THE NATURE OF CURRICULUM STUDIES SCHOLARSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA: 2008 – 2010

Raazia Moosa

A research report submitted to the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

Johannesburg, South Africa, 2015

Ethics Protocol Number 2012ECE205

DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my own work. It is being submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted for any other degree at this or any other University.

Raazia Moosa

November 2015

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere gratitude goes to all the scholars who published in the *South African Journal of Education*, *Perspectives in Education* and in the *Journal of Education*, as this study would not have been possible without their publications.

A special thanks is extended to Prof Rob Moore for going way beyond the call of duty to assist me.

I wish to thank Laura Dison for all her support and encouragement during the completion of this study.

I would also like to extend my appreciation to Dale Taylor for all her generosity, patience, guidance and especially for giving so generously of her time.

Furthermore, I would like to thank my supervisor, Prof Devika Naidoo for providing me with the space and time to complete this study and for accompanying me throughout this journey.

I also extend my gratitude to my family for the love and encouragement they provided me with in order to complete this study.

Lastly, all praise and thanks are due to the One, by whose Grace all things are possible.

ABSTRACT

Curriculum studies (CS) provided an important focus for international scholars: Pinar (1978; 2011) in the United States of America; Barriga (2003) in Mexico; Moreira (2003) in Brazil; Green (2003) in Australia; Chambers (2003) in Canada and Smith and Ewing (2002) in Australia. International perspectives to understand CS include the traditionalist, conceptual-empiricism, reconceptualization and the internationalization perspectives (Pinar 1978; 2011). There has been a movement internationally in favour of internationalization as this promised a regional and global understanding of curriculum issues, while maintaining a focus on local curriculum issues. In South Africa, scholars such as Hoadley (2010), Hugo (2010) and Le Grange (2010) also focused on CS. Hoadley (2010) analysed scholarship in the field of CS in South Africa from 2000-2007 through a study that characterised scholarship in the 'knowledge', 'knower' and the 'bureaucratic' modes. The problem this current study addressed is the dearth of knowledge about the nature of CS scholarship in South Africa in the period 2008-2010. A qualitative case study approach informed a review and analysis of three accredited and peer-reviewed South African journals, which drew on theoretical concepts informed by Pinar (1978; 2011) and Hoadley (2010) to provide insights into the dominant theoretical and methodological attributes of CS scholarship in this context. Focusing on issues related to schooling, this study's findings revealed that the national field of CS scholarship was rich, diverse, multi-faceted and fragmented in its theoretical and methodological attributes. Diverse disciplines, specialisations and theoretical frameworks meant that the field lacked a clearly defined focus. Implications of this study for cumulative work and methodological rigour in the production of knowledge in CS are highlighted. The strength of this study is that it draws on international and national perspectives to characterise the theoretical and methodological attributes of scholarship in the field of CS in South Africa. Based on this study, scholars are able to gain a better understanding of the nature of the field. Consequently, they may advance the field by developing appropriate theories and methodologies to solve curriculum issues and advance scholarly practices based on historical insights gained from existing scholarship.

Keywords: Curriculum studies scholarship; theoretical perspectives in curriculum studies; theoretical attributes of curriculum studies scholarship; methodological attributes of curriculum studies scholarship; post-Apartheid curriculum studies scholarship.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ii
ABSTRACT iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS iv
LIST OF FIGURES viii
LIST OF TABLES ix
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS x
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THIS STUDY 1
1.1 INTRODUCTION 1
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM 1
1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM 4
1.4 PURPOSE STATEMENT 5
1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS 5
1.6 RATIONALE 5
1.7 SUMMARY OF REMAINING CHAPTERS 7
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW 9
2.1 INTRODUCTION 9
2.2 CURRICULUM STUDIES: AN OVERVIEW 9
2.2.1 Towards Defining Curriculum Studies 9
2.2.2 Disciplinary Roots 11
2.2.3 The Field of Curriculum Studies 12
2.2.4 Specialisations in Curriculum Studies 12
2.3 CURRICULUM STUDIES IN THE INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT 12
2.4 CURRICULUM STUDIES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT 14
2.5 CONCEPTUAL RESEARCH STUDIES 15
2.6 CONCLUSION 20
CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK 21
3.1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW 21
3.2 INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES IN CURRICULUM STUDIES SCHOLARSHIP 22
3.2.1 Traditionalist 22
3.2.2 Conceptual-Empiricism 23
3.2.3 Reconceptualization 24
3.2.4 Internationalization 28
3.3 NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE IN CURRICULUM STUDIES SCHOLARSHIP 30

3.3.1 Political Sociology Account of Curriculum Processes 31
3.3.2 Critical Curriculum Work (Knowledge and Knower Modes) 32
3.3.3 Curriculum Development and Implementation (Bureaucratic Mode) 33
3.4 RESEARCH IN THE SCIENTIFIC TRADITION OF CURRICULUM STUDIES 34
3.4.1 Quantitative Research 34
3.5 RESEARCH IN THE HUMANIST TRADITIONS IN CURRICULUM STUDIES 37
3.5.1 Qualitative Research 37
3.6 MIXED METHODS RESEARCH 40
3.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK 41
3.8 CONCLUSION 43
CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY 45
4.1 INTRODUCTION 45
4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN 45
4.2.1 Research Paradigm 45
4.2.2 Research Methodology 47
4.2.3 Case Study 49
4.2.4 Data Selection Method 51
4.2.5 Sample 53
4.2.6 Data Analysis 59
4.2.7 Analytical Framework 60
4.2.7.1 Deductive Approach 60
4.2.7.2 Inductive Approach 61
4.3 SELF-REFLEXIVITY 64
4.4 ETHICS 66
4.5 CONCLUSION 66
CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS 68
5.1 INTRODUCTION 68
5.1.1 Overview of Articles Analysed 68
5.2 DISCIPLINES, THEORIES AND CONCEPTS IN CS 71
5.2.1 Disciplines 71
5.2.2 Specialisations 72
5.2.3 Theories and Concepts 73
5.2.3.1 Theoretical Frameworks 73
5.2.3.2 Conceptual Frameworks 74

5.2.3.3 Unclear Theoretical Frameworks 75
5.2.3.4 Cumulative Work 75
5.3 INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES IN CURRICULUM STUDIES 76
5.3.1 Traditionalist Perspective 76
5.3.2 Conceptual-Empiricism Perspective 78
5.3.3 Reconceptualization Perspective 78
5.3.4 Internationalization Perspective 79
5.4 NATIONAL PERSPECTIVES IN CURRICULUM STUDIES 79
5.4.1 A Political Sociology Account of Curriculum Processes 80
5.4.2 Critical Curriculum Work (Knowledge and Knower Modes) 80
5.4.3 Curriculum Development and Implementation (Bureaucratic Mode) 82
5.5 PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS INVESTIGATED 82
5.5.1 Problems Investigated 83
5.5.1.1 Knowledge Issues 83
5.5.1.2 Language and Literacy 84
5.5.1.3 Pedagogy 84
5.5.1.4 Textbook Analysis 85
5.5.1.5 Teacher Education and Professional Development of Teachers 85
5.5.1.6 Educational Effectiveness 86
5.5.2 QUESTIONS POSED 87
5.5.2.1 Knowledge Issues 87
5.6.2.2 Language and Literacy 88
5.6.2.3 Pedagogy 89
5.6.2.4 Textbook Analysis 89
5.6.2.5 Teacher Education & Professional Development of Teachers 90
5.6.2.6 Educational Effectiveness 91
5.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES, DESIGNS AND SAMPLING STRATEGIES 92
5.6.1 Quantitative Research Methodologies, Designs & Sampling Strategies 92
5.6.2 Qualitative Research Methodologies, Designs & Sampling Strategies 94
5.6.3 Mixed Methods Methodologies and Designs 99
5.6.4 Unspecified Research Designs and Sampling Strategies 101
5.7 CONCLUSION 102
CHAPTER 6: INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION 104
6.1 INTRODUCTION 104

6.2 THEORETICAL ATTRIBUTES OF CS SCHOLARSHIP 104
6.2.1 Claim 1 104
6.2.1.1 Disciplinary Roots 104
6.2.1.2 Specialisations 105
6.2.1.3 Theoretical Frameworks and Concepts 106
6.2.2 Claim 2 107
6.2.2.2 Characterisation of Curriculum Studies Scholarship 107
6.3 METHODOLOGICAL ATTRIBUTES OF CS SCHOLARSHIP 108
6.3.1 Claim 3 108
6.3.1.1 Problems and Questions Investigated 108
6.3.2 Claim 4 109
6.3.2.1 Research Methodology and Methods 109
6.3.3 Claim 5 111
6.3.3.1 Methodological Limitations 111
6.3.4 Claim 6 111
6.4. CONCLUSION 112
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUDING REMARKS 113
7.1 INTRODUCTION 113
7.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS 113
7.3 LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY 114
7.4 IMPLICATIONS 116
7.4.1 Implications for Curriculum Studies Researchers 116
7.4.2 Implications for Future Research 117
7.5 CONCLUSION 117
APPENDIX 118
APPENDIX 1: Coding in ATLAS.ti and Coding Key Words 118
APPENDIX 2: Code Families and Network View 127
APPENDIX 3: Example of a Memo 132
APPENDIX 4: Number of Authors and Research Focuses 133
APPENDIX 5: Research Methodology 136
APPENDIX 6: Reference List of the 64 Articles Analysed 137
REFERENCE LIST 142

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Curriculum Policy Reform in South Africa……..…..……..6

Figure 2.1: Gap in the Literature Review ……....20

Figure 3.1: Timeline of International Perspectives on Curriculum Studies …….21

Figure 3.2: Theoretical Framework……..…….42

Figure 4.1: Outline of Research Design……46

Figure 4.2: Collective Case Study ……51

Figure 4.3: Classification of Articles …….……...55

Figure 4.4: Number of Authors by Department ……...58

Figure 5.1: Studies in Curriculum..……..…..…69

Figure 5.2: Sampling Strategies …….…….….70

Figure 5.3: Disciplinary Roots of Curriculum Studies in South Africa……71

Figure 5.4: Research Methodology……..136

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Sample of Curriculum Related Articles…….....56

Table 4.2: Number of Authors by Institution..……57

Table 4.3: Number of Authors by Department ……..…..133

Table 4.4: Author's Research Focus/Interest……..…..134

Table 5.1: Purposive Sampling Strategies …….....69

Table 5.2: Specialisations in Curriculum Studies……..……..…72

Table 5.3: Characterisation of Curriculum Work within International Perspectives..……...76

Table 5.4: National Characterisation of Curriculum Work within National Perspectives.....80

Table 5.5: Quantitative Data Collection Methods……..94

Table 5.6: Qualitative Research Designs…….……...95

Table 5.7: Qualitative Data Collection Methods…….....98

Table 5.8: Mixed Methods Data Collection Methods...…….....100

Table 5.9: Unspecified Research Designs…….101

Table 5.10: Unspecified Sampling Strategies…….....101

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

APA	American Psychological Association 6th Edition
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CAQDAS	Qualitative Data Analysis Software Packages
CPUT	Cape Peninsula University of Technology
CS	Curriculum Studies
C2005	Curriculum 2005
DoE	Department of Education
IBSS	International Bibliography of the Social Sciences
ISI	International Statistical Institute
JoE	Journal of Education
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
NCS	National Curriculum Statements
NMMU	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statements
RU	Rhodes University
PACS	Post-Apartheid Curriculum Studies
PAER	Post-Apartheid Educational Reform
PiE	Perspectives in Education
SA	South Africa
SAJE	South African Journal of Education
TUT	Tshwane University of Technology
UCT	University of Cape Town

UFH	University of Fort Hare
UJ	University of Johannesburg
UK	United Kingdom
UKZN	University of KwaZulu Natal
UL	University of Limpopo
UNW	University of the North West
UNISA	University of South Africa
UP	University of Pretoria
US	University of Stellenbosch
USA	United States of America
UZ	University of Zululand
Wits	University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THIS STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I introduce the research problem for this project, which relates to a dearth of knowledge about the field of CS in the period 2008-2010. Next, I discuss the state of the field in terms of theoretical perspectives, the relationship between theory and practice, diversity in the field, issues of identity and previous research from a methodological perspective, which form the background to the research problem. I also outline the purpose, the research questions and the rationale for this study in the final part of this introduction.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The major problem facing CS is that the field is not clearly defined. As a result, there are misunderstandings about its intentions: if CS is conceived of as "an interdisciplinary academic field devoted to understanding curriculum" as Pinar (2011, p. ix) argued, then practitioners became enthused about improvements, rather than directing their efforts towards developing theory and being aware of the history of the field. The net result of this misunderstanding in the United States of America (USA) has been historically a lack of attention by university academics to the role of theory and history in the intellectual advancement of the field of CS (Pinar, 2011). However, different theoretical perspectives emerged within the field.

Four different theoretical perspectives in the field of CS have been proposed by Pinar (1978, 2011), firstly, the 'traditionalist'; secondly, the 'conceptual-empiricism'; thirdly, the 'reconceptualization' and lastly, the 'internationalization' perspectives. These perspectives will be elaborated upon in chapter 2, which outlines the theoretical framework for this study. Although these perspectives are useful, they are international perspectives and do not capture the complexity of CS in South Africa. Post-Apartheid curriculum reform in terms of integration and internationalization have influenced the field. In South Africa curriculum development is driven by social difference not by reform according to Soudien (2010). Racial integration has thus played a prominent role in post-Apartheid curriculum reform, in order to integrate black students into the post-Apartheid schooling system (Pinar, 2010). While the focus has been on curriculum reform locally, Soudien (2010) notes the influence of internationalization due to colonialism but also dating further back to efforts by the early Europeans to deracialise the curriculum. More recently, the outcomes-based education (OBE) models that were imported from New Zealand, the UK and Australia to structure post-Apartheid curriculum reform, have culminated in research in CS that focuses on ideological

rhetoric rather than research to stimulate intellectual progression in the field of CS according to Hugo (2010). I thus argue that the nuances of curriculum reform as they relate to scholarship are better understood by local perspectives. Hoadley (2010) provided a more contextual characterisation of scholarship in South Africa based on an analysis of journal publications in the field of CS in the former racially demarcated institutions (such as the Afrikaner and historically disadvantaged institutions) between 2000-2007. Scholarship in CS can be described as the process of "composing selected portions of the investigation and findings [or integration or reflection] into a manuscript to be submitted to an appropriate journal or conference venue" (Richlin, 2001, p. 61). Hoadley (2010) identified three categories of scholarship: the first category focused on the "political sociology account of curriculum process in terms of policy studies"; the second category encompassed "critical curriculum work" in terms of "knowledge and knower modes"; while the third focused on "curriculum development and implementation", which was described as "the bureaucratic mode" (Hoadley, 2010, p. 126-127).

The different theoretical approaches in CS created contentious views (Pinar, 2011). The core question of "what knowledge is of most worth?" (Pinar, 2011, p. 156) has preoccupied research by many scholars (Muller & Taylor, 2000; Young, 2010; Hoadley, 2010). Issues of power and privilege have added a new question: "whose knowledge is of most worth?" (Smith & Ewing, 2002, p. 26). These questions are philosophical in nature and relate to issues about "knowledge, knowing and ultimately proving that we know" (Smith & Ewing, 2002, p. 27). The answers according to Pinar (2011) will be subjectively situated. They will also vary depending on the historical moment and how scholars choose to deal with the reality of the world, which is based on how they view the relationship between theory and practice.

The epistemological nature of the field of CS has been analysed through the relationship between theory and practice (Pacheco, 2012). A paradigmatic analysis of the epistemological debate has yielded a dichotomous view of what counts as knowledge. According to Schubert (2009, as cited in Pacheco, 2012), the a-historical and a-theoretical nature of curriculum has been a major concern regarding implementation. This has culminated in one of the problems in the field, that is, the artificial division between the view of curriculum as theory and the curriculum as process. Those who advocate the centrality of practice include Schwab (1970, as cited in Pacheco, 2012) and Stenhouse (1983). Those who advocate the centrality of theory include Pinar, Reynolds, Slaterry and Tubman (1995), who argued that "the theoretical wing

of the field must not be ignored, as several synoptic textbooks continue to do" (p. 852). Tension in the field between curriculum theory and curriculum development thus continues due to tensions between theoretical and practical concerns within the field (Pacheco, 2012).

The state of the field of CS has been described internationally as a complex, eclectic and controversial endeavour (Pacheco, 2012). This has highlighted diversity within the various views of what is and what is not part of CS. The field's diversity is complicated further by the fragmentation into various specialisations (Pinar, 2007). While Smith and Ewing (2002) regard the field's diversity as a problem, Pacheco (2012) views this diversity as a strength. In alignment with the international description, the field of CS nationally has been described as fragmented and diverse in its theoretical and methodological approaches (Hoadley, 2010). This can partially be attributed to the diversity in the disciplinary roots that CS draws on.

The various disciplinary roots of CS are found in sociology, psychology and philosophy, which have raised issues around identity within CS. Schwab (1969, as cited in Wraga & Hlebowitsh, 2003), declared the field was moribund with a need to refocus on the practical concerns of teachers and classrooms. More recently, problems and possibilities of the field were highlighted by Pinar et al. (1995), to acknowledge that it has suffered from "a kind of identity crisis" (Pacheco, 2012, p. 9). The field has now been redefined by Pinar et al. (1995), as an 'energetic field' since they argue that "curriculum is an extraordinarily complicated conversation" which can no longer be defined as "moribund" (Pacheco, 2012, p. 2). Instead, Pinar et al. (1995) assert that it is a field characterised by a hybrid space with a shift from the traditionalist (Tylerian) paradigm which focuses on curriculum development (as explained in the theoretical framework of this study) to an understanding paradigm which incorporated multiple view point. This shift marks a reconceptualization movement from a focus on curriculum development and improvement to new ways of understanding within the field (Pacheco, 2012). The reconceptualization of the field has signalled the end of the identity crisis and resulted in a multiplicity of perspectives and new forms of research as highlighted by Pinar (2007). Due to the reconceptualization of the field, Pinar (2007) states that the field is intellectually lively and complex and threatened less by its internal complexity.

Previous research, devoted to reviewing the field of CS from a methodological perspective, has relied on secondary sources of data to analyse scholarship. All five studies analysed journal articles (Bassey & Canstable, 1997; Tooley & Darby, 1998; Smith & Ewing, 2002; Hoadley, 2010 & Randolph, Griffin, Zeiger, Falbe, Freeman, Taylor, Westbrook, Lico, Cristy, Sprull,

Holt, Smith & McAnespie, 2013). A review of Australian scholarship over a 5- year period, conducted by Smith and Ewing (2002), indicated that the parameters of the field of CS were still not clearly defined. In the United Kingdom, Tooley and Darby (1998) reviewed 264 research articles in four education research journals that included curriculum research and provided a snapshot of the state of educational research. In the USA, Randolph et al. (2013) reviewed a sample of 42 articles from the Georgia Educational Researcher from 2003-2010 and concluded with suggestions for improving the quality of qualitative research. In South Africa, Hoadley (2010) reviewed 67 articles in three education journals that were devoted to issues relating to schooling. Her work culminated in a characterisation of curriculum scholarship in South Africa.

