African Qualifications Authority

SBA – School Board Act

STEM subjects - Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics

STHM - School of Tourism and Hospitality Management

TBCSA - Tourism Business Council of South Africa

TIMSS - Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

UK - United Kingdom

UNESCO - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

USA - United States of America

VOC - Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie

WGCTA - Watson Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal

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Chapter 1:

Introduction and background

Aim of study

The aim of the study is to consider the history of curriculum development in schools in South Africa post 1994 with specific reference to the school subject tourism. The focus is on how, when and why tourism was brought into the school curriculum internationally as well as nationally. As indicated in the title, it will interrogate whether tourism as a subject in the South African school curriculum is justifiable and what was the rationale for its introduction. This will be achieved through an analysis of the educational decision-making process at educational authority level as well as the various school curricula implemented over the past quarter century. The place of tourism as a school subject will be contextualised by considering the domain of tourism within the South African economy, as well as tourism as a school subject in other international destinations. Curriculum knowledge cannot be neutral, it can either be used as an instrument to integrate students into the logic of the status quo or it serves as the means of enabling people to critically transform their world. If the curriculum is described as a product and expression of political interest, values and knowledge of a dominant social group, powerful insights into the past and current dilemma of the construction of the curriculum can be gained.¹

Background

Education in South Africa has not been a neutral enterprise especially when we consider the deep injustices ingrained in this society.² It is unfortunately, as with most countries, not a separate entity therefore all challenges faced by the society in which it finds itself influences the kind of educating and education that is received by students. Education has been a contested space as with most colonized countries. The twentieth century in South Africa was particularly problematic as Apartheid education was characterized

¹ J.D. Jansen, 'Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education', *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

² L. Chisholm, 'Apartheid education legacies and new directions in post-apartheid South Africa', *Storia delle donne* 8, 2012, pp. 81–103.

primarily by racial inequalities that permeated all aspects of learning.³ Schools were segregated according to race and vast differences in expenditure per learner and teacher salaries prevailed. White schools benefited the most from this system as expenditure was geared towards them, whilst they had a low teacher to student ratio and high per capita spending compared to what was being experienced in black schools.⁴ Apartheid also brought with it division regarding the curriculum as there was no national core curriculum being taught in all schools. The white parliament and its provincial departments determined the curriculum, and other education departments, which served other race groups, adapted the core syllabi. The teaching that took place during that period was dominated by the teacher and memorization and recall were essentially the main instruments of learning.⁵

Student assessment was very poor and not properly planned.⁶ This only shows a small section of the legacy of Apartheid, as on large scale in education Apartheid virtually crippled black schools and left a legacy on people that is proving to be not easy to undo or to make right.⁷ Several historically black schools remain dysfunctional despite changes in policy and law. This could be due to formal changes not guaranteeing better practice, and due to policy makers taking little account of the context and agents of implementation, which can lead to policy rather impeding than enabling transformation. A solution to this for education in South African schools is that any new policy initiatives must consider the organizational capacity of schools to change.⁸ The World Economic Forum's Africa Competitiveness Report rated South Africa as one of the worst educational performers in the world in 2015⁹ and not much has changed according to the 2019 report.¹⁰

³ E. B. Fiske & F.H. Ladd, *Elusive Equity: Education Reform in Post-Apartheid South Africa*, p. 262.

⁴ E. Unterhalter, 'The impact of Apartheid on Women's Education in South Africa', *Review of African Political Economy* (48), 1990, pp. 66-75.

⁵ A. Todd & M. Mason, 'Enhancing learning in South African schools: strategies beyond outcomes-based education', *International Journal of Educational Development* 25, 2005, pp. 221–235.

⁶ A. Kanjeea, & Y. Sayed, 'Assessment policy in post-apartheid South Africa: challenges for improving education quality and learning', *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice* 20 (4), 2013, pp.442–469.

⁷ A. Case, & M. Yogo, 'Does School Quality Matter? Returns to Education and the Characteristics of Schools in South Africa', NBER Working Paper No. 7399 JEL No.12, 1999.

⁸ A. Todd, & M. Mason, 'Enhancing learning in South African schools: strategies beyond outcomes-based education', *International Journal of Educational Development* 25, 2005, pp. 221–235.

⁹ K. Schwab & S. Martin, *The Global Competitiveness Report 2015–2016*, 2015, pp. 1-383.

¹⁰ K. Schwab, *The Global Competitiveness Report 2019*, 2019, pp. 1-643.

This is a grim outlook for education in South Africa that has faced numerous challenges pre-Apartheid and post-Apartheid. A number of changes have occurred during the period directly after Apartheid, with the introduction of a new curriculum: Outcomes Based Education (OBE).¹¹ This was followed rather quickly with the introduction of Curriculum 2005 (C2005),¹² then the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS), National Curriculum Statement (NCS), Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) which has had numerous changes since. It seems that there were numerous curricula, administrative and structural changes that took place during the post-Apartheid period and these are ongoing in the year 2020.¹³ In addition to this, the strong legacy of Apartheid and the consequent correlation between education and wealth have meant that poorer learners from disadvantaged backgrounds in South Africa perform worse academically.¹⁴

According to Mncube and Harber, quality education can be defined as the acquisition of the knowledge, skills and values the society deems valuable, which is usually articulated in the curriculum. It generally comprises a judicious mix of educational inputs, teaching-learning processes and learning outcomes. This quality is also a combination of that which occurs internally within the classroom and externally in the vision of the type of person and society the education system strives to create.¹⁵

In South Africa that quality can be assessed through the number of cross-national assessments of educational achievement used to compare the level of learning and knowledge of learners with those from students in other countries. These assessments include Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ), Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) and Trends in

¹¹ P. Mulaudzi & T. Runhare, 'Teachers' reflections on their conceptualisation and utilisation of continuous assessment within an outcomes-based education (OBE) context: The South African experience, *Journal for Educational Studies* 13 (1), 2014, pp. 186-215.

¹² P. Enslin, & S. Pendlebury, 'Transforming education in South Africa?', *Cambridge Journal of Education* 28 (3), 1998, pp. 261 – 267.

¹³ L. Ramrathan, '2015. SA's school journey', <https://www.iol.co.za/dailynews/opinion/sas-school-journey-1806392>, access: 15 April 2020.

¹⁴ N. Spaul, 'Schooling in South Africa: How low-quality education becomes a poverty trap', *South African Child Gauge*, 2015, pp. 1-41.

¹⁵ V. Mncube & C. Harber, 'Chronicling educator practices and experiences in the context of democratic schooling and quality education in South Africa', *International Journal of Educational Development* 30, 2010, pp. 614–624.

International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS).¹⁶ The 2007 SACMEQ data highlighted huge geographic inequalities in the country showing that 41% of rural grade 6 learners being functionally illiterate compared to only 13% of urban learners in the same grade. Furthermore, local grade 6 learners performed worse than learners in many poorer African countries like Kenya and Tanzania.¹⁷ The pre-PIRLS study of 2011 showed that large linguistic inequalities exist and that of those whose language of teaching and learning was Xitsonga, Tshivenda or Sepedi, one in two (50%) could not read by the end of grade 4 compared to one in ten (11%) English and Afrikaans-speaking children. The result is that students who cannot read fluently by grade 4 are not able to fully engage with the rest of the curriculum in a meaningful way.¹⁸ This is primarily because in grades 1 to 3 the curriculum focuses on “learning to read”¹⁹ whereas from grades 4 onwards it focuses on “reading to learn”.²⁰ Therefore these children fall further and further behind as they are promoted to the next grade in spite of severe learning backlogs.²¹

The TIMSS tests mathematics and science at the grade 8/9 level and provides the most extensive comparison of South Africa’s performance since the country’s transition to democracy.²² The TIMSS studies showed no improvement in grade 8 mathematics or science achievement between 1995, 1999 and 2003. Subsequently, it was decided that the international grade 8 tests were too difficult for South Africa’s grade 8s; thus in 2003 both grade 8 and grade 9 students wrote the grade 8 test. The performance of grade 9 students improved by approximately one-and-a-half grade levels of learning between 2003 and 2011. While this offers hope, it is difficult to celebrate when we are starting on an extremely low base. South Africa is still performing as the weakest of all participating

¹⁶ S. Howie, ‘High-stakes testing in South Africa: friend or foe?’, *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice* 19 (1), 2012, pp. 81–98.

¹⁷ N. Spaul, ‘Schooling in South Africa: How low-quality education becomes a poverty trap’, *South African Child Gauge*, 2015, pp. 1-41.

¹⁸ S. Howie et al., PIRLS 2011: South African Children’s Reading Literacy Achievement Report, pp. 1-120.

¹⁹ N. Spaul, ‘Schooling in South Africa: How low-quality education becomes a poverty trap’, *South African Child Gauge*, 2015, pp. 1-41.

²⁰ N. Spaul, ‘Schooling in South Africa: How low-quality education becomes a poverty trap’, *South African Child Gauge*, 2015, pp. 1-41.

²¹ N. Spaul, ‘Schooling in South Africa: How low-quality education becomes a poverty trap’, *South African Child Gauge*, 2015, pp. 1-41.

²² M. Mlachila & T. Moeletsi, ‘Struggling to Make the Grade: A Review of the Causes and Consequences of the Weak Outcomes of South Africa’s Education System’, 2019.

countries, with the average grade 9 learner performing between two and three grade levels lower than the average grade 8 learner from other middle-income countries. These educational inequalities can be seen between the different races in South Africa with the General Household Survey of 2011 indicating that 44% of Black and Coloured youth aged 23-24 having attained matric, compared to 83% of Indian youth and 88% of White youth.²³

Educational enrolment in historically black schools constitutes 80% of the enrolment but quality has not improved since political transition, despite the large resources transferred to these schools. The poorer schools, which are mostly black or coloured schools, are still under-performing in the democratic South Africa.²⁴ The inequity in the quality of education is an enduring problem and for many poor children located in the historically disadvantaged part of the school system, this low quality of education acts as a poverty trap. This poverty trap precludes them from achieving the level of educational outcomes necessary to be competitive in the labour market.²⁵

Thus, it is evident that South Africa has the worst education system of all middle-income countries that participate in cross-national assessments of educational achievement.²⁶ What makes it even worse is that South Africa performs worse than many low-income African countries. The annually reported statistics from the National Senior Certificate (NSC) exam in Grade 12 are particularly misleading since they do not take into account those pupils who never make it to Grade 12. The statistics showed that out of 100 pupils that start school, only 50 will make it to Grade 12, 40 will pass, and only 12 will make it to university. Those 18-24 year olds who do not acquire some form of post-secondary education are at a distinct economic disadvantage and not only struggle to find full-time employment, but also have one of the highest probabilities of being unemployed for sustained periods of time, if not permanently. While there have been some recent improvements in pupil outcomes, as well as some important policy innovations, the

²³ N. Spaull, 'Schooling in South Africa: How low-quality education becomes a poverty trap', *South African Child Gauge*, 2015, pp. 1-41.

²⁴ S. Van Der Berg, 'How effective are poor schools? Poverty and educational outcomes in South Africa', *Studies in Educational Evaluation* 34, 2008, pp. 145–154.

²⁵ S. Taylor, Uncovering indicators of effective school management in South Africa using the National School Effectiveness Study, Stellenbosch Economic Working Papers: 10/11, n.d.

²⁶ Anon, September 2015, <https://www.cde.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/Teacher-evaluation-in-south-african-schools-CDE.pdf>, access: 18 August 2020.

picture that emerges time and again is both dire and consistent.²⁷ However one chooses to measure learner performance, and at which ever grade one chooses to test, the vast majority of South African pupils are significantly below where they should be in terms of the curriculum, and more generally, have not reached a host of normal numeracy and literacy milestones.²⁸

Dropout and repetition are other issues faced by the post-democratic South African education system. According to the most conservative estimate, the number of learners in public schools repeating in grades 1 to 12 could have been 1 180 000. There is a high prevalence of repetition in the secondary school phase, which is grade 8 to 12, with the largest repeaters located in grade 10.²⁹

As mentioned earlier, a post-democratic South Africa has seen a huge increase in funding in schools, to assist in narrowing the gap created due to Apartheid lack of funding for non-white schools. Expenditure on education continues to be high, occupying 23% of the overall national budget and 7.1% of GDP in 1998/9.³⁰ In 2019 education and culture received the largest share of the national budget, which is a R262.4 billion allocation. The country's education system receives funding which is 20% of the budget and 6% of GDP, exceeding that of many sub-Saharan African countries, but as of 2019 these sub-Saharan African countries still achieve far better educational outcomes than South Africa. The 2019 statistics also show that the poorest learners depend on dysfunctional public schooling and achieve poor outcomes, and while enrolment at the secondary level has been expanding, school completion rates are low. In South Africa the dropout rate has reached a national crisis with 60% of grade ones will ultimately drop out rather than complete grade 12. This is made bleaker by only 52% of the age appropriate population

²⁷ N. Spaull, *South Africa's Education Crisis: The quality of education in South Africa 1994-2011*, Report Commissioned by CDE, 2013.

²⁸ N. Spaull, *South Africa's Education Crisis: The quality of education in South Africa 1994-2011*, Report Commissioned by CDE, 2013.

²⁹ S. Van Der Berg et al., *The cost of repetition in South Africa*, Stellenbosch Economic Working Papers: WP13/2019, 2019.

³⁰ S. Motala, 'Quality and indicators of quality in South African education: a critical appraisal', *International Journal of Educational Development* 21, 2001, pp. 61–78.

remaining enrolled in grade 12.³¹ Starkly in the higher education sector, universities can only accommodate 18% of those matriculants and 47% of the matriculants that get accepted will drop out.³²

Fiscal federalism, national and provincial relationships, and financing responsibilities continue to be important factors in shaping the role and direction of education reform. Provinces are struggling to keep within budget and at the same time are faced with the urgency of delivering visible reform.³³ The relationship between national and provincial department points to the disjuncture between power and accountability, with the national level determining the policy and the provinces expected to implement it.³⁴

A number of educational reviews have indicated that perhaps the scale of educational devastation that took place during those 40 years of Apartheid will not be easily erased in a decade or more.³⁵ This does not mean that major changes were not made post-Apartheid with the understanding of the institutionalised system of inequality and the scale of depredation it will have to combat, but the result being that might not be enough.³⁶ The new government made radical changes which include:

- Dissolving 18 departments into one national education department
- Provincial administrative structures were established for development needs in order to devolve authority and to bring service delivery closer to schools
- At a national level, measures were introduced to address the imbalance in the teacher pupil ratio experienced in non-white schools
- Compulsory education was introduced in order to increase enrolment

³¹ E.H. Weybright et al., 'Predicting secondary school dropout among South African adolescents: A survival analysis approach', *South African Journal of Education* 37 (2), 2017, pp. 1-19.

³² Anon, 2012., <https://www.globenewswire.com/news-release/2019/10/09/1927472/0/en/education-in-south-africa-2019-the-government-have-allocated-r30-billion-to-build-new-schools-maintain-existing-infrastructure.html>. access: April 2020.

³³ S. Motala, 'Quality and indicators of quality in South African education: a critical appraisal', *International Journal of Educational Development* 21, 2001, pp. 61-78.

³⁴ S. Motala, 'Quality and indicators of quality in South African education: a critical appraisal', *International Journal of Educational Development* 21, 2001, pp. 61-78.

³⁵ A. Barnard et al., 'Slegs Suid Afrikaners – South Africans only? A review and evaluation of the international crime of apartheid', *New Zealand Journal of Public and International Law* 7 (2), 2009, pp. 317 – 327.

³⁶ P.J. Lehohla, Education Series Volume III: Educational Enrolment and Achievement 2016/Statistics South Africa Report No. 92-01-03, Statistics South Africa, 2017, pp. 1-104.

- Increase in budget allocation for education
- Introduction of new curriculums (OBE, C2005, RNCS etc.)
- Introduction of qualification authority SAQA
- The exit examinations, the matriculation examination or the senior examination, saw improvement in pass rates
- The introduction of the Higher Education Act of 1998 to improve the quality and efficiency in the educational landscape
- Provinces were required to develop five year medium term planning frameworks as well as developing their own structures and policies
- At a national level the Department of Education announced its Implementation Plan for Tirisano which specified five key programmes, including one for achieving school effectiveness and educator professionalism
- The Department of Education also created a number of Ministerial Committees and internal review committee to review policies, school financing, curriculum, school governance and teacher education.³⁷

The question remains what impact all these changes has had on the education system. Although judging from the 2019 statistics mentioned earlier, the result is still sombre. Decentralisation of schools has put it in the hands of local control but has given the middle classes the greatest command over how schools are run. The desegregated, formerly white, Indian and coloured schools have been opened but have integrated only a minority of African children.³⁸ This all shows a drastic move from how it was during the Apartheid years.

³⁷ C. Soudien, 'The "A" factor: Coming to terms with the question of legacy in South African education', *International Journal of Educational Development* 27, 2007, pp. 182 – 193.

³⁸ L. Chisholm, *Changing class education and social change In Post-Apartheid South Africa*, pp. 1-348.

Methodology and sources

The study analyses the history of the South African education system in order to contextualize the introduction of tourism as a school subject. It traces the rationale for the latter's development through an analysis of primary documentation including government commissions and regulations. In order to present a comparative analysis of South Africa's situation, the place of tourism in education in a selection of other domains will also be analysed. This comparative approach although limited due to the lack of detailed information will also be applied to curriculums and teaching pedagogies of South Africa and other countries. The study is therefore literature-based and will adopt an analytical qualitative methodology.

Structure of the proposed study

The first chapter is a brief introduction and background of what the study is about. Here education in South Africa is discussed and South Africa's Apartheid period is flagged and to how it effected education. It briefly reviews education in South Africa during Apartheid and post-Apartheid to show where the state of education stands in these two periods.

The second chapter is the literature review that is divided into two sections. The focus is first on what has been written on tourism education in international literature and research, while the second part considers education in South Africa as a whole as well as local research on tourism in education.

The third chapter, History of Education in South Africa Pre-1994 and Post 1994, gives an outline of the history of education in South Africa. Whilst giving the outline of the history of education, it is made very clear that education was and still is a very divided sector in South Africa. It has also been haunted by many controversies that did not only start during Apartheid but were always present since the days when missionaries were involved as well as the first colonisers. Whether this was subtle or outright, the division and controversy was always present. Post-Apartheid education in South Africa seems to be riddled with degrees of dysfunction stemming from the deeply ingrained inequality and the lack of long-term solution-based planning on how to effectively overcome these enormous obstacles. Post-Apartheid education finds itself starting out at a disadvantage,

and the decisions made subsequently have only deepened and seem to widen the gap between the “have and the have nots”.³⁹

The growth of educational development in chapter four focuses on the different curriculums in South Africa. South Africa has gone through a number of curriculum changes and these are evaluated as to their effectiveness.

Chapter five investigates the introduction of tourism in school internationally and nationally. A few countries have introduced tourism as a school subject and South Africa is one of the few. Although tourism still does not seem to carry the same weight in schools as the STEM subjects, that is science, technology, engineering, and mathematics, as well as English, it is still perceived as an easy or light weight subject. It is seen as the latest fad that does not carry the same weight as the older more established subjects. Within this context, the study evaluates why it was introduced in South Africa and its place within the curriculum.

Chapter six delves into tourism curriculum in South African schools, looking particularly into the kind of curriculum being taught and its effectiveness for the industry. It considers how relevant the tourism being taught in schools is to the industry and questions if it really does assist in opening students’ minds to a career in tourism. It also considers what can be done regarding the relevance of tourism curriculum to the tourism industry, and whether there should be more stakeholder participation in creating the curriculum with for example more involvement regarding stakeholder career days or showcases in schools.

Chapter seven concludes with a broad overview and thoughts on the relevance of tourism as a subject in South African schools. It speculates as to whether it is providing the social and economic relief or benefit that was envisaged when it was implemented, as well as other possible reasons for its inclusion.

³⁹ ANON, 2015. The haves and the have nots still contesting in SA, <http://www.hsrc.ac.za/en/review/hsrc-review-special-editions-wssf-2015/contesting-in-sa-haves-and-have-nots>, access: November 2020.

Chapter 2:

Literature review

This literature review is divided into three sections. The first focuses on the international literature and research on tourism in education, while the second considers the very expansive and detailed research on the evolution and crisis within South African education. This comprehensive account of what has been written in this domain is justified by the need to emphasize how contested and controversial the domain of education is in South Africa, not only in the colonial and Apartheid era, but also in the democratic dispensation post-1994. It provides a useful context for understanding the place and case of tourism within the South African education system. The third section is concerned with the limited research that focuses on tourism in education in South Africa which is of direct relevance to the study at hand.

International

Internationally the literature on tourism in education focuses on both higher education (tertiary) as well as in schools (secondary). The research that has been done on the latter reflects on a division of opinion on the place of tourism in schools in a positive and negative sense, while the former considers the status and nature of the curriculum at university level.

In the article “The Relationship between Tourism Education and The Tourism Industry: Implications for Tourism Education” written in 1997 by Chris Cooper and Rebecca Shepherd, the authors argue that the relationship between tourism education and the tourism industry is historically a complex one. It is according to them characterised by a lack of trust. However more recently, both education and industry are recognising mutual benefits of a more co-operative relationship. The article explores the relationship between education and industry and goes on to outline the responses of tourism educators to the issue of cooperation between the two sectors.⁴⁰

⁴⁰ C. Cooper & R. Shepherd, ‘The Relationship between Tourism Education and The Tourism Industry’, *Tourism Recreation Research* 22 (1), 1997, p. 34.

In their 2007 article, David Solnet, Richard Robinson and Chris Cooper, pioneer a new strategic approach to industry engagement initiatives based upon a “partnerships approach” with industry and educational institutions.⁴¹ This was due to the realisation that the current linkages between industry and education are no longer adequate for the contemporary educational institution, where there is now an imperative for community engagement and curriculum relevance.⁴²

Related to this is a 2008 article “The Effective Use of Guest Speakers in the Hospitality and Tourism Curriculum” by Ken W. McCleary and Pamela A. Weaver, in which they discuss the importance for hospitality and tourism programs to maintain good relationships with industry. In their view this is achieved when industry executives and managers participate in the educational process by speaking to groups of students on campus. The article assesses some of the benefits of having industry speakers, suggests ways to enhance the value of the speaking engagement, and presents a model to ensure a match between the presentation and classroom objectives.⁴³

The article, “Lifelong Learning for Tourism” by Violet Cuffy, John Tribe and David Airey published in 2012, examines the provision of education and training for tourism in The Commonwealth of Dominica. This destination is heavily dependent on tourism and the article provides an original consideration of “lifelong learning for tourism”.⁴⁴ This study reports that tourism is taught intermittently as one subject, among others, during formal schooling, then during post-secondary education and training. In their view this approach is inappropriate, and they indicate that a lifelong-spiralled approach with opportunities in both stages (formal schooling and post-secondary schooling) would be more suitable for tourism to be effectively taught.⁴⁵

⁴¹ D. Solnet., R. Robinson & C. Cooper, ‘An Industry Partnerships Approach to Tourism Education’, *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education* 6 (1), 2007, pp. 66 – 67.

⁴² D. Solnet., R. Robinson & C. Cooper, ‘An Industry Partnerships Approach to Tourism Education’, *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education* 6 (1), 2007, pp. 66 – 67.

⁴³ K.W. McCleary & P.A. Weaver, ‘The Effective Use of Guest Speakers in the Hospitality and Tourism Curriculum’, *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism* 8 (4), 2008, pp. 401 – 402.

⁴⁴ V. Cuffy., J. Tribe & D. Airey, ‘Lifelong Learning for Tourism’, *Annals of Tourism Research* 39 (3), 2012, pp. 1402 – 1403.

⁴⁵ V. Cuffy., J. Tribe & D. Airey, ‘Lifelong Learning for Tourism’, *Annals of Tourism Research* 39 (3), 2012, pp. 1402 – 1403.

“Rethinking Tourism Education What Should Schools Teach?” by Yuka Inui, Daniel Wheeler and Samuel Lankford was published in 2006. This article attempts to promote a generic awareness of perspectives that have been overlooked and critical issues in tourism education at universities/vocational training centres by examining two possible approaches to educating future tourism professionals, which are defined as vocational and philosophical. It argues for one approach over the other in academically orientated institutions. It also goes on to discuss tourism education from the perspective of “employability”⁴⁶ as the primary goal and it considers the “non-vocational”⁴⁷ portion of tourism pedagogy in higher education. The focus is also on discussing different perspectives and how to address issues in tourism. The authors do not focus on or mention a specific area or country, or use a case study, but rather just kept their focus on overarching philosophies, issues, solutions and perspectives.

In a case study of Latvia, a similar consideration is made regarding education and the tourism industry. In their article “Challenges of tourism education: Conformity of tourism curriculum to business needs” Ineta Luka and Agita Donina conducted a study in 2012 in the fourth largest tertiary education institution in Latvia. The aim of the research was to study stakeholder needs and to evaluate the knowledge of tourism students, as well as the skills and abilities necessary to work in the tourism business and to determine opportunities for curriculum development.⁴⁸

In a 2015 article, “Academics' perceptions of continuous and collaborative curriculum review: An Australian case study”, Jennifer Bird, Thea van de Mortel, Julianne Holt and Maree Walo discuss curriculum design using Australia as a case study. They focus on designing curriculums that meet current national and international pressures and requirements for accreditation, as well as doing so within national standards and frameworks. This case study investigates academics' experiences and perceptions of continuous and collaborative curriculum review processes introduced in a School of

⁴⁶ Y. Inui., D. Wheeler & S. Lankford, ‘Rethinking Tourism Education: What Should Schools Teach?’, *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education* 5 (2), 2006, pp. 25–35.

⁴⁷ Y. Inui., D. Wheeler & S. Lankford, ‘Rethinking Tourism Education: What Should Schools Teach?’, *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education* 5 (2), 2006, pp. 25–35.

⁴⁸ I. Luka & A. Donina, ‘Challenges of tourism education: Conformity of tourism curriculum to business needs’, *Academica Turistica* 5 (1), 2012, pp. 85 – 86.

Tourism and Hospitality Management (STHM) at an Australian Regional University. It essentially found that academics valued the opportunity to improve the curriculum in line with developing trends.⁴⁹

This concern about education and the tourism sector is also apparent in another Australian study. “Critical Influences on Tourism as a Subject in UK Higher Education: Lecturer Perspectives” by Marion Stuart written in 2002, evaluates these educators’ perceptions. The two key factors evaluated are the role of the individual and the status of the subject, which they argue has influenced the development of tourism at an undergraduate level in the United Kingdoms’ higher education system. This analysis is done against the backdrop of system-wide influences at national, institutional and department level. The second issue considered relates to tourism’s status as an academic or vocational subject and the existence of a ‘twofaced’ curriculum.⁵⁰

Anna Addison and Semisi Taumoepeau, in their 2016 article “Tourism’s place in the school curriculum: A case study from Tonga”, point out that tourism is not accessible to secondary school students in this country. It argues that, if it was possible to include tourism studies in the curriculum, this could potentially stimulate interest for students in this industry, in a Pacific Island that is heavily dependent on tourism. The article compares the curriculum that its New Zealand and Australian counterparts offer for secondary school tourism students and highlights the potential contribution that this can make.⁵¹

In contrast, in her 2018 article “Hospitality and tourism as a subject in secondary schools: A worthwhile choice or a ‘dumping ground’?”, Helen Andreassen points to the importance of tourism in New Zealand indicating that it directly employs 8.4 percent of the workforce and indirectly 6.1 percent. Based on this, she states that one would expect that a potential career in the industry would be something for a young person to aspire to. However, she believes that does not seem to be the case in New Zealand as recent research indicates

⁴⁹ J. Bird., Van De Mortel, T., Holt, J & Walo, M. ‘Academics’ perceptions of continuous and collaborative curriculum review’, *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management* 24, 2015, pp. 18-24.

⁵⁰ M. Stuart, ‘Critical Influences on Tourism as a Subject in UK Higher Education: Lecturer Perspectives’, *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education* 1 (1), 2002, pp. 1 – 18.

⁵¹ A. Addison and S. Taumoepeau, ‘Tourism’s place in the school curriculum: A case study from Tonga’, *Open Journal of International Education* 1 (2), 2016, p. 4.

that the poor perception of careers in hospitality and tourism stems from the delivery of hospitality and tourism education in New Zealand secondary schools.⁵² This is in stark contrast to the argument made by Addison and Taumoepeau.

In his 2002 article “Curriculum Planning for Tourism Education” which focuses on Jordan, Chris Cooper says that the relative youth of the tourism subject area renders the educator’s task of developing a curriculum difficult in comparison to more established fields. This article draws together the main threads of educational theory and applies them to tourism with additional insights from the development of a university-level curriculum for Jordan.⁵³

The article entitled “Tourism education and curriculum design: A time for consolidation and review?” by Paul R. Fidgeon written in 2010 seeks to examine the growth and development of tourism education within the United Kingdom, with a specific focus on the situation in England and Wales. He notes that this subject has received scant attention, besides a number of seminal papers produced in the mid to late 1990’s and early twentieth century. This article seeks to examine what programmes want to achieve in terms of knowledge, skills development and preparing students to meet the labour needs of the tourism industry. It also reflects on where tourism education is going in terms of courses, course philosophy, levels of study, subject content, teaching and learning strategies.⁵⁴

The key focus in most of the international literature is the tourism curriculum in Higher Education, its effectiveness and the perceptions of the subject as well as what should be taught. Relatively little attention is paid to tourism in schools, other than using tourism to broaden students’ minds to a career and study opportunities in tertiary education.

⁵² H. Andreassen, ‘Hospitality and tourism as a subject in secondary schools: A worthwhile choice or a ‘dumping ground’?’, *Hospitality Insights* 2 (1), 2018, p.1.

⁵³ C. Cooper, ‘Curriculum Planning for Tourism Education’, *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism* 2 (1), 2002, p. 19.

⁵⁴ P.R. Fidgeon, ‘Tourism education and curriculum design: A time for consolidation and review?’, *Tourism Management* 31, 2010, pp. 699 – 723.

National

On a national level, the focus of the research is generally on curriculum development in South Africa analysing past and current curriculums. There are studies on curriculum development pre-1994, post-1994 as well as on the various schooling systems including Outcomes Based Education (OBE), National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and curriculum 2005.

In an article by J. Jansen published in 1990, “Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical reflections on Black South African Education”, Black educational history in South Africa is described in terms of five major historical periods: Traditional African education; Slave education; Mission education; “Native education”; “Bantu Education”.⁵⁵ In addition, he makes the point that, unlike what is often indicated, education existed in South Africa long before the arrival of the Dutch colonist in 1652.⁵⁶

In a master’s dissertation of 1996 by Mapula Rosina Legodi titled “Issues and trends in shaping black perspectives on education in South Africa. A historical-educational survey and appraisal”, she provides a timeline of South African formal education dating back to 1652. She also provides insight into the type of teaching taking place, by who and for what purpose, which provides solid insight into the trends in black education in South Africa.⁵⁷ “The schooling of black South Africans and the 1980 Cape Town students’ boycott: A sociological interpretation”, is a master’s dissertation by Donald Frank Malteno, which is centred around a similar theme as Mapula. However, his focus is less generalised and rather focuses specifically on black South African education in Cape Town, which according to most studies is where formal education was first introduced to black South Africans.⁵⁸

⁵⁵ S.V. Walker, ‘The Segregated Schooling of Blacks in the Southern United States and South Africa’, *Comparative Education Review* 47 (1), 2003, pp. 21 – 40.

⁵⁶ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education’, *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195 - 206.

⁵⁷ M.R. Legodi, Issues and trends in shaping black perspectives on education in South Africa. A historical educational survey and appraisal, Masters’ thesis. University of South Africa, 1996.

⁵⁸ D.F. Molteno. The schooling of black South Africans and the 1980 Cape Town students’ boycott: A sociological interpretation, Masters’ thesis, University of Cape Town, 1983.

“Study of religion in Southern Africa: essays in honour of G.C. Oosthuizen” edited by Johannes Smit and Pratap Kumar and published in 2005, focuses on one of the main motives for the introduction of education in South Africa, and that is religion. In the earlier periods, the only kind of formal education available to Africans was that of Religious Instruction (RI), which was used to both convert and dominate communities. As is the case with most colonised countries, religion and education go hand in hand in the earlier shaping of the educational landscape.⁵⁹ This statement remains true, as is evident in the 1999 publication by Marsin Prinsloo “Literacy in South Africa”. Here one of the subheadings in her article is ‘Colonial literacy - the bible and the gun’. She traces the beginning of literacy in South Africa and also discusses how it was bound up with colonial quests and missionary work.⁶⁰ It is the general consensus that formal education was brought to South Africa by missionaries, although as Ernest Dube indicates in his article published in 1985, “The Relationship between Racism and Education in South Africa”, there are some that believe it started earlier than Religious Instruction (RI). In this article Dube also traces the relationship between racism and education and laments about the intended and unintended consequences of “Bantu Education”, whilst giving a timeline of the beginning of missionary education in South Africa.⁶¹

The 1991 article, “Who owns the schools will own Africa: Christian mission, education and culture in Africa” by Willem Saayman, emphasizes the importance of the role played by missionary schools in Africa. As with Dube, Saayman also agrees that the beginning of formal schooling started with missionaries. He maintains that churches and missionaries held their power over schooling in Africa well into the twentieth century, and even when the Nationalist Party took over schooling in 1953, missionaries were still the “backbone of African education”.⁶²

⁵⁹ J.A. Smit & P.P. Kumar, *The study of religion in Southern Africa: essays in honour of G.C. Oosthuizen*, 2005, pp. 1-9.

⁶⁰ M. Prinsloo, *Literacy in South Africa*, 1999, pp. 5-6.

⁶¹ E. Dube, ‘The Relationship between Racism and Education in South Africa’, *Harvard Educational Review* 55 (1), 1985, p. 86-99.

⁶² W. Saayman, ‘Who owns the schools will own Africa’: Christian mission, education and culture in Africa’, *Journal for the Study of Religion* 4 (2), 1991, pp. 29-44.

Sue Krige, in her article “Segregation, science and commissions of enquiry: the contestation over native education policy in South Africa, 1930–36”, reviews the commission of inquiries that took place during 1930 to 1936 regarding African education. She also reviews the struggle over the control of education by missionaries and others. In particular she focuses on Charles. T. Loram who laid down some of the groundwork for the “Bantu Education” curriculum through a lower standard of education for the African, as a result of his push for an extended primary education, limited secondary education and a more practical biased curriculum.⁶³ A number of articles on the earlier curriculum of black South African education mention or focus on Charles. T Loram, as for a relatively extended period of time he was a key figure, and although he lost his influence in shaping the education of Africans, his ideals and views did not. In articles such as the one by Charles T. Loram himself, “The education of the South African native” published in 1917,⁶⁴ as well as the 1976 article by R. Hunt Davis Jr , “Charles T. Loram and an American model for African education in South Africa 1976”⁶⁵ his views regarding similarities between America and South Africa and creating a similar education are expressed.

