The role of CAPS in preparing school learners for responsible leadership: An exploration of learner experiences at three high schools in the Western Cape

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Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Master in Education in the Department of Education Policy Studies in the Faculty of Education at the University of Stellenbosch

Supervisor: Professor Nuraan Davids

2018
Declaration

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

SIGNATURE: Rentia Schoeman

DATE: December 2018
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ABSTRACT

One of the key components underscoring educational reform in post-apartheid South Africa is the establishment and cultivation of democratic citizenship. The Curriculum Assessment and Policy Statement places a strong emphasis on producing learners who embody the qualities necessary for responsible citizenship. The CAPS is explicit in its focus on cultivating learners who are able to lead, think critically and act responsibly. What remains unclear, however, is how schools are interpreting the objectives of the CAPS, as they relate to the cultivation of learners as responsible and democratic citizens.

The general aim of this study was to explore whether the CAPS equips learners with the skills required for responsible leadership. The main research question addressed by the present study was whether the CAPS equips learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership. The main objective of the study was to consider the types of programmes that schools might have in place, which speak directly to the cultivation of responsible and democratic citizenship.

The theoretical framework of this study considered Gutmann and Thompson’s (2004) theory of deliberative democracy, while the conceptual theories of Enslin as well as Biesta and Lawy on citizenship education were utilised in the study to support the argument for the inclusion of democratic citizenship education in the programmes and practices of high schools. The study adopted a qualitative research approach, and in order to gain an in-depth understanding of participants’ perceptions, data collection techniques comprised semi-structured interviews with teachers as well as focus group interviews with learners.

The study sample, chosen by using purposive sampling, comprised three Life Orientation teachers and 15 Grade 12 learners, from three selected high schools in the Metropole North Education District in the Western Cape. The three high schools were distinctly different from one another regarding the areas in which they were located and also in terms of socio-economic status, language, culture, race and religion. Data analysis, data interpretation and discussion of the data findings were conducted using a qualitative, phenomenological research design constructed within an interpretive paradigm that held the subjective perspectives of the research participants in high regard.
Six categories with accompanying themes emerged from this study, namely shared challenges experienced by learners, views of the skills and qualities required by learners for democratic citizenship, perceptions and experiences of democratic citizenship, perceptions and experiences of leadership, leadership initiatives within the school environment, and views of life skills taught in Life Orientation.

Data revealed that the sets of participants from the respective schools held vastly different perspectives regarding experiences of democratic citizenship education, leadership development initiatives and the subject matter pertaining to Life Orientation. The reason for the disparate viewpoints was largely as a result of existing and historic socio-economic inequalities in South Africa. Overall, learners had a good understanding of the concepts relating to democratic citizenship and leadership, but the presence of programmes demonstrating the application of democratic participation, as well as the promotion of the skills as set out in the CAPS, was seemingly dependent on the aforementioned socio-economic standing of the school.

The findings of this research might be used to inform stakeholders, such as the Department of Basic Education, policymakers and teachers regarding the implementation and inclusion of democratic citizenship education within the functioning of all schools in South Africa, and the importance of leadership skills development amongst the youth, in order to comply with the vision of the CAPS in equipping all learners with the skills required for responsible leadership.
## ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

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<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
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<tr>
<td>AIDS</td>
<td>acquired immunodeficiency syndrome</td>
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<td>CAPS</td>
<td>Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement</td>
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<td>DBE</td>
<td>Department of Basic Education</td>
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<td>Department of Education</td>
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<td>National Youth Policy</td>
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<td>RAPCAN</td>
<td>Resources Aimed at the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect</td>
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<td>RCL</td>
<td>representative council of learners</td>
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<td>REC</td>
<td>Research Ethics Committee</td>
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<td>RNCS</td>
<td>Revised National Curriculum Statement</td>
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<td>RSA</td>
<td>Republic of South Africa</td>
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<td>South African Innovative Learning Intervention</td>
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<td>Statistics South Africa</td>
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<td>Sexually Transmitted Infection</td>
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<td>Stellenbosch University</td>
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<td>UCT</td>
<td>University of Cape Town</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<td>The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS</td>
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<td>YRBS</td>
<td>Youth Risk Behaviour Survey</td>
</tr>
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<td>YCN</td>
<td>National Youth Commission</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.................................................................................................................. II

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .................................................................................................. III

ABSTRACT ....................................................................................................................... IV

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS ............................................................................. VI

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................... 1

1.1 Rationale for and background to the study ......................................................... 2

1.1.1 Transformation in education following the transition of SA to a democracy ..... 2

1.1.2 Becoming personally interested in researching learner leadership development .................................................................................................................. 5

1.1.3 Challenges facing youth in present-day SA ................................................. 7

1.1.4 Role of education in preparing learners for democratic citizenship ....... 10

1.2 Problem statement ............................................................................................... 12

1.3 Significance of the study .................................................................................... 13

1.4 Contributions of the study ................................................................................ 14

1.5 Research question ............................................................................................... 15

1.6 Objectives ........................................................................................................... 15

1.7 Research methodology ....................................................................................... 16

1.7.1 Research design ............................................................................................... 16

1.7.2 Methodology .................................................................................................... 17

1.7.3 Research context .............................................................................................. 17

1.7.4 Population and sampling ............................................................................... 18

1.7.5 Data construction techniques ......................................................................... 18

1.7.6 Data analysis ................................................................................................... 19

1.8 Delimitations of the study .................................................................................. 19

1.9 Ethical considerations .......................................................................................... 20

1.10 Brief chapter overview ..................................................................................... 20

1.11 Summary ............................................................................................................ 20

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW ............................................................................ 23

2.1 Introduction .......................................................................................................... 23

2.2 State of the youth in SA ..................................................................................... 24

2.3 The role of Bantu education in creating skewed perceptions of citizen leadership amongst the youth of SA ......................................................... 27

2.4 The importance of democratic citizenship education in post-apartheid SA .... 29

2.5 Need for educational transformation towards inclusive responsible citizenship ................................................................................................................. 33

2.6 Democratic citizenship in a liberal democracy .................................................... 34

2.6.1 Citizenship ....................................................................................................... 35

2.6.2 Deliberative democratic citizenship ................................................................. 36

2.6.3 Civic education ................................................................................................ 39

2.7 Leadership development as an integral instrument to prepare youth for responsible citizenship ................................................................................................. 41

2.8 Conceptions of leadership promoting responsible citizenship ....................... 42

2.9 Constructions of leadership and leadership education in relation to youth .... 43

2.10 Appropriate SA youth leadership development aligned with education and CAPS outcomes ........................................................................................................ 45

viii
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

3.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH QUESTION

3.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM

3.4 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.6 RESEARCH CONTEXT

3.7 SAMPLING

3.8 DATA CONSTRUCTION METHODS

3.8.1 Interviews

3.8.1.1 Semi-structured Interviews

3.8.1.2 Focus group interviews

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS

3.10 ISSUES OF RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

3.10.1 Credibility

3.10.2 Dependability

3.10.3 Confirmability

3.10.4 Transferability

3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

3.11.1 Confidentiality

3.11.2 Informed consent

3.11.3 Debriefing

3.11.4 Voluntary participation

3.12 SUMMARY

CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

4.1.1 Research context

4.1.2 Biographical information of participants

4.1.3 Interviews with LO teachers and Grade 12 learners

4.2 VIEWS OF TEACHERS ON SHARED CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED BY LEARNERS IN THE SCHOOL CONTEXT

4.3 EXPLORING THE APPROPRIATE SKILLS OR QUALITIES REQUIRED BY LEARNERS FOR RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP

4.3.1 Teachers: The preparedness of learners for life after school

4.3.2 Learners: The preparedness of learners for life after school

4.3.3 Teachers: The skills or qualities required by learners as they enter life after school

4.3.4 Learners: The skills or qualities required by learners in preparation for life after school

4.4 PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

4.4.1 Learners: Towards a definition of ‘citizenship’

4.4.2 Teachers: The programmes or practices at the schools that promote democratic citizenship

4.4.3 Learners: Perspectives on content relating to being a ‘good citizen’

4.5 PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF LEADERSHIP

4.5.1 Learners: Understandings of ‘leadership’
CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

5.2 SHARED CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED BY LEARNERS

5.3 VIEWS OF THE SKILLS AND QUALITIES REQUIRED BY LEARNERS FOR DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

5.4 PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

5.5 PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF LEADERSHIP

5.6 LEADERSHIP INITIATIVES WITHIN THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

5.7 VIEWS OF LIFE SKILLS TAUGHT IN LO CLASSES

5.8 SUMMARY

CHAPTER 6: SYNOPSIS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

6.2 SYNOPSIS OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

6.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

6.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.5.1 Recommendations for the implementation of CAPS with regard to skills development

6.5.2 Recommendations in terms of LO teachers – teaching and learning

6.6 SIGNIFICANCE AND POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTION OF STUDY

6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

6.8 CONCLUSION

REFERENCES

APPENDIX A: WCED APPROVAL
APPENDIX B: ETHICAL CLEARANCE ................................................................. 174
APPENDIX C: LEARNER CONSENT FORM .................................................. 176
APPENDIX D: TEACHER CONSENT FORM .................................................. 179
APPENDIX E: PARENTAL CONSENT FORM .................................................. 183
APPENDIX F: RESEARCH QUESTIONS TO LEARNERS ................................. 187
APPENDIX G: RESEARCH QUESTIONS TO TEACHERS ................................. 188
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Since 1994, the South African education system has undergone ongoing transformation following the transition of South Africa [SA] from apartheid to a constitutional democracy. South Africa’s current curriculum, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), is consistent with the principles underlying the new democratic dispensation (Department of Basic Education [DBE], 2011a:5). The CAPS promotes a democratic learning culture, which embraces the democratic values of equality, liberty and human rights (Department of Education [DoE], 1996).

The CAPS aims to produce learners who have the necessary skills for identifying and solving problems, for being independent, critical and creative thinkers, who are able to work as part of a team, who are able to organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively, and who see the world as a set of inter-related systems (DBE, 2011a).

A significant percentage of the youth in SA face diverse challenges. Those in school face the pressures of finishing school, sometimes under difficult circumstances, and those outside of the schooling system, face the challenge of entering tertiary education or finding a job amidst a high unemployment rate. According to South Africa’s New Growth Path (NGP) (Economic Development Department [EDD], 2011), the main challenges keeping young people from meaningful participation in society and contributing towards the economy are unemployment, poverty and inequality. Other factors that affect learners’ personal development as they transition from the schooling system to tertiary education and/or the work force, include health risks, such as HIV/AIDS, teenage pregnancies and substance abuse, exposure to violence, i.e. violence in schools or within their communities, as well as ‘fractured families’, which refers to youth growing up in single-parent households or households with absent parental figures. Skills that could prepare learners for the aforementioned challenges relate to personal problem management, personal health management, interpersonal skills development and life-planning (DBE, 2011b:8).

This study provided an in-depth exploration of the CAPS and investigated whether it delivers on its desired outcomes of producing learners who are equipped with the skills they require for responsible leadership. For all youth to participate fully in society and demonstrate responsibility as they assume leadership roles within our democracy,
they need leadership development, as this is a prerequisite for responsible citizenship (Mirvis, DeJongh, Googins, Quinn & Van Velsor, 2010).

“Helping learners develop the integrity and strength of character that prepare them for leadership may be one of the most challenging and important goals of… education” (King, 1997:87). Ornstein, Pajak and Ornstein (2011) and Riggio (2009) state that the development of leadership skills in learners improves their self-development, which in turn results in an increase in their self-confidence and academic growth. The practice of youth leadership development is neither well understood nor researched within the SA context. It was therefore necessary to examine how leadership development is incorporated within CAPS in order to evaluate the objectives of CAPS and to comment on its implementation.

1.1 Rationale for and background to the study

This section describes the rationale for and background to this research study by firstly providing insight into the transformation in education following the transition of SA to a democracy (subsection 1.1.1), after which the researcher’s personal motivation for the study is expressed (subsection 1.1.2). Thereafter an account of the challenges facing the youth in SA is provided (subsection 1.1.3) and, lastly, the role of education in preparing learners for democratic citizenship is introduced (subsection 1.1.4).

1.1.1 Transformation in education following the transition of SA to a democracy

For about five decades, state Taylor and Yu (2009:5), “the hierarchical structure of [South African] society, including access to wealth, prestige and power, was constructed to be on the basis of race through decades and even centuries of institutionalised inequality”. The racist policies of the apartheid government deliberately ensured that income inequalities were structured along racial lines.

The apartheid policies comprised four racial classifications for South Africans, namely white, black, coloured and Indian, and people were segregated according to these racial classifications, which affected every aspect of their daily lives. Black people were deprived of their SA citizenship and were instead segregated as citizens of tribally based self-governing homelands, called Bantustans (see South Africa (Union), 1953). The Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953 (South Africa (Union), 1953), established by the ruling white minority, was therefore aimed at educating and training black people
for certain types of jobs only, thus retaining control over them, and subordinating them to the ruling minority (South Africa (Union), 1953). Bantu education, according to Nkabinde (1997:8), had the purpose of denying its recipients “of intellectual independence, which would be a prerequisite to achieve economic, social and political independence”. As intended with its implementation, Bantu education was not able to provide the intellectual development required for effective and responsible citizenship, and thus denied black people the skills necessary for active participation within society and resultantly, by controlling the curriculum in black schools, the ruling white minority ensured that they remained in control (Nkabinde, 1997).

From the above literature, it is clear that Bantu education imposed upon black children ensured that they could not learn or lead and that they had to be educated for the purpose of serving white people only (Christie & Collins, 1984). Kallaway (1988) builds upon this argument by explaining that Bantu education “indoctrinated’ the people and restricted learner development by gaining “control over the intellectual development’ of the learners and teachers. As whites and non-whites were segregated from each other for many years, and the superiority complex of whites became enhanced, apartheid had damaging effects on the recipients of its policies.

The goals of Bantu education were never to produce entrepreneurs, creative, independent thinkers and leaders, but rather to produce workers and obedient followers (Christie & Collins, 1984). The majority of South Africans therefore grew up with the idea that they were never destined to be leaders or required to develop leadership skills for participating within society. In understanding the historical context within which the research was based, one realises the importance of leadership development amongst the youth of SA.

Education in post-apartheid SA has undergone a number of transformations with the aim of redressing the inequalities of the past. Since 1994, the DBE has built a clear policy foundation to clarify the type of education system envisioned in the Constitution of the Republic of SA [RSA]. According to The Bill of Rights in the Constitution (RSA, 1996a), a society “based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights” is envisaged and, resultantly, education is to be seen as an instrument that could root the SA values enshrined in section 1(a) of the Constitution (RSA, 1996a).
Guiding the implementation of the vision as set out by the SA Constitution, is the National Education Policy Act (NEPA) (DoE, 1996a:6), which commits the state to “[enable] the education system to contribute to the full personal development of each learner, and to the moral, social, cultural, political and economic development of the nation at large”.

For the purpose of this study, it is important to note that the aims of the current SA curriculum, i.e. CAPS, stand in stark contrast to what apartheid education implemented, as CAPS is based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights, with the purpose of contributing to the full personal development of each learner and equipping all learners with the skills they require for responsible citizenship and leadership capacity (DBE, 2011a).

It is indicative that there is an immense responsibility on the SA education system regarding the implementation of the curriculum in line with the values prescribed by the Constitution of the Republic of SA (RSA, 1996a). The fundamental values that underpin the SA education system is aimed at empowering learners for effective citizenship and individual enrichment.

CAPS were implemented since January 2012 within The Foundation Phase (Grades R-3) and Grade 10 (FET) [Further Education and Training], since January 2013 within The Intermediate Phase (Grades 4-6) and Grade 11 (FET) and since January 2014 within the Senior Phase (Grades 7-9) and Grade 12 (FET). The introduction of CAPS, brings a “single, comprehensive policy document” for every subject in each Grade (R-12) and which provides details on what teachers need to teach and assess (DBE, 2011a:3).

CAPS forms part of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) Grades R–12, which represents a policy statement for learning and teaching in SA schools. In this regard, the values and principles stipulated in CAPS are aligned to the Constitution, namely:

- social transformation;
- active and critical thinking;
- high knowledge and high skills;
- progression;
- human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice;
- valuing indigenous knowledge systems;
- credibility, quality and efficiency; and
• providing an education that is comparable in quality, breadth and depth to those of other countries (DBE, 2011a:5).

According to the DBE (2011a:4), the CAPS for each approved school subject, “serve[s] the purpose of equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country”.

For the purpose of this study, it was important to note that the educational sector in SA is not only tasked with instilling the said values that are manifested in the CAPS within learners, but also needs to comply with the purpose of CAPS in preparing learners for participation in society as active citizens of the country. In other words, the CAPS aims to ensure that learners have the necessary skills for identifying and solving problems, for being critical and creative thinkers, who are able to work as part of a team, who are able to organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively, and who see the world as a set of inter-related systems (DBE, 2011a).

In my experience as a teacher, too much attention is still given to the implementation of the CAPS and the outcome of academic results, while very little attention is given to the other listed objectives of the CAPS relating to the skills that learners require throughout their school career in order to become well-rounded responsible, democratic citizens. If the CAPS aims to contribute to the full personal development of each learner, then more focus should be given to leadership skills development within the curriculum.

1.1.2 Becoming personally interested in researching learner leadership development

I have realised the need for the exploration of the fields of democratic citizenship education and leadership development in SA schools, due to my experiences as a teacher in a multicultural high school in SA with learners from very diverse backgrounds, which relate inter alia to their race, religion, socio-economic status, ethnicity and language preference. I noted the challenges with which many learners are faced on a daily basis. Some of these challenges are explained below.
From perusing various learners' personal information records, I have become aware that few learners live with both parents, and many are thus left to their own devices to a great extent. In some cases, the learner is tasked with the responsibility of caring for his or her younger siblings. In any event, parental involvement and participation at the school are minimal to non-existent. Ongoing challenges include teenage pregnancies as revealed by the school’s statistics and records and poverty, which results in learners coming to school hungry.

Many learners live in overcrowded homes and have difficulty studying at home or concentrating in class, due to the psychological and physical influences of the home environment on the learner. Most learners need to travel long distances between the school and their homes, and in some cases, learners walk home alone.

As a teacher, I have become increasingly concerned by the levels of demotivation and hopelessness amongst learners. Learners do not have goals and they have no clear direction of what they would like to do with their lives. The school remains focused on its core purpose of implementing a curriculum, and has few options available for the development of the necessary skills and leadership capabilities among learners to assist them in dealing with these challenges. Learners do not have support networks to guide them through decision-making or difficult circumstances and are alone in their struggle towards the successful completion of their high school career. They are in dire need of empowerment in order to make a success of their lives and to be responsible citizens of society.

I believe that leadership development is a lifelong process, which needs to be supported and guided from an early age, and that learners should therefore be given the opportunity for leadership development. The only form of learner leadership development at the particular high school where I teach, is that of the representative council of learners (RCL) and the prefects, where only a handful of learners are involved and chosen on the basis of preconceived ideas of ‘leadership’. The majority, however, are left to find their own way, but in the absence of clear direction and a sense of who they are, how are they supposed to become the types of citizens that the Constitution expects, and the curriculum claims to be advocating?
1.1.3 Challenges facing youth in present-day SA

As is the case with many learners in the school where I teach, a significant percentage of the previously and existing disadvantaged youth in SA face many challenges. Those in school face the pressures of finishing school, and those looking for work face the challenge of finding jobs amidst a high unemployment rate. According to Stats SA (2018a), the main challenges keeping young people from meaningful participation in society and contributing towards the economy are unemployment, poverty and inequality. If these challenges are not confronted, the socio-economic effects of this situation will be frightening, and include increased crime, a poor economic performance, extreme unemployment, poverty, and possible political instability.

In SA, youth unemployment is at an alarming rate of 38.2% and remains one of the key challenges facing the youth, according to Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) of Statistics SA (Stats SA) (2018a). The high rate of unemployment amongst the youth is primarily due to increased school dropout rates and inadequate skills development, as stated by the QLFS (Stats SA, 2018a).

It is clear that the primary goal of the education system is to contribute to economic growth by producing learners who are adequately prepared for continuing with tertiary education or the workplace. SA’s National Youth Policy (NYP) (RSA, 2015), which is aimed at producing empowered young people who are able to realise their full potential and understand their roles and responsibilities in making a meaningful contribution to the development of a non-racial, equal, democratic and prosperous SA, highlights the challenges facing the youth in SA.

According to the NYP (RSA, 2015:11), “access to post-school education and training is limited for school leavers, and those who do not access these opportunities are often not sufficiently prepared for the workplace due to the poor quality of education and training provided”. Local research shows that the quality, duration and type of education an individual receives are directly related to his or her labour-market prospects (Van der Berg et al., 2011). The role of the CAPS in providing youth with the skills and preparation required after leaving school is therefore put under a magnifying glass.

In SA, the youth are faced with major health challenges, namely medical as well as behavioural and lifestyle factors, which could contribute individually or collectively to
ill health. The NYP (RSA, 2015) emphasises that chronic disorders are not often encountered by the youth, but that wrongful decision-making and risky behaviour could possibly lead to the development of these disorders later in life. According to the NYP (RSA, 2015), one of the biggest challenges facing the youth in SA, relates to the issue of sexual and reproductive health. Poor health affecting the youth includes the prevalence of HIV/AIDS, high fertility rates (pertaining to teenage pregnancies), alcohol consumption, substance abuse and suicide.

Makiwane and Kwizera (2009) state that HIV/AIDS is a prominent threat to the health of the youth, as SA has one of the highest number of HIV-infected individuals recorded in the world (see Stats SA, 2018b; UNAIDS, 2016). In SA in 2018, an “estimated 13,1% of the total population is HIV positive.” The HIV prevalence rate amongst young people aged 15–24 is 5.5% (Stats SA, 2018b). According to Pettifor et al. (2013) poor decision-making and risky behaviour could lead to possible HIV infection, and therefore the personal management of sexual and reproductive health is a major concern regarding the youth, and which they need to be prepared for at school level.

Poor decision-making regarding sexual and reproductive health is revealed in the SA Demographic and Health Survey 2016 Key Indicators Report (Stats SA, 2017), which was conducted by the South African Medical Research Council in cooperation with the National Department of Health. The main findings of the report (Stats SA, 2017b), indicate, 40% of youth reported having had sex of which 10% reported having four or more sexual partners. reported their age of initiation of sexual activity as being under 14 years”. Among the learners that had sex before, 47% had two or more sexual partners in their lifetime, 18% had sex after alcohol consumption, 13% had sex after substance use. The aforementioned statements on sexual activity amongst learners makes one wonder about the role that education plays in preparing learners for these life-changing decisions that require a value-based thought process.

Stats SA (2017b) reports that the age-specific fertility rate for teenagers was 71 births per 1000 women between the ages of 15 to 19. According to Stats SA (2016), teenagers between the ages of 10 and 19 contributed to 13.9% of all registered child births in 2016.

Teenage pregnancy is also one of the leading causes of early school dropouts, second to economic reasons. In SA, legislation allows young women to return to school after
pregnancy but only a third seems to re-enter the schooling system (Human Sciences Research Council [HSRC], 2009).

Substance abuse has also become a serious health issue in SA. The level of experimentation with drugs and alcohol has increased considerably, as indicated in the NYP (RSA, 2015). According to Stats SA (2017b) one in every four youths have at least consumed alcohol by the ages of 15 to 19 and the average age of drug dependency in SA is twelve years old and decreasing. This is alarming as alcohol and substance abuse is directly linked to increased levels of violence and also reckless sexual activity (Seggie, 2012).

It is important to note that the youth are not just faced with challenges within their control but sometimes with challenges over which they have no control, such as poverty. The amount of people living in extreme poverty, which is defined as persons living below the 2015 Food Poverty Line of R 441 per person per month) in SA is 13.8 million in 2015, as reported by Stats SA (2017a).

Stats SA (2017a) also reported that the people who are the most vulnerable to poverty in our society are, amongst others, children (aged 17 or younger), people living in rural areas and individuals with little or no education. This makes one think about the way in which poverty affects many of the youth’s daily activities and the important role that education plays in preparing the youth to manage the consequences of poverty in their lives.

As if poverty-stricken households did not present enough of a challenge, many children are growing up in ‘fractured’ families. ‘Fractured families’ refer to children growing up with absent fathers (or mothers), in single-parent households, or as the head of a household themselves (due to a lack of parental figures). Meintjies, Hall and Sambu (2015) reports that only 39.5% of children in SA lived with their mothers, but not with their fathers, and only 3.3% of children resided with their fathers only.

Many children in SA have lost one or both parents due to HIV/AIDS (see UNICEF, 2016), which is one of the main causes of death in SA. In 2016, approximately 13.4 million children between the ages of 18 years and younger had lost one or both parents due to HIV/AIDS, and it is reported that approximately 80% of these children are living in sub-Saharan Africa (UNICEF, 2016). Due to the absence of parental figures, many young people need to take responsibility for looking after their siblings or being the
leader of their household. How can a member of the youth possibly be prepared for such a big responsibility as leader? Education surely should be focused on equipping learners with skills associated with responsibility. Whether this is really taking place, is another question.

Unemployment, poverty, teenage pregnancy, health risks such as HIV/AIDS, alcohol consumption and substance abuse all play a central role in determining the future of the youth of SA. Investing in young people could prove to be beneficial in creating pathways for accelerated economic, social and political development (NPC, 2012). This however sheds light on the central focus of this research, being the inquiry into the critical role of education in setting the foundation on which the youth are to be sculpted into self-fulfilled, self-disciplined, responsible individuals who are adequately skilled, who possess health management skills, and who are able to participate actively in society on the basis of value-driven decision-making.

1.1.4 Role of education in preparing learners for democratic citizenship

Education in SA is expected to fulfil many roles – from contributing towards the transformation of socio-economic conditions to the cultivation of citizens who participate proactively towards the betterment of the SA society and who are responsible and critical in their judgement and actions.

With the growing job market demand for leaders to fill positions, such as within the technology sector, schools are faced with the strenuous but rewarding task of growing effective leaders for these 21st-century roles (Sacks, 2009; Scheer & Safrit, 2001).

The DBE is one of the critical sectors where youth need to be fully prepared and moulded into active citizens who can contribute towards the vision of the new SA, and also a future Africa. The challenge for the DBE (Further Education and Training [FET]) is how the goals and values of social justice, equity and democracy can be integrated into the curriculum. The promotion of values underpinning responsible behaviours is important, not only for the sake of personal development, but also to ensure that a national SA identity is built on a foundation of values underpinned by democratic citizenship.

can be taught the values and skills necessary to administer, protect and perpetuate a free democratic society”.

The general aims of the SA curriculum, as set out in the CAPS for each approved school subject by the DBE (2011a:4), serve the purpose of equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country”.

For the purpose of this study, it was important to note that:

- the current policy statements underlying the SA curriculum are rooted in the principles of human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice, as defined in the Constitution of the Republic of SA (DBE, 2011a:5); and
- the CAPS aims to produce learners who are able to –
  - identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;
  - work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team; and
  - critically, show responsibility towards the environment and the health of others (DBE, 2011a:5).

The CAPS contains the national curriculum for Grades 1 to 12 in public schools in SA and clearly states that the schooling system should produce learners who are able to “organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively” (DBE, 2011a:5). The CAPS emphasises the importance of all school learners to be independent, multi-skilled, caring and enabled to contribute to society as active citizens.

It follows that the role of education in assisting learners to develop and practice democratic citizenship should be explored in order to establish responsible citizens for the SA society. The primary purpose of this research was to establish whether high schools, by using the CAPS, equip learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership, which will enable them to perform self-management in all spheres of their lives and which will therefore ease their adjustment to societal leadership roles and support personal enrichment (DBE, 2011a:5). In order to evaluate the outcomes of the CAPS, it is necessary to examine whether the principles of the CAPS are being taught.
and modelled at schools. It is also important to question whether schools have programmes or practices in place that might promote democratic citizenship, and whether leadership development is incorporated in the implementation of the CAPS. This led me to explore whether learners are equipped with life skills, which are required for responsible leadership.

For the purpose of this study, it was important to take note that responsible leadership is a concept underpinned by democratic values, and in order to be responsible citizens, learners need to be equipped with the capacity to fulfil leadership roles as citizens. There is therefore a link between leadership development of those roles required to equip learners with competencies to manage their lives responsibly, and their voyage on the way towards responsible citizens.

1.2 Problem statement

The CAPS curriculum, which upholds the principles of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) Grades R–12, serves the purposes of preparing learners with the knowledge, skills and values they require for “self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens” and “facilitating the transition of learners from education institutions to the workplace” (DBE, 2011a:4). However, the question is whether the purpose and aims of the CAPS eventually work together towards the creation of responsible citizens, equipped with democratic values and leadership towards managing their lives as responsible citizens interconnected with the diversity in the contemporary SA society.

The role of education in equipping learners with the skills required for responsible leadership needs to be explored to determine whether schools reach the objectives as listed by the CAPS for each subject. I have shown (see 1.1.3) that the youth in SA face many challenges and that the burden placed on the education system is considerable. Even though education plays a crucial role in the development of all learners, it is important to question whether it is at all possible for education to be solely responsible for addressing the challenges faced by the youth, as mentioned previously (see 1.1.3). The transversal nature of some of the challenges probably requires contributions from sectors other than or in tandem with the DBE and this reality was explored in more depth in the present study.
1.3 Significance of the study

As part of the World Conference on Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) led by UNESCO in November 2014, SA was praised for having made significant progress in the area of ESD in the past decade (2004 to 2014) (Lotz-Sisitka, 2015).

There is, however, much room for improvement in strengthening basic education by giving attention to advancing policy, empowering and mobilising the youth, and encouraging local communities and municipal authorities to develop community-based ESD programmes (Taylor, 2014).

The youth need to be seen as a driving force towards social, political and economic stability of SA, attention should be given to their needs, and their voices should be listened to. If the youth component of SA could become responsible citizens involved in all sectors of society, then education has achieved the aims it has set for itself.

There is, however, limited research on whether the CAPS are fulfilling its stated objectives, such as producing critically minded, independent learners who are able to act responsibly in their societal roles.

De Lannoy et al. (2015:22) add, “little evidence-based support continues for children as they turn into adolescents and later into young adults”. Unfortunately, many leadership studies are focused primarily on adult leadership development and little attention is given to developing the right type of leadership qualities needed by adolescents (Chan, 2000).

All citizens will, at some point in their lives, have to fulfil leadership roles relating to family, the community, finances or their careers. In recent years, however, literature on leadership development has shown an evolution from the traditional view to a view where everyone can possess the skills needed to be a leader (Middlebrooks & Haberkorn, 2009). If quality leadership among citizens is required for improving society, where better than in the school, could the youth be prepared to take up their leadership role?

Sparse attention is currently given to sustained and conscious leadership programmes at schools, with only a handful of learners being given the opportunity for leadership development through small initiatives such as camps, which are only arranged for the RCL or prefects. While academic results – as made manifest through the matric results
– are given considerable attention, questions are seldom asked about the calibre of youth that SA schools are producing.

It is therefore clear that the significance of this study was to isolate deficiencies within the CAPS relating to the development of skills needed by learners to contribute proactively towards society and to be leaders within personal and societal spheres.

1.4 Contributions of the study

“Young people have become the focus of intense interest to policymakers because they can be a major source of problems as well as a major resource for national development” (Stats SA, 2010:31).

It is important to note that, regarding SA education policy, much progress has been made since 1994, including access to education and skills development. However, as pointed out by the National Youth Policy (RSA, 2015), there is still much to be done regarding youth employment and training, the integration of youth within the private sector, increasing opportunities for economic participation, improving race relations, and civic engagement (such as voting). Serious attention should also be given to reducing HIV prevalence and infection rates, substance abuse, violence, risky sexual behaviour, and reinforcing healthy living and nutrition (RSA, 2015).

This study provided new insights into the manner in which the CAPS could be implemented in order for it to achieve its stated objectives, especially as concerns the moulding of learners into responsible citizens. This study also critically examined the CAPS in order to assess whether the youth that schools are producing, can apply personal problem management, personal health management, planning and interpersonal relationship management, as these skills are crucial for societal roles.

As my research was aimed at acquiring in-depth knowledge of the role that education plays in preparing learners for responsible leadership by taking the perspectives of teachers and learners into account, the outcome of the research will have the potential of informing educational policy and providing new insights into the implementation of democratic citizenship education.

It is hoped that the outcome of this research will enable policymakers, curriculum advisors, administrators, teachers, learners, parents and the community at large to acknowledge the importance of leadership development and democratic citizenship education within the curriculum. Furthermore, the insights derived from this research
might help teachers to revisit their teaching strategies and adopt approaches that incorporate life skills development and leadership development programmes, strategies or opportunities in every aspect of teaching and learning in order to mould learners into well-rounded, independent, critically minded individuals who are ready to handle or manage the challenges they might face.