Changes in curriculum and the implementation of these changes have influenced CS scholarship in South Africa and need to be understood within the context of our political past. The Apartheid education structure imposed a disparate system of resource distribution to schools, based on race (Coleman, Graham-Jolly & Middlewood, 2003) and this had a direct influence on how the school curriculum was implemented. According to Hugo (2010), social justice thus emerged as one of the central issues that needed to be addressed in Post-Apartheid Curriculum Studies (PACS). He argued further that Post-Apartheid Educational Reform (PAER) was informed by the principles of outcomes based education (OBE), learner-centred education and integration. The implementation of such a curriculum required "explicit ends and implicit means both in terms of content and pedagogy", which relied on well-resourced schools, teachers and learners that did not exist for the most part in South Africa, and which culminated in "a disaster of tragic proportions" (Hugo, 2010, p. 61). The focus on the curriculum in South Africa has shifted to content and pedagogic knowledge, and this has influenced research in the field of CS. A unique feature of PACS in South Africa has emerged, which involves a specialised internal debate and research in CS that focuses on the nature and structure of organised forms of knowledge (Hugo, 2010). An opportunity thus exists to explore the nature of CS scholarship in South African.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

South African scholars have attempted to analyse CS and have focused on a historical account from the pre-colonial period (Soudien, 2010), to the period covering 2007 (Hoadley, 2010). This means that there is a dearth of knowledge about CS in the period 2008-2010. The problem this study will address is a gap in research concerning the dominant attributes of CS scholarship

and the need for a continued exploration building on Hoadley's (2010) study of CS scholarship in South Africa. This research problem is conceptualised around exploring the theoretical and the methodological perspectives drawn upon by scholars to make sense of the field of CS in South Africa over a 3-year period.

1.4 PURPOSE STATEMENT

The purpose of this case study is to explore the nature of CS scholarship as well as to contribute to an ongoing exploration and description of the dominant theoretical and methodological attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa. The concerns of curriculum researchers are reflected in the questions and problems posed which need to be underpinned by appropriate theoretical and methodological perspectives to ensure rigour within the research that is conducted. A historical and analytic focus on theories and methods used in CS will provide a description of the nature of CS scholarship in South African within a particular time-period (2008-2010).

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question of this study is:

What are the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa in the period 2008 – 2010?

This question is explored through the following functional sub-questions:

1. What disciplines, theories and concepts have informed CS in SA?
2. How could CS scholarship in the period 2008-2010 be characterised?
3. What problems and questions have scholars formulated?
4. What research methodologies and methods do CS scholars use?

1.6 RATIONALE

Curriculum reform in South Africa differs from most countries due to our history prior to 1994 and the post-1994 adoption of policies, such as OBE (Pinar, 2010). These policies were based on the practices in New Zealand, the UK and Australia. This study is undertaken in response to a personal interest in the policy changes, which have influenced CS scholarship in South Africa, with a focus on schooling. From the post-1994 period to 2010, South Africa experienced three different curriculum changes Outcomes Based Education (OBE) including Curriculum 2005 (C2005), National Curriculum Statements (NCS), and the Revised National

Curriculum Statements (RNCS). The various reform movements are mapped below, although this study only focuses on the period 2008 to 2010, when the NCS, the Review of the NCS and the RNCS were implemented (see Fig 1.1). Spurred on by Jonathan Jansen's (1999) critique of OBE, during the period 1999 to 2009, scholars became engaged in what Maodzwa–Taruvinga and Cross (2012) have described as "the most important and captivating debates in the last decades of educational reform in developing countries" (p. 126). These curriculum changes and debates led to a focus on knowledge structures (Hugo, 2010) in PACS in South Africa.

1997	1998	2000	2002	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	2012
C2005 Launched	C2005 Implemented	Review of C2005	NCS	**NCS**	**Review of NCS**	**RNCS**	CAPS Implemented in Grade 10

Figure 1.1: Curriculum Policy Reform in South Africa

Wraga and Hlebowitsh (2003) argued that the field of CS internationally has been in a perpetual state of crisis. Within this context, Soudien (2010), Hoadley (2010), and Hugo (2010) have attempted to theorise the field in South Africa, and this study seeks to systematically analyse scholarship in the field of CS during the period 2008-2010. This study is based on a review and an analysis of peer-reviewed and accredited journal articles published in three journals in South Africa. Walker (1992) argued that curriculum researchers would gain a better understanding of their own priorities as a field, if they studied the methods used. This would then allow them to develop methodological principles, which are suited to curriculum problems (Walker, 1992).

The significance of this study is that it is expected to not only characterise the field further, but also to elucidate the nature of CS scholarship through the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa in the period 2008-2010. The potential exists for this study to document practice by characterising scholarship in the various international and national theoretical and methodological perspectives. The theoretical framework will support this since it is designed to incorporate international and national theories and methodologies. The theoretical framework indicates a movement internationally towards scholarship in the internationalization perspective (Pinar, 2011) and nationally towards scholarship in critical curriculum work in the 'knowledge mode' (Hoadley, 2010). Scholars are thus presented with a view of the nature of curriculum studies in the three journals from 2008-2010 with a view to engaging with the nature of scholarship in the dominant perspectives and possibly engaging with scholarship practices.

1.7 SUMMARY OF REMAINING CHAPTERS

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature, with a focus on similar studies relevant to the field of CS. The first part of this chapter outlines the field of CS internationally and nationally. Relevant literature drawing on scholarship in the CS field, by Pinar (1978; 2011), Bassey and Constable (1997), Tooley and Darby (1998), Smith and Ewing (2002), Barriga (2003), Moreira (2003), Green (2003), Hoadley (2010), Hugo (2010), Le Grange (2010) and Rudolph et al. (2013), are reviewed. The chapter concludes with a section on the use of secondary sources to analyse scholarship.

Chapter 3 describes the theoretical framework of this study and it outlines the changes over time in the international conceptualisation in the field of CS from the traditionalist perspective to the internationalization perspective. In addition, this outline is complemented by a South African characterisation of CS scholarship. This chapter concludes with the general scientific and humanistic traditions, which inform research methodologies and methods in CS.

Chapter 4 presents a detailed description of the research design, where I discuss the choice of an interpretivist paradigm to guide a qualitative research study within the humanistic tradition. A justification for the case study approach follows the sample and data selection methods. The codes to analyse the data emerge inductively and deductively, and were also derive from the research questions and theoretical framework. This approach is argued as appropriate for a historical, analytical and conceptual study, which requires an in-depth exploration of the dominant attributes of CS scholarship. This chapter concludes with a discussion of self-reflexivity and ethical considerations in a study of this nature.

Chapter 5 comprises an account of the research findings by presenting the various disciplines, theories, and concepts that inform CS in South Africa. Next, I present the findings in terms of where CS scholarship was located in 2008-2010, in relation to international and national perspectives. The last section concludes with a presentation of the findings related to the problems and questions formulated by scholars, as well as the research methodologies and methods that inform CS.

Chapter 6 makes claims and discusses and interprets the research findings related to the dominant attributes of CS scholarship. The findings are also interpreted in relation to the literature by describing broad patterns that emerged across the data. Tentative explanations for the findings in relation to the research questions are also provided. The chapter concludes with a summary of the discussion.

Chapter 7 outlines the conclusions of this study. The findings are summarised and there are reflections on the methodology and approach taken in this research report. This chapter concludes with the implications of this study and makes suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature reviewed in this chapter is based on similar studies and it does not aim to provide a comprehensive review of the field of curriculum studies (CS). The context of this study is outlined by defining CS through its disciplinary roots, its specialisations and by mapping the field of CS internationally through a focus on 'internationalization' (Pinar, 20100). Next, I focus on knowledge structures to address concerns in the field of CS in South Africa. Relevant conceptual research is examined in relation to its relevance for this study. I use the literature to develop a rationale to illustrate the importance of this study; and secondly, to highlight the lack of information on the research problem. I argue that the dominant theoretical and methodological attributes of CS in South Africa are an under-researched area, which sets the context for why a study of this nature is important.

2.2 CURRICULUM STUDIES: AN OVERVIEW

2.2.1 Towards Defining Curriculum Studies

The field of CS needs to be viewed in relation to the object of its study, that is, the curriculum. Those who engage in research about the curriculum are always faced with having to define their terminology before they enter into any debate within the field of CS, and this study is no different. The concept of curriculum has been described by Smith and Ewing (2002), as being as old as the ancient Greeks. However, Schubert (1986) traces the concept further into the past and argues that the concept of curriculum may even be "as old as human beings themselves" (as cited in Smith & Ewing, 2002, p. 26).

Various definitions of curriculum exist due to the complexity within the concept itself. Yet, scholars such as Stenhouse (1983), Lovat and Smith (1995) and Carr (1993), concede that there are different definitions of curriculum, which are based on geographical location. Pinar traced the origin of the word curriculum to the ancient Greek civilisation, where it was derived from the Latin word "curro" meaning "I run" or "currere" meaning "to be running" (Pinar, 1979, as cited in Lovat & Smith, 1995, p. 8). Curriculum for the ancient Greeks was a "running track around which athletes would run and compete" (Lovat & Smith, 1995, p. 8). Pinar (1979), argued that the Latin word, "currere", means "running the race course" which is a verb, and this became the foundation of the mainstream understanding of this term in the CS field when

the word was changed to its noun form, that is, “the track” (Pinar, 1979, as cited in Lovat & Smith, 1995, p. 130).

Based on the historical context in South African, Hugo (2010), attempted to broaden an understanding of “currere”. He argued that a shift is required from understanding curriculum as a noun (a given course) to understanding “currere” as a process of running, as the latter emphasised curriculum as an active practice that took organised knowledge structures into account. Hugo’s argument is based on an understanding of curriculum as “growth and development” where “run” is replaced by “to climb (out of a cave) or ascend (a ladder) [or partake in] ... a chariot race”, rather than a race on a track (Hugo, 2010, p. 56). While Hugo focused on growth and development within “currere”, Pinar (2011) argued that “currere” includes the personification of individual lives through questions of history, society and culture. According to Pinar although the verb and noun for “currere” are intertwined, the verb is preferable because it stresses “action, process, and experience in contrast to the noun, which can convey stipulation and completion” (Pinar, 2011, p. 1). The emphasis of the verb “currere” is on the lived rather than the planned curriculum, and this is the reason for Pinar’s (2011) preference of the verb. For the purpose of understanding curriculum within this study, curriculum is defined as an active practice that accounts for organised knowledge structures (Hugo, 2010) within a complicated conversation that encourages educational experiences (Pinar 2011).

There are as many definitions of CS as there are of curriculum. According to Lovat and Smith (1995), the implication of the different definitions of CS, was that it broadened the nature of the term, and allowed CS to assume an interdisciplinary nature. Within the British context, Stenhouse (1983) offered a definition of CS that is more methodological in nature. He argued that “curriculum study is case study” (Stenhouse, 1983, p. 2) and that curriculum study was dependent upon how we perceived the relationship between intention and reality. Further, Stenhouse (1983) suggested that the central problem of curriculum study was the gap that existed between ideas and aspirations and any attempt to put them into operation, that is, the gap between theory and practice. Pinar (2011) also offered an appropriate definition of CS that was useful in this study. Writing within the American context, he defined CS as “an interdisciplinary academic field devoted to understanding curriculum” (Pinar, 2011, p. ix). However, Hugo (2010) provided a more in-depth definition of CS as “the critical investigation of the processes involved in engaging with knowledge structures that have been designed for

systematic learning" (p. 53). Smith and Ewing (2002), consider CS to be "the collective body of ideas, writing, research, policy and practice that related in some way to the concept of 'curriculum' and the questions, concerns, issues and problems with which it is concerned" (p.28). I argue that together the different definitions and arguments for curriculum and CS convey the complexities inherent in their history, location and meaning. For the purpose of this study, a working definition used for CS in South Africa, which is informed by the combination of the definitions provided, is that CS is an interdisciplinary field, in which curriculum issues are critically investigated from a research, policy and practice perspective.

2.2.2 Disciplinary Roots

The field of CS has its origins in educational psychology and sociology (Smith & Ewing, 2002). The interest in curriculum shown by educational psychologists emanated from those with an interest in theories of learning. According to Smith and Ewing (2002), psychology and philosophy exerted the most influence on CS from the 1940s until the 1970s. In the 1960s, Bruner (1963, as cited in Smith & Ewing, 2002) proposed that the most effective basis for curriculum development was the conceptual basis of each subject. Concept-based curriculum and constructivist approaches to learning also made an impact on CS in the 1980s and 1990s (Smith & Ewing, 2002).

In the 1970s sociologists, who were able to embed sociological issues and context in curriculum discussions, replaced the educational psychologists at the forefront of CS. Scholars in the United Kingdom (UK) such as Young (1971) and Bernstein (1971, 1986, 1990) and Bowles and Gintis (1976) in the United States of America (USA) also helped shape CS from a sociological perspective (as cited in Smith & Ewing, 2002). The social construction of knowledge through language and its implications for the selection and implementation of curriculum were of particular concern. Anyon (1980), Connell (1985, 1997), Giroux (1981) and Apple (1990), began to flesh out the relationship between ideology and curriculum as a dominant theme (as cited in Smith & Ewing, 2002). Political concerns; issues of power, access and participation; whose and what knowledge had worth; permeated different levels of the schooling systems (Smith & Ewing, 2002). Curriculum policy formation and interactions with teachers, schools and classroom practices were essential issues in CS. The themes highlighted by sociologists had direct implications for answers to curriculum questions of gender, poverty, race and ethnic diversity. They produced explicit results for questions concerning power, control, access and participation. When curriculum and classroom work began to adopt

structural functionalist, conflict and critical theory approaches, theorists from the UK, Canada, US, France, Germany, Australia and Scandinavia used these issues to advance the debate in the field of CS (Smith & Ewing 2002).

2.2.3 The Field of Curriculum Studies

Debates regarding the status of CS as a field or a discipline were central to determining the nature of CS. The consensus, as noted by Smith and Ewing (2002), was that CS was a field and not a discipline. The main reason cited to support the idea of CS as a field and not a discipline was that CS did not have central concepts or problems or a methodology to test claims against experience, within a community of scholars and practitioners who shared these concerns and problems (Smith & Ewing, 2002). Peters and Hirst (1970, as cited in Smith & Ewing, 2002), conceived of curriculum as a field that "draws on a number of areas of knowledge and is concerned with problems, which while having inextricably embedded theoretical components, clearly were concerned with issues of practice" (p. 31). However, according to Smith and Ewing (2002), CS is often based on educational psychology, philosophy of education and sociology of education as interdisciplinary fields. In this chapter, I will focus on the influence of the disciplines of sociology of education and educational psychology on the field of CS as these disciplines emerged in the literature as having the most influence on CS.

2.2.4 Specialisations in Curriculum Studies

The field of CS is diverse, because it has a variety of specialisations. According to Pinar (2007), the movement from Marxism to post-modernism, post-1995 fragmented the field into specialisations, such as, "1) curriculum history, 2) curriculum politics, 3) cultural studies, 4) race theory, 5) women's and gender studies, including queer theory, 6) post-colonial studies, 7) Jewish curriculum studies, 8) disability studies, 9) narrative (including autobiographical, auto-ethnographic, and biographic) inquiry, 10) complexity theory, 11) environmental studies, 12) psychoanalytic studies, 13) technology (especially computers), 14) arts-based research, and 15) internationalization" (cited in Pacheco, 2012, p.3). These specialisations or areas of study give an indication of the areas in which CS scholarship takes place within the field.

2.3 CURRICULUM STUDIES IN THE INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

Internationalization led to the emergence of CS as a worldwide field (Pinar, 2003). An understanding of curriculum inquiry within the context of the internationalization of CS has taken various forms in different countries. Pinar (2003) noted that the internationalization of

CS occurred in the USA and the UK in the form of critical curriculum thought, which related to the sociology of education. However, in other countries curriculum research and development initiatives have focused on school reform, which was a result of government policy initiatives. Based on CS in Mexico, Barriga (2003) argued that the field of curriculum was part of a practical domain, because the focus of scholarship was on school reform and the improvement of student performance. Critical scholarship in Mexico on school reform also indicated that the field of CS was not merely a "conceptual extension of the state's political and bureaucratic apparatus" (Pinar, 2003, p.17). However, while the focus in CS on school reform as a result of government policy initiatives was not unique to Mexico, Barriga (2003) showed that there were opportunities to contest education phenomena within local spaces in the Mexican context.

Curriculum Studies in Brazil led Moreira (2003) to argue that national and international circumstances caused a variation in the interactions and resistances to the introduction of foreign material in the Brazilian curriculum. In support of a the challenges faced by a local and international focus on curriculum issues, Green (2003) argued that from the Australian context, "understanding curriculum inquiry both as an international phenomenon and as a local, situated practice is a complex undertaking and a constant challenge" (p. 137). Canadian curriculum scholarship however, revealed an emphasis on the "hidden curriculum" (Chambers, 2003) and its role in reproducing social injustice. Curriculum scholarship in Canada has also centred mostly on phenomenology and hermeneutics and Chambers (2003) argued that phenomenology allowed scholars to be critical of abstract discourses that dominated the curriculum, and hermeneutics supported conversations in multi-cultural communities, which transcended national and cultural boundaries.

Curriculum studies in the US (Kridel & Newman, 2003), South Korea (Lee, 2003), Sweden (Johansson, 2003) and China (Abiko, 2003 & Hashimoto, 2003) indicated the potential of historical studies to enable an understanding of the specificities of national cultures and their underlying theory (Pinar, 2003). Zhang and Zhong (2003) in their history of CS in China, indicated a movement towards autonomy in Chinese CS and argued that while curriculum development is the current dominant paradigm in Chinese CS, the project of understanding the curriculum will become the future paradigm in advancing CS in their context.

According to Pinar (2003), scholarship in Canada, Australia, Brazil and Mexico provided an indication of future prospects which supported the advancement of the field of CS nationally

and worldwide. Further, he argued that each nation should support CS through teaching, scholarship, the establishment and maintenance of journals and other forms of infrastructure. Internationalization of CS has thus opened up possibilities for the field of CS to advance scholarship in CS (Pinar, 2003). In Mexico, Barriga (2003) indicated that university based curriculum researchers are confronted by limited opportunities to conduct research. These limited opportunities are further hampered by institutional pressure to conduct "practical research" (Pinar, 2003, p. 18), which led Pinar to argue that the internationalization of CS is a prerequisite for the field to advance. These studies provide an indication of research within the context of advancing scholarship in internationalization in the field of CS. However, I now turn to CS in the South African context to provide a context for this study.

2.4 CURRICULUM STUDIES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

While questioning what a historically informed and intentional definition of CS would look like, Hugo (2010) asked whether CS occurred in South Africa and whether we "critically investigate the processes involved in engaging with knowledge structures that have been designed for systematic learning?" (p. 53). His conclusion was that CS did indeed take place in South Africa, and it addressed current ongoing research concerns. Based on engaging the term curriculum, Le Grange (2010) traced the history of CS in South Africa over a 30-year period through his autobiographical account indicating that CS had indeed taken place in South Africa.

According to Hugo (2010), the characteristics of CS in South Africa was the result of a particular historical route. Hoadley (2010), Hugo (2010), and Le Grange (2010) emphasised the role of fundamental pedagogies in order to understand the reproduction of inequality and discrimination policies in education. A unique feature of Post-Apartheid Curriculum Studies (PACS) in South Africa emerged which involved a specialised internal debate and research in CS, which focused on Bernstein's theories and the nature of organised forms of knowledge (Hugo, 2010). Initially, PACS focused on democratisation and integration, and this overpowered a hierarchical understanding of CS (Hugo, 2010). The ideological war, among various factions that used different languages, influenced the CS field. Hugo (2010) argued that CS has an extrinsic and an intrinsic dimension: the former located CS within a complex socio-political context while the latter located CS in the "practice of systematically teaching and learning organised knowledge structures" (Hugo, 2010, p. 51). Furthermore, he argued that Bernstein's (1971) concepts of classification and framing are thus integral for an understanding

of the intrinsic knowledge structures. Hugo's (2010) research focus on CS is thus directed at organised forms of knowledge.