“Bantu Education: Apartheid Ideology or Labour Reproduction?” published in 1982 by Pam Christie and Colin Collins discuss the significance of 1948, the year the Nationalist Government of Dr D.F. Malan came into power. One of the keystones of this political parties’ policies was that of Apartheid, or the enforced segregation of the white and black South Africans into different areas. They discuss what political events unfolded, as well as the Eiselen Commission of 1951, and what those findings meant for black education and how this led to the next step which was the creation of “Bantu Education”.⁶⁶

⁶³ S. Krige, ‘Segregation, science and commissions of enquiry: the contestation over native education policy in South Africa, 1930–36’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 23 (3), 1997, pp. 491-506.

⁶⁴ C.T. Loram, ‘The education of the South African native’, 1917, pp. 1-73.

⁶⁵ R.H. Davis, ‘Charles t. Loram and an American Model for African Education in South Africa’, *African Studies Review* 19 (2), 1976, pp. 87-99.

⁶⁶ P. Christie & C. Collins, ‘Bantu Education: Apartheid Ideology or Labour Reproduction?’, *Comparative Education* 18 (1), 1982, pp. 59-75.

In his 1966 doctoral dissertation, “The development of attitudes leading to the Nationalist Apartheid philosophy of Bantu education in the Republic of South Africa”, Robert Jones argues that the “Bantu Education” policy can only be understood in light of the general racial policy of Apartheid. This he contends was a policy that lies at the heart of the Afrikaner’s effort of self-preservation against, at the time, its two biggest challenges: “the British/English speaking white people and the bantu”.⁶⁷ He attempts to provide a more objective understanding of the crises in South Africa and how education was being used to further that agenda.⁶⁸

In the article “Education: Keystone of Apartheid” written in 1982 by Walton R. Johnson, the relationship of education to the system of Apartheid in South Africa is analysed. The article explores the manner in which education is being manipulated to maintain a system of social stratification based upon race, ethnic background and language. It also provides a historical overview of the development of European and African education as it relates to patterns of social stratification.⁶⁹

In his 2019 article, “Institutionalising racial segregation in the South African school: The School Board Act, 1905”, Crain Soudien emphasizes the role of the School Board Act (SBA) of 1905 of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope as playing a key role in the conceptualization and genesis of what was to become “Bantu Education”. He argues that the SBA contains one of the first moves in South Africa’s constitution with respect to classification, ranking, and ordering in the country’s long history of race-making. The Act was based on the fact that coloured and white people received the same education during that period and there was a mixing of the races. At the time it looked as if coloured people were benefitting more from the education system, and so the Act was premised on the ideal that white people needed a more superior kind of education than the other races and also as mixing with the other races was now deemed undesirable for the “superior

⁶⁷ R.C. Jones, ‘The development of attitudes leading to the Nationalist apartheid philosophy of Bantu education in the Republic of South Africa’, Doctoral thesis, The University of Oklahoma, 1966.

⁶⁸ R.C. Jones, ‘The development of attitudes leading to the Nationalist apartheid philosophy of Bantu education in the Republic of South Africa’, Doctoral thesis, The University of Oklahoma, 1966.

⁶⁹ W.R. Johnson, ‘Education: Keystone of Apartheid’, *Anthropology & Education Quarterly* (3), 1982, pp. 1 – 24.

white race”.⁷⁰ This was done gradually with the following steps: a higher grant for the white race, thus making education less affordable for other races; promoting that more white people be educated; and differentiating between the type of education according to race. When these interventions did not “work”, the intention was gradually promulgated into becoming an Act.⁷¹

The 2013 article, “History of Apartheid Education and the Problems of Reconstruction in South Africa” by Tsoaledi Daniel Thobejane outlines the rationale of “Bantu Education” that was available to South African blacks from 1953 to 1992. He is of the opinion that challenges of constructing a new education system in post-Apartheid South Africa cannot be fully grasped without a proper understanding of the pervasive impact of “Bantu Education” on the majority for a period of almost 60 years. He also discusses the educational vision and goals of the important organizations in the liberation movement, such as the African National Congress (ANC), the Azanian People’s Organization (AZAPO), and the Pan Africanist Congress (PAC) that continue to shape educational debates in the present educational reform context.⁷²

The 2012 article “Apartheid education legacies and new directions in post-Apartheid South Africa” by Linda Chisholm is also concerned with the legacies of Apartheid education bequeathed to a democratic government. She argues that these were immense, spanning everything from inequality across all spheres to the persistence of racism (and sexism) despite a negotiated solution, as well as national reconciliation policies. The article contends that these legacies were addressed immediately and decisively in the post-1994 period, but changes were conditioned on the one hand by the nature of the new state and on the other by the economic circumstances within which it found itself. She points out that the new state was a fragile one, forging new policies for a non-racial and democratic future within at first an adverse economic climate, and then

⁷⁰ C. Soudien, ‘Institutionalising racial segregation in the South African school: The School Board Act, 1905’, *Paedagogica Historica* 55 (1), pp. 21-37.

⁷¹ C. Soudien, ‘Institutionalising racial segregation in the South African school: The School Board Act, 1905’, *Paedagogica Historica* 55 (1), pp. 21-37.

⁷² T.D. Thobejane, ‘History of Apartheid Education and the Problems of Reconstruction in South Africa’, *Sociology Study* 3 (1), 2013, pp. 1 – 12.

a modestly improving one. While race continued to operate as a “leitmotif” in all institutions, by law all institutions were deracialised, and racism declared illegal.⁷³

Chisholm concedes that significant strides were made in the representation of women, the achievement of parity in salaries for teachers and establishment of bargaining chambers where gender matters could be brought into focus. These new dynamics she contends reshaped old and new social classes, but at the same time there were certain limitations. In the first phase, all policy development was marked by fiscal constraint and so instead of free public education, the state introduced equal, state-aided schooling with fees. Instead of expanding teacher education, the state closed some colleges and absorbed others into universities. She argues that rather than supporting a process of incremental curriculum change with more and better resources equally spread, radical curriculum change was rushed and assumed the existence of resources that did not exist. An entirely new framework for skills training was set in place, and higher education was reshaped in a manner that saw dramatic shifts in the nature of the institutions.⁷⁴

In another study considering the post-Apartheid educational landscape, “Political change, curriculum change and social formation, 1990 to 2002” by Ken Harley and Volker Wedekind, the issue of the government that was installed in 1994 inheriting a complex education system with eighteen education departments catering for the different provinces, homelands and population groups is addressed. They point out that the adoption of a new constitution in South Africa, reconstituted the educational landscape bringing together the different teachers and their different classroom practices under one administrative body in each province. They outline what happened during the curriculum reform process and highlight problems that resulted.⁷⁵

Pam Christie’s 2006 article “Changing regimes: Governmentality and education policy in post-Apartheid South Africa” applies Foucault’s notion of governmentality to educational

⁷³ L. Chisholm, ‘Apartheid education legacies and new directions in post-apartheid South Africa’, *Storia delle donne* 8, 2012, pp. 81 – 103.

⁷⁴ L. Chisholm, ‘Apartheid education legacies and new directions in post-apartheid South Africa’, *Storia delle donne* 8, 2012, pp. 81 – 103.

⁷⁵ K. Harley & V. Wedekind, N.d. Changing Class: Education and social change in post-Apartheid South Africa, <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/234116457>. access: March 2019.

restructuring in post-Apartheid South Africa.⁷⁶ It argues that the nature of government in a modern state entails engaging with particular practices and domains of knowledge, which themselves constrain the changes that are conceivable and credible. Using Foucault's concepts of "conduct of conduct",⁷⁷ regimes of practices and "saviours",⁷⁸ the article outlines the approach adopted by the new government in relation to establishing constitutional ground rules and managing the economy.⁷⁹

In the 2013 article "An overview of education policy change in post-Apartheid South Africa" by Yusuf Sayed and Anil Kanjee, they also review the policy changes in the South African school system since 1994. The policies reviewed include legislatively authorised policies such as green and white papers, bills and acts, and procedural policies encompassing regulations and notices, which provide policy implementation details and clarify or amend particular aspects of an existing policy. They not only consider South Africa's educational policy post-Apartheid by looking at the reasoning of what changes would be made to distance the system from Apartheid, but also consider the number of policy changes that took place during that period. It appears to them as if this just created much more confusion and red tape as can be seen during the period 1994-2007 that saw 7 white papers, 3 green papers, 26 bills (of which 17 are amended bills), 35 acts (of which 22 are amended from existing laws), 11 regulations, 52 government notices and 26 calls for comment which covered the whole education sector from basic to higher education.⁸⁰ This is a common theme in the assessment of post-Apartheid education and a number of authors have touched on different aspects of this theme.

Everard Weber is one of these authors and in his 2002 article "Shifting to the right: The evolution of equity in the South African government's developmental and education policies, 1990–1999" he also analyses the development and education policy documents

⁷⁶ P. Christie, 'Changing regimes: Governmentality and education policy in post-apartheid South Africa', *International Journal of Educational Development* 26, 2006, pp. 373 – 381.

⁷⁷ P. Christie, 'Changing regimes: Governmentality and education policy in post-apartheid South Africa', *International Journal of Educational Development* 26, 2006, pp. 373 – 381.

⁷⁸ P. Christie, 'Changing regimes: Governmentality and education policy in post-apartheid South Africa', *International Journal of Educational Development* 26, 2006, pp. 373 – 381.

⁷⁹ P. Christie, 'Changing regimes: Governmentality and education policy in post-apartheid South Africa', *International Journal of Educational Development* 26, 2006, pp. 373 – 381.

⁸⁰ Y. Sayed & A. Kanjee, 'An overview of education policy change in post-apartheid South Africa', 2013, p. 1.

of South Africa, while concentrating on governmental goals contained in the documents. The main focus is on the earlier ideals of social equity and how they are applied in the post-Apartheid South Africa.⁸¹

In the earlier 1986 article “A Historical Review of Education in South Africa: Towards an Assessment” Michael Cross follows a similar path as a few authors with his take on the educational review by looking at its development through history. He evaluates the most significant moments of recent educational historiography, with special emphasis on what has been written about the schooling of black South Africans.⁸²

The aim of the 2014 article, “Weaknesses of South African education in the mirror image of international educational development” by C.C Wolhuter, is to present a systematic, holistic evaluation of the South African education system, using international benchmarks as the yardstick. A theoretical model for the evaluation of a national education project is constructed consisting of three dimensions, namely: a quantitative dimension; a qualitative dimension; and an equality dimension. International databases and the existing international taxonomies of national education systems are then used to evaluate the South African education system, along the three dimensions of the model.⁸³

In the 2007 article “The “A” factor: Coming to terms with the question of legacy in South African education” Crain Soudien attempts to offer an alternative framework for assessing education delivery in South Africa. The purpose is to develop an analytic approach for understanding education delivery in South Africa in the period 1996-2007 and to use this framework to pose a set of strategic questions about how policy might be framed to deal with delivery. The article begins with a quick review of the country’s achievements and challenges in education in post-Apartheid and shows that a failure to produce a high-quality education system remains the country’s primary challenge.⁸⁴

⁸¹ E. Weber, ‘Shifting to the Right: The Evolution of Equity in the South African Government’s Developmental and Education Policies, 1990–1999’, *Comparative Education Review* 46 (3), 2002, pp. 261-290.

⁸² M. Cross, ‘A Historical Review of Education in South Africa: Towards an Assessment’, *Comparative Education* 22 (3), 1986, pp. 185-200.

⁸³ C.C. Wolhuter, ‘Weaknesses of South African education in the mirror image of international educational development’, *South African Journal of Education* 34 (2), 2014, pp. 1- 25.

⁸⁴ C. Soudien, ‘The “A” factor: Coming to terms with the question of legacy in South African education’, *International Journal of Educational Development* 27, 2007, pp. 182 – 193.

According to the 2014 article titled “Post-1994 South African Education: The Challenge of Social Justice” by Saleem Badat and Yusuf Sayed the formal end of Apartheid was greeted with optimism and expectations. A new Government of National Unity with Nelson Mandela at its head signalled a “new just and democratic social order”, including social justice in and through education.⁸⁵ However, they argue that twenty years later, with formally desegregated yet class-based educational institutions, there were continuing disparities and inequities, and poor academic achievement are key features of the contemporary educational order. This article considers how far South Africa has come since 1994 in realizing laudable constitutional and policy goals, especially equity, quality, and social justice in education.⁸⁶

The article “A Historical Analysis of The Post-Apartheid Dispensation Education in South Africa (1994-2011)” by N. Mouton, G.P. Louw and G.L. Strydom, considers the master plan created for post-Apartheid South Africa, that is Curriculum 2005. This was launched in March 1997, whilst only being implemented in Grade 1 scheduled for 1998 and Grade 7 in 1999.⁸⁷ It was thus intended to be phased in progressively so that it would cover all sectors of schooling by 2005. The article also explains why OBE became synonymous with Curriculum 2005.⁸⁸

In a 1998 article by Jonathan D. Jansen entitled “Curriculum Reform in South Africa: a critical analysis of outcomes-based education”,⁸⁹ he analyses and assesses the philosophical, political and implementation dilemmas of OBE. This article points out that since South Africa's first national democratic elections in 1994, the Government of National Unity (GNU) had issued several curriculum-related reforms intended to democratise education and eliminate inequalities in the post-Apartheid education system.

⁸⁵ S. Badat & Y. Sayed, ‘Post-1994 South African Education: The Challenge of Social Justice’, *The Annals of the American Academy* 652, 2014, pp. 127 – 147.

⁸⁶ S. Badat & Y. Sayed, ‘Post-1994 South African Education: The Challenge of Social Justice’, *The Annals of the American Academy* 652, 2014, pp. 127 – 147.

⁸⁷ N. Mouton, G.P. Louw and G.L. Strydom, ‘A Historical Analysis of the Post-Apartheid Dispensation Education in South Africa (1994-2011)’. *International Business & Economics Research Journal* 11 (11), 2012, pp. 1 – 12.

⁸⁸ K. Harley & V. Wedekind. N.d. ‘Political change, curriculum change and social formation, 1990 to 2002’, 2004 <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/234116457>. access: March 2019.

⁸⁹ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum Reform in South Africa: a critical analysis of outcomes-based education’, *Cambridge Journal of Education* 28 (3), 1998, pp. 321 – 331.

Jansen claims that the most comprehensive of these reforms has been labelled OBE, an approach to education which underpins the new Curriculum 2005. He claims that while the anticipated positive effects of the new curriculum have been widely heralded, there has been little criticism of these proposals given the social and educational context of South African schools.⁹⁰

In 2012, the works of the aforementioned author are appraised by Mandivavarira Maodzwa-Taruvinga and Michael Cross in an article entitled: “Jonathan Jansen and the Curriculum Debate in South Africa: An Essay Review of Jansen's Writings between 1999 and 2009”. They review essays that concentrate on Jansen’s critique and perspectives on OBE policy and its implementation in South Africa articulated in his various writings between 1999 and 2009.⁹¹ Jansen was at the forefront of this debate with his seminal thesis “Why OBE would fail” which started a public debate that would attract other South African scholars into what would become one of the most important and captivating debates in the last decade of educational reform in a developing country.⁹²

Still on this contentious topic, “Outcomes-based education and educational reform in South Africa” written in 2002 by R.J. Nico Botha sees OBE as South Africa’s attempt to improve the quality of education in post-Apartheid South Africa and to address the demand for an increasingly skilled working force. He argues that it was created on an assumption that it will lead to an increase in the quality of education received by learners. However, he contends that questions remain regarding whether OBE will improve the quality of education and will transform South African schools.⁹³

The 2012 article “From Policy to Practice: curriculum reform in South African education” by Michael Cross, Ratshi Mungadi and Sepi Rouhani also focuses on the theme of post-Apartheid South Africa’s move to OBE. They, however, focus on the several structural

⁹⁰ J. D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum Reform in South Africa: a critical analysis of outcomes-based education’, *Cambridge Journal of Education* 28 (3), 1998, pp. 321 – 331.

⁹¹ M. Maodzwa-Taruvinga & M. Cross, ‘Jonathan Jansen and the Curriculum Debate in South Africa: An Essay Review of Jansen's Writings between 1999 and 2009’, *Curriculum Inquiry* 42 (1), 2012, pp. 126-152.

⁹² M. Maodzwa-Taruvinga & M. Cross, ‘Jonathan Jansen and the Curriculum Debate in South Africa: An Essay Review of Jansen's Writings between 1999 and 2009’, *Curriculum Inquiry* 42 (1), 2012, pp. 126-152.

⁹³ R.J. Botha, ‘Outcomes-based education and educational reform in South Africa’, *International Journal of Leadership in Education* 5 (4), 2002, p. 361.

and policy tensions that have played themselves out and how government and stakeholders have addressed the challenges emanating from them. They also argue that the grand pursuit of philosophies and ideals such as OBE and curriculum 2005 require details and support that cannot be achieved overnight given the legacy of the country's education system.⁹⁴

Another OBE focused article is the 2008 “Critical thinking: are the ideals of OBE failing us or are we failing the ideals of OBE?” by Kobus Lombard and Mary Grosser. One of the cornerstones of the Outcomes-based approach adopted by the South African education and training sector is the so-called Critical Outcomes. They indicate that included as one of these outcomes is the ability of learners to identify and solve problems, using creative and critical thinking. In this study they review first year education students' results in the Watson Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (WGCTA), in order to assess the critical thinking of students supposed to have been learned during their high school careers through OBE.⁹⁵

Vuyisile Msila's article “From Apartheid Education to the Revised National Curriculum Statement: Pedagogy for Identity Formation and Nation Building in South Africa”⁹⁶ also focuses on the formulation of OBE which involved cooperation among various stakeholders. It introduced new learning styles implying change from passive, rote learning to creative learning and problem solving through active participation in the learning process. The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) provided the structure for the new curriculum in South Africa.⁹⁷ The NQF was intended to prevent learners from being trapped in any one learning area by facilitating movement between different areas and levels of education and training.⁹⁸ In this article Msila also refers to critique of

⁹⁴ M. Cross., R. Mungadi & S. Rouhani, 'From Policy to Practice: curriculum reform in South African education', *Comparative Education* 38 (2), 2002, p. 171.

⁹⁵ K. Lombard & M. Grosser, 'Critical thinking: are the ideals of OBE failing us or are we failing the ideals of OBE?', *South African Journal of Education* 28, 2008, pp. 561 -579.

⁹⁶ V. Msila, 'From Apartheid Education to the Revised National Curriculum Statement: Pedagogy for Identity Formation and Nation Building in South Africa', *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 16 (2), 2007, pp. 146 – 160.

⁹⁷ R. LUGG, *Making different equal? Rifts and rupture in state and policy: The National Qualifications Framework in South Africa*, 2009, pp. 44.

⁹⁸ V. Msila, 'From Apartheid Education to the Revised National Curriculum Statement: Pedagogy for Identity Formation and Nation Building in South Africa', *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 16 (2), 2007, pp. 146 – 160.

Curriculum 2005 indicating that it was simply too complicated, too hard to implement and too radically different from the previous curriculum.⁹⁹

As indicated, a number of articles were written on this issue including another one in 2007 by Linda Chisholm “Diffusion of the National Qualifications Framework and outcomes-based education in southern and eastern Africa”.¹⁰⁰ This article explores policy and curriculum diffusion in southern and eastern Africa through an examination of the NQF and OBE. The article argues that the NQF was adopted for different reasons in different contexts, but that discourse coalitions and conferences have been critical in spreading these ideas in a new regional political and economic context. It shows how South Africans have tried to export the idea at the very moment when evidence is revealing little relationship between policy intention and outcome, it is contested at home, and there is a retreat from it in some sectors of education.¹⁰¹

Linda Chisholm and Ramon Leyendecker in their 2008 article “Curriculum reform in post-1990s sub-Saharan Africa” examined why learner-centeredness outcomes and competency based education and national qualifications frameworks were received well at local level in sub-Saharan Africa, but had not resulted in the widespread change in classroom practice that was expected. Its failure, they suggest, could lie in the fact that the expectation was that implementation would lead to transformation without necessarily paying much attention to the implementation and capacity needed.¹⁰²

In a 2003 paper also presented by Linda Chisholm “The Politics of Curriculum Review and Revision in South Africa”, she indicates that the review of Curriculum 2005 was extremely controversial within the ANC, who were the ruling party that put it into place. This she claims created division over the direction, and who would give direction, since most of the people involved in its creation were ANC-linked. The key players were the

⁹⁹ V. Msila, ‘From Apartheid Education to the Revised National Curriculum Statement: Pedagogy for Identity Formation and Nation Building in South Africa’, *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 16 (2), 2007, pp. 146 – 160.

¹⁰⁰ L. Chisholm, ‘Diffusion of the National Qualifications Framework and Outcomes-Based Education in Southern and Eastern Africa’, *Comparative Education* 43 (2), 2007, pp. 295 – 309.

¹⁰¹ L. Chisholm, ‘Diffusion of the National Qualifications Framework and Outcomes-Based Education in Southern and Eastern Africa’, *Comparative Education* 43 (2), 2007, pp. 295 – 309.

¹⁰² L. Chisholm & R. Leyendecker, ‘Curriculum reform in post-1990s sub-Saharan Africa’, *International Journal of Educational Development* 28, 2008, p.195.

Minister of Education, the South African Democratic Teachers Union, Departments of Education and cabinet. She explains that the main issue with the review was the outcomes-based education, its nature, manifestation in Curriculum 2005 and whether it needed to be revised or not.¹⁰³ The new Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, had called for the review, but the difference between the previous review and this review is that it was not representative of constituencies. It did not include the teacher unions as unions, although there were several people on the Review Committee who were themselves members.¹⁰⁴ Chisholm points out that the relative independence of the Review Committee members from the ANC and teachers union meant that the Report of the Review Committee was also independent from the dominant views and approaches, including that of the bureaucracy, that could impact on it. She believes that the calling of the Review and report publication created a major crisis within the ANC, key constituency and the teacher's union. Chisholm concludes that the Minister presented the proposed revisions necessary in light of the existing inequalities and the realities of under-resourced schools which had large classes and largely untrained teachers in learner-centred education, making their own curricula. However, teacher unions and many departmental bureaucrats who created, identified and implemented the curriculum, were hostile to it although there was a lot of public support for the new Minister.¹⁰⁵

In a 2005 article "The making of South Africa's National Curriculum Statement" the social construction of the Revised National Curriculum Statement (Grades R–9) in South Africa between 2000-2002, is explored. The author, Chisholm, who was a participant in the process, uses the experience of the insider to tell the story. The article discusses the relationship of different lobbies, voices, and interests to the curriculum, and argues that a neat translation between interests and curriculum outcomes is not possible, but that the echoes of struggles, which take both a material and symbolic form, are evident within the final version. The article describes the influences of a vocational lobby, environmental

¹⁰³ L. Chisholm, 'The Politics of Curriculum Review and Revision in South Africa'. Paper Presented at the 'Oxford' International Conference on Education and Development, 2003, pp. 1 – 14.

¹⁰⁴ L. Chisholm, 'The Politics of Curriculum Review and Revision in South Africa'. Paper Presented at the 'Oxford' International Conference on Education and Development, 2003, pp. 1 – 14.

¹⁰⁵ L. Chisholm, 'The Politics of Curriculum Review and Revision in South Africa'. Paper Presented at the 'Oxford' International Conference on Education and Development, 2003, pp. 1 – 14.

and history interest groups, university-based intellectuals and non-governmental organizations, teachers' unions, and the Christian Right. It contends that there was no neat alignment of interests: they were sometimes “internally fractured and alliances were unstable over time”.¹⁰⁶

The article “A roadblock to social justice? An analysis and critique of the South African education Roadmap” by Leon Tikly published in 2011 provides an analysis and critique of contemporary debates concerning the quality of education in South Africa from a social justice perspective. In particular, the article focuses on the “Education Road map” which had gained support from a range of stakeholders in South Africa including key members of the newly elected government.¹⁰⁷ The “Education Road map” is considered in relation to dominant approaches to understanding education quality within the education literature, namely the human capital and human rights-based approaches. It is argued that the “Road maps”¹⁰⁸ has characteristics of both approaches, although it is particularly influenced by the former. The article sets out an alternative approach based on a social justice principle that, whilst developing and extending aspects of dominant approaches, it is considered pertinent because it articulates with historical struggles around education in South Africa. It is suggested that although the “Road map” demonstrates limited characteristics of a social justice approach, it falls short in other key aspects and it is these aspects that must form the basis for ongoing struggles for a more equitable education system.¹⁰⁹

In 2015 Zongyi Deng's article “Michael Young, knowledge and curriculum: an international dialogue” discusses curriculum theory with regards to what knowledge is of most worth, what schools should teach, and how knowledge is selected, organized and transformed into the content of the curriculum. He states that the relative absence of attention to knowledge or content, has something to do with a remarkable rise of learning discourse,

¹⁰⁶ L. Chisholm, ‘The making of South Africa's National Curriculum’, *Journal of Curriculum Studies* 37 (2), 2005, pp. 193–208.

¹⁰⁷ L. Tikly, ‘A roadblock to social justice? An analysis and critique of the South African education Roadmap’, *International Journal of Educational Development* 31, 2011, pp. 86 – 94.

¹⁰⁸ L. Tikly, ‘A roadblock to social justice? An analysis and critique of the South African education Roadmap’, *International Journal of Educational Development* 31, 2011, pp. 86 – 94.

¹⁰⁹ L. Tikly, ‘A roadblock to social justice? An analysis and critique of the South African education Roadmap’, *International Journal of Educational Development* 31, 2011, pp. 86 – 94.

with the argument that contemporary curriculum theory is in “crises”¹¹⁰ due to neglect of knowledge taught and learned in school. As a result, he concludes that curriculum theorists are left on the side-lines of an important debate on what knowledge is important for students to acquire in school.¹¹¹

In post-colonial Africa, curriculum reconstruction has emerged as perhaps the most politically contested aspect of educational change as well as an accumulating legacy of failure on the other. In this 1989 article “Curriculum Reconstruction in Post-Colonial Africa: A Review of the Literature” by Jansen he reviews curriculum change in Africa over the past 25 years. He provides a comprehensive bibliography on curriculum change, identifies major trends in curriculums, reviews salient themes, examines alternative explanations for curriculum failure and draws some critical implications.¹¹² This rich and detailed research across the spectrum of South African education reveals a deeply complex and essentially unresolved system.

Tourism in Education

There is, however, fairly little written on tourism curriculum development in high schools, with the focus rather being on the higher education tourism curriculum. The limited but relevant and focused literature available on tourism in high school is discussed below.

At a local level the 2010 article entitled “Curriculum responsiveness in Tourism programmes” by Sean N. Jugmohan discusses the growing demand for professionally educated and trained staff in the tourism sector. However, current literature reveals that there is a significant disparity between the tourism education provided by institutions and the skills required by the industry. The article examines the education, skills and training required of tourism employees and whether the provisions of higher education courses are adequately meeting industry needs, based in KwaZulu-Natal South Africa.¹¹³

¹¹⁰ Z. Deng, ‘Michael Young, knowledge and curriculum: an international dialogue’, *Journal of Curriculum Studies* 47 (6), 2015, pp. 723-732.

¹¹¹ Z. Deng, ‘Michael Young, knowledge and curriculum: an international dialogue’, *Journal of Curriculum Studies* 47 (6), 2015, pp. 723-732.

¹¹² J. Jansen, ‘Curriculum Reconstruction in Post-Colonial Africa: A Review of The Literature’, *International Journal of Educational Development* 9 (3), 1989, pp. 219 – 220.

¹¹³ S. Jugmohan, ‘Curriculum responsiveness in tourism programmes’, *The Journal of Independent Teaching and Learning* 5, 2010, pp. 34 – 35.

In a study entitled “Tourism Education: Factors Affecting Effective Teaching and Learning of Tourism in Township Schools” by Nsizwazikhona Chili in 2013, he explores the factors hampering and hindering the effective teaching and learning of tourism. The variables scrutinized are: students; perceptions and teachers’ competence and commitment; and principals’ experiences of teachers regarding their willingness and effectiveness of teaching methods. The focus of the study is less on tourism, but more on the effectiveness of teachers and principals teaching methods within the context of available resources to enable the successful teaching of a subject such as tourism.¹¹⁴

Another article also written by Nsizwazikhona Chili in 2014 titled “The Ecology of Teaching: Efficiency, Efficacy and Effectiveness of Teaching and Learning of Tourism in Township High Schools” explores the underpinnings that drive the efficiency, efficacy and effectiveness in teaching and learning of tourism in a selection of a few township high schools. The article argues that good principles, personality and their professionalism assist and encourage teachers to produce desired results. The findings suggest that when principals and teachers work well together it increases the benefits and results for learners of tourism teaching in schools.¹¹⁵

Much of the literature on the post-Apartheid government of South Africa has been on various attempts made to achieve fundamental transformation of the education system. The aim of the article “Conceptions and Misconceptions of Tourism as a Subject in the South African School Curriculum” by Zanele H.W. Dube published in 2014, is to explore how tourism as a new subject has been received in schools. It critically investigates conceptions and misconceptions about tourism as a subject newly introduced in the school curriculum. The empirical work took the form of a case study of secondary (FET phase) schools that had included tourism in their curricular offering. Data was collected through interviews. The findings indicate that most of the participants view tourism as a subject worth including in the school’s curricular offering, believing that it exposes learners to a variety of career opportunities they were not exposed to in the past. At the

¹¹⁴ N. Chili, ‘Tourism Education: Factors Affecting Effective Teaching and Learning of Tourism in Township Schools’, *Journal of Human Ecology* 41 (1), 2013, pp. 33 – 43.

¹¹⁵ N.S. Chili, ‘The Ecology of Teaching: Efficiency, Efficacy and Effectiveness of Teaching and Learning of Tourism in Township High Schools’, *Journal of Human Ecology* 48 (2), 2014, p. 299 - 312.

same time, however, they all see tourism as having a “low status”¹¹⁶ within the curriculum as it is not regarded as an academic subject leading to university entrance. This Dube believes places its existence at a crossroads as it is simultaneously regarded as important from the practical standpoint, but unimportant from the academic one.¹¹⁷

In a paper titled “The Role of ICT in Tourism Education: A Case Study of South African Secondary Schools” by Asta Adukaite, Izak van Zyl and Lorenzo Cantoni tourism is seen globally as a major economic driver. According to them it is portrayed as a factor that develops countries, and they believe that emerging countries are integrating it within the regular school curriculum to foster social understanding and recognition of it, as well as to invite youth to consider employment opportunities in the industry. The paper looks at the case of tourism as a subject for grade 10-12 in South Africa. It also discusses how Information and Communication Technology (ICT) assists tourism teaching practices. As is the case throughout South Africa due to its history, the effectiveness of ICT integration in tourism teaching is not good due to inequalities in financing and infrastructure of the schools which vary from well-resourced to little or no resources, thus not making a big enough impact as intended. The authors listed these major obstacles as: availability of technical resources; lack of training confidence on the side of teachers; limited availability labs space and time; as well as resistance on the side of learners to use their mobile phones, both for economic reasons (cost of data transfer); as well as lack of skills.¹¹⁸

A 2015 masters’ dissertation by Joy Petersen titled “The development of tourism as a young school subject: A comparative curriculum analysis” is a study of three different curricula with the aim of tracking key elements in the development of South African tourism curriculum. Using Bernstein’s theory of the reproduction of pedagogical discourse, the study elucidates the “what and how” of the intended and assessed tourism curriculum. In her conclusion, Petersen highlights the difficulty of curriculum design of a young subject such as tourism that has been developed from a fragmented canon and

¹¹⁷ Z. H. W, Dube, ‘Conceptions and Misconceptions of Tourism as a Subject in the South African School Curriculum’, *Alternation* 21 (1), 2014, pp. 153-170.

¹¹⁸ A. Adukaite., I. Van Zyl & L. Cantoni, ‘The Role of ICT in Tourism Education: A Case Study of South African Secondary Schools’, paper presented at UNESCO Chair in ICT to develop and promote sustainable tourism in World Heritage Sites Lugano Switzerland, 2016.

describes where the South African tourism curriculum currently finds itself.¹¹⁹ This dissertation also provides insight for the topic to be explored in this masters' study. Her insights are however from an educator's perspective with her main focus on educational curriculum design in South Africa. This provides valuable knowledge on the topic of tourism curriculum in South Africa. In contrast, this masters' study will focus more on the tourism sector, looking into the curriculum design of the subject tourism and its place in the broader South African educational curriculum.

¹¹⁹ J. Petersen, 'The development of tourism as a young school subject: A comparative curriculum analysis', Masters' thesis, University of Cape Town, 2015.

Chapter 3:

History of Education in South Africa Pre- and Post-1994

The South African education system has been marked by a number of different educational periods during both the pre-and post-1994 eras. It has also been a starkly divided system with two major trajectories prior to the establishment of the new democratic South Africa: a black system and a white system. While there is an uneven spread of literature pertaining to each of the identifiable periods, this chapter will present a chronological outline using a slightly adapted version of the work done by Jonathan Jansen. In the article by Jansen mentioned earlier in the literature review, he identified five major periods in black education in South Africa. As indicated, these include: Traditional African education; Slave education; Mission education; “Native education”; and “Bantu Education”.¹²⁰ These periods will be used to outline the historical background of South Africa’s education system. In addition to this division, the more recent development in education needs to be added, one that could be termed “democratic” education. The term “democratic” refers to the current development in education in the new South Africa and the inverted commas denote a questioning of how democratic this education is in terms of access, equality and resources. Besides this outline, attention also needs to be given to the development of the other branch of education – that is the so called “white education system” that was introduced to southern Africa from the seventeenth century and took the form of Dutch colonial; Missionary; Boer and British public schools; Segregation; and Apartheid, followed by the “democratic”.

In considering the historical development of education it is important to note that education, is always about identity formation and historically it has never been a neutral enterprise, but a political one. The legislators or others who formulate education policies always had certain goals in mind which could be political, social or cultural in nature. Moreover, it is also apparent that whenever there is a change of government the first change that will usually take place is a change in the system of education. South Africa’s

¹²⁰ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education’, *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

history of past and present governments is no exception to the rule. Both of these issues will be apparent in the various periods considered in this chapter.

Traditional African education

The history of education in southern Africa dates back to a time where communalism formed the basis of life among the African indigenous communities and was conducted in an informal manner.¹²¹ This form of education was beneficial to the extended family and no formal education was offered, but knowledge was passed on from older community members to the younger members of the family. They learned knowledge through their seniors on the traditions of life. This is known as “Traditional African education” and refers primarily to communities belonging to the San, Khoikhoi and early Bantu-speakers.¹²²

Therefore, saying that education only emerged once southern Africa was colonised is not accurate as education existed long before the region was colonised, although not in a formal Western sense. Oral tradition was the key to this, a system which differed from a European concept of education, but not rendering it an inferior system but simply just different. Traditional African education took place through cultural transmission and was closely integrated with life experience, which assisted young members of the community to thrive and add value.¹²³ Different communities emphasized different values pertaining to their specific societies and the identities that they wished to perpetuate and preserve. A good example of oral tradition passed down can be traced back to the Tsonga-speaking people during the precolonial period. The schools were called ‘ngoma’ (drum – general word for rites) and were held every four or five years and were attended by boys aged 10 to 16. It was an initiation school held in a lodge in a secluded area that was walled or fenced up. Initiates were immediately circumcised when they entered the lodge which represented that “the boy had now crossed....” And symbolised a rite of passage. During

¹²¹ P. Higgs, ‘Towards an indigenous African epistemology of community in education research’, *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* 2, 2010, pp. 2414–2421.