1.5 Research question

To address the problems stated above, the following research question guided and directed the study:

Does the CAPS equip learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership?

In order to answer this question, six subsidiary questions were asked:

- How do teachers and learners interpret the principles of the CAPS?
- How do teachers and learners understand and relate to conceptions of democratic citizenship?
- Do schools have programmes or practices in place that might promote democratic citizenship?
- How do teachers and learners understand and relate to conceptions of leadership?
- How do the schools incorporate leadership development within the school environment?
- Are learners equipped with life skills in Life Orientation?

1.6 Objectives

This study argued that research is needed to explore the role that education plays in equipping high school learners with the skills required to participate in a democratic society. It was further argued that the present research could help schools to comply with the general aims of the SA curriculum, namely the CAPS (DBE, 2011a), and that the research could also contribute towards democratic citizenship education. By means of this study, I aimed to achieve the following objectives:

- to interrogate why the CAPS is not cultivating the types of citizens that fulfil the principles of democratic citizenship, given the challenges that the youth face;
- to understand how teachers and learners relate to conceptions of democratic citizenship;
• to examine whether schools have programmes or practices in place that promote democratic citizenship;
• to investigate whether schools incorporate leadership development as a prerequisite for democratic citizenship to help all learners deal with life skills, such as planning, health management, personal problem management, and interpersonal relationship management; and
• to determine what life skills in LO, learners are equipped with.

1.7 Research methodology

This section provides information on the research design and methodology used in analysing the data obtained in this study. The section also provides a description of the research context and an explanation of the data construction techniques used in the research study.

1.7.1 Research design

This research study focussed on the role of education in equipping learners with the skills required for responsible leadership. This was best assessed through a qualitative methodology that sought to understand the learners’ perspective as well as the teachers’ perspective.

The nature of this study was focused on democratic citizenship education and how this could contribute towards responsible leadership, therefore a phenomenological research design was used. Leedy and Ormrod (2001:153) define phenomenology as a “person’s perception of the meaning of an event, as opposed to the event as it exists external to the person”. Leedy and Ormrod (2001:153) argue that a phenomenological study aims to “understand people’s perceptions of and perspectives on a particular occurrence, and the meaning they attach to the occurrence”.

According to Creswell (2007), a phenomenological study emphasises the individual’s experiences on a given topic. The benefit of a phenomenological study is that it allows the participants to share their lived experiences through interviews and focus groups. Qualitative research guides the researcher in answering questions that require clarification, justification and further knowledge expansion on the given topic under exploration (Cottrell & McKenzie, 2011).
1.7.2 Methodology

This research study was informed by the interpretive research paradigm through which the research selected data collection and data analyses procedures in order to investigate a specific research problem. In order to understand teachers’ and learners’ experiences and perspectives of leadership development and democratic citizenship, and the influence of the phenomena (i.e. democratic citizenship education and leadership development) on the overall education of learners (if any). Klein and Myers (1999) states that an interpretive approach sets out to understand phenomena through the meanings that people assign to their own experiences of the phenomena under investigation.

1.7.3 Research context

For the purposes of this study, three high schools in the Metropole North Education District in the Western Cape were selected as the sites from which the data would be constructed. The three high schools differed in terms of the areas where they were located and also in terms of socio-economic status, language, culture, race and religion. Learners were also from different economic backgrounds and were thus part of a very diverse learning group.

School A was located in a small township with predominantly Xhosa-speaking black African\(^1\) residents. Unemployment, extreme poverty, crime and a lack of resources are major challenges in the area. School B was located in an area characterised by predominantly Afrikaans-speaking, coloured\(^2\) residents. Unemployment, a shortage of housing and crime are major challenges in the area. School C was located in a middle-class suburb consisting of predominantly white,\(^3\) English-speaking residents. At the time of this research, School C had an influx of learners who were diverse regarding socio-economic status, culture, language, religion and so forth. The area where school C was located, did not seem to be affected by socio-economic problems. I selected

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\(^1\) The terms ‘coloured’, ‘white’ and ‘black’ derive from the apartheid racial classifications of different peoples in SA. The use of these terms, although problematic, has continued through the post-apartheid era in the country. In my study, I use these terms not as a means to legitimise these racial labels, but to help present the necessary context for my work.
these three schools based on the cultural diversity of the schools, and the racial and socio-economic diversity of their learners.

1.7.4 Population and sampling

‘Sampling’ refers to the procedure used by the researcher in order to select the participants or organisations involved in the study (Peersman, 2014). For the purpose of this study, the selection of participants was guided by making use of purposeful or purposive sampling (see Patton, 2002) in order to ensure that the data collected is valuable in contributing to the development of theory or content.

Purposive sampling is of use when selecting participants who are diverse. Neuman (2000) states that purposive sampling uses the judgement of an expert in selecting participants with a specific purpose in mind. In using this form of sampling, a total of fifteen Grade 12 learners and three Life Orientation teachers in three public high schools were selected for the study. Five learners were selected from each high school as they had been exposed to the CAPS longest of all learners. One Grade 12 Life Orientation teacher from each school was selected as it was believed that they had experience teaching Life Orientation within the CAPS.

1.7.5 Data construction techniques

Through this research, I hoped to gain an in-depth understanding of the role played by the CAPS in developing the necessary skills learners need for responsible leadership in a manner that cannot easily be captured by standardised measures. In order to do so, interviews were conducted and focus groups held with learners and teachers at the three high schools, labelled Schools A, B and C, in the Metropole North Education District of the Western Cape. The three focus schools were chosen based on the geographic diversity of the schools.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) argue that the use of interviews ensures listening and talking to the interviewees in order to create a good understanding of the information required so as to produce relevant data. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with five learners from each school and one Life Orientation teacher from each school. Individual semi-structured interviews with teachers and focus group interviews with learners assisted in developing in-depth views of the experiences and perspectives of the participants involved.
Semi-structured interviews involve prepared questioning ahead of time, guided by identified themes in a consistent and systematic manner, which allows the interviewer to be prepared as well as to appear confident during the interview (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006) state that these methods of data construction allow the researcher to build an understanding of the phenomenon under discussion through observing particular instances of the phenomena as viewed in specific contexts.

The decision to use individual semi-structured interviews as well as focus group interviews was underpinned by the objectives of the research study and the epistemology that guided the research. As I viewed social reality as being constructed, and made use of phenomenology as research paradigm, the interviewing of participants was approached from the participants’ own perspective (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

1.7.6 Data analysis

_Transcription, coding, and analysis_ of sets of data from the semi-structured interviews and focus groups were conducted in order to compare the different perspectives of the participants to formulate an answer to the research question, as well as answers to the subsidiary questions. _Coding_ is the assignment of codes to the reviewed, unedited, qualitative data captured in words, sentences, phrases and paragraphs during the focus groups and interviews conducted by the researcher (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). Through the coding process, emerging themes from the in-depth interviews and the data from the focus groups were determined. Results of the data provided an answer to the main research question, as well as the subsidiary research questions.

1.8 Delimitations of the study

This research study provided an exploration of the role of the CAPS in preparing high school learners for responsible leadership. The data construction methods were focused on three high schools in the Metropole North Education District of the Western Cape. In this research study, the sample comprised fifteen Grade 12 learners and three Life Orientation teachers from three different high schools in the Metropole North Education District of the Western Cape.
Firstly, I decided to use only Grade 12 learners, as they had been exposed to CAPS the longest of all learners. I was confident that they could provide me with valuable information regarding their experiences of the CAPS. The Grade 12 learners who were interviewed were learners in leadership roles and therefore could also provide information regarding the various leadership initiatives at their respective schools. Secondly, I selected Grade 12 Life Orientation teachers, as democratic citizenship education forms part of the CAPS Life Orientation syllabus (see DBE, 2011b). I was confident that they could provide with valuable information regarding the CAPS Life Orientation syllabus and democratic citizenship education.

1.9 Ethical considerations

In order to be able to conduct the research in the selected schools, permission was obtained from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED). In addition, ethical clearance was also granted by Stellenbosch University, and written consent was provided by the principals of the three high schools under investigation. Before conducting the interviews with the teachers and learners, all participants were informed that their participation was voluntary, that they could withdraw from the investigation at any point, and that they were free to ask questions if there were any queries. The participants were provided with informed consent forms, which presented a clarification of the ethical considerations of the research study. The learner participants were also provided with parental consent forms in order for their parents to grant permission on their behalf to participate in the study. The participants were advised that their responses would be kept confidential, and they were assured of anonymity, and that the recorded information would only be used for the purpose of this research study.

1.10 Brief chapter overview

This chapter provided an introduction to the research study, namely the motivation for undertaking the study, the background to the research and the research context. The chapter also set out the research questions that the study addressed, and the significance of the study. Additionally, there was a brief description of the research design and research methodology as well as the delimitation of the study and ethical considerations observed in this study. Finally, this chapter concluded with a delineation of the study.
Chapter Two will provide an account of the state of the youth in SA supported by recent statistical evidence. This is followed by my journey in search of a theoretical framework that had to serve as foundation for the research study. Descriptions of different constructions of leadership education relating to youth are examined and evaluated. Leadership as a generic and transversal role for responsible citizens was analysed, and this is reported. Furthermore, the role of education in preparing learners for democratic citizenship is reviewed based upon literature. This leads to a discussion on the importance of leadership development as a support framework for the challenges facing the youth.

A conceptual framework is formulated based on the ideological underpinnings of democratic citizenship in SA.

Chapter Three discusses the research methodology, which was used in this qualitative research study. Stated briefly, a phenomenological research design was used as a lens through which the research could be viewed. Three geographically diverse high schools in the Metropole North Education District of the Western Cape served to contextualise the study. Learners from the three schools represented the diverse SA society, and the communities in which the schools were located, were seen as presenting different challenges to the learners of these schools.

In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the role played by education in developing the skills learners require for responsible leadership, individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with one Life Orientation teacher from each of the three high schools. Focus group interviews were conducted with five learners from each of the three high schools. Only Grade 12 learners, 17 or 18 years of age, were used as participants for research purposes since they had been exposed longest of all learners to preparation (or not) for responsible leadership.

Chapter Four presents the emerging themes from the in-depth interviews and focus group interviews as the results of the study.

Chapter Five provides document analysis, transcription and coding to reflect the results of analyses of the data from the interviews and focus groups and then shows the integration of emerging themes from the in-depth discussions in order to answer the main research question.
Chapter Six presents the final discussions of this study, as well as recommendations for learners, schools, teachers, curriculum planners and policymakers. The limitations of this study and recommendations for future research are presented, and conclude this investigation.

1.11 Summary

Chapter 1 provided an orientation to the study undertaken regarding the role of CAPS in preparing school learners for responsible leadership. This was achieved by providing an overview of and background to the research problem. The background was followed by a summary of the problem statement and the research questions. The overall goal, aims and objectives of the study were then presented. The field and scope of the study was demarcated and the significance and value of the study to the profession summarised. A brief synopsis of the research methodology and the delimitations of the study were provided. Lastly, the ethical considerations were discussed and a brief chapter overview provided.

The following chapter will present the context, concepts and discussion on the relevant literature and set the background for democratic citizenship education and learner leadership development. This will form the foundation of the study.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This research study aimed to determine whether the CAPS (DBE, 2011a) equips high school learners with the necessary skills for responsible leadership. This chapter therefore provides an in-depth review of the literature available on the state of the youth in SA, democratic citizenship education and responsible leadership, in order to gain an understanding of the rationale for the research study.

I firstly expand on the state of the youth in SA, as it was the motivation for my research study, and provide a detailed description of the disparate challenges facing the youth in present-day SA. I then explain the role of Bantu education in creating skewed conceptions of citizen leadership amongst the youth. The first two sections informed the reason for the objectives and aims set out in the CAPS, as part of the goal of the education department of addressing the inequalities of the past. Thereafter, I expand on the importance of democratic citizenship education in post-apartheid SA, where I explore Penny Enslin’s (2003) view of citizenship in the context of SA, and argue for educational transformation towards inclusive responsible leadership in the SA democracy, and that the CAPS is seen as a potential instrument of this change.

The CAPS aims to produce responsible citizens, and it is therefore necessary to include relevant research on the skills required for responsible leadership (DBE, 2011a). I therefore explored the work of Biesta and Lawy (2006), and thereafter formulated my own understanding of a deliberative democratic civic education, in the context of post-apartheid SA by drawing upon the deliberative democratic theoretical model of Amy Gutmann and Dennis Thompson (2004).

I further discuss the importance of leadership development as an integral instrument to prepare the youth for responsible citizenship in SA, whereby I delve into conceptions of leadership promoting responsible citizenship and various constructions of leadership relating to the youth. I propose how youth leadership developments can be implemented in line with the education system and the outcomes of the CAPS in order to address the main personal challenges facing the youth of SA, and enhance democratic citizenship education. I conclude this chapter with a discussion on the notion of ‘student voice’, its implications for democratic citizenship education, and the
potential for youth leadership development, after which a chapter summary is provided.

2.2 State of the youth in SA

While the SA history has been driven in part by young people through the Soweto uprising in 1976, young people are facing many challenges in modern-day society. In SA, school-going learners (between the ages of 5 and 19) comprise 27.45% of the population, while young people (between the ages of 14 and 35) comprise 35.66% of the population (see Stats SA, 2018b), it is crucial to establish firstly who is defined as ‘young people’ or the ‘youth’, and secondly, to describe the state of the youth in SA, as this was relevant to my research.

The Children’s Act (No. 38 of 2005) (RSA, 2005) defines a child as a person up to the age of 18 years old. As per the National Youth Commission (NYC) Act (No. 19 of 1996) (RSA, 1996c), the National Youth Development Policy Framework (RSA, 2002) and the NYP (RSA, 2015), the ‘youth’ comprises those persons who are between the ages of 14 and 35 years. The NYP (RSA, 2015), which is geared towards prioritising the needs of young people with respect to education, health and well-being, economic participation and social cohesion, emphasises that one should be cognisant that the ‘youth’ does not form a homogenous group, and conduct one’s research accordingly. In SA, ‘youth’ is a multifaceted concept and it is therefore important to utilise the definition of youth as stipulated by UNESCO also:

‘Youth’ is best understood as a period of transition from the dependence of childhood to adulthood’s independence and awareness of our interdependence as members of a community. Youth is a more fluid category than a fixed age-group (UNESCO, 2016, n.p.).

The National Development Plan (NDP) (2011–2030) (RSA, 2011a), which is founded on the vision of the SA Constitution of a prosperous, democratic, non-sexist, non-racist and equal society, predicts the possible outcomes for a country having such a large youth cohort:

Having a relatively young population can be advantageous, provided the majority of working-age-individuals are skilled, their energies and innovative capabilities

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4 The Soweto uprising was a series of protests against the introduction of Afrikaans as one of the languages of instruction, led by high school learners in Soweto, South Africa (see SAHO [South African History Online], 2018).
harnessed, thus enabled to positively contribute to society and to the economy. A large workforce with fewer children to support creates a window of opportunity to increase economic output and invest in technology, education and skills to create the wealth needed to cope with the future aging of the population. Some economists call this window of opportunity the “demographic dividend” (or “bonus”). The challenge is to convert this into a demographic dividend. If South Africa fails to do this, its large youth cohort could pose a serious threat to social, political and economic stability (RSA, 2011b:98).

When describing the current state of the youth in SA, I am referring to those persons who are aged between 14 and 35. However, due to my research being focused on the role of the CAPS (DBE, 2011a) in equipping learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership, the youth associated with my research context therefore comprised those persons enrolled in the schooling system of SA.

It was thus critical to realise that learners older than eighteen are often still at school, due to a number of reasons, such as academic underperformance, returning to school after having failed before, health challenges, socio-economic challenges and teenage pregnancy. There is also an influx of learners, who are sometimes not of schooling age, from neighbouring countries, who need to enrol in the SA education system due to accreditation challenges. The aforementioned reasons support the fluidity of the notion ‘youth’.

In Chapter 1, I described the wide array of challenges experienced by the youth in SA. It is therefore important that we understand the disparate experiences of the youth, due to inequality, and how these affect their daily lives. As the Poverty and Inequality Initiative at UCT points out, “Racial, class and gender inequalities continue to shape young people’s lives, dreams and opportunities. Especially among previously disadvantaged groups, levels of school drop-out, unemployment and discouraged work seekers are high” (De Lannoy et al., 2015:22).

and there are areas of extreme wealth and areas of extreme poverty. Even though
great progress has been made in deconstructing apartheid institutions and policies,
introducing affirmative action, and free basic services, grants and taxes favouring the
poor, geographical distribution of communities and race still remain powerful
determinants of impoverishment and distress, and resultantly of the future of many
children in SA.

The sad reality in SA is that many children are born to households where extreme
poverty reigns, also referred to as “inter-generational poverty” (see SAHRC &
UNICEF, 2014:130). The unequal society in SA gives rise to very different experiences
among the youth. A 14-year old girl growing up in an informal settlement, within a
remote rural area with extreme poverty, poor housing conditions and a lack of basic
needs, will experience life very differently from a 14-year old girl growing up in an
urban middle- to high-income area, with access to excellent service delivery and
quality education.

Inequality places strain on education to equip all learners, irrespective of geographical
distribution, race, socio-economic circumstances or background, with the skills they
need for responsible democratic citizenship and active participation in society.
According to the SAHRC and UNICEF (2014), being connected with the broader
society has an effect on individuals’ life outcomes. It is therefore important to note that
poverty is directly proportional to social exclusion, and in SA, many youth experience
social exclusion due to the poverty-stricken or remote rural areas in which they are
‘trapped’. Social exclusion is a contested concept with many meanings. Burchardt, Le
Grand and Piachaud (2002:30) state, “an individual is socially excluded if he or she
does not participate in key activities of the society in which he or she lives”.

I see social exclusion therefore as a form of deprivation represented by a
disconnection between an individual and society, where the individual is distanced
from social relationships with others and from social activities within his or her
community. Youth that grow up in areas characterised by victimisation, personal
violence and maltreatment of people, could also develop a fear of communal
interaction and therefore show social exclusion, as indicated by Sparkes and
Glennerster (2002). Youth who are socially excluded will be excluded from activities
that children from wealthier homes are able to partake in, and will not be exposed to
stimulating social relationships among other members of society, which is crucial for
personal development (Ridge, 2006:27). The youth living in poverty-stricken rural areas or informal settlements in SA, are also often exposed to violence or sexual abuse or neglect, and are more likely to engage in criminal activity or substance abuse (Fowler, Tompsett, Braciszewski, Jacques-Tiura & Baltes, 2009).

From the above discussion on the ‘state of the youth in SA’, it is clear that the youth face many challenges on a daily basis, and are therefore a vulnerable group, which also make up a large cohort of the SA population. The youth needs to be moulded into responsible citizens who are capable of active participation in society and able to manage themselves responsible. In order to become responsible citizens, the youth need to be equipped with the skills necessary for active participation in society, such as life planning, personal health management, personal problem management and interpersonal skills.

2.3 The role of Bantu education in creating skewed perceptions of citizen leadership amongst the youth of SA

Cabrera (2002:1) in “Living and surviving in a multiply wounded country” emphasises the significant impact of traumatic events within a country:

Trauma and pain afflict not only individuals. When they become widespread and ongoing, they affect entire communities and even the country as a whole. The implications are serious for people’s health, the resilience of the country’s social fabric, the success of the development schemes and the hope of the future.

In Chapter 1, discussing the background to this study, I gave a brief description on the transformation in education following the transition of SA to a democracy. In this section, I stated that the Bantu Education Act (No. 47 of 1953), was deliberately aimed at educating and training black people for only certain types of jobs, thus retaining control over them, and marginalising them to the ruling white minority (see SA (Union), 1953). Black people were deprived of their citizenship and were citizens of tribally based self-governing homelands, called Bantustans (see Christie & Collins, 1984).

The implementation of the Bantu Education Act of 1953 within the schooling system was a vivid example of the extension of racist ideologies through social engineering in the history of SA. It established that access of education be based on race:

There is no place (for the Bantu) in the European community above the level of certain forms of labour ... Until now he has been subjected to a school system which drew
him away from his own community and misled him by showing him the green pastures of European society in which he was not allowed to graze (Kallaway, 1984: 173).

The Bantu Education Act of 1953 had a considerable influence on the education system, as Bantu education purposely denied its recipients becoming intellectually independent, and therefore its recipients could not achieve economic, social or political independence in order to direct them to the unskilled labour market. The curriculum in black schools was controlled by the ruling white minority, and had the purpose of denying black people the necessary skills required for active participation in society and for effective and responsible citizenship (Kallaway, 1984).

The Bantu education system denied multiple generations of families the opportunity and access to quality education, which in turn withheld them from the opportunity to obtain knowledge, skills and experience in non-labour-intensive occupations. In describing Bantu education, Baard and Schreiner (1986) describe how the Bantu Education Act (South Africa (Union), 1953) was to make sure that children only learnt things that would make them good for what the government wanted: to work in the factories, for instance.

Children were not provided with leadership skills development or any form of leadership education, and this in turn had an influence on their personal development, as non-labour-intensive skills are critical for personal development and critical thinking (see Ndimande, 2013). Bantu education, and other racist policies at the time, also ensured that whites and non-whites remained segregated from each other for many years, which had damaging effects on all the people of SA, especially the youth at the time, as they were brought up to believe what was imposed upon them (see Wills, 2011).

Bantu education treated blacks as perpetual children in need of parental supervision by whites, which greatly limited learners’ visions of themselves in the broader SA society (Hartshorne, 1992:41). It is therefore clear that the goals of Bantu education were never to produce entrepreneurs or leaders, but rather followers (see Wills, 2011).

It can be safely deduced that most of the current youth’s grandparents and some of their parents and families are products of black education and this reality compels the education system to address and ameliorate the effect upon the youth of today.
Given this background on the role of Bantu education in promoting intolerance and exclusion of certain learners, as well as the disparate challenges facing the youth of SA, one would expect of the CAPS to promote a civic educational programme as part of democratic citizenship education in order to achieve its aims of addressing the inequalities of the past, and creating responsible citizens who are valuable contributors in an open society, respecting diversity and tolerating difference.

2.4 The importance of democratic citizenship education in post-apartheid SA

A crucial question for this study is whether the DoE, through various initiatives since 1994, is able to support the youth towards democratic citizenship, given the tremendous challenges the youth face due to historical political reasons and existing socio-economic dynamics in SA. It is therefore important to discuss the educational policies and practises towards reform implemented by the DoE.

Education is one of the critical sectors where youth need to be fully prepared and moulded into active citizens who can contribute towards the vision of the new SA, and also to a future Africa. The challenge for the DBE is to find ways in which the goals and values of social justice, equity and democracy can be integrated into the curriculum. The promotion of values underpinning responsible behaviours is important, not only for the sake of personal development, but also to ensure that a national SA identity is built on a foundation of democratic values and the promotion of democratic citizenship (DBE, 2011a:5).

According to Giroux (1995:6), “public schools must assist in the unending work of preparing citizens for self-governance in an evolving social environment … learners can be taught the values and skills necessary to administer, protect and perpetuate a free democratic society”.

A democratic society should consist of democratic citizens. Many societies are emphasising the importance of education in producing citizens who are active participants in a democratic society, with the ability to make decisions based on democratic values and principles, and citizenship education has become an international movement (see Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito & Kerr, 2008). According to a study on citizenship education (Eurydice, 2012), involving 31 countries in Europe, citizenship is featured in the curricula of all national schools, either as a subject or as a cross-curricular issue or within school experiences or activities.
Conceptions of citizenship in SA, however, need to be viewed through a different lens and are in tension with some popular international conceptions and expectations of the term. Enslin (2003), commenting on citizenship education in post-apartheid SA, explains that emerging concepts of citizenship in post-apartheid SA are informed by the anti-apartheid struggle and the new constitution. The anti-apartheid struggle led to a highly participatory notion of democratic citizenship and the idea of active citizens. The new Constitution of the Republic of SA acknowledges the injustices of the past, and intends to heal the divisions of the past by promoting a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights, a society where citizens will be protected by law and enjoy a better quality of life (RSA, 1996a). Citizenship is therefore a core principle of the Constitution, referring to citizen rights, such as security, freedom of belief, religion and opinion.

Since 1994, citizenship education not only involved educating the youth but also assisting adult citizens in obtaining a new understanding of citizenship and the implications of it. A plethora of educational policies emerged since 1994 within which ‘equity’ and ‘equal citizenship’ are prominently recurring concepts. The White Paper on Education and Training (DoE, 1995) stipulates that all citizens have the right to education. In the White Paper on Education and Training, (DoE, 1995:45) the new Constitution is described as “the nation’s school of democratic practice”, which explains the importance of the rights stipulated and the acknowledgement of the rights in policy and legislation in post-apartheid SA. As part of educational reform, the CAPS is aiming to produce “thinking, competent citizens” and “responsible citizens in a culturally diverse, democratic society” (Enslin, 2003:80).

It is not just within the formal education curriculum that the promotion of democratic citizenship is enforced but the SA Schools Act (RSA, 1996e) also allows for democratic governance of schools in partnership with teachers, learners and parents in order to establish the policies and rules that form the framework of schools (DoE, 1996). At school level, school governing bodies (SGBs) are statutory, independent bodies comprising parents, teachers, non-teaching staff and learners who work together in ensuring the effectiveness of the school. The SA Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 (RSA, 1996e) ensures that SGBs have great power in supplementing the state-provided resources to improve the quality of education at school level. In driving citizenship education, SGBs provide participants with opportunities to exercise democratic
decision-making and therefore to learn skills necessary for active citizenship. Schools are also required to have RCLs, which have been "introduced as part of the policy of further promoting democratic participation in school governance as well as an opportunity to learn skills" necessary to exercise citizenship (Enslin, 2003:80).

The Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy (see DoE, 2001), was introduced as a framework for value education, which strongly emphasises the values underlying the Constitution, as well as the importance of responsible, democratic citizenship. The Manifesto makes provision for the teaching and nurturing of democratic values as part of the curriculum, and within programmes and policymaking (DoE, 2001:1). Ten core values were identified, and responsible citizenship is highlighted as a critical outcome of teaching and learning (DoE, 2001:2).

In a first attempt towards the implementation of democratic citizenship within the curriculum, the new government introduced an entirely new Curriculum 2005 (see DoE, 1997) with an ‘Outcomes-based Education (OBE)’ approach in 1998 in the primary grades, which was introduced annually since 1999 in the senior grades. The new curriculum was aimed at changing SA pedagogy, as well as the country’s political culture, even though there were no specific courses or modules assigned to civic education or democracy (Enslin, 2003). Chisholm (2003:268) explains that the intention of the curriculum was to incorporate “the values of democracy, non-racialism and non-sexism” across the eight learning areas.

Lack of performance, criticism and controversy lead to a review of Curriculum 2005. As a result, two important changes were brought about that catered explicitly for civic education. Firstly, in 2014, History was introduced as a compulsory subject in Grades 4–9, and as optional subject for Grades 10–12. This introduction was seen as a way to develop “democratic values and principles” (DoE, 2001:15). 'Democracy' was presented to Grade 7 as one unit within the History curriculum. The second change implemented, was the introduction of a new course, called Life Orientation (LO). In secondary school, learners from Grades 10–12, receive two hours of class each week, in which they are taught a range of life skills (see DBE, 2011b).

Citizenship education should be aimed at the emancipation and transformation of learners towards a better society (UNESCO, 1998). In South Africa’s Bill of Rights (see RSA, 1996d), the core components of ‘good’ SA citizenship are derived from the
constitutional values, which emphasise respect, diversity, selflessness, tolerance and equality. Citizens of the country are expected to adopt behaviours that will promote human rights and anti-racism in order to enhance social equality (RSA, 1996a).

The Bill of Responsibilities for the youth of SA (see DoE, 2008) outlines the responsibilities that flow from each of the rights enshrined in the SA Constitution. The ideal SA citizen should obtain the skills required to act in a manner that would aid their own development and that of society.

The legislators or policymakers in the field of education always have certain aims or goals in mind, which might be political, social or cultural in nature. SA history reflects a past in which apartheid education was used as a tool to divide society. Under apartheid education, schools were divided according to race and ethnicity, and education was used to strengthen the divisions in society, which in turn enhanced the inequalities of a divided society (Kallaway, 1984). Many people deemed apartheid education under Verwoerdian leadership in SA irrelevant and discriminatory since it served to reinforce the citizenship of one race over others (Msila, 2007). The reader is reminded to peruse the section on Bantu education (the role of Bantu education role in inequality and social exclusion of black youth) (see 2.3) for in-depth information on the damaging effect of this education upon black citizens.

Education quality and excellence are the cornerstones of the Department of Basic Education’s Action Plan to 2014: Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2025 (see DBE, 2011d). When decoding quality education, the Education for All Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2015:17) argues that there are two main objectives towards reaching quality education. Firstly, the report posits that learners’ cognitive development is one of the major outcomes of an educational system and this is mainly achieved through the curriculum. Secondly, the other critical outcome of educational quality is the promotion of communal values of responsible citizenship. Education in post-apartheid SA therefore has a main goal of educational transformation in order to address the inequalities of the past. All schools are encouraged to lay a foundation of values underpinning democracy, needed to participate in a democratic society, as stipulated in the Constitution (DoE, 1996b).

The DBE has strengthened its focus on citizenship education within the FET CAPS for Life Orientation and History. According to the Revised National Curriculum Statement
Life Orientation (LO) presents opportunities for cognitive skills development in learners, especially with regards to citizenship education. LO is a compulsory subject for all learners in the Senior and Further Education and Training phases, i.e. Grades 8 to 12 (DBE, 2011b). The CAPS is currently designed with a maximum of eighteen hours for the teaching of Democracy and Human Rights over three years in Grades 10–12 (DBE, 2011b:9). LO, however, is not taken into consideration when determining a bachelor’s degree pass, which allows Grade 12s to apply for studying towards a university degree (see SAILI, 2014). Therefore, schools, teachers or learners might not take the subject seriously (DBE, 2011b).

At the time of this study, history is a non-compulsory subject from Grades 10 to 12, however history is reported to become a compulsory subject which will be phased in from 2023 (Pather, 2018). The CAPS document for History Gr 10–12 makes a commitment to promote “history as a process of enquiry” (DBE, 2011a:8) and the CAPS also states that the study of history “supports citizenship within a democracy” (DBE, 2011a:8). It is however not clear from the CAPS document how these goals are to be integrated with the more traditional goals of history education and how the aims are to be achieved (DBE, 2011c).

There is an argument to be had that by incorporating wider understandings of citizenship into the curriculum it might be possible to capture the imagination and motivation of young people in education by drawing on their current engagement and interest (Biesta, Lawy & Kelly, 2009; Biesta & Lawy, 2006; Öhrn, Lundahl & Beach, 2011).

2.5 Need for educational transformation towards inclusive responsible citizenship

Thus far in this chapter, I have highlighted the disparate experiences of the youth in SA, the factors contributing to inequality and social and societal exclusion, especially the long-term intergenerational damage caused by the Bantu education system, and I have therefore questioned the role that the CAPS (DBE, 2011a) plays in preparing the youth for the experiences or challenges they might encounter on a daily basis.

The general aims of the current SA curriculum, as set out in the CAPS for each approved school subject (DBE, 2011a), serve the purpose of equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or
intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country.”

For the purpose of this study, it is important to note that:

(i) the current policy statements underlying the SA curriculum are rooted in the principles of human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice, as defined in the Constitution of the Republic of SA; and

(ii) the national curriculum aims to produce learners who are able to –

- identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;
- work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team; and
- critically show responsibility towards the environment and the health of others.

The CAPS contains the national curriculum for Grades 1 to 12 in public schools in SA, and clearly states that the schooling system should produce learners who are able to “organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively” (DBE, 2011a:4). The DoE emphasises the importance of all 18-year-old school learners being independent, multi-skilled, caring, and respectful to the environment and enabled to contribute to society as active citizens (DoE, 2002).

It follows that the role of the CAPS in assisting learners to develop and practice democratic citizenship should be explored in order to establish responsible citizens for SA societies. The emphasis on ‘democratic citizenship’ stems from its particular ideological and political underpinnings, which require some elaboration.

2.6 Democratic citizenship in a liberal democracy

Now that the role of the education department and the CAPS in transforming society with democratic citizenship education towards a liberal democracy has been discussed, international research on the philosophical underpinning of ‘democratic citizenship’ and ‘civic education’ becomes important to discuss as these formed the conceptual framework for this thesis. My approach took inspiration from Penny Enslin (2003), Biesta and Lawy (2006), as well as Gutmann and Thompson (2004) in order to formulate an understanding of democratic citizenship education as it pertains to the context of post-apartheid SA. It is firstly important to refer to international debates
about the meaning of the concept of citizenship in order to develop a framework for citizenship education in SA.