Hoadley (2010) however, considered CS as a field of study and questioned the nature of critical curriculum work in the former liberal White universities as well as the nature of scholarship in the former Black and Afrikaans universities. She tried to understand how the former Afrikaans and Black institutions conceptualised the nature of curriculum and their scholarly work. Hoadley (2010) argued that the different ways of considering and researching curriculum in the past have influenced the present. Her focus is thus on the "patterns into which the field has settled" (p. 126) as a consequence of the past. In tracing how divisions in scholarship emerged, she described her work concerning the major developments in the field of CS in South Africa over the past 30 years as "a broad, speculative sweep" (Hoadley, 2010, p. 31), which intended to open up questions for further research and consideration. Since Hoadley's (2010) study reports on research in CS scholarship until 2007, this study intends to build on a gap in the literature by exploring the dominant attributes of CS in South Africa from 2008-2010.

2.5 CONCEPTUAL RESEARCH STUDIES

Publications in journals are important indicators of scholarship, because this is where researchers compete for public esteem according to Tooley and Darby (1998). Articles published in journals also provide the evidence for educational researchers' scholarship. Based on the government's evaluation of university research output, publishing in journals is "what defines [academics] as researchers" (Tooley & Darby, 1998, p. 9). I have identified five conceptual studies (Bassey & Constable, 1997; Tooley & Darby, 1998; Smith & Ewing, 2002; Hoadley 2010, and Rudolph et al., 2013) in the literature, which are relevant to my literature review. Four of these studies (Bassey & Constable, 1997; Tooley & Darby, 1998; Smith & Ewing, 2002 & Hoadley, 2010) are qualitative, and only one (Rudolph et al., 2013) is a quantitative case study. Their studies collectively examines education and curriculum research in countries, such as, Australia, Britain, America and South Africa.

Research in the field of CS has relied on secondary sources of data to analyse scholarship (Bassey & Constable, 1997; Tooley & Darby, 1998; Smith & Ewing, 2002; Hoadley, 2010 & Randolph et al., 2013). Internationally, Smith and Ewing (2002) reviewed journal articles in Australian Curriculum Journals over a 5-year period. In the British context, Tooley and Darby (1998) reviewed 264 research articles in four education research journals, while Bassey and Constable (1997) analysed the titles of 12 000 educational research papers. In America,

Randolph et al. (2013) reviewed a sample of 42 articles from the Georgia Educational Researcher from 2003-2010. Locally, Hoadley (2010) reviewed 67 articles in three journals that were devoted to issues relating to schooling in South Africa.

The focus of inquiry into CS scholarship revolved around issues of methodology, the state of educational research as well as patterns of scholarship. Bassey and Constable (1996) and Tooley and Darby (1998), examined the state of educational research more broadly although their study focused on issues that were relevant to CS. However, Clark (2000) highlighted a limitation in Tooley and Darby's (1998) study, as they did not acknowledge the contentious distinction between qualitative and quantitative empirical research. Nevertheless, Randolph et al. (2013) argued that reviews that focused on research methods as opposed to research outcomes were useful, because they could be used to improve research practice, to inform debate and to identify pockets of practices. Further, Randolph et al. (2013) examined methodological characteristics, the characteristics of the authors and methodological quality of the articles analysed. In South Africa, Hoadley (2010) explored the patterns of scholarship, which characterised the field of CS. All these studies presented a snapshot into the broad, methodological focus of inquiry in international and national scholarship.

Issues in curriculum research and the isolation of research from the classroom context are often highlighted in concerns about educational research. Bassey and Constable (1997) argued that the isolation of educational research was a problem, because the research did not reach classroom teachers. According to Smith and Ewing (2002), topics for research included pedagogy, teacher professionalism, student attitudes towards entrepreneurship, diagnostic testing and literacy assessment, embodied learning, benchmarking, public and private education. This analysis was made in their 5-year review of articles from the Australian Journal of Curriculum Perspectives. In addition, Bassey and Constable (1997) found that in their study, curriculum issues accounted for approximately one third of the articles submitted, while one fifth were devoted to school/teacher/child and teaching/learning issues combined. Tooley and Darby (1998) contended that while Bassey and Constable (1997) mapped the research terrain, they did not provide an indication of the quality of the literature. Instead, Bassey and Constable (1997) analysed only the titles of the articles, so they were unable to provide judgements on the quality of the research in these articles.

Methodological concerns were highlighted in the reviews of articles in the five studies. The majority of articles reviewed in the four studies by Smith and Ewing (2002), Tooley and Darby

(1998), Bassey and Constable (1997) and Hoadley (2010), employed qualitative methods. While Randolph et al. (2013) found in their study that quantitative methods, such as correlational research, were dominant. Tooley and Darby (1998) found no problems with the conduct of the largely qualitative research evident in the majority of the empirical work that they reviewed. However, Randolph et al. (2013) found that case study approaches and correlational research were more prominent in their review, and that a few universities accounted for the majority of articles published. They showed that the research designs in most of the qualitative articles could not be determined as they were not clearly stated in the articles reviewed. Hoadley (2010) also found that the studies in the South African Journal of Education employed mostly quantitative methods. Consequently, there was a positivistic interpretation of data, which led to challenges concerning reliability because perception data was treated as unproblematic. According to Hoadley (2010), the researchers who worked in the 'knower mode' generally used a qualitative methodological approach, which was ethnographic. Their focus was on alternative methodologies, such as, participative methodologies. These researchers attempted to undermine the power relations between the researcher and the researched, in order to maximise the subjects' voices and to produce more authentic research. Structural concerns, such as positioning and identity, were evident in methods, such as, life history and biographical research. These concerns also dominated the cultural investigations in the articles that were analysed (Hoadley, 2010).

Within the theme of methodological rigour, Tooley and Darby (1998) highlighted the lack of triangulation and sampling bias. In addition, they expressed concerns regarding the presentation of research, where there was a lack of reporting about sample size and the methods of selecting the samples (Tooley & Darby, 1998). The caveat was that these limitations were not evident in all the research that was analysed by Tooley and Darby (1998), although these examples were rare. They also acknowledged good practice in qualitative research and qualitative methods, for example, how sampling was undertaken and sample sizes in their findings. Hoadley (2010) found that the sample in three cases was described in terms of racial composition, but without any reference to class as a social category. As a result, Hoadley (2010) argued that the reliability and validity of the findings of several studies in her review were compromised. Tooley and Darby (1998), Randolph et al. (2013) and Hoadley (2010) suggested in their respective reviews that the quality of the qualitative research articles could be improved.

The disciplines of sociology and psychology of education were dominant in the journals reviewed. Tooley and Darby's (1998) found that the disciplines of sociology, philosophy of education and education policy tended to highlight examples of good practice. But the arguments that introduced contentious propositions did not acknowledge their controversy and were logically incoherent, which made them fall short in terms of the criteria for good practice. According to Tooley and Darby (1998), the "adulation of great thinkers" (p. 56) in British Journals was a questionable practice, which involved an examination of educational episodes that drew on the works of Bourdieu, Lyotard and Foucault. The limitation of this approach was that these studies did not make it apparent how these thinkers contributed to the educational enterprise. Hoadley (2010) found that the work of those working in the 'knowledge mode' was located within sociology of education and Bernstein emerged as the "disciplinary hero" (p. 155). In her analysis of the South African Journals of Education, Hoadley (2010) found that the field of psychology of education was dominant. The reason was that most of the staff in the Faculties of Education at the former Afrikaans universities were psychologists.

The incremental and cumulative nature of research allowed researchers to take a critical stance on earlier work, as well as to advance debates in a particular field. No examples of a replication of research results could be found by Tooley and Darby (1998) in their sub-sample. Critical challenges to earlier work were also limited, and this led them to conclude that researchers were doing their research "largely in a vacuum, unnoticed and unheeded by anyone else" (Tooley & Darby, 1998, p. 6). Furthermore, Smith and Ewing (2002) noted little coherence in the articles that formed part of their review. In contrast, Hoadley (2010) highlighted an incremental and cumulative production of knowledge from those who worked in the 'knowledge mode' in South Africa. Hoadley (2010) and other researchers, such as, Collins (2004, as cited in Hoadley, 2010) attributed this to "a critical mass of scholars" who were "focused on a similar theoretical project ... knowledge production in the 'knowledge mode' has more of a triangular shape in relation to the empirical and theoretical knowledge being produced" (p. 156).

Critical engagement and consistency in the usage of theory over time fostered greater validity and reliability. In her review of the journals and their citation practices, Hoadley (2010) argued that there was almost no critical engagement between those who work in the 'knowledge mode' and those who work in the 'knower modes'. The theoretical eclecticism of those who work in the 'knower mode', led to a lack of consistency in theory usage by individuals over time. Further, Hoadley (2010) noted a lack of theory in the implementation of the studies, which

compromised the validity and reliability of several studies. Hoadley (2010) attributed this to what Bernstein terms "an internal language (theory) and external language (methodology for analysis)" (p. 155). There were ideological assumptions, which underpinned the research in her analysis of articles but these were often unexamined due to the lack of an internal language which could allow a theory to structure and analyse the data (Hoadley, 2010).

Smith and Ewing (2002) found that the perimeters of CS were unclear, but that the field was relevant to teacher education and teachers' work. Postmodern thinking was evident in the review of Australian journals by Smith and Ewing (2002). Hoadley (2010) also found evidence of postmodern and post-structural theories in the articles that were classified as focusing on the 'knower mode'. The purpose of Hoadley's (2010) analysis was to show the diversity of the field of CS in South Africa and the lack of articulation between different bodies of work. Hoadley (2010) concluded that the field of CS was fragmented as it was characterised by non-cumulative knowledge production with very little inter-referencing among publications. She argued that this self-referential research was allowed to take place, because it operated within a closed peer review system.

Hoadley's (2010) study is relevant to my study, both from a theoretical and a methodological perspective. Theoretically, Hoadley (2010) offers a conceptualisation of scholarship in the field of CS, which I found useful, and will adopt in this study. Methodologically, Hoadley (2010) also reviewed the same journals, the South African Journal of Education (SAJE), Perspectives in Education (PiE) and the Journal of Education (JoE), that I have chosen to use as the basis for my research. Her sample and sample selection confirmed the appropriateness of my methodological approach in this study. Hoadley (2010) described her work as "a broad, speculative sweep" (p. 164) that intended to open up questions for deeper research and consideration. My study intends to build on her work, by focusing on the theoretical and methodological attributes that informs CS scholarship in South Africa in a later period. There is a gap in research on CS in the literature during the period 2008 to 2010, since Hoadley's (2010) study ended in 2007. The theoretical and methodological attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa are an under-researched area, and my study aims to address the lack of information in this area during the period 2008-2010 (see Figure 2.1).

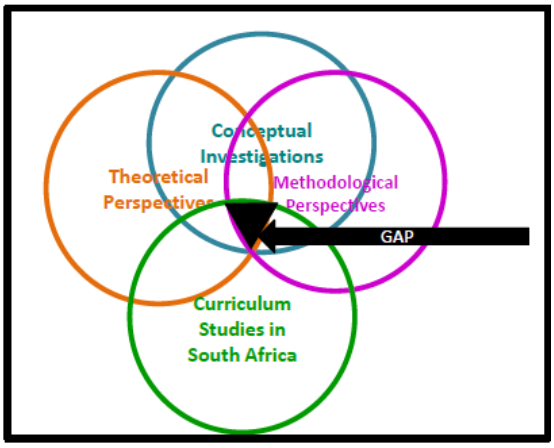


Figure 2.1: Gap in the Literature Review

2.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I presented an overview of the field of CS, which established that CS is a field of study with its origins in educational psychology and sociology, and from within which various research specialisations emerged. Based on a previous definition by Pinar, Hugo (2010) developed a historical definition of CS, which was anchored in PACS and informed by debates and research on the nature of organised forms of knowledge. This revealed patterns of scholarship in the South African context, which mimicked the subordination of pedagogy and epistemology (Hoadley, 2011; Hugo, 2010).

Conceptual studies were previously undertaken in international research by Smith and Ewing (2002), Bassey and Constable (1996), Tooley and Darby (1998) and by Rudolph et al. (2013). These studies analysed journal articles, and highlighted methodological concerns, the non-cumulative nature of research and the remoteness of research from classroom teachers. In South Africa, Hoadley (2010) reviewed journal articles and expressed concerns related to validity and reliability of the research. The gap in the literature that I have identified relates to an analysis of the dominant theoretical and methodological attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa. Apart from Hoadley (2010), I have not found extensive literature that incorporates the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa. Building on the work done by Hoadley (2010), I have chosen to focus on the period 2008-2010 in order to address the gap in the context of inquiry into the nature of scholarship in CS. The main research questions posed in this study thus relates to the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa in the period 2008-2010. The literature reviewed and the theoretical framework in the next chapter will assist me to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

The theoretical framework presented in this chapter is informed firstly, by an international perspective (Pinar, 1978; 2011), secondly, a national perspective (Hoadley, 2010) of CS and thirdly, by general scientific and humanistic research traditions in CS. While the international perspectives in CS are important, national perspectives provide relevance within the South African context. Four historic movements have emerged internationally in the field of CS: traditionalist, conceptual-empiricism, reconceptualization and internationalization (see Figure 3.1).

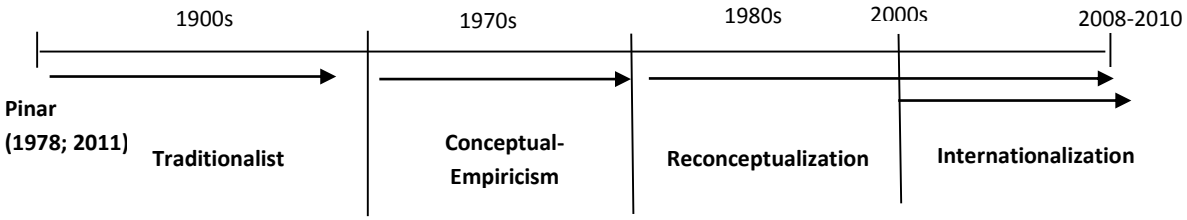


Figure: 3.1 Timeline of International Perspectives on Curriculum Studies (Pinar, 1978; 2011)

However, as will be discussed in this chapter, these international perspectives allow only for a partial understanding of CS scholarship in South Africa, I have thus incorporated the national characterisation of the field of CS, as suggested by Hoadley (2010). While Pinar's (1978; 2011) perspectives have their origins in the international context, Hoadley's (2010) research was undertaken in the SA context and the term national context has thus been used for the SA perspectives which she developed. She divided the field of CS in South Africa into three categories of scholarship: a political sociology account of curriculum processes; critical curriculum work; and, curriculum development and implementation (see Figure 3.2). Both the international and national perspectives are informed by the general scientific and humanistic research traditions and are able to offer insights into CS in terms of their respective methodologies and methods. The combination of theoretical perspectives and research traditions form the theoretical framework for this study (see Figure 3.2). I now turn to the international perspectives on curriculum studies in the next section.

3.2 INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES IN CURRICULUM STUDIES SCHOLARSHIP

3.2.1 Traditionalist

The traditionalist perspective of curriculum development was started in 1949 (Lincoln, 1992). Tyler (1949) was described as the father of modern CS, although John Dewey initiated discussions, in the 1920s about issues that might be related to curriculum (as cited in Smith & Ewing, 2002). The goal of the traditionalist perspective was based on Tyler's (1949) view of curriculum work as a "linear, staged process beginning with the identification of aims and objectives, followed by selecting and organising relevant experiences and concluding with an evaluation of whether or not these 'consciously willed goals' had been successfully achieved" (as cited in Smith & Ewing, 2002, p. 33). Tyler's approach was termed the 'Tyler rationale' and this approach was applied to the curriculum by Taba (1962) in the USA, Wheeler (1967) in Australia and by Peters and Hirst (1970) in the United Kingdom (Smith & Ewing, 2002). The Tyler rationale had its roots in either rationalist philosophy or educational psychology (Lovat & Smith, 1995) and employed technical approaches to plan and develop curriculum.

This approach to curriculum development embodied the foundational concepts and ideas that dominated the CS field from the beginning of the twentieth century (Christodoulou, 2010). The traditionalist perspective focused on the "conventional wisdom" of the field and consequently curriculum writing was characterised by "service to practitioners" (Pinar, 1978, p. 121). This meant that the traditionalist contribution to the field of CS was field-based research on the school, and focused on: (1) curriculum objectives and what the curriculum should attempt to do (2) student behaviours and what students should know and/or be able to do and (3) teacher activities and what a teacher should do in delivering the curriculum (Lincoln, 1992). The traditionalist perspective thus served the needs of practitioners and informed curriculum development. However, because they based their work on the Tyler rationale they were consequently termed Tylerian 'traditionalists', which made them subject to the limitations of his ideas.

Limitations in the traditionalist perspective were highlighted within the field of CS, for example, Tyler failed to locate the school in the wider social context (Christodoulou, 2010). Other criticisms were that the Tyler rationale ignored pluralism, the economics of curriculum decisions, as well as the cultural, social and the political aspects of the curriculum (Lincoln, 1992). In addition, the traditionalist perspective ignored how practical problems within specific

contexts influenced the way research on curriculum could be approached (Schwab, 1970, as cited in Lincoln, 1992). Pinar (1978) argued that the perceived realities of classroom and school settings seemed to be of more interest to the traditionalist approach than basic research, theory development and related developments in allied fields. Due to the intended audience (school teachers), the curriculum work of the traditionalists, as described by Pinar (1978), tended to be written in a journalistic style. This made their work accessible to teachers who needed answers to pressing practical problems. Consequently, the traditionalist perspective suffered from a lack of attention to theory building and scientific rigour (Pinar, 1978). The recognition of these limitations internationally, in the mid-1970s, allowed curriculum theory to move in different directions: theorists expanded the realm of curriculum development to include aspects such as history, race, politics, gender, aesthetics, and postmodernism (Pinar, 1995, as cited in Schubert, 2008). Despite these limitations the traditionalist perspective, is still relevant to CS in South Africa due to curriculum changes, which have taken place in the post-Apartheid era. Nevertheless, in the USA new directions in curriculum theory made space for the conceptual-empiricism perspective, which follows in the next section.

3.2.2 Conceptual-Empiricism

Conceptual-empiricism emerged due to a crisis in curriculum development and signalled a move away from the traditionalist perspective. According to Pinar (1978), the leadership of this reform movement in the 1960s emanated largely from outside the field. The economic situation in the 1960s reduced funding for CS and for in-service work (Pinar, 2009). In this way, colleagues in cognate fields, particularly from the social sciences, subjected curriculum and other sub-fields in education to criticism regarding their scholarly standards.

Wraga and Hlebowitsh (2003) claimed that curriculum scholars should lead the establishment of scholarly standards in curriculum, because they believed that research in education had become indistinguishable from social science research. Although Pinar (1978) drew on Walker's work, which was grounded in the social sciences, he argued that the proliferation of conceptual-empiricism in the field of curriculum created a situation in which the identity of education was blurred. The reason was that these conceptual-empiricist researchers' primary identities tended to be in cognate fields, such as psychology, philosophy or sociology with "research interests" (Pinar, 1978, p. 124) in schools and education related issues.