¹²² Z.F. Masango, ‘The power of the school governing body to determine admission policy: An analysis of recent case law’, LLM Child Law. University of Pretoria, 2017.

¹²³ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education’, *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

this period, initiates are taught about perseverance, courage and endurance through various harsh teaching methods which were believed to enable the circumcised boys to be in a better position to be called upon to fight during war. The art of fighting was part of the activities the boys practised, with men experienced in stick fighting giving lessons. The education that was given by the men during the period of seclusion had a strong “nationalistic” flavour and was characterised by tribal loyalty and values. The initiation schools prepared the young boys for one or many of his adult roles, including his military, political, religious, legal, and marital duties, with emphasis varying from society to society. These initiation rites still take place today among various African cultures and in some cases not much has changed in their practices from pre-colonial Africa to the current 2020 Africa.¹²⁴

The emphasis in indigenous education lay in the holistic development of the whole child.¹²⁵ The children of indigenous peoples learned in different ways.¹²⁶ The early years of childhood education was largely in the hands of the biological mother¹²⁷ with the community assuming a greater role as the child approached adolescence. Language was acquired mainly from the mother with children learning about work, hunting, rituals and other cultural traits (trance dancing, herding and the manufacturing of equipment) from older members of their clans, through experience and by completing tasks such as gathering and preparing food.¹²⁸ The primary aim of indigenous education was to prepare and integrate the young into various social roles. Education within local communities during the pre-colonial period also involved the oral histories of the group, with tales of heroism, treachery, and practice in the skills necessary for the survival in a changing environment. Transmission of these testimonies took the form of ballad, songs or chants. The main focus of oral history being to teach children, men and women about morality, religion, philosophy, wisdom, geography, history, politics and the entire spectrum of

¹²⁴ J. Seroto, ‘Indigenous education during the pre-colonial period in southern Africa’, *Indilinga – African journal of indigenous knowledge systems* 10 (1), 2011, pp. 77-84.

¹²⁵ J.P. Miller, *Whole Child Education*, 2010, p. 5.

¹²⁶ K.S. Madjidi & S. ‘Restoule, *Comparative indigenous ways of knowing and learning*’, 2017, pp.155-156.

¹²⁷ J.K. Marah, ‘The Virtues and Challenges in Traditional African Education’, *The Journal of Pan African Studies* 1 (4), 2006, p. 20.

¹²⁸ J. Seroto, ‘Indigenous education during the pre-colonial period in southern Africa’, *Indilinga – African journal of indigenous knowledge systems* 10 (1), 2011, pp. 77-84.

human existence in the various communities.¹²⁹ The education of indigenous people was transmitted in two ways:

1. Informally by parents and elders in society through a socialisation process
2. Formally through initiation rites or apprenticeship/craftsmen

Informal education is defined as the “lifelong process by which every person acquires and accumulates knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposures to the environment”.¹³⁰ Formal education on the other hand can be defined as the “institutionalised chronologically graded and hierarchically structured education system”.¹³¹ This defined mode of education was not available during the pre-colonial period, however this did not necessarily translate into the total absence of provision of education as a lifelong process to and by indigenous people, it just took on a different format.¹³²

Slave education

In the earlier days of “formal” or “Western” education, the only form of education available to the indigenous and African populations in the country during early colonisation was what can be termed Religious Instruction (RI). Reading was taught to enable the reading of the Bible and writing was taught in the absence of a large number of Bibles. Excerpts had to be written and committed to memory. Secondly, there was also a need to learn the “master’s language” in order to facilitate communication between master and slave. There was also a need to learn basic arithmetic to be effective workers. The aim of early colonial slave education was used as a tool to colonise the country, to convert the “heathens” to Christianity, while also an effort to win over the “savages” so there would be little resistance to European domination.¹³³

¹²⁹ J. Seroto, ‘Indigenous education during the pre-colonial period in southern Africa’, *Indilinga – African journal of indigenous knowledge systems* 10 (1), 2011, pp. 77-84.

¹³⁰ J. Seroto, ‘Indigenous education during the pre-colonial period in southern Africa’, *Indilinga – African Journal of Indigenous Knowledge Systems* 10 (1), 2011, pp. 77-84.

¹³¹ B. Spronk, Non-formal education at a distance: a framework for discussion, Pan Commonwealth Forum on Open Learning, Brunei Darussalam, March 1-5 1999.

¹³² J. Seroto, ‘Indigenous education during the pre-colonial period in southern Africa’, *Indilinga – African Journal of Indigenous Knowledge Systems* 10 (1), 2011, pp. 77-84.

¹³³ J.A. Smit & P.P. Kumar, *The study of religion in Southern Africa: essays in honour of G.C. Oosthuizen*, pp. 1-9.

As discussed earlier, education did not start with the arrival of foreign settlers to South Africa but was already taking place in an informal manner.¹³⁴ The efforts by the Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie (VOC) and the subsequent Batavian government would lay the groundwork for formal education in the Cape. This educational groundwork would serve as both a boon and a bane to the British educational efforts.

The first formal public school was established in Cape Town, situated near the present Market Square. No formal schooling took place between 1652, the year in which Jan van Riebeeck (the first Commander at the Cape) founded the Dutch settlement and 1658, arrival of slaves. This could be ascribed to the fact that it took the first settlers in the Cape approximately six years to create facilities and establish the infrastructure and necessary logistics for formal schooling. The first public school was created exclusively for slaves.¹³⁵ According to certain studies, slaves that were born in the Cape Colony during this period received a better education compared to the slaves born as free individuals in their native countries or the Cape Khoisan. The basic numeracy level of Cape-born slaves was said to be between the levels of newly imported slaves and European settlers. Those that survived the high infant mortality rate had some educational attainment, which was mostly due to religious motivation.¹³⁶

In a journal entry from the 17th of April 1658, van Riebeeck mentions his intention to introduce a manner of education¹³⁷ to the growing number of slaves at the Cape. His vision led to the establishment of the first Western school in the Cape in 1658 with the schools' sole purpose being to educate slaves.¹³⁸ The purpose of this school was to teach slaves and slave children the Dutch language, but also to introduce slaves to the Christian

¹³⁴ D. Mosweunyane, 'The African Educational Evolution: From Traditional Training to Formal Education', *Higher Education Studies* 3 (4), 2013, pp. 50-51.

¹³⁵ M.R. Legodi, 'Issues and trends in shaping black perspectives on education in South Africa. A historical educational survey and appraisal', Masters' thesis. University of South Africa, 1996.

¹³⁶ J. Baten & J. Fourie, 'Slave numeracy in the Cape Colony and comparative development in the eighteenth century', Department of Economics, University of Tübingen, German and Department of Economics, Stellenbosch University, South Africa, 2012, pp. 1-10.

¹³⁷ D. Inge, 1960, Education for isolation, https://disa.ukzn.ac.za/sites/default/files/pdf_files/BSSep60.pdf, access: November 2020.

¹³⁸ C. Du Plessis. Divided we stand! The origins of separation in South African rugby 1861-1899, Masters' thesis. University of Pretoria, 2017, p.71.

doctrine.¹³⁹ The arrival of the first slaves in the Cape from Angola in 1658 created a great concern for van Riebeeck about the Dutch East India Company's slaves moral and intellectual welfare. In addition to that was an array of slaves from Africa and the East which created issues with them speaking different languages that led to language barriers. Therefore, the school was created in order to combat these issues by teaching slaves sufficient linguistic skills, thus promoting a greater understanding of the masters' orders.¹⁴⁰ This created an improvement in the quality of labour received in the Cape, it also served as platform used to indoctrinate them with their masters' religion that would in turn teach them the values of servitude, discipline, and obedience.¹⁴¹

Although there were issues of racial differences since colonial times, schools that the government authorized and supported were open to all children regardless of ethnicity. These schools were populated by whites, 'free blacks' and even slaves whose masters paid their tuition. The quality of education did not vary, and no one was given preference based on the colour of their skin. However, schools established later in the early nineteenth century, tended to exclude non-white students, although not as a result of an official school policy, but rather because the fees simply became more than black students could afford. Although many white children could also not afford the cost increase either, so many children were deprived of quality schooling.¹⁴² It was not until 1663 that a school for white children was opened, which happened to be just a continuation of the original slave school. The original seventeen pupils consisted of twelve Europeans, four slaves, and one "Hottentot".¹⁴³ As early as 1676, a desire was expressed for segregated school, it was only in 1865 that it became a policy.¹⁴⁴

¹³⁹ C. Du Plessis, *Divided we stand! The origins of separation in South African rugby 1861-1899*, Masters' thesis. University of Pretoria, 2017, pp. 71-72.

¹⁴⁰ N. Moore, *In a class of their own: The Bantu Education Act (1953) revisited*, Masters' thesis. University of Pretoria, 2015, p. 19.

¹⁴¹ C.B. Collins, 'South Africa's First Three Hundred Years of Schooling: A Possible Re-Interpretation', *History of Education Quarterly* 23 (3), 1983, pp. 361-378.

¹⁴² A. Phillips, 'Bantu Education'. *The Review: A Journal of Undergraduate Student Research* 2, 1999, pp. 22-27.

¹⁴³ R.R. Ireland, 'Education for What?: A Comparison of the Education of Black South Africans and Black Americans', *The Journal of Negro Education* 41 (3), 2020, pp. 227-240.

¹⁴⁴ R.R. Ireland, 'Education for What?: A Comparison of the Education of Black South Africans and Black Americans', *The Journal of Negro Education* 41 (3), 2020, pp. 227-240.

Mission education

To cope with the shortage of affordable education, numerous mission schools were founded to take in black students, yet this did not serve as an adequate solution. This was due the view many parents had that mission schools were used as a recruiting ground for Christianity, and consequently non-Christian students did not take advantage of these opportunities.¹⁴⁵ The schooling of the so-called “heathens” was apparently of paramount importance for all nineteenth century missionary organizations. The reasoning behind education for indigenous and non-European people was a way to encourage non-Europeans’ participation in the missionary endeavour, and to draw people into the sphere of influence of the mission. Missionaries often saw themselves as a moral stabilizing force for indigenous people that had been caught up in the disarray caused by the great social transformations that colonialism brought with it.¹⁴⁶ Evangelical Protestants, for example, saw the reading of the Bible as an essential skill needed to open the “Word of God” to individuals. Thus, schooling was seen as the means to teach people to read the Bible for themselves and to help form better Christians.¹⁴⁷

Mission societies and churches in Africa controlled most of the schools ¹⁴⁸ well into the twentieth century. In South Africa, although successive colonial rule subsidized mission schools since 1856, the first “Native school” to be erected and staffed by a South African state authority was only erected in 1908.¹⁴⁹ Missionaries were seen as “the backbone of African education”.¹⁵⁰ This strong influence of Christian missionaries in education in Africa did not come about by accident. As indicated, the important role that education could play in Christianising Africa was thoroughly appreciated by mission leaders. ¹⁵¹ Christian

¹⁴⁵ A. Phillips, ‘Bantu Education’, *The Review: A Journal of Undergraduate Student Research* 2, 1999, pp. 22-27.

¹⁴⁶ M.S. Clark, ‘Two contrasting models of missions in South Africa: The Apostolic Faith Mission and the Assemblies of God’, *AJPS* 8 (1), 2005, pp. 143-161.

¹⁴⁷ F. Jenz. ‘Missionaries and Indigenous Education in the 19th- Century British Empire. Part I: Church-State Relations and Indigenous Actions and Reactions’, *History Compass* 10 (4), 2012, pp. 294–305.

¹⁴⁸ F.M. Selhausen, ‘Missions, Education and Conversion in Colonial Africa’, African Economic History Working Paper Series No. 48/2019.

¹⁴⁹ W. Saayman, ‘Who owns the schools will own Africa’ Christian mission, education and culture in Africa’, *Journal for the Study of Religion* 4 (2), 1991, pp. 29-44.

¹⁵⁰ E.H. Berman, ‘African Responses to Christian Mission Education’, *African Studies Review* 17 (3), 1974, pp. 527 – 540.

¹⁵¹ W. Saayman, ‘Who owns the schools will own Africa’ Christian mission, education and culture in Africa’, *Journal for the Study of Religion* 4 (2), 1991, pp. 29-44.

missionaries have contributed towards the education of Africans in South Africa for about one hundred and fifty years. Towards the eighteenth century, mission education expanded due to increased missionary efforts which followed in the wake of further colonial expansion.¹⁵² Perhaps one of the most famous mission stations in the Cape in the early years was that of Baviaanskloof,¹⁵³ which would later become Genadendal, which was under the control of the Moravian Missionary Society's.¹⁵⁴ It is at this Moravian Missionary Society's school that the "Hottentots" were persuaded to forego their nomadic way of life and take on more regular habits. A paternalistic attitude was thus present in the missionary education that black South Africans would receive.¹⁵⁵ As the Dutch and English settlers moved further into the interior of South Africa, schools followed suit. The missionary schools in the Cape Colony which were aided by the government, were encouraged to teach black pupils the mere basics of their masters' language that would enforce the idea of limiting these individuals to their predetermined role in the colonial order.¹⁵⁶ The missions' outreach shaped society and life so much during its long reign as the only or the most prominent bringer of education. Its influence was such that most students that attended mission schools were Christian, whilst those that did not want to conform to the Christian religion chose not to attend as it was seen as a recruitment center. The rift between religious groups was apparent in village life all over the country, not just in schools. Villages were said to be divided according to religion, in one particular village the Christians lived on one side of the river and were further subdivided into groups of Methodists, Dutch Reformists, and Presbyterians. On the other side of the river lived the tribal kraal communities, there was said to be no association between these two communities. During this period there were attempts to reform the educational system but these reforms only benefitted white students. The prevailing theory of that time was that whites needed to be educated so that they could serve as the employers of labor, whilst

¹⁵² A. Lewis, 'Perceptions of Mission Education in South Africa from a Historical educational Perspective', *Tydskrif vir Christelike Wetenskap*, 2007, pp. 181 – 194.

¹⁵³ E. Elbourne, 'Early Khoisan uses of mission Christianity', *Kronos* 19, 1992, pp. 9-10.

¹⁵⁴ A. Lewis. 'Perceptions of Mission Education in South Africa from a Historical educational Perspective', *Tydskrif vir Christelike Wetenskap*, 2007, pp. 181 – 194.

¹⁵⁵ O.M. Bakke, 'Friends or enemies?', *Studia Theologica – Nordic Journal of Theology* 67 (1), 2013, pp. 51.

¹⁵⁶ N. Moore, In a class of their own: The Bantu Education Act (1953) revisited, Masters' thesis. University of Pretoria, 2015, pp. 21-41.

blacks needed only a minimal amount of schooling in order to perform manual labor.¹⁵⁷ This educational reform was in the form of the School Board Act of 1905, which established a new tax to finance the education of poor whites.¹⁵⁸ The act served to exclude most blacks from the newly found system of public education, as well as forcing them to go to the mission schools.¹⁵⁹

This discrimination effectively resulted in influencing the job market at an even higher level. Mission schools did not meet the educational requirements needed for the apprenticeships, thus leaving black students out of jobs that had normally been reserved for them in the past.¹⁶⁰

Eventually, in the twentieth century, the Nationalist Party-led government brought about a significant change to this system with the promulgation of the 1953 “Bantu Education” Act.¹⁶¹ This Act made the practice of mission education practically impossible due to extreme financial and political constraints.¹⁶²

Native¹⁶³ education

“Native education” was first the result of missionaries alone, and then of the missionaries and the colonial and provincial governments acting together with them. This was a result of the missionaries finding it necessary to depend on government for financial support for their schools and more of the European people of the country pushing for government to take control of “Native education”, whilst the “Native” people were fighting for an education similar to that received by the Europeans.¹⁶⁴ It is within this context that the era of “Native” education came about with the first state-mandated segregated curricula.

¹⁵⁷ A. Phillips, ‘Bantu Education’. *The Review: A Journal of Undergraduate Student Research* 2, 1999, pp. 22-27.

¹⁵⁸ C. Soudien, ‘Institutionalising racial segregation in the South African school: The School Board Act 1905’, *Paedagogica Historica* 55 (1), 2019, pp. 28.

¹⁵⁹ A. Phillips, ‘Bantu Education’. *The Review: A Journal of Undergraduate Student Research* 2, 1999, pp. 22-27.

¹⁶⁰ A. Phillips, ‘Bantu Education’. *The Review: A Journal of Undergraduate Student Research* 2, 1999, pp. 22-27.

¹⁶¹ E.V. Rosnes, ‘A time of destiny for Norwegian mission schools in Zululand and Natal under the policy of Bantu Education (1948–1955)’, *History of Education* 49 (1), 2020, pp. 115-118.

¹⁶² A. Lewis. ‘Perceptions of Mission Education in South Africa from a Historical educational Perspective’, *Tydskrif vir Christelike Wetenskap*, 2007, pp. 181 – 194.

¹⁶³ “The word “Native” is used, in the historical context but with the awareness of its derogatory connotations”

¹⁶⁴ C.T. Loram, ‘A national system of native education in South Africa’, *South African Journal of Science* XXVI, 1929, pp. 921-927.

There was an ongoing debate regarding the content of black education, with talks deliberating on the idea that the “Native” having shown interest in book learning and a preference for the European curriculum should be moved away from those notions. It was to quell the thought that black people might feel they are equal and that they are fit for various positions at present occupied only by white men rather than the manual labour that was apparently designated to them.¹⁶⁵

As indicated, “Native education” in this country had its inception with Christian missionaries,¹⁶⁶ who regarded the teachings of the three R’s as a necessary accompaniment to the teaching of the Christian religion. “Native education” began in the Cape Colony, but its development in the other provinces followed much the same course as in the Cape. The earliest systematically established “Native schools” were founded by the London Missionary Society during the decade 1820-30.¹⁶⁷ By 1840 the “Native schools” outnumbered the white schools in the Cape and were open to all non-European children irrespective of race.¹⁶⁸

In 1841 an indifferent government gave its first grant to the “Native schools”, which happened to be eight years before the British Government had made its first contribution to certain religious societies for the erection of school buildings. The Government of Natal tried to follow the example of the Cape in 1848, but the opposition of the colonists was so strong that the first grants were only made in 1877. In the Transvaal grants were not made partly because the Government was never really solvent until the 1890s, but chiefly because Trekker-Native policy was incompatible with the education of the “Native” and no grants were made until 1902, when the British Government replaced the Republican Government.¹⁶⁹

¹⁶⁵ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education’, *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

¹⁶⁶ A. Lewis & J.C. Steyn, ‘A critique of mission education in South Africa according to Bosch’s mission paradigm theory’, *South African Journal of Education* 23 (2), 2003, pp. 101–103.

¹⁶⁷ J. Van Der Poel, ‘Native Education in South Africa’, *Journal of the Royal African Society* 34 (136), 1935, pp. 313-331.

¹⁶⁸ L.A. Thompson, *History of South Africa Third Edition*, 2001, pp. 1-345.

¹⁶⁹ J. Van Der Poel, ‘Native Education in South Africa’, *Journal of the Royal African Society* 34 (136), 1935, pp. 313-331.

While in the Free State a small grant was given in 1878, which was the case for the Cape, Natal and Transvaal as well. Although these grants increased steadily, they became meagre instalments in later years. This led to mission societies taking the initiative in “Native schools” and bearing their entire cost until Government grants were made, which in the end amounted to funding exclusively in aid of teachers’ salaries. The expenses of school buildings and of their upkeep and also of equipment remained a charge upon missionary funds. This sharing of its cost between the mission societies and the Government was the financial basis of “Native education” in South Africa, and it meant a corresponding division of control. From 1841 there was a constant but unobtrusive dispute between the governments and missionary bodies about the degree of control which each should exercise and as the government grants increased so did their push for secularisation of the curriculum.¹⁷⁰

This was done so as not to completely exclude missionaries as the Governments were not prepared to shoulder the complete cost of “Native education”. They also considered religious instruction vital in the education of the “Native” although they did over time demand the teaching of “secular” subjects and subject the work of the schools to an increasingly thorough examination by government inspectors.¹⁷¹

“Native policy” appeared to some proponents to be a separate area which required differential treatment.¹⁷² The problem of labour, the question of the franchise, political and civil rights, and education were among the components of the “Native policy”. British colonial administrator Alfred Milner’s state and its reconstruction policy, provides insights into the particular way the schooling system in the Transvaal was moulded.¹⁷³ Milner and his administration had the view that the only form of labour for black people should be unskilled labour, and that franchise for all Africans was considered premature in the Transvaal. The most important element for the formulation of “Native policy” was Milner’s

¹⁷⁰ J. Van Der Poel, ‘Native Education in South Africa’, *Journal of the Royal African Society* 34 (136), 1935, pp. 313-331.

¹⁷¹ J. Van Der Poel, ‘Native Education in South Africa’, *Journal of the Royal African Society* 34 (136), 1935, pp. 313-331.

¹⁷² I.L. Evans, *Native Policy in Southern Africa*, 2014, pp. 1-25.

¹⁷³ O. Geyser, ‘Jan Smuts and Alfred Milner’, *The Round Table* 90 (360), 2001, pp.424-425.

idea that “civilization” should be the test of a man’s capacity for political rights’.¹⁷⁴ This idea was extensively discussed in a historical speech, widely known as the “Watch Tower Speech”,¹⁷⁵ this speech provided the philosophical grounds for the policy of racial segregation.¹⁷⁶

It was a paternalistic ideology¹⁷⁷ of raising up the “Native” and how people of European descent were a superior race. It is with this ideology in mind that the education of “Natives” were put in place, as institutions should be created to keep “Natives” at the “lowest level”.¹⁷⁸ The theory was that Africans required a different and racialised treatment. Milner suggested that African education in the Transvaal should not be at the level of the European, but that he felt their requirements and capacities are very different and they should be trained for their own good and that of the community.

A good example of this was that the schooling for whites was a necessary step to technical training according to industrial requirements for skilled labour, whilst the education of the African was only to resolve problems arising out of the contact between a white employer and a black employer and to resolve other sorts of labour relations.¹⁷⁹

The increasing obstacles imposed by the state left the fields of domestic service, industry, municipal employment and farms as the only open options of employment for Africans. Milner did not hope to bring clear-cut formulas for all the problems of reconstruction, but tried to create an intellectual climate and basis to encourage legislation and administration along desirable lines for the future.¹⁸⁰ The starting point of this would be the elaboration of a “Native policy” and its translation into appropriate legislation. At the Intercolonial

¹⁷⁴ M. Cross, ‘The foundations of a segregated schooling system in the Transvaal 1900-24’, *History of Education* 16 (4), 1987, pp. 259-274.

¹⁷⁵ M. Cross, ‘The foundations of a segregated schooling system in the Transvaal 1900-24’, *History of Education* 16 (4), 1987, pp. 259-274.

¹⁷⁶ J. Van Der Poel, ‘Native Education in South Africa’, *Journal of the Royal African Society* 34 (136), 1935, pp. 313-331.

¹⁷⁷ M. Cross, ‘Culture and identity in South African education, 1880-1990’, Doctoral thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, 1994.

¹⁷⁸ P. Rich, ‘Race, Science, and the Legitimization of White Supremacy in South Africa, 1902-1940’, *The International Journal of African Historical Studies* 23 (4), 1990, pp. 665-686.

¹⁷⁹ J. Van Der Poel, ‘Native Education in South Africa’, *Journal of the Royal African Society* 34 (136), 1935, pp. 313-331.

¹⁸⁰ S. Marks & S. Trapido, ‘Lord Milner and the South African State’, *History Workshop* 8, 1979, pp. 50-80.

Conference of 1903, he introduced the “Native question” and appointed the South African Native Affairs Commission of Inquiry (SANAC),¹⁸¹ which in 1905, proposed many aspects of what was to emerge as the policy of racial segregation.¹⁸² SANAC although not advocating the total segregation of land areas, it did suggest racially exclusive occupation of land areas, separate political representation of black and white people, and advocated a policy of gradual and “assisted evolution” to facilitate the development of Africans in a way which could not merge too closely into European life.¹⁸³

In the sphere of education, the main question posed was whether education as a development of the intellectual faculties by literary instruction had militated African’s usefulness as a productive force or had the effect of making him/her more productive. SANAC believed that education had in some cases created a situation where “Natives” were more militated against their oppressor arising from their need to be equally educated and thus creating a less docile and less disposed to be a contented workforce. In other cases, it had a general beneficial influence in their view by raising the level of intelligence and by increasing their capacity as workers.¹⁸⁴

SANAC sanctioned the principle of the racial separation of schools, and the principle that African education should be resolved into a system of state-aided mission schools. They believed the great demand of South Africa was that of unskilled or partially skilled labour and that instruction in manual labour should constitute the basis of African education.¹⁸⁵

The formation of the white-dominated Union of South Africa in 1910, whereby the four states that were previously self-governing colonies and republics became provinces, served the purpose of effectively excluding blacks from socio-political participation. Non-whites were thrown out of politics and a policy of social segregation came into effect and

¹⁸¹ E.M. Masina, ‘An analysis of African reluctance to meet the labour demands of the Transvaal colony as expressed in the labour commission of 1903 and The South African Native Affairs Commission 1903-1905’, Masters’ thesis, University of South Africa, 2002.

¹⁸² M. Ramutsindela, ‘The enduring spatial legacy of the Natives Land Act’, *Social Dynamics* 39 (2), 2013, pp. 290-297.

¹⁸³ J. Van der poel, ‘Native Education in South Africa’, *Journal of the Royal African Society* 34 (136), 1935, pp. 313-331.

¹⁸⁴ J. Van der poel, ‘Native Education in South Africa’, *Journal of the Royal African Society* 34 (136), 1935, pp. 313-331.

¹⁸⁵ M. Cross, ‘The foundations of a segregated schooling system in the Transvaal 1900-24’, *History of Education* 16 (4), 1987, pp. 259-274.

was strictly adhered to for the most of the twentieth century. As part of this policy, a system of education specifically known as “Native Education” was evolved for Africans.¹⁸⁶ Accordingly, and for the first time in South Africa’s educational history, separate curricula were officially introduced for blacks¹⁸⁷ and whites at the primary school level. The main purpose of “Native education” was “to handicap African children with the introduction of an inferior syllabus”.¹⁸⁸ The “Native education” curriculum was of a lower standard when compared to the other schools, whilst it was conceived to ensure that the great majority of “blacks were fit only for menial jobs”.¹⁸⁹ The differentiated curricula introduced in black South African schools in 1922 had two essential features:

1. Teaching of the vernacular was made compulsory in all primary classes
2. Practical skills were emphasized such as: hygiene, handwork, gardening, agriculture, housecraft, and needlework featured prominently in syllabi.

Greater curriculum uniformity existed at the high school level between black and white schools. However, curriculum differentiation in favour of non-academic training at black high schools continued to generate controversy in the black community.¹⁹⁰

“Native education” has been described as “a doleful tale of shortages”, with shortages in the classrooms, equipment, books and, teacher salaries becoming the theme of this era in education. There were many discussions regarding why there were shortages, but it all came down to a deliberate and calculated impact of “white Supremacy”.¹⁹¹ It seems that the purpose of “Native education” was to educate the “Native” for a lifetime of servitude.¹⁹² This was inculcated through not providing education for all and those that did receive

¹⁸⁶ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education’, *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

¹⁸⁷ R.E. Chernis, ‘The past in service of the present: a study of South African school history syllabuses and textbooks 1839-1990’, Doctoral thesis, University of Pretoria, 2010.

¹⁸⁸ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education’, *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

¹⁸⁹ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education’, *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

¹⁹⁰ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education’, *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

¹⁹¹ Anon. Education for servitude. An Address delivered to the Joint Council of Europeans and Africans at Grahamstown on Wednesday, 19th. October. 1949.

¹⁹² M. Malisa & T.Q. Misedja, ‘Schooled for Servitude: The Education of African Children in British Colonies 1910-1990’, *Genealogy* 3 (40), 2019, pp. 1 – 12.

education were not able to improve their situation as the tools provided were inadequate to bring them out of their situation.¹⁹³

Bantu Education¹⁹⁴

The lead up to “Bantu Education” came in the 1940s when Mission education became increasingly untenable because they lacked the finances to be able to maintain a national system of educational provision and because Africans were questioning mission education which they considered more and more institutionally racist. This set the platform for the Nationalist Government to appoint an education commission to make recommendations leading to the reform of “Native education”.¹⁹⁵ This commission argued that mission education was incompatible with the ordering of society envisaged by the government. In 1953 the “Bantu Education” Act ¹⁹⁶ was passed which withdrew state aid from mission schools and made their continued registration dependent on the approval of the Minister for Native Affairs. The Catholic Church was able to raise the necessary finance and decided to continue running some of their schools based on religious doctrine, but taught “Bantu Education” in all of its schools.¹⁹⁷

The other remaining denominations were the American Board which had the resources to maintain a single privately funded school and besides from a few politicised figures in the Church of the Province of South Africa who refused to lease their schools to the government, claiming that to do so was to be complicit with Apartheid. A number of churches did however decide to lease their schools maintaining that the decision was made because Church leaders believed that “Bantu Education”, despite their disdain for

¹⁹³ J. Van der Poel, ‘Native Education in South Africa’, *Journal of the Royal African Society* 34 (136), 1935, pp. 313-331.

¹⁹⁴ “As in the case of “Native” the term “Bantu” is used in its historical context with an awareness of its derogatory connotations”

¹⁹⁵ J.D. Jansen, ‘Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education’, *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

¹⁹⁶ A. Leonie, ‘The development of Bantu education in South Africa, 1652-1954’, DPhil Thesis. Montana State University. 1965.

¹⁹⁷ N. Overy, ‘These Difficult Days’: Mission Church Reactions to Bantu Education in South Africa 1949-56’, Doctoral thesis. School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London. 2002.

its ultimate aims, provided better opportunities to children than what was available to them.¹⁹⁸

During the Apartheid period of 1948 to 1994, all the different groups in South Africa were divided according to race, ethnicity, culture and language.¹⁹⁹ This separation was achieved through policies such as the Population Registration Act of 1950 and the Group Areas Act of 1950 and of 1957. The Population Registration Act of 1950 required that all inhabitants of South Africa be classified in accordance with their racial characteristics as part of the system of Apartheid.²⁰⁰ The political rights, social rights, educational opportunities, and economic status were largely determined by which racial grouping an individual belonged to. The Population Registration Act in turn determined the implementation of other racially based laws such as the Group Areas Act which mandated each racial group to reside in an area exclusively designated for the group, with amenities and services for all within the area.²⁰¹

This included schools, hospitals, stadiums, administrative offices and universities (if there were any). Universities were further classified by ethnicity and language so that there were universities for white English speakers; white Afrikaans speakers; Indians; Coloreds; Xhosas; Zulus; and one for Sothos; Tswanas; Shangaan and Vendas. Through the Acts mentioned above, and others such as the Bantu Education Act of 1953 (No. 47) and the Bantu Homelands Citizens Act of 1970, language became a cornerstone of the Apartheid ideology.²⁰²

Racial dominance was tied to language domination as power was geared towards a particular race and so their language became the dominant language leaving Africans and their African languages as the dominated and powerless groups. Language dictated where people lived as language-based homelands were created and African language

¹⁹⁸ N. Overy, *These Difficult Days': Mission Church Reactions to Bantu Education in South Africa 1949-56*, Doctoral thesis. School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London. 2002.

¹⁹⁹ E.S. Landis, 'South African apartheid legislation: fundamental structure', *The Yale Law Journal* 71 (1), 1961, pp. 1-52.

²⁰⁰ Y. Erasmus & G.T. Ellison, 'What can we learn about the meaning of race from the classification of population groups during apartheid?', *South African Journal of Science* 104, 2008, pp.450-452.

²⁰¹ J. T. Baker, 'Human Rights in South Africa', *Howard Law Journal* 11, 1965, pp. 549-582.

²⁰² M. Cross, 'The foundations of a segregated schooling system in the Transvaal 1900-24', *History of Education* 16 (4), 1987, pp. 259-274.

speakers were allocated to the various homelands according to the language they spoke even if they had never been to those regions/areas.²⁰³ South Africa had a large number of languages spoken, but only two languages were declared South Africa's official languages and those were English and Afrikaans.²⁰⁴ This showed the power this minority race had over the majority race which were Africans.²⁰⁵ Homelands were language-based which in return made each homelands language its official language, but not a South African homeland.²⁰⁶ The Nationalist Apartheid government could therefore be credited with promoting the use of African languages and mother-tongue education, but it was not done for unselfish or positive reasons. There was no correlation between the promotion of the use of African languages, the creation of African language-based facilities and the resources allocated to African education and the development of African languages. In fact, during this period, the African languages were as some would say deliberately underdeveloped by the inadequate resources and planning that went into them.²⁰⁷ The racially differentiated system of schooling was steadily consolidated from the 1950s into four main organizationally segregated and unequally financed streams for African, Indian, Coloured and white children. The aims of education were explicitly to maintain white superiority and dominance in the economy and state.²⁰⁸

In 1948, English became the official language of instruction ²⁰⁹ in “Bantu schools” and in mirroring the policy of Apartheid eight education departments were set up. These eight departments all applied different curricula and thus offered different standards of education. The departments consisted out of nationwide departments for black people,

²⁰³ T.V. Mda, 'Politics of dominance: the suppression and rejection of African languages in South Africa. Paper presented at the 2010 World Congress of Comparative Education Societies, Bogazici University, Istanbul, Turkey, 15 June, 2010.

²⁰⁴ N.E. Alexander, *Language Policy and National Unity in South Africa/Azania*, 1989, pp. 1-77.

²⁰⁵ M. Vestergaard, 'Whos got the map? The negotiation of Afrikaner identities in post-apartheid South Africa', *Daedalus* 130 (1), 2001, pp. 19-44.

²⁰⁶ V. Webb., M. Lafon & P. Pare, 'Bantu languages in education in South Africa: an overview Ongekhoakekho! –the absentee owner', *Language Learning Journal* 38 (3), 2010, pp. 273 – 292

²⁰⁷ T.V. Mda, 'Politics of dominance: the suppression and rejection of African languages in South Africa. Paper presented at the 2010 World Congress of Comparative Education Societies, Bogazici University, Istanbul, Turkey, 15 June, 2010.

²⁰⁸ L. Chisholm, 'Apartheid education legacies and new directions in post-apartheid South Africa', *Storia delle donne*, 8, 2012, pp. 81- 103.