2.6.1 Citizenship

Biesta and Lawy (2006:37) emphasise the importance of “citizenship-as-practice”. According to Marshall (1950, cited in Biesta, Lawy & Kelly, 2009:2), “citizenship is a status bestowed on all those who are full members of a community”. The question of young people’s status as democratic citizens has become the focus of attention of policymakers, politicians and researchers in many countries around the world (see Biesta & Lawy, 2009; Torres, 1998; Lindström, 2010; Henn & Foard, 2014; Bressant, Farthing & Watts, 2015) and therefore educational policymakers are concerned with creating policy that best directs young people towards a set of values and attitudes that are equivalent with a view of citizenship (Biesta & Lawy, 2006).

Integral to the argument posed by Biesta and Lawy (2006:37) on “citizenship-as-practice”, is that this view of citizenship assumes that everyone in society – including young people – are citizens and that citizenship should not only be associated with adults, neither should it be seen as a status which is ‘achieved’. If it is argued that everyone in society is a citizen and that ‘citizenship-as-practice’ is a concept concerned with the conditions of young people’s lives and with the processes through which they learn the value(s) of democratic citizenship, then it is crucial that education supports and enforces this practice (Biesta & Lawy, 2006:42).

Biesta and Lawy (2006) maintain that the teaching of citizenship needs to be supplemented with a deep understanding of the ways in which young people learn democratic citizenship through their participation in the communities and practices that make up their everyday lives.

“A focus on young people’s citizenship learning in everyday life settings allows for an understanding of the ways in which citizenship learning is situated in the unfolding lives of young people and helps to make clear how these lives are themselves implicated in the wider social, cultural, political and economic order” (Biesta et al., 2009:8).

It is firstly important to note that in the SA context, the term ‘democratic citizenship’ is informed by the anti-apartheid struggle (Enslin, 2003) which lead to a highly participatory notion of democratic citizenship and the idea of active citizens (Enslin, 2003). Citizenship is a core principle of the Constitution and implies the equal
enjoyment of rights as enshrined in the Bill of Rights, namely right to equality, human dignity, life, a basic education, freedom and security, privacy, language, culture, communities, freedom of religion and freedom of belief, opinion and expression. Biesta (2008) argued that ‘responsible citizenship’ is a capacity that all children and young people should develop.

2.6.2 Deliberative democratic citizenship

The CAPS is based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights (see DBE, 2011a) and has the purpose of contributing to the full personal development of each learner and equipping all learners with the skills they require for responsible leadership. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the type of democratic citizenship that should be promoted, keeping in mind the context of post-apartheid SA. Given the background of apartheid (creating a divided society and depriving many of their citizenship), the role of Bantu education (promoting intolerance and exclusion of certain learners), and the current disparate challenges facing the youth of SA, the expectations of the CAPS are to:

- promote a civic educational programme as part of democratic citizenship education in order to achieve its aims of addressing the inequalities of the past; and
- to create responsible citizens who are able to deliberate as valuable contributors in an open society, respecting diversity and tolerating difference.

I therefore deemed it necessary firstly to draw upon Gutmann and Thompson’s (2004) model of deliberative democracy in formulating an understanding of the type of citizens the CAPS should create for the SA democracy. Deliberative democracy is an important concept underpinning democratic citizenship as it explores the ways in which –

- the skills, knowledge, values and attitudes required within a democracy can be incorporated in the classroom;
- citizens can become active participants in the governing of their communities; and
- democracies can live up to the ideals of democratic legitimacy to ensure that decision-making represents the will of all people in a diverse society (Gutmann & Thompson, 2004).
Public deliberation therefore forms an important part of democratic theory and practice, and is a concept on which I needed to elaborate, keeping in mind the SA post-apartheid democracy forming the background of this study.

According to Gutmann and Thompson (2004:7), the ideal of deliberative democracy rests on the ability of citizens and their representatives to support their positions and decisions through public reasoning, where they seek mutually justifiable reasons for the laws they impose on one another. Public order or decision-making is thus legitimised through the process of providing sensible or justified reasons, explanations and accounts to all those living within its democracy.

Gutmann and Thompson (2004) argue that deliberation in a democratic process serves very important social purposes. The first social purpose of deliberation is to encourage the validity of collective decision-making. It is stated by Gutmann and Thompson (2004:10) that when citizens are faced with a lack of resources or unfulfilled needs in society, they should engage in deliberation rather than in dispute, in helping all citizens accept the legitimacy of a collective decision. The second social purpose of deliberation is to promote community-minded views on public issues. Gutmann and Thompson (2004a:11) explain that few citizens are inclined to be selfless when arguing about controversial issues, as a compromised position might not be in their best interest. Deliberation can therefore encourage citizens to take a holistic perspective on questions of common interest to all.

The third social purpose of deliberation is to promote mutually respectful processes of decision-making. Gutmann and Thompson (2004:11) state that deliberations do not always lead to decisions that are mutually agreed upon, even though citizens have to make collective decisions on public issues under discussion. Deliberation can therefore help citizens to identify the moral merit in their opponents’ claims, when those claims have merit and lead citizens to arrive at morally compatible resolutions. The fourth and last social purpose of deliberation, according to Gutmann and Thompson (2004:12), is the correction of mistakes made during previous decision-making. Deliberation can enhance both the individual and collective understandings of citizens with regard to prior errors or misapprehensions.

Deliberation is therefore an important concept underpinning democratic citizenship education as it promotes various skills that citizens require within a democracy.
Effective participation of the citizenry is a prerequisite for a strong and healthy democracy, which will enable its citizens to live life autonomously and contribute towards the common good of society and not for self-interest (Gutmann, 1999).

It might be beneficial to view deliberative democracy through the lens of education, as Gutmann and Thompson (2004:35) state that democracy in general “cannot thrive without a well-educated citizenry”. Furthermore, the ability to listen to others and to communicate respectfully in deliberations where the views or perspectives of others differ from one’s own, seems to be a capacity that should be developed in the classroom at first. Weithman (2005) adds that deliberative democracy requires a deliberative nature, which might include certain skills, attitudes and values that can and should be cultivated in the classroom. As Gutmann and Thompson (2004:35) say, “an important part of democratic education is learning how to deliberate well”. I therefore envisage that schools are the best sites for the development of the skills necessary to engage in deliberation.

Different conceptions of democracy reflect different ideas of how citizens should participate in democratic society. Just as there are different ways to understand democracy, there are different ways to understand deliberative democracy. This, in turn, might lead to different ideas about what an education for deliberative democracy should look like, and which skills and values such education should cultivate. In line with the outcomes and aims of the CAPS, education for deliberative democracy in post-apartheid SA should strive towards addressing the inequalities of the past by promoting democratic values, including fundamental human rights, social justice and anti-racism in order to enhance social equality.

As mentioned previously, the Bill of Responsibilities for the youth of SA outlines the core components SA citizenship are derived from constitutional values, which emphasise respect, diversity, selflessness, tolerance and equality (DoE, 2008). These are crucial skills that can be developed through deliberation (Gutmann & Thompson, 2004). In order for the CAPS to produce learners who are able to identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking and work effectively with others as members of a team, it is necessary that learners be included in deliberation at school level, where they are exposed to views other than their own, and able to learn how to tolerate other citizens’ perspectives towards a collective goal or decision.
2.6.3 Civic education

This section will present a definition of relevant civic education embedded in the SA liberal, democratic political dispensation. I agree with Gutmann (1999) and other authors in the field (Hanson & Howe, 2011; Hess, 2009) who argue that it is impossible to avoid moral content in education, and even if it would happen, such education would be undesirable. However, incorporating moral content in the classroom might not be an easy task, as it should not impede on the learners’ autonomy (Hess, 2009). Some learners might be reluctant to share their views during open discourse in a classroom, while considering other people’s reasons might also be seen as threatening to certain ways of life. Parents might resist their children being exposed to the beliefs of others and the reasons behind those beliefs (Young, 1996).

It is therefore important to explore Gutmann’s (1995) comparison of political and comprehensive liberalism in order to understand fully the type of civic education necessary for the SA society, which comprises a diversity of lifestyles, views, religions and beliefs. Political liberalism does not attempt to cultivate individuality or autonomy through public education any more than it tries to cultivate religious devotion (Gutmann, 1995:559). Private educational efforts at cultivating individuality or autonomy are of course permissible but liberal governments must only try to teach the skills and virtues of liberal democratic citizenship (Gutmann, 1995:560).

Gutmann (1995) further argues that political liberalism does at times unintentionally block social diversity by blocking repressive and discriminatory practices for the social good of all. Comprehensive liberalism, on the other hand, is committed to teach children to be good citizens and to live good lives (Gutmann, 1995:559). Consequently, there might sometimes be a clash between the way certain individuals want to live and the political values governing society as a whole.

Mutual respect is required by all in order to live in harmony with others, irrespective of their race, sexual orientation or religious views (Gutmann, 1995:561). SA has one of the most diverse societies in the world, requiring citizens to be accommodating of one another; therefore, civic education should cultivate tolerance of diversity. There are countless examples of non-acceptance of diversity in SA (see in this regard, for instance, Meier & Hartell, 2009) demonstrating the need for instilling in citizens tolerance and acceptance of diversity, amongst others.
Parental convictions that are in conflict with teaching children civic virtues must be tolerated but should not be publicly subsidised by schools (Gutmann, 1995:577). In the light of possible incompatibility between competing views of parents, schools and what a liberal democratic government proposes for future citizens, Gutmann (1995) views the minimal set of values that should form the basis of a civic education programme to be mutual respect amongst citizens of different religions, races, genders and ethnicities. Gutmann (1995:579) emphasises the importance of non-discrimination. This theory of civic education also supports individuality and autonomy.

Civic education is necessary to enhance mutual respect, tolerance and social cohesion amongst all citizens, notwithstanding their race, gender, religious convictions and sexual orientation. Such education should also promote individuality and autonomy (comprising leadership development to aid individual citizens in forging healthy interpersonal relationships, establishing their equal work roles, planning their own lives and deciding on their own set of moral values and lifestyles) to create the basis for individuals to take on the citizenship journey with all other citizens.

The CAPS should therefore also include teaching of the necessary skills and exposure of learners to leadership opportunities, as these are vital for active participation in society and responsible citizenship, which is one of the aims of the CAPS, as stated by the DBE (2011a). A boy living in an impoverished rural area or informal settlement, born to uneducated parents with low income might not think that he has the capacity for leadership, while a boy living in a middle-income urban area, born to educated parents with professional careers will be exposed to leadership development under the influence of his parents. It is important to create valuable opportunities for the youth to identify their challenges and strengths, and to assist them to find feasible and sustainable solutions to their problems and making responsible decisions.

It is important to take into account that responsible leadership is a concept underpinned by democratic values. In order to be responsible citizens, learners need to be equipped with leadership skills and therefore with the capacity to fulfil leadership roles as citizens. The role of education is critical in recognising and nurturing leadership abilities in young people in order to guide them towards value-driven decision-making and being value-driven active citizens. This is where the relationship between democratic citizenship and leadership development becomes clear. It is
therefore necessary to consider the concept of leadership as a generic and transversal role for responsible citizens.

2.7 Leadership development as an integral instrument to prepare youth for responsible citizenship

The aims of the current SA curriculum, i.e. the CAPS, stand in stark contrast to what apartheid education promoted. The CAPS is based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights (see DBE, 2011a), with the purpose of contributing to the full personal development of each learner and equipping all learners with the skills they require for responsible citizenship. For all members of the youth to participate fully in society and demonstrate responsible citizenship as they assume leadership roles in a democracy, they are in dire need of leadership development, as this is a prerequisite for responsible citizenship (DBE, 2011a).

In understanding the historical context in which the research was based, one realises the importance of leadership development amongst the youth of SA. Today’s youth are tomorrow’s leaders, and they are tasked with the responsibility to shape the SA society in a different manner from what existed before 1994. Andani (2014, n.p.) states that the youth have the responsibility of creating a SA that is open and fair, where all people have “equal opportunity to live, work and learn”. In order to be the change, the youth need to identify and make use of the opportunities given to them within a democratic dispensation. They therefore need to become responsible citizens and active participants in the SA society.

In order for the youth to become meaningful participants, and to succeed in leadership roles where they are entrusted with responsibilities, it is important that they are equipped with the necessary skills as part of their education.

At the Youth Infrastructure Development 2016 Conference, Deputy Minister Buti Manamela (2016) explained that the government’s National Youth Policy 2020 (see NYDA, 2015) was developed in liaison with young people as their input is invaluable and they play a crucial role in their own development. He further stated that young people want to be active participants in youth development, and they want the government to create an enabling environment with opportunities for them to take hold off. It is important to note that Manamela mentioned government’s support of “a youth leadership that will develop active citizenry” (Manamela, 2016, n.p.).
All citizens will, at some point in their lives, have to fulfil leadership roles relating to their family, their finances or careers and the community. Traditionally, it was believed that only certain people could be leaders based on certain characteristics or traits, as emphasised by Northouse (2001). These characteristics are what distinguish a leader from a follower. It is also important to take note that leadership should adjust to different situations, as stated by Bass (1990), and therefore not all people will be excellent leaders in all situations.

Literature on leadership development has shown an evolution from the traditional view to a view according to which everyone could possess the skills needed to be a leader (Middlebrooks & Haberkorn, 2009; Blanchard, 2010). If quality leadership among citizens is required for improving society, where better than in the school, could children be prepared to take up their leadership role?

Every person is a citizen, as stated by Biesta and Lawy (2006) and therefore all citizens should be able to participate in public activities in society. All citizens should therefore have the skills to be active, responsible citizens and these skills require the necessary attention and nurture in education structures. Nussbaum (2009) states that the importance of education lies in the fact that education ensures our youth are educated in all aspects of what it means to be democratic citizens and to be actively afforded the space to practise the values of democracy. The fostering of a democratic culture in our country must take place at school level.

2.8 Conceptions of leadership promoting responsible citizenship

As mentioned previously (see section 2.6), the Bill of Responsibilities for the youth of SA outlines the responsibilities that flow from each of the rights enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of SA. The ideal citizen of SA should acquire the skills required to act in a manner that would aid his or her own development and that of society.

Due to the nature of my research, which was mainly concerned with the skills required by the youth to act as responsible citizens, I explored some definitions of leadership that usually form the basis of leadership education, including those for the youth. In the literature, it is quite clear that leadership studies are overly focused on adult leadership development, which Whitehead (2009) also noted. Youth leadership is a
field that is still underdeveloped and in dire need of further and advanced research and conceptualisations (Conner & Strobel, 2007; Roach et al., 1999).

‘Leadership’ is a very complex and multidimensional term (see DePree, 1989), which cannot be subjected to one definition only, but requires an in-depth understanding of different viewpoints and perceptions of leadership. Defining leadership is important, especially for a leadership programme or leadership education, as the choices made by a group of people in leadership development are likely to be dependent upon a group’s views of the nature of the leadership.

A number of authors propose that leadership is situational implying the possibility that anyone could assume a leadership role (Helland & Winston, 2005; House & Aditya, 1997). Modern literature on leadership also implies that leadership can be learned (Boyd, 2001; Montemayor & Supik, 1995). With regard to my research, I wanted to build on the notion that leadership is ‘situational’ in that everyone will assume different leadership roles at different stages in their lives. I therefore argue that leadership skills development will assist learners in their roles as responsible, active citizens of a democratic society, as they will learn how to be accountable, exercise autonomy and to question those in leadership positions.

2.9 Constructions of leadership and leadership education in relation to youth

There is very sparse literature on learner or youth leadership development available. Despite its importance, the concept is however theoretically underdeveloped (Cox, 1988; Metzger, 2007; Sacks, 2009). Youth leadership development in SA is still taking place at a relatively small scale, although there are some leadership programmes developed by non-government organisations (NGOs) and tertiary institutions, which indicates that this is an emerging practice in SA. It is firstly important to identify international literature on the conceptualisation of leadership education relating to the youth, and thereafter to look into youth leadership education within SA.

The discussion of youth leadership development was significant to my research as I wanted emphasise the importance of all learners or young people being given opportunities for leadership development. By reviewing a case study of pre-adolescent children conducted by Rodkin and Farmer (2000), Whitehead (2009) noted that leadership is developed through two processes, namely pro-social behaviour and anti-social behaviour. According to Whitehead (2009), pro-social leaders work to build
relationships within groups and exhibit positive social behaviours, while anti-social leaders rely on power relationships. This led to an important question posed by Whitehead (2009:859), namely whether leaders with great potential are overlooked because they do not demonstrate public leadership qualities.

There is an extensive debate around what youth leadership is and how best to develop the youth’s leadership skills (see Pfeiffer & Wechsler, 2013). It is said by Kahn (2009:6) that youth leadership could serve as a vehicle for “tackling pressing social challenges and catalysing positive social change”. According to research by The Young Foundation (see The Young Foundation, 2018), youth leadership is best defined as “young people empowered to inspire and mobilise themselves and others towards a common purpose, in response to personal and/or social issues and challenges, to effect positive change” (Kahn, Hewes & Ali, 2009:18).

It is necessary to understand that youth development and youth leadership are two different concepts, even though they are often used interchangeably. During the process of youth development, young people are prepared to meet the challenges of adolescence and adulthood and achieve their full potential (Pfeiffer & Wechsler, 2013). Youth development is also the process during which young people develop competencies necessary to be successful and meet challenges (Pfeiffer & Wechsler, 2013; Bragg 2013).

Most literature identifies similar competencies or outcomes that young people need to develop or achieve as part of the process of youth development. These competencies fall within a wide range of areas “such as cognitive, social, civic, cultural, spiritual, vocational, physical, emotional, mental, personal, moral, or intellectual development” (Edelman, Gill, Comerford, Larson & Hare, 2004:3).

Wehmeyer, Agran and Hughes (1998) see youth leadership as an integral part of youth development, which supports the youth in developing numerous skills, such as the ability to scrutinise their own strengths and weaknesses, set personal goals, and have the confidence, motivation and abilities to carry them out (including the capacity to establish support systems in order to be active participants in the community and effect positive social change).

The current landscape in youth leadership development in SA is small with very few literature sources on leadership education relating to the youth. There are currently a
number of NGOs and some governmental organisations that are providing independent support regarding youth leadership programmes. Most of the organisations have been established in recent years, which indicates that youth leadership development is making an appearance in SA. These organisations, however, have very different constructions of the term ‘leadership education’ relating to the youth. This is apparent in their vision and their respective leadership programmes or involvement.

Fielding (2004:197) sees learner leadership as contributing towards “civic renewal”, a process relying on the voices of students or learners. In section 2.7, I expand on the importance of Fielding’s definition towards my research study. This explanation of the manifestation of leadership among the youth suggests that all members of the youth have the potential to lead.

Leadership development surely begins when a young person has to manage the growth of his or her personhood and unique self. Van Linden and Fertman (1998:18) state, “Adolescence is a time of opportunity in which to awaken the leadership potential of individuals.” This is an essential point on which this research built, as Van Linden and Fertman (1998) indicate that the potential of being a leader is in every child. The question is therefore, if young people are therefore expressing leadership in the daily activities in which they are involved, how these skills can be developed and nurtured in order to be put to good use.

2.10 Appropriate SA youth leadership development aligned with education and CAPS outcomes

In the previous section, I highlighted the importance of defining youth leadership development and youth leadership in order to distinguish it from adult leadership theories. In my quest to define youth leadership education and development as it pertains to the SA context, I was hoping to find literature that associated the concept with the role of the youth in participatory democracy and aligned with the outcomes of the SA education system, i.e. the CAPS. It was therefore important that a definition of youth leadership relating to the youth of SA needed to be rooted in the democratic values of SA and that it had to include leadership skills development aligned with democratic citizenship in order to mould the youth into responsible citizens who can partake actively in a democratic society.
It is therefore crucial to also ensure that the marginalised youth who are affected by the harsh realities giving rise to social exclusion, as mentioned earlier be also equipped with leadership skills to assist them with the management of their own lives. Four central youth challenges have been identified following my literature study on the state of the youth in SA, namely:

- life management and life planning;
- health management;
- personal problem management; and
- interpersonal relationship management.

Youth leadership development could therefore contribute to the personal development of learners and also towards active, democratic citizenship.

In the current SA curriculum, the CAPS (DBE, 2011a), the concept ‘youth leadership’ is used in relation to the RCLs. The SA Schools Act (RSA, 1996e) stipulates that all SA public schools with learners from Grades 8 to 12 are required to establish RCLs. An RCL is the only identified and legitimate representative learner body at the school (DoE, 1996b).

The SA Schools Act (No. 84 of 1996) is an extension of the commitment made in the country’s Constitution to a representative and participatory democracy. In the preamble to the SA Schools Act (RSA, 1996e), it is emphasised that –

[S]chools … will redress past injustices in educational provision, provide an education of progressively high quality for all learners and in so doing lay a strong foundation for the development of all our people's talents and capabilities, advance the democratic transformation of society, combat racism and sexism and all other forms of unfair discrimination and intolerance, contribute to the eradication of poverty and the economic wellbeing of society, protect and advance our diverse cultures and languages, uphold the rights of all learners, parents and educators, and promote their acceptance of responsibility for the organisation.

The SA Schools Act (RSA, 1996e) therefore intends to create a form of democratic school governance at every public school based on decentralisation, citizen participation, shared responsibility and democratic decision-making.

In a study by RAPCAN (Resources Aimed at the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect, [RAPCAN, 2013]) on *Understanding learner participation in school*
governance, some of the main findings suggested that there is no clear understanding of democratic decision-making and that at the time of the RAPCAN research, learners experienced challenges that undermine their abilities and prevent them from active participation in democratic processes. Challenges include the lack of guidance in understanding the concepts of leadership and democracy, as well as learners’ limited understanding of their participation roles.

The findings by RAPCAN emphasise the need for leadership and democratic citizenship education in relation to the youth, starting at school level. If managed correctly, where some learners are not excluded and the system is aligned with the outcomes of the civic education programme, learner participation in school governance could advance the development of skills for citizenship (Wyn, 2009).

2.11 Main personal challenges causing failure of SA youth

One of the major consequences of Bantu education and the previous apartheid education system was the instilling of inferior perceptions in the minds of the majority of SA youth. (Baard & Schreiner, 1986). Before citizens will be enabled to exercise their new citizenship roles with self-confidence as equal role players included and accepted in broader society, a sound personal basis is required. Adolescence is therefore seen as an important time in which individuals are defining themselves and their place in the world. Van Linden and Fertman (1998:11) link the notions of character and leadership development when they state, “in combining character education and leadership development, we must stress that every adolescent has latent leadership abilities that will become evident once recognized and nurtured”.

“Helping learners develop the integrity and strength of character that prepare them for leadership may be one of the most challenging and important goals of higher education” (King, 1997:87). Ornstein et al. (2011) and Riggio (2009) state that leadership skills development could improve learners’ self-development, which in turn will result in an increase in their self-confidence and academic growth.

Learners have to internalise a comprehensive and consistent set of affirmations regarding their own strengths, weaknesses, values and career choice. The positive influence of family and friends is important in this process, but the commitment must be made by learners as individuals. This process requires much experimentation and exploration, particularly in personality and vocational roles (Santrock, 2007).
Leadership skills development among the youth could serve as a support framework in helping them to manage personal challenges they might come across on a daily basis. If youth leadership could include the development of skills, such as critical thinking, problem solving, planning, and interpersonal relationship skills, then these skills could empower and mobilise the youth in their daily activities (Scott, 2015).

Four areas where youth in SA currently fail dismally, as discussed in 1.1.3, under ‘Challenges facing youth in present-day SA’ are those of planning their lives, managing their health, interpersonal relationships and personal problem management. How can the CAPS then support learners and equip them with the necessary life skills to be responsible citizens and to deal with important life skills, such as planning, health management, problem management and interpersonal relationship management?

It is argued that if the CAPS support learners in becoming responsible citizens, then learners should acquire certain skills, such as life planning skills, health management skills, problem management skills and interpersonal skills (sensitivity for gender, race, culture, language and religion) while exercising leadership roles that they will encounter as adults, in the next phase of their lives. Leadership roles could refer to their position at university as a student, their position in the workplace as an employee, their position as father or family member, or their role within a relationship, whether friendly or romantic. For all these leadership roles, learners require the necessary skills to act responsibly while making decisions and participating within society.

The main emphasis for this research was on whether the CAPS equip learners with the aforementioned skills that could empower them to deal with the challenges a large section of the youth in SA face once they leave the school environment. It is therefore important to delve into the notion of ‘student voice’ and its implications for democratic citizenship education.

2.12 The notion of ‘student (learner) voice’ and its implications for democratic citizenship education and youth leadership development

Over the past few decades, views about the place of young people in schools and in society have changed considerably. Traditionally, the opinions or voices of children were often disregarded or not recognised over the views of adults but with a shift in attitudes towards young people, different views have arisen and therefore new terms are associated with the changing views and developments. Learner empowerment,
learner rights and learner participation are terminologies used to describe the beliefs about the place of young people in schools. The rights of children are acknowledged by the use of these terms and it was aimed at empowering learners through various activities within schools.

A school can be seen as a ‘site for citizenship’ (Bron & Veugelers, 2014a; 2014b; Hoskins, Janmaat & Villalba, 2012), a place where learners can develop skills and experience the values required for participation in a democratic society. However, many schools in various countries struggle to incorporate the practice of democratic principles in learners’ activities and to identify opportunities for learners to learn about democracy. A promising approach, which is evident in recent curriculum developments in the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand (Sinnema & Aitken, 2013), is to encourage the participation of learners in decision-making about their school. This approach is also seen in countries such as the Netherlands (Platform Onderwijs 2032, 2015) and Finland (Horvathova, 2015).

In recent years, research has been increasing on the topic of student voice and related concepts of learner participation, active citizenship, youth leadership and youth empowerment. It is therefore important to expand on the notion of ‘student voice’ as it might affect democratic ideals in education and increase youth development opportunities.

“Student voice” is a term used to describe the different opportunities with which youth are presented to partake in school decisions that will influence their lives and the lives of their peers (Fielding, 2001a:123; Levin, 2000:155; Mitra, 2004:651). Through the implementation of “student voice”, learners and teachers or administrators work together in order to change practices and policies within schools and thus co-create educational reform. Mitra (2004) states that the process of “student voice” will enable young people to take responsibility for their own developmental needs.

Mitra (2006) explains that ‘student voice’ is very different from traditional roles that learners typically perform in schools, such as the planning of school dances, etc. Mitra further explains that there are three levels of ‘student voice’, and explains that the three levels are presented in a pyramid. The basic or bottom level is a representation of youth sharing their opinions of problems and potential solutions. The second or middle level is representative of collaboration between young people and adults with
the aim of addressing the problems in their schools. The last or top level of the ‘student voice’ pyramid is accessed when the youth take on leadership roles in seeking change in their schools. A multitude of youth development opportunities become available as ‘student voice’ is increased within a school (Mitra, 2006).

It is clear that the basic level of ‘learners being heard’ is the first step towards the creation of youth development opportunities in schools and towards effective school reform. Mitra (2003) found that learners expressed a growing sense of self-worth because they felt that people were listening to their perspectives. Listening to learners can also prove to be beneficial to teachers and administrators as young people have their own perspectives or views about their experiences at school, which adults cannot fully comprehend (Kushman, 1997; Levin, 2000; Mitra, 2001; 2004).

However, only listening to learners, does not present them with enough opportunities to collaborate with adults or to develop leadership skills, and therefore they need to be actively involved in ‘student voice’ initiatives. DeCharms (1976), Lee and Zimmerman (1999) and Mitra (2004) suggest that the more the youth is involved in ‘student voice’ initiatives, the more they are presented with opportunities to take on leadership roles in these activities.

Porter (2008) mentions that it could be challenging, tedious and costly to listen to all the voices of learners, but he then suggests that ‘student voice’ is worth the investment because of the benefits to all the sectors involved. It is said that learners become more involved in learning, when they form part of decision-making processes within their school, which will empower them through active participation. Through the involvement of learners, the institution and its provision can be bettered and the education sector will improve its success in pedagogy and its international competitiveness, if it can better its response to learners.

Various ‘student voice’ examples (Fielding, 2001b; Mitra, 2003; 2005; Oldfather, 1995) suggest that obtaining data from young people is much simpler than deciding how to encourage the youth to undertake leadership roles within school initiatives for school reform.

‘Student voice’ emphasises ways in which “young people can learn democratic principles by sharing their opinions and working to improve school conditions for themselves and others” (Mitra & Cross, 2009:522). Kirshner (2004) and Larson (2000)
suggest that the majority of schools fall short when it comes to providing learners with opportunities for citizenship education in order to prepare them for active engagement in their communities and participation in democracy. Young people need to learn ‘civic habits’ that can prepare them for social interaction that can involve them in their own communities and broadly in society (Delli Carpini, 2000; Feldman, Pasek, Romer & Jamieson, 2006). Many schools involve learners in community service activities but they do not prepare youth to lead such activities or initiatives (Kirshner, 2004; Larson, 2000; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004).

Mitra (2003:290) explains that previous research (Camino, 2000:) reached the same results as her findings of “student voice” efforts in schools, which indicate that such initiatives could lead to an increase in youth leadership and empowerment, presenting young people with the opportunities to partake in meaningful roles and to be agents of change in their schools and communities. Osberg, Pope and Galloway (2006) state that the changes witnessed in learners that were part of ‘student voice’ initiatives are associated with emerging leadership skills, and made a definite difference to the dedication and growth of individual learners.

Smyth (2006), commenting on the ‘dropout’ rate among youth in the United States, mentioned that this can only really be understood when we try to understand the experiences of young people. He suggests that greater emphasis be placed on relationships and building trust in schools and fostering democratic principles amongst learners. Smyth (2006) and Fielding (2006) emphasise the importance of learner-centred or person-centred education where values are at the centre of the education process and where young people are provided with opportunities to collaborate with their peers and with staff as equals in order to change the community for the better.

In the SA context, “student voice” is taken into account in the establishment of RCLs (RSA, 1996e; Enslin, 2003). In terms of the SA Schools Act (RSA, 1996e), representatives from the RCL are allowed to serve on the SGB. Hence, it would be fair to assert that the SA Schools Act attempts to create the space and opportunity for the articulation of ‘student voice’. The RCL is the legitimised representative learner body of the school, and members are able to listen to the learners’ voices and use their own voice to bring about changes relating to the policies or code of conduct of the school.
There are many examples of participation by learners in schools and universities, but in most of these examples, participation is restricted to a select group of students or learners. Often, opportunities are not provided to all learners who we want to be involved so they too can experience and develop democratic qualities (Felten et al., 2013; Fielding, 2001a; Kandiko & Weyers, 2013; Zipin, 2013). It has been argued that only those students participating recognise the benefits of participation (Könings, Brand-Gruwel & Van Merriënboer, 2011). Student voice could also take its rightful place in line with democratic citizenship education and youth leadership development in SA, a country in dire need of responsible, active citizens. It was therefore crucial to investigate whether schools have practices and programmes in place that promote democratic citizenship and leadership development and whether all learners are given the opportunities to participate in such practices or programmes.

2.13 Summary

This chapter firstly provided insight into the state of the youth in SA and the effect of Bantu education in creating skewed perceptions of citizenship leadership amongst the youth. Thereafter, I introduced the importance of democratic citizenship education in post-apartheid SA, where I explored Enslin’s (2003) view of citizenship in the context of SA and argued that there exists an urgent need for educational transformation towards inclusive responsible citizenship in the SA democracy, whereby the CAPS are seen as a potential instrument of this change. I explored different conceptualisations of citizenship by using the work of Biesta and Lawy (2006), and thereafter formulated my own understanding of a deliberative democratic civic education, in the context of post-apartheid SA by drawing upon the deliberative democratic theoretical model of Gutmann and Thompson (1996; 2004).

It was then necessary for me to discuss the importance of leadership development as an integral instrument to prepare youth for responsible citizenship in SA as learners could acquire valuable skills that would assist them in active participation in a democratic society. Thereafter, I discussed conceptions of leadership promoting responsible citizenship and various constructions of leadership relating to the youth. I suggested how youth leadership development should be incorporated in line with the outcomes of the CAPS in order to address the focused main personal challenges facing the youth of SA, and enhance democratic citizenship education. Lastly, I
discussed the notion of ‘student voice’ and its implications for democratic citizenship education and youth leadership development.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodological aspects relating to my study. It offers a rationale for adopting a qualitative interpretivist methodological paradigm for this study and for choosing phenomenology as the most appropriate research design for answering the research question and sub-questions.