The expansion of the field of CS to include disciplines such as social sciences, humanities and the arts, ushered in a critical examination of the effects of education on individuals and society,

as well as raising questions about the purpose of knowledge as it related to curriculum (Christodoulou, 2010). From a methodological perspective, conceptual-empiricist developed hypotheses and then tested these hypotheses in methodological ways, which are characteristics of mainstream social science (Pinar, 2009). Conceptual-empiricist tended to focus on behaviour resulting from curricular interventions that would give an indication of retention and mastery of concepts, ideas and skills that a teacher chose as an appropriate outcome for a particular classroom lesson. Based on social science concepts, they argued that scientific education research conducted by education and applied researchers should inform curriculum design. Conceptual-empiricism was thus invigorating and beneficial to CS as a theoretical perspective due to the rigour it incorporated into the field from the social sciences.

However, a limitation of the conceptual-empiricism perspective is that it largely subscribes to the notion that education is not a discipline in itself and as such should be studied by others. Even within the context of limited research in CS, Schubert (2008) disagreed with this assertion because it rendered the work of those who focused on curriculum development and implementation to mere consultants in their own field. Nevertheless, the contribution made by conceptual-empiricism to the field of CS is that it allowed educators, researchers and scholars to play a role in curriculum and to obtain valid and appropriate information to advance CS (Christodoulou, 2010), as well as the field. Pinar (1978), as a CS scholar, for example, advanced the field by creating an awareness of the complexity and historical significance of curriculum issues through his reconceptualization of the field.

3.2.3 Reconceptualization

The field of curriculum theorising underwent key shifts from the early 1970s to the late 1980s. These shifts can partly be attributed to the rise of non-positivistic methods and traditions of scholarship and inquiry according to Short (1984, 1986, 1987 cited in Lincoln 1992, p. 86). Curriculum inquiry thus became a central theme of educational experiences. According to Pinar (1978), a "movement" became apparent in the field of CS in the USA in the 1970s, where various terms such as "reconceptualizm" and "the new curriculum theory" were used to characterise this new "movement" (p. 121). Pinar (2011) advocated a movement towards new ways of understanding curriculum theory as an interdisciplinary field committed to the study of educational experiences. Pinar (2011) thus posed the question: what is this reconceptualization of curriculum studies? Further, he stated that in order to answer to this

question, we needed to examine the field as it was, because the answer was not easily discernible.

Pinar (1975, as cited in Lincoln, 1992) identified two types of reconceptualists. Firstly, there were those who criticised the prevailing traditionalist curriculum theory. These reconceptualists were concerned with the new curriculum discourse that reinforced the features of a social theory linked to Marxist or neo-Marxist perspectives, which used class, hegemony and ideology for the purposes of analysis (Pacheco, 2012). Secondly, there were some reconceptualists, who represented a diverse group that could not easily be characterised since they represented a range of schools of thought "or discourses, within curriculum studies" (Pinar, 1988a, as cited in Lincoln, 1992, p. 85). Schubert et al., (2002) described the reconceptualization perspective as a political wave that was characterised by the expansion of discourses associated with autobiographical, psychoanalytical and deconstructionist approaches (as cited in Pacheco, 2012).

The reconceptualists are theorists who migrated from other discourses, such as, linguistics, critical theory, existentialism, phenomenology, psychoanalysis and radical psychology (Smith & Ewing, 2002) and they brought with them new perspectives. The goal of the reconceptualization of curriculum development was to understand the meaning of the curriculum itself. According to Smith and Ewing (2002), the ideas and questions of the reconceptualists unsettled traditional themes and plots and served to construct new stories. This led to the emergence of different stories, biographies and discourses using multiple voices and perspectives. Simple, linear and complete stories faded, and the stories of these postmodern curriculum writers were described as partial, incomplete, evolving, fragmented, recursive and reflexive (Smith & Ewing, 2002). The focus on technical skills for curriculum development and implementation as used by the traditionalists was discarded by the reconceptualists, and it changed to interrogating and deconstructing curriculum discourses to develop a deeper and more critical understanding of the curriculum (Cherryholmes, 1988; Pinar et al., 1995, as cited in Lincoln, 1992). Although this may have been the goal of the reconceptualists, Lincoln (1992) noted that the practical concerns raised by Schwab in the 1960s and 1970s still persisted as concerns within CS. This continuity may have persisted because not all traditionalists or conceptual-empiricists adopted the reconceptualization perspective.

However, reconceptualization offered a perspective on curriculum issues that acknowledged the significance, the complexity and the historical nature of the broader society. The concerns

of the reconceptualists revolved around the "political dimension of curriculum; … the nature of educational experience, and the disciplined understanding of the educational experience, particularly in its political, cultural, gender and historical dimensions" (Pinar, 1988a, as cited in Lincoln, 1992, p. 85). Pinar (1978) argued that reconceptualists believed that "what is necessary is a fundamental reconceptualization of what curriculum is, how it functions, and how it might function in emancipatory ways" (p. 127). It is this commitment to a comprehensive critique and development of theory, which distinguished reconceptualization from other perspectives and gave it its own character (Pinar, 2009).

Pinar (2011) identified new modes of scholarship, due to the influence of post-structuralism and postmodernism. These new modes included identity, cultural studies, gender studies, feminist theory, political theory, racial theory, literary theory and queer theory. According to Pinar (2011), these conceptual theories served to redefine the field of CS and provided reformulated research methodologies, which created new paradigms for CS. Reconceptualization thus brought to the field dynamic experiences and the sharing of emerging concepts of curriculum with a wide array of international educators, instead of being a remote event that occurred in the 1970s (Pacheco, 2012).

New paradigms were proposed by Pinar (1978) since he was at the forefront of dissent against the traditionalist, and he led attempts to reconceive the curriculum in a much broader and humanistic way than had previously been the case. As part of the reconceptualist perspective, Pinar (1988a, as cited in Lincoln, 1992) identified categories in the newer traditions such as "political analysis (scholars with a focus on social consciousness and cultural politics); aesthetic criticism; phenomenological studies (including autobiography as a form of critical pedagogy); historical studies (including critical studies but excluding post- critical studies); feminist studies (including an emphasis on gender-related aspects of the educational experiences" (Lincoln, 1992, p. 86). Post-structural inquiry and deconstructionism are also included as organising categories for the reconceptualists (Lincoln, 1992). These categories are used to structure an argument since they are relevant broadly to curriculum theorising. They also served as human constructs, which are shared. According to Lincoln (1992), these constructs also served as tools that can be used in educational research.

Reconceptualists viewed research as a political and intellectual endeavour (Pinar, 2009), that influenced both research and those participating in the research. According to Lincoln (1992), work in the newer traditions enabled the field of CS to rethink itself. These traditions served to

create a climate where criticism, dialogue and reshaping of CS could take place irrespective of whether they became accepted models or methods in curriculum inquiry over time. Curriculum, curriculum theory and curriculum inquiry have thus been characterised by debates around "what the curriculum field is, and [what its relationship is or ought to be] to cognate fields" (Kliebard, 1975, as cited in Lincoln, 1992, p. 84).

Criticism against Pinar's labels for the paradigm shifts (such as, traditionalist, conceptual-empiricism and reconceptualization), and especially reconceptualization were highlighted by Lincoln (1992). She pointed out that these labels imposed a limitation on the discussion of other possibilities for tracing the history of the various perspectives. Lincoln (1992) argued that it was more productive to think of the different perspectives as 'doors' through which one could enter the field of curriculum, and be guided by practical and research needs.

In addition, Tanner and Tanner (1979) directed their criticism of the reconceptualization perspective at Pinar who was one of the reconceptualists (as cited in Lincoln, 1992). They criticised Pinar and, by extension, other reconceptualists, for having a political agenda and for representing themselves as "the 'heirs' to the curriculum field" (Lincoln, 1992, p. 85) even though they lacked a theoretical base and an identifiable reconceptualist theory. However, in defence of the reconceptualists, Fay (1987, as cited in Lincoln, 1992) pointed out that the new theoretical formulations, such as, critical theory have radical political critiques of society embedded in them. Pinar's (1978) defence of this new perspective was an acknowledgement that the field needed to move to new ways of understanding curriculum. As a result, the reconceptualization perspective has served as a movement that carved out its place in historical discussions concerning CS. It has developed a curriculum theory, which is related to a paradigm, that is premised on understanding (Pinar, 1978). The understanding of curriculum is relevant to this study due to the changes in curriculum in South Africa from (2008-2010) with the move from the NCS to the RNCS.

However, there are criticisms of reconceptualization, because it was perceived as being too distant from political changes (Null, 2008). In defence of reconceptualization, Null (2008) argued that some reconceptualists are in favour of political change. Apple (1990, cited in Null, 2008) for example, drew attention to concepts such as the hidden curriculum, which highlighted how the curriculum was able to reproduce societal inequalities based upon race, class and gender. Goodson (1993, as cited in Null, 2008) was particularly concerned about how the curriculum and specifically subjects, such as, biology, geography and vocational training

related to the reproduction of class inequalities. This concern is similar to work done by Carr (1993) on how the curriculum functioned to transmit, sustain and contest the ideologies and social structures of society. Further, Null (2008) argued that the language of curriculum encompassed all areas of education, but this relates to the unease about the foundations upon which curriculum development has been built. This led Pinar (2010) to argue that the success of the reconceptualization perspective was in the emergence of internationalization.

3.2.4 Internationalization

Following on from the reconceptualization movement in CS, the term post-reconceptualization has emerged to describe the next movement (Pinar, 2011). Post-reconceptualization and internationalization appeared in 2000 and has lasted into the present (Chi Kin Lee, 2010; Pinar, 2011) without a clear break between reconceptualization and the movement that followed it. According to Malewski (2010a), the post-reconceptualization movement in the USA has passed, although debates about its significance remain. However, Malewski (2010b) contended that the term post-reconceptualization was misleading since no attempt was made to convey its conceptual content, to demonstrate its character, or to state its particular mission.

In the absence of a clearly defined theory, some scholars viewed post-reconceptualization as a new era defined by a postmodern understanding of curriculum (Pinar et al., 1995). It appeared that the aim of the post-reconceptualization movement was to focus on contemporary scholarship in CS. According to Malewski (2010b), "post-reconceptualization rather than being a break or a shift in terms for curriculum studies scholarship, seems to foreground new sensibilities within the field such as: (1) flux and change; (2) hybrid spaces; (3) reading differently; (4) divergent perspectives; (5) different contexts; (6) status question; and (7) understudied histories" (p. 536). A postmodern eclectic approach, which continued from the reconceptualization perspective, was found also in post-reconceptualization and according to Pacheco (2012) it made room for broad theoretical approaches, which added new theoretical meanings to CS. The multiplicity of voices in the field was acknowledged and it encouraged inquiries into issues of race, gender, culture and identity (Pacheco, 2012).

Research in postmodernism and post-structuralism allowed post-reconceptualist theorists to achieve several things: they addressed the legitimisation of curriculum theory, acknowledged the multiplicity of voices and relocated the political issue by using a new approach (Pacheco, 2012). Pinar (2006a) argued that as a theoretical approach, post-reconceptualization reverted

to address the main question of curriculum studies, "what knowledge is of most worth?" (as cited in Pacheco, 2012, p. 8), as a methodological problem. Other modes of inquiry included questions, such as, "what is taught?" (Young, 2010). An awareness of the post-reconceptualization movement in CS provides a context for why a new perspective was needed to address curriculum issues.

As the second wave of reconceptualization, post-reconceptualization is not without its limitations. Post-reconceptualization served as a short-lived movement due to its emergence as a continuation of the reconceptualization perspective but not as a movement in its own right. Consequently, questions were posed whether the future of curriculum theorising are in post-reconceptualization (Pacheco, 2012). Another criticism against post-reconceptualization was that Pinar (2008) never made use of the term post-reconceptualization. Instead he only acknowledged the traditionalist, conceptual-empiricism, reconceptualization and internationalization as perspectives in CS.

As a perspective, internationalization was recognised in the field of CS as a movement with a unique perspective (Pinar, 2008). Prior to internationalization, the field of CS emphasised school improvement. However, Pinar (as cited in Chin Kin Lee, 2010) advocated that more prominence be given to understanding curriculum theory and history, and this included curriculum development and evaluation as themes of inquiry. Pinar argued that internationalization needed to address the horizontality "global to local" and verticality "historical and future-oriented studies across national, regional and global levels" of the field of CS (as cited in Chin Kin Lee, 2010, p. 501). This new emphasis on global and local issues thus broadens the field theoretically and is relevant to this study since it enables research in CS within this perspective.

Pacheco (2012) argued that the internationalization of CS is based on two pillars, that is, globalisation and diversity. By using Clarence's (2011) definition, globalisation "as a process of convergence of processes that use a common vocabulary about curriculum reform" (as cited in Pacheco, 2012). This was made possible due to the centrality of knowledge in the curriculum and the development of national identity, which was increasingly defined by transnational agendas (Pacheco, 2012). National governments shaped globalisation and Clarence (2011, as cited in Pacheco, 2012) argued that a "convergence towards a common elementary core" (p. 12) prevailed. What happens in the classroom varies around the world according to Clarence (2011, as cited in Pacheco, 2012) since the curriculum in action is decided by the teacher and

student in particular context. The intended curriculum may thus have elements of homogenisation, but the enacted curriculum is diverse (Pacheco, 2012). Anderson-Levitte (2008) reinforced this view by arguing that the curricula of the nations that achieve the highest scores are diverse and differ in their individual detail and in how they are enacted in the classroom (as cited in Pacheco, 2012, p. 12). National curriculum identities are thus maintained despite global influences on curriculum.

However, internationalization differs from globalisation: the distinction is that the convergence of economic globalisation implies uniformity, but the internationalization of CS makes room for local, national and cultural specificities which "now exist in relationship with unfolding world circumstances" (Carson 2009, as cited in Pacheco, 2012, p. 13). Internationalization, rather than globalisation, was chosen by Pinar (2003) to describe the current movement in CS, because internationalization focuses on the national context in which global politics takes place. Pinar (2010) argued that the dilemma facing the internationalization of CS is "how to engage in international conversation cognizant of world history and present injustices but not fated to reenact them" (Pinar, 2010. p.1).

Pinar (2010) argued that by using the term internationalization an understanding of one's own context as well as other international contexts was possible. According to Chi Kin Lee (2010), international curriculum inquiry and comparative curriculum research enrich curriculum discourses through different cultural or cross-cultural perspectives. There is emerging research in the field of CS with a focus on internationalization by Barriga (2003) in Mexico, Moreira (2003) in Brazil, Green (2003) in Australia and Chambers (2003) in Canada, and this indicates that internationalization is the next movement in CS (Pinar, 2010). How internationalization could be used in this study to understand CS in a post-Apartheid South African context as well as CS in the international context makes it applicable as part of the theoretical framework for this study. While the traditional, conceptual-empiricism, reconceptualization and internationalization perspectives (Pinar, 1978; 2011) constitute a useful international theoretical framework, the combination with a more contextual national theoretical framework is better suited to this study.

3.3 NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE IN CURRICULUM STUDIES SCHOLARSHIP

Hoadley (2010) divides the field of CS in South Africa into three categories of scholarship: (1) a political sociology account of curriculum processes, with a focus on policy studies; (2) critical curriculum work in the "knowledge and knower mode"; and, (3) curriculum development and

implementation, which is the "bureaucratic mode" (p. 126-127). This characterisation informs the national aspect of the theoretical framework for this study since its focus is on CS scholarship in South Africa and its origins are based on the same three journals that form the sample for this study.

3.3.1 Political Sociology Account of Curriculum Processes

In the realm of policy studies, the post-1994 curriculum was politically motivated to position South Africa in the global context (Hoadley, 2011). Strong social goals were foregrounded to address past inequalities, human rights, and democracy. Global developments led policy makers to turn their attention to qualification frameworks as a means of integrating education and training and providing equivalence (Allais, 2010). This signalled a shift in education policy as it was the first time that South Africa embraced one system. Pedagogical short-comings soon became evident in Outcomes Based Education (OBE), which led to the review of OBE and the implementation of Curriculum 2005 (C2005) with a critical look at 'knowledge and knower modes' (Hoadley, 2011). These modes provide a framework to determine research in CS and emphasised knowledge in the curriculum the (knowledge mode) and individual perspectives, identities or voices (the knower mode) (Hoadley, 2010, p. 227).

According to Hoadley (2010), the curriculum project in South Africa post-1994 was based on a political sociology account of the curriculum process, which emphasised policy studies and generated distinctive models of curriculum and pedagogy in South Africa. There was contestation regarding the different types of knowledge in the post-1994 period. Debates based on Bernstein's work (Hoadley, 2010) ensued about whether to include school knowledge or everyday knowledge in the curriculum and how this knowledge should best be transmitted. How knowledge was to be learned was thus diluted by what was to be learned and the constructivist theory of learning was transformed into 'pedagogic techniques' resulting in the blending of knowledge, knowers and knowing (Hoadley, 2011). Curriculum changes were thus underpinned by Bernstein's theories, which highlighted knowledge boundaries and social justice. His theories were considered to be suitable for South Africa, as the policy context emphasised social justice.

The conflation and confusion between curriculum and pedagogy in the NCS created problems during the implementation phase of this curriculum, without improving the education in the majority of schools in South Africa (Hoadley, 2011). Hoadley (2011) asserted that the consideration of knowledge and the knower, as well as the theory of knowledge, was essential

to structure the curriculum in relation to what students could and should do. In addition, Hoadley (2011) argued that the result was that access to disciplinary and specialised forms of knowledge were privileged over the transmission of knowledge over time to give credence to social justice as a national priority. This occurred more prominently following the review of the NCS in 2009.

The teachers' role in relation to the NCS changed, because teachers were removed from their "own practice" (Hoadley, 2011, p. 154). Within the policy context, control over pedagogy may have signalled the ideal, but in reality the move from the 'traditional' to a 'constructivist' pedagogy did not unfold in practice as planned. With regard to control over pedagogy, Bernstein (2000) stresses the authority of the transmitter (the teacher) in pedagogic relationships, with the teacher and student being in an unequal relationship.

Differentiation in knowledge domains in education between school and everyday knowledge, as well as racial differentiations between schools, led to a focus on social class as the basis for an unequal distribution of knowledge to students. Arguments for maintaining the distinction between different domains of knowledge as well as those for maintaining the separation took place within the context of integration. The flattening of knowledge structures and the move towards integration was described by Ensor (2001) as an attempt to collapse knowledge structures between education and training, between academic and everyday knowledge, between groups on the basis of race and class and between different forms of knowledge. Based on the sociological literature, differentiation is attributed to class and the goal of those who drew on Bernstein's theories was to collapse boundaries that created differentiation in C2005 (Hoadley, 2010).

3.3.2 Critical Curriculum Work (Knowledge and Knower Modes)

Hoadley (2010) characterised CS scholarship into critical curriculum work in the "knowledge and knower modes" (Hoadley, 2010, p. 126). Within South Africa, the structuring and significance of knowledge in the curriculum was of importance, and Hoadley (2010) called this the 'knowledge mode' (p.126). Bernstein argued that educational knowledge "is not just a relay for power relations external to it, but [it] has an internal logic" (Hoadley, 2010, p. 21). Hoadley (2010) argues that those who worked in the knowledge mode have a narrow, tight focus on knowledge. This included its structure, production and reproduction. The knowledge mode gives an indication of knowledge and knowledge structures in the curriculum and thus provides a means to analyse CS scholarship in this mode.