²⁰⁹ P. Silva, South African English: Oppressor or Liberator?, The Major Varieties of English Papers from MAVEN 97 Vaxjo, 20–22 November 1997.

coloured (multi-ethnic) people, Indian people, independent schools, and provincial departments for white people.²¹⁰ A range of policies facilitated this discriminatory system, including the already mentioned 1953 Bantu Education Act, which enforced racially segregated educational facilities, and the 1959 Extension of University Education Act.²¹¹ The 1959 Act banned universities from accepting black students unless permission was obtained from a cabinet minister. Specific universities for black, coloured and Indian students were also established, which meant that students of other races were only allowed to attend white universities if their own universities were overcrowded and with special permission from the minister.²¹² Education was therefore divided according to race from basic education through to tertiary education.

Education was compulsory for all racial groups of different ages and the law was enforced differently, with white and black children required to attend school between ages of 7 and 16. Education for Indian and coloured children was compulsory between the ages of 7 and 15, although in reality, although all of this was put in place, it was enforced differently between the different racial groupings.²¹³ By the 1970s per capita government spending on black education was a tenth of that for white education.²¹⁴ “Bantu schools” were run on an ethnic basis and seven African languages were recognised and the children of each particular tribal group were taught in the medium of their mother tongue. A limited number of books in these seven tribal languages were printed and the schools were not permitted to lend these to the children nor sell them, as they were the property of the schools.²¹⁵

One can imagine the work it took to keep track of these books in order to keep them in circulation in the classroom, although the biggest tragedy is depriving these students of

²¹⁰ Anon. 2020. South Africa: Broken and unequal: The state of education in South Africa. <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/afr53/1705/2020/en/>, access: March 2020.

²¹¹ B.K. Murray, ‘Wits as an ‘Open’ University 1939-1959: Black Admissions to the University of the Witwatersrand’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 16 (4), 1990, pp.649-676.

²¹² M.M. Kgoale, ‘The development of university education for blacks in South Africa with Special reference to the Transvaal (1900 - 1970)’, Masters’ thesis, University of South Africa. 1982.

²¹³ Anon. 11 February 2020. South Africa: Broken and unequal: The state of education in South Africa. <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/afr53/1705/2020/en/>, access: March 2020.

²¹⁴ Anon. 11 February 2020. South Africa: Broken and unequal: The state of education in South Africa. <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/afr53/1705/2020/en/>, access: March 2020.

²¹⁵ J. Gool, ‘*The Crimes of Bantu Education in South Africa*’, 1966, pp. 1-25.

the right to his own particular and personal use to read whenever he/she chose to do so.²¹⁶

As a result of this, black schools had inferior facilities, teachers, and textbooks. By 1978 only 20% of university students were black even though they comprised 70% of the population. The inequality in education based on race could be seen in almost all aspects. To further prove this, is the teacher – pupil ratios varied significantly as with primary education they averaged 1:18 in white schools, 1:24 in Indian schools. 1:27 in coloured schools and 1:39 in black schools. There was a difference in the teachers' qualifications due to discrimination and this all ultimately impacted on the outcomes and pass rates for blacks which were less than half of those for white pupils.²¹⁷

As mentioned, education in South Africa for all races was run by the Provincial Administration before 1955 and the syllabus for every racial group was identical. It is only when the Nationalist Government came into power in 1948 that drastic steps were taken to introduce Apartheid education as the existing syllabus was seen as unsuitable. It was decided that each race group have its own system of education.²¹⁸ Dr Verwoerd, who was the architect of “Bantu Education”,²¹⁹ said that by ignoring segregation or Apartheid policy, the curriculum to a certain extent and educational practice, were unable to prepare blacks for service within the Bantu Community. That doing so, and blindly producing pupils trained on a European model, meant that vain hope was created among “Natives” that they could occupy posts within the European Community.²²⁰

After the Nationalist party came into power propelled by their highly instrumentalist notions about education, they followed a drive to “modernize” the delivery of education. The fundamental principle was that it was the responsibility of the state to provide for the educational welfare of South Africans. Educational issues had been strategically

²¹⁶ J. Gool, *The Crimes of Bantu Education in South Africa*, 1966, pp. 1-25.

²¹⁷ Anon. 11 February 2020. South Africa: Broken and unequal: The state of education in South Africa. <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/afr53/1705/2020/en/>, access: March 2020.

²¹⁸ C. Nkondo, 'Comparison of the Syllabus of the Bantu Education Department with that of the Transvaal Education Department and Other Related Matters', *Reality* 11 (4), 1979, pp. 17-19.

²¹⁹ I.B. Tabata, *Education for barbarism Bantu (Apartheid) Education in South Africa*, 1959, pp. 6.

²²⁰ C. Nkondo, 'Comparison of the Syllabus of the Bantu Education Department with that of the Transvaal Education Department and Other Related Matters', *Reality* 11 (4), 1979, pp. 17-19.

significant in the mobilization of the Afrikaner “volk” (people) and had helped to define the Nationalist political agenda and was seen to be important in the material advances made by Afrikaners as a group.²²¹ On the flip side, education was regarded as a tool by which to control and dominate other racial groups.

The Nationalist Party state thus believed that education could be used to support Apartheid, which was clearly seen in its educational policies. Through its university education policies in the 1950s and 1960s, the Nationalist Government aimed to contribute to three key policy aims: first, to entrench segregation, which would also bring about the compliance of academics and students with the ethnically segregated university system; second, to defuse political opposition by changing the political conditions within the universities and university colleges; third, on the basis of separate institutions, to differentiate between the educational opportunities for different population groups, specifically favoring Afrikaners and disadvantaging black, and especially African students. There were dramatic changes in university education between 1948 and 1970, which were the result both of Government policy and other social factors.²²²

For the most part, the South African education system in the twentieth century has a past entrenched in Apartheid education which was used as a tool to divide society as it constructed certain identities among learners. The Apartheid era ²²³ worked as the premise to divide society and particularly schools according to race. Thus, education was used as a tool to enhance these divisions. This reinforced the inequalities in society and the curriculum of Apartheid served to strengthen the citizenship and position of one minority race over others.²²⁴

²²¹ M.A. Beale, *Apartheid and university education, 1948 -1970*, Doctoral thesis. University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. 1998.

²²² M.A. Beale, *Apartheid and university education, 1948 -1970*, Doctoral thesis. University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. 1998, pp. 1-2.

²²³ J. Davies, ‘The State and the South African University System under Apartheid’, *Comparative Education* 32 (3),1996, pp. 319-332.

²²⁴ V. Msila, ‘From Apartheid Education to the Revised National Curriculum Statement: Pedagogy for Identity Formation and Nation Building in South Africa’, *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 16 (2), 2007, pp. 146 – 160.

Education was used not only to achieve social separation but was built around a social philosophy. It was also the legitimating arena for “White supremacy” and for the complex system of racial and cultural ordering that evolved around it. The Apartheid order’s traditional education institutions, the hidden as well as the explicit curricula, were configured to produce, reproduce, and validate racial separation and hierarchy.²²⁵

In South Africa, already from the creation of the Union in 1910²²⁶ up to the advent of Apartheid in 1948, the official racial discourses recognized and distinguished between three races which were the: “Europeans”, “Natives” and “Coloureds”. The period after 1948 extended the racial groupings to include four races which were “whites”, “Bantu”, or “Africans”, “Coloured”, and “Indians”. The discourse of the anti-Apartheid struggle reproduced the notion of these four distant races as a fact of everyday life in the country but the term “black” was used politically to encompass all those who were not “white”.²²⁷

Apartheid can be deemed a classic case of social engineering and of shaping the social world according to a blueprint. Apartheid essentially legislated racial domination, although its propagators avoided using the vocabulary of “race” rather using the term “population group”. This concept of “population group” became deeply embedded in the regulations, practices, institutions and relationships, which constitute the skewed structures of power of Apartheid society.²²⁸

Since 1953, “Bantu Education” in South Africa has been controlled primarily by the Nationalist Government²²⁹ and directed according to racial lines. The framework was geared towards establishing a society where black and white are almost totally segregated. The Nationalist government claimed that the theory around “Bantu Education” was to assist “Bantu” people to develop their own semi-autonomous society. However, opponents are of the view that the aim was to suppress the “Bantu” by providing

²²⁵ C. Soudien & J. Baxen, Transformation and Outcomes-Based Education in South Africa: Opportunities and Challenges, *The Journal of Negro Education* 66 (4),1997, pp. 449-459.

²²⁶ J. Fedderke., R. De Kadt & J.M. Luiz, ‘Uneducating South Africa: The failure to address the 1910–1993 legacy’, *International Review of Education* 46, 2000, pp. 258.

²²⁷ D. Posel, ‘Races to consume: revisiting South Africa's history of race, consumption and the struggle for freedom’, *Ethnic and Racial Studies* 33 (2), 2010, pp.157-175.

²²⁸ W. E. Morrow, ‘Aims of education in South Africa’, *International Review of Education* 36, 1990, pp.171–181.

²²⁹ M. Nkomo, ‘The Contradictions of Bantu Education’, *Harvard Educational Review* 51 (1) ,1981, pp.126–127.

educational opportunity that trains them to be nothing more than “hewers of wood and drawers of water”. In other words, a system that prepared them for a future in menial or unskilled labour.²³⁰

It was to create the idea that the “Native” would know that to a great extent he/she must be the labourer in the country. Further policies such as the Christian National Policy of 1948, would have a far-reaching effect on the quality of education that black students would receive in South Africa.²³¹ The policy made several recommendations of a paternalistic nature, which included the importance of mother-tongue education, which was a sentiment echoed by the Eiselen Commission. An additional recommendation was that it should not be funded at the expense of white education and that black pupils should not be prepared for a life of equal opportunities with white education. The recommendations went on to state, that the preservation of cultural identity should be maintained, and this policy should be administered and organised by whites. However, this view was understandably not readily accepted by the black communities. Irrespective of black parents’ views pertaining to the education that black pupils should receive, the Apartheid governments Verwoerd would make his intentions regarding black education crystal clear which was to preserve the general status quo and to prevent black education agitation, but with no say or real input from black parents.²³²

The core of the debate surrounding “Bantu Education” between missionaries and the government of the time was that of assimilation and segregation.²³³ Despite these divergent views, the general sentiment that government and some missionaries appeared to have shared was similar, in that the current state of education for black pupils could not be perpetuated much longer. The Eiselen Commission’s findings showed that the black individuals interviewed echoed this statement together with a large percentage of white individuals. This shows the extent of disarray in the education system prior to “Bantu

²³⁰ R.C. Jones, ‘The development of attitudes leading to the Nationalist apartheid philosophy of Bantu education in the Republic of South Africa’, Doctoral thesis, The University of Oklahoma, 1966.

²³¹ R.C. Jones, The development of attitudes leading to the Nationalist apartheid philosophy of Bantu education in the Republic of South Africa, Doctoral thesis, The University of Oklahoma, 1966.

²³² N. Moore, In a class of their own: The Bantu Education Act (1953) revisited, Masters’ thesis. University of Pretoria. 2015.

²³³ B.W. Rose, ‘Education as a Facet of South African Policy’, *Comparative Education Review* 9 (2), 1965, pp. 208-212.

Education”, that would warrant these vastly different stakeholders all wanting the same change, which was that of a promised new and improved approach to black education in South Africa.²³⁴

At the time, South Africa was sub-divided into four provinces and a series of ten “homelands”. The latter were nominally independent areas allocated as the ethnic reserves of each of the major black tribal groups, as defined by the Apartheid government.²³⁵ Educational administration and schooling included a network of private or “independent” schools, which represented only two per cent of the school population, and then government education which was quite different. White education was administered by four provincial education departments and a national ministry, while black education in South Africa and in the ten homelands was administered by the respective homelands and was under the control of a national ministry called the Department of Education and Training, based in Pretoria. Asian education, controlled by a national “Own Affairs” ministry based in Durban, while the coloured population was also controlled by a national “Own Affairs” ministry based in Cape Town. In addition, there was a ministry known as the Department of National Education, that dealt with national policy, sport, cultural and library services.²³⁶

This structure all made for an extremely complex and fragmented education system. In urban areas there could easily be up to six educational departments operating in one region, with each having its own independent administrative system and associated schools.²³⁷ The guiding educational philosophy of that era for the white population was a system called “Christian National Education”,²³⁸ which was characterized by an authoritarian system, rote-learning, and an unquestioning allegiance to nationalist and

²³⁴ N. Moore, In a class of their own: The Bantu Education Act (1953) revisited, Masters’ thesis. University of Pretoria. 2015.

²³⁵ R.K. Rwebangira, Conflict Transformation in Post-apartheid South Africa from 1994 – 2013, Masters’ thesis. University of Kwazulu-Natal, 2013.

²³⁶ E. Nel & T. Binns, ‘Changing the Geography of Apartheid Education in South Africa’, *Geography* 84 (2), 1999, pp. 119-128.

²³⁷ E. Nel & T. Binns, ‘Changing the Geography of Apartheid Education in South Africa’, *Geography* 84 (2), 1999, pp. 119-128.

²³⁸ R.G. Macmillan, ‘Christian National Education’, *A Journal of Social and Political Theory* 28, 1967, pp. 43-56.

Calvinistic ideologies which were supported by the white minority of the National Party government.²³⁹

Thus, education for the black population within the Apartheid system took on the form of “Bantu Education”, which was an inferior system in comparison to what the white race received. Another consequence of the Apartheid regime was the effective suppression of missionary and church education due to the differences in ideology between the state (NP) and the church as regards to black education.²⁴⁰

Democratic Education

In 1994 South Africa became a democratic republic after a history entrenched in a brutal history of colonialism and reaching its dark period in 1948 with the Apartheid era. While much has changed in democratic South Africa over the last 20 years, inequalities are still deeply ingrained in our society.²⁴¹ The youth unemployment rates remain one of the biggest challenges and weak economic growth, weaker global competitiveness ranking and rising government debt. Although life expectancy has increased, access to basic services has improved and an extensive social grant system has been rolled out, education still remains a critical challenge.²⁴² There are significant racial disparities in schooling outcomes still prevalent in the system. An example of this is that in 2008, four out of five Grade 6 children in former white schools were reading at grade level compared to four children in a hundred in former black schools. Wide learning gaps are evident between children in what are essentially two schooling systems. Performance on a range of standardized tests shows that where 80% of schools serve poor black communities and produce weak outcomes, and 20% are mostly former white and currently multiracial, middle class schools that produce good outcomes. The quality of education delivered in

²³⁹ D. Lavin. ‘The Dilemma of Christian-National Education in South Africa’, *The World Today* 21 (10), 1965, pp. 428-438.

²⁴⁰ E. Nel & T. Binns, ‘Changing the Geography of Apartheid Education in South Africa’, *Geography* 84 (2), 1999, pp. 119-128.

²⁴¹ C. Suransky & J.C. Van Der Merwe, ‘Transcending apartheid in higher education: transforming an institutional culture’, *Race Ethnicity and Education* 19 (3), 2016, pp. 577-597.

²⁴² R. Ross, *A Concise History of South Africa*, 2008, p. 221.

South Africa, and the kind of teaching that students are subjected to, still bears the hallmarks of Apartheid education.²⁴³

The transition to majority rule in South Africa²⁴⁴ required an education system to address two major challenges. The first being to transform a system organized by race into a system in which race was no longer a criterion for selection, promotion, and academic success. The second was the transformation of a system designed to educate a small elite into a system that could provide quality education to all South Africans. These two transformations are intertwined and incomplete leaving a disabling legacy in education. Apartheid education created neither the institutional framework nor the quality of skilled and experienced personnel ready to address those transformations. An equally problematic result of Apartheid education was that it regularly sought to block critical reflections on alternative approaches to curriculum pedagogy and teacher education. This led to the democratic movement's intense efforts to explore alternatives and develop new strategies which were exciting and promising, but in practice have had far less impact on post-1994 education policy than what was anticipated.²⁴⁵

Thus, Apartheid left South Africa with high levels of inequality,²⁴⁶ but none more enduring than in education. The extreme human capital differentials can be seen as one of Apartheids "footprints in the sand of poverty and inequality", inequality in highly unequal middle-income countries often relates to the difference between the top decile and the rest and this reflects the gap in the slow and unequal progress in improving the level and quality of schooling. The considerable variations in educational quality may account for much of the residual differentials usually ascribed to labour market discrimination. This accentuates the importance of education in the long run. This is what the new democratic government have inherited, a situation of large-scale educational inequality whose effects are likely to remain pervasive for decades. The school system is perceived to be the

²⁴³ U. Hoadley, *Pedagogy in Poverty Lessons from Twenty Years of Curriculum Reform in South Africa*, 2018, pp. 1-239.

²⁴⁴ J. Samoff, *Bantu Education, People's Education, Outcomes-Based Education*, 2008, pp. 5.

²⁴⁵ E. Weber, *Educational Change in South Africa: Reflections on Local Realities, Practices, and Reforms*, 2008, pp. 1-40.

²⁴⁶ J.G. Hoogeveen & B. Özler, 'Not Separate, Not Equal: Poverty and Inequality in Post-Apartheid South Africa', William Davidson Institute Working Paper Number 739 January 2005

vehicle for transforming a greatly unequal society into a more egalitarian one, and it is against this objective that educational progress in South Africa should be measured.²⁴⁷

The general direction of education as embodied in the South African Schools Act of 1996, aimed at providing free, compulsory, and equal education,²⁴⁸ however there are exclusionary possibilities latent within it. The centre of the new state governance arrangements was that of decentralization. It argued that the way in which decentralization was implemented was by devolving authority and governance to schools, which provided racially and economically defined communities the legal means to preserve their privileges. Decentralization as a democratic project is about managing the country's heritage of difference and inequality that went with it.²⁴⁹

The South African Schools Act of 1996²⁵⁰ was passed with the specific intention of giving parents the decentralized responsibility of managing their children's schools through school governing bodies (SGBs). SGBs had the responsibility of promoting the best interests of the school by determining an access policy; adopting a mission statement that set out the goals and shared values of the school; adopting a code of conduct for learners at the school and recommending appointment of teachers at schools. In addition, all SGBs have the right to supplement their school's resources by levying school fees.²⁵¹ This provides opportunity for institutionalizing democratic structures and practices. If race segregation became a defining feature of schools in the Apartheid era, race integration became a defining feature of schools in the post-Apartheid era. It provided the basis for the reconstruction of schools in the image of non-racialism and the constitution forbade all forms of discrimination. The new government made provisions for the integration of

²⁴⁷ S. Van Der Berg, *Apartheid's enduring legacy: Inequalities in education*, Paper to Oxford University/University of Stellenbosch conference on *The South African Economic Policy under Democracy: A 10 year review*, Stellenbosch, 27-28, 2005.

²⁴⁸ P.J. Visser, 'Some Principles Regarding the Rights, Duties and Functions of Parents in Terms of the Provisions of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 Applicable to Public School', *Journal of South African Law*, 1997, pp. 626-636.

²⁴⁹ C. Meier & C. Hartell, 'Handling cultural diversity in education in South Africa', *SA- eDUC Journal* 6 (2), 2009, pp.180–192.

²⁵⁰ South African Schools Act 84 Of 1996.

²⁵¹ N. Van Wyk, 'School governing bodies: the experiences of South African educators', *South African Journal of Education* 24 (1), pp. 49 – 54.

schools, rewriting of curricula and textbooks and renewal of support structures in the management of the country's education.²⁵²

One more major difference with the democratic education is that peace is at the forefront of the new post-Apartheid educational policies, given South Africa's authoritarian and violent past. Corporal punishment is now officially banned in schools, democratic school governance structures including parent, staff, learners and non-teaching staff representation have been introduced in order to provide working experience of a new democracy. The change has been from engaging in rote learning, eventually writing tests on material learnt and merely just listening to the teacher to being active participants in a lesson so that they can raise concerns, views or opinions and coming up with new ideas. This demonstrates that at the core quality education includes freedom of expression for pupils.²⁵³

White Education

As mentioned above, the introduction of formal education in the late seventeenth century signified the first contact between three elements of the South African landscape, which is the settler, slave and the indigene.²⁵⁴ As indicated the first school established was a slave school created by van Riebeeck. The school was created with an emphasis on religiosity and the perpetuation of a religious order. The control of the school was in the hands of the church and questions such as what should be taught and who should teach was answered by the church.²⁵⁵ The first so-called white school was opened in 1663 and comprised mostly of white children with a token number of slaves and indigenes.²⁵⁶

²⁵² C. Meier & C. Hartell, 'Handling cultural diversity in education in South Africa', *SA- eDUC Journal* 6 (2), 2009, pp.180–192.

²⁵³ C. Harber & V. Mncubeis, 'Schooling good for the development of society?: the case of South Africa', *South African Journal of Education* 31, pp. 233-245.

²⁵⁴ R.R. Ireland, 'Education for What?: A Comparison of the Education of Black South Africans and Black Americans', *The Journal of Negro Education* 41 (3), 2020, pp. 227-240.

²⁵⁵ A. Kumar, 'A Synoptic View of Curriculum Studies in South Africa', *Journal of the American Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies* 6, 2010, pp. 1-17.

²⁵⁶ J.R. Maimane, 'Pupils' perceptions of teacher education practicum in the Free State secondary schools', Doctoral thesis. Vista University. 1999.

The British took over the Cape by 1806²⁵⁷ which brought forth the era of Colonial curriculum which was tied to the economic development of the region brought about by the discovery of diamonds in 1867 and gold in 1886. Economic development was characterized by rapid industrialization and state formation with the formation of the two Boer republics. These developments led to an increase in the rate of development of the “classical social groupings” of a modern capitalist economy which is the workers, middle-class, and capitalists.²⁵⁸ With the formation of the Union of South Africa in 1910, it became explicitly clear that the education of white children and black children were the responsibility of the state and the church, respectively.²⁵⁹ The Union in 1910, created a unified system of state control and provision for white education. Mission education was increasingly directed and financed by the provinces on inferior terms to those for an expanding white system.²⁶⁰

In one of the republic states, the Orange Free State, education for Whites was not well organized because the Voortrekkers were preoccupied with the Basotho problem in addition to the lack of finance. It was with the annexation of the territory by the British that things took a turn for the better especially when it came to education.²⁶¹ Sir George Grey, who was the Governor of the Cape at the time,²⁶² made a monetary grant on behalf of the British Government to the people of the Free State for the purpose of establishing a school in Bloemfontein. As a result of this, Grey College School was founded in 1859 with Rev. Andrew Murray as the first principal. In 1872 an education ordinance was enacted, which provided for the appointment of an inspector-general of education with the aim of putting things in order. Rev. John Brebner was appointed the first Inspector-General of education in 1874 with the task of bringing a new system to fruition. He found that through

²⁵⁷ Robson, L & Oranje, M, ‘Strategic Military Colonisation: The Cape Eastern Frontier 1806–1872’, *Scientia Militaria: South African Journal of Military Studies* 40 (2), pp. 46.

²⁵⁸ L. Chisholm, *Between Worlds: German missionaries and the transition from mission to Bantu Education in South Africa*, 2017, pp. 1-233.

²⁵⁹ A. Kumar, ‘A Synoptic View of Curriculum Studies in South Africa’, *Journal of the American Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies* 6, 2010, pp. 1-17.

²⁶⁰ L. Chisholm, *Between Worlds: German missionaries and the transition from mission to Bantu Education in South Africa*, 2017, pp. 1-233.

²⁶¹ J.R. Maimane, ‘Pupils’ perceptions of teacher education practicum in the Free State secondary schools’, Doctoral thesis. Vista University. 1999.

²⁶² C.G. Weldon, ‘The interaction between the missionaries of the cape eastern frontier and the colonial authorities in the era of Sir George Grey, 1854 – 1861’, Masters’ thesis, University of Natal, 1984.

touring the country that all educational systems were in shambles, buildings were derelict, attendance was irregular and language instruction was inadequate. This led to him using Greys College in Bloemfontein as a blueprint to apply to the Free State in order to resolve and better the quality of education received.²⁶³

White education prior to Apartheid developed almost in tandem to that of Africans in South Africa. Missionaries played a major role in educating the white population as prior to that they were taught by their parents and community due to more crucial developments taking place such as the Great Trek, South African War. Education was not a priority as they were trying to find a place of their own. There was some division between white people and Africans in missionary education, but it was not an overall rule. When the state became involved and wrestled away the total control over education that missionaries had, that is when the division between races deepened. It created the move to unequal resources distribution with the white schools receiving a bigger grant and better resources from the state. There was also a major push in bettering the quality of white education and increasing overall enrollment in schools that became mandatory, but with the white race receiving better quality and content at schools.

The divide became law and with the National Party coming into power all things Afrikaner were “celebrated” at the cost of every other race. Christian National Education was still taught at the time with the link between religion and education remaining strong but the major change for the rest of the country was the introduction of “Bantu Education” for Africans.²⁶⁴ The quality of white education remained the same with its authoritarian curriculum, which benefitted the white race tremendously in developing as a race, with their culture, traditions, language and religion. This was unlike “Bantu Education” that stunted an entire race, therefore stunting the entire country.

As shown, the post-democratic dispensation strove to rectify the inequalities inherent in education. The former divided white and black systems were to be amalgamated, but the residue of this deep division still persists. Two decades into democracy, challenges still

²⁶³ J.R. Maimane, ‘Pupils’ perceptions of teacher education practicum in the Free State secondary schools’, Doctoral thesis. Vista University. 1999.

²⁶⁴ D. Lavin, ‘The Dilemma of Christian-National Education in South Africa’, *The World Today* 21 (10), 1965, pp. 428-438.

remain within an education system that at many levels is failing the society it purports to serve. This detailed account of the history and development of a binary education system is critical to considering the current dilemma and the potential of tourism within the school curriculum.

Chapter 4:

Development and critique of curriculum

There are a variety of definitions in relation to the term “curriculum”. The indecisive nature of the term is owing to divided perceptions of stakeholders, e.g. students, educators, researchers, administrators, evaluators with their own agenda and emphasis in educational discourse.²⁶⁵ The lack of uniformity reflects on the complex nature of the concept of “curriculum” in its own right.²⁶⁶ It is therefore necessary to clarify the term curriculum, before any curriculum-related analysis of aspects such as curriculum planning, implementation, evaluation, and empirical studies can be undertaken. Several researchers or educators have shed light on what curriculum is through their reviews of, or critical comments on, this concept.²⁶⁷ This chapter also considers the variety of curriculums that have evolved in South Africa. While Apartheid adhered to one education doctrine, in post-Apartheid a number of curriculums have been implemented and revised. This context is essential to grasp the positioning and placement of tourism as a school subject in the post-democratic South Africa.

Goodson describes curriculum “as a multifaceted concept, constructed, negotiated and renegotiated at a variety of levels and in a variety of arenas”.²⁶⁸ Curriculum is also regarded as a historical accident, as it has not been deliberately developed to accomplish a clear set of purposes. It has rather evolved as a response to the increasing complexity of educational decision making.²⁶⁹ Curriculum can also be seen as a means of achieving specific educational goals and objectives.²⁷⁰ In this sense, a curriculum can be regarded as a checklist of desired outcomes. In curriculum development, generally speaking, the objectives are clear and specific in behavioral and observable terms. The emphasis on

²⁶⁵ M. Hismanoglu, ‘Heralding an ICT Environment in Initial EFL Teacher Training Programmes through a Curricular Innovation’, *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 1 (3), 2012, pp. 1-228.

²⁶⁶ A. Lewy, ‘National and school-based curriculum development’, 1991, pp. 1-127.

²⁶⁷ M. Hismanoglu, ‘Heralding an ICT Environment in Initial EFL Teacher Training Programmes through a Curricular Innovation’, *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 1 (3), 2012, pp. 1-228.

²⁶⁸ C.J. Marsh, ‘*Perspectives: Key Concepts for Understanding Curriculum*’, 1997, pp. 3.

²⁶⁹ M. Hismanoglu, ‘Heralding an ICT Environment in Initial EFL Teacher Training Programmes through a Curricular Innovation’, *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 1 (3), 2012, pp. 1-228.

²⁷⁰ J. Dewey, *The Nature of Curriculum*, 1902, pp. 3-5.

objectives is the characterization of an objective's curriculum model. In this sense, the focus is on the products or ends, and is also either teacher-orientated or administrative-orientated. If it is the latter, curriculum is set by politicians without consulting teachers and very few of the teachers feel any sense of "ownership" for the material they are compelled to teach.²⁷¹ Curriculum can either describe or prescribe the content and goals of formal instruction, but lays the means of instruction out of the foreground of focus.²⁷² A curriculum can also be seen as a plan, or a sort of blueprint for systematically implementing educational activities. A number of authors theorize that curriculum is "a plan for teaching instruction", or "a plan for a sustained process of teaching and learning" with a specific focus on content and the process of teaching and learning.²⁷³ This is of particular relevance to the later South African context with its chequered past.

Almost 20 years ago, Lawton (1975) made the controversial claim that curriculum, in its broadest sense, "constitutes a selection from a culture of a society".²⁷⁴ Drawing from his own experience in the British context, where he initially devoted his attention to the notion of a common culture. This led him to explore questions such as who selects from the culture and from whose culture the selection is made, with specific reference to the relationship between school curriculum and politics.²⁷⁵ This is a key observation in the context of the study.

The goal of a successful educational program, and thus effective curriculum development, should be to meet the needs and current demands of the culture, the society, and the expectations of the population being served. Thus, curriculum development and the educational reform process continually undergoes review, revision, and constant change. Curriculum development can thus be challenging, therefore the involvement of all

²⁷¹ M. Hismanoglu, 'Heralding an ICT Environment in Initial EFL Teacher Training Programmes through a Curricular Innovation', *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 1 (3), 2012, pp. 1-228.

²⁷² S. Su, 'The Various Concepts of Curriculum and the Factors Involved in Curricula-making', *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 3 (1), 2012, pp. 153-158.

²⁷³ M. Hismanoglu, 'Heralding an ICT Environment in Initial EFL Teacher Training Programmes through a Curricular Innovation', *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 1 (3), 2012, pp. 1-228.

²⁷⁴ R. Barnett, 'Knowing and becoming in the higher education curriculum', *Studies in Higher Education* 34 (4), 2009, pp. 429-440.

²⁷⁵ R. Barnett, 'Knowing and becoming in the higher education curriculum', *Studies in Higher Education* 34 (4), 2009, pp. 429-440.

stakeholders, especially individuals who are directly involved in student instruction, are a vital element in successful curriculum development and revision.²⁷⁶

Post-Apartheid education started with the creation of the South African Schools Act (1996)²⁷⁷ which legislated for compulsory education for learners from the year of their seventh birthday until the age of fifteen years or the ninth grade, or whichever occurs first.²⁷⁸ In addition to this, the Minister determined the ages of compulsory attendance at school for learners with special educational needs. This ensured that the rights of children are now protected, including those with special needs, by ensuring that seven years of primary education and a further two years in secondary school are compulsory.²⁷⁹ In secondary schools there will be provision for a further three years up to grade twelve. The structure of the new National Qualifications Framework (NQF) comprises eight qualification levels. Level 1 constitutes the General Education Certificate, which will be awarded after the acquisition of the required credits at the end of the compulsory schooling phase (pre-school plus 9 years to grade nine)²⁸⁰ or it may be awarded through Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET). Level 2-4 comprise:

- senior secondary school program up to grade 12;
- general and specific programs offered in the college sector;
- programs offered in regional training centers such as through workplace training.²⁸¹

The NQF model was designed to shape South Africa's education and training system for the future.²⁸² The main intention was to provide for the end of segregation between education and training, which could be effected by integrating academic and vocational

²⁷⁶ M.A. Alsubaie, 'Curriculum Development: Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development', *Journal of Education and Practice* 7 (9), 2016, pp.106-107.

²⁷⁷ South African Schools Act 84 of 1996.

²⁷⁸ T.G. Lebona, 'The implementation of inclusive education in primary schools in the Lejweleputswa Education District', Masters' thesis, Central University of Technology, Free State, 2013.

²⁷⁹ South African Schools Act 84 of 1996.

²⁸⁰ R. Van Huyssteen, 'The Introduction of the South African National Qualifications Framework: A Brief Overview, with Reference to Higher Education', University of Cape Town, 2002, pp.3-8.

²⁸¹ L. Lomofsky & S. Lazarus, 'South Africa: First steps in the development of an inclusive education system', *Cambridge Journal of Education* 31 (3), 2001, pp. 303-317.

²⁸² SAQA, 'Towards assessment of the impact of the South African National Qualifications Framework (NQF) data and information highlights from the 2014 study', 2016, pp. 1-88.

curricula to prepare learners for the world of work. The issue of integration in education in South Africa can also be seen at another level by moving away from a segregated special education system into an integrated system where special needs and support services shift from the periphery to becoming more centrally infused into general education. The emerging government policy was based on international guidelines that provided the overall framework for policy developments in inclusive education in South Africa. The relevant government initiatives within South Africa include:

- The White Paper on Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa (1995)
- The South African Schools Act (1996)
- The White paper on an Integrated National Disability Strategy (1997)
- The National Commission on Special Educational Needs and Training and the National Committee on Education Support Services (1997)
- The White paper 6: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System (2001)

The White paper on Education and Training (1995) introduced the following:

- Culture of Teaching and Learning (COLTS) which aims to restore respect for diversity, the culture of teaching and learning which has been severely eroded in schools²⁸³
- National Qualifications Framework (1995), designed to give recognition to prior knowledge and the concept of life-long learning. This integrated approach to education and training aimed to build a just, equitable and high quality system.
- Outcomes Based Education (OBE) was designed to respond to diverse learners needs and has been declared national policy in South Africa. This system is based on a belief that all learners can achieve success and, instead of encouraging learners to conform, their individuality is respected. In contrast to the traditional curriculum, OBE develops teachers' capacities to respond to the diversity in learners' styles and rates of learning. In accommodating a diversity of learners

²⁸³ Z.F. Nhlabathi, 'The Application of Viable System Model (VSM) in the context of establishing, maintaining and restoring a Culture of Learning, Teaching and Service (COLTS) in a school: An Organizational setting', Masters' thesis, University of Natal. 2001.

needs, OBE is inclusive by nature and focuses on the processes necessary for learners to achieve the desired outcomes. The Continuous Assessment System policy forms an integral part of this curriculum.

- The New Language Policy includes the recognition of 12 official languages, including Sign Language.²⁸⁴

Thus, the development and implementation of a Constitution for South Africa after 1994 made it clear that there would have to be a new curriculum model for schools. The curriculum would have to reflect the appropriate values and principles of

a prosperous, truly united, democratic and intentionally competitive country with literate, creative and critical citizens leading productive, self-fulfilled lives in a country free of violence, discrimination and prejudice.²⁸⁵

A new curriculum, based on these criteria, was to be implemented in the same manner by teachers in all public schools across South Africa. Teachers therefore needed to be trained and empowered to implement a curriculum that was based on the philosophy of outcome-based education.²⁸⁶

Surprisingly, aside from contributions made by Jansen (1999) there has been virtually no debate on the historiography of the curriculum in South Africa.²⁸⁷ Scholars such as Muller (1996) and Fataar (2006) have begun mapping out the intellectual terrain of the sociology of education and education policy, while D. Christiaans has commented on the origin of curriculum studies making the observation at the point of the unveiling of the formal education project, there was only one script, and that was the Western one.²⁸⁸ However the history of the field of curriculum studies has not systematically been examined.