My study aimed to explore whether the CAPS equip high school learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership. It was therefore necessary to gain an in-depth understanding of the perspectives and experiences of teachers and high school learners in terms of the CAPS. Due to my research study being concerned with examining social phenomena, such as responsible leadership and democratic citizenship, it was important to construct data on the perspectives of learners and teachers who were at the receiving end of the CAPS and who were experiencing the aims and purpose of the CAPS.

This research study was qualitative in nature, as it was underpinned by social dimensions (Kirunda, 2005). Before discussing this research approach, it is firstly necessary to provide a brief summary of the basic traditional research paradigms or approaches, after which I will justify the reasons for situating my research study within a specific research paradigm. I will then elaborate on the research design, research methods and procedures followed in collecting data and analysing the data accordingly. This chapter concludes with an explanation of issues of validity and reliability, as well as ethical considerations with regard to this research study.

3.2 Statement of the research question

As stated in Chapter 1, the CAPS (DBE, 2011a) upholds the principles of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) Grades R–12, and serves the purposes of preparing learners with the knowledge, skills and values they require for “self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens” and “facilitating the transition of learners from education institutions to the workplace” (DBE, 2011a:4). In the CAPS, it is clearly stipulated that human rights, inclusivity, diversity and social justice, as defined in the SA Constitution, need to form part of education and training (DBE, 2011a:5). However, the question was whether the purpose and aims of the CAPS (DBE, 2011a) eventually work together towards the creation of responsible citizens, equipped with democratic
values and leadership towards managing their lives as responsible citizens interconnected with the diversity in the SA society of today.

To address the problem as stated above, the following research question guides and directed the study: Does the CAPS equip learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership?

In order to answer this question, six subsidiary questions were asked:

- How do teachers and learners interpret the principles of the CAPS?
- How do teachers and learners understand and relate to conceptions of democratic citizenship?
- Do the schools have programmes or practices in place that might promote democratic citizenship?
- How do teachers and learners understand and relate to conceptions of leadership?
- How do the schools incorporate leadership development within the school environment?
- Are learners equipped with life skills in Life Orientation?

In this chapter, I will therefore provide a detailed description of the procedures and methods used to answer the above main research question and subsidiary questions.

3.3 Research paradigm

Guba and Lincoln (1994:107) describe a paradigm as “a set of basic beliefs … that serves as a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the world, the individual’s place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts”. I decided to make use of an interpretive paradigm in this research study and according to Merriam (2002), researchers who apply interpretivism wish to acquire more knowledge on how people interact with their social world and the meaning it has for them. I see interpretivism as a research paradigm that allows the researcher to interpret aspects of the research study by integrating human interest into a study. In research studies where interpretivism is employed as research paradigm, it is believed that access to reality is only through social constructions of phenomena, shared meanings and instruments (Myers, 2008). Therefore, by exploring the meaning that people construct in relation to the concepts under discussion, valuable data was generated in answering my research questions. It is, however, important to discuss
briefly the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions underlying an interpretive paradigm.

**Ontology** refers to the nature of reality (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988) and the way in which reality is perceived. Krauss (2005:760) explains that the ontological dimensions of interpretivism hold “that there is no objective reality but that multiple realities are constructed by human beings”. This statement was crucial to my research study as I believe that each research participant involved in the study would experience an event or phenomenon differently, therefore constructing “multiple realities” (Krauss, 2005:760). In this research study, the learners and teachers involved all had different experiences of the phenomena under discussion, namely democratic citizenship and leadership, and their views therefore informed the research investigation.

**Epistemology** is described as the relationship between the researcher and what he or she perceives reality to be, in other words, reality is concerned with what knowledge is and how to obtain it (Hirschheim, Klein & Lyytenin, 1995; Krauss, 2005; Trochim, 2000). The epistemological assumption underlying interpretivism guides the researcher in asking questions such as, “How do we know what we know?” and “What constitutes as knowledge?” (Krauss, 2005:759). In asking these questions, the researcher then interacts with the participants by listening to their opinions and using qualitative techniques for data construction and analysis (Hesse-Biber, 2010). In this research study, I obtained knowledge of the concepts under discussion through the contributions of the participants and by understanding how they perceived phenomena within the research context. It is important that objectivity be maintained throughout the investigation in order to establish how reality is perceived in the research context (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

The **methodology** aspects of a paradigm refer to the various techniques used by the researcher to construct data. For the purpose of my research study, qualitative methodology was employed as I believed that the participants would construct knowledge and add meaning to phenomena through their beliefs and values and through what they were experiencing within the research context. In exploring the role of the CAPS in equipping high school learners for responsible leadership, it was significant to investigate how learners and teachers view democratic citizenship, whether there were practices and programmes at the time of this study at their schools making provision for the teaching and learning of democratic citizenship and also to
investigate whether participating learners were exposed to leadership skills development and how this affected their experiences at the three schools under investigation.

It is therefore clear that it was important to pursue the research methodology through the lens of interpretivism in a research study where phenomena such as ‘responsible leadership’ and ‘democratic citizenship’ were discussed. Interpretivism as paradigm would increase the platform for generating valuable information that could contribute to answering the research questions.

3.4 Qualitative research methodology

This study focused on the role of education in equipping learners with the skills required for responsible leadership, which could best be assessed through a qualitative methodology that seeks to understand the perspectives of both the learners and the teachers.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005:3), qualitative researchers “study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them”. With regard to the methodology in my research study, the emphasis needed to be placed on the natural setting or research context and the viewpoints of the participants.

Creswell (2003) explains that a qualitative approach in research methodology is used to generate knowledge based primarily on the multiple meanings of individual experiences or the meanings that are socially and historically constructed. The researcher collects open-ended, emerging data with the primary purpose of developing themes from the data.

Qualitative research is used to explore “social phenomena as experienced by individuals themselves in their natural context” (Malterud, 2001:483). Malterud’s description of qualitative research is significant with reference to my research study, as I wanted to investigate whether the CAPS equipped high school learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership. This could only be done by observing and listening to participants’ lived experiences of the CAPS.

It was expected that an investigation of the programmes and practices in place at the relevant schools used in the research study would provide valuable information in answering my research questions. To be able to achieve this and to gain deeper
insight, Krauss (2005:760) advises that researchers immerse themselves in the process so that they can experience what it is like to be part of the culture of an institution. I therefore needed to involve myself as researcher deeply in conversation with the learners and teachers from the three schools selected for the research study, in order to identify together with them how they experience the CAPS, the teaching of democratic citizenship education and leadership skills development at the relevant schools.

3.5 Research design

The nature of this study was focused on democratic citizenship education and how this could contribute towards responsible leadership, therefore a phenomenological design was used. Leedy and Ormrod (2001:153) define phenomenology as a “person’s perception of the meaning of an event, as opposed to the event as it exists external to the person”. Leedy and Ormrod (2001:153) argue that a phenomenological study aims to “understand people’s perceptions of and perspectives on a particular occurrence, and the meaning they attach to the occurrence”.

Lester (1999:1) argues that the purpose of the phenomenological approach is “to identify phenomena through how they are perceived by the actors in a situation”. This therefore requires gathering in-depth information through perceptions, which can be achieved by using inductive, qualitative methods such as interviews, discussions and participant observation (Lester, 1999).

According to Creswell (2007), a phenomenological study emphasises the individual’s experiences on a given topic. The benefit of a phenomenological study is that it allows the participants to share their lived experiences through interviews and focus groups. Qualitative research, on the other hand, guides the researcher in answering questions that require clarification, justification and further knowledge expansion on the given topic under exploration (Cottrell & McKenzie, 2011).

3.6 Research context

For the purpose of this study, three high schools in the Metropole North Education District in the Western Cape were selected as the sites from which the data would be constructed. The reason for selecting the three high schools within the Metropole North Education District of the Western Cape was ease of proximity and access. My position as a teacher at a neighbouring high school made it easy for me to gain the
schools' participation in my research. The three high schools are distinctly different from one another regarding the areas in which they are located and also in terms of socio-economic status, language, culture, race and religion, amongst others.

High schools, and not primary schools, were selected due to the nature of the research study. It was necessary to construct data from and teachers who had been exposed to the CAPS for the longest period of time, in order to obtain information relevant to my research study. I selected three high schools based on the cultural diversity of the schools, and the racial and socio-economic diversity of their learners.

School A is located in a small township with predominantly Xhosa-speaking black African residents. Unemployment, extreme poverty, crime and a lack of resources were reported as major challenges in the area. Regular protests over service delivery or xenophobic demonstrations are also associated with this area. At the time of this research, there were 1 178 learners in this school and 37 teachers employed at the school. All the learners were from the same community and they either walked to school or made use of taxis. At the time of this research, school A was a quintile 3 school (see Dass & Rinquest, 2017). The majority of learners attending school A were from the community in which the school is located. Members of the community reside in an overcrowded informal settlement, a previously disadvantaged area stemming from the apartheid era.

The area surrounding school A is densely populated and many residents of the community are unemployed. Just under half of the approximately 40 000 people living in the community are employed and the residents who are employed, have mostly low-income jobs. There are regular protests in the community for basic necessities, such as better housing conditions, water and sanitation as well as waste disposal. Many informal houses do not have toilets, and therefore the residents need to use public toilets or buckets. Water is provided through standpipes and the water pressure often varies, which could lead to the water being cut off for long periods of time.

School B is located in an area characterised by predominantly Afrikaans-speaking, coloured residents. Unemployment, crime and gang-related activities were major challenges in the area at the time of this research. School B hosted 1 600 learners and there were 45 teachers employed at the school at the time of this study. At the time, school B was a quintile 5 school; however, the principal emphasised that the
school was a no fee-paying school, which means that there were no school fees involved (see Dass & Request, 2017). Learners from school B do not experience formal housing challenges, and have better access to basic necessities than learners from school A, however, poverty was still rife in the community around school B, as many residents were unemployed or had low-income jobs.

Learners are often subject to parental neglect or abuse, and the area surrounding the school is characterised by gang violence and drug abuse. At the time of this study, most learners attending school B were from the community in which the school is situated and they walked to school. Learners were therefore at risk of being targeted by drug dealers or members of gangs on a daily basis, as they walk to and from school.

School C is located in a middle-class suburb comprising predominantly white, English-speaking residents. The learners in school C were diverse regarding socio-economic status, culture, language and religion. At the time of this study, the community in which school C is situated did not experience any social challenges, such as those experienced by the communities surrounding schools A and B. School C is situated within a historically advantaged area where the majority of residents are employed and have middle- to high-income jobs. There were 1 209 learners enrolled at school C and this school employed 66 teachers at the time of this study. The learners were mostly from the same community, with some learners from neighbouring communities or suburbs. Some learners were brought to school by their parents, while some travelled to school by bus. At the time of this study, school C was a quintile 5 fee-paying school. Parental involvement was prominent at the time, and learners had access to valuable resources at home and within the school environment.

At the time, learners in the three schools represented the diverse SA society, and the communities in which the schools were located, presented different challenges to the learners of these schools. It was believed that the geographic diversity and contextual factors associated with each of the three high schools would present the learners and teachers of these schools with different experiences, which would provide myself with valuable data as it was expected that they would construct different meanings to the concepts under discussion.
3.7 Sampling

Dawson (2006) explains that sampling is the process of choosing a manageable number of people to participate in the study. For the purposes of this study, three high schools in the Metropole North Education District in the Western Cape were selected as the sites from which the data would be collected. The three high schools were selected due to their geographic diversity and socio-economic status. At the time of the present study, the learners who attended these three high schools were also from different economic backgrounds and were thus part of a very diverse learning group.

In order to select the participants for the research study, it was firstly important to explore different types of sampling, and thereafter to determine which type of sampling would be applicable to this specific research study. According to Patton (2002, cited in Suri, 2011:65), “The logic and power of purposive sampling lie in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Studying information-rich cases yields insights and in-depth understanding rather than empirical generalizations”.

Five learners from each school were selected as participants. The selection was not done randomly as learners were selected due to their age (only grade 12 learners were selected) and involvement at school level. The learners and LO teachers were selected according to their willingness to participate, their ability to express their thoughts and feelings and consent from parents for the learner’s participation.

Only Grade 12 learners, 17 or 18 years of age, were used for research purposes since they would have been exposed longest to the preparation for responsible leadership as suggested by the education department. They would also have had the most experience relating to their exposure to the CAPS, and it was therefore expected that they would be able to give relevant answers since the topics under discussion, namely democratic citizenship education, leadership and life orientation, affected them directly. It was further believed that the Grade 12 learners, who had almost reached the end of their school career, would know whether they had acquired the skills necessary for life after school, i.e. skills required for responsible leadership and those in order to adjust to the challenges which they were facing at the time or would still face during the time leading up to the end of their school career.

I also selected one LO teacher from each of the three schools, who would willingly supply me with information regarding their experiences of the CAPS in LO.
teachers were selected based on the grade they were teaching at the time and their years’ experience teaching LO within the CAPS. All three teachers who were selected therefore taught Grade 12 LO and were able to provide me with valuable information regarding the aims, outcomes and content associated with the CAPS for LO. Because democratic citizenship education is a component of LO, the teachers were able to provide me with information regarding the implications of democratic citizenship education within the respective schools where they teach and the programmes and practices in place regarding the promotion of democratic citizenship.

3.8 Data construction methods

Creswell (2007) emphasises that data collection is a series of interrelated activities aimed at gathering good information to answer emerging research questions. For the purpose of this study, semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews were used as measures of data collection. Terre Blanche et al. (2006) state that these methods of data construction allow the researcher to build an understanding of the phenomenon under discussion, through observing particular instances of the phenomenon as they emerge in specific contexts.

Data construction forms a valuable part of a qualitative research study, as the goal of the researcher is to “understand the complex world of human experience and behaviour from the point of view of those involved in the situation of interest” (Krauss, 2005:764). Data collected as part of qualitative research therefore requires of the researcher to remain open, flexible, sensitive and empathetic to the responses given by the participants (Krauss, 2005).

Due to the qualitative nature of the research study, data construction was dependent on the context (Yilmaz, 2013:315). I had to remain objective throughout the process of data collection and allow all participants to express their views freely.

3.8.1 Interviews

In qualitative research studies, interviews are well known as data construction techniques, as stated by Haahr, Norlyk and Hall (2014). Interviews guide the researcher in gaining insight into peoples’ thoughts about their own experiences. By using formal or informal interviews and observing the participants being interviewed, one can develop an understanding of their perspectives on the topic under discussion (Krauss, 2005).
I wanted to gain an in-depth understanding of the role played by the CAPS in developing the necessary skills learners need for responsible leadership in a manner that cannot easily be captured by standardised measures. In order to do so, interviews were conducted and focus groups held with learners and teachers at the three high schools, A, B and C, in the Metropole North Education district of the Western Cape. The three focus schools were chosen based on the geographic and cultural diversity of the schools.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) argue that the use of interviews ensures listening and talking to the interviewees in order to create a better understanding of the information required so as to produce relevant data. Interviews are conversational and create a safe space for the participants to voice their opinions, and for the researcher to explore and gain a holistic understanding of the topic under investigation.

3.8.1.1 Semi-structured Interviews

Cohen and Crabtree (2006) state that semi-structured interviews involve prepared questioning ahead of time, guided by identified themes in a consistent and systematic manner, which allows the interviewer to be prepared as well as to appear confident during the interview. Semi-structured interviews can provide reliable qualitative data as participants are given the opportunity to express their views freely and openly (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006).

According to Kvale and Brinkmann (2009), semi-structured interviews are often the most effective and convenient means of gathering information as it allows for flexibility during the interview process. The interviewer can modify the structure, pace and order of the questions in order to obtain the fullest responses from the interviewee. This way of interviewing also enables interviewees to provide responses in their own words and in the way that they think and use language, which is useful if the researcher wants to understand the way the interviewees perceive the social phenomenon under study (Qu & Dumay, 2011).

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with one LO teacher from each high school used in the study. The decision to use semi-structured interviews was underpinned by the objectives of the research study and the epistemology that guided the research. As the researcher viewed social reality as being constructed, and made
use of phenomenology as research paradigm, the interviewing of participants was approached through the participants’ own perspective (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

In researching whether the CAPS equip high school learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership, I wanted to gain an in-depth understanding of the social reality as perceived by the participants of the research study. In researching phenomena such as leadership and democratic citizenship, it is necessary to use semi-structured interviews where the questions are prepared beforehand but still allow for flexibility in terms of the responses gained.

3.8.1.2 Focus group interviews

According to Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest and Namey (2005:51), a focus group interview is a qualitative data collection technique used to “gain more knowledge of the social norms and perspectives of a certain group”. Focus group discussions follow a semi-structured format in which open discussions and responses from selected participants are elicited (Rennekamp & Nell, 2006). According to Sandelowski (2000), focus group discussions may provide the researcher with valuable information about the phenomenon under discussion, as it allows for participants to listen to each other’s perspectives and opinions and therefore even be influenced by one another, which could create a sense of belonging. Focus group interviews were conducted with five Grade 12 learners from each of the three high schools under investigation.

My role as researcher was vital within the focus group interviews as it was required of me to be a “moderator as well as a facilitator”, as stated by Mack et al. (2005:54). It is important for the researcher to recruit the participants, to answer any questions they may have in advance and also to be reliable. The researcher as interviewer should also take the lead in focus group discussions and encourage participants to share their opinions and views on the topic under discussion. Confidentiality should be ensured and participants should all feel comfortable in sharing their personal opinions (Breen, 2006:466). It is therefore crucial that the researcher establish a comfortable, safe environment in which the focus group interview can be held.

3.9 Data analysis

The purpose of data analysis is to organise and elicit meaning from the data constructed and draw realistic conclusions, as stated by Polit and Beck (2006). In data
analysis, all the data is summarised and then presented in a way that shows the most important characteristics of the research study.

In order to capture understanding of the data in writing, I used qualitative content analysis to deconstruct and analyse the data that I collected during the semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews. Krippendorff (2004:18) defines content analysis as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts to the contexts of their use”. It is important, however, that the results of the investigation be linked to their context or to the environment in which they were produced, otherwise it would affect the trustworthiness of the study.

After each interview, I transcribed the data verbatim, in order to have all data in a text format, which is a crucial first step towards data analysis, as highlighted by Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004). When all data has been transcribed, coding and categorising of data can take place in order for the researcher to identify the emerging themes throughout the data collected (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004).

It is important for the researcher to read the text in order to gain a better understanding of the content and to identify some recurring themes in the text. After gaining an overall understanding of the text, coding can take place, which requires of the researcher to assign codes to the various parts of the data, which Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004:104) refer to as the establishment of “units of meaning”.

The next phase of content analysis is to compare the different coded texts across all participants, in order to identify any similarities or differences between them. This is referred to as categorising the data through identification of similarities and differences (Patton, 2002). The similarities and differences in the text are grouped together according to emerging themes and simplified until only a few main themes remain. This is an important step, which will be discussed in Chapter 4.

3.10 Issues of reliability and validity

Anney (2014) argues that trustworthiness refers to an assessment of the quality of the research conducted. Trustworthiness promises that “the reality and lived experiences of the participants as well as the transferability of the research to another context”, is mirrored by the interpretation of the findings (Bertram & Christiansen 2014:49). I made use of semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews in order to ensure that the phenomenon being researched is understood from and within multiple realities. In
order to strengthen trustworthiness of qualitative research, it is important to acknowledge the concepts credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability (Anney, 2014).

Guba and Lincoln (1985) emphasise the close ties between credibility and dependability, and posit that the presence of the former attribute increases the likelihood of the latter occurring. The can be achieved through the use of methods such as individual interviews and focus groups. The procedures the study followed should also be reported in detail to enable readers of the research report to develop a thorough understanding of the text. The effectiveness of research methods can be increased by having field notes, which address every aspect of what was done in the field.

3.10.1 Credibility

In the present study, credibility was ensured by developing an early familiarity with the environment and culture of participating schools, before the data collection took place. By visiting the schools prior to data collection to become familiarised with the relevant stakeholders, I gained an understanding of the schools and established a relationship of trust between the relevant parties. In order to ensure honesty between the researcher and participants during data collection, I explained all aspects of the research study to the participants beforehand and also provided participants with the opportunity to refuse participation, so that the research only involved those who were really willing to be part and who would provide data freely.

Debriefing sessions can widen the vision of the researcher, which could lead to alternative approaches incorporated in discussion. Member checks regarding the accuracy of data can take place during the course of data collection or at the end (Shenton, 2004). Participants can be asked to read any transcripts of the data collection dialogues and then consider whether it is a true reflection of their words.

3.10.2 Dependability

Dependability of a research study refers to the “likelihood that it will present the same results if someone else were to repeat” the study (Grossoehme, 2014:111). A study can be viewed as dependable or reliable when the procedures and methods of research are clearly explained and evaluated by the researcher. Another method that can be used to enhance the reliability or dependability of the study is to make use of
an ‘audit trail’ (see Shenton, 2004). The researcher has an audit trail when a journal is kept where various approaches used in data analysis are described, as suggested by Suter (2012:350). The audit trail can serve as a track record in presenting a detailed description of the researcher’s interactions during the analysis and an interpretation of the data findings. I made use of an audit trail by clearly recording the steps used in data analysis of the research findings.

I also implemented the code–decode strategy (see Vaughn & Turner, 2016) in order to ensure dependability. This strategy involves the coding of the same section of data twice, by allowing a time frame of about one to two weeks in between each coding. The results of the two are compared in order to see whether the results remain the same or whether they differ (Vaughn & Turner, 2016). This contributes to a deeper understanding of the patterns and emerging themes of the data.

3.10.3 Confirmability

Yilmaz (2013:320) explains that a study will assume confirmability when the research findings are based on the analysis of the data collected and evaluated through an auditing process. In order to ensure confirmability, I needed to ensure as far as possible that the outcomes of this research study would be the result of the lived experiences of the participants, namely the learners and teachers within my study. The outcomes of the study should not be informed by the preferences of the researcher (Barusch, Gringeri & George, 2011).

In order to ensure confirmability, I kept a reflexive journal, which Wallendorf and Belk (1989:n.p.) describe as “reflexive documents kept by the researcher in order to reflect on, tentatively interpret and plan data collection”. My reflexive journal comprised all my field notes and personal reflections on each interview. I also kept all electronic records, namely the tape recordings as well as all non-electronic records, such as documentary materials, which could be used to cross-check the data and final report of the study.

3.10.4 Transferability

Transferability refers to the level to which the results of the study can be transferred to other research contexts or settings with other respondents, in order to establish the generalisability of the research (Bitsch, 2005).
Shenton (2004:69) states that to ensure transferability, the researcher needs to gather a “thick description of the phenomenon under scrutiny” which can allow comparison of the research findings to other research contexts. I made use of purposive sampling, which I described earlier in this chapter (see 3.7), in order to place my focus on key informants, who could provide me with an informative description of their experiences of the phenomenon under discussion.

3.11 Ethical considerations

“Ethical issues are the concerns and dilemmas that arise over the proper way to execute research, more specifically not to create harmful conditions for the subjects of inquiry, humans, in the research process” (Schurink, 2005:43).

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1998), two issues dominate ethics when undertaking research with human subjects, namely informed consent and protection of subjects from harm.

These guidelines attempt to ensure that: (a) subjects enter research projects voluntarily, understanding the nature of the study and the dangers and obligations that are involved, and (b) subjects are not exposed to risks that are greater than the gains they might derive (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998:43).

In following suggestions of esteemed qualitative researchers, I ensured as far as possible that no one who participated in the study would be harmed.

Gratton and Jones (2010) emphasise that all researchers, regardless of research designs, sampling techniques and choice of methods, are subjected to ethical considerations. In this research study, semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews were selected as data construction techniques and learners and teachers of three high schools were selected as participants. Due to the semi-structured and open-ended format of the data collection, ethical issues were unavoidable.

The following ethical aspects were adhered to in this research:

3.11.1 Confidentiality

All participants involved in the study were assured of anonymity and that all information would be handled with confidentiality. I was sensitive to the participants’ right to anonymity and confidentiality and respected these rights. I therefore firstly informed all participants that I held privacy and confidentiality in high regard. I assured all
participants that they would remain anonymous, that their identities would not be disclosed, and that their responses or any information given by them would remain confidential and would only be used for the purposes of this study. I further informed all participants that I would be the only one with access to the data collected from them, and that I alone would transcribe and analyse the data. All participants were further assured that I would store all transcripts and other information on my laptop, which would be used by myself only and which is secured with a password.

3.11.2 Informed consent
I respected the participants’ rights to full disclosure about the research by firstly communicating the aims and outcomes of the research and also the anticipated consequences of the research to them. All participants were made aware of my expectations of them, and I informed them about the procedures used while interviewing.

I approached the principals of the three high schools that were selected to form part of my research study and explained to them the purposes and aims of the research and provided them with my research proposal after which I obtained written consent from each of the three principals. I also engaged in conversation with the principals on advice with regard to the selection of the potential participants. Before I could approach any of the research participants, I had to obtain ethical clearance from the WCED (see Appendix A) as well as from the Research Ethics Committee (REC) of Stellenbosch University (SU) (see Appendix B).

I was especially mindful of the vulnerability of learners used in this study. It was imperative for me to build a relationship based on trust and loyalty with each one of them and to ensure them of their safety and the confidentiality of the information shared with me. Consent forms where signed by parents or guardians (refer to Appendix E) and the learners and teachers involved as participants also signed consent forms before the interviews took place (see Appendixes C and D).

3.11.3 Debriefing
On my first meeting with the participants, I explained to them in detail what the research entailed, and what I expected of them with regard to the interview questions. I explained what informed consent is and read through the consent forms so that the learners could explain to their parents in order to obtain parental consent. They had
the opportunity to ask any questions and inform me about any concerns, and I then set up a time for the interviews with which they were comfortable. A debriefing also took place when I met with participants for the second time and before the interviews commenced.

### 3.11.4 Voluntary participation

All participants were informed that participation in this research study was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any time.

### 3.12 Summary

This chapter provided a detailed discussion of the research methodology as it pertained to my research study. Interpretivism is described as the lens through which data will be generated (see Goldkuhl, 2012), as it is believed that information is socially constructed. I made use of a qualitative phenomenological research design and used qualitative methods, namely semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews, to generate data. The procedure followed in selecting the research participants was briefly explained. I further discussed the process of data analysis, issues of reliability and validity and the ethical considerations taken into account with data collection and data analyses.
CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings, which were obtained through individual interviews conducted with three LO teachers selected from three high schools in the Metropole North Education district of the Western Cape, as well as through focus group interviews conducted with five Grade 12 learners from each of the three high schools selected.

As I wanted to investigate whether the CAPS equip high school learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership, qualitative research was used to explore social phenomena (democratic citizenship and leadership) as experienced by individuals in their natural context. This was done by observing teachers and learners in their school environment and listening to their lived experiences of the CAPS. By investigating the practices and programmes in place at the relevant schools I could determine whether learners were exposed to the promotion of democratic citizenship and leadership skills development in order to become responsible citizens.

The data is presented in association with themes, namely –

- shared challenges experienced by learners in the school environment;
- teachers’ and learners’ views of the skills and qualities required by learners for responsible leadership;
- perceptions and experiences of democratic citizenship;
- perceptions and experiences of leadership;
- leadership development within the school environment;
- opinions on the existence and functioning of leadership initiatives, such as the prefect and RCL system; and
- learners’ views of life skills taught in LO.

The presentation of my data will address the following subsidiary questions:

- How do teachers and learners interpret the principles of the CAPS?
- How do teachers and learners understand and relate to conceptions of democratic citizenship?
- Do the schools have programmes or practices in place that might promote democratic citizenship?
• How do teachers and learners understand and relate to conceptions of leadership?
• How do the schools incorporate leadership development within the school environment?
• Are learners equipped with life skills in Life Orientation (LO)?

As a result of the above subsidiary questions, this chapter reflects on how the main research question was informed, namely:

Does the CAPS equip learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership?

As stipulated in the ethical considerations as part of Chapter 3 (see 3.11), the confidentiality and anonymity of all participants were ensured at all times, and I therefore refer to the schools as schools A, B and C respectively. The teachers are referred to as TA, TB and TC, where T refers to ‘Teacher’ and the letters A, B and C will refer to the school where the specific teacher is employed. The learners are referred to as 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 in relation to the letters A, B or C representing their respective schools. In presenting my findings, the table below indicates how the teachers and learners were represented.

### Table 4.1: Summary of research participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Learners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>TA</td>
<td>A1, A2, A3, A4, A5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>TB</td>
<td>B1, B2, B3, B4, B5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>TC</td>
<td>C1, C2, C3, C4, C5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.1.1 Research context

This study was conducted at three public high schools in the Metropole North Education district in the Western Cape. The researcher selected three high schools based on the cultural diversity of the schools, and the ethnic and socio-economic diversity of their learners, broadly representing the demographic composition of the Western Cape.

My position as a teacher at a neighbouring high school made it easy for me to gain the schools’ participation in my research. The three high schools were distinctly
different from one another regarding the areas where they are located and also in terms of socio-economic status, language, culture, ethnicity and religion.

High schools, and not primary schools, were selected due to the nature of the research study, which aimed to explore whether the CAPS equip high school learners with the skills they require for responsible leadership. It was necessary to construct data obtained from participants, i.e. learners and teachers, who had been exposed to the CAPS the longest, in order to obtain information relevant to my research study.

The selected schools each had their own set of disparate challenges, which is a result of SA’s history of institutionalised inequality and physical segregation. School A is located in an ‘informal settlement’ or ‘historically disadvantaged area’ with predominantly Xhosa-speaking black African residents. The area in which school A is located, is faced with a variety of socio-economic challenges (see 3.6).

School B is located in an area characterised by predominantly Afrikaans-speaking, coloured residents. The area where school B is located was established under the apartheid government as an industrial hub and community for the coloured population of Cape Town. The area in which school B is located, is also faced with many socio-economic challenges (see 3.6).

School C is located in a middle-class suburb consisting of predominantly white, English-speaking residents. At the time of this research, the learners in school C were diverse regarding socio-economic status, culture, language, religion. The area in which school C is located, is not affected by the socio-economic challenges as experienced by schools A and B (see 3.6).

Learners in the respective three high schools represented the diverse SA society at the time, and the communities or context in which the schools were located, presented different challenges to the learners of these schools. It was believed that the geographic diversity and contextual factors associated with each of the three high schools would present the learners and teachers of these schools with different experiences, which would provide valuable data as they would construct different meanings to the concepts under discussion.

This research study comprised three LO teachers from schools A, B and C, as well as five Grade 12 learners from each of the high schools.
4.1.2 Biographical information of participants

The table below presents the biographical information of each of the teacher participants.

Table 4.2: Teachers’ biographical information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (teacher)</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Years of teaching experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School A – Teacher TA</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B – Teacher TB</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C – Teacher TC</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The information shown in Table 4.2 reflects the basic biographical information of each of the teacher participants. The first column shows how the teachers are identified in relation to the school where they were teaching at the time. The second column indicates the gender of the participants and the third column shows the years of teaching experience.

All three teachers were teaching LO at Grade 12 level at the time, and indicated that they were familiar with the CAPS requirements associated with teaching Grade 12 LO. Democratic citizenship education is a component of the LO subject content. The assumption was that the teachers would be able to provide me with information regarding the implications of democratic citizenship education within the respective schools where they were teaching and the programmes and practices in place in terms of the promotion of democratic citizenship and the inclusion of leadership development at their respective schools.

The table below presents the biographical information of each of the learner participants.
Table 4.3: Learners' biographical information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (learner)</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Home language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>School A –</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners: A1, A2, A3, A4, A5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2: Female</td>
<td>A2: Female</td>
<td>A2: isiXhosa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3: Female</td>
<td>A3: Female</td>
<td>A3: isiXhosa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4: Male</td>
<td>A4: Male</td>
<td>A4: isiXhosa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5: Female</td>
<td>A5: Female</td>
<td>A5: isiXhosa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School B –</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners: B1, B2, B3, B4, B5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1: Female</td>
<td>B1: Female</td>
<td>B1: Afrikaans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3: Female</td>
<td>B3: Female</td>
<td>B3: Afrikaans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4: Male</td>
<td>B4: Male</td>
<td>B4: Afrikaans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5: Male</td>
<td>B5: Male</td>
<td>B5: Afrikaans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School C –</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners: C1, C2, C3, C4, C5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1: Male</td>
<td>C1: Male</td>
<td>C1: English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2: Female</td>
<td>C2: Female</td>
<td>C2: English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3: Female</td>
<td>C3: Female</td>
<td>C3: English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4: Female</td>
<td>C4: Female</td>
<td>C4: English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5: Male</td>
<td>C5: Male</td>
<td>C5: English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The information shown in Table 4.3 reflects the basic biographical information of each of the learner participants. The first column shows how the learners will be identified in relation to the respective high schools involved, namely A, B and C. The second and third columns respectively indicate the genders and home languages of the participants.