In contrast to the "knowledge mode" (Hoadley, 2010, p. 126), Hoadley (2010) identified the dominance of the "knower mode" (p. 126) in South African CS scholarship. She argued that those who work in the 'knower mode' misrecognise the knowledge boundary. The explanation provided by Moore and Muller (1999), for why some scholars did not have a focus on knowledge is that the theory in the 'knower mode' is "often used loosely, as 'orientations' or as 'pointers' lacking a 'stable', explicit and rigorous methodology or production" (as cited in Hoadley, 2011, p. 25). The authenticity of the subject's voice was sought through qualitative research methods: concerns around voice, constructivism, the notion of relevance and those who focused on indigenous knowledge were dominant in the 'knower mode'. Pedagogy and curriculum were also viewed in relation to the validation of learners' and teachers' experiences. Based on work in the 'knower mode', Hoadley (2010) argued that the focus in South Africa is on the knower and the knower's perspective without a meaningful discussion of knowledge or pedagogy. The central focus of scholarship on indigenous knowledge signalled the dominance of 'western knowledge' in the curriculum as well as the oppressive nature of the exclusion of indigenous forms of knowledge (Hoadley, 2010). In addition, Hoadley (2010) argued that the identity and prior knowledge of the learner was emphasised through experience, voice and particular forms of pedagogy. Curriculum 2005 focused on the 'knower mode', in order to understand how different learners with different social attributes obtain knowledge through the implementation of the official curriculum.

3.3.3 Curriculum Development and Implementation (Bureaucratic Mode)

Hoadley (2010) identified scholarship in CS in terms of curriculum development and its implementation, which she labelled the "bureaucratic mode" (p. 157). Teacher training was paramount in this conception given its goal of enhancing the implementation of the official curriculum. According to Hoadley (2010), those who worked in the "bureaucratic mode" (p. 157) considered it their responsibility to implement government policy, and were involved in teacher training initiatives. This meant there were financial benefits in adopting the 'bureaucratic mode', because it led to the receipt of substantial resources from the government. Hoadley (2010) gave the following example: scholarship in the former Afrikaans Universities was perceived as largely indicative of the 'bureaucratic mode', because the official position on curriculum and pedagogy were foregrounded at the expense of critique. The theoretical resource for the 'bureaucratic mode' was drawn from the 'knower mode', which emphasised theories such as OBE and constructivism. The 'knower mode' also formed the basis for political legitimacy in the 'bureaucratic mode'.

Research in the 'bureaucratic mode' focused on investigating teachers and learners' attitudes to the concept of constructivism, problem-based learning, performance in administered tests, self-regulating and cooperative learning and metacognition (Hoadley, 2010). Hoadley (2010) commented that the justification provided by scholars for research in these areas was that these constructs were present in the national curriculum policy, therefore they were worthy of investigation. The focus of research in the 'bureaucratic mode' was also directed towards the teachers and their qualifications and pedagogic deficits (Hoadley, 2010). Scholarship in the 'bureaucratic mode' revealed a fragmentation in the CS field, with the result that there was a non-cumulative effect on knowledge production (Hoadley, 2010). In the next section, I focus on research in the scientific and humanistic traditions of CS.

3.4 RESEARCH IN THE SCIENTIFIC TRADITION OF CURRICULUM STUDIES

3.4.1 Quantitative Research

Darling-Hammond and Snyder (1992) defined the scientific tradition of inquiry in CS as "encompassing all empirical research methods that systematically examine curriculum, teaching, learning and their interrelationships" (p. 42). Quantitative research in the scientific tradition is usually associated with the positivist paradigm (Roberts-Holmes, 2011), which is used to understand the world and human behaviour within the world in a particular way. It viewed the scientific tradition as objective, and used it to examine the measured effects of various types of curriculum experiences. This enabled researchers to study the history of the scientific approach to CS from a conceptual and methodological perspective. As a conceptual framework, it offered a means of supporting and evaluating curriculum decisions "about the nature of learning and the effects of teaching choices on various learning outcomes" (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992, p. 41). This approach identified a hypothesis or an assumption, which was proved to be true or false by using experiments and large sample sizes, so that researchers could generalise from their findings (Roberts-Holmes, 2011). Through empirically grounded and systematic studies of classroom analysis and student learning, the scientific tradition also provided a range of procedures to understand and advance curriculum theory and practice. Darling-Hammond & Snyder (1992) argued that studies were usually based on psychological, social, political and economic theories, where the results of these studies took the form of quantitative statistical representation of curriculum investigations. Curriculum research thus had a grounding in the scientific research traditions with a focus on objectivity in the research conducted.

The choice of quantitative methods to address a research problem requires the researcher to be familiar with "measurement, statistics, and quantitative data collection, such as experiments, correlational design, or survey techniques" (Creswell, 2012, p. 20). Experimental designs are quantitative designs that can be used to test whether an idea or educational practice makes a difference in the lives of individuals. According to Creswell (2012), synonyms for experimental design were interventions or group comparison studies. While experimental and correlational designs were useful, survey designs enable a researcher to describe trends in a large population of randomly selected individuals. A survey or questionnaire is usually administered to a small group of people to ascertain the trends in attitudes, opinions, behaviours, or characteristics that might relate to a larger group of people (Creswell, 2012).

Experimental, correlation and survey designs were particularly suited to the scientific tradition, since observational and descriptive strategies were used to advance the knowledge base within the CS field. Investigations included empirical studies of "students and their learning, teachers and their teaching, subject matter and its structure, and the context for curriculum enactment" (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992, p. 41). Research questions, such as, "how can curriculum decisions be informed by what we know or can discover about how and what children learn in relation to how and what they are taught? How can we describe and compare students' curriculum encounters and their influences on learning?" were posed in this paradigm (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992, p. 41). These questions were answered through systematic observation, statistical data analysis and comparative studies appropriate to the scientific tradition and quantitative research designs, such as experiments and surveys. The aim of studies in the scientific tradition was to quantify the curriculum by describing the "various aspects of curriculum content and its enactment in numerical or statistical terms, for purposes of evaluation, comparison, or monitoring" (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992, p. 43). Results from scientific studies could be used to identify areas of short-comings in the education system as well as inequities in opportunities for children. The potential for influencing policy and practice is thus possible since the results are regarded as objective and scientific rather than being based on researchers' interpretations as is the case with qualitative research. The sampling size and strategies used in the scientific tradition also provide validity for the results that are obtained.

Probability sampling is the strategy adopted most often in quantitative studies, especially random probability sampling. The aim of probability sampling is to demonstrate that the

sample is representative of the whole population, within certain confidence limits (Patton, 2002). Researchers thus do not have to survey the entire population; a sample of the population for example will suffice within a study. A researcher could also make use of either simple random sampling, which would allow generalisations from the sample to the population it represents. However, a more statistically valid sampling method would be to use stratified random and cluster samples, which would increase confidence when making generalisations to particular subgroups (Patton, 2002). Longitudinal sampling is another sampling strategy and is often called cross-sectional or cohort designs. According to Ritchie et al. (2003), longitudinal research designs involve multiple episodes of data collection: some people may be selected for an interview more than once and within a repeat cross-sectional design, new samples are selected for subsequent waves of fieldwork. Ritchie et al. (2003) further argue that the term cohort design can also be used to imply multiple waves of data collection among the same group. Validity within quantitative research is essential and depends on the replication of the study by others and in this way scientific knowledge is accumulated. These general scientific sampling strategies can be applied to the field of CS and have been used by those who base their work on theories by Vygotsky and Piaget.

A limitation of the scientific approach is that researchers could be mistaken in their interpretations if they fail to acknowledge and make explicit their own biases or normative points of view. The nature and quality of what is observed and measured or evaluated requires careful consideration, otherwise the findings could be meaningless or irrelevant (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992). Researchers who work within the scientific tradition commonly test a hypothesis in order to generalise to other populations: in this way they try to reduce experiences to what can be measured and quantified. There are concerns regarding measurement of experiences, especially the validity of inferences, such as construct validity, data quality, aggregation questions, data collection and statistical manipulation (Guiton & Bursstein, 1987; Shavelson, McDonnell & Oakes, 1989; as cited in Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992). Within the field of CS, generalisations have been made in curriculum policies to achieve specific educational outcomes resulting from curriculum reform.

A critique of this approach to curriculum research came from an "antinaturalist, interpretivist and critical theorist", such as Gage (1989, as cited in Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992, p. 44), who identified a problem with the scientific approach, namely, that the perspectives of teachers and learners were ignored in favour of observable behaviour that was supposedly objective and could be quantitatively measured. Gage (1989) termed this "quantitative,

objective-seeking" research (as cited in Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992, p. 44), since a positivistic approach did not provide insights into how schools might produce qualitatively different and socially just outcomes. However, despite these limitations, the scientific approach has persisted and remains relevant to CS even though the humanistic traditions are also used as alternatives or in combination with the scientific approach in CS.

3.5 RESEARCH IN THE HUMANIST TRADITIONS IN CURRICULUM STUDIES

3.5.1 Qualitative Research

Walker (1992) urged curriculum researchers to build a body of methods and a methodological doctrine that is better suited to curriculum research, than those provided by the scientific approach. The value of curriculum methods should be demonstrated by persuasive and informative studies. Walker (1992) defined curriculum research as "any research that illuminates a curriculum problem or advances our ability to deal with it, its examination must begin with some conception of curriculum" (p. 109). The shift from the scientific perspective opened up a wide range of methodological and analytical tools, which created a space for research in the humanist tradition. Humanism suggests that there are a multiplicity of non-positivist ways of collecting and interpreting knowledge (Lincoln, 1992).

The humanist tradition included an aggregation of perspectives on curriculum matters and these perspectives bear little or no resemblance to the scientific tradition or to each other (Lincoln 1992). In trying to ascertain who the humanists are, we are confronted with the various traditions that bear the names of their disciplinary or methodological roots: the phenomenological and autobiographical perspectives have drawn on the work of Grumet, (1983) and Pinar (1988); political themes have focused on the work of Michael Apple (1975, 1979) and Henry Giroux (1981): feminist work has followed the work of Leslie Roman (1989); poststructuralist themes have capitalised on the work of Cherryholmes (1988); historical work has built on the foundations laid by Barry Franklin (1988) and Tanner and Tanner (1990); with aesthetic criticism based on Aoki (1988) and Eisner (1979) (as cited in Lincoln, 1992). However, there is no agreed upon definition of humanism, and a working definition of humanism used in this study is premised on the idea of humankind being central to both the source and measure of human achievement. Pressure was exerted on the humanist traditions to become more scientific by focusing on quantitative inquiry by those who favour the scientific tradition in CS. However, in the arts and humanities the reaction to this pressure was to challenge the basis of the scientific absolutist philosophies. This led to an increased interest in

humanism, interpretivist methodologies as well as the nature of knowledge (Lincoln, 1992). The humanistic and interpretivist approaches to curriculum theory emerged as a result of the perceived overly scientific and technological approach to schooling, and I discuss the various movements identified in the humanist tradition in CS in the rest of this chapter.

Qualitative research within the humanist tradition of CS leads to a deep understanding (Creswell, 2012) of a phenomenon and this research is concerned with the complexity and diversity of human interaction (Roberts-Holmes, 2011). Humanistic qualitative researchers use an interpretivist, relativist philosophical paradigm. Observations of the world are made based on subjective interpretations of experience and viewpoints, which are linked to our society and cultural background. According to Roberts-Holmes (2011), this philosophical standpoint influences the assumptions made by those who do research in the humanist traditions, where multiple understandings are important, and interpretations and accurate representations of the participant's voices provides validity for the research. Further, he suggests that there is a tendency not to generalise from the research findings of small sample sizes and that authenticity for the participants' responses are derived from cross-checking or triangulating of various data sources.

Sampling is understood from the perspective of how the selection of participants was made in the setting for research (Creswell, 2012). An explanation of the sampling strategy also improves the validity of the research design. In a non-probability sample, the sites and participants are deliberately selected since the sample is not intended to be statistically representative. The characteristics of the chosen population are then used as the basis of selection (Ritchie, Lewis & Elam, 2003). Small-scale, in-depth qualitative studies thus benefit from non-probability sampling. This means that qualitative studies are almost always small-scale and limited to a particular geographical, community or location. Qualitative research offers a number of sampling strategies, for example, purposive, opportunistic, convenient, stratified and snowball strategies (Paton, 2002; Creswell, 2012). These strategies are also applicable to CS research.

Cole and Knowles (1993) noted that research on teaching and schooling went through conceptual and methodological changes over the past few decades. Conceptual shifts have enabled researchers to develop an understanding of life in and around the classroom, with methods to capture and reflect upon the complexity of classroom life, as well as the individuals who constitute it (Cole & Knowles, 1993). Clement (2007) identified the following approaches:

an aesthetic approach (Eisner, 1998), literary criticism (Papert, 1987) and phenomenology (Pinar et al. 1995) (as cited in Clement, 2007). Other methods in CS included ethnography (Walker, 1992) and narrative methods as a means to emphasise teachers' reflections and knowledge of "how they think, how they develop professionally, and how they make decisions in the classroom" (Cortazzi, 1993, as cited in Creswell, 2012, p. 503). An autobiographical approach enabled teachers to provide oral and life histories through narratives, and phenomenology was used to reconceptualize the curriculum and provide an understanding of alternative paradigms or ideologies (Cole & Knowles, 1993). Another approach according to Creswell (2012) was action research. Its aim was to empower and transform individuals by addressing practical problems in an educational setting, such as, a school or a classroom. A practitioner or teacher usually undertook action research in an educational setting to "address improvements in their teaching and the learning of their students" (Creswell, 2012, p. 22). According to Walker (1992), curriculum researchers have always found case studies, directed observation and expert judgements very informative and these studies have become acceptable in peer-reviewed journals. These are examples of how different qualitative approaches have been used in CS. However, these approaches also have disadvantages.

The disadvantages of qualitative approaches are that generalisations cannot be made (Roberts-Holmes, 2011) and the findings of a case study cannot be reproduced or verified. Observer bias was another limitation in this research method. Walker (1992) argue that the observational studies of the curriculum in the classroom led to the methodological question of how to determine validity of the interpretations made. Further, she suggested that curriculum researchers who were interested in improving pertinent curriculum problem areas were needed. These researchers should be willing to pursue a problem, to try new methods when they seemed useful, to design a string of studies that informed one another, and deepened understanding and showed progress over time. Irrespective of the direction that the development of research methodology in curriculum might take, Walker (1992), urged researchers "to reflect on both the promise and the limitations of methodological reform as a strategy for improving research and to adapt research support policies that treat methodological rigor and sophistication as only one component of excellence in research" (p. 115). These suggestions give an indication of what is needed in CS scholarship to methodologically advance the field. More recently, a group of theorists have emerged who subscribe to a mixed brand of research and this has influenced CS.

3.6 MIXED METHODS RESEARCH

In a mixed methods research approach, flexibility exists for the scientific tradition to draw on the humanistic tradition and vice versa. A combined approach is possible despite different standards of evidence, concerns, emphasis and goals about what should be studied and how it could be measured, as well as differing values and norms (Mcdougal, 2011). Gage (1989) advocated that a combination of scientific and humanist paradigms could provide insights by "sharing methods, revising assumptions, illuminating intentions and revamping measurements" (as cited in Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992, p. 45). This combination would better reflect a range of assumptions and outcomes.

The philosophical assumption that underpinned a mixed method study was "pragmatism" (Rossman and Wilson, 1985, as cited in Saldana, 2013, p. 27), because it provided ways through the polarised quantitative and qualitative debates. Pragmatism was geared towards practical solutions to problems in different ideologies and methodologies, as it focused on the best means of answering a particular research question. The emphasis is on the research question and a hybrid methodology becomes the tool for providing a comprehensive answer. Grbich (2013) cautioned that pragmatism might not lend itself to all topics and that short-term solutions benefitted only a few participants.

While qualitative methods use an inductive logic and quantitative methods use a deductive logic, mixed methods utilises both of these approaches to logic, and is able to represent data both numerically and textually. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) argued that the most important advantage of mixed method studies was that "they can show the result (quantitatively) and explain why it was obtained (qualitatively)" (p. 24). Parallel sampling is undertaken and allows both probability and purposive strategies with time lapses or concurrently depending on the design that is chosen (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) have identified six basic designs in mixed methods: the convergent parallel, explanatory sequential, exploratory sequential, embedded, transformative and multiphase designs. Curriculum researchers are also able to draw on these designs should they so wish.

However, a limitation of mixed methods is that researchers need to be familiar with both methods. Mixing paradigms, data collection, analysis and interpretation is time consuming and requires skill to do this approach successfully. Combined designs are more expensive, and a

researcher needs to question the benefits of combining methods (Grbich, 2013). There is also the danger that the time consuming, traditional, qualitative analysis might be substituted for a quicker, shallower approach. This could lead to an oversimplification of the results, which would become researcher directed rather than data derived (Grbich, 2013). Another limitation is that sequencing of methods might sensitise participants to the content and orientation of the questions that are asked in previous questionnaires (Grbich, 2013). Both data sets also need to be properly designed, collected and analysed in a mixed methods design. In order for the field to advance, researchers published their methods, so that other researchers could build on them. CS is thus able to drew on the strengths of qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods in the studies that are conducted in the field.

3.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is undertaken in the South African context and thus requires a contextualised theoretical framework to analyse and locate CS scholarship in SA. The international perspectives focus on the historical path that CS scholarship has followed, beginning with the traditionalist and the conceptual-empiricism perspectives followed by the reconceptualism and internationalization perspectives. The conceptual focus of these international perspectives varies. Service to practitioners, field based research, research pertaining to the realities of the classroom and the school, characterises the traditionalist perspective. The strength of conceptual-empiricism lies in its ability to highlight scholarship undertaken by researchers in disciplines other than education and to present an argument that education is not a discipline in itself, but that it has roots in philosophy and psychology and thus should be studied by other. While reconceptualism focuses on curriculum inquiry and the influence of post-structuralism and postmodernism, the internationalization perspective maintains a focus on contemporary scholarship, economistic conceptions of the curriculum, international and comparative curriculum inquiry (Pinar, 1978; 2011). These international perspectives are necessary since their focus is broad but not sufficient as a theoretical framework for a study in the SA context. Hoadley's (2010) national perspectives are based on research in the SA context and focuses on the political sociology account of CS with a strong policy focus. Unlike the international perspectives, critical curriculum work foregrounds scholarship in the 'knowledge mode' with a focus on knowledge and knowledge structures whereas the 'knower mode' pays attention to indigenous knowledge and teacher and learner experiences and voices. Curriculum development and implementation (the 'bureaucratic mode'), in the national perspective, identifies scholarship that supports the formal official statements of the state. The strength of

Hoadley's (2010) national perspectives lies in its ability to foreground knowledge through the 'knowledge mode' in critical curriculum work, which is a limitation in the international perspectives. Conceptually, the incorporation and emphasis on knowledge makes Hoadley's (2010) framework ideal for a study on CS scholarship in SA.

Conceptual links exist between the international perspectives and the national perspectives. The traditionalist perspective shares conceptual underpinnings with the 'bureaucratic' mode since curriculum development and implementation are the central focus of both perspectives. Conceptually, critical curriculum work (Hoadley, 2010) and reconceptualism complement each other since critical curriculum work offers a focus on knowledge and reconceptualism focuses on curriculum inquiry as a central tenet. Identity is also a central theme in both reconceptualism and in the 'knower mode'. However, there is a sharp contrast between the international perspective and the national perspective with regard to the focus on internationalization (Pinar, 2011). The internationalization perspective accounts for research in the national (South African) context as well as the international global context and enables comparative research to enrich CS. The national perspective has added a focus on knowledge, which is essential in the SA context since pedagogy rather than knowledge was foregrounded in OBE. The international and national perspectives are thus able to complement one another. I argue that as standalone frameworks both the international and the national perspectives are unable to account sufficiently for CS scholarship in SA. The combination nevertheless, provides a richer theoretical framework upon which to analyse CS scholarship and to account for the theoretical attributes of CS in SA.