²⁸⁴ L. Lomofsky & S. Lazarus, 'South Africa: First steps in the development of an inclusive education system', *Cambridge Journal of Education* 31 (3), 2001, pp. 303-317.

²⁸⁵ V. Gumede & M. Biyase, 'Educational reforms and curriculum transformation', *Environmental Economics* 7 (2), 2016, pp.69-76.

²⁸⁶ D.J. Christiaans, 'Empowering teachers to implement the Life Orientation learning area in the Senior Phase of the General Education and Training Band', Masters' thesis, University of Stellenbosch, 2006.

²⁸⁷ W.F. Pinar, *Curriculum Studies in South Africa*, 2010, pp. 1-249.

²⁸⁸ D.J. Christiaans, 'Empowering teachers to implement the Life Orientation learning area in the Senior Phase of the General Education and Training Band', Masters' thesis, University of Stellenbosch, 2006.

As the nature of South African society changes over the period of its colonial and modern history, and the contradictions of education take effect, the understanding and nature of the possibilities and contradictions within this script of dominance considerably complicates this process.²⁸⁹ In relation to the reality is that the character of the country's basic social contradictions has been shifting profoundly over its 350 year long history, where it is caught in the struggle between modernity and tradition, those of both Europe and the colonized world. When the Dutch came to South Africa in the middle of the seventeenth century, for example, the process of separation of church and state was not yet complete. As a result there are various power struggle dynamics that are evident in South Africa's history.²⁹⁰ Education as an ontological and epistemological question, was and still is, in the context of the evolving colonial landscape, a violent process involving the fundamental displacement of local knowledges and local identities. While these knowledges and identities never completely disappear and continue to manifest themselves right up to the present, the thrust of early colonialism is to delegitimize them and has to a degree persisted.²⁹¹

Thus, a curriculum can be summed up as the offering of socially valued knowledge, skills and attitudes made available to students through a variety of arrangements during the time they are at school.²⁹² Effective teaching can be defined as teaching that successfully achieves the learning by pupils or scholar intended by the teacher. The vision that emerged for post-Apartheid education was to integrate education and training into lifelong learning and so learning in South Africa embarked on radical educational reform, which was justified by the continuous change in curriculum policy systems since 1997.²⁹³

The outline of the curriculum change is as follows: Curriculum 2005 being introduced in 1997; Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) in 2002; National Curriculum

²⁸⁹ C. Harber & V. Mncube, 'Is schooling good for the development of society?: the case of South Africa', *South African Journal of Education* 31, 2011, pp. 233-245.

²⁹⁰ W.F. Pinar, *Curriculum Studies in South Africa*, 2010, pp. 1-249.

²⁹¹ W.F. Pinar, *Curriculum Studies in South Africa*, 2010, pp. 1-249.

²⁹² H. Timperley et al, *Teacher Professional Learning and Development: Best Evidence Synthesis Iteration*, New Zealand: Ministry of Education, 2007, pp. 1-282.

²⁹³ W.F. Pinar, *Curriculum Studies in South Africa*, 2010, pp. 1-249.

Statement (NCS) in 2007 and Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) which was introduced in 2012.²⁹⁴

Christian National Education (CNE)

The early inception of Afrikaner education can be traced back to the 1600s when it was minimal and by the 1800s it was still in the hands of parents and the church.²⁹⁵ The Anglo-Boer War/South African War (1899-1902) between the British and the Afrikaner ancestors resulted in disgruntlement among the Afrikaner being opposed to the British system of education because they saw it as a way of alienating them from their own cultural practices. Once the National Party Apartheid came into power, the Afrikaners then decided to establish their own schools based on Christian National Education (CNE).²⁹⁶ In article 15 of the CNE policy of 1948 the basis of Apartheid education is explained as follows:

We believe that the calling and task of White South Africa with regards to the native is to Christianize him and help him on culturally, and that this calling and task has already found its nearer focusing in the principles of trusteeship, no equality and segregation. We believe besides that any system of teaching and education of natives must be based on the same principle. In accordance with these principles we believe that the teaching and education of the native must be grounded in the life and worldview of the Whites most especially those of the Boer nation as senior White trustee of the native.²⁹⁷

The above objectives of education established by Afrikaner nationalists is very similar to those of the missionaries, where they both politicized education and so it is apparent that

²⁹⁴ E.O. Adu & N.C.P. Ngibe, 'Continuous Change in Curriculum: South African teachers' Perceptions, *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences* 5 (23), 2014, pp. 983-989.

²⁹⁵ E.O. Damons, Religious education in South African public schools: Opportunities and problems, Masters' thesis, University of Pretoria, 2016.

²⁹⁶ V. Msila, 'From Apartheid Education to the Revised National Curriculum Statement: Pedagogy for Identity Formation and Nation Building in South Africa', *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 16(2), 2007, pp. 146 – 160.

²⁹⁷ Y.I. Eshak, 'Authority in Christian National Education and Fundamental Pedagogics', Masters' thesis, University of Witwatersrand, 1987.

the use of religion played a role in both instances. Apartheid education was a practice of maintaining the status quo and of preserving the master-servant relationship between the whites and the Africans.²⁹⁸ In the white schools in South Africa, the government policy in the past included various “educational programs” where the young students would be indoctrinated in what was referred to as “veld schools” (literally translated as “bush schools”).²⁹⁹ The CNE principles on education for the Africans were declared as a way of maintaining the black South Africans in a permanent state of political and economic subordination.³⁰⁰ The education system had been an obvious instrument of control to protect power and privilege. Apartheid education not only separated white children from black children, but it also divided white children into separate camps. The black learner did not only feel the damaging effects of the CNE, as it was detrimental and destructive to the white learner as well.³⁰¹

Thus, the Christian National Education values and beliefs had their genesis in the history of Afrikaner nationalism, concerned with the Afrikaner’s struggle for linguistic, religious, and national survival.³⁰² Although CNE existed for several decades prior to 1948, it reached its zenith when the National Party came into power and introduced its policy of Apartheid. According to the policy education for Blacks should have the following features: education should be in their mother tongue; not be funded at the expense of White education; by implication, not prepare Blacks for equal participation in economic and social life. It however did try and push the view that it was preserving the cultural identity of the “Native” although it was forcing Christianity and enforcing the necessity of it being organized and administered by Whites.³⁰³ As H. Giliomee indicates, there was an extremely racist and paternalistic ideology behind the introduction of CNE to other races,

²⁹⁸ P. Christie, ‘Right to Learn: the struggle for education in South Africa’, *The International Journal of African Historical Studies* 21 (1), 1991, pp. 1-65.

²⁹⁹ V. Msila. ‘From Apartheid Education to the Revised National Curriculum Statement: Pedagogy for Identity Formation and Nation Building in South Africa’, *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 16 (2), 2007, pp. 146 – 160.

³⁰⁰ M.F. Rakometsi, *The transformation of black school education in South Africa 1950-1994: A historical perspective*, Masters’ thesis, University of the Free State, 2008.

³⁰¹ V. Msila. ‘From Apartheid Education to the Revised National Curriculum Statement: Pedagogy for Identity Formation and Nation Building in South Africa’, *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 16 (2), 2007, pp. 146 – 160.

³⁰² M. Cross, ‘Culture and identity in South African Education, 1880-1990’, Doctoral thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, 1994.

³⁰³ W.F. Pinar, *International handbook of curriculum research*, 2014, pp.1- 535.

especially the Black race.³⁰⁴ The paternalistic element can be seen in articles 14 and 15 of the CNE entitled ‘Coloured Teaching and Education’ and ‘African (Bantu) Teaching and Education’ respectively.³⁰⁵ Black education is seen as the responsibility of ‘white South Africa’, or more specifically of the “Boer nation as the senior white trustee of the native”, who is in a state of “cultural infancy”.³⁰⁶ These statements are seen as a bit contradictory as they are putting themselves in charge of “raising up the native” whilst in policy and in reality, they are using measures to oppress them. In essence this educational policy was serving the final blow in the upliftment, empowerment and basic equality of the black race.³⁰⁷

Christian National Education was a way to bring every sphere of life under the rule of Christ. Although the intention behind the CNE was the preservation of Calvinism, it became identified with the survival of the Afrikaner people and, therefore, became “a factor in the development of Apartheid”.³⁰⁸ CNE strongly affected the drafting of the curricula and syllabuses for religious education in state schools.³⁰⁹

CNE curriculum content placed a strong emphasis on mother tongue education and the only medium of instruction, except in teaching other modern languages.³¹⁰ This can be linked to the CNE Nationalist identity and preserving the Afrikaner identity through mother tongue instruction. History was taught to include such facts as the Creation, the Fall, the Incarnation, the Life and Death of Christ, the Second Coming and the End of the World. In sum history must be seen as the struggle between the “Kingdom of God and the Empire of Darkness”.³¹¹ It was said in the manifesto that young people can only truly undertake the national task fruitfully if they acquire a true vision of the origin of the nation and of the

³⁰⁴ H. Giliomee, ‘The Making of the Apartheid Plan, 1929-1948’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29 (2), 2003, pp. 373-392.

³⁰⁵ E. Pratt, ‘Education and change: quality or equality?’, Masters’ thesis, University of Cape Town, 1988.

³⁰⁶ W.F. Pinar, *International handbook of curriculum research*, 2014, pp.1- 535.

³⁰⁷ W.F. Pinar, *International handbook of curriculum research*, 2014, pp.1- 535.

³⁰⁸ J.M. Hofmeyr, ‘An examination of the influence of Christian National on the principles underlying white and black education South Africa: 1948 – 1982’, Masters’ thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, 1982.

³⁰⁹ M.C. Kitshoff, ‘The role of religious education in building a nation in multiethnic South Africa’, *Religious Education* 89 (3), 1994, pp.313-337.

³¹⁰ T.D. Moodie, *The Rise of Afrikanerdom Power, Apartheid and the Afrikaner Civil Religion*, 1975, p. 219.

R.G. Macmillan, ‘Christian National Education’, *A Journal of Social and Political Theory* 28,1967, pp. 43-56.

³¹¹ D. Lavin, ‘The Dilemma of Christian-National Education in South Africa’, *The World Today* 21 (10), 1965, pp. 428-438.

direction of the national heritage. It was held that science should be expounded in a positively Christian light and contrasted with the non-Christian sciences. The manifesto regarding Coloured and African education was on the basis of Apartheid and a notion of trusteeship with the principles of non-equality, trusteeship and segregation centered. It was aimed at the inculcation of the “white man’s” view of life, especially that of the Boer nation, who were ‘the senior trustee’, it also declared that “only when he is Christianized can the Coloured be truly happy”.³¹² It was believed that both Africans and Coloureds are independent groups and their education could not be financed at the expense of white education. Those are just some of the readings of the manifesto that became the blueprint for Nationalist Government and with CNE serving as a supporter of Apartheid and its ideologies.³¹³

CNE ideology and its syllabus in retrospect easily leaves itself open to criticism, especially in the year 2020. It had its basis rooted deeply in religion, in particular in Christianity which left no room for any other religious freedom of others. It assisted in the creation of “Bantu Education” for non-whites, which was based on similar ideals, but of less quality and less financing rendered it simply inferior.³¹⁴ CNE was greatly centered around mother-tongue education as it was creating the ideals of Afrikanerdom, hence “Bantu Education” was also focused on mother-tongue instruction which did not have the same unifying effect.³¹⁵ As regards to the teaching style of this curriculum, it was that of rote learning where the teacher instructs and the learner memorizes. There was no room in this curriculum for learners’ own interpretations and the focus was on the teacher as the instructor.³¹⁶ This educational stance dominated for over a half century and thus a priority of the post-democratic dispensation was to rectify this travesty.

³¹² I. Robertson & P. Whitten, *Race and Politics in South Africa*, 1978, p.107.

³¹³ D. Lavin, ‘The Dilemma of Christian-National Education in South Africa’, *The World Today* 21 (10), 1965, pp. 428-438.

³¹⁴ M.W. Leleki, ‘A critical response of the English speaking churches to the Introduction and Implementation of Bantu Education Act in South Africa’, Doctoral thesis, University of Pretoria, 2014.

³¹⁵ E.S. Van Eeden & L.M. Vermeulen, ‘Christian National Education (CNE) and People’s Education (PE): Historical perspectives and some broad common grounds’, *New Contree* 50, 2005, pp. 177-205.

³¹⁶ V. Msila, ‘From Apartheid Education to the Revised National Curriculum Statement: Pedagogy for Identity Formation and Nation Building in South Africa’, *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 16 (2), 2007, pp. 146–160.

Outcome-Based Education (OBE) and Curriculum 2005 (C2005)

Outcomes Based Education does not have a single historical legacy as some trace its roots to behavioral psychology associated with B.F. Skinner, whilst others link it to the mastery learning espoused by Benjamin Bloom and others associate it with the curriculum objectives of Ralph Tyler. Another claim is that OBE derives from the competency education model associated with vocational education in the United Kingdom. However, in South Africa, it appears that the most immediate origins of OBE are in the competency debates followed in Australia and New Zealand which sparked training and development discussions in the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), which then appeared in the National Training Strategy Initiative and was subsequently crystallized in the National Qualifications Framework (NQF).³¹⁷

Outcomes Based Education and Recognition of Prior Learning initially first entered the consciousness of most South African educators in the 1990s.³¹⁸ The unbanning of political movements since 1992 found labor organizations, especially the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), particularly well prepared with proposals for the overhaul of education and training.³¹⁹ These proposals were rooted in human capital theory, and were pragmatic rather than revolutionary and this came to form the foundation for African National Congress (ANC) policy development. Policy makers were responding to economic and political imperatives in order to develop a more skilled and flexible workforce which led in the direction of overseas models of integrated education and training systems. This line of thinking was given more weight by international bodies such as the World Bank and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, which proposed vocationally orientated, national education and training systems based on a competency education model.³²⁰

³¹⁷ J.D. Jansen. 'Curriculum Reform in South Africa: a critical analysis of outcomes-based education', *Cambridge Journal of Education* 28 (3), 1998, pp. 321 – 331.

³¹⁸ G.Z. Dykes, 'Recognition of prior learning (RPL) and support: are the learning needs of RPL first-year students different?', *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk* 45(3), 2009, pp.314-326.

³¹⁹ G. Cretchley & J. Castle, 'OBE, RPL and adult education: good bedfellows in higher education in South Africa?', *International Journal of Lifelong Education* 20 (6), 2001, pp. 487-501.

³²⁰ G. Cretchley & J. Castle, 'OBE, RPL and adult education: good bedfellows in higher education in South Africa?', *International Journal of Lifelong Education* 20 (6), 2001, pp. 487-501.

The idea of competency or outcomes-based education systems were already widespread in many industrialized countries ³²¹ which is why South Africa followed the path set by some developed countries, in particular those of the United Kingdom, New Zealand and Australia.³²²

February 1995 saw the Education White Paper on Education Training being gazetted by the Department of Education. This document can be seen as the first official government framework aimed at overhauling the entire system of education in line with the new Constitution (1996).³²³ As mentioned, the framework recommendations reinforced four key educational rights guaranteed by the South African Constitution where everyone has the right to: basic education; equal access to education institutions; choice of language of instruction where reasonable and practicable; and establish institutions based on a common culture, language and religion, provided that there shall be no discrimination on the grounds of race (South African Constitution 1996).³²⁴ The goal of education was now seen as uplifting individuals so that they may contribute to the development of the economy and society, which in turn, can lead to the development of previously marginalized individuals and communities.³²⁵ In this sense, the emphasis is also on the development of the individual rather than just transforming society. The White Paper on Education and Training (1996) refers on numerous occasions to the development of the individual and the capacity of individuals to become critical thinkers.³²⁶

OBE and Recognition of Prior Learning was introduced in South Africa to improve the coherence and quality of education and training, and to broaden access to them, with all

³²¹ M.C. William, A comparative analysis of Outcomes Based Education in Australia and South Africa, Masters' thesis, University of South Africa, 2000.

³²² G. Cretchley & J. Castle, 'OBE, RPL and adult education: good bedfellows in higher education in South Africa?', *International Journal of Lifelong Education* 20 (6), 2001, pp. 487-501.

³²³ T.G. De Waal, Curriculum 2005: challenges facing teachers in historically disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape, Masters' thesis, University of the Western Cape, 2004.

³²⁴ M. Fakier & Y. Waghid, 'On Outcomes-Based Education and creativity in South Africa', *International Journal of Special Education* 19 (2), 2004, pp.53-63.

³²⁵ T.D Thobejane, Education in Post-Apartheid South Africa: towards liberation or equity?, Doctoral thesis, Graduate School of the University of Massachusetts Amherst, 2005.

³²⁶ M. Fakier & Y. Waghid, 'On Outcomes-Based Education and creativity in South Africa', *International Journal of Special Education* 19 (2), 2004, pp.53-63.

the economic and social benefits this may bring.³²⁷ These programs are both associated with the discourse of lifelong learning and open access to learning, both formally in institutional settings and informally. Outcomes-based education has its roots in American pragmatism, in a desire for a rational model of curriculum planning that would result in improved learning and teaching.³²⁸ OBE specifies beforehand what learners should be able to do at the end of a course of study and departs from traditional models of education in which learners cover a set syllabus in a fixed period of time.³²⁹ OBE is a movement or philosophy, rather than a coherent set of theories and may be interpreted broadly or narrowly in curriculum.³³⁰ In South Africa OBE is not limited to behaviorist concepts of visible performance, but includes knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which underlie performance.³³¹

On the 24th of March 1997 the then Minister of Education announced the launch of Curriculum 2005.³³² Although the process to C2005 started a number of years earlier, it was planned to continue at least till the year 2005 with teacher input. Many citizens, educators and politicians saw this legislation as one of the most controversial changes in the history of South African education and the most significant curriculum reform in South African history.³³³ It was deliberately intended to simultaneously overturn the legacy of Apartheid education and replace it with a transformational OBE which was seen as more radical. As the first major curriculum statement of a democratic elected government, it signaled a dramatic break from the past, and a move away from limited interests of a particular group at the expense of another.³³⁴ It was seen as the first step in transforming

³²⁷ R. Blom., B. Parker & Keevy, J, The recognition of non-formal and informal learning in South Africa Country Background Report prepared for the OECD Thematic Review on Recognition of Non-Formal and Informal Learning, 2007, pp. 1-95.

³²⁸ J.L. Stark, 'The Potential of Deweyan-Inspired Action Research', *Education and Culture* 30 (2), 2014, pp. 87-101.

³²⁹ G. Cretchley & J. Castle, 'OBE, RPL and adult education: good bedfellows in higher education in South Africa?', *International Journal of Lifelong Education* 20 (6), 2001, pp. 487-501.

³³⁰ R. Killen, 'Outcomes-Based Education: principles and possibilities', Faculty of Education, University of Newcastle, Australia, 2012, pp.1-24.

³³¹ G. Cretchley & J. Castle, 'OBE, RPL and adult education: good bedfellows in higher education in South Africa?', *International Journal of Lifelong Education* 20 (6), 2001, pp. 487-501.

³³² B.M. Malan, 'Curriculum 2005: Transformation and Outcome-Based Education', Doctoral thesis, Rand Afrikaans University, 2001.

³³³ R.J. Botha, The Introduction of a System of OBE in South Africa: Transforming and Empowering a Marginalized and Disenfranchised Society. Annual Meeting of the Comparative and International Education Society, 2002.

³³⁴ W. Spady, N.d, It's Time to End the Decade of Confusion about OBE in South Africa, pp. 1-11.

and empowering a disenfranchised and marginalized society. In sum, it would bridge all and encompass all, with education and training, content and skills, values and knowledge: all would find a place in Curriculum 2005.³³⁵

The OBE model was chosen, accepted and introduced because the emphasis in the new Curriculum 2005 was specifically on aspects such as problem-solving, creativity and, most importantly, the acquisition of skills and attitudes that will “aim at producing thinking, competent future citizens”.³³⁶ In this way Curriculum 2005 was regarded as a possible cure for the lack of quality in South African education, as long as it was implemented in a realistic manner, giving schools and teachers ownership of both the content of the curriculum and the process of implementation. In short, the new system was seen as both ambitious and visionary, but not always realistic in what could be achieved in a short span of time. Despite the overall optimism regarding the new curriculum, South African education was slowly awakening to the fact that the political ideals seldom match classroom realities. The most dramatic evidence of this realization came in the form of the Chisholm Report of the Curriculum 2005 Review Committee which created a potential political crisis for a government that had made such a huge investment in that ideology.³³⁷

The reality was that there were some major problems with the implementation process of the new curriculum, which included the inadequate training received by teachers to teach in an outcome-based manner³³⁸ and the lack of financial resources to train these teachers efficiently and effectively. The essence of these solutions was that the curriculum needed to be created/based on South Africa, rather than imported in order to make the training of teachers easier and that a long term implementation strategy involving a series of smaller

³³⁵ R.J. Botha, *The Introduction of a System of OBE in South Africa: Transforming and Empowering a Marginalized and Disenfranchised Society*. Annual Meeting of the Comparative and International Education Society, 2002.

³³⁶ M.R. Molapo, *How educators implement curriculum changes*, Masters' thesis, University of Pretoria, 2016.

³³⁷ R.J. Botha, *The Introduction of a System of OBE in South Africa: Transforming and Empowering a Marginalized and Disenfranchised Society*. Annual Meeting of the Comparative and International Education Society, 2002.

³³⁸ D.J. Christiaans, *'Empowering teachers to implement the Life Orientation learning area in the Senior Phase of the General Education and Training Band*', Masters' thesis, University of Stellenbosch, 2006.

steps needed to be devised, rather than what was the roll out strategy for Curriculum 2005.³³⁹

The deployment of Curriculum 2005 and the criticism it received from across the educational and political spectrum led to its revision in 2000.³⁴⁰ The studies into Curriculum 2005 underscored deep skepticism about its efficiency as an appropriate conceptual platform for curriculum renewal. This criticism was acknowledged by the state through the controversial appointment in 2000 of a review process that led to an extensive revision of the curriculum³⁴¹ and the introduction of the Revised National Curriculum Statement of 2000.

Revised National Curriculum Statements (RNCS)

The Review Committee of 2000 recommended that strengthening the curriculum required streamlining its features and simplifying its language through the production of an amended National Curriculum Statement.³⁴² It further recommended that this Revised National Curriculum Statement should reduce the curriculum design features from eight to three: Critical and developmental outcomes; learning outcomes; and assessment standards.³⁴³ The whole concept of the Revised National Curriculum Statement, is that it is not a new curriculum, but a streamlining and strengthening of Curriculum 2005.³⁴⁴ It keeps intact the principles, purposes and thrust of Curriculum 2005 and affirms the commitment to outcomes-based education. The introduction of the Revised National Curriculum Statement Grade R-9 in the Foundation phase was planned for 2004. The Revised National Curriculum Statement released in 2002 introduced several important

³³⁹ R.J. Botha, The Introduction of a System of OBE in South Africa: Transforming and Empowering a Marginalized and Disenfranchised Society. Annual Meeting of the Comparative and International Education Society, 2002.

³⁴⁰ L. Chisholm, 'The Politics of Curriculum Review and Revision in South Africa'. Paper Presented at the 'Oxford' International Conference on Education and Development, 2003, pp. 1 – 14.

³⁴¹ A. Fataar, Policy networks in recalibrated political terrain: the case of school curriculum policy and politics in South Africa, *Journal of Education Policy* 21 (6), pp. 641-659.

³⁴² V.M. Molepo, 'Implementation of the curriculum and assessment policy statements in selected primary schools in Limpopo Province', Masters' thesis, University of South Africa, 2014.

³⁴³ S. Vandeyar & R. Killen, 'Has curriculum reform in South Africa really changed assessment practices, and what promise does the revised National Curriculum Statement hold?', *Perspectives in Education* 21 (1), 2003, pp. 119-134.

³⁴⁴ O.L. Mosala, 'Problems encountered by educators regarding the implementation of the national curriculum statement in mathematics', Masters' thesis, Central University of Technology Free State, 2011.

changes to proposed assessment practices in schools. The most significant change was a shift from criterion-referenced assessment that was recommended in C2005 to a form of standards referenced assessments.³⁴⁵ The system was intended to operate as follows: In each Learning Area in each phase of schooling there was to be a set of outcomes that define what learners are expected to achieve. These phase outcomes provide a direct link to OBE principle of clarity of focus.³⁴⁶

For each grade of schooling, there was a set of assessment standards that define the levels of knowledge, skills and attitudes that learners will be required to demonstrate as evidence that they have achieved each phase outcome to an appropriate depth and breadth.³⁴⁷ This means that in each phase the outcome remains the same from grade to grade while assessment standards change from grade to grade. These standards are grade specific and describe how the understanding of concepts are meant to progress in each Learning Area. This change to describing intended learning in each phase in terms of progressing standards, rather than changing outcomes had important implications for teaching and assessment. Teachers were being encouraged to think of outcome attainment as a continuum of possibilities, rather than as a dichotomy.³⁴⁸

Teachers (or educators) are no longer being asked to put learners into categories of achieved or not achieved for each outcome, but are rather required to think how well each learner has achieved each outcome. It strengthens Curriculum 2005 idea that assessment can actually help students to learn, thus it should be seen as a “refinement” rather than a “new direction”.³⁴⁹

There is a general lack of understanding about the interrelationship between Outcome-Based Education (OBE), C2005 and the Revised National Curriculum Statement

³⁴⁵ S. Vandeyar & R. Killen, ‘Has curriculum reform in South Africa really changed assessment practices, and what promise does the revised National Curriculum Statement hold?’, *Perspectives in Education* 21 (1), 2003, pp. 119-134.

³⁴⁶ T.L Lizer, *The Impact of the Curriculum Change in the Teaching and Learning of Science: A Case Study in Under-resourced Schools in Vhembe District*, Masters’ thesis, University of South Africa, 2013.

³⁴⁷ E. Rooth, *An investigation of the status and practice of Life Orientation in South African schools in two provinces*, Doctoral thesis, University of Western Cape, 2005.

³⁴⁸ S. Vandeyar & R. Killen, ‘Has curriculum reform in South Africa really changed assessment practices, and what promise does the revised National Curriculum Statement hold?’, *Perspectives in Education* 21 (1), 2003, pp. 119-134.

³⁴⁹ S. Vandeyar & R. Killen, ‘Has curriculum reform in South Africa really changed assessment practices, and what promise does the revised National Curriculum Statement hold?’, *Perspectives in Education* 21 (1), 2003, pp. 119-134.

(RNCS).³⁵⁰ There is a tendency to perceive the three as different and distinct entities. This stems from the belief that the transformation of education in South Africa followed the pattern of “from OBE to C2005 to the RNCS”, and that this movement or shift is exclusive in the sense that each step in this chain or progression is totally new and independent of the previous one. Though it might seem as if it is separate curriculum, there is actually no paradigm shift from OBE to C2005 to RNCS. The paradigm is the same, namely that which is based on the outcomes approach to education and training. The evolutionary sequence from OBE to C2005 is based on the rationale to apply OBE in a way that is relevant to the South African situation and the evolutionary sequence between C2005 to the NCS or the RNCS is based on augmenting/filling the gaps realized in the implementation of C2005.³⁵¹

National Curriculum Statement (NCS)

The National Curriculum Statement is one of the major education projects of a post-Apartheid South Africa, which involved the defining of a new national curriculum³⁵² that responds to the history of marginalization and discrimination of the Apartheid regime’s education system. In 1996, with its background in racism, sexism and unequal opportunities in the education system, the government embarked on the defining of a National Curriculum Statement (NCS). A key feature of this process has been the explicit normative framing of values and principles aimed at fostering democracy, social change and socio-ecological justice. The 2002 National Curriculum Statement principles state that the curriculum can play a vital role in creating awareness of the relationship between human rights, a healthy environment, social justice and inclusivity. South Africa’s National Curriculum Statement was recontextualized and appropriated at the level of classroom planning and practice.³⁵³

³⁵⁰ K. Van Deventer, ‘Perspectives of teachers on the implementation of Life Orientation in Grades R–11 from selected Western Cape schools’, *South African Journal of Education* 29, pp. 127-145.

³⁵¹ T. Pudi, ‘From OBE to C2005 to RNCS’: Are we still on track?, *Africa Education Review* 3 (1-2), 2006, pp. 100-105.

³⁵² M. Schafer & D. Wilmot, ‘Teacher education in post-apartheid South Africa: Navigating a way through competing state and global imperatives for change’, *Prospects* 42, 2012, pp. 41–54.

³⁵³ H. Lotz-Sisikta & I. Schudel, ‘Exploring the practical adequacy of the normative framework guiding South Africa’s National Curriculum Statement’, *Environmental Education Research* 13 (2), 2007, pp. 245-263.

If one looks at the National Curriculum statement booklet of 2004, it contains policy statements for learning and teaching. These statements explain how teaching should be done in terms of the objectives, outcomes and assessments standards. It provides guidance to teachers on what they need to teach each grade of learners. The National Curriculum Statement, was a refined version of outcome-based education.³⁵⁴ The NCS for Grade 10-12 (General) represented a policy statement for learning and teaching in schools located in the Further Education and Training (FET) band.³⁵⁵ This document stipulates policy on curriculum and qualifications in Grade 10-12 and is comprised of several documents which need to be read together. These documents include: Overview document; the Qualifications and Assessment Policy Framework; and the Subject Statement. The Overview describes the philosophical underpinning of the curriculum and explains why it was necessary to replace C2005. The Qualification and Assessment Policy Framework is aimed at providing a mechanism through which learner achievement of the FET exit level Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards were recognized at schools, provincial and national levels. This document outlined the requirements and rules for the award of the Further Education and Training Certificate (FETC). The NCS stipulated Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards and also spelt out the values that underpin the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa.³⁵⁶

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS)

The Revised National Curriculum Statement was reviewed and brought with it the introduction of CAPS.³⁵⁷ CAPS was announced in 2010 and was not considered a new curriculum, but a revision of RNCS. CAPS is considered an adjustment of *what* is taught

³⁵⁴ T. M. Badugela, 'Problems facing educators in implementing the national curriculum statement: the case of Tshifhena Secondary School, Vhembe District, Limpopo Province, South Africa', Masters' thesis, University of South Africa, 2012.

³⁵⁵ N.N.C. Phelokazi, 'Teachers' experiences regarding the national curriculum statement implementation in the Mthatha District, Eastern Cape, South Africa', Masters' thesis, Walter Sisulu University, 2013.

³⁵⁶ T.M. Badugela, 'Problems facing educators in implementing the national curriculum statement: the case of Tshifhena Secondary School, Vhembe District, Limpopo Province, South Africa', Masters' thesis, University of South Africa, 2012.

³⁵⁷ L.R. Maharajh., T. Nkosi & M. Mkhize, Comfort Teachers' Experiences of the Implementation of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) in Three Primary Schools in KwaZulu Natal, N.d, pp.371-388.

rather than *how* it is being taught.³⁵⁸ The four main concerns that contributed to the revision of NCS were:

- Issues with implementation of NCS
- Overburdening teachers with administration
- The differences in interpretation of the curriculum requirements
- Underperformance of learners

The crux of the matter was that it was discovered that a large number of pupils could not read or write, therefore the curriculum was not serving them and had to be reviewed. The values of OBE are however to remain, but the manner in which the outcomes would be obtained was in review.³⁵⁹ The changes made to RNCS attempted to relieve teachers and schools of some of the challenges experienced under RNCS.³⁶⁰ The report created by the review recommended that:

- Syllabi be developed for implementation in 2011
- Discontinue the use of portfolios from 2010
- Reduce the number of learning areas in the Intermediate Phase
- Emphasize the use of the language English as possible for the majority of learners
- Require only one file for administrative purposes from teachers
- Clarify the role of subject advisors
- Reduce the number of projects required by learners³⁶¹

The policy has the ability to bring about significant change in teaching and learning and have a positive effect on learner achievement. CAPS provided professional development

³⁵⁸ E. Du Plessis, 'Reflections on the NCS to NCS (CAPS): Foundation phase teachers' experiences'. *The Independent Journal of Teaching and Learning* 10, 2015, pp. 1-142.

³⁵⁹ G. Moodley, 'Implementation of the curriculum and assessment policy statements: challenges and implications for teaching and learning', Masters' thesis, University of South Africa, 2013.

³⁶⁰ S.P. Phakathi, 'The challenges of curriculum changes in teaching Economic and Management Sciences in schools in the Umhlathuze Circuit', Masters' thesis, University of Zululand, 2018.

³⁶¹ G. Moodley, 'Implementation of the curriculum and assessment policy statements: challenges and implications for teaching and learning', Masters' thesis, University of South Africa, 2013.

programs in order to improve the quality of teachers.³⁶² This was with the hope that in order to have a positive influence on the quality of learners' achievement, and the overall performance of the education system, can be improved by improving the quality of teachers through these programs.³⁶³ The Continuous Professional Development program (CPD) trained teachers and monitored and evaluated the practices of the trained teachers in their role in implementing the new teaching strategies.³⁶⁴

In sum, post-Apartheid South Africa called for swift action in order to right the injustices that Apartheid brought with it. This was the reasoning behind the creation of OBE which at the time was a glimmer of hope for the education system.³⁶⁵ Although research was done on OBE before it was introduced in schools, no thought was given to how context-based curriculum had to be in shaped order to successfully serve the community it is placed in. A learner centered and resource intensive curriculum could not succeed in a country with such vast inequalities where in more affluent schools it flourished whilst it failed in many of the poorer schools, which deepened the divide. It was thus quickly followed by C2005, RNCS and finally what is currently in known as CAPS. The issue with curriculum is that it needs to include input from all stakeholders to ensure that it is meeting the needs of the industry it is aimed at and most importantly it needs to be constantly monitored and reviewed so that there is deeper understanding in shortcomings. It also makes it easier to identify issues earlier and resolve it, rather than only taking note when there are a number of learners or schools that are failing under the given curriculum. It is such a complex and multifaceted, system but carries the future of the country on its back that it should be shown that importance.

³⁶² G. Nkambule & C. Amsterdam, 'The realities of educator support in a South African school district', *South African Journal of Education* 38 (1), 2018, pp. 1-11.

³⁶³ T. Phasha., K. Bipath & J. Beckmann, 'Teachers' Experiences Regarding Continuous Professional Development and the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement', *International Journal of Educational Sciences* 14 (1,2), 2016, pp. 69-78.

³⁶⁴ R. Davies & M. Preston, 'An evaluation of the impact of continuing professional development on personal and professional lives', *Journal of In-service Education* 28 (2), pp. 231-254.

³⁶⁵ S.M. Allais, 'Why the South African NQF Failed: Lessons for Countries Wanting to Introduce National Qualifications Frameworks', *European Journal of Education* 42 (4), 2007, pp. 523 – 547.

Another issue is the theory behind the curriculum versus the practicality of it being implemented in schools. This links to the idea that curriculum needs to be context-based rather than just basing it on the ideals desired for the country. Chapter 5 will look deeper into this by giving a glimpse of the context that tourism finds itself in schools internationally and nationally.