Only Grade 12 learners were selected to participate in the research study as they would have been exposed longest of all learners to the CAPS preparation (or not) for responsible leadership. The Grade 12 learners were nearing completion of their school career. The expectation was – certainly in terms of the CAPS – that they would have acquired the skills necessary for life after school, i.e. for responsible leadership, and the skills needed to adjust to the challenges which they were facing at the time or would still be facing leading up to the end of their school career.

I proceeded to conduct individual interviews with the selected LO teachers from schools A, B and C. Focus group interviews were conducted with the five Grade 12 learners from schools A, B and C respectively. The data obtained from the individual
interviews with the teachers and the focus group interviews with learners is represented in the next section. (4.2-4.8).

4.1.3 Interviews with LO teachers and Grade 12 learners

Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with one Grade 12 LO teacher from each of the three schools selected for the research study. Focus group interviews were conducted with five Grade 12 learners from each of the three schools selected for the research study. Teachers and learners were asked different questions relating to the themes under discussion.

The interview questions were designed to address all the subsidiary research questions raised in this study. The sub-questions were aimed at establishing:

- whether the CAPS was cultivating the types of citizens that fulfil the principles of democratic citizenship, given the shared challenges that the youth face;
- how teachers and learners related to conceptions of democratic citizenship and leadership;
- whether schools had programmes or practices in place that promoted democratic citizenship;
- how teachers and learners related to conceptions of leadership;
- whether schools incorporated leadership development within the school environment; and
- whether LO equipped learners with life skills

Taking into consideration the questions that were asked during these interviews (see appendixes F and G) and ensuring that the research questions were addressed, I present my findings in the sections that follow.

4.2 Views of teachers on shared challenges experienced by learners in the school context

In Chapter 2 (section 2.2), I discussed the state of the youth in SA by drawing on statistics in emphasising the wide array of challenges experienced by the youth in SA. It is therefore important that we understand the disparate experiences of the youth, largely due to existing and historic inequality in SA, and how these affect their daily lives.
I therefore enquired about the shared challenges experienced amongst the learners taught by the teachers of the three high schools selected for the study, in order to build on my argument regarding the dire need for skills development and for the youth to demonstrate responsible leadership. This section therefore presents the teachers’ responses to the shared challenges experienced by the learners they were teaching at the time. All quotations are provided verbatim and unedited.

Teacher TA revealed:

   It is the social problems … most of them they are coming from the poor, so they are struggling. Even some learners they come to school on an empty stomach. Some of them, they don’t have support from their parents.

Teacher TB shared a similar view with teacher TA regarding a lack of parental support, and she added that drug abuse and gangsterism pose extreme challenges within their community and to the learners she teaches. In her own words:

   So, wat gebeur is dan is hulle die easy targets vir ouens wat byvoorbeeld kinders soek om sê maar nou dwelms vir hulle te verkoop, want watter kind sal nie wil geld hè nie?

   (So, what happens is that they are easy targets for guys that for example are looking for kids to sell drugs to, because which child would not want money?)

Teacher TC did not list any of the challenges as experienced by teachers TA and TB but listed bullying as a big problem amongst the learners she was teaching, as well as teen suicide, which might occur as a result of bullying. She explained:

   So, I know the school actually identified bullying as a big problem … a lot of students are both perpetrators and experiencing it in their lives. It is a very small community so everyone tends to be quite isolated … so I think that we are not aware of the sort of global impact of things.

As indicated by the teacher’s response above, the learners attending school A, mainly experienced socio-economic problems or challenges, as some of them did not have access to basic necessities, such as food. School B experienced drug abuse and gangsterism as challenges within the community, which consequently influenced the learners attending the school. School C did not indicate any challenges within the community which influenced the learners of the school, as the community was small and isolated, but the teacher mentioned internal challenges in the school, such as
bullying amongst the learners. It is therefore clear that the three high schools each experienced its own set of challenges.

4.3 Exploring the appropriate skills or qualities required by learners for responsible leadership

In Chapter 2 (section 2.5), I stated that there is an urgent need for educational transformation towards inclusive responsible leadership in a democracy with the CAPS as a potential instrument of this change. The CAPS for each approved subject aims to equip learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country (see CAPS, 2011a).

4.3.1 Teachers: The preparedness of learners for life after school

Teachers were firstly asked whether they felt that high school learners were well prepared for life after school. Teacher TA only replied, “Yes,” and could not substantiate her answer. Teacher TB explained that only certain learners with ambition who were normally hard working show that they were prepared for life after school. She indicated:

[A]s mens nou kyk na ’n sekere tipe kind, dan weet jy nou nee wat die kind is 100% reg. Die kind het ambisie, die kind is hardwerkend. So, vir my hang dit af van persoon tot persoon, want ek weet vir my leerplan Lewensoriëntering gee ons genoeg vir hulle.

(If a person looks at a certain type of child, then you know that the child is 100% ready. The child has ambition, the child is hardworking. So, for me it depends from person to person, because I know in my subject plan, Life Orientation, we give them enough.)

Teacher TC had the following to say:

I think a lot of the things that they expect the students to do in life orientation requires a lot of sort of reflective thinking … being introspective … and actually thinking about your behaviour. I think that it’s either above them in terms of their maturity level or above a classroom environment. It’s trying to address that but I think it only reaches about 10% of the students. It is therefore the teacher’s responsibility to add that in.
4.3.2 Learners: The preparedness of learners for life after school

Learners were asked whether they felt prepared for life after school in which 9 of the 15 learners responded, “No”. The majority of the learners from schools A and B did not feel prepared for life after school and expressed similar reasons for their answers, such as fears regarding their uncertainty about the future and their emotional and physical preparedness for the responsibilities that lie ahead.

Learner A5 had the following concern:

The thing is the studies I am doing right now, like I am not going to use them next year for what I want to do. So I don't know whether it's going to work or not.

Learner B1 had the same concern as learner A5:

Ek voel glad nie gereed nie, want ek is bang miskien kies ek die verkeerde rigting om in te gaan volgende jaar … want ek weet nog nie of ek dit kan hanteer, of ek emosioneel, intelligent of sterk genoeg is om dit te hanteer.

(I totally don’t feel ready because I am afraid, I might choose the wrong direction to go into next year … because I don’t know whether I am emotionally, intelligent or strong enough to cope with it all.)

Learner B2 stated:

[W]at my ’n bietjie kniehalter, is die emosionele welstand wat ek moet hê, as ek gematrikuleer het.

([W]hat hampers me, is the emotional well-being that I should have when I have matriculated.)

The learners who expressed that they felt prepared for life after school, also responded with similar reasons for their answers. Some learners felt ready for life after school as they were certain about what they wanted to pursue the following year, as learner A4 stated:

The reason why I say I am kind of prepared is because I have done my research about what I want to do after school.

The majority of participating learners from school C, expressed that they felt ready for life after school due to the skills with which they had been imbued at school. Learners C1, C2, C3 and C5 indicated that they felt prepared for life after school due to the leadership roles carried out by them during their high school career.
Learner C5 stated the following:

I feel that I have in this one year of matric, that I have got a lot of real-world skills in because of the leadership positions that I have learned that can help me. But I am not fully prepared yet.

In comparing the responses of the teachers and learners to the questions asked in this section, it is important to note the stark differences in their answers. Teacher TA answered “Yes” to the question on whether she thought high school learners are prepared for life after school; however, the majority of the learners interviewed from school A indicated that they did not feel ready for life after school. They listed uncertainty about the future as a main reason for their answers.

Teacher TB thought only the learners who were hardworking and ambitious, would be prepared for life after school. Learners from school B, however, indicated that they were not all fully prepared for life after school, as they were not sure whether they were emotionally and physically prepared for the responsibilities they would have to take on after leaving school. Teacher TC indicated that she felt learners were prepared to a certain extent, but that many learners expressed the need to be taught practical things, such as “changing a car tyre” and “doing your tax”, but that some of the things were not in the textbook or were not prescribed. She was therefore concerned that the content taught as part of the LO curriculum, would not reach all of the students. Learners from school C, however, all said that they felt well prepared for life after school, mainly due to the skills, relating to leadership, they had been taught at school.

4.3.3 Teachers: The skills or qualities required by learners as they enter life after school

Secondly, it was necessary to question the teachers on the skills or qualities that learners require as they enter life after school. The following table shows the teachers' responses to the question asked.
Table: Teachers’ responses to the skills or qualities that learners require as they enter life after school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (teacher)</th>
<th>Skills or qualities required by learners as they enter life after school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher TA</td>
<td>Computer skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher TB</td>
<td>Ambition, self-discipline, good work ethic, professionalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher TC</td>
<td>Ability to deal with information, communication, creativity, ability to develop your own arguments or opinions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.4 Learners: The skills or qualities required by learners in preparation for life after school

During the focus group interviews, the Grade 12 learners were asked which skills or qualities they thought were required by learners in preparation for life after school. Learners from school A all agreed that time management, self-discipline, responsibility and respect were skills that they needed to be taught.

Learner A4 mentioned the following:

I think a topic about diversity should be taught because here in our schools I think you get faced with like 90 something per cent of learners here in our school who speaks isiXhosa and then when you get out of high school, you are going to meet people who speak Zulu or speak English and all those kind of languages … So, I think if we could actually be talking about diversity, how to live with people of different cultures, with different races and other kind of stuff, it would actually help.

All the learners from School B agreed that independence and initiative are desirable skills in preparation for life after school. The majority of learners explained that at school they are ‘spoon-fed’ and not allowed to be independent and creative in order to deal with their responsibilities.

Learner B1 stated:

Om definitief meer onafhanklik te wees, want ek bedoel, op hoërskool, ons almal word met ’n lepel gevoer… jou kreatiwiteit word nie getoets op hoërskool nie.

(Definitely to be more independent, because I mean, at high school, we are all being ‘spoon-fed’… your creativity is not tested at high school.)

Learner B3 added:
Jou etiek en hoe jy voorkom in die lewe. Dit is ook net so belangrik. En jou verantwoordelikheid en wat hulle moet vir jou leer ... want soos sy gesê het, ons word met die lepel gevoer.

(Your ethics and how you appear in life. It is also equally important. And your responsibility and what they must teach you ... because as she said, we are fed with the spoon.)

Learner B4 mentioned:

Wat ek dink, is hulle moet ons leer om meer afhanklik te wees van jouself … jy word met 'n lepel gevoer. Hulle gee vir jou alles. Hulle kontroleer en volgende jaar by die universiteit gaan dit nie dieselfde wees nie.

(What I think, is that they must teach us to be more dependent on yourself ... you are being 'spoon-fed'. They give you everything. They check and next year at the university, it will not be the same.)

Learners from School C also mentioned time management as an important skill that high school learners need to be taught, and added stress management, adaptability and empathy.

Learner C2 added the following:

I think firstly we should be taught how to perceive our surroundings because you can’t have the same attitude to every situation because some situations are far more diverse than others. So you need to be able to adapt yourself.

In summarising the responses to the skills required by high school learners in preparation for life after school, learners from schools A and C indicated time management as an important skill to have. Learners from school A added self-discipline, responsibility, respect and diversity, while learners from school C added stress management, adaptability and empathy. All learners from school B felt that they were being spoon-fed at school and not given the space to be creative or independent. They therefore listed independence and creativity as desirable skills in preparation for life after school and added ‘being ethical’ as a necessary skill.

4.4 Perceptions and experiences of democratic citizenship

In Chapter 2 (section 2.4), I emphasised the responsibility of the DBE in preparing learners for active citizenship in the SA democracy. A democratic society should consist of democratic citizens and it is therefore important that education in SA should
be aimed at producing citizens who are active participants in a democratic society, and who are able to make decisions based on democratic values and principles. Learners should therefore be introduced to democratic values and principles, and be taught how to participate in a democratic society. The only way in which learners are able to learn democratic values, principles and the skills necessary for democratic participation, is to be exposed to programmes or practices that promote democratic citizenship or democratic participation in schools.

In exploring perceptions and experiences of democratic citizenship of teachers and learners, I was hoping to understand whether learners were introduced to the concepts and principles underlying democratic citizenship, and whether they had been taught the meaning of being a ‘good citizen’. I also hoped to understand whether schools had programmes or practices in place that promoted democratic citizenship. I hoped that I would be able to conclude whether schools support the vision of the DBE in preparing learners for active citizenship in the SA democracy.

4.4.1 Learners: Towards a definition of ‘citizenship’

The learners were asked to explain what the word ‘citizenship’ meant to them. All five learners from school A had a similar definition of a citizen, and they described a citizen as “someone belonging to a particular place or country”.

Learners from school B described a citizen as someone who is able to take into consideration the interests of his or her fellow citizens.

Learner B1 expressed his perspective as follows:

[E]k het nie eintlik soos baie kennis oor wat die formele definisie van ‘n landsburger is nie, maar, iemand wat altyd net sal weet dat hulle in ‘n groep is, hulle is nie alleen nie.

(I don’t really have a lot of knowledge about the formal definition of a citizen, but someone who will always know that they are in a group, they are not alone.)

Learner B2 stated:

Landsburger vir my beteken basies … om die belange van jou medelandsburgers op die hart te dra.

(Citizen for me basically means … to bear in mind the interests of your fellow citizens.)
Learners B1, B3, B4 and B5 also mentioned that a good citizen is someone who is self-assured, has integrity and responsibility, who can identify between right and wrong, and who knows that his or her actions will have consequences.

Learners from school C, similar to learners from school A, firstly stated that a citizen is someone who is part of a community, who is accepted into a country and has a place to live. Learner C1 added that a citizen is someone “having the right to vote” while learner C3 added that a citizen is someone “who abides by the law” and has an identity with adopted ideals or morals of the community or country in which he or she lives.

4.4.2 Teachers: The programmes or practices at the schools that promote democratic citizenship

The teachers were asked whether there were programmes or practices at their respective high schools that promoted democratic citizenship. Teacher TA did not have much to say surrounding democratic citizenship and explained that their school promote ‘debating’ in which only a handful of learners took part. There were not many societies at school A that provided opportunities for the promotion of democratic citizenship.

Teacher TB explained that it was only in the subject LO where democratic citizenship was promoted within her school. She explained that an employee of the Electoral Commission of SA came to speak to her Grade 11 learners about the voting process, as part of the LO class. Teacher TB however added that there were more programmes, which the school could incorporate in order to promote democratic citizenship, but that there was no time due to the teachers having to spend too much time implementing the curriculum.

Teacher TC stated that in LO, she explained to her learners the terminology surrounding ‘democracy’ and ‘citizenship’ and that there were many societies within the school, such as the interact club, that promoted democratic citizenship. She however stated:

[I]t is a bit tricky sometimes because I think there tend to be a bit of apathy from the students or maybe they don’t understand some of the concepts.
4.4.3 Learners: Perspectives on content relating to being a ‘good citizen’

Learner participants were asked to explain whether they were taught to be a ‘good citizen’ in any of their classes or subjects and the responses varied.

Learners from school A listed subjects such as LO, Economics and Business Studies in which they were learning about being a ‘good citizen’.

Learner A4 also added that isiXhosa and English had taught him about being a good citizen and stated the following:

[F]or isiXhosa and also for English we usually do orals, so those oral presentations usually wrap around certain topics and then some people will actually choose to do topics about those things. We once had some topics of how to treat foreigners … because … in SA, we usually face xenophobia.

Learner A1 added the following:

Only a few people are able to attain something out of this school, you know, those who know as … those who know what they want to do after school.

Learner A3 explained that a campaign about discrimination was introduced a short while before the interview and was running at school but he emphasised that only “some students participate in those things”.

School B’s learner participants all stated that it depended on the particular teacher’s motivation and whether he or she linked their lesson to responsible citizenship. Learner B1 added the following thought:

Ek dink dit is waarin jy jou hart sit nè, want ek bedoel, as die onderwyser nooit vir hom of haar betrek in die onderwerp waarmee hulle vandag deel nie, dan gaan hy of sy nooit eintlik dit inneem wat hulle vandag in die klas doen nie. As leerders meer prakties daaraan deelneem … en as dit iets is waarmee hulle kan relate, dan is dit iets wat by hulle gaan bly.

(I think it is what you put in your heart, because I mean, if the teacher never involved him or her in the topic with which they were dealing with on that particular day, then the learner will never learn from what they were doing in class that day. So when learners participate more actively and if it is something that they can relate to, then it will be something that stays with them.)

Learner B3 added to what learner B1 said by stating that especially in a subject like LO, the learners think LO is only there as a joke. The learners all suggested that if the
teacher’s examples in class were more appropriate to the situations they face in real life, then the subject might be more sensible or relatable.

Learner participants C2 and C5 explained that the classroom environment provided them with the opportunity to be good citizens or not, as there are certain rules one has to abide by and decisions you have to make, which could lead to you being classified a ‘good’ or a ‘bad’ citizen.

Learner C4 said that history and visual arts were subjects in which he was being taught about citizenship and what was required in order to be a good citizen, while Learner C3 said that for her it was the subject Business Studies. Learner C1, however, had a different answer:

I don’t think the stream I am in, the curriculum that I am in, doesn’t really teach you how to be a good citizen, like you can get top marks, 100% for everything, but you can still like disobey all the rules.

Learner C5 had the following to say:

[E]specially for LO, one of the things that we learned is human rights and along with human rights comes the Constitution and you know even though we were always taught you know the Constitution says this … you are allowed the right to do this … many people in the school just hear that and then they just exploit that without understanding what does that actually mean … if they want to do the Constitution we should do it more in depth.

From the responses to the questions relating to democratic citizenship, it was indicative that there were not enough programmes or practices at the three schools that promoted democratic citizenship. Democratic citizenship was mainly promoted within the classroom environment as learners were being taught content relating to ‘democracy’ and ‘citizenship’ and some requirements of a ‘good citizen’. Most learners from school A and school B were not being exposed to programmes or practices where the application of the terms was required and therefore did not know how to apply it. Learners from school A could only provide a basic definition of a ‘citizen’, and teacher TA only added ‘debating’ as a programme or practice that promoted democratic citizenship. The learners from school A also indicated that there were sometimes campaigns at school with the aim of introducing certain topics, such as discrimination, but that only some learners took part in it.
Learners from school B had difficulty at first forming a definition of a ‘citizen’, but ended up describing a ‘good citizen’ as someone who is self-assured, who has integrity and responsibility, who can tell the difference between right and wrong and who knows that his or her actions have consequences. Teacher TB indicated that it was only in LO (classroom environment) where democratic citizenship was promoted, and admitted that the school could implement more programmes or practices, but that there was not enough time to do so. The learners also added that many learners were not taking LO seriously, and that it depended on the teacher or the teacher’s examples in class, to make the content more applicable to situations involving citizenship or responsible citizenship.

Learners from school C added ‘having the right to vote’ and ‘abides by the law’ to their definition of a citizen. Teacher TC indicated that the learners were being taught about the content relating to ‘democracy’ and ‘citizenship’ in LO (classroom environment) and mentioned that there were many societies at school C, such as interact club, where democratic citizenship was promoted. Learners of school C also felt that the classroom environment provided them with opportunities to be a ‘good citizen’ or not, but they were concerned that some learners did not have a full understanding and that the content, such as the Constitution, should be taught more thoroughly.

4.5 Perceptions and experiences of leadership

In Chapter 2 (section 2.7), I argued that the youth of SA is in need of leadership development, as it is a prerequisite for responsible citizenship. Learners need to be made aware of the importance of leadership skills for the management of their own lives and for the decisions they will have to make as democratic citizens of SA. In Chapter 2 (section 2.7), I further argued that everyone will have to exert leadership skills at some point in their lives, as they assume leadership roles, such as their position in a company or organisation (career), their position as a friend or family member, such as mother, father or sibling to someone (family) or leadership roles as they manage their personal lives on a daily basis (life planning, problem solving, health management, interpersonal relationship management).

I therefore pose the following question to the reader: If quality leadership among citizens is required for improving society, and citizens are expected to demonstrate responsibility in all parts of their lives, where better than in the school could children
be prepared and equipped with the skills necessary for responsible leadership? With the theme ‘perceptions and experiences of leadership’ I therefore hoped to understand whether learners are able to conceptualise ‘leadership’ and describe a leader. I was interested to understand the type of attributes and/or skills the learners would associate with a leader, in order to determine how learners experience ‘leadership’ as a concept and leaders within their school environment.

It was also important to establish whether participating learners and teachers believed that everyone could be a leader or that only certain people can be leaders. If it is believed that not everyone could be a leader, then such beliefs or perspectives will negatively affect leadership skills development and democratic participation within the school environment as the focus will only be on certain learners and only certain learners will be provided the opportunity to partake in activities that rely on leadership skills.

4.5.1 Learners: Understandings of ‘leadership’

Learner participants were asked what the word ‘leadership’ meant to them, and the learners responded with a variety of answers. All five learners from school A described ‘leadership’ as referring to “leading” or “guiding” people and “setting an example” to people. Learners from school B were uncertain about describing the word ‘leadership’ and only two learners from school B then answered the question by stating the following:

Miskien menswaardigheid te hê. Want 'n mens moet iets doen waarna ander kan opkyk. Mens moet onder druk situasies goed kan hanteer en … aan almal se belange … miskien nou daarna werk om hulle eerste te stel, om die groep of wat ook al jy lei, in die beste rigting te lei (B1).

(Maybe to have human dignity. Because one has to do something to which others can look up to. You have to be able to handle pressure well and… to everyone’s interests… maybe work to set put them first, to lead the group or what you are leading, in the best direction (B1).

En leierskap is nie sommige tye maklik nie … en sy moet deursettingsvermoë hê en integriteit en alles gaan daarmee gepaard (B2).

And leadership is always easy… and she has to have determination and integrity and everything that goes with that (B2).
Learners from School C shared different perceptions of ‘leadership’. They all agreed that leadership should be “constructive” and always “build up” or be implemented towards the betterment of an organisation or objective. They added that it is not just about yourself, but also about “taking into consideration everyone else” and “inspiring other people towards a vision”. Learner C2 added another perspective:

[J]ust because you have a leadership title, does not make you a leader. So, it’s about what you do without that title. It’s how you interact with people, how you lead. So I think being a leader teaches you you have to have empathy to be a leader and to be able to have courage trusting your abilities as a leader.

Learner C4 agreed with what the other learners from School C had to say and added the following:

[Y]ou don’t have to be a leader of like a group of people, you can be a leader of your own management and time and stuff.

4.5.2 Learners: Describing a leader

Secondly, the learner participants were asked how they would describe a leader or the characteristics of a leader. Most learners described a leader as someone with responsibility, who is able to make decisions and who can take charge and lead by example. They also added that a leader is someone who puts other people first by taking their interests into consideration and being able to motivate and inspire other people. More ways that learners suggested to describe a leader included “a role model”, “flexible”, “caring”, “patient”, “adaptable”, “confident”, “integrity”, “problem solver” and “able to create change”.

4.5.3 Potential for Leadership

Teacher and learner participants were asked whether they thought that anyone could be a leader. I firstly elaborate on the teachers’ answers.

→ Teachers’ perspectives

Teacher TA answered, “No”, teacher TB answered that everyone can be a leader but not everyone can be a good leader, while teacher TC answered, “Yes”. Their reasons are shown below:

TA: [S]ome of learners, they have behavioural problems.
TB: Ek wil graag goed glo van baie kinders, maar ek dink seker maar elkeen kan 'n leier wees, maar om 'n goeie leier te wees het jy sekere persoonlikheidstipe het jy nodig … maar as dit nou kom by groepe mense wat jy moet lei, glo ek is daar sekere mense vir sulkes.

(I would like to believe the best of many children, but I guess everybody can be a leader. But to be a good leader, requires a certain personality type that you need, but when it comes to groups of people that you need to lead, then I believe there are only certain people for those.)

TC: I think not everyone wants to be a leader, but I think they have the potential to be in different aspects because I think a lot of the time people expect leaders to be confident or maybe outspoken is a better word, but I’ve seen leaders who are often quiet. You know and sometimes it’s just leading through your actions you know and setting a good example. So ja, I think any student can, and I think it's just up to them to have, to feel free enough to do that.

→ Learners’ perspectives:

Six of the learners interviewed did not think that anyone could be a leader, while nine of the learners believed that everyone could be a leader.

Learner A3 stated the following reason for answering in the negative:

[You have different kinds of people, each of them might hate the idea of having to stand in front of people and leading.

Learner B1 said, “No”, and explained that not everyone has the desire to be a leader, while B3 and B4 stated that not everyone has the qualities or characteristics of a leader. Learners A1 and A2 both answered, “Yes”, and had a similar explanation for their answer. They both felt that anyone could be a leader as there is something in everyone of us. Learners B2 and B5 explained that anyone could be a leader if they put their mind to it. Most learners from school C agreed that anyone could be a leader, but learners C1 and C2 had different perspectives on the question asked.

Learner C1 indicated that all people are born equal and becoming a leader is then determined by the influences of the people surrounding you, whether they are in leadership positions, which will ultimately affect your ability to be a leader. He concluded with the following:
I don’t think anyone can be a leader unless you are actually taught or decide to teach yourself you can be a leader. It’s … that determination, that discipline in yourself to know within you that okay I can be a leader, then once you have said that, then I guess, then only, then can everyone be a leader.

Learner C2 emphasised the following statement:

I believe that everybody can have leadership skills, however, not everybody can be a leader … you get an overall leader who can be like okay I can manage that and manage that and I can lead here, so you get somebody who can do it all, but you do get those people who aren’t as strong and can only manage in certain situations.

Learner C3 added that everyone has leadership skills or abilities, but some exercise their skills more efficiently than others. She also said that there is no requirement list for being a leader. Learner C4 agreed and added that one can make yourself a leader depending on how you perceive yourself, while learner C5 added that everyone can be a leader whether constructive or destructive; you can lead in any direction.

In summarising section 4.4, while describing leadership, learner participants responded with a variety of answers. Learners from school A mentioned that leadership refers to “leading” or “guiding” people and “setting an example” to them. Only two learners from school B mentioned what leadership meant to them. Learners from school C provided a more in-depth view of what leadership meant to them. They agreed that leadership should be “constructive” and towards the betterment of an organisation.

Most learner participants described a leader as someone with responsibility, who is able to make decisions and who can take charge and lead by example. They also added that a leader is someone who puts other people first by taking their interests into consideration and being able to motivate and inspire other people.

Teacher TA did not think that anyone could be a leader as some learners present behavioural problems. Teacher TB stated that in order to be a good leader, a certain personality type is required. She also felt that very few people are able to lead groups of people. Teacher TC felt that everyone has the potential to be a leader, in different aspects, and she mentioned that she has perceived leaders who are often quiet. Six learners did not think that anyone could be a leader, as they felt that certain qualities or characteristics are required in order to be a leader. Nine learners stated that anyone
can be a leader and they explained that it is possible if you put your mind to it, depending on how you perceive yourself, and being a leader could be constructive or destructive as you can lead in any direction.

4.6 Leadership development within the school environment

In Chapter 2 (section 2.7), I stated that all members of the youth will be expected to act as responsible citizens in a democratic society, which require leadership skills. Not only will leadership skills development or opportunities support the youth in their ability to participate in democratic decision-making, but it will also assist them in managing their own personal challenges, which they might come across on a daily basis.

I therefore argued that the CAPS should include the teaching of the necessary skills and exposure of learners to leadership opportunities, as this is vital for active participation in a democratic society and responsible citizenship, which is one of the aims of the CAPS, as stated by the DBE (2011a). In this theme on leadership development within the school environment, I therefore hoped to understand whether leadership development is regarded as important within the schools I interviewed, whether there are programmes or practices within the schools that promote leadership development, and whether the CAPS makes provision for leadership development within the curriculum.

4.6.1 Teachers: The importance of leadership development in the school

Teacher participants were asked whether leadership development is an important part of the school where they teach. TA answered that it was important but did not explain her answer. TB explained that in her school, many learners do not get the chance to show their leadership potential; they only get the opportunity if they are monitors or if they are a captain of a sports team. TC said that leadership development is very important in the school where she teaches. She had the following to say:

[O]ur principal has really been doing quite a big drive over the last few years … They’ve [students] got so many opportunities to shine and they’re actually taking those opportunities … They’re excited. So there are public speaking competitions … they are just encouraged to do sport or drama … you are sort of encouraged to be an all-rounder, to take part in anything. The focus isn’t just academics.
4.6.2 Teachers: Programmes or practices that promote leadership development

The teachers were also questioned about the programmes or practices in place that promoted leadership development in their respective schools. Teacher TA stated that there were outside sponsors or programmes that visited the school annually and who picked learners to be a part of the programme. She did not mention what the programmes entailed, however, and said that only a few learners were involved. TA also did not make mention of an RCL or prefect system. Teacher TB mentioned that there were only two areas where learners could develop leadership skills. One was when they were chosen as monitors, or class representatives, or if they were chosen as captains of particular sports teams. She also said that they had no prefect system at the school.

[O]ns het nie prefekte by die skool ..., want met ons tipe kind kan jy nie ... Dit gaan 'n ramp afgee en ... maar dis eintlik 'n goeie ding. Dis hoekom ek sê ... soos met dit ook ... moet ferm wees, maar met respek en baie keer is ons kinders nie mature miskien genoeg vir dit nie.

(We don’t have prefects at school ... because with our type of child you can’t. It will be a disaster and ... but it is actually a good thing. That is why I say, like with this also, have to be firm, but with respect and a lot of times our children are not mature enough for this.)

Teacher TC stated that there were many opportunities for leadership development in the school where she was teaching, including the RCL, prefect system and a variety of societies where learners could become involved, such as interact club. She gave a detailed explanation of how the prefects and RCL members were chosen. She explained that in order to become a prefect, learners need to apply with a student reference and two teacher references, which are confidential. The candidates are then shortlisted, set on stage, after which everyone votes for their ideal candidates. She emphasised that the votes of the older learners of the school weighed more than those of the younger learners, as they would know their Grade 11 peers better than the juniors would. Furthermore, she explained that the RCL involves class representatives and that they are chosen in class by firstly nominating a few learners who want to serve as representatives of the classes, and secondly doing a blind vote, while the
nominees wait outside the class. TC explained that the RCL members are in charge of helping the teachers and setting example by doing the class register as well.

4.6.3 Teachers: Leadership development within the curriculum

Teachers were asked whether the CAPS makes provision for leadership development with reference to the classroom environment. Teacher TA only answered that it did, but she did not provide a reason for her answer.

Teacher TB firstly stated that she taught Life Sciences and LO and that she did not think Life Sciences allows for leadership development. She said that she tried to create the space herself by asking the learners to explain a concept in front of the class, but that it did not work well.

Teacher TB, however, explained that in LO, learners sometimes take part in group tasks or assessments, where one of the learners has to act as the leader of the group. She concluded by stating that in Grade 12, there is no provision for leadership development in the classroom environment.

Teacher TC had the following to say:

To be honest with you, I haven’t encountered it yet … I also teach English. With English, definitely not. There’s so much you have to get through. Maybe in Life Orientation, I think that’s what they are trying to encourage but I think it is sort of left to the school in terms of extra opportunities.

4.6.4 Learners: Opportunities for leadership development within the school environment

Learner participants were asked whether they had been exposed to any opportunities, practices or programmes for leadership development at their respective schools, and a variety of responses were recorded. All learners from school A stated that the RCL is a platform through which selected learners are exposed to workshops and events where they are taught how to lead and how to make decisions.

Learner A3 indicated that she was one of a group of learners chosen by a private organisation to take part in a leadership initiative, and she was given the task of being the leader of the group and reporting back. Learner A5 said that there were opportunities for leadership development at school but at the time of this study, she
had not yet been a part of it. They also added that there was no prefect system implemented at the school.

All five learners from school B stated that there were not many opportunities for leadership development at their school. Learner B1 said that there was an RCL, but that the RCL was not fully functioning and only performed administrative duties. Learner B2 agreed and clarified that the RCL system only consisted of class monitors, of which there was one in each class, from Grade 8 to Grade 12. This system, B2 indicated, does not allow learners to develop leadership characteristics or abilities. Learner B4 added that it was only at sport, such as rugby or soccer, where learners could be chosen as captains, but other than that, there were no opportunities.

Learners from school C all agreed that there were many opportunities for leadership development in their school. Learner C1 said that the most contact between learners happened on the sports field, while learner C3 added that, culturally, there were a multitude of clubs and societies where learners are provided with opportunities to be leaders. Learner C4 and C5 clarified that the school had many leadership positions in the form of prefects or class representatives; however, there were not many outside programmes that introduced leadership initiatives at the school.

In summary, Teachers TA and TC indicated that leadership development was an important part of the schools where they were teaching. Teacher TB, however, said that many learners in her school did not get the chance to prove themselves as leaders. School A had a few programmes or practices in place that promoted leadership development, such as an RCL system and leadership initiatives introduced by outside sponsors or private organisations. However, only a few learners were part of the RCL and sometimes the same learners were chosen year after year. There were also only a number of learners involved in the leadership initiatives introduced by private organisations. There was no prefect system implemented at school A.