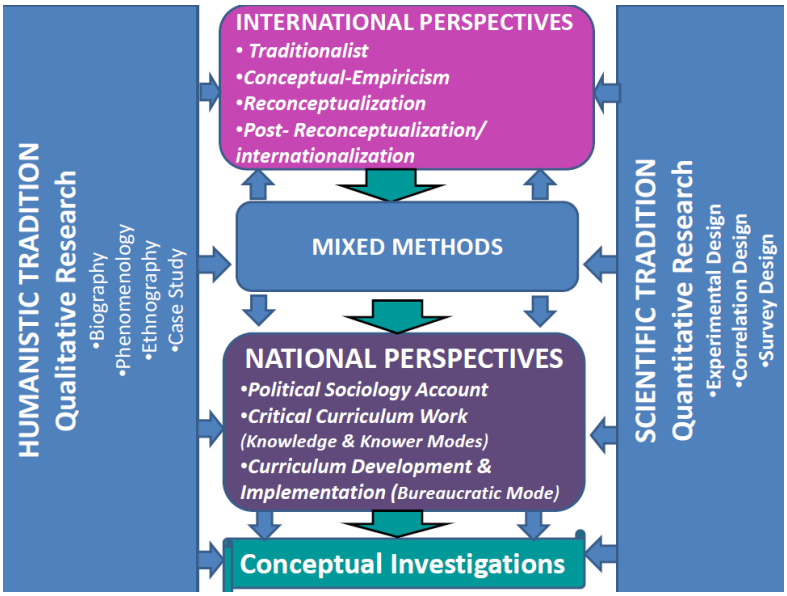


Figure 3.2: Theoretical Framework (Pinar, 1978; 2011 & Hoadley, 2010)

The theoretical attributes of CS are one aspect of this study. The other aspect of this study relates to the methodological attributes of CS. Methodological attributes, thus also need to be integrated into a suitable framework. Research methods from the humanist traditions which are qualitative in nature and the quantitative research methods which emanate from the scientific tradition as well as hybrid research methods termed mixed methods, allow an analysis of the methodological attributes of CS scholarshop. Both humanistic and scientific traditions are drawn upon by scholarship in the international and national perspectives of CS. There are distinct differences between quantitative and qualitative methods (see sections 2.4.1 and 2.5.1) since quantitative methods draw on positivism and qualitative methods draw on interpretivism. However, CS scholars are able to draw on the strengths of both methods by using mixed methods, which complement each other in a mixed methods study. Figure 2.2 provides a visual of how the international and national perspectives as well as the various research methods form the theoretical framework for a conceptual investigation such as this study.

3.8 CONCLUSION

The field of CS is described in terms of its theoretical perspectives in this chapter (Pinar, 1978; 2011 & Hoadley, 2010). Internationally, there were distinctive theoretical movements in CS, which have emerged as historical movements during particular periods. Pinar's (1978; 2011) four perspectives: traditionalist, conceptual-empiricism, reconceptualization and internationalization provided an indication of the changes in the field of CS. Internationally, the traditionalists focused on curriculum development, the conceptual-empiricists on curriculum theorising and the reconceptualists focused on understanding the curriculum. More recently, internationalization emerged as a movement that promoted comparative curriculum research by comparing different cultural perspectives while maintaining national knowledge traditions of curriculum inquiry.

However, while these perspectives are applicable to South Africa, Hoadley (2010) characterised the CS scholarship in three ways: a political sociology account of curriculum processes, which focused on policy studies; critical curriculum work in the 'knowledge and knower modes'; and, curriculum development and implementation, the 'bureaucratic mode'. Within an education context geared towards achieving social justice, the first of Hoadley's (2010) categories, that is, the political sociology account of curriculum processes, highlighted the conflation between curriculum and pedagogy. The tension between the 'knowledge mode' and the 'knower mode' was captured in Hoadley's (2010) second category of CS scholarship,

namely, critical curriculum work. Bernstein's theories formed the focus in the 'knowledge mode', while the focus in the 'knower mode' was on voice, constructivism, the notion of relevance and indigenous knowledge. Hoadley's (2010) third category, curriculum development and implementation, is also termed the 'bureaucratic mode'. The reason for this label is that its proponents uncritically embraced the official position on curriculum and pedagogy while researching the curriculum. The net result of research in the 'bureaucratic mode' was a non-cumulative effect on knowledge production (Hoadley, 2010). The combination of the international and national perspectives provided a more nuanced theoretical perspective to characterise CS scholarship in South Africa from a theoretical perspective.

From a methodological perspective, the field of CS has relied on general research methodologies and methods in both the scientific and humanistic traditions. The scientific methodological tradition favours quantitative research methodologies such as positivism and methods such as experimental and survey designs. CS was influenced by scientific methodology, because quantitative research questions have informed the theory and shaped the research undertaken. In contrast, the humanist tradition in CS tended to favour qualitative interpretivist approaches, and this has enabled CS to choose from a variety of approaches such as ethnography, narrative research, biography, phenomenology, action research, case study and classroom observation. Walker (1992) argued that as qualitative methodologies mature, curriculum researchers would benefit from philosophically well-grounded frameworks to develop a rationale for their choices. Although the distinction between the scientific and humanistic traditions in CS was not clearly defined due to the emergence of mixed methods research (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992), Walker (1992) advised curriculum researchers to develop their own methods and a methodological doctrine that are suited to curriculum research.

I argue that the theoretical frameworks presented in this chapter by Pinar, (1978; 2011), Hoadley (2010) as well as the general scientific and humanistic research traditions in CS are suitable for answering the research questions posed in this study, since they include both the theoretical and methodological dimensions required to describe the dominant attributes of CS scholarship (2008-2010). I will discuss an appropriate methodology for this study, in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I outline the methodology underpinning this study. The research design is premised upon an interpretivist epistemological paradigm. A qualitative approach is outlined, which helped to address the predetermined research questions. Using a historical perspective, this research was concerned with an analytical description of the dominant attributes of CS in three accredited and peer-reviewed journals over a three-year period. A discussion of why a case study design, which was historical, intrinsic, and collective will follow. I argue that a review of documents was suitable to analyse journal articles for this research. A rationale for how the sample was selected, using purposive sampling, and how data was analysed using document analysis as a method, is also discussed.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.2.1 Research Paradigm

Positivist, post-positivist and interpretivist paradigms are available for researchers to draw upon when conducting research. A research paradigm can be defined as a worldview of "beliefs, values, and methods for collecting and interpreting data" (Grbich, 2013). The positivist paradigm with a realist ontology that relies on facts has been dominant since the eighteenth century and researchers working within this paradigm search for objective knowledge using a theory testing approach (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). In opposition to the positivist paradigm, interpretivism involves an inductive theory-building approach with a subjective ontology, which seeks to understand how and why things happen in order to form a view of reality (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). However, the findings of such a study may not always be representative or generalisable to other populations. An interpretivist paradigm was selected as appropriate for a qualitative study, such as this one, because it can be used to understand the nature of CS in the three journals from a subjective perspective. Figure 4.1 gives an indication of the outline of the research design based on an interpretivist paradigm.

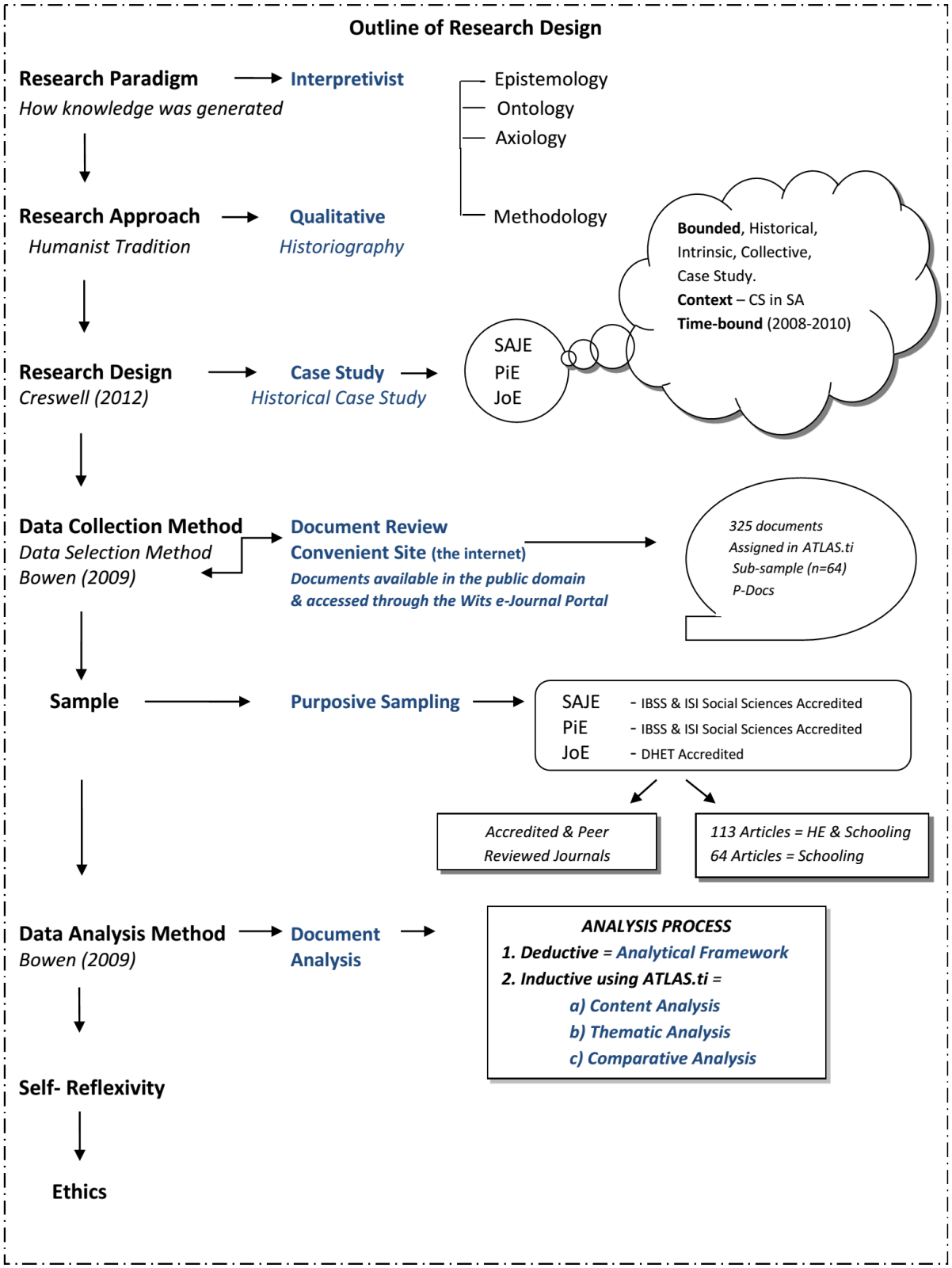


Figure 4.1: Outline of Research Design

4.2.2 Research Methodology

This study is a qualitative research project that builds on what is already known about CS scholarship in South Africa and internationally. My choice of an interpretivist paradigm informed the research method and provided the foundation for a qualitative research methodology (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). McMillan and Schumacher (2010) viewed qualitative research as a mode of inquiry or an approach to research. For the purpose of this study, qualitative research refers to the paradigm, research approach, as well as the research methods, selection, analysis and interpretation of the data. Qualitative research also lends itself to exploratory studies, where there is room to build on what is already known about an issue (Creswell, 2012). I have chosen to build on previous work by Hoadley (2010), to allow me to explore and describe the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa after the period she covered. A qualitative research method is suitable for providing an in-depth analysis of CS scholarship in three journals (SAJE, PiE and JoE). In this study, the social context is defined as CS scholarship in South Africa, with particular reference to schooling, and the methods and theoretical frameworks of curriculum researchers are of particular interest. Brikci and Green (2007) argued that qualitative research can be used to understand certain aspects of social life due to its use of methods that focused on words. This means that a qualitative study typically requires text (words) to describe trends or patterns that emerge from the data (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). In this research project, I will critically examine data sources from authentic written material, and provide a synthesis of these texts into a narrative.

The conception of this research project was as an analytically and conceptually based study with a focus on historiography. Historiography is defined as "a study of data collection methods" (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 417), which has the advantage of allowing historical researchers to make informed decisions about the claims they make based on data collection methods that were used in the secondary sources they analyse. Analytical research in education draws on historiography for techniques to discover what happened in the past (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The characteristics of historical research are similar to qualitative research, as the focus is "on natural behaviour in actual events, interpretation based on context, and the importance of induction as an approach to analysing data" (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 418). The methodological attributes in CS scholarship reported on in this study will require the use of historiography to allow me to analyse the data collection methods utilised in the journal articles, which is why the use of historiography is appropriate for this study.

As an analytical study, this research project is also located in the humanistic tradition of inquiry in CS. The humanist approach to curriculum theory provides a perspective that is largely qualitative and reliant on human judgement especially in historical studies, such as this study. According to Bleier (1986) and Langland and Gove (1981), the humanist tradition in CS draws on the interpretivist paradigm to investigate the production and purpose of knowledge (as cited in Lincoln, 1992). Conducting curriculum inquiry from a humanistic perspective requires that knowledge is viewed as historical, socially located, problematic, non-absolute and conditional (Lincoln, 1992). The value of locating this study in a humanist approach is that it provides a platform to explore the nature of knowledge further. It also enables the view that knowledge may occur in a variety of types and forms, which can be used to collect and interpret data (Lincoln, 1992). Questions, such as, 'what kind of knowledge?' will be useful in helping to answer the research questions. The way I make sense of reality and what I value in research warrants an examination of epistemology, ontology and axiology as the foundations for choosing a qualitative humanistic research approach.

Epistemological concerns, such as, what constitutes valid knowledge and how to obtain it, become crucial in helping to select and interpret the data. Schraw (2013) defined epistemology as the "study of beliefs about the origin and acquisition of knowledge" (p. 1). Based on the humanistic tradition within CS, the interpretivist paradigm was used to select and interpret the data. Grbich (2013) contended that within this paradigm there is "no objective knowledge independent of thinking" (p. 7). Further, he suggested that reality is perceived as existing in the mind and being socially and societally embedded (Grbich, 2013). This understanding suggests that an explanation of the ontological focus on the construction of reality within this study is necessary.

Within the interpretivist paradigm, knowledge is based on shared signs and symbols that are recognised by the members of a particular culture. Ontology is defined as "the study of beliefs about the nature of reality and being" (Schraw, 2013, p. 1). A researcher's focal point would be the exploration of "the way people interpret and make sense of their experiences in the worlds in which they live and how the context of events and situations and the placement of these within wider social environments have impacted on constructed understandings" (Grbich, 2013, p. 7). An ontological awareness is particularly important for understanding the context within which scholarship took place in 2008-2010 and it allowed me to make sense of the theories and methodologies used by CS researchers within the period under consideration.

Besides the questions of what constitutes valid knowledge and what the nature of reality is, the conduct of inquiry is also influenced by values. These are the axiological assumptions that a qualitative researcher needs to make explicit according to Creswell (2007). He also argues that the value-laden nature of a study, as well as any biases, serves to position the researcher within a study. A researcher constructs an understanding and imposes it through an interpretation, which is limited by the framework of their life experiences. The researcher constructs views (subjectivity), which interacts with others via language and written texts (inter-subjectivity), and this also frames their view of reality (Grbich, 2013). Within this study, I have chosen a theoretical and analytical framework to guide the judgements that I make about the written text in the journal articles, which helps me to describe the nature of CS scholarship.

I make explicit within this qualitative study, my theory of knowledge (epistemology), my view of reality (ontology) and what I value in research (axiology). By selecting an interpretivist paradigm as a matrix of beliefs within a relativist ontology, I honed my view of reality as constructed for meaning-making. This will become clear in the analysis section where I use quotations and themes from the data to provide evidence for the interpretations I have constructed. I have adopted the view that no single interpretation of the data that was used to represent the findings has emerged. Another researcher may derive similar or different themes. However, the descriptions that are provided should be used to assess the rigour of the study. My view of knowledge (epistemology) is based on a meaning-making framework, which relies on my subjective experience when analysing the data. Within this study, my value system (axiology) is geared towards integrity, authenticity and a responsible search for knowledge. This approach has guided my choice of a qualitative study as the most likely means of gaining the necessary knowledge to address the research problem and to answer the research questions. Due to the emphasis on a subjective reality and a focus on the written text, I view the interpretivist paradigm as most suitable for selecting and analysing journal articles in this research project. The clarification of the above assumptions is essential for clarifying why a case study approach is appropriate for this study.

4.2.3 Case Study

Case study is a qualitative research approach within the humanist tradition, which involves intensive analysis and descriptions of a single, bounded system in a particular space and over a particular time period (Creswell, 2012). According to Merriam (2009), case study research has been defined as “an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system” (p. 40). The

main characteristic of case study research is that the object of study or the unit of analysis needs to be clearly defined (Merriam, 2009). A case study also needs to be located in a geographical, political, social, economic context over time and it has to be conducted in depth (Creswell, 2012; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Historical case studies provide holistic and analytic descriptions of a case as it has evolved over time (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011). Within the humanist tradition, historical research and case study research could be merged to produce analytical, descriptive interpretations. This case study comprises three accredited and peer-reviewed journals, namely, the SAJE, PiE and the JoE, which focus on schooling issues within the South African context over a three-year period (2008-2010). This is a historical, in-depth study, where the case, the unit of analysis, the time, the context and the geographical area are clearly defined. In line with Merriam's (2009) definition, the boundary for this study is defined as one case, which comprises all three journals as the unit of analysis. The product of this investigation is to address the research question of the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa (2008-2010).

An intrinsic, collective case study is another way to describe this research project. Within a bounded system, Merriam (2009) argued that it might be possible to use a case study approach to study something of interest that indicated a larger concern, where it highlighted significant factors that could assist with an understanding of a phenomenon. In an intrinsic case study, the case study itself is of interest and multiple case studies, which are classified as a collective case study, may be included with the sole purpose of describing and comparing insights into a particular case (Stake, 1995, as cited in Creswell, 2012). In this study, the dominant attributes of CS scholarship are of interest within a collective case study, comprising of three journals. This allows the nature of CS scholarship to emerge, based on similarities and differences, within these journals.

This study adopts a historical, intrinsic and collective case study approach. I argue that this is an intrinsic case study or a case focused study because the case study in itself is of interest within a specified timeline (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). A historical and chronological perspective is essential to provide a specific, detailed account of this particular phenomenon, rather than to provide broad, generalisations about the findings (Stake, 1995, as cited in McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The main characteristic of the investigation is to focus on the nature of CS scholarship within the context of schooling in South Africa, and to provide a rich analytical description of a phenomenon relevant to the dominant attributes of CS scholarship.

By focusing on three accredited journals in a collective case study, it provides deeper and broader insights than those from one journal (see Figure 4.2).