Chapter 5:

Introduction of tourism in schools: International and national

This chapter considers the place of tourism in the school curriculum. It is divided into three key sections traversing a range of countries in both the global North and the global South. The first section considers a selection of international domains: Colombia, Croatia, Canada and New Zealand. The second turns to a selection of countries in Africa and southern Africa, and the last turns to South Africa. This chequered sampling provides an interesting cross section of tourism within the school domain, before considering the South African situation.

Tourism is an activity which cuts across conventional sectors in the economy.³⁶⁶ It requires the inputs of an economic, social, cultural and environmental nature. In this sense it is often referred to as being multi-faceted and multi-disciplinary or as J. Tribe describes it, an “indiscipline” of tourism.³⁶⁷ Tourism as an industry does not have the usual formal production function, nor does it have an output which can be physically measured,³⁶⁸ unlike agriculture which has a measurable output such as tons of wheat and others. There is no common structure which is representative of the industry in every country. An example of this would be that in France and Italy restaurants and shopping facilities appear to be major attractions, while in Russia they are comparatively not. The core components of the tourism industry, such as accommodation and transport, can vary drastically from country to country. In the UK many tourists use bed-and-breakfast accommodation in private houses, meanwhile in Thailand such facilities are not available. This varies with the transport sector depending on the levels of car ownership and developed road networks as several tourists use their own cars or take buses or the underground train in Western Europe and the USA.³⁶⁹

³⁶⁶ Anon, 2010, OECD Tourism Trends and Policies 2010, Tourism 2020: Policies to Promote Competitive and Sustainable Tourism, <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/docserver/tour-2010-4-en.pdf?expires=1603804503&id=id&accname=guest&checksum=BB3DF0988FA1C7D96F0C6BFA47C1DF3D>. accessed: August 2020.

³⁶⁷ J. Tribe, ‘The indiscipline of tourism’, *Annals of Tourism Research* 24 (3), 1997, pp. 638-657.

³⁶⁸ R. Baggio, ‘Symptoms of complexity in a tourism system’, *Tourism Analysis* 13 (1), 2008, pp. 1-31.

³⁶⁹ B. Lubbe, ‘*Tourism Distribution: Managing the Travel Intermediary*’, 2000, pp. 1-377.

It is the problem with this definition that caused many scholars to refer to the “tourist sector” rather than the “tourist industry”.³⁷⁰ Scholars from a broad range of disciplines have had an interest in defining tourism,³⁷¹ although no uniform single concept or definition of it exists.³⁷² “The International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism consider tourism as the sum of phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents”,³⁷³ in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected with any earning activity.³⁷⁴

As indicated, tourism is an ever-expanding service industry with vast growth potential³⁷⁵ and therefore is a crucial concern nationally and internationally for countries at large and specific communities. It has come up as a decisive link in gearing up the pace of the socio-economic development world over.³⁷⁶ Travel and Tourism is the world’s largest industry, providing over 195 million jobs worldwide.³⁷⁷ Thus in sum, tourism as a phenomenon means the movement of people, it also means different things to different people because it is an abstraction of a wide range of consumption activities which demands products and services from a wide range of industries in the economy.³⁷⁸

As pointed out in Chapter 2, there is very little accessible literature available on tourism in schools, particularly internationally. While there are a few articles, they mainly focus on tourism as a vocational qualification for school leavers or tourism as an additional

³⁷⁰ L.J. Lickorish & C.L. Jenkins, ‘An introduction to tourism’, 1997, pp. 1-242.

³⁷¹ E. Laws & N. Scott, ‘Tourism research: building from other disciplines’, *Tourism Recreation Research* 40 (1), 2015, p. 2.

³⁷² K. Wilson, ‘Market/industry confusion in tourism economic analyses’, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25 (4), 1998, pp. 803-817.

³⁷³ S.I. Papadopoulos, ‘The tourism phenomenon: An examination of important theories and concepts’, *The Tourist Review* 41 (3), 1986, pp. 2-11.

³⁷⁴ K. Wilson, ‘Market/industry confusion in tourism economic analyses’, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25 (4), 1998, pp. 803-817.

³⁷⁵ S. Kumar & R.H. Taxak, ‘Job Satisfaction among Female Professionals Working in Travel and Tourism Business: A Case Study of National Capital Region’, *International Journal of 360 Management Review* 5 (2), 2017, pp. 1-14.

³⁷⁶ Anon, N.d. Chapter I Tourism: Concept and Types of Tourism, https://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/49791/8/08_chapter%201.pdf, access: August 2020.

³⁷⁷ W.F. Theobald, ‘*Global Tourism: Third Edition*’, 2005, pp. 1-559.

³⁷⁸ Anon, N.d. Chapter I Tourism: Concept and Types of Tourism, https://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/49791/8/08_chapter%201.pdf, access: August 2020.

program taught in schools. The syllabus and rationale for the introduction of tourism as a school subject has not received adequate attention.

Tourism education was increasingly being introduced as a subject in formal education curricula³⁷⁹ because of the increasing and significant economic contribution of the tourism industry to the private and public sectors.³⁸⁰ Enrolments in tourism and hospitality programs at global higher education institutions have rapidly increased. Although it has been argued that tourism as a subject suffers from relatively poor performance because it largely attracts weaker students and consequently produces graduates who struggle to find suitable employment. In some countries there has been a shift from research orientated education towards a more business and vocationally oriented curricula. A crucial aspect evident in the literature is that effective tourism education at different levels should be relevant to its context. That is, the cultural, economic, political and social environment should be prudently and sensibly considered. This is especially relevant in emerging economies in Asia and Africa, where tourism education is becoming increasingly popular.³⁸¹

International

In 1953 UNESCO introduced the “UNESCO Associated Schools Network” initiative. Its objective was to train young people to critically reflect on various contemporary issues, some of them related to the tourism sector, such as the importance of cultural exchanges as well as the significance of sustainable development.³⁸² This was done through projects seeking to get young people ready for the challenges the planet would face in the near future be they environmental, social or cultural.³⁸³ This was implemented in a few

³⁷⁹ A. Adukaite., I. Van Zyl., E. Sebnem & L. Cantoni, ‘Teacher perceptions on the use of digital gamified learning in tourism education: The case of South African secondary schools’, *Computers & Education* 111, 2017, pp. 172-190.

³⁸⁰ N. Wakelin-Theron, ‘Employability development in Higher Education institutions: a tourism student perspective’, *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure* 3 (1), 2014, pp.1-16.

³⁸¹ A. Adukaite., et al, ‘Teacher perceptions on the use of digital gamified learning in tourism education: The case of South African secondary schools’, *Computers & Education* 111, 2017, pp. 172-190.

³⁸² Anon, 2020. UNESCO Associated Schools Network, 2020, <https://en.unesco.org/news/education-sustainable-development-unesco-associated-schools-national-coordinators-share>. access: September 2020.

³⁸³ N.B. I Gardella, ‘Promoting tourism education in elementary and secondary schools: An experience from Colombia’, *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 26, 2020, pp. 1-5.

countries around the world, one of them being Colombia. This section also considers a selection of other countries that followed in this direction as a result of the UN network while others emerged independently thereof.

In 2005, Colombia developed a separate program or a vocational course offered in secondary schools and implemented in willing schools by the Minister of Tourism. Essentially the program promoted tourism and hospitality education in primary and secondary schools in Colombia. This program had its roots in UNESCO's program.³⁸⁴ In view of this program, the National Director of the Colombian Tourism Department, Mr. Gustavo Toro tasked himself with laying out the development of the "Schools for Tourism Program" which was initially called "Tourism Schools Program".³⁸⁵ This took place at a time when the national authorities identified domestic tourism as an important source of income and used the opportunity to educate the receptive communities and their younger residents. This project pilot was directed at eight schools located in different parts of the country. An interdisciplinary team of teachers and trainers with experience in infant, basic and secondary education took up the challenge and piloted the program. The pilot phase of the program ran until 2010 and from then onwards it has extended to other schools across the country.³⁸⁶

In Colombia this program is run under the supervision of an advisory body appointed by the Colombian Vice Ministry of Tourism. A school wanting to join the program has the freedom to develop the project, whilst the implementation and consolidation of the program's advancement is overseen by the Vice Ministry. Local schools and their communities may design a specific direction, which can be aimed towards culture, business, ecotourism, religion and health. It can be adjusted in order to meet the local area's characteristics. This reflects Colombia's relatively flexible approach to teaching as

³⁸⁴ N.B. I Gardella, 'Promoting tourism education in elementary and secondary schools: An experience from Colombia', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 26, 2020, pp. 1-5.

³⁸⁵ N. Bassols, 'Promoting Tourism Education in Elementary and Secondary Schools: an experience from Colombia', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 2020, pp.1-10.

³⁸⁶ N. Bassols, 'Promoting Tourism Education in Elementary and Secondary Schools: an experience from Colombia', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 2020, pp.1-10.

far as the curriculum in compulsory education is concerned. The country encourages schools to offer locally relevant curricula and activities.³⁸⁷

This allows the program to retain relevancy by allowing local knowledge and understanding to foster a knowledge and appreciation of the students' surroundings so that they become aware of the importance and impact of the tourism sector on their communities. The program's primary goals are firstly to make the participants love their environment, and secondly, to nurture in them an interest in the tourist processes which might apply to their native environments. While this program was started by the Colombian national government in 2005, it has since 2010 been endorsed by many regions. The legal framework supporting this initiative is the current national laws that allows schools to be free to opt in or out based on their willingness to participate. Technical support is given by the Ministry to the schools wanting to take part in the program in order to modify curricula and train teachers, but also to decide what to teach and which projects to carry out in order to assist their community needs.

The schools in Colombia also decide what grades take part in the program. The younger grades (5-8 year old) program generally focuses more so on cultural environment and awareness, while the programs aimed at the older grades (last two years of high school) are more tourism intensive serving to provide skills for those leaving high school and joining the workforce.³⁸⁸ Although the program run in Colombia is not a National curriculum subject, it offers a flexible and context based program that allows it to meet the needs of the area in which it finds itself.

Croatia is also a country that relies heavily on tourism to contribute to its economy.³⁸⁹ The effective implementation of the tourism sector is evident in the fact that currently Croatia

³⁸⁷ N. Bassols, 'Promoting Tourism Education in Elementary and Secondary Schools: an experience from Colombia', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 2020, pp.1-10.

³⁸⁸ N.B. I Gardella, 'Promoting tourism education in elementary and secondary schools: An experience from Colombia', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 26, 2020, pp. 1-5.

³⁸⁹ I. Štoković & L. Škuflić, 'Demand Function for Croatian Tourist Product: A Panel Data Approach', *Modern Economy* 2, 2011, pp. 49-53.

has a total of 17 vocational secondary schools³⁹⁰ (high school) for jobs in hospitality and tourism.³⁹¹ A few of these schools provide a four-year education (technical programs) for hotel and tourism technicians, and tourism and hotel sales officers, while others provide three-year education (crafts and industrial programs) for waiters, chefs and pastry-chefs. The schools also provide special programs or programs created for gaining secondary school (high school) qualifications or semi-skilled qualifications for pupils with developmental difficulties, as well as two-year programs for semi-skilled qualifications. Of the total number of schools, 89 are public and four are private schools.³⁹²

Formal education in the field of tourism in Croatia, is offered at the secondary vocation level (3 year and 4 year program),³⁹³ the higher education level programs, university programs, graduate (masters) and postgraduate (specializations and doctorates). The development of the secondary vocational education program is the responsibility of the Agency for Vocational and Adult Education. Higher education programs for tourism are the responsibility of higher education institutions whilst the Agency for Science and Higher Education is only responsible for the accreditation of these programs. The Agency for Vocational and Adult Education is the main state organization involved in development of the system of adult education and lifelong learning.

There is however no comprehensive strategy on development of tourism education and training. More recently, the Croatian Tourism Development Strategy 2020 stated the need for an education and training system that promptly responds to sector needs. This requires a more active role for employers in formal education and lifelong learning.³⁹⁴ This

³⁹⁰ V. Galičić, 'Tourism in Croatia: truths and misconceptions', *Informatol* 48, 2015, pp.78- 94.

³⁹¹ T. Baldigara., V. Galičić & M. Laškarin, 'Secondary school education for the needs of tourism and hospitality in Croatia – analysis of present state and proposals for improvement', University of Rijeka, Croatia, N.d, pp. 191-202.

³⁹² T. Baldigara., V. Galičić & M. Laškarin, 'Secondary school education for the needs of tourism and hospitality in Croatia – analysis of present state and proposals for improvement', University of Rijeka, Croatia, N.d, pp. 191-202.

³⁹³ Anon, 2016. Agency for Vocational Education and Training and Adult Education. Vocational education and training in Europe – Croatia. Cedefop Refer Net VET in Europe reports, http://libserver.cedefop.europa.eu/vetelib/2016/2016_CR_HR.pdf. access: August 2020.

³⁹⁴ Anon, Mapping and performance check of the supply side of tourism education and training Country Report for Croatia, Centre for Strategy and Evaluation Services and EPRD Office for Economic Policy and Regional Development, 2016, pp. 1- 27.

ongoing commitment to tourism and vocational training points to the importance Croatia regards the role of tourism education.

Canada also has a vibrant tourism economy.³⁹⁵ In 1994, 1 291 200 Canadians worked in tourism-related occupations. It is also evident that there is currently a keen focus on tourism in their education sphere. The Department of Education in collaboration with school boards and other partners in education, business, industry, the community and the government developed a variety of new tourism related courses.³⁹⁶

In the province of Nova Scotia, the statistics show that more than 32 000 Nova Scotians are employed in the tourism industry. This region believes that tourism can offer Nova Scotian students numerous opportunities for job entry and career advancement. The local Education department, in partnership with the Halifax Regional School Board, the Cape Breton-Victoria Regional School Board and industry partners, designed a curriculum intended to increase awareness of these opportunities and to develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to embark on a career in tourism. The course focuses on industry awareness, career-planning skills, employability skills, in-depth knowledge of the eight tourism sectors and tourism planning and development. Students apply and expand their learning in community or workplace settings through job shadowing, field trips and work experience.³⁹⁷

Learning experiences have a strong “applied” focus with an emphasis on integrating, applying and reinforcing learning in other courses.³⁹⁸ One such course is the Tourism 11 curriculum which presents a unique opportunity to take learning beyond the classroom into the community and workplace.³⁹⁹ It is an innovative multidisciplinary course. The

³⁹⁵ D. Theckedath, 2014. ‘Canada’s Tourism Economy In Brief’, Parliament of Canada: Library of Parliament, https://lop.parl.ca/sites/PublicWebsite/default/en_CA/ResearchPublications/201474E. accessed: September 2020.

³⁹⁶ Anon, 2019. Tourism 11, Prepared by the Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, https://curriculum.novascotia.ca/sites/default/files/documents/outcomes-indicators-files/Tourism%2011%20Outcomes%20%282015%29_0.pdf. accessed: August 2020.

³⁹⁷ J. Burke et al., ‘*Tourism 11*’, 2000, pp. 1-107.

³⁹⁸ Anon, N.d. Nova Scotia, Tourism 11, <https://curriculum.novascotia.ca/fr/node/397>. access: September 2020.

³⁹⁹ J. Burke et al., ‘*Tourism 11*’, 2000, pp. 1-107.

importance of tourism can be seen in Nova Scotia as the program offered in schools is hoped to expose students to a tourism career as well as giving them practical skills in order to assist in employability in the industry.

In the twenty-first century, the tourism sector has become New Zealand's number one export earner with it contributing 17.4 percent to the total exports of goods and services. In addition, the sector directly employs 8.4 percent of New Zealand's workforce and a further 6.1 percent are directly employed. Due to the importance of hospitality and tourism to both the national economy and local communities, one would expect that a potential career in the industry would be something for a young person to aspire to.⁴⁰⁰ However, in New Zealand there is still a relatively poor perception as regards a career in hospitality and tourism.⁴⁰¹ This stems from the delivery of hospitality and tourism education in New Zealand secondary schools where it appears as a secondary or "soft option".⁴⁰² In the New Zealand secondary school curriculum, secondary students gain New Zealand's Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) by working towards a combination of achievement or unit standards.⁴⁰³ The Ministry of Education is the only developer of achievement standards, which are derived from achievement objectives of the New Zealand Curriculum.⁴⁰⁴

The unit standards of the curriculum are developed by industry training organizations. Hospitality and tourism are both deemed to be vocational rather than academic subjects in the NCEA structure and are delivered as unit standards. In the list of approved subjects for University Entrance (UE) only subjects that are delivered as achievement standards

⁴⁰⁰ H. Andreassen, 'Hospitality and tourism as a subject in secondary schools: A worthwhile choice or a 'dumping ground'?', *Hospitality Insights* 2 (1), 2018, pp. 1-2.

⁴⁰¹ P. Edwards, 'Perceptions of careers in the tourism industry', Auckland Tourism, Events and Economic Development (ATEED) and Tourism Industry NZ Trust (with Tourism Industry Aotearoa (TIA), 2018, pp. 1-130.

⁴⁰² K.L. Bamford, 'Undergraduate student perceptions of a career in the tourism and hospitality industry in New Zealand, Masters' thesis, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand, 2012.

⁴⁰³ R. Hipkins, 'NCEA one decade on Views and experiences from the 2012 NZCER National Survey of Secondary Schools', *New Zealand Council for Educational Research*, 2013, pp. 1-99.

⁴⁰⁴ T.J. Crooks, 'Educational Assessment in New Zealand Schools', *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice* 9 (2), 2002, pp. 237-253.

are eligible, hence the direction of hospitality and tourism was removed.⁴⁰⁵ Therefore although, students are often introduced to the study of hospitality and tourism at secondary school and therefore their perceptions of a potential career in tourism is formed at an early stage, there is the downside.⁴⁰⁶ Their perceptions are influenced by factors such as the position that studying hospitality and tourism does not prepare students for higher education as effectively as other subjects. This might be due to the fact that it does not count as a subject for university exam entrance. Criticisms of the subject as a secondary school subject include that the curriculum lacks both serious and relevant content and academic strictness. There is also the belief that hospitality and tourism classes are used as a “dumping ground”⁴⁰⁷ for the less academically able students. The attitudes of teachers, career advisors, school management and parents play a significant role in how the subject is perceived.⁴⁰⁸

Thus, although tourism is seen as important in New Zealand⁴⁰⁹ it has not been fully integrated into the secondary school curriculum in a way that it matters. This allows it to be perceived as not carrying the same weight as other subjects such as, geography and math which is a problem apparent in other countries as well.⁴¹⁰

Africa

As is evident in Chapter 3, education in Africa has a long history. Much of it during the early colonial period was dominated by the missionaries. Later on, under the various colonial dispensations, the different colonial authorities used education to control and, in some cases, to manipulate the colonial subjects into subordination. However, in the

⁴⁰⁵ H. Andreassen, ‘Hospitality and tourism as a subject in secondary schools: A worthwhile choice or a ‘dumping ground’?’, *Hospitality Insights* 2 (1), 2018, pp. 1-2.

⁴⁰⁶ M.D. Roberts, et al., ‘Tourism Education in New Zealand’s Secondary Schools: The Teachers’ Perspective’, *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education* 30 (1), 2018, pp. 1-13.

⁴⁰⁷ H. Andreassen, ‘Hospitality and tourism as a subject in secondary schools: A worthwhile choice or a ‘dumping ground’?’, *Hospitality Insights* 2 (1), 2018, pp. 1-2.

⁴⁰⁸ H. Andreassen, ‘Hospitality and tourism as a subject in secondary schools: A worthwhile choice or a ‘dumping ground’?’, *Hospitality Insights* 2 (1), 2018, pp. 1-2.

⁴⁰⁹ C.M. Hall & R. Piggin, ‘Tourism business knowledge of World Heritage sites: A New Zealand case study’, *International Journal of Tourism Research* 4, 2002, pp.1-11.

⁴¹⁰ H. Andreassen, ‘Hospitality and tourism as a subject in secondary schools: A worthwhile choice or a ‘dumping ground’?’, *Hospitality Insights* 2 (1), 2018, pp. 1-2.

postcolonial period, many of the independent African regimes opted to change the education system and align it with the local economic requirements. In many cases, this meant a movement away from a cognitive or academic education to a more practical or vocational education. This was mostly in order to alleviate high unemployment rates and poverty.

Tanzania was one of the first African countries to do away with colonial education.⁴¹¹ Lesotho did likewise as did Botswana and South Africa. This development is consistent with other global and African curricular reforms.⁴¹²

Since Lesotho's independence in 1966, their education system had been using an examination-oriented curriculum⁴¹³ and can be described as a "pen and paper activity" characterized by small-scale practical work by learners to fulfil examination requirements.⁴¹⁴ In 2009, Lesotho underwent a process of curriculum change that resulted in the adoption of an integrated curriculum.⁴¹⁵ An "integrated curriculum" facilitates the transfer of learning that includes the carry-over of knowledge, skills, habits and attitudes between and among subjects as a result of social interaction between teachers and learners from different disciplines and backgrounds.⁴¹⁶ The core of the integrated curriculum addresses the active construction of knowledge by learners from many perspectives, because it is "learner centered". The integrated curriculum that was created was as a response to transform its colonial education after independence.⁴¹⁷ As is evident in Chapter 4, this is similar to what happened in South Africa as a response to

⁴¹¹ E.L. Wandela, 'Tanzania Post-Colonial educational system and perspectives on secondary science education, pedagogy, and curriculum: a qualitative study', Doctoral thesis, DePaul University, 2014.

⁴¹² M. Nhlapo., B. Moreeng & M. Malebese, 'Challenges Facing Implementation of an Integrated Tourism Curriculum: The Experiences of Teachers in Lesotho', *Journal of Education and Practice* 10 (5), 2019, pp.92-101.

⁴¹³ K.G. Kaphe, 'Managing curriculum change: a study of six secondary schools in Maseru, Lesotho', Masters' thesis, University of South Africa, 2017.

⁴¹⁴ B. Moreeng., M. Nhlapo & M.L. Malebese, 'Fostering an integrated tourism education curriculum in Lesotho: A community participation approach', *Journal of Education* 79, 2020, pp. 81-94.

⁴¹⁵ M.D. Nhlapo & L.R. Maharajh, 'Engaging Foreign Curriculum Experts in Curriculum Design: A Case Study of Primary School Curriculum Change in Lesotho', *Universal Journal of Educational Research* 5 (10), 2017, pp.1744.

⁴¹⁶ M. Raselimo & M. Mahao, 'The Lesotho curriculum and assessment policy: Opportunities and threats', *South African Journal of Education* 35 (1), 2015, pp. 1-12.

⁴¹⁷ R. Mutebi, 'The readiness of Lesotho High Schools management teams to implement the curriculum and assessment policy of 2009', Masters' thesis, University of the Free State, 2019.

alleviating the negative impacts left by the Apartheid education system. The 2009 integrated curriculum is seen as guiding the 1995 localization process, through making education relevant by responding to Lesotho's current development needs.⁴¹⁸

The localization process was an announcement made in 1995 by the Lesotho government to take charge and control all activities and responsibilities over curriculum development and assessment. The focus being on the relevance and appropriateness of curriculum to Lesotho's educational and development needs.⁴¹⁹ The introduction of tourism in Lesotho's context would not have been possible without the implementation of the integrated curriculum that called for creative, productive and hand-on skills for learners that also required those skills be utilized to solve practical life challenges.⁴²⁰ The 2009 integrated curriculum is therefore meant to be a departure from colonial education, which emphasized cognitive skills and was geared towards white-collar jobs; introducing a more vocational orientated education to align with the market and job creation.⁴²¹

According to the Lesotho Ministry of Education and Training, every opportunity to relate theory to outside work should be exploited as this will play a role in emancipating learners from poverty. This is done through methods and approaches that encourage creativity, productivity and entrepreneurship.⁴²² Thus, implication for tourism education is that it should be taught from an interactive and learner-centered ⁴²³ approach with the emphasis on vocational aspects in order to equip learners with creative, practical, productive and

⁴¹⁸ B. Moreeng., M. Nhlapo & M.L. Malebese, 'Fostering an integrated tourism education curriculum in Lesotho: A community participation approach', *Journal of Education* 79, 2020, pp. 81-94.

⁴¹⁹ M. Raselimo & M. Mahao, 'The Lesotho curriculum and assessment policy: Opportunities and threats', *South African Journal of Education* 35 (1), 2015, pp. 1-12.

⁴²⁰ N. Ansell & C. Dungey, 'Not All of Us Can Be Nurses': Proposing and Resisting Entrepreneurship Education in Rural Lesotho', *Sociological Research Online*, 2020, pp.1-19.

⁴²¹ B. Moreeng., M. Nhlapo & M.L. Malebese, 'Fostering an integrated tourism education curriculum in Lesotho: A community participation approach', *Journal of Education* 79, 2020, pp. 81-94.

⁴²² B. Moreeng., M. Nhlapo & M.L. Malebese, 'Fostering an integrated tourism education curriculum in Lesotho: A community participation approach', *Journal of Education* 79, 2020, pp. 81-94.

⁴²³ S. Aynalem, et al., 'Students' Preference for the Various Teaching Methods in Tourism Courses: A Case of Tourism Management Department, Madawalabu University', *Journal of Tourism & Hospitality* 4 (4), 2015, pp. 1-5.

entrepreneurial skills, so that they achieve self-reliance through solving real-life problems.⁴²⁴

In 2009 it was decided that tourism should form part of the integrated curriculum. It was introduced as a fully-fledged subject in Lesotho in 2011.⁴²⁵ As with most developing countries that have added tourism as a subject or aspects of tourism to an existing subject, it is done in the belief that tourism can assist in untapping economic potential through capitalizing on its tourism industry. Tourism is said to be an enterprise that offers the immediate practical benefits of improving the lives of learners.⁴²⁶ Therefore, tourism education is offered in schools and in institutions of higher learning based on the fact that tourism activities contribute significantly to the economy of a country and that tourism can create employment opportunities.⁴²⁷ This all means that tourism is seen as playing a considerable role in the national development of the country. What is important to note is that in Lesotho tourism as a subject enjoys the same status as geography, history and development studies. The reason for this was, like these other subjects, it was initially perceived as an academic subject and not a vocational one. Tourism is one of the subject's learners can elect for university entrance, so its status is high.⁴²⁸

The 2011 introduction of tourism in Lesotho was also in order to increase the number of vocational subjects offered by high schools, that offered hands-on skills to create learners that can be self-employed and self-reliant during and after their studies.⁴²⁹ Tourism was piloted in nine high schools from 2011 to 2016. In 2017 the subject of tourism was rolled

⁴²⁴ M. Raselimo & M. Mahao, 'The Lesotho curriculum and assessment policy: Opportunities and threats', *South African Journal of Education* 35 (1), 2015, pp. 1-12.

⁴²⁵ M. Nhlapo, 'Fostering self-reliance through integrated tourism curriculum: a community participation approach', Doctoral thesis, University of the Free State, 2018.

⁴²⁶ B. Moreeng., M. Nhlapo & M.L. Malebese, 'Fostering an integrated tourism education curriculum in Lesotho: A community participation approach', *Journal of Education* 79, 2020, pp. 81-94.

⁴²⁷ S. Jugmohan & A. Giampiccoli, 'Community-based Tourism Development: A Possible Educational Gap', *Anthropologist* 30 (1), 2017, pp. 52-60.

⁴²⁸ B. Moreeng., M. Nhlapo & M.L. Malebese, 'Fostering an integrated tourism education curriculum in Lesotho: A community participation approach', *Journal of Education* 79, 2020, pp. 81-94.

⁴²⁹ C. Selepe, 'Curriculum Reform in Lesotho: Teachers' conceptions and Challenges', Masters' thesis, University of Witwatersrand, 2016.

out to 13 additional high schools, bringing the total to 22.⁴³⁰ A number of recent studies have appeared that critique both positively and negatively the effectiveness of tourism teaching with regards to using the integrated curriculum approach in Lesotho.⁴³¹ One study found that teachers ignore the message and intentions of the 2009 integrated curriculum, and continue teaching tourism as an academic subject, and reject the demands and aspirations of the 2009 integrated curriculum. It was also found that by learners taking part in practical aspects of tourism, with the assistance of community members, it improved the learners' understanding of tourism as a vocational subject. It also improved the acquisition of practical, productive and entrepreneurial skills, which enabled the learners to use tourism to generate income.

It is believed that the issue regarding tourism not being taught more as a practical subject might be due to the ongoing debate regarding whether it is a pure discipline or a vocational subject. These debates pose challenges regarding the concept and definition of tourism, and impact on it as a teaching subject.⁴³²

It must be kept in mind that tourism is a young subject⁴³³ which gives way to numerous debates which can lead to uncertainty regarding how it should be taught in schools. The research on this shows that the teachers that teach tourism as if it is an academic subject, do so because their teacher training institutions have not yet covered the methods and approaches of teaching tourism. The second challenge noted regarding the effective teaching of tourism in Lesotho schools is the lack of relevant textbooks and libraries to augment the tourism teaching/learning process. The integrated curriculum is also another challenge, as skill-based and project-based learning approaches are not being

⁴³⁰ B. Moreeng., M. Nhlapo & M.L. Malebese, 'Fostering an integrated tourism education curriculum in Lesotho: A community participation approach', *Journal of Education* 79, 2020, pp. 81-94.

⁴³¹ N.C. Khechane., M.C. Makara & A.M. Rambuda, 'Primary Mathematics Teachers' Assessment Practices in the Context of the Integrated Primary Curriculum in Lesotho', *African Journal of Research in Mathematics, Science and Technology Education* 24 (1), pp. 41-52.

⁴³² M. Nhlapo, 'Fostering self-reliance through integrated tourism curriculum: a community participation approach', Doctoral thesis, University of the Free State, 2018.

⁴³³ D.K. Comic, 'Tourism as a subject of philosophical reflection', *The Tourist Review*, 1989, pp. 1-13.

incorporated in the teaching and development of skills due to the lack of school resources required to practice these skills.⁴³⁴

Tourism, as indicated countless times, has been identified as a key source of economic development and diversification in many developing countries.⁴³⁵ However, research indicates that many of these countries are unable to leverage this potential due to a lack of human resource capacity within the tourism industry. One of the developing countries to try and capitalize on this is Botswana. The country is largely reliant on the diamond industry and recognized a need for economic diversification and sustainable development.⁴³⁶

Tourism is the second largest contributor to Botswana's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and hence its economy and is a major source of revenue and economic diversification.⁴³⁷ Tourism is viewed as a catalyst for job creation, sustainable economic development particularly in remote rural areas⁴³⁸ and was key to achieving some of the objectives of Botswana's then "Vision 2016".⁴³⁹ There is therefore an opportunity and need for enlightened and committed tourism professionals in Botswana to provide a high-quality service in the tourism industry. It is believed by the Botswana government that providing more effective tourism education programs through secondary education can help to fulfil this human resource need in the tourism industry. As the tourism industry grew and evolved, educators started to redefine tourism education to include skills necessary for

⁴³⁴ M. Nhlapo, 'Fostering self-reliance through integrated tourism curriculum: a community participation approach', Doctoral thesis, University of the Free State, 2018.

⁴³⁵ T. Mihalic, *Tourism and Economic Development Issues*, 2014, pp. 77-117.

⁴³⁶ J. Van Wyk, 'Double diamonds, real diamonds: Botswana's national competitiveness', *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal* 14 (2), 2010, pp. 55-76.

⁴³⁷ K. Velempini & B. Martin, 'Place-based education as a framework for tourism education in secondary schools: A case study from the Okavango Delta in Southern Africa', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 25, 2019, pp. 1-10.

⁴³⁸ A. Makochekanwa, 'An analysis of tourism contribution to economic growth in SADC Countries', *Botswana Journal of Economics*, 2013, pp. 42-56.

⁴³⁹ K. Osei-Hwedie, 'Poverty Eradication in Botswana: Towards the Realisation of Vision 2016', *Pula: Botswana Journal of African Studies* 18 (1), 2004, pp. 7-18.

employability in the industry.⁴⁴⁰ While tourism took root in colleges and universities in Botswana,⁴⁴¹ it has traditionally been limited in secondary schools. According to K. Velempini and B. Martin there has recently been a move in recognizing the potential that secondary schools can play in promoting tourism education.⁴⁴²

In Botswana, the focus on tourism in secondary schools is based on tourism elements currently being added as part of an already existing subject which, in this case, is social sciences. The fact that the rationalizing around the positive effects of having it as a subject in secondary schools in Botswana as a way of transforming the tourism sector says a great deal about tourism as a subject in secondary schools. The ideals surrounding implementation of tourism teaching taking place in secondary schools in Botswana has a lot to do with its vast natural resources, serving as tourist destinations.⁴⁴³ The belief is that the teaching of tourism in schools will assist with developing greater tourism potential.⁴⁴⁴ It will also educate students at a young age about 'looking after their countries' resources.⁴⁴⁵ However, to date, tourism education is rarely found at the secondary school level despite the recognition of its importance.⁴⁴⁶

⁴⁴⁰ K. Velempini & B. Martin, 'Place-based education as a framework for tourism education in secondary schools: A case study from the Okavango Delta in Southern Africa', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 25, 2019, pp. 1-10.

⁴⁴¹ H. Manwa & R. Mmereki, 'Potential for Domestic Tourism: A Study of the University of Botswana Students Travel Motivation', *Botswana Notes and Records* 39, 2008, pp. 35-42.

⁴⁴² K. Velempini & B. Martin, 'Place-based education as a framework for tourism education in secondary schools: A case study from the Okavango Delta in Southern Africa', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 25, 2019, pp. 1-10.

⁴⁴³ K. Velempini & B. Martin, 'Place-based education as a framework for tourism education in secondary schools: A case study from the Okavango Delta in Southern Africa', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 25, 2019, pp. 1-10.

⁴⁴⁴ A. Pollock & J.R. Brent Ritchie, 'Integrated strategy for tourism education/training', *Annals of Tourism Research* 17 (4), 1990, pp. 568-585.

⁴⁴⁵ K. Velempini & B. Martin, 'Place-based education as a framework for tourism education in secondary schools: A case study from the Okavango Delta in Southern Africa', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 25, 2019, pp. 1-10.

⁴⁴⁶ Z.H.W. Dube, 'Conceptions and Misconceptions of Tourism as a Subject in the South African School Curriculum', *Alternation* 21 (1), 2014, pp. 153-170.

Another African country where there is a similar call for tourism education to be introduced in the curriculum in secondary schools in Nigeria.⁴⁴⁷ The Head of the Department in Theatre and Performing Arts at Ahmadu Bello University suggested that tourism education should be incorporated in the Nigeria Secondary School curriculum due to the vast number of attractions in Nigeria.⁴⁴⁸ This in the light of the fact that it is believed that the country has not been able to adequately fulfil the demands of the tourism industry. It is argued that the integration of tourism education into the secondary school curriculum could serve to inculcate the younger generation into hospitality, recreation and leisure and cultural tourism.⁴⁴⁹ This educational strategy is yet to be implemented.