School B had very few programmes or practices in place that promoted leadership. This was due to the school being situated in a dangerous area, where gang violence often occurs. The principal therefore decided not to implement a prefect system as he was afraid some learners might be bullied or targeted for being in a leadership position. There was an RCL system in place; however, it was not a functional RCL as RCL members comprised class monitors only. A class monitor is not a leadership position,
and class monitors are only responsible for the class register and carrying the class timetable. Teacher TB indicated that learners could be exposed to leadership roles if they were chosen as captains of a sports or cultural team.

School C had many programmes and practices in place that promoted leadership development. There was a functional RCL system and a functional prefect system in place. There were also many societies or clubs, as well as sports activities where learners could fulfil leadership roles.

4.7 Learners: Perspectives on the representative council of learners and prefect system

In Chapter 2 (section 2.12), I stated the importance of a practice called ‘student voice’, in which the youth is presented with different opportunities at school level, to partake in school decisions that would influence their lives and the lives of their peers (Fielding, 2001a; Goodwillie, 1993; Levin, 2000). Mitra (2003) argues that when students, teachers and administrators work together, through ‘student voice’, then this process can enable young people to take responsibility for their own developmental needs.

Furthermore, I explained that, in the SA context, ‘student voice’ is taken into account in the establishment of RCLs. It is important to note that the SA Schools Act (No. 84 of 1996) (RSA, 1996e) stipulates that all SA public schools with learners from Grades 8 to 12 are required to establish RCLs – a representative council of learners (RCL) “is the only recognised and legitimate representative learner body at the school” (RSA, 1996e:8).

The RCL is formed to represent the interests of the learners in every public school that has learners from Grade 8 and above. A member of RCL is better able to partake in society because of the knowledge and skills gained by the programme (RSA, 1996e).

Hence, it would be fair to assert that the SA Schools Act attempts to create the space and opportunity for the articulation of ‘student voice’.

‘Student voice’ could also take its rightful place in line with democratic citizenship education and youth leadership development in SA, a country in dire need of responsible, active citizens. I have already established three issues with regard to the implementation of leadership initiatives (RCL and prefect system) at the three schools that formed part of the research study, namely the different leadership initiatives at the
schools, the functioning of the RCL at the schools, and the functioning of the prefect system at the schools. I attempted to understand the perspectives and experiences of the teachers and learners regarding the leadership initiatives implemented at the schools and whether the leadership initiatives were fully functional.

Since I argued previously (see 2.7) that all citizens will exercise leadership roles one day, whether in the work place, in the family or in the community, or as part of the personal leadership of the person’s health, personal problems, relationships and life planning, practices where leadership is developed, should ideally not be exclusive to a select few. Citizenship development is for all learners, and I wanted to explore this issue pertaining to the respective schools. I hoped to understand whether the schools implemented RCLs, as stipulated in the SA Schools Act and whether learners were given the opportunities to ‘voice’ their opinions or cooperate with teachers and other school administrators in bringing about change within their respective schools.

4.7.1 Issue 1: Leadership initiatives at the respective schools

As indicated in the previous section (4.6), there were clear differences in leadership initiatives at the three schools involved in the research study. School A had an RCL, made up of 15 learners, three from each grade (8 to 12). The RCL, however, did not function effectively. School A also had no prefect system implemented at the school.

School B had an RCL, made up of two learners from each class, from Grade 8 to Grade 12. The participating learners and teachers from school B described the RCL members as class monitors, rather than as class representatives. They mentioned that the role of the class monitors was to assist the teachers in completing the class register daily. Class monitors also carried a timetable in case the learners of the class did not know to which class they have to go. They therefore had no leadership role, and were not functioning effectively. School B also did not have a prefect system, due to the school being situated in a dangerous area, and the principal and teachers feared that learners may be targeted if they discipline others.

School C has a fully functioning RCL, made up of 15 learners, three from each grade (8 to 12). School C also had a prefect system, consisting of prefects, deputy prefects, a head girl and a head boy.
4.7.2 Issue 2: Functioning of the representative council of learners

Learners were asked about their opinion of the functioning of the RCL at their school. Learners A1 and A2 mentioned that there were not many changes brought about by their RCL and that were promises had been made but none of the promised changes were accomplished. As learner A1 stated:

I know the RCL are working tirelessly, they are working so hard, but only a few things that students of the school we get to see … somewhere we want to see the returns. The end product … we want to see more of what they actually are doing there.

Learner A4 had an explanation for why the changes were not brought about:

The RCL, they change the RCL every year, so it depends on what kind of learners have been elected. I have been part of RCL for two years, the president need to follow on the learners not attending the meetings. They do have plans, but it’s only a matter of not working together into pursuing and making sure that those plans are fulfilled.

Learners A3 and A5 did not have anything to add to the question asked.

The learners from school B indicated that learners at their school might be reluctant to fulfil a leadership position at their school, as they are scared that they might be bullied afterwards. They are afraid of the consequences of speaking out. Learner B2 explained that their school was situated in a difficult area and therefore it would be difficult to implement such a system (RCL leadership), as it would have dire consequences. Learners B3 and B5 indicated that the position of class monitor did not represent a leadership role, as shown below:

B3: Monitor is net vir register neem. Soos elke dag, dan word die register geneem. Daardie is ook al wat ek sien die monitors doen. Hulle het ’n rooster, soos as jy klas vermis, dat jy nie weet waar om te gaan nie, hulle het ’n rooster.

(Monitor is for register only. As in every day, the register is done. That is all I see the monitors do. They have a roster, like if you miss a class, when you don’t know where to go, they have a roster.)

B5: Die monitor is eintlik net daar om die register te handel. Die monitor het nie eintlik ’n leierskapding nie, monitor is bang om name op te skryf want die kinders sal iets doen na skool.
(The monitor is actually only there to handle the register. The monitor has no leadership thing, the monitor is afraid to write names down, because the children will do something after school.)

Learners from School C firstly explained what the role of the RCL is in comparison to the role of the prefect system at their school, as all the learners interviewed were either an RCL member themselves or a prefect. They indicated that the RCL assists in community projects or other projects aimed at improving school life. C2 explained that the RCL consisted of three learners in each grade, and in Grade 12, two of the three members will also be a deputy or head of the RCL. These Grade 12 members had to attend SGB meetings and report back to the SGB and learner community about new changes or projects.

C2 stated that as a RCL member:

[Y]ou represent the learners beneath you … so you need to be a prime example and work towards and listen to what people below you say, need to see what is wrong, evaluate it and try to rectify it if possible.

The learners further added that, from time to time, the RCL could ask the prefects to take part in tasks in order to help the RCL with a project. Learner C5 added that the prefects, however, added to the aesthetics of the school, while the RCL worked towards the happiness of the students.

Learners C3 had concerns about the selection processes involved:

C3: [S]peaking from outside the RCL because I haven’t been part of it … like you walk into Grade 8 and in from primary school you don’t really know what a RCL is, so you walk into high school and they give you this form and you are like, what is a RCL? So, I think that needs to be stressed more, like that’s my opinion, because I would have in Grade 8, I would have felt that I was prepared to be on RCL, but I didn’t know what it was.

4.7.3 Issue 3: Functioning of the prefect system

School C was the only school involved in the research study which had a prefect system. Learners from school C said that the prefect system was responsible for handling learners who lack discipline and to assist with correcting uniform default or bad attitude. The prefects could then issue the learners with detention. Learner C1, however, said that he did not think that prefects should be solely responsible for
disciplining students. He rhetorically asked, “How are we supposed to discipline and inspire them at the same time?” He was concerned that Grade 11s might not want to apply to be prefects if they hear about the role only involving disciplining their peers.

Learner C5 added the following comment about the prefect selection process:

I feel that this school needs to change their process in selecting prefects. Because you know there are many people who are … who are maybe, who got into the position because they have abided by the school rules. They always have good marks and what not, but they actually don't have any leadership qualities. I think one big thing that needs to change … they should definitely … possibly do an interview or even at one point put them in a certain situation where leadership is required and see how they react to that.

Regarding the learners’ opinion of the RCL implemented at their school, learners from school A mentioned that they did not see any changes brought about by the RCL and that the RCL promised changes but that these never materialised. One of the learners who was on the RCL himself, mentioned that learners on the RCL do not always work together as a team and that some of them never attend meetings. Learners from school B indicated that the RCL at their school was not a leadership system, as the RCL members were class monitors who were only responsible for the class register daily, and carrying the class timetable.

Learners from school C mentioned that previously (three years before this research study) there was no RCL, as the teacher in charge resigned, and there was no one to take control of the RCL. They, however, emphasised that, at the time of this research, they had a functional RCL which was involved in community projects and other projects aimed at improving school life. RCL members have to make sure what is wrong within the school environment and should then try to find solutions towards the happiness of the learners. Learners from school C lastly indicated that in Grades 8 and 9, very few learners know what a RCL system is, and this needs to be emphasised more, as some learners might not apply due to a lack of awareness.

Learners from school C also explained that they had a functional prefect system, which is responsible for the discipline of the students, and that they could issue the learners with detention if they are wearing an incorrect uniform or if they present a bad attitude, for example. Learners from school C, however, expressed concern about the way in which prefects were selected at their school at the time of this research, as many
prefects were selected because they abided by the rules of the school or because of obtaining good marks, although they do not show any leadership qualities.

4.8 Skills taught in LO classes

In Chapter 2 (section 2.4), I stated that, according to the Bill of Responsibilities for the youth of SA, the ideal citizen of SA should obtain the skills required to act in a manner that would aid their own development and that of society. Citizens are expected to be responsible when making decisions about their lives.

The DBE has strengthened its focus on citizenship education within the FET CAPS for LO. According to the CAPS (DBE, 2012b:8) LO includes “opportunities to engage in the development and practice of a variety of life skills to solve problems, to make informed decisions and choices and to take appropriate actions to live meaningfully and successfully in a rapidly changing society. It not only focuses on knowledge, but also emphasises the importance of the application of skills and values in real-life situations, participation in physical activity, community organisations and initiatives”.

In this theme, regarding the skills taught in LO classes, I attempted to understand whether learners were taught about life skills, which could also be linked to the previously mentioned (see 2.11) personal leadership skills, such as personal health management, personal problem management, life planning and interpersonal relationship management, so that they will be able to make responsible decisions when managing their own lives.

4.8.1 Teachers: Opportunities provided by CAPS for learners to develop skills to apply in real-life situations

Teachers were asked whether CAPS provided learners opportunities for skills development that can be applied in real-life situations. Their responses are indicated below.

Teacher TA answered, “No”. Her explanation is shown below:

We have lazy learners. So, it’s difficult to know which learners that are good, because some of them … they are just in school, just to come to school. I think CAPS can do something, because the first thing, we don’t have time. We have to work according to the CAPS document.
Teacher TB answered, “Yes, definitely in LO”. She explained that everything covered in LO – starting with stress and how to handle stress, the consequences and causes of stress, relationships and communication – can prepare learners well for all aspects of life. She also added that if a learner is not equipped with the skills he or she was taught in LO, then it could be due to the circumstances they were exposed to outside of school that negate what he or she has learned in class.

Teacher TC answered, “Yes and no”. She said that it really depends on the teacher, and the interpretation, due to the textbooks being very “fluffy” or vague and open to the teacher’s interpretation. She also voiced her opinion about the time allocated to particular topics in the LO curriculum, which according to her, was sometimes “too much”. As stated by TC:

[W]e are dragging it out over a long time and it actually makes the students sort of resentful towards the topic because … you know … it’s repetitive. So, that’s a lot of complaints we had in terms of the education or the LO sort of curriculum, now that I think about it, is, ‘Ma’am, we learned about this last year, and the year before, and the year before, and the year before.

4.8.2 Learners: Opinions on the content taught in LO classes

Learner participants were asked about what they were taught in LO classes, in order to gain an in-depth understanding of how participating learners experienced LO as a subject. The responses from learners from schools A and B indicated a positive experience of LO. Learners A1 and A4 indicated that, at the time of this research, they were focusing on “development in society”, but that they covered a lot of topics and then had discussions about the topics in class. Learners then had to apply what they had learned in their daily lives.

Learners from school B firstly emphasised that LO was a very interesting subject, in which they were taught about everything. Learner B2 had the following to say:

Nee ons leer, LO is deel van die lewe. LO is die lewe. By LO is dit baie interessant vir my persoonlik, want by LO sal ek beskou, dit is my beste vak … jy word alles geleer daar. Jy word geleer oor hoe jy goeters moet hanteer. Op die ou end van die dag speel LO ook ’n belangrike rol in ons lewe.

(No, we learn, LO is part of life. LO is life. LO, it is very interesting for me personally, because at LO, I will consider it as my best subject … you are taught about everything
there. You are taught how to handle things. At the end of the day, LO plays an important role in our lives.)

Learners B1 and B4 added that their experience of LO was mostly influenced by their teacher who always said that she would take LO to her grave. The learners also mentioned that their teacher allowed one learner to say a few words of motivation at the beginning of each lesson and that they are really inspired by this. They might sometimes forget the content of the lesson, but the motivation will stay with them and help them remember what they had learned on a particular day.

Learners from school C expressed a negative attitude towards LO. Learner C3 indicated that learners were not really actively involved in LO at the time. Learners C1, C2, and C5 stated that they did not agree with the way in which the LO curriculum is set out. They felt that the content covered was mostly not applicable to their lives.

Learners C2 and C5 added that some topics covered, such as “teenage pregnancy” and “different argumentative styles” aided in their decision-making or grabbed their attention. However, C5 added the following:

[S]ome of the things in the curriculum don’t do justice to us. So, I think the stress management thing should rather go to Grade 7 … we are getting to the Grade 10, 11, 12 curriculum we should be doing things … like learning how to pay taxes … budgeting.

Learner C1 and C2 added to what C5 had to say:

C1: I take Consumer Studies and I feel that it has more relevance than LO. Because we learn budgeting, we learn taxes, we learn home interior, how to buy houses, everything.

C2: It’s based on people who know nothing, it’s not based on people who know these life lessons, but now how can we enhance them … Don’t show me case studies where I have to analyse other people’s lives, how am I going to base it on myself? More solutions, more practical things, like changing car tyres; tell me how to buy a house, tell me how to apply to university, because I am lost.

C5 added a solution to the issues learners face:

[T]hey should base the curriculum on the problems and issues that school is facing or even that community where that school is. So, say for instance in a poor community, in a poorer community, poverty and maybe STIs [sexually transmitted infections] are
an issue, whereas in our community it may not be as big of an issue … by improving all the communities, we add to the betterment of the country.

The following questions that the learners were asked during the focus group interviews, were focused on specific personal skills, namely problem management, health management, life planning and interpersonal relationship skills, and whether these skills were taught or learned in LO classes.

4.8.2.1 Skill 1: Personal health management

Learners were asked whether health management skills were taught and learned in LO classes, for example how to ensure that you maintain a healthy lifestyle.

Learners from schools A and B indicated that they were taught about healthy lifestyles, especially about the importance of exercising, resting and eating a healthy, balanced diet. Learners from school A also mentioned that if they were taught about eating disorders, such as anorexia and obesity.

Learners from school B stated that during the previous year, the LO class focused mainly on health management. Learner B1 added that the emphasis was on living a healthy lifestyle in order to be able to study well and perform well academically. They also mentioned that there was a practical lesson in which they did exercises, and learner B3 said that she personally implemented healthy living into her own life and started exercising regularly. Learner B1 added that they were also taught about diseases that could occur when a healthy diet is not followed.

Learners from school C mentioned that health management was a difficult topic to convey to all learners as the same situation cannot apply to every person. Learners C1 and C3 mentioned that LO did not take into account that different people have different health requirements and they agreed that Consumer Studies was very similar to LO in this regard, but Consumer Studies taught them more about healthy living than LO did.

4.8.2.2 Skill 2: Personal problem management

Learners were asked whether personal problem management skills were taught and learned in LO classes, for example skills to help them deal with important life decisions.
Learners from school A and B indicated that they were taught problem-solving skills. Learners from school A stated that they were provided with different scenarios and then had a debate about the scenarios or problems. They felt that they could relate to one another’s answers and gain valuable tips on how to deal with the situation.

Similar to learners from school A, learners from school B also stated that there were steps dealing with problem solving in their textbook that they could follow. They added that they were taught about emotional and social stress factors. They were also given examples in LO class on how to handle a situation when, for example, one is being physically abused, and then steps are given on how to handle the situation. Learner B1 mentioned that she thought there were many learners who were going through difficult situations, and they could therefore relate to the examples or gain tips from the discussions.

Learners from school C, other than school A and B, did not feel that the content they were taught about problem-solving skills was relevant to their lives. They added that the content was taught in such a broad way, that they were not really given solutions that were applicable to their lives, especially when it came to the emotional factors necessary to solve problems. Learner C3 had a concern about how the content is set out in the LO textbook. She stated:

> [W]hen you are in that situation, you aren’t thinking about the couple of bullet points you know that’s in your LO textbook … they are not actually teaching you how to apply it … I think you learn more, like problem-solving skills, in your actual life than what you do in LO.

Learner C1 made the following statement:

> LO’s curriculum has actually never, I find, it has never contributed to my development as a leader, as a student or what not. I have learned by the time that the textbook had told me to list my goals, I have already learned that.

### 4.8.2.3 Skill 3: Life planning – skills that help one plan your life

Learners were asked whether life planning skills were taught or learned in LO classes, for example skills that help one plan your life, such as goal-setting skills.

Learners from school A indicated that they started learning about goal setting in Grade 10, where they were taught about the importance of career choices and the setting of short-term goals in order to reach their long-term goals. Learner A3 added that they
also had annual career exhibitions at their school, where learners were taught how to plan their lives around their careers.

Learners from school B firstly stated that life planning was their starting point in class, where they needed to describe their vision for the future and how to attain it. Learners B1 and B3 also said that they were given tasks and/or projects on planning for life after school, and that they were taught about getting a degree, then entering a relationship and then marriage as priorities in life. Work shadowing has also helped them make decisions about their future.

Learners from school C had different experiences of life planning as part of LO. Learner C5 had the following to say:

Kind of a loose topic … you must plan your life, you must go to university and then get out and you get married and what not, but I think … there is a lot of fault in putting that in the curriculum … Life has a lot of changes … a lot of obstacles. I find that you can’t really plan your life.

The learners therefore felt that LO only provides guidelines on how to plan your life, but it does not provide any options or advice on what learners can do if things do not go according to plan. They feel that they need to be taught how to adapt to changing situations, future careers and the acceptance of failure as it is important to have a ‘plan B’. They mainly emphasised the issue around future careers, as they were all concerned about applying for university and worried about choosing the right career.

4.8.2.4 Skill 4: Interpersonal relationship – skills to help you develop and maintain relationships

Learners were asked whether interpersonal relationship skills were taught or learned in LO classes, for example skills to help one develop and maintain relationships with other people such as friends or family.

Learners from school A, B and C felt that they could gain much from the topics relating to interpersonal skills and relationship management. Learners from school A1 stated conflict resolution as an important part of maintaining a healthy relationship. They mentioned that they debated about interpersonal skills or relationship management in class and then it is easier for them to share tips amongst one another. They also added the importance of being taught about interpersonal skills, as we live in a diverse country with different kinds of people.
Learner B1 indicated that they had learned about characteristics of listening to other in order to communicate well, and that this will be useful skills when entering a career. Learner B3 said that she, especially, had learned a lot about communication with others, which was important as she described herself as an introvert.

Learners from school C all agreed that this was one of the most covered topics in LO and also a very beneficial topic, as one will always encounter other people and will have to use these skills throughout your life. They felt that ‘conflict resolution’ and ‘dealing with different personality types’ are all valuable skills. Learner C3 indicated that it also helped her in her leadership role. Learner C5 added that this topic gives the LO teacher a chance to share his or her experiences with the learners, and that it is important to learn from one another's experiences. Learner C1, however, felt that it was too late to learn, for example conflict resolution skills, as they should already have been taught about it in primary school in preparation for high school.

In summarising section 4.7, it is firstly important to note the learners’ overall attitude towards or perspective of LO and the content taught as part of the LO curriculum. Learners from schools A and B indicated that life skills relating to personal health management, personal problem management, life planning and interpersonal skills or relationship management are taught in LO and have made a positive contribution towards their lives. Learners from school C mainly felt that the skills they were taught had not contributed to their lives or to their development.

Learners from schools A and B indicated that they could apply these four skills taught in LO to their own lives as these were relevant skills. They referred to the steps or guidelines in the textbook, which helped to guide them and that they could relate to the scenarios or examples provided in class, as they might have gone through a similar situation. Learners from school B confirmed that some of them were going through difficult situations.

Learners from school C mainly felt that content relating to health management, problem management and life planning taught in LO were not applicable to their lives. They could not relate to the scenarios or examples provided as they did not present challenges faced by the learners of school C. They wanted to learn about how to do tax, how to buy a house or how to change a car tyre, for example and felt that they were not presented with real-life skills in LO.
Learners from school C firstly stated that LO does not take into account that there are different people with different health requirements, and that they have learned more about health management in Consumer Studies than in LO. With regard to personal problem management, the learners did not feel that the content they were being taught was relevant to their lives. They added that the content was taught in such a broad way, that they were not really given solutions that were applicable to their lives.

Thirdly, relating to life planning, learners from school C mentioned that LO only provides guidelines on how to plan your life, but it does not provide any options or advice on what learners can do if things do not go according to plan or if failure occurs along the way. They wanted to learn more about future careers, or the detailed steps in applying for university and other options if they are not accepted by the university.

Lastly, learners from school C mentioned that interpersonal skills or relationship management were the only beneficial skills, which are covered sufficiently in LO and which they could use throughout their lives.

4.9 Summary

This chapter focused on explaining the research context and presenting the research data, which emerged from individual semi-structured interviews with three LO teachers and focus group interviews with five Grade 12 learners from each of the three schools involved in the research study.

Firstly, the views of teachers on shared challenges experienced by learners in the school context indicated that the respective schools each experienced their own set of challenges, largely due to existing and historic inequality in SA. School A experienced socio-economic challenges in the form of poverty and a lack of access to basic necessities, school B experienced drug abuse and gangsterism, whereas school C listed bullying. These findings are in line with my discussion about the state of the youth of SA (Chapter 2, section 2.1), and my statement about the youth being in dire need of skills development in order to handle challenges on a daily basis and to act responsibly as democratic citizens.

With regard to learners’ preparedness for life after school, stark differences were noted amongst the answers given teacher and those given by learners. Teacher TA answered in the affirmative, although the majority of the learners from school A indicated uncertainty about the future as a main reason for their unpreparedness for
the future. Teacher TB mentioned that learners who were hardworking and ambitious, will be prepared for life after school, while most learner participants from school B did not feel emotionally and physically prepared for the future responsibilities. Teacher TC felt learners were prepared to a certain extent, while learners from school C felt that leadership skills, taught at school, prepare them adequately.

Teacher and learner participants had different perspectives on which skills or qualities were required by learners in preparation for life after school. Learners highlighted skills required as time management, self-discipline, responsibility, respect and diversity, stress management, adaptability and empathy. All learners from school B felt that they were being spoon-fed and listed independence, creativity and ‘being ethical’ as desirable skills.

Learners mostly had a good understanding of the concept of a democratic citizen, but it was noted that, at schools A and B, learners were not exposed to programmes or practices where the application of democratic citizenship was required and therefore did not know how to apply it. At school C, there were some programmes in place where learners were able to participate in democratic decision-making shaping democratic participation. Some of the teachers were of the opinion that democratic citizenship was not achievable in the classroom as the implementation of the curriculum is time-consuming and learners are not always interested in the content relating to democratic citizenship education.

With regard to leadership development, it was noted that learners had a good understanding of what leadership means and could describe a leader, except for two of the three teachers and six learners contesting that anyone could be a leader. These participants demonstrated preconceived ideas of leadership as only associated with certain personality types, qualities or skills, such as being able to speak in front of people or being able to lead a group of people. Leadership development is not fostered at schools A and B, while leadership development forms an integral part of school C’s programmes and practices.

Learners at both schools A and B mentioned only an RCL system, involving very few learners. School C had a variety of programmes and practices in place exposing learners to leadership roles.
The RCL provides an opportunity for learners to voice their opinions on the policies and practices of the school and the well-being of the learners towards the betterment of the school community. It was noted that the RCL system in school A involved only a few learners. School B did not have a functional RCL as the RCL members were not in leadership positions, but only assisted teachers with administrative duties. School C had a functional RCL, achieving its goals over the three years preceding the study only. Furthermore, schools A and B had no prefect systems in place, whereas school C had a functional prefect system but learners reasoned that the role of the prefect system should not be limited to discipline, and the selection criteria should be changed.

Lastly, it was noted that even though learner participants valued most of the content taught as part of the LO syllabus, the manner in which the content is conveyed and the resources or activities utilised play a main role in how the content is perceived by learners. Life orientation cannot only be classroom-oriented as learners need to acquire the ability to apply the content to real-life situations or practices.

The next chapter will focus on analysis and discussion of the data presented in this chapter.
CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter offers an analysis of the findings, as presented in Chapter 4. The analysis of findings in this research was guided by the central research question of this study: Does the CAPS equip learners with the skills necessary for responsible leadership?

In order to answer the main research question, the following sub-research questions were formulated:

- How do teachers and learners interpret the principles of the CAPS?
- How do teachers and learners understand and relate to conceptions of democratic citizenship?
- Do the schools have programmes or practices in place that might promote democratic citizenship?
- How do teachers and learners understand and relate to conceptions of leadership?
- How do the schools incorporate leadership development within the school environment?
- Are learners equipped with life skills in Life Orientation?

The following categories emerged during the study and formed the basis of the analysis:

- shared challenges experienced by learners;
- views of the skills and qualities required by learners for democratic citizenship;
- perceptions and experiences of democratic citizenship;
- perceptions and experiences of leadership;
- leadership initiatives within the school environment; and
- views of life skills taught in Life Orientation.

By employing a qualitative, interpretive research lens, and by taking into account the literature review as well as the conceptual framework as constituted through the seminal ideas of Enslin (2003), Gutmann and Thompson (1996; 2004), Biesta and Lawy (2006) and Mitra (2003; 2005; 2009), the section below offers an analysis of the main research findings.
5.2 Shared challenges experienced by learners

In Chapter 2 (section 2.2), I discussed the state of the youth in SA by drawing on statistics and emphasised the wide array of challenges experienced by the youth in SA. I argued that the unequal society in SA gives rise to very different experiences among the youth, which are largely due to existing and historic inequality in SA.

The three high schools that formed part of the research study were selected largely due to their geographical diversity and the fact that all three high schools formed part of the Metropole North Education District.

Through the research conducted, it emerged that the learners attending the three high schools in the research sample, experienced different challenges depending on the area where the schools are situated. The learners attending these schools were presented with different challenges in the community in which they lived, which were clearly due to historic and existing inequalities in SA. Learners from schools A and B both experienced social challenges, but to a different extent, and many learners have to overcome extremely challenging circumstances on a daily basis. Learners attending school A often go to school on an empty stomach as many families in the community live in extreme poverty and do not have access to basic necessities. Many learners do not receive parental support and some learners are the heads of their households and are tasked with caring for their siblings due to absent parental figures. Learners attending school A are often victims of crime-related activities, such as gang violence and taxi violence.

Teacher TB mentioned that learners from school B are often pressurised into gang-related activities, such as gang violence and drug abuse. Due to the aforementioned challenges experienced within the community, the principal of school B made the decision that leadership roles will not be held by learners of his school as they would be at risk of being bullied or targeted outside of the school environment and their safety might be compromised.

It was noted that residents of the community, in which school C is situated, live in isolation from the greater community and therefore residents are not always aware of the greater influence of challenges in society. The challenges experienced by learners attending school C, are mainly personal or individual challenges, such as peer pressure, bullying or self-esteem challenges, as described by the teacher interviewed.
It is therefore clear the socio-economic conditions and factors, stemming from the existing and historic inequality in SA, lead to very disparate experiences amongst the youth and play a huge, but often unexplored role in influencing learner well-being, and the way they conceive of themselves. Learners attending schools A and B experience life very differently from learners attending school C. The functioning of schools A and B is often compromised by the many challenges experienced within the areas in which these schools are situated, while school C is rarely affected by contextual constraints.

The findings are in line with my discussion on the state of the youth in SA in Chapter 2 (section 2.2). Socio-economic conditions and factors continue to influence the lives of many young people in SA. Despite the disparate experiences amongst learners, as seen through the research conducted, the education system, through the CAPS, sets out to equip all learners, irrespective of geographical distribution, race, socio-economic circumstances or background, with the skills they need for responsible democratic citizenship and active participation in society (DBE, 2011a:4).

5.3 Views of the skills and qualities required by learners for democratic citizenship

In Chapter 2 (section 2.5), I argued that SA has an urgent need for educational transformation towards inclusive responsible citizenship in our democracy with the CAPS as a potential instrument of this change. The CAPS, a policy document that serves as the guideline to teaching and learning in SA, clearly outlines its aims and objectives and stipulates the skills that all learners should acquire through its implementation.

According to the CAPS, learners should be able –

[T]o identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking; work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team; organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively; collect analyse, organise and critically evaluate information; communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others (DBE, 2011a:5).

These are essential skills that learners should acquire in preparation for their roles as active, responsible and meaningful participants in society as citizens of SA's democracy.
The 2012 *EFA Global Monitoring Report, Youth and skills – putting education to work* (UNESCO, 2012) emphasises that, besides literacy and numeracy skills, skills such as problem solving and leadership skills are needed in order for education to be relevant and to be able to provide young people with the required skills to become responsible global citizens. Thinking critically, problem solving, collaboration and communication are seen as transferable skills, core competencies that learners require for employment in a sustainable society and economy.

Schools have a tremendous responsibility in implementing the CAPS in such a way that they reach the aims as set out by the DBE (2011a). It is therefore assumed that teachers have a thorough understanding of the skills and qualities required by learners for responsible leadership in preparing them for life after school. From the research conducted with teachers, it emerged that the teachers all had different views on the type of skills required by learners as they enter life after school.

Based upon the needs of the specific communities in which the schools were situated, learners had to require competencies or skills to address the needs. For the purpose of this research study, the answers of the teachers with regard to the skills required for responsible citizenship were based on what they believed to be the skills required for the learners to survive in the specific environment where the school was situated. During the research, the teacher and learner participants listed skills required for responsible citizenship that can be grouped into three categories. It also includes qualities and or values and competencies.

1. The first category can be listed as work-related skills, which include computer skills, reasoning skills, dealing with information, work ethic, ambition and professionalism.

2. The second category can be listed as personal skills, which include self-discipline, time management, stress management, adaptability, responsibility, creativity and ethical skills.

3. The third category can be listed as interpersonal or relationship skills, which include communication, respect and empathy.

The different skills mentioned by the teacher and learner participants of the research study led to the realisation that the context of a school in SA often determines or influences which specific skills or competencies are important for the community in
which the teachers and learners live or for the school community to which they belong. For example, Teachers TA and TB mentioned mainly work-related skills, while teacher TC listed creativity and the ability to develop arguments or opinions as skills learners would need as they enter life after school. The skills listed by teacher TC are in line with the skills mentioned in the CAPS document (DBE, 2011a). Learner participants indicated different requests with regard to the skills they thought high school learners need to be taught in preparation for life after school.

Learners from school A suggested that diversity should be taught as a topic or skill (see 4.3.4) as they felt that in their community, they were only being exposed to people of the same ethnicity or culture and therefore they felt a need to learn about other cultures, and connecting with people of other ethnicities. Learners from school B mentioned that they did not get enough opportunities to express creativity or think independently (see 4.3.4), and that they were often ‘spoon-fed’ at school (see 4.3.4). They emphasised the importance of learning how to be independent in order to deal with one’s responsibilities, especially in preparation for life after school. Learners from school C mainly listed personal skills, as well as some interpersonal skills.

From the aforementioned findings, it can be deduced that differentiated understandings existed of what citizens require in order to cope in particular environments, which brings into question generic ideas of democratic citizenship education. The promotion of democratic citizenship education in SA involves a certain set of skills, as listed in the CAPS document that citizens require in order to be classified as democratic citizens of the country, and a certain set of values, as set out within the Constitution, that citizens need to uphold. However, the research participants involved in this study had their own opinions about the type of skills they deemed important, and their answers were based on the needs within their community. This indicated a tension between diversity, i.e. the needs of the participants, and the education of democratic ideals and needs of SA.