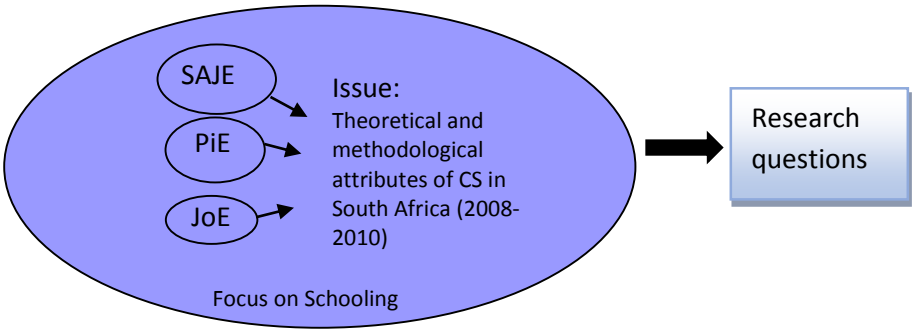


Figure 4.2: Collective Case Study (adapted from Creswell, 2012)

4.2.4 Data Selection Method

Hancock and Algozzine (2011) suggested that document reviews were a useful approach to adopt by historical case study researchers, because this provided a systematic procedure to identify, analyse and extrapolate information from the existing data sources. Documents represent an important source of information, and they may be public and private records that are relevant to either the participants or a site being studied (Creswell, 2012). Schumacher and McMillan (2010) identify primary and secondary data sources. They argue that primary sources of data are original first hand data, which is the "'raw' or initial material or data ... [and] consist of what the subjects did or reported" (Schumacher & McMillan, 2010, p. 352). Secondary data sources are the "data that have already been collected [where] the data user has no involvement in the data collection effort" (Schumacher & McMillan, 2010, p. 242). Examples of secondary sources include journal articles, newspapers, minutes of meetings and policy documents. Using secondary sources allows researchers to make use of existing data to try to answer research questions rather than collecting primary data (Long-Sutehall, Sque, Addington-Hall, 2010). A review of documents from secondary sources (journal articles) is viewed as an appropriate data selection method. However, there are various data collection methods available to qualitative researchers, such as, interviews, focus groups, questionnaires and observation (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

A review of documents using secondary sources has advantages, because the response rate is evident from the number of documents reviewed and the completeness of records. As a data collection method, a review of documents is also unobtrusive, precise and the information

necessary to answer a research question can be extracted within a short time period (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). A disadvantage for a researcher is the difficulty of following-up on information found in the documents. Nevertheless, an added advantage is that documents are in a form, which is ready for analysis, and do not require transcription (Creswell, 2012). There are challenges such as the difficulty in obtaining documents and deciphering the information in them, a question of their authenticity, inaccuracies within the documents, and some documents may be incomplete (Creswell, 2012). Documents may also be context, language and culturally specific and even lack objectivity. This means that a review of the documents should be approached with the same caution that historians apply in their search for truth in a historical text (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

For the purpose of this study, a review of the documents was undertaken as a data collection method. Historical trends within the three journals were studied in order to answer the research questions. In this context, the term data selection is more relevant than data collection, because Bowen (2009) argued that the former term was more appropriate when working with documents. The data selection for this research began in 2013, and the process for selecting articles was ensured because the journals were available online for the period 2008-2010. A convenient site, the Internet, was chosen and the complete set of SAJE articles from 2008-2010 was downloaded from the Wits e-Journal Portal as PDF documents. A similar process informed the download of articles from PiE. However, the process took slightly longer since the Wits e-Journal Portal directed me to the Sabinet Reference site. The JoE articles were downloaded directly from the UKZN website http://joe.ukzn.ac.za. But the journal articles that were published in the JoE no. 49 in 2010 were not available on the website, and the administrator enabled me to gain access to the PDF versions of these journal articles. It was fairly easy to gain access to the articles that were published in the three journals from 2008-2010 and complete historical data sets were obtained.

Once all the articles were downloaded, a hermeneutic unit was created in ATLAS.ti (version 7.0, Computer Software (1999), Berlin, Scientific Software Development) and all the articles were assigned to a project file as primary documents (P-Docs). Articles were assigned according to their respective journals, which enabled them to be organised historically and systematically, and the result was 325 P-Docs. In order to select the sample, all 325 P-Docs were read and coded as one of the following: curriculum articles, international curriculum articles and non-curriculum articles. Book reviews and editorials were not selected or coded

and neither were the two duplicate articles that were found in the P-Docs. ATLAS.ti made it easy to manage the 325 P-Docs in a systematic manner, and it facilitated the sampling and analysis process.

4.2.5 Sample

Sampling strategies should be selected according to the nature of research conducted and the best way of answering a research question. Various sampling strategies are available to researchers. Creswell (2012) suggests that within a qualitative study the sample should allow for an in-depth exploration, which leads to understanding of a phenomenon. There needs to be a purposeful selection of sites and individuals, because the intention is not to generalise to other populations as is the case in quantitative research. Within qualitative research, purposive sampling is appropriate, and the intention of purposive sampling according to Paton (2002) is to "select information-rich cases strategically and purposefully" (p. 243). He also suggests that the nature of the study, the purpose and the resources available to a researcher should determine the type and number of cases selected. However, Black (1999) notes that the disadvantage of purposive sampling relates to the subjectivity of the researcher since the researcher would use a subjective interpretation to select the sample.

A purposive sampling strategy guided the selection of the sample for this qualitative study. Three journals that focus on issues related to education research on schooling were purposively selected to explore the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa. The JoE is a Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) accredited journal, PiE and SAJE are IBSS and ISI Social Sciences peer-reviewed and accredited journals. Next, I provide a brief, descriptive overview of each of the journals.

The SAJE is the official journal of the Education Association of South Africa (EASA) and is published quarterly. Original research articles are accepted for publication as long as they fulfil the criteria of belonging to a research paradigm. This journal focuses on areas that include reviews of articles intended for professional scientists, and also publishes articles which critically evaluate research undertaken in a specific field in education. The scope of this journal includes concise evaluations of recently published books as well as letters pertaining to criticisms of articles published in the SAJE (SAJE website, 2015).

PiE is a professional journal that represents diverse cross-disciplinary interests, with a focus on educational issues in South Africa and internationally. It is published quarterly with two special

editions on designated themes. The scope of PiE includes the stimulation of dialogue and intellectual exchange related to democratic and educational transition in schools, universities, colleges, non-governmental organisations, Universities of Technology in South Africa and elsewhere. New writers are encouraged to submit their scholarly writing, because PiE is committed to a capacity building process. The aim of PiE is also to contribute to the accelerated development of black women educationalists in South Africa, Africa, Latin America and Asia (PiE website, 2015).

The Journal of Education describes itself as being "a forum for scholarly understanding of the field of education" and accepts articles that represent rigorous inquiry on educational issues either through argumentation or that are empirically based (JoE website, 2015). The JoE produces two issues per year, and in addition it publishes two special issues, one of which is the Kenton Special Edition that emanates from the annual Kenton Conference.

The justification for the selection of these three journals was because of their standing and their appropriateness to the theoretical framework used in this study. One aspect of the theoretical framework that guided the analysis for this study was based on Hoadley's (2010) characterisation of CS scholarship in South Africa. In order to build on the work undertaken by Hoadley (2010), I have replicated aspects of her sample, which included these three South African Education Journals that focus on issues related to schooling. Hoadley's (2010) research included an analysis of scholarship from these journals until 2007. This study will add an analysis of the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa over a three-year period from 2008-2010 and focus on articles that are relevant to schooling. I acknowledge that these three journals do not represent a holistic picture of CS scholarship, because curriculum researchers in South Africa publish in international and other journals as well. However, the intention is to use these three examples to understand the research issues and to gain a sense of historical trends and patterns in CS scholarship in order to answer the research questions.

During the period under review (2008-2010), 113 out of the 325 documents published in SAJE, PiE and JoE were devoted to curriculum issues. The sample involved selecting the three journals, and assigning the complete historical record of documents (325 documents) from 2008-2010 into ATLAS.ti. Then it meant applying exclusion and inclusion criteria in order to narrow the sample down to the 113 articles that related to curriculum issues in schooling in South Africa. As part of the inclusion criteria, curriculum issues were classified as including articles related to curriculum and pedagogy. The distinction between curriculum and pedagogy

for Bernstein (1971) was that curriculum was used to assess 'what counts as valid knowledge' and pedagogy to assess 'what counts as valid transmission of knowledge'. Thus for the purpose of selection, claims about knowledge in the three journals were classified as curriculum and claims that related to the transmission of knowledge were classified as pedagogy, and both were included in the sample of articles. Although there were journals that focused on teacher education, the inclusion criteria made allowances for these articles, because an entire edition of PiE was devoted to teacher education.

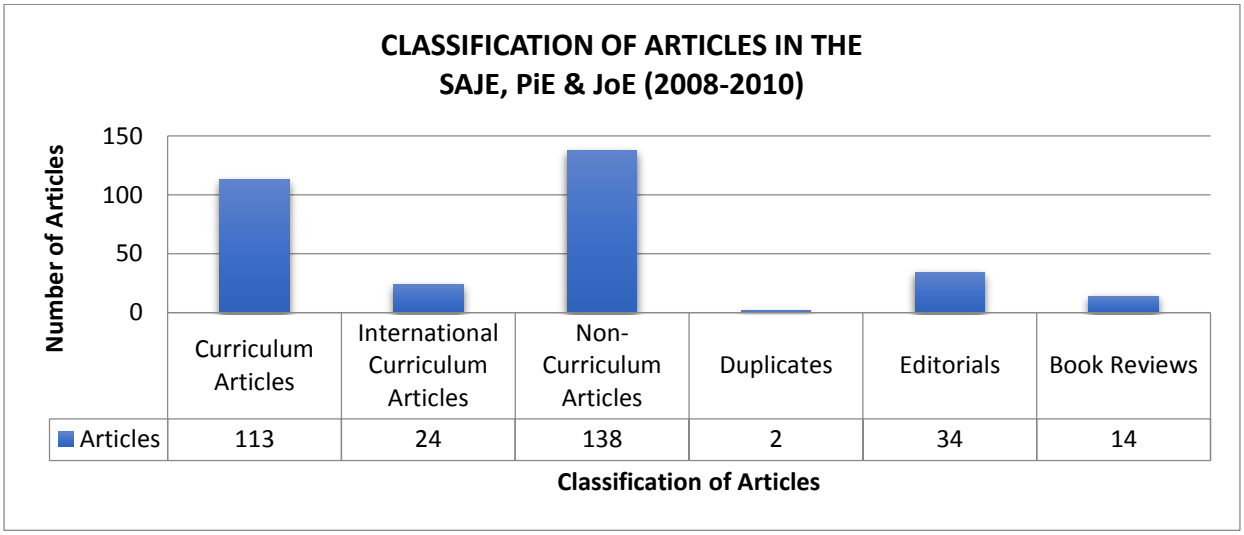


Figure 4.3: Classification of Articles in the SAJE, PiE and JoE (2008-2010)

Together with the inclusion criteria, the exclusion criteria made it possible to arrive at the final sample. There were 24 articles that were classified as international curriculum articles, but as the focus of these articles was not on South African studies, they were excluded from the sample (see Figure 4.3). Articles related to higher education were excluded on the bases that the focus was on schooling and that there was a dedicated journal, the South African Journal of Higher Education that focused on higher education issues. The SAJE, PiE and JoE may be viewed as education journals and not specifically devoted to curriculum issues. It is not surprising that 138 articles did not fit the inclusion criteria for selection as they dealt with broader educational issues, such as, career development and employment, educational leadership and management, education reform and effectiveness and school management and governance. Based on the criteria for a curriculum article, articles of this nature were classified as non-curriculum articles and excluded from the sample. This study is devoted to a historical inquiry about articles that were relevant to schooling and the 49 articles that were devoted to higher education in the three journals were excluded. However, one article had implications

for both schooling and higher education and it was included in the sample. The final sample comprised 64 curriculum related articles on schooling from the three peer-reviewed and accredited journals. For an indication of the number of curriculum related articles per journal by year see Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Sample of Curriculum Related Articles in the SAJE, PiE and JoE (2008-2010)

Journal	2008	2009	2010	Total
SAJE	11	5	10	26
PiE	5	4	7	16
JoE	8	8	6	22
Total	**24**	**17**	**23**	**64**

As a consequence of selecting the three journals related to schooling issues and narrowing down the sample (using inclusion and exclusion criteria), information about the sample relating to the institutions, departments and research focus/interest emerged during the inductive analysis process. It showed who the participants (the authors of journal articles) were in this sample, how many of them were from each institution (Table 4.2) and department (Figure 4.4), and what their research focus/interests were (Table 4.4 in Appendix 4). An explanation of how and why these participants were chosen is outlined in this section (rather than in the findings) in order to give a detailed description of the sample.

Authors who published in the SAJE, PiE and JoE in 2008-2010 were affiliated to various higher education institutions, which included educational research institutions, government departments and an independent school. All the articles published in these journals were co-authored and the figures in Table 4.2 represent the number of authors per institution and not the number of articles. For example, if three authors from Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) and one author from the University of Johannesburg (UJ) published an article together, then the three authors were coded as part of NMMU and only one was coded as UJ. Most of the authors cited their affiliation to University of KwaZulu Natal (UKZN) (n=14), Wits (n=13), UCT (n=11), North West University (n=10) and the University of Pretoria (UP) (n=8). Authors were also from the Gauteng and Western Cape Department of Education, government schools and other government departments such as Sports, Art and Culture (n=7) NMMU (n=6) and UZ (n=5). Four authors were respectively from the University of

Stellenbosch (US), Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) and UJ and published in these journals during this period. This number was followed closely by three authors from the University of Fort Hare (UFH) and the University of Limpopo (UL). Two authors did not specify their institutional affiliation. There was only one author from the following: an Educational Research Institution (JET Education Services), an independent school, RU and TUT (see Table 4.2 and Figure 4.4). The sample consisted of authors from 15 out of the 23 higher education institutions in South Africa and they represented 11 universities, two universities of technology and two comprehensive universities. The four universities not represented in the sample were the University of the Western Cape (UWC), the University of Venda (UV) and the University of the Free State (UFS). The remaining institutions that did not publish in these journals are the Universities of Technology, such as, Walter Sisulu University of Technology and Science, Central University of Technology, Durban University of Technology and Vaal University of Technology.

Table 4.2: Number of Authors by Institution in the SAJE, PiE & JoE (2008-2010)

INSTITUTION	Number of Authors
UKZN	14
Wits	13
UCT	11
NWU	10
UNISA	9
UP	8
Government Departments	7
NMMU	6
UZ	5
US	4
CPUT	4
UJ	4
UFH	3
UL	3
Not Specified	2
Educational Research Institution	1
Independent School	1
RU	1
TUT	1

The sample of authors and institutions in Table 4.2 included authors who worked in various departments. The majority of authors (n=23) worked in either the Faculty/Department or School of Education. While a large proportion of authors (n=19); did not specify the

Department that they worked in, nine worked in the following: Government's Department of Education, District Management Information Systems Unit for the Gauteng Department of Education in the Ekurhuleni North District, Strategy and Policy Management at the Limpopo Department of Sport, Arts and Culture, Western Cape Education Department, Department of Initial Professional Education of Teachers or in public schools. Eight authors worked in the School of Science, Mathematics & Technology and the Innovation Unit while six authors worked in a curriculum-related department termed (the Department of Curriculum-Based Studies or the Department of Curriculum and Learning Development) (see Figure 4.4).

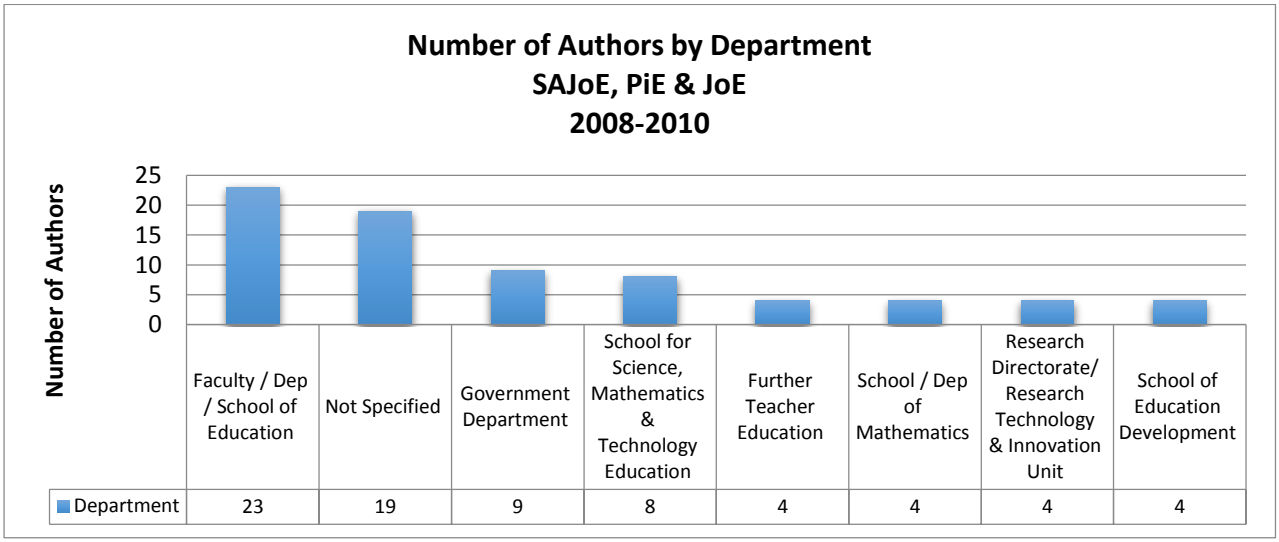


Figure 4.4: Number of Authors by Department (SAJE, PiE, JoE) 2008-2010.

Even though 46 authors in the sample did not specify their research focus/interest, the SAJE provided an indication of the research focus/interest of authors who published in their journal. Curriculum Studies (including curriculum) was cited by seven authors while six authors respectively cited teacher education as their area of research. This was followed by psychology (five authors) and four authors respectively cited assessment, mathematics & applied mathematics, mathematics for teaching, science education and literacy. Other research focus/interests included comparative education, English language and English language teaching and learning, teaching natural and physical science, research methodology and leadership (for a complete list see Table 4.3 in Appendix 4). The research interests of the sample provides an indication of the diversity of specialisations and research interests in CS.

An alternative selection of the sample method could have been used, for example, to review the abstracts and keywords. But this method would not have proved useful to make the selection of the sample, because not all abstracts and key words give a holistic view of the

content of an article. The final selection of articles might have been lower if this alternative method of selection was used. According to the chosen sample, all 325 articles in the three journals were read from the abstract to the conclusion. Once the sample was selected, analysis was used as a method to analyse the text in the journal articles.

4.2.6 Data Analysis

A research design based on a qualitative, intrinsic and historical case study, which used a review of the documents, meant that document analysis was the most appropriate qualitative research method to use (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011). This method helped me to identify, analyse, interpret and report on patterns and themes emerging from the data. Document analysis is defined as "a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents - both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) material" (Bowen, 2009, p. 27). In addition, Bowen (2009) suggested that the systematic and analytic procedure involved in document analysis, entailed finding, selecting, appraising (making sense of), and, more importantly, synthesising the data contained in documents. This allowed me to develop an understanding, uncover meanings and discover insights relevant to my particular research problem.

Various studies in South Africa have used document analysis as a data analysis method (Connell, Lynch & Waring, 2001; Hoepfl, 1994; Hansen, 1995; as cited in Bowen, 2009). However, within the field of education, Deacon, Osman and Buchler (2009, 2010 & 2012) undertook an audit and an interpretative analysis of research projects on education in South Africa from 1995-2006. Deacon et al. (2012) selected their sample based on the levels, scale, educational sectors and disciplinary/thematic areas within a database of 10 315. A random sample of 600 texts were then analysed in order to distinguish the primary research themes. In another study, which aimed to critically review research on multilingualism in mathematics education in South Africa from 2000-2007, Setati et al. (2009) also used document analysis. More specifically, within the field of CS in South Africa, in the period from 2000-2007, Hoadley (2010) also used document analysis to review and to characterise the field of CS scholarship.