South Africa

Much like the other African countries, as explained in Chapter 4, the South African education system underwent dramatic changes after the new democratic dispensation was established. Similar to what was apparent in countries such as Lesotho, Botswana and Nigeria, tourism was also introduced as a new subject within the education curriculum.

South Africa has a high unemployment rate ⁴⁵⁰ and that is without a doubt one of the major economic problem it is facing.⁴⁵¹ This leads to high levels of socio-economic problems such as crime, violence and poverty.⁴⁵² Like most developing countries, a major reason for unemployment in South Africa is the combination of an increasing population

⁴⁴⁷ D.O. Adejuyigbe & S.B. Adejuyigbe, 'The Nigerian National Senior Secondary Schools Curriculum and Its Implications for Admission into Universities', *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS)* 7(3), pp. 234-241.

⁴⁴⁸ N.P. Obi, 2013. 'Incorporate Tourism Education into Secondary School Curriculum – Kafewo', <https://nico.gov.ng/incorporate-tourism-education-into-secondary-school-curriculum-kafewo/>. access: August 2020.

⁴⁴⁹ K. Velepini & B. Martin, 'Place-based education as a framework for tourism education in secondary schools: A case study from the Okavango Delta in Southern Africa', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 25, 2019, pp. 1-10.

⁴⁵⁰ Anon, 2020, Stats SA: Department Statistics South Africa, 'SA economy sheds 2,2 million jobs in Q2 but unemployment levels drop', <http://www.statssa.gov.za/?p=13633>, access: November 2020.

⁴⁵¹ W.T. Bangane, 'The unemployment problem in South Africa with specific reference to the Lekoa Vaal Triangle Metropolitan area (LVTMA)', Masters' thesis, Rand University, 1999.

⁴⁵² M. Seedat, et al., 'Violence and injuries in South Africa: prioritising an agenda for prevention', *The Lancet* 374 (9694), 2009, pp. 1011-1022

and insufficient economic growth.⁴⁵³ The background of high unemployment rates and vast inequalities has led to initiatives to create more entrepreneurship skills in schools, as well as take advantage of industries that were not utilized by the majority of the country's citizens during Apartheid, one of which is the tourism industry.⁴⁵⁴

In South Africa tourism is recognized as a key economic sector with potential for continuous growth,⁴⁵⁵ which demands a skilled and professional workforce. A number of strategies were introduced to raise tourism awareness and one of those strategies was the introduction of tourism as a school subject.⁴⁵⁶ The end of Apartheid in 1994 introduced more practical and vocationally oriented subjects such as Tourism, Hospitality, Business studies, and Agriculture for high school students in grades 10, 11 and 12.⁴⁵⁷ This was in line with the post-Apartheid South Africa suffering from a lack of skilled human resources and major unemployment rates and the need to uplift the country. Thus, more vocationally oriented high school subjects were proposed as a strategy to address these issues.⁴⁵⁸

Tourism awareness and education plays a very important role in a developing country like South Africa and can be used to stimulate job opportunities.⁴⁵⁹ Prior to August 1998, the Tourism Authority in South Africa was active in pursuing partnerships with stakeholders which would assist in raising tourism awareness and stressing the important role of tourism. The goal of tourism in high schools was to familiarize students with the concept of tourism and to trigger interest in the study field and increase the potential for domestic tourism. The curriculum was created to help the students become more prepared to enter the tourism industry and to trigger their enrollment in further training

⁴⁵³ A. Banerjee, et al., 'Why Has Unemployment Risen in the New South Africa?', 2008, pp.1-28.

⁴⁵⁴ G. Horn, 'Educational solutions to improve the employability of senior high school learners', *South African Journal of Education* 26 (1), 2006, pp.113-128.

⁴⁵⁵ T. Binns & E. Nel, 'Tourism as a local development strategy in South Africa', *The Geographical Journal* 168 (3), 2002, pp. 235-247.

⁴⁵⁶ A. Adukaite, et al., 'Teacher perceptions on the use of digital gamified learning in tourism education: The case of South African secondary schools', *Computers & Education* 111, 2017, pp. 172-190.

⁴⁵⁷ P.R. Stumpf, Vocational education in South Africa Strategies for improvement, The Centre for Development and Enterprise, 2012, pp. 3-12.

⁴⁵⁸ Z.H.W. Dube, 'Curriculum decision-making in the selection of new subjects in schools: A qualitative study of the adoption of Tourism as an elective in selected KwaZulu-Natal High Schools', Doctoral thesis, University of KwaZulu Natal, 2016.

⁴⁵⁹ L. Kaplan, 'Skills development in tourism: South Africa's tourism-led development strategy', *Geo Journal* 60 (3), 2004, pp. 217-227.

programs at tertiary level. It was believed that if tourism awareness could be fostered among the youth of South Africa the result will be a growth in domestic and even international markets. Moreover, awareness will not only be created among the children, but the children can also influence their parents' travel decision.⁴⁶⁰

At the inception of the new democratic dispensation, in an effort to improve education the American Express Foundation developed and promoted a "Tourism Bridging Program" in order to introduce tourism as a subject in South Africa to a broader audience. The content covered in this program was broad and largely limited to what tourism is and the various subsectors that make up the industry, including the types of careers that are available. A bridging course was included as part of the program to address shortfalls evident in language and numeracy, particularly aimed at the previously disadvantaged. Later, a non-governmental organization named "Reach and Teach" was commissioned to develop an outcomes-based curriculum and manage the pilot.⁴⁶¹

The initial tourism curriculum was piloted with fourteen schools in 1996 but was only recognized in the early 2000s as a full matriculation subject. The subject Travel and Tourism was established after the successful conclusion of the pilot as an elective for grades 10 to 12. This specific project was initially funded by the American Express Foundation, but that ceased in the late 1990s, but to ensure that the project continued funding was sourced from and provided by the Spanish Government under the auspices of the South African Tourism Institute (SATI). SATI is a registered separate company, but the overall administration and management fell under the control of the Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority (THETA), which is now CATHSSETA.⁴⁶²

This funding arrangement from the Spanish government ceased in the late 2000s and THETA created an agreement with the National Business Initiative (NBI) for the project's continuity. In 2002-2003 the curriculum/subject content was rewritten as the subject

⁴⁶⁰ M. Van Niekerk & M. Saayman, 'The influences of tourism awareness on the travel patterns and career choices of high school students in South Africa', *Tourism Review* 68 (4), 2013, pp. 19-33.

⁴⁶¹ T. Swart., C. Booyse & E. Burroughs, 'What's in the CAPS package Tourism', 2014, pp.1-235.

⁴⁶² R. Conradie, 'Student evaluation of career readiness after completing the hospitality management curriculum at the international hotel school', Masters' thesis, University of South Africa, 2012.

“Tourism” by the National Curriculum System writing team that was appointed by the then Minister of Education, Prof Kader Asmal.⁴⁶³ To support Tourism as a subject, the NBI developed and implemented several activities to facilitate implementation. This included the development of lesson plans, the development of logbooks and the placement of teachers in tourism work environments to promote an understanding of the subject being taught and also included teacher training on how to deliver the subject of tourism.⁴⁶⁴

Attempting to introduce the subject initially known as “Travel and Tourism” in the earlier stages was fraught with difficulties. Although the curriculum was an OBE curriculum the subject was written as a set of unit standards in high school as is the case for other so-called industry subjects. The question arose as to whether the Provincial education departments had the necessary capacity and expertise to support the uptake of the subject in the number of schools offering tourism.⁴⁶⁵ The speed at which OBE was introduced in schools left little room for meaningful training of teachers in the new methodology,⁴⁶⁶ let alone implementing the then new tourism content knowledge and requiring teachers to teach it. Other challenges that arose included school principals randomly selecting existing teachers on their staff to teach “Travel and Tourism”.⁴⁶⁷

While the number of schools offering tourism increased, the majority of teachers who were tasked with its delivery had not been trained in either the subject matter content or the methodology required for the subject.⁴⁶⁸ Unlike other subjects such as mathematics, physical sciences and geography that had a cohort of teachers that had tertiary qualifications and had experience in teaching those subjects, tourism was a completely new and novel subject.

Intervention was therefore needed in order to bring the newly appointed tourism teachers up to speed in a short space of time. Training of “Travel and Tourism” teachers was

⁴⁶³ T. Swart., C. Booyse & E. Burroughs, *‘What’s in the CAPS package Tourism’*, 2014, pp.1-235.

⁴⁶⁴ J. Petersen. ‘The development of tourism as a young school subject: A comparative curriculum analysis’, Masters’ thesis. University of Cape Town, 2015.

⁴⁶⁵ T. Swart., C. Booyse & E. Burroughs, *‘What’s in the CAPS package Tourism’*, 2014, pp.1-235.

⁴⁶⁶ C.A. Spreen & S. Vally, ‘Outcomes-based education and its (dis)contents: Learner-centred pedagogy and the education crisis in South Africa’, *Southern African Review of Education* 16 (1), 2010, pp. 39-58.

⁴⁶⁷ T. Swart., C. Booyse & E. Burroughs, *‘What’s in the CAPS package Tourism’*, 2014, pp.1-235.

⁴⁶⁸ N. S. Chili, ‘The Ecology of Teaching: Efficiency, Efficacy and Effectiveness of Teaching and Learning of Tourism in Township High Schools’, *Journal of Human Ecology* 48 (2), 2014, pp. 299-312

predominately undertaken by provincial education departments but was insufficient and sporadic. When it was first implemented Learning and Teaching Support Materials (LTSM) such as textbooks⁴⁶⁹ and teacher guides, had not been developed and teachers were therefore faced with the challenge of delivering a subject about which they knew very little and without the assistance of textbooks.⁴⁷⁰

The introduction of tourism in schools was done with good intentions and mainly because of the positive economic contribution that the tourism industry provides to the private and public sectors.⁴⁷¹ There is however concern about the very limited academic research being done to date on the subject of tourism in South African high schools.⁴⁷² Since 2000, the subject tourism has experienced significant growth in terms of the number of schools offering it as a subject as well as the number of students choosing to take it as a subject. The subject has grown from 120 schools and 2, 968 learners in the year 2000 to 2,887 schools and 118,904 learners in grade 12 in 2014. (See figure 3).⁴⁷³

Tourism has become one of the most popular electives in high schools with up to 20% of all high school students taking it.⁴⁷⁴ The growth and importance of the subject tourism can also be seen by it being included as a part of the Admission Point Score (APS) subjects that count towards university entrance.

Due to it being seen as tool to uplift disadvantaged communities,⁴⁷⁵ it is taught in all types of schools, from the well-resourced private schools to the under resourced rural and

⁴⁶⁹ L.O. Milligan, et al., 'Understanding the role of learning and teaching support materials in enabling learning for all', *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education* 49 (4),2019, pp. 529-547.

⁴⁷⁰ T. Swart., C. Booyse & E. Burroughs, 'What's in the CAPS package Tourism', 2014, pp.1-235.

⁴⁷¹ C.A, Gala, The extent of knowledge about the hospitality industry among life orientation teachers and learners in previously disadvantaged black schools in cape town, South Africa, Masters' thesis, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, 2017.

⁴⁷² T. Swart., C. Booyse & E. Burroughs, 'What's in the CAPS package Tourism', 2014, pp.1-235.

⁴⁷³ A. Adukaite., I. Van Zyl & L. Cantoni, 'The Role of ICT in Tourism Education: A Case Study of South African Secondary Schools', USI – Università della Svizzera italiana, UNESCO Chair in ICT to develop and promote sustainable tourism in World Heritage Sites, Lugano, Switzerland, N.d, pp. 1-5.

⁴⁷⁴ Z.H.W. Dube-Xaba & M.P. Makae, 'HODs' views on their capacity to conduct moderation of School Based Assessment in Tourism', *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure* 7 (4), 2018, pp. 1-9.

⁴⁷⁵ L. Tsangu. J.P. Spencer & M. Silo, 'South African tourism graduates' perceptions of decent work in the Western Cape tourism industry', *African Journal for Physical Activity and Health Sciences (AJPHES)*, 2017, pp.54-65.

township schools.⁴⁷⁶ This creates differences in the quality of the tourism teaching taking place, as is the case with most subjects in South African school where well-resourced schools tend to provide more tools in the learning and tend to show better results, whilst under-resourced school have less tools and tend to have a lower result.⁴⁷⁷ This cannot just be applied to the subject of tourism, but is a systematic challenge of schooling in South Africa. Tourism as a subject needs to be implemented in the particular context of vast inequality in resources and in some case general lack of quality.⁴⁷⁸ The South African education sector still faces a number of systematic challenges, including unequal access to educational services,⁴⁷⁹ high cost of education and required infrastructure as well as a shortage of qualified teachers.⁴⁸⁰

The tourism industry has however established itself as a vehicle for social and economic development around the world, its potential has not been fully realized due to a lack of strategic plans and policy guidelines on the development of tourism education,⁴⁸¹ particularly in secondary schools. In particular in South Africa, it was meant to enable social justice and job creation,⁴⁸² this is however found to be seriously hindered by a shortage of well-trained and committed teachers as tourism education specialists.

The introduction of tourism programs at high schools by the department of education was embraced by teachers in social sciences, but as is the case with some parts of Botswana,

⁴⁷⁶ Z.H.W. Dube-Xaba, 'Influence of macro-policy factors on decision-making to select Tourism in South African schools: Implications for curriculum relevance', *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure* 6 (3), 2017, pp. 1-10.

⁴⁷⁷ G. Frempong., V. Reddy & A. Kanjee, 'Exploring equity and quality education in South Africa using multilevel models', *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education* 41 (6), 2011, pp.819-835.

⁴⁷⁸ A. Adukaite., I. Van Zyl & L. Cantoni, 'The Role of ICT in Tourism Education: A Case Study of South African Secondary Schools', USI – Università della Svizzera italiana, UNESCO Chair in ICT to develop and promote sustainable tourism in World Heritage Sites, Lugano, Switzerland, N.d, pp. 1-5.

⁴⁷⁹ M.C. Smith, 'Which in- and out-of-school factors explain variations in learning across different socio-economic groups? Findings from South Africa', *Comparative Education* 47 (1), 2011, pp. 79-102.

⁴⁸⁰ A. Adukaite., I. Van Zyl & L. Cantoni, 'The Role of ICT in Tourism Education: A Case Study of South African Secondary Schools', USI – Università della Svizzera italiana, UNESCO Chair in ICT to develop and promote sustainable tourism in World Heritage Sites, Lugano, Switzerland, N.d, pp. 1-5.

⁴⁸¹ M. Saayman & S. Geldenhuys, 'An analysis of skills required for selected sectors of the tourism industry', *SA Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation* 25(1), 2003, pp.83-95.

⁴⁸² F.N. Zwane., E. Du Plessis & E. Slabbert, 'Learners' and employers' perceptions of vocational training in the South African tourism industry', *African Journal for Physical Activity and Health Sciences (AJPHES)* 23 (1:1), 2017, pp. 90-106.

it is grouped with other subjects that existed at the time.⁴⁸³ It does however continue to be taught and as tertiary institutions embrace the training of teachers in tourism, the situation should improve.

The bar graph is indicated in the diagram below (figure 1) and indicates an exponential growth of learners enrolled from 2000-2014.

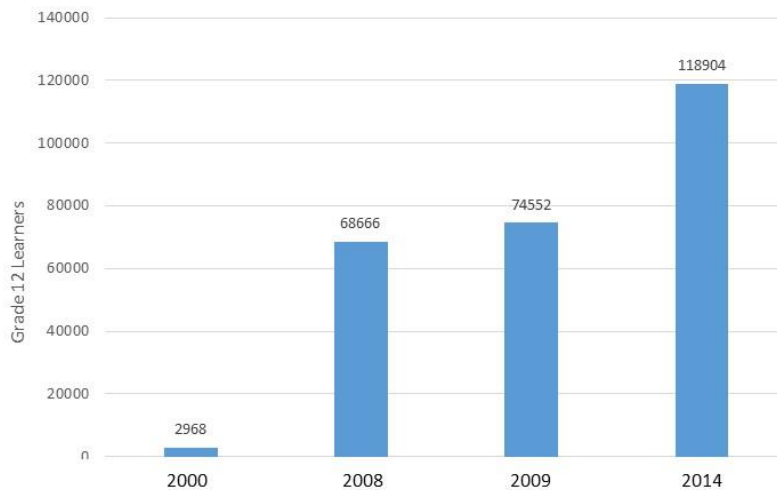
Figure 1: Learners in grade 12 enrolled for Tourism at school

2000 - 120 schools - 2 968 learners

2008 – 2085 schools (68 666 Grade 12 learners)

2009 - 2270 schools (74 552 Grade 12 learners)

2014 - 2,887 schools (118,904 Grade 12 learners)



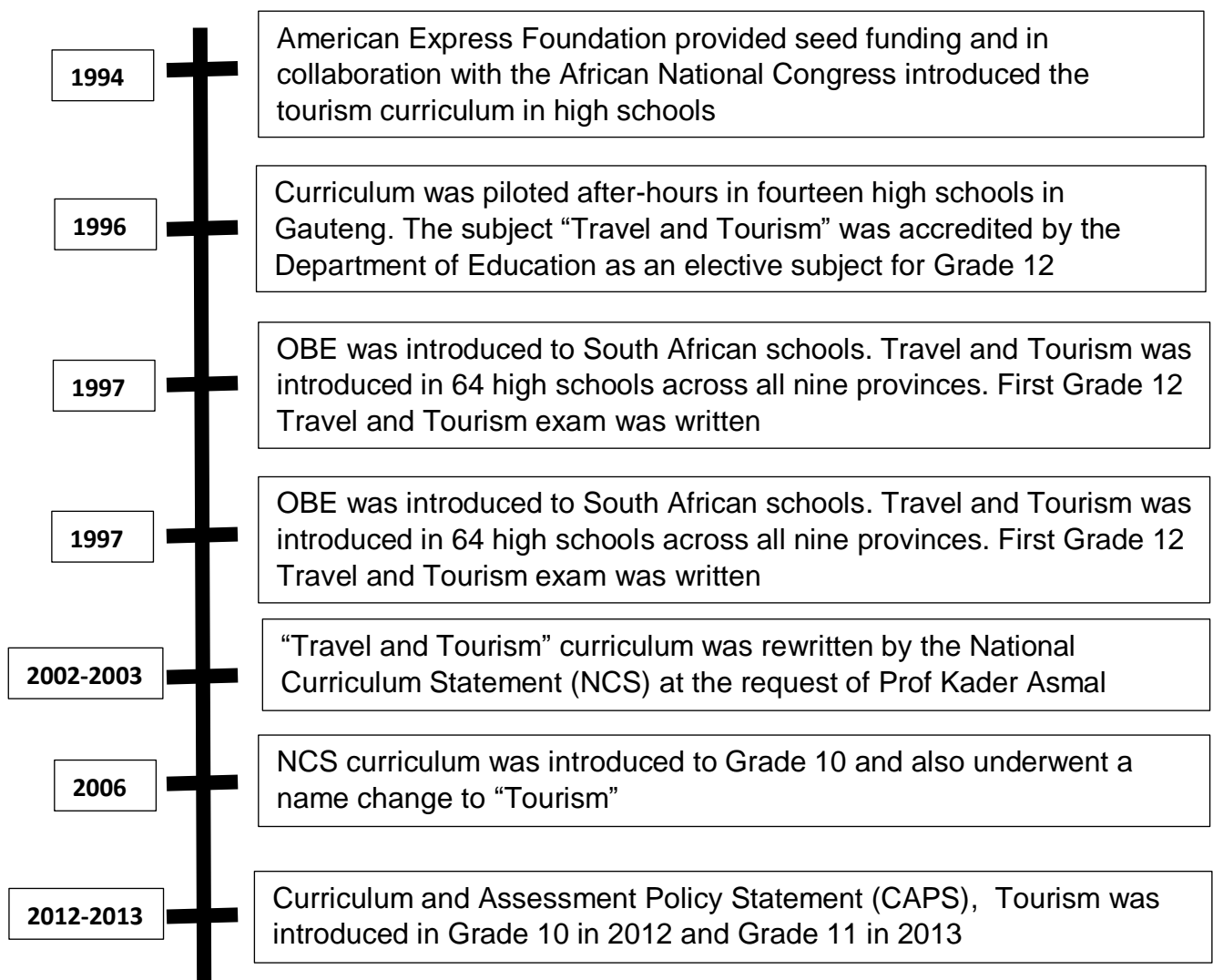
⁴⁸³ K. Velepini & B. Martin, 'Place-based education as a framework for tourism education in secondary schools: A case study from the Okavango Delta in Southern Africa', *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 25, 2019, pp. 1-10.

Chapter 6: Tourism curriculum in schools

This chapter traces the inception and development of tourism as a school subject in the South African secondary school curriculum. It is divided into three sections: the first considers the South African situation, the second part looks at an international example and the last reflects on these developments in a limited comparative manner.

There is no consensus on the actual timeline of the introduction of tourism in South African schools. It varies according to who exactly was seen as key in calling for the introduction of tourism. For the purpose of this dissertation the timeline as set out in the statement (CAPS) created by the Department of Education in 2013, will be used. (See Table 1)

Table 1: The timeline of the history of the subject tourism in South Africa



Tourism in the South African curriculum

As discussed in Chapter 4, tourism was introduced to schools in 1994. After this pilot phase, where it was under the name “Travel and Tourism”,⁴⁸⁴ the project attracted a large number of enrollments. In 1998 it had 4 500 students in 64 secondary schools countrywide. In the initial project, grades 10, 11 and 12 were used as the pilot for the senior certificate. In addition, 123 teachers were trained through a teacher development program. Gauteng, the smallest but most populated province in the country, was the first province to pilot this project in 16 schools.⁴⁸⁵ The course was divided into four modules, one for each term.⁴⁸⁶ As part of the initial project implemented, students had opportunities during the three years to be exposed to the industry and get relevant work experience during holidays and environmental education trips to places such as the Sabi Sabi, game reserve over weekends.⁴⁸⁷ There was great enthusiasm about the introduction of the subject “Travel and Tourism” and it was hoped it would contribute to relieving the country’s unemployment crises, with the potential of economic benefit and also assist in establishing a more demographically changed tourism industry.⁴⁸⁸ The subject Travel and Tourism was intended to assist students in finding a job after they completed their matric in one of the fastest-growing industries in South Africa.⁴⁸⁹

In another province which is one of the key tourist attractions in the country, the Western Cape tourism awareness was also being integrated into subjects already taught in primary schools. The Western Cape Tourism Board’s (WCTB) initiative was introduced in 2000. Initially the program involved 20 high School and 50 primary schools as pilot schools. Since then, it has been extended to more than 120 primary schools and intends to involve 20 more high schools. The plan is to eventually involve all schools. The WCTB board developed the study material and the program consisted of providing free resources to teachers and schools. The high school program comprised of a resource book for

⁴⁸⁴ Anon, ‘Travel, tourism to be subjects for Matric’, *The Citizen*, 1997, p. 8.

⁴⁸⁵ Anon, ‘The new subject is available at 64 schools countrywide 4 500 pupils taught Tourism’, *Pretoria News*, 1998, p.11.

⁴⁸⁶ D. Simon, ‘Tourism to become school subject’, *The Cape Times*, 1996, p. 8.

⁴⁸⁷ Anon, ‘Tourism in schools’, *The Teacher*, 1998, p. 15.

⁴⁸⁸ L. Comins, ‘Tourism as a school subject will have a positive economic knock-on effect’, *Daily News*, 2000, p.6.

⁴⁸⁹ C. Campbell, ‘Pupils tapping into ‘tourism goldmine’, *The Cape Times*, 1997, p. 5.

teachers and a board game for the learners. The program was designed in conjunction with the OBE curriculum at the time.⁴⁹⁰ It was hoped to equip students with the necessary skills to face the world and to arm them with skills.⁴⁹¹ This program was not a school subject on its own and was not part of the listed curriculum subjects, but rather formed part of a learning plan.⁴⁹²

As indicated in Chapter 5 the National Curriculum Statement Grade R to grade 12 represented a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools including tourism. It replaced the two current national curricula statements, namely the Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 and the National Curriculum Statement Grade 10-12.⁴⁹³

The subject “Tourism” is defined in CAPS as “the study of the activities, services and industries that deliver a travel experience to groups or individuals”.⁴⁹⁴ It is seen as the study of the expectations and behaviors of tourists, and the economic, social and environmental impact of tourism on South Africa. The nine main topics covered in the CAPS Tourism curriculum are:

1. Tourism sectors
2. Map work and tour planning
3. Tourism attractions
4. Sustainable and responsible tourism
5. Domestic, regional and international tourism
6. Cultural and Heritage tourism
7. Foreign exchange

⁴⁹⁰ J. Van Der Merwe, ‘Touch of tourism for Cape schools’, Cape Argus, 2001, p. 1.

⁴⁹¹ L. Johns, ‘Schools take practical turn’, Cape Argus, 1999, p. 11.

⁴⁹² J. Bonthuys, ‘Toerismeprojek by vyftig skole begin’, Die Burger, 2000, p. 8.

⁴⁹³ Anon, 2011, Department of Basic Education,

https://www.education.gov.za/Portals/0/CD/National%20Curriculum%20Statements%20and%20Vocational/CAPS%20FET%20_%20TOURISM%20_%20GR%2010-12%20Web_1FAC.pdf?ver=2015-01-27-154517-653: accessed: June 2020.

⁴⁹⁴ Anon, 2011, Department of Basic Education,

https://www.education.gov.za/Portals/0/CD/National%20Curriculum%20Statements%20and%20Vocational/CAPS%20FET%20_%20TOURISM%20_%20GR%2010-12%20Web_1FAC.pdf?ver=2015-01-27-154517-653: accessed: June 2020.

8. Communication and customer care
9. Marketing

According to CAPS, the specific aims of the subject of tourism are that learners will study the following:

- The different types of tourists and the purpose of their travelling
- The different tourism sectors, with special reference to transport, hospitality, travel organizing, the attraction sector and support services
- Map work
- Foreign exchange concepts and the buying power of different foreign currencies
- The influence of the world time zones on travel
- South Africa and the SADC countries as tourism destinations
- World famous icons and the World Heritage Sites
- Sustainable and responsible tourism
- Marketing of tourism products
- Technology in tourism
- Tour planning; and
- Customer care and the value of service excellence.⁴⁹⁵

The curriculum documents explain what each learner should have in order to facilitate the learning of tourism. This includes a textbook for each grade, while Grade 10 learners should have a good quality road map of South Africa; Grade 11 learners should have a good quality colour map of the South African Development Community (SADC) countries; and Grade 12 learners should have a political map of the world including the major cities and an indication of the time zones. All the learners should also have access to the “White Paper on the Promotion and Development of Tourism in South Africa” (1996);⁴⁹⁶ the latest

⁴⁹⁵ Anon, 2011, Department of Basic Education, https://www.education.gov.za/Portals/0/CD/National%20Curriculum%20Statements%20and%20Vocational/CAPS%20FET%20_%20TOURISM%20_%20GR%2010-12%20Web_1FAC.pdf?ver=2015-01-27-154517-653: access: June 2020.

⁴⁹⁶ Anon, N.d, https://www.environment.gov.za/sites/default/files/docs/10yyearsreview_tourism.pdf, access: November 2020

version of the Tourism Growth Strategy;⁴⁹⁷ access to a variety of tourism magazines;⁴⁹⁸ brochures, tourist maps and advertising booklets. It also recommends that the school itself should subscribe to at least one tourism industry magazine and, or travel magazine. In addition, it suggests that teachers teaching tourism should have access to e-mail facilities and the internet in order to stay abreast of tourism developments as it is a dynamic industry, but also so that they can insource information for their learners. The curriculum also recommends that tourism should have a permanent classroom that has a magazine or brochure stand, a political globe of the world in order to facilitate the discussion of topics such as time zones and iconic tourist attractions and be equipped with audio-visual equipment to view subject related DVDs.⁴⁹⁹

The CAPS document also indicates that in order to facilitate tourism teaching, teachers must create teaching plans each week with a time allocation to ensure that the content is taught in the set amount of time. The teaching plans are developed to be completed over a period of four terms that consist of ten weeks each. The teaching plan indicates the framework for the four hours of each week and includes informal and formal assessment. It is expected that an awareness of career opportunities, awareness of service excellence and awareness of South Africa as a tourist destination needs to be incorporated throughout the teaching of tourism.⁵⁰⁰

⁴⁹⁷ Anon, 2011, https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/201712/national-tourism-sector-strategy-ntss-2016-2026a.pdf : access November 2020

⁴⁹⁸ For example, *Getaway, Go, Travel Africa*

⁴⁹⁹ Anon, 2011, Department of Basic Education, https://www.education.gov.za/Portals/0/CD/National%20Curriculum%20Statements%20and%20Vocational/CAPS%20FET%20_%20TOURISM%20_%20GR%2010-12%20Web_1FAC.pdf?ver=2015-01-27-154517-653: access: June 2020.

⁵⁰⁰ Anon, 2011, Department of Basic Education, https://www.education.gov.za/Portals/0/CD/National%20Curriculum%20Statements%20and%20Vocational/CAPS%20FET%20_%20TOURISM%20_%20GR%2010-12%20Web_1FAC.pdf?ver=2015-01-27-154517-653: access: June 2020.

The following Table sets out the requirements for the senior grades of secondary school.

Table 2: Overview of topics

Topic	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
Tourism sectors	Introduction to Tourism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Types of tourists and tourist profiles - The different modes of transport - Accommodation establishments: facilities and services offered by each type; the South African grading system - Food and beverage establishments - The attraction sector - Structure of the South African tourism industry⁵⁰¹ 	Transport services in South Africa <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Airports, airlines and airport operations; technology at airports to facilitate travel - Tourism bus industry - Tourism train industry - Luxury cruise liner industry - Car rental Job and career opportunities in the tourism industry - Requirements and inherent qualities needed to work in the tourism industry - Entrepreneurial opportunities⁵⁰² 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Professional image of staff in the tourism industry - Conditions of employment - Contract of employment - Purpose and value of a code of conduct⁵⁰³
Map work and tour planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Map terminology and symbols - Types of maps - Location of South Africa's borders, provinces, etc. on a colour map. - Location of South Africa and the SADC countries, continents, oceans, island groups and tourism regions on a colour map of the world 	Tour itinerary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Concepts: itinerary, logical tour planning, scheduled tours - Factors to consider when planning an itinerary - Different types of itineraries - Writing an itinerary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Location of world-famous icons on a colour map of the world - Tour plans and route planning - Compiling a day-by-day itinerary - Compiling a tour budget - Health and safety - Travel documentation - World time zones⁵⁰⁵

⁵⁰¹ R. George & K. Rivett-Carnac, *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, pp. 1-205.

⁵⁰² R. George et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-272.

⁵⁰³ E. Ferreira et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-319.

⁵⁰⁵ E. Ferreira et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, pp. 1-319.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Distance indicators and distance tables⁵⁰⁴ 		
Tourism attractions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourist attractions in the provinces of South Africa - South African National Parks (SANParks) - South African fauna and flora 	Main tourist attractions in the SADC countries ⁵⁰⁶	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - World-famous icons and attractions - Factors contributing to the success of a tourist attraction⁵⁰⁷
Sustainable and responsible tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sustainable tourism concepts - Three pillars of sustainable tourism (planet, people, profit) - Responsible tourism concepts - Good environmental practices - Global warming and the tourism industry⁵⁰⁸ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Three pillars of sustainable tourism - Responsible tourists - Codes of conduct for tourist behavior - Demand for responsible tourism. - Role players in responsible and sustainable tourism
Domestic, regional and international tourism	<p>Domestic tourism</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Concepts - Benefits for South Africa - Domestic tourism statistics - Payment methods and technology for payment in South Africa⁵⁰⁹ 	<p>The Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The seven domestic travel market segments according to the Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy - Regional tourism. The SADC member countries⁵¹⁰ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Global events and unforeseen occurrences of international significance - Forms of payment when travelling internationally - Foreign market share – statistics regarding inbound international tourism⁵¹¹

⁵⁰⁴ R. George & K. Rivett-Carnac, *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, pp. 1-205.

⁵⁰⁶ R. George et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-272.

⁵⁰⁷ E. Ferreira et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, pp. 1-319.

⁵⁰⁸ R. George & K. Rivett-Carnac, *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, pp. 1-205.

⁵⁰⁹ R. George & K. Rivett-Carnac, *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, pp. 1-205.

⁵¹⁰ R. George et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-272.

⁵¹¹ E. Ferreira et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-319.

Culture and heritage tourism	Culture and heritage <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Concepts, elements and importance of heritage - Heritage sites⁵¹² 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - South African cultural uniqueness - South African heritage bodies⁵¹³ 	World Heritage Sites <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Concepts - The role of UNESCO: logo and main function - Types of World Heritage Sites: natural and cultural - A description of all the World Heritage Sites in South Africa
Foreign exchange		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Foreign exchange and its value to the South African economy - Conversion of currencies⁵¹⁴ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Foreign exchange - The concepts strong and weak rand - Currency conversions - Differentiation between bank selling rate (BSR) and bank buying rate (BBR) - The effect of exchange rates on international tourism - Exchange rates fluctuations⁵¹⁵
Communication and customer care	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communication (verbal and written) - Communication technology (equipment) - Service excellence: concepts, importance, advantages, consequences and recommendations⁵¹⁶ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Global distribution systems - Customer care for foreign tourists - Customer complaints - Managing quality service⁵¹⁷ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Methods to obtain customer feedback and measure customer satisfaction - Reasons why service differs from one organization to another - Measuring customer satisfaction - Impact of the service delivered by an organization on its business profitability

⁵¹² R. George & K. Rivett-Carnac, *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, pp. 1-205.

⁵¹³ R. George et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-272.

⁵¹⁴ R. George et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-272.

⁵¹⁵ E. Ferreira et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-319.

⁵¹⁶ R. George & K. Rivett-Carnac, *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, pp. 1-205.

⁵¹⁷ R. George et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-272.

Marketing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Marketing of tourism products, services and sites - Factors to consider during the marketing process⁵¹⁸ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promotional/advertising techniques - Marketing budget ⁵¹⁹ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Marketing South Africa as a tourism destination ⁵²⁰
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The Tourism CAPS curriculum is comprehensive and looks at aspects that are relevant to the tourism sector. It is focused on tourism as a whole and is quite detailed. The topics are clear on what should be taught and there is a general progression from grade 10 to 12 that allows for deeper understanding of each topic as the years progress. As was evident in the previous two chapters, the CAPS system is the revised policy introduced to include some much-required changes to the NCS, especially in relation to the skills needs perceived by the industry, that is both public and private sectors.⁵²¹

The aim of the subject tourism in the curriculum is to provide learners with broad knowledge and skills needed to understand the tourism industry and prepare them for further education. Thus, with this aim in mind, it is the job of the curriculum to ensure these aims are met successfully. The revision that took place was partly due to the curriculum not being as successful as the stakeholders hoped it would be. The challenges identified in the implementation of the NCS in general included the overloading of teachers, confusion among teachers on its implementation and learner underperformance. The subsequent recommendations made by the Educational Ministerial Task Team included streamlining and clarifying policies by developing one document for every learning area and subject (by phase) to be the definitive support for all teachers and help address the complexities and confusion created by curriculum and assessment policy vagueness and lack of specification. A process of curriculum writing ensued in 2009 which resulted in a Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for all subjects and grades. As with other subjects, the subject of tourism was introduced

⁵¹⁸ R. George & K. Rivett-Carnac, *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, pp. 1-205.