Kymlicka (2004) and Banks (2004) express their concerns regarding citizenship education in multicultural nation states, such as SA, and it is therefore important to refer to their arguments in this regard. Kymlicka (2004:xiv) emphasises that the ideal form of education has to consist of two dimensions, which he refers to as a “recognition of diversity” dimension that appreciates the contribution of each group’s identity, and a “social equality” dimension that centres on equal opportunities by recognising and
resolving historic injustices. The liberal assimilationist notions of democratic citizenship education are often challenged by the need for diversity, and it is therefore important that there be a balance between unity and diversity (Banks, 2004).

The research also revealed that the majority of participating learners from schools A and B did not feel prepared for life after school mainly due to fears regarding their uncertainty about the future and their emotional and physical preparedness for the responsibilities that lie ahead. The learner participants who answered that they felt prepared for life after school were mainly learners from school C, who explained that they felt ready for the responsibilities that lie ahead due to the leadership roles to which they were exposed throughout high school and the skills they had acquired. The answers of the participating learners were based on their experiences within their school environment. Whether they felt prepared for life after school was based upon their experiences at school and within their community, i.e. the type of skills they were taught at school and the responsibilities entrusted upon them. This indicates that socio-economic contexts influence varying conceptions of the self, hence what it means to be a citizen.

The above finding raises questions in relation to what Biesta and Lawy (2006) found. Biesta and Lawy (2006) claim that every person is a citizen and that all citizens participate in public activities in society and therefore need to acquire the skills necessary for being active, responsible citizens in society. It is evident that the deep-rooted inequalities and differentiated socio-economic standings prevent many learners from realising their true identity as democratic citizens of the country and withhold them from democratic participation in broader society. It is important to question whether the CAPS take into account the deep-rooted variances and disparate experiences amongst young people in SA, as this will determine the inclusivity of responsible, democratic citizenship education.

In essence, seeing that there are different needs for different learners in each community or school environment in SA, these needs have to be recognised and the skills required for responsible, democratic citizenship in broader society should be tailored to address the needs for coping with the challenges presented to individual communities and different contexts. This does not necessarily translate into the CAPS skills not being appropriate, but just more pronounced, localised and contextualised.
5.4 Perceptions and experiences of democratic citizenship

In Chapter 2 (section 2.4), I emphasised the responsibility of the DBE in preparing learners for active citizenship in the SA democracy. I argued that a democratic society is in need of democratic citizens, and it is therefore important that education in SA be aimed at producing citizens who are active participants in a democratic society, and who are able to make decisions based on democratic values and principles. Learners should therefore be introduced to democratic values and principles, and be taught how to participate in a democratic society.

According to Giroux (1995:6), “public schools must assist in the unending work of preparing citizens for self-governance in an evolving social environment”. The only way in which learners are able to learn democratic values, principles and the skills necessary for democratic participation, is for them to be exposed to programmes or practices that promote democratic citizenship or democratic participation in schools. Enslin (2003) emphasises that citizenship in post-apartheid SA is underpinned by the anti-apartheid struggle and the new constitution, and therefore democratic citizenship is required to promote active, inclusive participation in the SA society.

Responsible citizenship is described as one of the critical outcomes of teaching and learning (DoE, 2001:2). In SA’s Bill of Rights, the core components of ‘good’ SA citizenship are underpinned by constitutional values, which encompass respect, diversity, selflessness, tolerance and equality. Citizens of the country are expected to adopt behaviours that would promote human rights and anti-racism in order to enhance social equality, as stipulated in the Constitution (DoE, 1996b).

It is important to note the emphasis on democratic citizenship education within the CAPS. The DBE infused citizenship within a compulsory subject, LO, which covers six topics in the senior phase, Grades 10 to 12, and includes democracy and human rights as a topic. LO aims to “guide and prepare learners to respond appropriately to life’s responsibility and opportunities and to expose learners to their Constitutional rights and responsibilities, to the rights of others and to issues of diversity”, amongst others (DBE, 2011b:8). The CAPS not only stipulates that LO comprises knowledge acquisition but also emphasises the importance of application of skills and values in real-life situations, participation in physical activity, community organisations and initiatives, therefore a practical approach is encouraged.
The present research revealed that the majority of the learners interviewed portrayed a theoretical knowledge of the concept of a citizen and could provide a basic definition of citizenship. The majority of learners accepted that a citizen will have to become part of a specific community in his or her country of birth. Learners also acknowledged the importance of an active agency role by a law-abiding citizen within the community, namely someone who is responsible and who has leadership skills and competencies with which to take the other’s interests into consideration and participate in the context of the relevant community. However, belonging to a specific ‘cultural’ community should not be limited or remain community-specific, but should be complemented in a balanced way with socialisation in broader society as a whole.

In Chapter 2 (section 2.2), I reasoned that many young people in SA experience or are at risk of ‘social exclusion’, where individuals or groups are entirely or partly excluded from full participation in the society within which they reside. Social exclusion in SA is mainly due to existing and historic inequality, which deny certain groups of people the resources or recognition that would allow them to participate fully in society. The promotion of democratic citizenship education should be inclusive and sensitive towards diversity and multiculturalism but should also allow for the integration and interaction of different communities within broader society. Banks (2009:310) is of the opinion that multicultural societies are faced with the challenge of constructing nation-states that reflect the diversity of their citizens and at the same time have an enveloping set of shared values, ideals and goals to which all citizens are devoted. If the CAPS aims to promote an overarching set of shared goals and skills that all young people need to develop in order to become responsible, democratic citizens, then it is important that the diversity and multicultural dimension of the country be taken into account.

School communities should ideally represent diverse groups of learners so that when socialisation takes place or democratic citizenship programmes are introduced, learners could be prepared to participate as equals in the society of which they are already a part. During a focus group interview, learner A4 shared that a topic on diversity should be promoted at his school as the majority of learners attending this particular school at the time of this research were isiXhosa-speaking, and he felt the need to learn more about other cultures, in preparation for life after school. Teacher TC also indicated that the community in which school C was situated was not aware
of the bigger influence of issues, as residents tend to live in isolation, concerned with themselves or their own lives. Many school communities are still very isolated in terms of participation within the wider SA society, possibly due to social exclusion and existing inequalities. School communities are also isolated from neighbouring school communities and are sometimes not aware of the influence of socio-economic challenges on other communities within society.

Lastly, it is important to note that the majority of learners attending schools A and B were not being exposed to programmes or practices that enforce democratic citizenship. Concepts relating to democratic citizenship were mainly promoted within the classroom environment as learners were being taught content relating to ‘democracy’ and ‘citizenship’ and some requirements of a ‘good citizen’. There were limited programmes or practices in which learners could partake and learn valuable skills relating to deliberation, team work and active participation. The well-founded assumption for this finding is that the socio-economic standing of schools A and B had a direct influence on the functioning of the schools; hence, the limited opportunities available to learners. Socio-economic challenges, such as violence in the community, learner absenteeism, teacher absenteeism or disengagement, a lack of resources and funds, amongst others, directly affected the implementation of programmes and activities, and therefore learners rarely had the opportunity to acquire the skills necessary for responsible, democratic citizenship.

School C, in contrast to schools A and B, had a variety of programmes or practices available that promoted democratic citizenship amongst the learners of the school, such as societies, clubs, community interaction projects and outreach programmes. School C, unlike schools A and B, was not affected by socio-economic challenges as it was situated in a previously advantaged area, with little social challenges. School C also had sufficient resources and financial assistance as parental involvement was prominent. The resources available at school C allowed the school to implement many programmes or practices that promoted skills development amongst the learners.

Previously (see 2.6.2), I emphasised the importance of deliberation in a democratic society, as viewed through the lens of Gutmann and Thompson’s (2004) model of deliberative democracy. Gutmann and Thompson (2004) are of the opinion that schools are the sites for the development of skills that are required for participation in a democratic society. It is understood that democratic citizens should ideally be able
to participate in and support decision-making through public reasoning in order to sustain mutually respectful processes of decision-making amongst a democratic citizenry and society. In order to develop deliberative potential and capacity in citizens, they need to be exposed to situations where open discussion among equal and free citizens can take place and where decisions can be made or agreed upon.

Schools have a considerable responsibility in educating deliberative citizens and preparing them for active participation in the SA democratic society. Enslin (2003) argues that schools need to contribute to citizenship and democracy education through more than the formal curriculum. It is important that the values and principles encompassing the concept of ‘citizenship’ within the SA context be incorporated within teaching and learning and that learners are not only exposed to the theory underlying democratic citizenship, but also exposed to opportunities where they can acquire the skills required to partake actively and responsibly in a democratic society. This is important as learners will learn how to listen well to others, to communicate respectfully in deliberations where the perspectives of others differ from their own, and to develop the capacity to make decisions collectively.

From the research conducted, it was observed that schools A and B are not implementing the CAPS aims and outcomes by educating deliberative citizens, as learners are not given the opportunity to develop the necessary skills for active participation in the SA democratic society, whereas school C is educating deliberative citizens as learners are exposed to many opportunities and activities where they can become equipped with the skills required for active participation in society.

Inequality therefore still has an influence on the opportunities available for democratic citizenship at different schools depending on the area where the school is situated and the socio-economic standing of the school. In Chapter 2 (section 2.2), I emphasised that citizenship is a core principle of the Constitution and that citizenship implies particular rights and responsibilities, such as the right to equality, the right to human dignity, the right to freedom and security, the right to privacy, the right to freedom of religion, the right to belief, the right to opinion and the right to expression. However, it becomes hard to value citizenship if citizens do not experience the rights or responsibilities as being present in their lives.

The reality was that schools A and B were situated in communities that were
confounded by socio-economic problems and often had their daily functioning disrupted by incidents relating to challenges within the community. For learners of schools A and B, ideas of a better life or better circumstances were not abundantly clear and they might resist the promotion of democratic citizenship within the school environment. Schools A and B therefore experience many challenges and resistance in promoting democratic citizenship education in the school environment. At the time of this research, school C was not affected by socio-economic problems as the school was situated in a community where residents were able to enjoy their rights as citizens. School C was therefore able to promote democratic citizenship education within the school environment and could expose all learners to a multitude of opportunities to develop the skills necessary for responsible leadership. Learners of school C were also more likely than learners from schools A and B to value democratic citizenship and be open to accept their roles and responsibilities in society as they were not affected by socio-economic challenges.

It is important that all learners be equally exposed to skills development programmes as that would assist in accounting for the said existing inequality. It is not enough to merely teach about citizenship; it has to be made visible within the structures and programmes of the school – in teaching and learning engagements, and in all components of the school environment.

5.5 Perceptions and experiences of leadership

The stability of a democracy not only depends on the justice of its institutions such as the Constitution, but also on the quality, attitude and behaviour of the citizens within society. SA’s democratic system cannot function effectively in the absence of responsible citizens because, as Kymlicka (2002:286) asserts, attempts to implement policy would fail without the cooperation and self-discipline of citizens and the exercise of civic virtue.

In Chapter 2 (section 2.6), I justified the use of the term ‘responsible leadership’ by arguing that responsible leadership is informed by the Bill of Responsibilities for the youth of SA. The Bill of Responsibilities for the youth of SA outlines the responsibilities that flow from each of the rights enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of SA. The ideal citizen of SA should obtain the skills required to act in a manner that would aid his or her own development and that of society.
The concepts of responsible leadership and active participation are closely associated with democratic citizenship education as these concepts are underpinned by democratic values and principles (Jwan & Kisaka, 2017). Education for participation involves a values-based framework to assist young people in obtaining the skills required for making responsible decisions in all aspects of their lives. Teamwork, leadership, negotiating, critical reflection and presentation skills are some of the crucial skills needed for responsible citizenship and active participation (Green, 2005:viii). In order to become responsible citizens, learners need to be equipped with the skills needed to fulfil leadership roles, as well as to support or question those who are in positions of leadership. Promoting leadership activities within the school environment will strengthen the capacity of learners to deliberate well, to listen and engage while exercising due thought and reflection, and ultimately enable them to become responsible leaders.

All citizens have to fulfil leadership roles at some point in their lives relating to family, the community, finances, relationships and their careers, and it is therefore crucial that all citizens develop the skills necessary to act responsibly within these roles in society and to be able to support others within leadership roles. In Chapter 2 (section 2.6), it was stated that responsible citizenship is one of the aims and critical outcomes of the CAPS (DBE, 2011a) and therefore teachers should expose learners to leadership development opportunities where they can assume roles that could prepare them for active participation in a democratic society.

The research revealed that learner participants had difficulty in defining the concept ‘leadership’. Most of the learners were able to provide a basic definition of ‘leadership’, and the concept ‘leadership’ was mainly associated with ‘leading’ or ‘guiding’ people and ‘setting an example’ to them. Learners were divided over the question whether anyone can be classified as a leader. Half of the learners felt that a leader should portray certain qualities or characteristics and therefore they did not believe that anyone could be a leader. The majority of the teachers interviewed did not think that anyone could be a leader as they associated leaders with certain personality traits, such as the ability to talk in front of others. It was only the teacher from school C who felt that everyone has the potential to be a leader in different situations; however, not everyone might want to be a leader.
If democratic citizenship education in the SA context implies that all learners should acquire the skills to become responsible, active citizens who are able to deliberate well, then citizenship education should be inclusive and schools must provide spaces where all young people can participate. It is therefore necessary that young people be taught the concepts of ‘leadership’ and ‘leadership roles in society’ so that learners may realise the importance of exercising autonomy and being held accountable. In schools, learners are always taught to follow instructions, rules and regulations and the principles of good citizenship. However, being a good citizen also requires the questioning of rules and regulations and the critical reflection thereafter, which comprises skills that can be acquired through participation in teamwork and leadership programmes or practices.

The individual interviews with teachers and the focus group interviews with learners revealed that the majority of the participants had preconceived ideas of leadership as only associated with certain personality types, qualities or skills, such as being able to speak in front of people or being able to lead a group of people. I support the ideas of Middlebrooks and Haberkorn (2009) and Van Linden and Fertman (1998) who indicate that every child or learner would benefit from opportunities promoting leadership skills development. If teachers hold the belief that only certain learners have the potential to be leaders, then many learners will be deprived of the opportunity to develop valuable skills and qualities necessary to act responsibly in different spheres of a democratic society.

If teachers do not deem leadership important in the classroom environment, then they will not provide learners with the opportunities to participate in leadership activities. This can be detrimental for citizenship education as learners will not be able to exert their rights and responsibilities in a manner that will be to the benefit of society.

If the CAPS aims to produce learners who are capable of organising and managing themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively (DBE, 2011a), then ideally teachers should perceive leadership as a practice associated with deliberation and valuable skills development required by all learners, not only a selected few. How leadership is perceived by all role players in a school environment can determine the level of leadership development promoted within the school and resultantly the success of democratic citizenship education.
5.6 Leadership initiatives within the school environment

I have argued in the previous section (5.5) that leadership development is important within the school environment in order for learners to develop the skills they will need to act responsibly as active citizens in society. In Chapter 2 (section 2.11), I referred to the notion of ‘student voice’ and the implications for democratic citizenship education and learner leadership development. Fielding (2004:199) emphasises that learner leadership can also contribute towards “civic renewal”, which is a concept aimed at increasing democratic participation and engagement, which are the cornerstones of democratic citizenship education.

Fielding (2001a; 2004; 2006), as well as Mitra (2003; 2005) encourage ‘student voice’ and believe that young people should learn civic habits that can prepare them for social interaction and participation in their communities and society as a whole. Research (Bron & Veugelers, 2014b; Fielding, 2004; Lee & Zimmerman, 1999; Smyth, 2006) on ‘student voice’ has shown the benefits of providing young people with opportunities to partake in decision-making within the school environment. By sharing their opinions and working to improve school conditions for themselves and others, young people can learn democratic principles, develop a growing sense of self-worth and be encouraged to take on leadership roles within the activities where they are involved (Black et al., 2014).

This research was based on the notion that every learner has a voice, and that all learners should be equally exposed to opportunities within the school environment where their voices can be heard and where they are encouraged to take on leadership roles in order for them to be prepared for social interaction and active participation in the SA democratic society. If the education sector makes provision for democratic participation of learners in school governance and leadership initiatives, then learners will be prepared to demonstrate active citizenship in society, and the aims and outcomes of the CAPS will be achieved.

The interviews with teachers and the focus group interviews with learners revealed that leadership development was not deemed important in schools A and B. Teacher TA could not provide me with detailed, obligatory programmes or practices for leadership development that existed in school A at the time of this research. Teacher TB indicated that many learners in her school did not get the opportunity to prove
themselves as leaders, due to the limited leadership initiatives within the school. Learners were not placed in leadership positions due to fear of them being targeted or bullied, as school B is situated in a community characterised by gang activity and drug abuse. The principal of school B made the decision not to implement leadership initiatives within the school as he did not want learners to be targeted, bullied or intimidated due to the roles imposed on them.

The lack of leadership development opportunities within schools A and B can be linked to the serious socio-economic challenges experienced within the communities in which these two schools are situated. Not only were school A and B challenged by many socio-economic problems and incidents on a daily basis, but these schools also had very little resources and lacked financial assistance which affected the implementation of leadership initiatives.

School C, unlike schools A and B, deemed leadership development an important part of the school. Teacher TC explained that the principal of school C strongly encouraged leadership development and ensured that learners were exposed to as many opportunities as possible where they can develop skills through active participation. As mentioned in section 5.2, at the time of this research, school C was not affected by any socio-economic problems and had many resources and sufficient financial assistance available to assist in the implementation of leadership initiatives.

In Chapter 2 (section 2.6), I stated that the SA Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 (RSA, 1996e) makes provision to incorporate ‘student voice’ and leadership skills development within the education sector by stipulating that all schools have fully functioning SGBs consisting of a parent component, a teacher component and a learner component, known as the RCL. The RCL is a democratically elected, learner-only council, which has been “introduced as part of the policy of further promoting democratic participation in school governance as well as an opportunity to learn skills necessary to exercise citizenship” (Enslin, 2003:80). Young people have a role to play in improving their schools through the establishment of RCLs and assisting those driving transformation in the school.

The RCL and SGB should form part of every school as their constitution is mandated (DoE, 1996). In addition to the SGB and RCL system, the majority of schools in SA also have a prefect system, which is a body of selected learners who exercise duties
in order to assist the staff with enforcing the disciplinary system and code of conduct within a school. The RCL and prefect system can therefore provide learner participants with valuable skills required for responsible and active participation within a democratic society. I agree that RCL and SGB participants as well as prefects could learn valuable skills in preparation for responsible leadership and life after school.

The perceptions and opinions of the research participants on the existence and functioning of leadership initiatives, such as the prefect and RCL systems within their school, could ultimately determine how skills development and leadership are perceived, and whether they form an important part of the programme of the school. Through the present research, it was revealed by participants of schools A and B, that these schools had no prefect systems within the schools. While schools A and B had RCL systems in place, the RCLs were not fully functioning and did not perform any active duties or roles within the school environment. The RCL body in school A did not function effectively as members did not attend meetings, were not committed to their roles or responsibilities, and no change was brought about within the school environment. The RCL members in school B had no active roles either, and they merely acted as classroom monitors who assisted the teachers in performing administrative duties.

Poor leadership programmes at a school can be linked to broad leadership concerns and gaps within the structures of the school. The assumption exists that the SGBs of schools A and B also did not function properly and therefore the RCLs were non-existent in these two schools. This is problematic for citizenship education since the SGB and RCL need to be interlinked and democratic participation in school governance are therefore limited in schools A and B. At the time of this research, learners attending schools A and B were not getting the opportunity to partake in decision-making within the school environment and their voices were not being heard.

At the time, learners of schools A and B were not given the opportunity to develop the skills required for responsible citizenship and active participation in society and they were therefore disadvantaged in comparison to the learners attending school C who are exposed to a multitude of opportunities for leadership skills development. School C, unlike schools A and B, had a functioning RCL system as well as a functioning prefect system; however, there were some flaws in the way learners were selected to partake in these roles. Learner participants from school C indicated that the same
learners were often selected onto the RCL body, and that the selection of learners was not always fair as learners were selected based on academic performance or popularity. If democratic citizenship education implies inclusivity and belonging as is understood, then all learners should be provided with equal opportunities for leadership skills development otherwise some learners might be excluded internally.

It is not possible to enforce democratic forms of thinking without providing an environment in which this could be done. At the time of this study, learners attending school C were being provided with a variety of opportunities, programmes or practices that could encourage active participation, deliberation and critical reflection. However, schools A and B did not provide the environment for democratic thinking and participation, mainly due to reasons relating to the socio-economic challenges experienced by these schools.

If the CAPS aims to produce learners who are equipped with the necessary skills required for responsible leadership (DBE, 2011a), then all schools should be equipped with the resources and assistance necessary to provide learners with equal opportunities that promote leadership skills development. Through leadership initiatives, learners could acquire the skills needed for active participation in a democratic society, such as the ability to think critically, deliberate, identify and solve problems and demonstrate responsible decision-making, as outlined in the aims of the CAPS.

5.7 Views of life skills taught in LO classes

The CAPS stipulates that LO should promote the application of skills and values in real-life situations, participation in physical activity, community organisations and initiatives, and therefore a practical approach is encouraged. According to the RNCS (DoE, 2002), LO presents real opportunities for great cognitive skills development in learners, especially with reference to citizenship education; however, the research revealed some shortcomings as experienced by the participants. The majority of the teachers indicated that more could be done to expose learners to citizenship education so that the concepts underpinning citizenship can be understood more thoroughly. This finding is in line with Biesta and Lawy’s (2006) argument regarding the teaching of citizenship, which they say needs to be supplemented with a deeper understanding
of the ways in which young people learn democratic citizenship through their participation in the communities and practices that make up their everyday lives.

The present research provided different viewpoints on how the learner participants related to the content taught in LO classes and whether they were able to apply the skills within their daily lives. It was noted that many learners had a negative perception of LO, did not view it as a worthwhile subject and therefore tended to be apathetic with regard to the content taught as part of the LO curriculum. This could be due to the fact that LO is the only subject in the NCS that is not externally assessed or examined; however, a learner needs to have evidence of performance in assessment tasks for that particular grade in order to pass the subject.

Some learners mentioned that it is difficult to relate to the concepts taught in LO when one is uncertain of how to apply it to your own life. This could indicate that teachers are not implementing the content according to the guidelines as set out in the CAPS, as a practical approach is encouraged and the importance of application of skills and values in real-life situations is clearly stipulated in CAPS. Teachers might not be fully equipped to teach LO, they might be ill informed about the aims and outcomes of the CAPS and they might be disengaged or unwilling to teach due to the circumstances at the school or the lack the resources to assist in delivering the content in a practical manner.

Many scholars noted that access to resources had an effect on access to and attainment of knowledge and could therefore seriously affect the implementation of the curriculum (Kelly, Parker & Oyosi, 2001; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005 Phurutse, 2005; Rooth, 2005). Rooth (2005) argues that cognitive skills and life skills, amongst others, cannot be acquired through transmission teaching only. LO teachers therefore require resources that could assist them in the teaching and learning processes in order for all learners to have equal learning opportunities for learning, knowledge acquisition and skills development in LO classes.

Learners acquire knowledge and develop skills when the content or activities are relatable to their personal lives and personal challenges experienced. LO cannot only include classroom-based activities, as the subject is aimed at orientating people for life and equipping learners with skills that they need to be able to apply to real-life situations.
5.8 Summary

By employing an interpretivist lens, this chapter provided an analysis of the findings of the present research study. Central to the findings of this research was that the participants from the respective schools held vastly different perspectives and experiences of democratic citizenship education, leadership development initiatives and the subject matter pertaining to LO. The reason for the disparate viewpoints was largely seen as the result of existing and historic socio-economic inequalities in SA.

The learners of the schools involved in the research study, experienced disparate challenges relating to the community within which the schools are situated. The contextual factors pertaining to the schools, determine the type of challenges experienced at school level and in the community, and the challenges in the community stem from the existing inequality and historical context of SA. This is an indication that the youth of SA is in dire need of skills development in order to prepare them for responsible leadership. This was also the foundation on which the remainder of the study was built.

While participating learners had a good understanding of concepts relating to democratic citizenship and leadership, there were very little programmes or practices available for demonstrating democratic participation applying leadership skills. In order to comply with the vision of the CAPS, schools need to ensure that all learners have equal access to programmes or practices promoting democratic citizenship, as well as leadership skills development. I argue that leadership skills development is important for the production of responsible, active citizens who can be accountable and who can partake in democratic deliberation and decision-making.

There are very few initiatives that promote ‘student voice’, which is important in a democratic society, and the existing mandatory initiatives, such as the RCL, were not being implemented fully in the schools that formed part of the research study. Learners therefore were not all being provided with valuable skills development. If the CAPS aims to produce learners who are active citizens able to manage themselves responsibly in all spheres of their lives, then leadership initiatives promoting democratic citizenship education should be incorporated within the programmes or practices at every school in SA, and RCL or prefect systems should not be perceived as exclusive initiatives. Policymakers should take into account the existing social and
historic inequality that prevails and thwarts the implementation and promotion of skills development initiatives at many schools in SA.

Lastly, as subject, LO has the potential to contribute to valuable skills development pertaining to the learners’ health management, problem management, the way they plan their lives and their interpersonal relationships. Learners acquire knowledge and develop skills when the content taught in LO or activities are relatable to their personal lives and personal challenges experienced. LO cannot only comprise classroom-based activities, as the subject is aimed at orientating people into life and equipping learners with skills that they need to apply to real-life situations.
CHAPTER 6: SYNOPSIS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

In this concluding chapter of the thesis, the focus is on summarising the main findings of the research. In recapping, the main concern of the research was to determine whether the CAPS (DBE, 2011a) equips high school learners with the necessary skills for responsible leadership.

As described in Chapter 1, it was necessary that my research adequately reflect the diverse nature of SA society, as is especially evident in the deep disparities between schools. My research sample was therefore drawn from three high schools, within the Metropole North Education District in the Western Cape, that were distinctly different from one another regarding the areas in which they were located and also in terms of socio-economic status, language, culture, race and religion. The research sample was therefore largely representative of the cultural diversity experienced within SA.

While it is easy to describe schools in this fashion, this description does little to give insights into the particular experiences and challenges of many high school learners, as they struggle in their daily lives against tremendous odds, with little idea of what it means to be a citizen, or how notions of democratic citizenship education ought to inform their lives. It was therefore important to determine whether the aims and outcomes of the CAPS could be achieved in order to equip all learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, culture or geographic location, with the skills necessary for responsible leadership.

This chapter therefore starts with a synopsis of the main research findings. Thereafter, I will consider the implications of these findings for schools and the cultivation of democratic citizenship education in the SA society. Based on the afore-mentioned findings, I consider particular recommendations in line with the potential contributions and significance of this research.

6.2 Synopsis of the main findings

The research has revealed a number of key findings. Firstly, the learners attending the schools that formed part of the research study, experience a vast array of challenges due to the contextual factors surrounding the area in which their respective schools are situated. This was particularly the case at schools A and B, where learners
typically encounter high levels of poverty, socio-economic ills, such as alcohol and drug abuse, and gangsterism, and for these learners, the path towards a better life is not always clear.

It is a well-known fact that geographical distribution and socio-economic factors, stemming from the existing and historic inequality in SA, play a significant but often unexplored role in influencing learner well-being and how they conceive of themselves. At the time of this research, learners attending schools A and B were experiencing life very differently from learners attending school C. It was reported that the functioning of schools A and B was often negatively influenced and compromised by the many challenges present within the areas in which these schools are situated, while school C was rarely affected by contextual constraints.

Given the deep-rooted socio-economic variances and disparate experiences amongst the youth, there is a grave responsibility on schools to educate the youth for responsible, democratic citizenship as stipulated in the CAPS (DBE, 2011a:4), which provides a general outline of the type of skills learners ought to obtain in order to become responsible, democratic citizens. One can assume that it might be challenging for learners and teachers from schools A and B to value democratic citizenship or to see the potential benefits of democratic citizenship education as they are constantly battling with socio-economic realities within their community, contextual constraints within the school environment, and isolation from the broader society. The communities in which schools A and B are situated often provide challenging circumstances for members of the community, as mentioned by participants of the research study (see 4.2), who resultantly will have difficulty in cherishing democratic values, such as social justice.

Secondly, it was revealed that teachers and learners who participated in the research held vastly different opinions with regard to the skills learners require for democratic citizenship. It was noted that the answers they provided were largely based on what they believed to be the skills required for learners within the specific environment or community in which the school is situated. Teacher TA only listed one work-related skill, i.e. computer skills, as being desirable, while teacher TB listed mainly work-related skills and values-based competencies, such as ambition, professionalism and good work ethic, as well as one personal skill, self-discipline, as being important in preparing learners for life after school. The skills listed by teacher TA and teacher TB
were not in line with the type of learners the CAPS aims to produce (DBE, 2011a).

Teacher TC listed work-related skills, such as dealing with information and developing arguments, personal skills, such as creativity, as well as interpersonal skills, such as communication. Teacher TC listed skills that are also stipulated in the CAPS, as the CAPS emphasises that learners should be able to “identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking; collect analyse, organise and critically evaluate information and communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes” (DBE, 2011a:4). Learners, on the other hand, expressed the need to be taught skills related to dealing with inter alia diversity and independent and critical thinking, in order to prepare them for the responsibilities that lie ahead when leaving school.

From the above findings, it was deduced that differentiated understandings exist in relation to what citizens require in order to cope in particular environments, due to the different contexts and practices that make up the participants’ everyday lives, in school and in the communities where they live. The vast differences in contexts of schools A, B and C clearly had an influence on the way the participants made sense of their experiences, including their experiences of citizenship education, which were largely based upon their own perspectives, which, in turn, were shaped by their environments. These findings are in line with the argument put forward by Biesta (2011:14) with regard to the learning of democratic citizenship in which he states, “young people’s perspectives – and hence their learning and action in the area of democratic citizenship – are also influenced by the wider cultural, social, political and economic order that impacts upon their lives.”

It is evident that deep-rooted inequalities and differentiated socio-economic standings prevent many learners from realising their true identity as democratic citizens of the country, as was evident in schools A and B. This may effectively bar them from democratic participation in broader society. This is a challenge of citizenship education also emphasised by Kymlicka (2004), Banks (2004) and Pring (2016), as they express their concerns regarding citizenship education in multicultural nation states. Pring (2016:11) explains that the difficulty lies in “bringing into the wider society the large number of young people from disadvantaged backgrounds who feel alienated from that society.”
Thirdly, most learner participants could provide a basic understanding of the concepts relating to democratic citizenship. However, it was revealed that school A and school B, both situated within historically disadvantaged areas where poverty and inequality reign, have few or no programmes or practices available that promote democratic citizenship education. At the time of this research, schools A and B were confronted with different socio-economic challenges on a daily basis, which had a direct effect upon the ways in which learners can be citizens, and upon the ways in which they learn responsible, democratic citizenship. Teacher and learner participants from schools A and B might not have seen the value or potential benefits of democratic citizenship as their own understandings and experiences of citizenship were limited and restricted within the communities in which they lived. In other words, because of their respective communities, which were shaped by and immersed in dire socio-economic challenges, both the participating teachers and learners did not necessarily see the benefits and opportunities implied by democratic citizenship.

In stark contrast, at the time of this research, school C, located in a historically advantaged area, had a multitude of opportunities available that promoted democratic citizenship, such as societies, clubs, activities and programmes where learners could be active participants and develop valuable skills. Not only did school C have the resources, assistance and means to provide their learners with valuable opportunities for the cultivation of democratic citizenship, but democratic citizenship is also valued by members of the community in which school C is situated. One can assume that, in a historically advantaged community where there are few socio-economic challenges or contextual constraints, residents can experience the benefits of democratic citizenship and therefore prioritise the promotion of citizenship education.

Inequality therefore still has an influence on the opportunities available for democratic citizenship education at different schools, depending on the area where the school is situated and the socio-economic standing of the school. It is crucial that schools provide learners with a sense of justice and belonging, as this will assist in accounting for the said existing inequality and discrimination in society. However, schools can only do so much in creating a more just society (Pring, 2016).

Fourthly, I argue that, if democratic citizenship education in the SA context implies that all learners should acquire the skills to become responsible, active citizens who are able to deliberate well, then citizenship education should be inclusive and schools
must provide spaces where all young people can participate. Responsible citizenship is described as one of the critical outcomes of teaching and learning (DoE, 2001:2), and the emphasis on the production of “responsible” citizens is clear within the CAPS (DBE, 2011a:4).

Democracies depend upon citizens who are not only aware of their rights and responsibilities in society, but who are also articulate in their opinions and arguments, active in their communities and responsible in their actions as citizens. If responsibility implies accountability and exercising autonomy, then it is necessary that young people be exposed to leadership roles, activities or programmes that would promote leadership skills development through active participation or questioning and analysis of those in leadership positions.