⁵¹⁹ R. George et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-272.

⁵²⁰ E. Ferreira et al., *'Oxford Successful Tourism learner's book'*, 2013, pp. 1-319.

⁵²¹ E. Du Plessis, 'Reflections on the NCS to NCS (CAPS): Foundation phase teachers' experiences'. *The Independent Journal of Teaching and Learning* 10, 2015, pp. 1-142.

by CAPS as a three-year program (Grade 10-12) that features nine central topics, each divided into sub-topics. The curriculum for each grade has been spread over 40 weeks and further subdivided into four detailed per week. The weekly layout per term reflects all the content to be taught and includes quarterly revision, reinforcement and assessment. It further paces the content to be covered per week, term and year.⁵²²

The most significant differences between the NCS and the CAPS lie in the overall approach taken to learning, the learners and the teachers.⁵²³ The NCS documents were not user-friendly and often described as difficult to use even though they are very comprehensive in providing the required information.⁵²⁴ The CAPS document is considered more specific and user-friendly, but the apparent absence of verbs, that is clear instructions, in the subtopics in the “Annual Teaching Plan” means that insufficient guidance is provided for teachers with regards to teaching methodology and assessment. The CAPS is better structured as an overall guidance document than the three documents the NCS comprises of, as the assessment and content are linked. However, neither NCS nor CAPS curriculum contain specific teaching methodology guidance, and this is particularly true of the relatively newly introduced subject of tourism.⁵²⁵

The NCS was constructed as a spiraling curriculum that included three Learning Outcomes.⁵²⁶ (See Figure 1). The overarching principle of the CAPS, on the other hand, was rather focused on acquisition of knowledge and concepts that are centered in a set of nine topics extended from the original four Learning Outcomes of the NCS.⁵²⁷ The CAPS curriculum is in the form of a scaffolding progression. (See Figure 2).

⁵²² T. Swart, C. Booysse & E. Burroughs, *What's in the CAPS package Tourism*, 2014, pp.1-235.

⁵²³ R. Manuel, 'Possibilities for democratic citizenship in the natural science curriculum and assessment policy statement', Masters' thesis, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, 2015.

⁵²⁴ B. Keke, 'Understanding life sciences teachers' engagement with ongoing learning through continuous professional development programmes', Doctoral thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, 2014.

⁵²⁵ T. Swart, C.C., Booysse & E. Burroughs, *What's in the CAPS package Tourism*, 2014, pp.1-235.

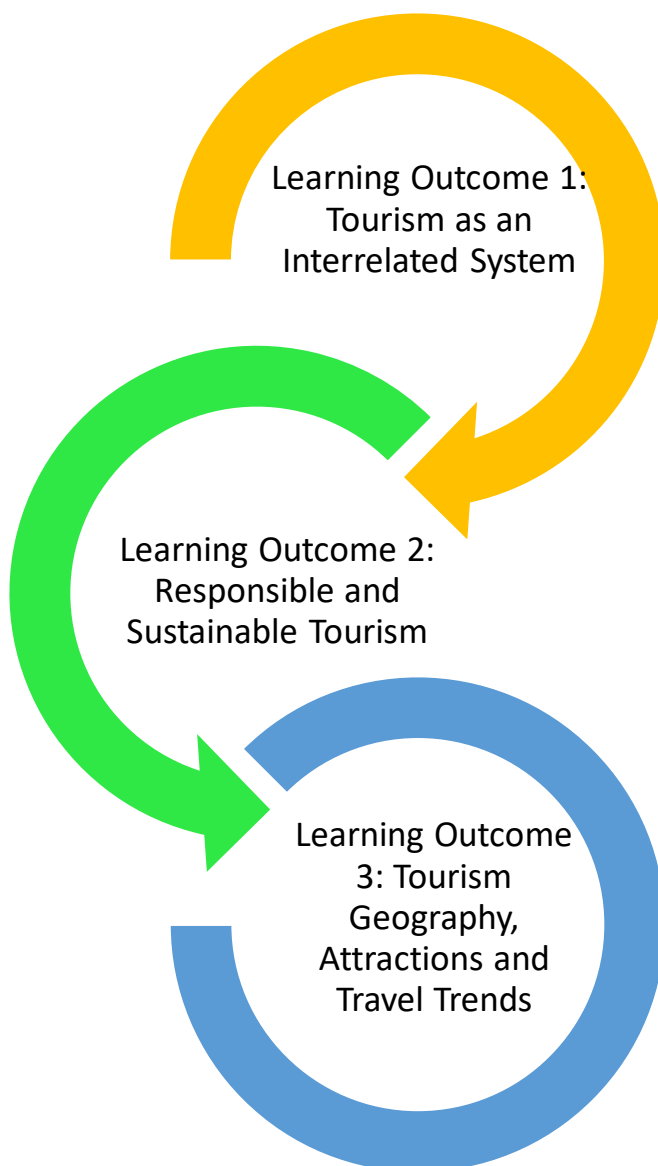
⁵²⁶ P.A. Modiba, 'Evaluating the implementation of curriculum in teaching reading and writing in sepedi home language in Mankweng Circuit of Limpopo Province', Masters' thesis, University of Limpopo, 2018.

⁵²⁷ I. Pillay, 'Teachers' experiences of curriculum change in two under-resourced primary schools in the Durban Area', Masters' thesis, University of South Africa, 2014.

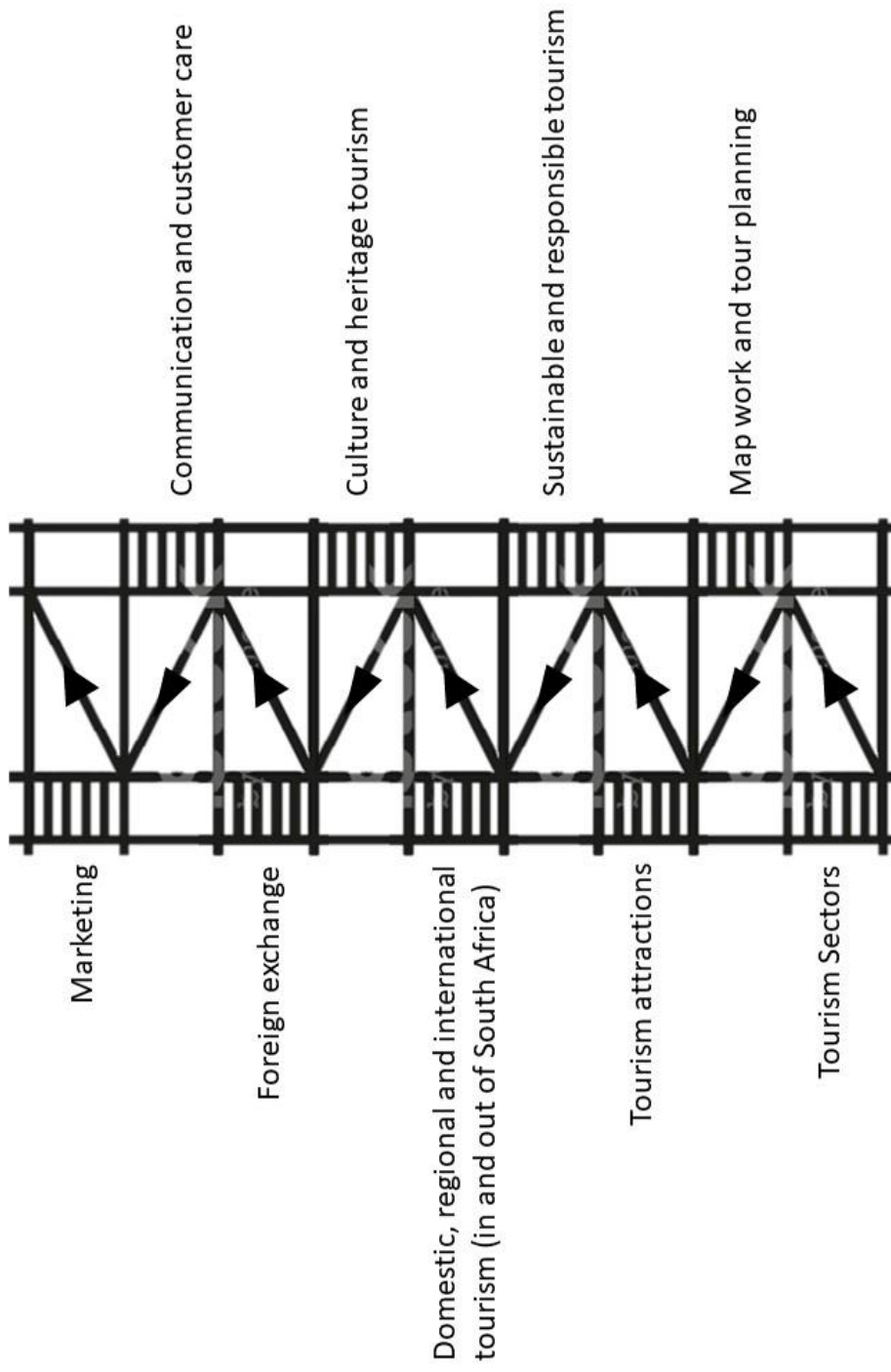
There is a reasoned, scaffolded progression that is intended to develop concepts, content and skills over each of the three years. It covers a broad range of knowledge and concepts, and the scaffolding of skills is discernible. The subject tourism is an elective that students choose at the end of grade 9 for grade 10 and it stretches over three years (Grade 10-12).

The spiraling tourism curriculum is indicated in the diagram below (figure 1) and the CAPS scaffolding progression for the subject tourism, is depicted in figure 2.

Figure 1: NCS Learning Outcome for grade 10-12 diagram



CAPS nine topics covered for the subject tourism for grade 10-12 diagram



Tourism in Nova Scotia Canada

Given the relative recent global development of tourism as a school subject at primary and secondary school level, there are a very limited number of curriculums available in the public domain. This is in line with the literature review where academic sources on the topic are also relatively limited. For this section, the available curriculum of Nova Scotia, Canada has been selected so as to give an international and global North comparative perspective. Nova Scotia, like Gauteng, is also one of the smallest provinces in terms of area and one of the most densely populated.⁵²⁸

Although tourism is not a stand-alone school subject in Nova Scotia in Canada, it is offered as a program in secondary schools. The “Tourism 11 program” is made up of five modules and is characterized by the following seven features;

- A strong applied focus with an emphasis on integrating, applying, and reinforcing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes developed in other courses
- A strong connection to essential graduation learnings
- A strong focus on refining career-planning skills to explore a range of pathways from school
- A strong connection to labor market opportunities and enhancing employability skills
- A strong connection to workplace and community with a strong emphasis on real-world and community problems ‘for the application of knowledge and skills and for further learning’.
- A strong focus on hands-on learning experiences, including experiences with a range of technologies
- A flexible design framework based on learning modules⁵²⁹

In Nova Scotia the program has a lot of emphasis on equipping learners with skills needed for the workplace and community. Students focus more on the tourism sector and understanding the sector and its components locally, rather than globally.

⁵²⁸ Anon, N.d, www.novascotia.com: access October 2020

⁵²⁹ J. Burke et al., ‘Tourism 11’, 2000, pp. 1-107.

There is a strong connection on what is being taught and how it links to future employment which is one of the key characteristics put in place in the creation of this program. Another key feature of this program is the emphasis on hands-on experience and enhancing employability skills which is critical in order to keep it relatable to the market it will serve. The focus of the Nova Scotia program is on meeting their country's demands as it is tailored to their country, which is ideal for any curriculum design. The themes in Tourism 11 are concerned with introducing students to the tourism sector; career options available in the sector; travel, accommodation and adventure tourism; travel trade, events etc. of the sector and future tourism and planning.⁵³⁰

Table 3: The five topics or modules with their learning outcomes of Tourism 11 in Nova Scotia

Module 1: Introduction to Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • demonstrate an understanding and appreciation of ideas and beliefs about the tourism industry • demonstrate a knowledge of the growth and development of tourism in global, national, and provincial contexts • describe the cultural, social, economic, and political forces underlying the growth and development of various periods in the history of travel and tourism • identify the impact of some trends upon the tourism industry • analyze and reflect critically on images and beliefs of tourists • identify how economic and non-economic factors have influenced leisure and business travel over time • analyze the Nova Scotia tourism industry to identify major tourist markets
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⁵³⁰ J. Burke et al., *Tourism 11*, 2000, pp. 1-107.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • analyze and assess factors that have an impact (both positive and negative) on the tourism Industry
Module 2: Career Explorations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • identify and describe the eight sectors of tourism • demonstrate an understanding of the businesses and services that are associated with each sector • demonstrate an awareness of career opportunities in each sector • identify and describe the range of occupations in each sector of the tourism industry to gain an understanding of tourism career paths • demonstrate an understanding of the occupational standards expected of tourism professionals • identify education and training required for specific careers in the tourism industry • demonstrate the requisite skills to apply and interview for a job • describe and demonstrate techniques of effective workplace communication • demonstrate an understanding of the importance of cross-cultural communication in the workplace • demonstrate a knowledge of workplace health and safety regulations and precautions • identify equity and diversity issues in the workplace • demonstrate problem-solving strategies to resolve conflicts between workplace personnel and with customers
Module 3: Transportation, Hospitality, and Adventure Tourism/Recreation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • demonstrate an understanding of accommodation businesses and services and related occupations and career paths

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • identify and critically analyze recent innovations and/or topical issues related to the sector • demonstrate an understanding of various types of food and beverage operations, businesses, and services and related occupations and career paths • investigate recent innovations, changes, and/or topical issues pertaining to the sector • demonstrate an understanding of transportation operations, businesses, and services and related occupations and career paths • identify, critically analyze, and report on recent innovations, changes, and/or topical issues related to one of the transportation operations • identify the scope of the adventure/recreation and eco-tourism sector and the businesses and services associated with the sector • determine how adventure/recreation and eco-tourism have an impact on tourism markets in developing countries and in Nova Scotia
<p>Module 4: Travel Trade, Events and Conferences, and Attractions</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • demonstrate an understanding of the businesses and operations associated with the travel trade and of related occupations and career paths • research and critically analyze changes and innovations in the sector • demonstrate an understanding of the events and conferences sector and related occupations, including potential career paths • describe the scope of the attractions sector and related occupations, including potential career paths

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • describe the scope of the tourism services sector and related occupations, including potential career paths
<p>Module 5: The Future of Tourism and Tourism Planning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • demonstrate an understanding of tourism growth factors • investigate world problems that could potentially have an impact on the tourism industry • identify the basic elements of tourism planning • demonstrate an understanding of the importance of tourism planning • research and critically analyze the impact of tourism development • demonstrate an understanding of career opportunities associated with the planning and development of tourism projects • research trends, issues, and innovations in tourism planning and development

The Nova Scotia program is very career and professional skills orientated. It is a more localized program that serves as an added advantage to the already existing curriculum in place. The first module starts off with introducing the student to tourism and the outcomes being that of understanding, knowledge of growth and describing, to name but a few, in order to grasp the subject tourism in a more in-depth way. The career explorations module does just that as it encourages students to explore career options in the tourism sector. Modules three and four are topics that also require students to show understanding of and the growth of those sectors that are vital or part of the tourism sector. Lastly the fifth module requires that students demonstrate an understanding of basic concepts, while also requiring that they investigate the future of tourism and tourism planning.

Comparison of South Africa's tourism curriculum and the Nova Scotia program

When comparing the South African secondary education curriculum for the subject tourism with that of Nova Scotia, there are a number of marked differences in approach, scope and skills sets. It is however interesting to note, that although there are inherent differences between the two regions, given that they are global North and global South locations, both feature tourism as a key feature in their respective economies. Of more relevance is the multi-cultural nature of the two destinations given their historical pasts which make for very diverse societies with varied heritages and cultures.⁵³¹

The South African tourism curriculum is focused on nine main topics which are sustained throughout the three senior grades, whilst the Nova Scotia Tourism 11 program has five topics. The differences between these two tourism programs is that the South African curriculum is focused on tourism as whole on a local and a global scale and is more detailed regarding the subject, while the Nova Scotia Tourism 11 subject is set out more as a program or a course focusing on the local. This makes it more an addition to the core curriculum versus a stand-alone subject, as is the case in South Africa.

In general, the most positive aspect regarding the Tourism 11 program is that it is lot more practically orientated, focused on meeting market demands and equipping students for the workforce. These are elements that should be added to the South African tourism subject curriculum. The focus of the Nova Scotia program is on meeting their country's demands as it is tailored to their specific country and region, which makes it ideal for any curriculum design. The modules in Tourism 11 are concerned with introducing students to the tourism sector as a broad domain; specific career options that are available in the sector; the nature of travel, accommodation and adventure tourism in the region; diverse range of travel trade, events on offer within the sector and the future of tourism and planning. What is however not addressed specifically in the Tourism 11 program are aspects such as general map work and tour planning; international and local tourism attractions; sustainable and responsible tourism; culture and heritage tourism; foreign

⁵³¹ Anon, N.d, <https://www.novascotia.com/travel-info/about-us>: access November 2020;
<https://www.sahistory.org.za/article/defining-culture-heritage-and-identity>: access November 2020

exchange; communication and customer care and marketing, which forms the essence of the more comprehensive South African CAPS tourism curriculum.

The South African curriculum compares much better in that it is far more wide-ranging and inclusive making it more informative of the tourism sector as a whole. It is a teaching and learning curriculum, whilst Tourism 11 is a practical and analytical program that expects students to reflect, analyze, identify and demonstrate understanding. This makes it perfect in attaining the seven features⁵³² that the program sets out to attain, which is more or less, better equipping students for their professional life after high schools,⁵³³ whilst serving as a beneficial addition to their already existing curriculum.

Thus, the Tourism 11 program has a strong focus on careers in tourism and creating professionals. This is an aspect that does not feature strongly in the South African tourism curriculum and needs to be added to it so as to give it the edge of not just being a learning subject, but a subject that will assist in student growth and development into a professional environment. The South African curriculum should also include the career guidance element present in Tourism 11 to assist students with figuring out their career options in high school, therefore directly linking it to current tourism labour demands.

The final module in the Tourism 11 module focuses on future tourism and planning, which is another element that could also be added to the South African curriculum as well, as it should be more intent on creating entrepreneurs and problem-solvers.⁵³⁴ This would be most appropriate given that South Africa's unemployment rate is so high⁵³⁵ and that there is not much new job creation happening in the country,⁵³⁶ a situation that has been further exacerbated by Covid-19. For the future of the sector – and the economy - it is essential

⁵³² J. Burke et al., *'Tourism 11'*, 2000, pp. 1-107.

⁵³³ Anon, N.d, <https://tourismhrc.com/tourism-in-high-school/>, access: November 2020.

⁵³⁴ J. Burke et al., *'Tourism 11'*, 2000, pp. 1-107.

⁵³⁵ Anon, N.d, <http://www.sabccareerguide.co.za/The-Need-for-Job-Creation-in-South-Africa.aspx>: access: November 2020.

⁵³⁶ L. Greyling, 'Graduate unemployment in South Africa: Perspectives from the banking sector', *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 2015, pp.1-9.

that South Africa should create a generation that is creating new opportunities⁵³⁷ and markets in tourism.

In summing up, the South African tourism curriculum has a very strong theory base and is more academically inclined, while the Nova Scotia Tourism 11 program does not have the same robust academic focus. Again, this can probably be ascribed to the fact that Tourism 11 is just an additional program students can take in high school while CAPS tourism is a fully-fledged subject that can be taken as an elective throughout the final years of schooling. It could also be due to several countries putting more focus on vocational subjects and seeing the need for students to learn more practical skills for everyday life or professional development rather than just having a strong academic base. The practical components for Tourism 11 surpass the South Africa's CAPS, but South Africa's CAPS has an extensive and strong theory base with the addition of some practical components.

⁵³⁷ A. Nicolaides, 'Entrepreneurship- the role of Higher Education in South Africa', *Educational Research* 2(4),2011, pp. 1043-1050.

Chapter 7:

Conclusion

Education has been culturally transformed globally, within Africa southern Africa and in South Africa over the years. In many places there has been a shift from a more academic education to a utilitarian education.⁵³⁸ This happened in many developing countries to try and meet the demands of the modern world and to improve the economy of the country. A number of countries that have made this change have done so in a post-colonial era in order to move away from the deeply entrenched inequalities and to try to rapidly assist and improve the economic conditions the country finds itself in in terms of unemployment, poverty and lack of skills for those that were oppressed.⁵³⁹

Tourism as a subject essentially appears to have been introduced to the schooling system for political reasons and due to the sector not meeting its full potential economically. As mentioned in chapter 1, education in South Africa has not been a neutral enterprise.⁵⁴⁰ In the past it was used as a tool to divide and suppress different sectors of society. It can now be utilised as an instrument to integrate or to enable people to critically transform their worlds.⁵⁴¹ Tourism, as a school subject, has the potential to do just that. However, the reason tourism might not be reaching its full potential is multifaceted.

The current state of the subject tourism is hindered in schools by inequality and unequal resources,⁵⁴² where most subjects find themselves due to the deeply entrenched inequality of the South African landscape.

⁵³⁸ D. Raffe, 'Bringing academic education and vocational training closer together', ESRC Research Project on The Introduction of a Unified System Working Paper 5 Centre for Educational Sociology, University of Edinburgh, 2003, pp.1-13.

⁵³⁹ B. Moreeng et al., 'Fostering an integrated tourism education curriculum in Lesotho: A community participation approach', *Journal of Education* 79, 2020, pp. 81-94.

⁵⁴⁰ L. Chisholm. 'Apartheid education legacies and new directions in post-apartheid South Africa', *Storia delle donne* 8, 2012, pp. 81 – 103.

⁵⁴¹ J.D. Jansen. 'Curriculum as a Political Phenomenon: Historical Reflections on Black South African Education', *The Journal of Negro Education* 59 (2), 1990, pp. 195-206.

⁵⁴² N. Spaull, 'Poverty & privilege: Primary school inequality in South Africa', *International Journal of Educational Development* 33, 2013, pp. 436–447.

It is hard to assess the true effectiveness of the current curriculum of the subject tourism, as there are other obstacles that impact the results. If there are low pass rates it could either be due to an inadequate curriculum, untrained teachers in tourism or the abovementioned lack of resources.⁵⁴³ However, regardless of these issues, the country needs to move forward to make the necessary adjustments in order for the subject tourism to succeed.

Tourism has the potential to play a much larger role than it currently plays. For one, at a global level it has been recognized as having the ability to contribute to world peace.⁵⁴⁴ According to L. D'Amore in his article "Peace through Tourism", tourism can serve as a mediator of attitude-change among individuals who have traditional or longstanding hostilities.⁵⁴⁵ This can be accomplished through close intimate contact rather than casual contact, promoting intergroup contact and through members interacting to serve a common goal. It is believed that peace and cultural understanding and tolerance can be achieved through tourism.⁵⁴⁶ It has the ability to unify and facilitate ethnicity and cultural cohesiveness.⁵⁴⁷ Tourism can therefore play a bigger role, as a tool for society building and development particularly in multi-cultural societies, rather than just serving in its current role as a vocational choice or just an "easy" subject or soft option taken in schools. Thus, given South Africa's chequered history and diverse cultural make-up, tourism as a subject has a definite place in South African schools and should play a bigger role.

In addition, tourism as a school subject has components of various other subjects and is therefore interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary.

⁵⁴³ M. McKeever, 'Educational Inequality in Apartheid South Africa', *American Behavioral Scientist* 61(1), 2017, pp. 114–131.

⁵⁴⁴ I. Kelly, 'The peace proposition: tourism as a tool for attitude change', IIPT Occasional Paper No.9, 2006, pp. 1-22.

⁵⁴⁵ L. D'Amore, 'Peace through Tourism: The Birthing of a New Socio-Economic Order', *Journal of Business Ethics* 89, 2010, pp. 559–568.

⁵⁴⁶ P. G. Anastasopoulos, 'Tourism and attitude change Greek tourists visiting Turkey', *Annals of Tourism Research* 19, 1992, pp. 629-642.

⁵⁴⁷ K. Yong-Kwan & J.L. Crompton, 'Role of tourism in unifying the two Koreas', *Annals of Tourism Research* 17, 1990, pp. 353-366.

It has aspects of history, geography, technology and business included in its curriculum. This in itself is an advantage, as it complies with the new move to remove distinct and separate divisions between various disciplines.

At another important level tourism as a subject teaches learners about their country as well as the world around them so as to broaden their horizons and to create them as more fully-fledged world citizens. It also has the ability to expose learners to the changing demands of the world, as tourism is an ever-changing and advancing sector. It can therefore serve as a way to ensure that South African learners keep up with developments in the rest of the world. The overall argument can therefore be made that it should perhaps serve as a beneficial, compulsory subject for all students in schools as it provides the much-needed history; context; skills and development required for students to face and deal with challenges in the world of work. This viewpoint can be further enhanced by the fact that the subject tourism can assist in creating more tolerance, acceptance and empathy among learners by exposing them to different histories and diverse peoples and cultures,⁵⁴⁸ which is what is needed in a country like South Africa with a residue of racism and mounting xenophobia.

There is a constant ongoing debate regarding the effectiveness of the tourism curriculums in universities and technical colleges and how these relates to the tourism industry.⁵⁴⁹ Gaps have been identified in the curriculum and there is a global belief that tertiary education does not always equip students effectively.⁵⁵⁰ One concern is that the curriculum does not appear to align with the tourism industries' current needs and demands. This is the call from many scholars, a call for more stakeholder input on curriculum development and design so that the curriculum remains relevant to the industry that it hopes to eventually equip with competent professionals.⁵⁵¹

⁵⁴⁸ K. Lyons & S. Wearing, 'Gap year volunteer tourism myths of Global Citizenship?', *Annals of Tourism Research* 39 (1), 2012, pp. 361–378.

⁵⁴⁹ J. Wang et al., 'Is Tourism Education Meeting the Needs of the Tourism Industry? An Australian case study', *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education* 22 (1), 2010, pp. 8-14.

⁵⁵⁰ S. Jugmohan, 'Curriculum responsiveness in tourism programmes', *The Journal of Independent Teaching and Learning* 5, 2010, pp. 34 – 35.

⁵⁵¹ G. Walters et al., 'Fostering Collaboration between Academia and the Tourism Sector', *Tourism Planning & Development* 12 (4), 2015, pp. 489-494.

In the 2013 Budget Vote Speech delivered by Tokozile Xasa, the then Deputy Minister of Tourism in South Africa, specific reference was made to this issue of training and industry requirements and a team was put in place in order to evaluate the tourism curriculum. Building on the National Tourism Careers Expo (NTCE) over the years, UMALUSI, Culture, Art, Tourism, Hospitality, and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA) and the NDT entered into a partnership to conduct an analysis and evaluation on the existing Tourism, Hospitality and Consumer Studies curriculum subjects from the NQF levels 2, 3 and 4 of the National Certificate Vocational (NCV offered at FET Colleges) and National Senior Certificate (NSC offered at high schools). The aim of this was to establish the values and quality that is intended for the curriculum for these subjects in the overall education and training terrain, as well as determine whether the existing curriculum is in line with industry skill needs.⁵⁵² The review is still ongoing⁵⁵³ which shows that the tertiary sector has yet to figure out the most appropriate system for the effective teaching of the subject tourism.

The changing curriculum and the curriculum review raise a range of questions on what is required from the curriculum, in order for the subject tourism to be taught successfully. There is also a growing demand for professionally educated and trained staff in the tourism sector.⁵⁵⁴ Research in current literature reveals a significant disparity between the tourism education provided by institutions and the skills required by the industry. One of the major challenges that institutions face when offering tourism education is the identification of industry needs and requirements and the involvement of industry in curriculum design.⁵⁵⁵

Studies have indicated a great need for more soft skills in graduates and that in this regard current tertiary curricula do not address the tourism industry needs.

⁵⁵² Budget Vote Speech delivered by Tokozile Xasa, Deputy Minister of Tourism, at the NCOP

⁵⁵³ Speech by the Deputy Minister of Tourism, Tokozile Xasa, During the Budget Vote Debate in the NCOP, 22 July 2014.

⁵⁵⁴ A.B. Collins, 'Are we teaching what we should? Dilemmas and problems in tourism and hotel management education', *Tourism Analysis* 7,2002, pp. 151–163.

⁵⁵⁵ I. Luka & A. Donina, 'Challenges of tourism education: Conformity of tourism curriculum to business needs', *Academica Turistica* 5 (1), 2012, pp. 85 – 86.

Curriculum development work needs to be undertaken in collaboration with the industry to ensure that courses offered are relevant and produce graduates with the skills and knowledge they will need. Input from the tourism industry is fundamental to the notion of a responsive curriculum. There are frequently differing expectations between educators and industry in that employers put greater emphasis on practical skills, whereas educators are concerned with developing more conceptual and tourism specific knowledge. This refers to the previously mentioned division between academic and practical education (see chapter 4). This suggests that stakeholders might have conflicting interests, which can lead to opposing views in terms of their perceptions of the curriculum. It also indicates that there should be a concern about the use of traditional education methods in the light of a dynamic industry such as tourism. Traditional education methods do not seem to always be sufficient to meet the demands of a rapidly changing world which is driven by information, global competition and new technologies. The discrepancy between education and the industry views makes one question whether these two stakeholders are engaging in a meaningful way on the curriculum, as well if there are policies in place that require curriculum review. An easy way to resolve these discrepancies is simply for the stakeholders to engage on a regular basis which will mean the industry will have more input into curriculum design.⁵⁵⁶

It is vital that the tourism curriculum be flexible enough to incorporate a rapidly and constantly changing context, but also equally important that curriculum must be context-related and not context-bound.⁵⁵⁷ This argument is that whilst it is possible to develop models of the curriculum based upon objectives, learning outcomes, assessment, delivery, etc., the key influence on curriculum design will be the professional and political forces operating in the society at the time or in the place where the curriculum is being developed.

⁵⁵⁶ S. Jugmohan. 'Curriculum responsiveness in tourism programmes', *The Journal of Independent Teaching and Learning* 5, 2010, pp. 34 – 35.

⁵⁵⁷ H.H. Shyaa, 'Challenges faced by HRS in the Tourism and Hospitality management education in Iraq', *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure* 8 (4), 2019, pp. 3-4.

It has been mentioned throughout the literature that power structures influence curriculum, which also means not what students learn, but what they do not have the opportunity to learn.⁵⁵⁸ Thus, creating a high school curriculum more suited for the tourism sector and industry might assist tourism to accomplish the goal set by the government that introduced it which is that of employment. In chapter 6, which looked at an international tourism curriculum, one element that was present in almost all the curriculums was the strong practical component. In chapter 1 it was emphasized that tourism education should be taught from an interactive learner-centered approach with a great emphasis on vocational aspects.⁵⁵⁹ This is a recurring theme in this dissertation garnered from this research that indicates that there is not a sufficiently strong practical component in the tourism curriculum in South Africa.

There are a number of informative research articles that look at the format of the curriculum with regards to OBE and CAPS, but these are very general, but more specific research needs to be done in terms of a particular subject in order to continuously review the curriculum. There are a few subject effectiveness articles on history,⁵⁶⁰ science and math⁵⁶¹ but not as much on the subject tourism. Curriculum development needs to be continuously reviewed, and this is particularly so with the dynamic subject of tourism which at present appears somewhat neglected.

In South African education it is accepted that measures need to be put in place in order to level the educational landscape that tourism is being taught in, which means measures need to be put in place to ensure townships schools and well-off public schools are teaching the same subject with the same resources and training level to produce the same quality.

⁵⁵⁸ C. Cooper, 'Curriculum Planning for Tourism Education', *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism* 2 (1), 2002, pp. 19-36.

⁵⁵⁹ M. Raselimo & M. Mahao, 'The Lesotho curriculum and assessment policy: Opportunities and threats', *South African Journal of Education* 35 (1), 2015, pp. 1-12.

⁵⁶⁰ O. Van Der Berg & P. Buckland, 'History as a Subject in South African Schools', *Teaching History* 34, 1982, pp. 22-25.

⁵⁶¹ V. Reddy, 'Mathematics and Science Achievement at South African Schools in TIMSS 2003', 2006, pp. 1-127.

The South African landscape that tourism finds itself in cannot be controlled, but the layout of the curriculum can be designed in order to not deepen these inequalities. A curriculum that has more practical components that are cost effective would serve at equipping learners to better understand the industry and its demands.

The question then arises as to whether there is a case to be made for tourism to be introduced as a compulsory subject or whether it should remain an elective with certain additions. It is believed that the subject tourism has far more potential than what is being tapped into in its current form. As explained earlier, it has the ability to assist in alleviating the deeply entrenched divide in the country; it is interdisciplinary⁵⁶² and multidisciplinary;⁵⁶³ it can create cultural tolerance,⁵⁶⁴ which in turn can help combat xenophobia, promote understanding and respect and contribute to the creation of national unity. In the recent past in South Africa, there has been a call for history to be added as a compulsory subject in school,⁵⁶⁵ but an argument can also be made for tourism to be made compulsory. It has the potential of including elements of the subject history in that tourism tells the story (or history) of a country with empathy and national pride or comprehension. In other words, it does not only relay vital information students need to know about their respective country's history but does so with empathy while engaging with the landscape and context for this history. An example of this could be in students learning about the Soweto uprising of June 1976 which is part of the history of the country but also relaying the empathy and context by linking it to the Hector Peterson Memorial and Museum in Soweto that also serves as a monument to the students who lost their lives. In this way, tourism can provide students with more than just the history, it shows them the history and creates a sense of understanding and cohesiveness for a shared history. This paints a picture for the students and links the history to real events and monuments that make the past tangible, while also showing how far we have come as a country.

⁵⁶² T. Jamal et al., 'Ranking, rating and scoring of tourism journals: Interdisciplinary challenges and innovations', *Tourism Management* 29 (1), 2008, pp. 66-78.

⁵⁶³ C.A Gunn, 'The need for multidisciplinary tourism education', *World Travel and Tourism Review*, 1991, pp.1-11.

⁵⁶⁴ S.W Litvin, 'Tourism: The world's peace industry?', *Journal of Travel Research* 37, 1998, pp. 63.

⁵⁶⁵ K.L. Harris, 'History through the looking glass', *Historia* 63, 2018, pp. 1-16.

It could be seen as a way to take the “sting out of our painful history” by showing how we commemorate and promote that history for tourism.

Tourism can thus be regarded as an inclusive subject in terms of other school subjects; as a contributor to the national economy and alleviator of unemployment; and also, as a peace broker and intermediary in terms of cultural tolerance. This dissertation set out to consider the place of tourism education within South Africa, and it concludes with the viewpoint that there is indeed a case for a better place for tourism in the South African curriculum.

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