The research study has shown that the participants of schools A and B hold mainly preconceived ideas of leadership as only associated with certain personality types, qualities or skills, and did not believe that all people could develop leadership skills. On the other hand, teacher TC noted that leadership development was an important part of school C and learner participants of school C mentioned that the leadership positions they had filled throughout their school career, had prepared them for life after school. It could be argued that the participants of schools A and B might not have realised the potential benefits of leadership skills development, especially with regard to citizenship education, mainly due to the socio-economic challenges with which they were confronted on a daily basis or possibly the lack of higher leadership structures within the schools themselves.

According to Green (2005:viii), teamwork, leadership, negotiating, critical reflection and presentation skills are some of the crucial skills required for responsible citizenship and active participation. I argue that the promotion of leadership activities within the school environment will strengthen the capacity of learners to deliberate well, to listen and engage while exercising due thought and reflection, and ultimately to enable them to become responsible leaders in exercising civic duties and responsibilities as citizens of a democratic society.

I also argued that all citizens will take on different leadership positions throughout their lives, whether in their family, circle of friends, career or daily interactions with people, and it is therefore crucial that all learners be exposed to leadership skills development.
in preparing them for responsible decision-making, responsible problem solving, personal health management and building interpersonal relationships towards active agency and participation within a democratic society.

Fifthly, the research study inquired whether schools promote leadership development and expose all learners to opportunities for leadership skills development. Leadership development initiatives were not evident at schools A and B, and it was noted that leadership development did not form an important part of the functioning of these two schools at the time of this research. The teacher participants admitted that the majority of learners attending schools A and B could not be entrusted with leadership positions. It was clear that socio-economic problems, such as a lack of resources, poor parental involvement, gangsterism or violence-related activities, stemming from the communities surrounding the schools, had a direct effect on the functioning of schools A and B, and hence the lack of leadership skills development initiatives within the school environment.

At the time of this research, it was revealed that schools A and B did not have functioning RCLs. A RCL body should form part of every school as its constitution is mandated (DoE, 1996) and the introduction of RCLs aims to promote democratic participation in school governance, as well as provide learners with the opportunity to acquire the necessary skills to exercise citizenship, as stated by Enslin (2003). Poor leadership programmes at a school can be linked to broad leadership concerns and gaps within the structures of the school, and the assumption exists that poor parental involvement and a lack of financial assistance within schools A and B affected the functioning of the SGBs, which resulted in the non-functioning of the RCL bodies. Learner participants of school A mentioned that none of the plans of the RCL came to fruition and meetings were rarely held. Learner participants of school B indicated that the RCL did not have a leadership role, as members merely performed administrative duties as well as assisting teachers with documentation in the classroom. There were no prefect systems or any other form of leadership initiatives present at schools A and B at the time of this research.

It was only school C where leadership development was seen as an important part of the school and learners were exposed to a multitude of leadership initiatives, including a fully functioning RCL body as well as a prefect system. One could argue that the success of the implementation of the RCL and prefect systems was due to good
leadership structures present within the school, continuous parental involvement and assistance, as well as the availability of resources and finances. Learner participants mentioned that the RCL and prefect bodies had clearly laid-out responsibilities and well-planned initiatives that were introduced to the school with the assistance of the staff. However, learner participants expressed their concern regarding the manner in which learners were selected to the RCL and prefect body, as they felt that learners were selected based on good academic performance or good behaviour and not on their ability to be in a leadership position.

The learners of schools A and B were disadvantaged in terms of valuable skills development, and therefore did not have the opportunity to learn how to partake in democratic decision-making and deliberation processes, while learners of school C were exposed to opportunities for valuable skills development, which prepared them for life after school, as noted by learner participants. If the CAPS aims to produce learners who are capable of organising and managing themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively (DBE, 2011a), then, ideally, teachers should perceive leadership as a practice through which learners could acquire valuable skills relating to deliberation and active, responsible participation.

Lastly, I argue that, although LO has the potential to contribute to citizenship education, exposing learners to basic theoretical knowledge regarding democratic citizenship within the LO curriculum is not sufficient in preparing high school learners for responsible democratic citizenship. Learners should ideally be urged to acquire the necessary skills, as listed in the aims and objectives of the CAPS (DBE, 2011a). It was also noted that many learners tend to be apathetic towards LO, either because they do not take it seriously as a subject, or because they cannot relate to the concepts taught and/or being uncertain of its application to their own lives. All learners in SA schools could benefit from exposure to opportunities where they can develop skills for active participation in a democratic society as well as the capacity necessary to fulfil leadership roles as citizens.

It was revealed that learners of the three schools involved in the research study, held vastly different viewpoints on how they relate to or perceive the content and skills taught in LO classes. The way participating learners perceived the content taught in this subject was seen as dependent on the contextual factors surrounding the
environment in which the schools were situated and the personal challenges experienced by the learners.

Chapters 4 and 5 of this thesis revealed that the sets of participants from the respective schools held vastly different perspectives regarding and experiences of democratic citizenship education, leadership development initiatives and the subject matter pertaining to LO. The reason for these disparate viewpoints could largely be attributed to the existing and historical socio-economic inequalities in SA. Overall, learners had a good understanding of the concepts relating to democratic citizenship and leadership, but the presence of programmes demonstrating the application of democratic participation with leadership skills, is seemingly dependent on the aforementioned socio-economic standing of the school.

6.3 Implications for democratic citizenship education

In the light of the afore-mentioned main research findings, there are specific implications for democratic citizenship education, which need to be considered. SA is a culturally diverse country still characterised by existing socio-economic and geographical inequalities due to the historical context of SA. Since 1994, the DBE has built a clear policy foundation to clarify the type of education system envisioned in the Constitution of the Republic of SA. According to The Bill of Rights (DoE, 1996b:5), a society “based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights” is envisaged and resultantly, education is to be viewed as an instrument that could root the SA values manifested in the Constitution of the Republic of SA (DoE, 1996b), as enshrined in section 1(a).

The DBE has since strengthened its focus on democratic citizenship education, and currently emphasises the importance of democratic participation and integration amongst all citizens of SA. The CAPS aims to produce learners who have the necessary skills for –

[I]dentifying and solving problems, for being independent, critical and creative thinkers, who are able to work as part of a team, who are able to organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively, and who see the world as a set of inter-related systems (DBE, 2011a:4).

Firstly, we need to consider that the youth of SA experience vastly different challenges in the communities where they live, which was also revealed in the present research
study. The youth is therefore in dire need of democratic citizenship education and leadership skills development in preparing them for responsible decision-making in the challenges they face, and for active participation in a democratic society, characterised by cultural diversity and existing socio-economic inequality.

The issue of a multicultural SA society, characterised by cultural and racial diversity, as well as existing socio-economic inequality ties in with Pring’s (2016) view of issues surrounding citizenship education experienced in multicultural societies. Pring (2016:11) states, “supporting a multicultural society, overcoming racism and giving all young people (whatever their social and economic status) a sense of belonging to the wider society” are the challenges of citizenship education, and Pring therefore suggests that schools can only play a small role in creating a more equal and just society.

There is therefore a considerable responsibility on the SA education system to deliver its aims and objectives despite the deep-rooted inequalities that still exist within SA’s diverse democratic society. If the CAPS does not take into account the deep-rooted variances and inequalities experienced in society, then inclusivity is not ensured and learners will not all have equal opportunities for skills development at school. The challenge still lies in creating a just society, which requires the attention of research and policy development in respect of the contexts within which young people learn and develop. As Biesta (2011) suggests, the idea of citizenship education should not just be on making young people ready for democracy, but it should be especially focused on the context in which individuals act and the structures that underlie that specific context.

Secondly, we need to consider that schools are the most important sites for developing democratic values, because they serve as the blueprint for the types of citizens a society envisions. Schools in SA need to comply with the vision of the CAPS as set out in the aims and objectives listed in the CAPS policy document (see DBE, 2011a) provided to all teachers at all public schools in SA. It is at school level where all learners should be exposed to opportunities where they can develop skills in line with the CAPS vision. From the research, however, it was revealed that the aims and objectives of the CAPS were interpreted differently by the research participants and therefore the principles of the CAPS were implemented differently according to the context of each school. Participants demonstrated differentiated perspectives.
regarding the skills learners required in preparation for life after school, which were influenced by participants’ experiences within their different communities and their own positions as citizens.

The socio-economic standing of each school also seemed to determine how the CAPS was implemented, as the availability of resources, leadership structures in the schools and the level of parental involvement affected the implementation of the LO syllabus, as well as the implementation of skills development initiatives. In schools A and B, learners had limited opportunities for the development of skills relating to democratic participation and decision-making, whereas school C had a variety of activities, initiatives, societies and clubs in which learners could partake. Research participants of school C indicated that they felt prepared for life after school due to the skills they had obtained at school. The majority of learner participants from schools A and B, on the other hand, indicated that they were not prepared for life after school.

Thirdly, the DBE has strengthened its focus on democratic citizenship education through the introduction of topics relating to ‘citizenship’ and ‘democracy’ as part of a topic *democracy and human rights* within LO, which is a compulsory subject for Grades 10 to 12 (DBE, 2011b). The research revealed that LO has great potential in contributing positively to the lives of learners by providing them with conceptual knowledge regarding citizenship education as well as them with life skills. However, LO cannot comprise classroom-based activities and assessment only, as the subject is aimed at orientating people into life and equipping them with the skills that they need to be able to apply to real-life situations. Skills, such as cognitive and life skills, cannot only be acquired through transmission teaching (Rooth, 2005).

The CAPS is only a general guideline that stipulates that learners should be equipped with the necessary skills for identifying and solving problems, for being independent, critical and creative thinkers, who are able to work as part of a team, who are able to organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively. The CAPS provides a list of skills that learners should acquire for responsible, democratic citizenship, and this provides a set of problems for the implementation of citizenship education, which ties in with Biesta’s (2011:20) concerns regarding, what he refers to as an “individualistic understanding of citizenship” and approach to citizenship education.
The CAPS requires of teachers to implement citizenship education with a focus on learners and their knowledge, skills and behaviour. Teaching and learning, however, are complex processes, as seen in the cases of schools A and B, which require a contextualised understanding with a focus on the circumstances in which young people learn and the extent to which they can be citizens within their communities.

As discussed throughout the research study, the SA society comprises numerous ethnic groups and vastly different cultures and communities. Kymlicka (2004:xiv) emphasises that the ideal form of education has to consist of two dimensions, to which he refers as a “recognition of diversity” dimension that appreciates the contribution of each group’s identity, and a “social equality” dimension that centres on equal opportunities by recognising and resolving historic injustices.

It is crucial that learners at school level be given the space to interact with one another, and through their interactions learn how to understand and respect differences, to deliberate publicly and be able to solve problems on the basis of mutual respect. The present research revealed that existing socio-economic inequality still influences many communities and places them at risk of becoming socially excluded from democratic participation in broader society. For democratic ideals to be realised and the outcomes of the CAPS to be achieved, a contextualised understanding of the implementation of citizenship education is necessary, which takes into account the social, economic, cultural and political conditions that influence young people’s lives and understandings of ‘citizenship’ and ‘democracy’.

6.4 Implications for responsible leadership

The concept of responsible leadership is closely associated with democratic citizenship education as the Bill of Responsibilities for the youth of SA clearly states that citizens are required to act in a manner that would aid their own development and that of society. DoE (2008) stipulates that all citizens are expected to be responsible when making decisions about their lives and health.

As mentioned previously in 6.3, the CAPS comprises only general guidelines, which stipulate the types of skills learners ought to acquire in order to be responsible, active citizens. The CAPS, however, does not emphasise the type of activities, programmes or practices that can be implemented in order to promote the acquisition of skills necessary for responsible, active citizenship.
Middlebrooks and Haberkorn (2009) as well as Van Linden and Fertman (1998) indicate that all learners would benefit from opportunities promoting leadership skills development, as such activities or initiatives will enhance the capacity of learners to deliberate well, to listen and engage while exercising due thought and reflection, and ultimately to enable them to become responsible leaders. I therefore argue that the skills required for responsible leadership can be acquired through participation in leadership initiatives, which will allow learners to exercise autonomy, to question those in positions of autonomy, and to partake in deliberation processes.

Since the CAPS places strong emphasis on responsibility as one of its aims and objectives, it is important to take note of Biesta’s (2011) concerns regarding personal responsibility in citizenship education. According to Biesta (2011) as well as Westheimer and Kahne (2004), an emphasis on personal responsibility should not take away from the political domain of citizenship. Biesta (2011:31) states, “the emphasis placed on individual character and behaviour obscures the need for collective and public sector initiatives”. In an unequal society, such as SA, it is especially important that citizenship education for responsible, democratic citizens maintain a justice-oriented focus, and that learners acquire the capacity to “analyse social, political and economic structures and search for strategies to change the real cause of social problems” (Westheimer, 2015:40).

If democratic citizenship education implies inclusivity and belonging, as is understood in the aims and objectives of the CAPS underpinned by the democratic ideals of the Constitution, then all learners should be provided with equal opportunities for leadership skills development otherwise some learners might be internally excluded. It is not possible to enforce democratic forms of thinking without providing an environment in which this could be done. The implications of having citizens who are not properly equipped with skills enabling them to engage in meaningful deliberation and actively exercise their citizenship, are that their capacity to engage in public deliberations might be questioned and they might not be able to act responsibly in critical decision-making within their careers, family and interpersonal relationships, or be alienated from mainstream society.
6.5 Recommendations

‘Responsible, democratic citizenship’ is a broad concept, and the implementation and application thereof is determined by the context within which it emerges, the socio-economic standing of the school, and challenges experienced within the school community. This study acknowledges the foundational role education plays in the successful implementation or application of facets of active citizenship. It is clear that the efficacy of active, democratic citizenship education depends mainly on the interaction between and among all stakeholders, such as curriculum development policies, active democratic citizenship programmes, leadership initiatives, teachers and learners, amongst others.

In essence, this section provides recommendations to all stakeholders involved in the implementation of the CAPS with regard to skills development and to LO teachers regarding the teaching and learning of LO. All recommendations emerge from the findings of the study and are strategies that could be implemented nationally or strengthen recommendations already made by different studies pertaining to democratic citizenship education.

6.5.1 Recommendations for the implementation of CAPS with regard to skills development

The following recommendations are suggested to all stakeholders involved in the implementation of the aims and outcomes of the CAPS:

- Development of a conceptual understanding amongst learners and teachers of the key concepts pertaining to responsible, democratic citizenship. Well-structured formal and informal democratic citizenship education programmes and practices should form part of school programmes.

- Development of an understanding amongst learners and teachers of the set of skills required for being responsible, democratic citizens in the SA democratic society. All stakeholders should agree on and have an understanding of the skills that learners need to develop at school level, in line with the aims and outcomes of the CAPS.

- Since many communities live in isolation from one another and are at risk of being alienated from mainstream society, it is important that there be
programmes or practices in schools and between neighbouring schools for learners to develop interpersonal skills for effective functioning within a multicultural society.

- Leadership skills development programmes need to be included at school level in order for all learners to develop the skills required for responsible, active citizenship participation.

6.5.2 Recommendations in terms of LO teachers – teaching and learning

Life orientation is potentially a good vehicle for imparting the requisite skills for democratic citizenship education and responsible decision-making and my recommendations are as follows.

- Teachers need to familiarise themselves with the CAPS policy document and all other supporting policy documents pertaining to LO and democratic citizenship education in order for them to work towards the aims and objectives as set out in the policy documents.

- Teachers need to be familiar with the concepts relating to democratic citizenship and be able to consider the terminology correctly within their teaching and learning practices.

- Teachers need to provide all learners with equal opportunities for the acquisition of the skills they require for active, responsible participation in a democratic society.

- Teachers should engage in dialogue with teachers of neighbouring schools in order to improve their way understanding and teaching of democratic citizenship education in their own teaching practices.

- It is important that all teachers realise that it is not enough only to teach about democratic citizenship, but the practical application of knowledge and terminology is crucial for effective skills development amongst learners and teaching and learning practices.

6.6 Significance and potential contribution of study

One can only assess the potential contribution of this study through the lens of its limitations. Firstly, the study participants were drawn from three high schools in the
Metropole North Education district of the Western Cape, which is only one of the 8 education districts in the Western Cape, and therefore a generalisation of the findings to the entire country may be difficult, without further research. Secondly, the participants from which data were collected did not represent a random sample, as the researcher only used participants who genuinely wanted to contribute to the research voluntarily. Thirdly, the research sample was small as only three teachers and fifteen learners formed part of the research study, but the study could be replicated using a bigger research sample.

Given the limitations of the study, the potential contribution of this study within the SA context, is its appeal to ensure that schools comply with the vision of the CAPS in equipping all learners with the skills required for responsible leadership. The findings of the research might be used to inform stakeholders, such as the DBE, policymakers, education specialists and leaders as well as teachers, regarding:

- the implementation and inclusion of democratic citizenship education within the functioning of all schools of SA; and
- the importance of leadership skills development amongst the youth in order to comply with the vision of the CAPS in equipping all learners with the skills required for responsible leadership

6.7 Limitations of the study

A limitation of the study could possibly be that it was a fairly narrow study where the sample size was relatively small. Participants were drawn from three high schools in the Metropole North Education district of the Western Cape, which is one of the 8 education districts in the Western Cape (see DBE, 2018). A relatively small sample size is typical of qualitative research. Increasing the sample size could potentially generalise the research findings of the study, which would increase the credibility of the findings. Another limitation of the study was that there was limited prior research on the topic.

6.8 Conclusion

In this research, I focused on whether the CAPS equips learners with the skills required for responsible leadership, and its implications for democratic citizenship education within the SA context. This research determined that the participating
schools did not comply with the vision of the CAPS, as set out in the aims and objectives of the CAPS policy document, mainly due to the influence of socio-economic challenges. Since the CAPS aims to equip learners with the necessary skills for identifying and solving problems, for being independent, critical and creative thinkers, who are able to work as part of a team, who are able to organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively, it is essential that learners be exposed to opportunities where they can develop these skills, considering the different contexts within which they learn.

Leadership skills development is needed for the cultivation of the skills and competencies as listed in the CAPS vision in order to prepare learners to be able to act responsibly in deliberation and decision-making in society. The present research established that learners in the different schools involved in the research study were not all provided with opportunities for skills development, especially due to socio-economic constraints. Learners were provided with the basic theoretical knowledge of the concepts pertaining to responsible, democratic citizenship, mainly as part of the LO subject content and syllabus. However, there were limited programmes or practices available where learners could apply their theoretical knowledge, learn how to deliberate well and to understand and respect differences through interaction.

Seeing that there are different needs for different learners in each community or school environment in SA, these needs need to be recognised and incorporated within the democratic ideals of the country. In order to ensure inclusivity in the education system, the CAPS aims and objectives should be more pronounced, localised and contextualised in order to include all communities within the broader society.

The recommendations suggested in this chapter are aimed at ensuring the implementation and inclusion of democratic citizenship education be incorporated within the functioning of all schools in SA. The importance of leadership skills development amongst the youth needs to be emphasised as all learners need to develop problem-solving skills, critical and creative thinking skills and interpersonal skills in order to organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively, as stipulated in the CAPS.
REFERENCES


DBE (Department of Basic Education). 2011d. *Action plan to 2014: Towards the realisation of schooling 2025*. Retrieved from


Hoskins, B., Janmaat, J.G. & Villalba, E. 2012. Learning citizenship through social participation outside and inside school: An international, multilevel study of young


Verwoerd, H.F. 1954. *Bantu education: Policy for the immediate future. Statement by the Hon. Dr. H.F. Verwoerd, Minister of Native Affairs, in the Senate of the


Appendix A: WCED approval

REFERENCE: 20161027-5600
ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Ms Rentia Schoeman
66 De Kock Street
Malmesbury
7600

Dear Ms Rentia Schoeman

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: THE ROLE OF CAPS IN PREPARING SCHOOL LEARNERS FOR RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP: AN EXPLORATION OF LEARNER EXPERIENCES AT THREE HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE WESTERN CAPE

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators’ programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from 01 February 2017 till 30 June 2017
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A. T. Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number.
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

   The Director: Research Services
   Western Cape Education Department
   Private Bag X9114
   CAPE TOWN
   8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.
Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard
Directorate: Research
DATE: 20 October 2016
Appendix B: Ethical clearance

Approved with Stipulations
New Application

26-Apr-2017
Schoeman, Rentia R

Proposal #: SU-HSD-004147

Title: THE ROLE OF CAPS IN PREPARING SCHOOL LEARNERS FOR RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP: AN EXPLORATION OF LEARNER EXPERIENCES AT THREE HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE WESTERN CAPE

Dear Miss Rentia Schoeman,

Your New Application received on 09-Mar-2017, was reviewed
Please note the following information about your approved research proposal:


The following stipulations are relevant to the approval of your project and must be adhered to:

The first 4 questions in the interview schedule may be somewhat sensitive to learners. The researcher and supervisor should consider mitigation steps like referral for counselling or rephrasing it so that it doesn’t increase the likelihood of a learner having to recount or speak about any traumatic experiences/ anxiety-causing experiences. For instance, phrasing questions to be open ended will assist towards this.

Please provide a letter of response to all the points raised IN ADDITION to HIGHLIGHTING or using the TRACK CHANGES function to indicate ALL the corrections/amendments of ALL DOCUMENTS clearly in order to allow rapid scrutiny and appraisal.

Please take note of the general Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

Please remember to use your proposal number (SU-HSD-004147) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your research proposal.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

Also note that a progress report should be submitted to the Committee before the approval period has expired if a continuation is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki and the Guidelines for Ethical
Research: Principles Structures and Processes 2004 (Department of Health). Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number REC-050411-032.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research.

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at 218089183.

Included Documents:
DESC Report
REC: Humanities New Application

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham
REC Coordinator
Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)
Appendix C: Learner consent form

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION LEAFLET AND ASSENT FORM

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:
The role of CAPS in preparing learners for responsible leadership: An exploration of learner experiences at three high schools in the Western Cape.

RESEARCHERS NAME(S): Rentia Schoeman

ADDRESS: Durbanville, Cape Town

CONTACT NUMBER: 083 283 6577

What is RESEARCH?
Research is something we do in order to find NEW KNOWLEDGE about the way things (and people) work. We use research projects or studies to help us find out more about children and teenagers and the things that affect their lives, their schools, their families and their health. We do this to try and make the world a better place!

What is this research project all about?
CAPS, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, “serves the purpose of equipping learners, irrespective of their socioeconomic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country.”
During this research project, I want to find out whether the aims (goals) of CAPS eventually work together towards the creation of learners that are responsible citizens; equipped with democratic values and leadership skills, which enable them to manage their lives interconnected with the diversity in the South African society of today.

**Why have I been invited to take part in this research project?**

As a matriculant, you have been exposed to CAPS for the longest period of time at your high school and I am therefore interested in finding out about your experiences during this time.

**Who is doing the research?**

I am Rentia Schoeman, a Masters student in the Department of Education Policy Studies at the University of Stellenbosch. I have a Bachelor of Sciences degree in Human Life Sciences and Psychology, a Postgraduate Certificate of Education and a Bachelor of Education Honours degree in Education Management. I also teach Life Sciences to Grade 10, Grade 11 and Grade 12 learners at Bloubergrant High School.

**What will happen to me in this study?**

You will be expected to have a one-hour (maximum) interview with the researcher, in which you will be asked questions relating to your own experiences at high school.

**Can anything bad happen to me?**

Nothing bad can happen to you. You will not be exposed to any harmful or anxiety-provoking situations. You will also not be asked any questions that will make you feel uncomfortable.

**Can anything good happen to me?**

Your contribution within this study will be highly appreciated because this research study can serve to improve the education system for future generations.

**Will anyone know I am in the study?**

Your participation in this study will be kept confidential. I will only distribute the information to my study leader/supervisor, who will review and assess the thesis.
**Who can I talk to about the study?**

You can talk to me about the study. I will be able to answer any questions that you might have. You can also contact the University of Stellenbosch’s Department of Education Policy Studies, at 021-808-2419.

**What if I do not want to do this?**

You are not obliged to take part in this study. You can refuse to take part even if your parents have agreed to your participation. You can refuse being part of the study at any time before, during or after the interview has taken place.

Do you understand what this research study is about, what is expected of you and are you willing to take part in it?

- YES
- NO

Have all your questions been answered by the researcher?

- YES
- NO

Do you understand that you can choose NOT TO PARTICIPATE in the study at any time?

- YES
- NO

_________________________  __________________
Signature                    Date
Appendix D: Teacher consent form

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH STUDY: The role of CAPS in preparing school learners for responsible leadership: An exploration of learner experiences at three high schools in the Western Cape

You have been selected as a possible participant in a research study conducted by Rentia Schoeman (Bachelor of Science in Life Sciences and Psychology, Postgraduate Certificate in Education and Honours in Educational Management *cum laude*) from the Department of Education Policy Studies at Stellenbosch University. The results of this survey will contribute towards Rentia Schoeman’s Masters of Education thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a Life Orientation educator at a high school in the Western Cape who is familiar with CAPS, especially the outcomes and purpose of CAPS and the content that is taught in Life Orientation.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to assess whether or not the CAPS and implementation thereof has suitably equipped learners to become responsible citizens with leadership qualities.

2. PROCEDURES

If you agree in participating in this study, we would expect you to:
Participate in a semi-structured interview or a focus group interview which will take approximately one hour and be conducted by Rentia Schoeman. During the aforesaid interview, various questions will be asked relating to your experiences as a Life Orientation educator teaching within the CAPS guidelines.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

You will not be exposed to any harmful or anxiety-provoking situations. You will not be asked any inappropriate questions. The research study will not interfere with your teaching program at school.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The great potential benefit of this study would be that it would, by examining the CAPS from a perspective of improving its ability to teach responsible citizenship and impart leadership qualities, conceivably allow for a re-examination and improvement of CAPS.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Subjects/participants will not receive payment for participating in this study. All participants volunteered in being a part of this study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law.

Data will be collected in the form of interviews and focus groups, which will be recorded and stored on videotapes and digitally. You have the right to review the tapes and only the researcher will have access to the videotapes in order to use it for educational purposes. The videotapes will be erased after submission of the researchers’ thesis/final report.
Data will be collected anonymously and then be subjected to coding procedures. Coding is the assignment of codes to the reviewed, unedited, qualitative data captured in words, sentences, phrases, and paragraph during the focus groups and interviews conducted by the researcher (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). Through the coding process, emerging themes from the in-depth interview and the data from the focus groups will be determined. Results of the data will provide an answer to the main research question, as well as the subsidiary research questions.

This results in the data will be safeguarded by the researcher, Rentia Schoeman. All data will be in the possession of the researcher and will only be distributed to the researcher’s supervisor at the University of Stellenbosch Department of Education Policy Studies for evaluation purposes. The researcher will publish the results of the study in her thesis, wherein all data referred to, will remain anonymous.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be a part of this research study or not. If you volunteer to be a participant in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. All participants may also refuse to answer any questions that they do not want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Rentia Schoeman on 083-283-6577 between 08:00 – 17:00 on Monday to Friday.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time in order to discontinue your participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.
The information above was described to [me/the subject/the participant] by Rentia Schoeman in [Afrikaans/English/Xhosa/other] and [I am/the subject is/the participant is] in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to [me/him/her]. [I/the participant/the subject] was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to [my/his/her] satisfaction.

[I hereby consent/ do not consent that the subject/participant may participate in this study] I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Subject/Participant

Name of Legal Representative

Signature of Legal Representative  Date

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to __________________ [name of the subject/participant] and/or [his/her] representative __________________ [name of the representative]. [He/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator  Date
Appendix E: Parental consent form

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH STUDY: The role of CAPS in preparing school learners for responsible leadership: An exploration of learner experiences at three high schools in the Western Cape

Your child has been selected as a possible participant in a research study conducted by Rentia Schoeman (Bachelor of Science in Life Sciences and Psychology, Postgraduate Certificate in Education and Honours in Educational Management cum laude) from the Department of Education Policy Studies at Stellenbosch University. The results of this survey will contribute towards Rentia Schoeman’s Masters of Education thesis. Your child was selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a Life Orientation educator at a high school in the Western Cape who is familiar with CAPS, especially the outcomes and purpose of CAPS and the content that is taught in Life Orientation.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to assess whether or not the CAPS and implementation thereof has suitably equipped learners to become responsible citizens with leadership qualities.

2. PROCEDURES

If you agree to your child participating in this study, we would expect your child to:
Participate in a focus group interview which will take approximately one hour and be conducted by Rentia Schoeman. During the aforesaid interview, various questions will be asked relating to your child’s experiences as a learner under CAPS and as to the lessons and skills that CAPS has imparted your child with.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

Your child will not be exposed to any harmful or anxiety-provoking situations. Your child will not be asked any inappropriate questions. Your child will not lose out on any teaching time and this research study will therefore not interfere with your child’s academic program at school.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The great potential benefit of this study would be that it would, by examining the CAPS from a perspective of improving its ability to teach responsible citizenship and impart leadership qualities, conceivably allow for a re-examination and improvement of CAPS.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Subjects/participants will not receive payment for participating in this study. All participants volunteered in being a part of this study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with your child will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law.

Data will be collected in the form of interviews and focus groups, which will be recorded and stored on videotapes and digitally. Your child has the right to review the tapes and only the researcher will have access to the videotapes in order to use it for educational purposes. The videotapes will be erased after submission of the researchers’ thesis/final report.
Data will be collected anonymously and then be subjected to coding procedures. Coding is the assignment of codes to the reviewed, unedited, qualitative data captured in words, sentences, phrases, and paragraph during the focus groups and interviews conducted by the researcher (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). Through the coding process, emerging themes from the in-depth interview and the data from the focus groups will be determined. Results of the data will provide an answer to the main research question, as well as the subsidiary research questions.

This results in the data will be safeguarded by the researcher, Rentia Schoeman. All data will be in the possession of the researcher and will only be distributed to the researcher’s supervisor at the University of Stellenbosch Department of Education Policy Studies for evaluation purposes. The researcher will publish the results of the study in her thesis, wherein all data referred to, will remain anonymous.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your child can choose whether to be a part of this research study or not. If your child volunteers to be a participant in this study, your child may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. All participants may also refuse to answer any questions that they do not want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw your child from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Rentia Schoeman on 083-283-6577 between 08:00 – 17:00 on Monday to Friday.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time in order to discontinue your child’s participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding
your rights as the parent of a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

**SIGNATURE OF LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT**

The information above was described to [me/the subject/the participant] by Rentia Schoeman in [Afrikaans/English/Xhosa/other] and [I am/the subject is/the participant is] in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to [me/him/her]. [I/the participant/the subject] was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to [my/his/her] satisfaction.

[I hereby consent/ do not consent that the subject/participant may participate in this study] I have been given a copy of this form.

________________________
Name of Subject/Participant

________________________
Name of Legal Representative

________________________
Signature of Legal Representative

Date

**SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR**

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to ______________________ [name of the subject/participant] and/or [his/her] representative ______________________ [name of the representative]. [He/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

________________________
Signature of Investigator

Date
Appendix F: Research questions to learners

1. Do you feel prepared for life after school? Explain your answer.
2. Which skills and/or qualities do you think should high school learners be taught to prepare them for life after school?
3. What are the THREE most important skills or qualities which you have learned at school which will help you to handle various real-life situations?
4. What does the word “citizen” mean to you?
5. What does the word “leadership” mean to you?
6. How would you describe a “leader”?
7. Would you describe yourself as a “leader”? And why?
8. Do you think that anyone can be a leader?
9. Have there been any opportunities, practices or programmes at your school for leadership development?
10. If so, please explain.
11. Does your school have a RCL or prefect system?
12. What is your opinion on the RCL or prefect system in your school?
13. What are the values of your school?
14. What do you learn in Life Orientation classes?
15. Are the following skills taught in your Life Orientation classes?
   a) Health management: how to ensure that you maintain a healthy lifestyle
   b) Personal problem management: are you taught any skills to help you deal with important life decisions or challenges
   c) Life-planning: skills that help you to plan your life, example goal-setting
   d) Interpersonal skills: skills to help you maintain and develop relationships with other people, such as friends or family.
   e) Are you taught about being a good citizen in any other classes?
Appendix G: Research questions to teachers

1. Are there any programmes or practices in place that promote democratic citizenship at the school?
2. If so, give a brief description of what the programme/practice entails?
3. To your mind, which are the main shared challenges/problems the learners you teach face?
4. Do you think Life Orientation (CAPS) equips high school learners with the skills they need to deal with the challenges in and outside the school environment they face or might face?
5. Do you think high school learners are well-prepared for life after school?
6. What are the most important skills or qualities that learners need as they enter life after school?
7. How important is leadership development within your school?
8. Do you think that any learner can be a leader?
9. Do you think CAPS make provision for leadership development?
10. Are there any programmes or practices in place that promote leadership development at the school?
11. If so, please explain.
12. Do you think CAPS provide enough opportunities for learners to develop the skills they would need to apply to real-life situations?