In order to assist with the analysis of the data in this study, I used ATLAS.ti. ATLAS.ti "does not actually analyse data; it is simply a tool for supporting the process of qualitative data analysis" (Friese, 2012, p. 1). Friese (2012) suggests that the researcher needs to play an active role by informing the computer which data segments have a specific meaning, and this is done

through the process of coding. Since packages such as ATLAS.ti have become available, Welsh (2002, as cited in Friese, 2012) identified those researchers who use software as an integral method for analysing data and those who view it as tangential. The latter argue that the software leads to the 'wrong' way of analysing data.

Creswell (2007) identifies further disadvantages to using a computer programme, because it can be a daunting, time consuming task. His view is that in some cases the computer programme may place a machine between the researcher and the data thus creating a distance between the researcher and the data. Creswell (2007) further argues that the computer programme may also slow down the analysis process for some individuals, and that the computer programme may not be equipped with the features or facilities the researcher requires.

Despite these disadvantages, Friese (2012) identifies the benefits of using software packages, because they enable a machine to accomplish tasks, such as, "modifying code words and coded segments, retrieving data based on various criteria, searching for words, integrating material in one place, attaching notes and finding them again, counting the number of coded incidences, offering overviews at various stages of the project" (Friese, 2012, p. 1). ATLAS.ti also makes it easy to systematically analyse data and to pose questions that might not have been asked due to the time consuming nature of the manual analysis tasks (Friese 2012). A critical appraisal of the advantages and disadvantages of using a software package, informed my decision to use ATLAS.ti to analyse the data since the advantages outweighed the disadvantages.

4.2.7 Analytical Framework

The theoretical framework (Pinar, 1978, 2011; Hoadley, 2011) was discussed in depth in chapter 2. In order to analyse the data, I adopted, a deductive and inductive approach, and these approaches will be discussed in the next part of this report.

4.2.7.1 Deductive Approach

The deductive approach used in the study involved an analytical framework, which drew on the theoretical frameworks of Pinar (1978; 2011) and Hoadley (2010). The analysis drew on Pinar's (1978, 2011) traditionalist, conceptual-empiricism, reconceptualization and internationalization perspectives, as well as Hoadley's (2010) characterisation of CS scholarship in South Africa in (1) the political sociology account of curriculum process in terms of policy studies; (2) critical curriculum work in terms of "knowledge and knower modes" and

(3) curriculum development and implementation, which was described as "the bureaucratic mode" (Hoadley, 2010, p. 126-127). The theoretical framework also incorporated the general scientific and humanistic research traditions in CS. However, the theoretical framework for this study was selected before the analysis of data and it served to guide the analysis process when a deductive approach was used.

4.2.7.2 Inductive Approach

An inductive approach was also used in this analysis, in order to characterise the scholarship that took place in the past (2008-2010). During the analysis process, the inductive approach helped to identify themes in the data. This approach involved the use of ATLAS.ti to code the data based on patterns I observed in the data. All the codes are provided in (Appendix 1: Coding in ATLAS.ti and Coding Key Words). The analysis began in 2013, where the SAJE 2008 articles were analysed first and then the 2009 and 2010 articles followed. The initial analysis of the SAJE articles provided a base to refine the coding process in ATLAS.ti. The next journal analysed was PiE, followed by an analysis of the JoE articles during the same period as the SAJE articles. This process was followed because Creswell (2007) argued that multiple levels of analysis could be used to illustrate the complexity of a problem.

Namey, Guest, Thairu and Johnson (2007) argued that when researchers used content analysis they assessed the frequency and prominence of words or phrases in the original text in order to identify repetitive text. The first layer of analysis of this research sample began with content analysis using the coding system on ATLAS.ti. Then it proceeded to thematic analysis through the use of code families which will be discussed in greater detail later in this section. Finally, a comparative analysis was undertaken using ATLAS.ti, where I analysed and compared data from the different journal articles by coding the data and clustering ideas and concepts. Two phases emerged during the analysis process: the first phase involved a quantification of codes and code families in order to get a feel for the data. Semi-quantitative results of the historical thematic trends were obtained, and the results were shown in the form of graphs, tables and pie charts. This is consistent with McDougal's (2010) contention that qualitative research contains some degree of quantification. I was wary that the frequencies from the coding process should not be used to explain or make sense of data (Smit, 2002). I thus used the code frequencies only to assist me to grapple with the data. The second phase, which is more appropriate for qualitative research, involved an in-depth analysis of the data in order to answer the research questions.

The coding process began with the creation of codes and code families. Friese (2012) contends that coding refers to "the process of assigning categories, concepts or 'codes'… to segments of information that are of interest to your research objectives. This function corresponds to the time-honored manual practice of marking (underlining or highlighting) and annotating text passages in a book or other documents" (p. 10). Open coding was used to code the data, and this concept is defined by Corbin and Strauss (2008), as a process of "breaking data apart and delineating concepts to stand for blocks of raw data (as cited in Friese, 2012, p. 63-64). At the same time one is qualifying those concepts in terms of their properties and dimensions". In this study, codes were created and then refined throughout the analysis process. A back-and-forth interplay with the data occurred, which necessitated the constant checking and re-checking of codes and concepts (Bowen 2009). Codes were also grouped into a document family as a means of building a coding system. The network view in Appendix 2 shows that the 'Specialisation' is the code family and some of the linked codes included but were not limited to the following examples: textbook analysis and pedagogy.

As suggested by Bowen (2009), code segments were compared by asking, "how is this text similar to, or different from, the preceding text?" (p. 37). Each article was different and thus the deductive semi-structured framework that was developed reflected significant categories, which assisted the research process by narrowing the conceptual boundaries. During the data analysis process, I relied on my intuition and skills to filter data through an appropriate interpretive lens (the interpretivist paradigm). Bowen (2009) described a researcher who was doing document analysis as a subjective interpreter of data, which was an apt description of my role in this research. He further recommended that the research process should be as rigorous and as transparent as possible since qualitative inquiry demanded this.

ATLAS.ti allowed for transparency in this study, because I used memos and comments, which were linked directly to codes. This supplemented the hard copy diary that I used to make notes of insights which emerged while I was analysing the data (see Appendix 3 for an example of a memo). Theory memos were also used to link a concept to a coded segment for the purpose of analysis at a later stage. In certain instances, comments were attached to specific coded segments and they were used to track information about a code. Memos also assisted with the development of ideas. During the thematic and comparative analysis stages, the data behind the codes became more important than the number of instances coded, and this data informed the key findings. A comparative analysis began during the writing up of the research as a way

to compare the findings among the three journals, and then to arrive at a collective understanding of them.

Miles and Huberman (1994) defined data analysis according to three activities: data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing (as cited in Bertram & Christiansen, undated). During the analysis process, data reduction was undertaken through the coding process. The data display involved presenting the code frequencies by using tables, graphs and pie charts, and it involved the verification of the codes and frequencies. This led subsequently to the formulation of conclusions, after identifying patterns and themes, which showed similarities and differences across the journals.

By using a computer programme, it was possible to move and re-organise data under new categories when different codes and code families were adopted. This led to the development of new themes based on the data. Modifying codes and concepts is an intrinsic aspect of qualitative data analysis. According to Friese (2012), using a qualitative data analysis package increases the validity of the research findings specifically at the conceptual stage of the analysis. One journal was analysed at a time, which allowed categories, such as, researcher's focus/interest to emerge from the data, as well as other patterns and themes. However, this was not a linear process, because codes, memos and comments were refined continuously during the process. ATLAS.ti assisted me with storing, organising and managing the data, because I was able to locate text associated with codes, as well as common codes and to create code families. It was also possible to make comparisons among the codes within the three journals by using ATLAS.ti.

Friese (2012) argued that software has altered the construction of coding systems by making it more of an exploratory process, because codes can be renamed and modified easily. The entire analytic process has become more transparent (Friese, 2012). Consequently, data analysis procedures have also increased in their level of sophistication, as the computer can easily locate codes (Friese, 2012). Creswell (2007) also documented these advantages and they have far outweighed the disadvantages of not using a computer programme to analyse the data. Combining the approaches of inductive and deductive analysis, provided a platform for the main findings to emerge from this study as well as facilitated the process of self-reflexivity.

4.3 SELF-REFLEXIVITY

Self-reflexivity is used in qualitative research to expose any biases that a researcher may have. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) defined reflexivity as "a broad concept that includes rigorous examination of one's personal and theoretical commitments to see how they serve as resources for selecting a qualitative approach, framing the research problem, generating particular data, relating to participants, and developing specific interpretations" (p. 332). According to another view, Bowen (2009) stated that reflexivity requires "an awareness of the researcher's contribution to the construction of meanings attached to social interactions and acknowledgment of the possibility of the investigator's influence on the research" (p. 31). This study focuses on the schooling system in South Africa and since I work in higher education, I kept a diary of thoughts and feelings that could have affected the analysis process. My personal thoughts, beliefs, theories and how meaning was constructed were noted in order to honour, respect and accurately reflect upon the individual authors work (Creswell, 2012).

As this is a qualitative study, rigour within a qualitative study is better assessed through the concept of trustworthiness rather than validity (Thomson, 2011), and qualitative measurement concepts are developed to address validity. Lincoln and Guba (1985) offer four concepts to address reliability and validity through trustworthiness: transferability, dependability, confirmability and credibility. Transferability relates to the extent to which the evidence supports any generalisation of the findings to another context (Merriam, 2009). As stated in the limitations of this study, the findings from this case study cannot be transferred to other contexts since this study is context dependent. However, generalisations can be made within and across the three journals.

Dependability in qualitative research raises the question of "under what conditions may the operations of a study be repeated with consistent results (reliability)?" (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011, p. 37). Qualitative researchers gather evidence to support claims that similar finding could be obtained if the study was repeated. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) advocate the use of mechanically recorded data to enhance validity. The electronic downloading of the articles from the various journals on the Internet, and the electronic use of ATLAS.ti to analyse the data, enhanced the dependability of this study through creating accurate and complete records. Trustworthiness was increased by using ATLAS.ti to manage the data, which is arguably more accurate than any manual process. As suggested by Bertram & Christiansen (undated), an audit trail provides detailed information on how the data was collected, how it

was analysed and the procedures used. For the purpose of this study, an audit trail of data selection and analysis was recorded in ATLAS.ti together with any memos and comments.

Confirmability relates to the objectivity within a study: Shenton (2004) argues for triangulation to promote confirmability in order to reduce any bias. A researcher could thus use a combination of data collection methods such as interviews and observations in order to triangulate data. I acknowledge that the lack of triangulation in the data selection and its analysis is a limitation within this study. But there are mitigating factors which enhance confirmability, such as, the transparency in the analytic framework and the use of the coding process in ATLAS.ti. According to Shenton (2004), limitations and the reasons for choosing one approach, while others are available, should be acknowledged. I have justified the selection of my sample by making the criteria for inclusion and exclusion explicit. I have also suggested an alternative approach to the selection of the data, which might have resulted in a substantially reduced and less accurate sample.

Credibility, according to Walsh (2003) and Glaser and Strauss (1969) (as cited in Thomson, 2011), refers to the accuracy and believability of the findings. Another indication of creditability is the link between the data quality, its analysis and the conclusions reached with respect to the study's accuracy and completeness (Thomas, 2011). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), for a qualitative study of this nature, validity could also be enhanced through prolonged exposure to the data. I followed this suggestion of using a prolonged exposure to the data, and it led me to do an interim analysis using the SAJE. This was the first journal that was analysed and the codes were refined based on this interim analysis. The prolonged engagement with the data also made it possible to read and re-read the data over a long period of time. However, it was not possible to use a critical friend to challenge the findings, as suggested by McMillan and Schumacher (2010), since this was an individual research report and not a combined research project.

Other ways validity could be enhanced is by using a participant's language and verbatim accounts in the study (McMillan & Schumacher 2010). Thomas (2011) argues in favour of evidence in the form of quotations from the data to support the research findings, as a way of convincing a reader of the credibility of a study. In this study, I analysed the author's statements from the journal articles. I also incorporated quotations from the journal articles to ensure that verbatim accounts were included in the analysis process. Due to the nature of the methodological approach to this study, a deep analysis was used, which is very descriptive.

However, this provided a substantive level of 'raw data', which allows for the interpretations to be scrutinised and read more objectively.

In order to promote the credibility of this study and to guard against findings that simply confirm my expectations, I have argued that the interpretations that I have made are not the only possible interpretations of the data. In constructing an argument to support my findings, I have used the methodology and theoretical framework of this study to demonstrate what the results are of my reading and my interpretation of the journal articles. Ethical considerations were also taken into consideration to assure the credibility and trustworthiness of this study.

4.4 ETHICS

The trustworthiness in the interpretation of qualitative data, as well as the principles for good practice in the conduct of qualitative research, is reinforced by ethical conduct. Good qualitative research should ensure that the "subjective meaning, actions and social context of those being researched is illuminated and represented faithfully" (Fossey, Harvey, Dermott & Davidson, p. 717). This is a plea to those conducting qualitative research to do and report on their research in an ethical manner. Transparency in data collection, its analysis and the presentation of findings are indications of quality, and they are related to ethics and rigour in qualitative research (Creswell, 2012).

In this study, attention was paid to ethics in the data collection and its analysis which allowed for authenticity, dependability, transparency and credibility to guide the research process. Although the sample of journal articles analysed was freely available either on the Internet or through Wits University's e-journal portal, this study has adhered to ethical standards in the data collection and trustworthiness of its interpretations, while writing up the research. An application for ethical clearance was submitted to the Human Research Ethics Committee in the Faculty of Humanities at the University of the Witwatersrand and ethics clearance was obtained with the protocol number 2012ECE205. As per the instructions in the APA (2010) style manual, the data will be kept for five years (as cited in Creswell, 2012).

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter outlined the approach to this study and revealed the plan to answer the research questions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). In order to answer the research questions regarding the theoretical and methodological attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa during the period (2008-2010). An interpretivist paradigm guided the choice of a qualitative

research method within the humanistic tradition of CS. Qualitative research enabled the use of a case study approach, which was historical (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011), intrinsic (Stake, 2008, as cited in McMillan & Schumacher, 2010) and collective (Creswell, 2012), to analyse, interpret and present the data. The case or unit of analysis was defined as one case comprising all three journals used in this research. Further, the dominant theoretical and methodological attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa was defined as the product of the investigation. The sampling technique used was purposive sampling, which resulted in the selection of 64 curriculum related articles that focussed on schooling. This sample was justified in terms of the theoretical framework as well as the status of these journals as ISI Social Sciences and IBSS peer-reviewed and accredited journals. Through a review of the documents, this sample was also sufficient to explore the dimensions of the case study and to produce plausible interpretations from the data. I argued that document analysis as the data analysis method was suitable for addressing the research questions, since peer-reviewed and accredited journal articles were analysed. ATLAS.ti was used to analyse, interpret and manage the data. Consequently, the analytical framework and the data analysis methods (using ATLAS.ti), as described in this chapter, provided an audit trail for other researchers to verify or challenge the findings and even postulate alternative arguments. Although the characteristics of the authors emerged from the findings, they were included in this chapter to provide details related to where curriculum scholars worked and what their research interests were. In order to eliminate personal and methodological biases relating to subjectivity and to ensure ethical respect for the CS authors' work, I adhered to self-reflexivity and ethics in this research. This approach increased the trustworthiness, dependability and transparency in the data collection, its analysis and the interpretation of the findings. By using the above approaches, I have established the foundation for a discussion of the findings, which will follow in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The findings of this study are presented within the context of the research questions. The research questions are: what disciplines, theories and concepts have informed CS in South Africa?; how could CS scholarship in the period 2008-2010 be characterised?; what problems and questions have scholars formulated?; and, what research methodologies and methods do CS scholars use?. The findings from a theoretical perspective, were based on the various disciplines and areas of specialisation, because they provided a foundation for the theories and concepts that have informed CS. Answers to the methodological attributes of CS were obtained through an analysis of the problems and questions formulated by scholars. In addition, the research methodologies and methods used by CS scholars were analysed to develop a characterisation of CS scholarship in South Africa from 2008-2010. The first part of my findings follows in the next section.

5.1.1 Overview of Articles Analysed

The CS articles analysed in the three South African journals (SAJE, PiE, JoE) were classified into three categories: higher education; schooling; and, higher education and schooling. The largest number (n=64) of the articles totalling (56%) in the three journals were devoted to schooling. Although researchers may have chosen to publish their curriculum articles about higher education in the South African Journal of Higher Education (a journal excluded from the sample), almost half (n=49) of the articles (totalling 43%) in the three journals in the sample related to CS in higher education (see Figure 5.1). Only one article focused on both higher education and schooling, and the researchers stated that "what we hope for is that the pedagogical logic presented here may find material expression in the teaching and learning experiences of schools and universities" [176]. Consequently, this 2009 study in PiE was included in the findings with the other articles that related to CS in schooling in South Africa.

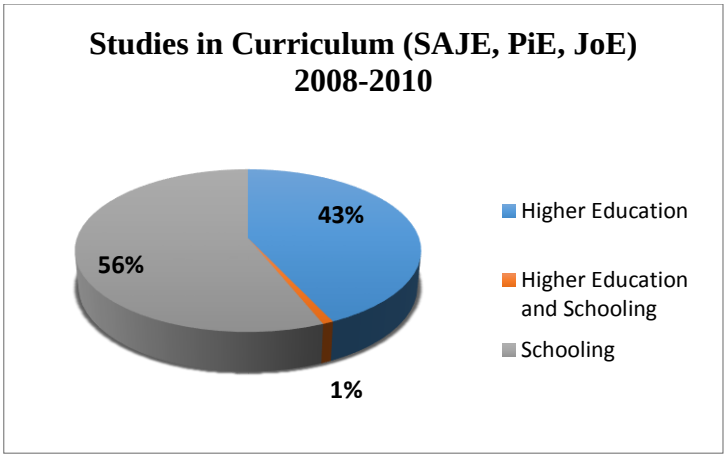


Figure 5.1: Studies in Curriculum in the SAJE, PiE and the JoE 2008-2010

Both probability and non-probability sampling techniques were found in the articles that were analysed. Studies in the SAJE and the JoE indicated its sampling strategy in greater detail by referring specifically to non-probability purposive sampling. One study stated that a, "non-probability purposive sampling technique was used to identify the sample" [70]. The reference to non-probability sampling was exceptional as most of the studies merely indicated their sampling strategy.

A diverse range of sampling strategies were found in the articles analysed, which include purposive, random, convenient, opportunistic, snowball and stratified sampling (see Figure 5.1). The majority of studies that used purposive sampling were found in the JoE (53%). This was exemplified in one study as "[t]he participants were purposively selected according to ... criteria" [13]. In comparison to the JoE, the SAJE only published 28% of the studies using purposive sampling with the remaining 19% of studies located in PiE (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Purposive Sampling Strategies

Purposive Sampling	2008	2009	2010	Total	Percentage
SAJE	3	2	1	6	28
PiE	2	1	1	4	19
JoE	6	4	1	11	53
Total	**11**	**7**	**3**	**21**	**100**

Random sampling was found in the SAJE and JoE. One study stated that, "a random sample of 527 schools from a data disc with the names and contact details of public schools in all nine South African provinces where English was taught as an FAL in the FET band" [87]. Convenient, opportunistic, cross-sectional group sampling were only evident in the SAJE. Only

one study each made use of convenient sampling, a combination of convenient and purposive, cross-sectional, opportunistic, snowball and stratified sampling. One quantitative research study captured its sampling strategy as "[c]onvenience sampling was conducted and nine identified preschools were included" [4]. Another study stated that in "the identification of these teachers was also opportunistic in nature since in the case of the functions study, one of us (VP) knew the principal of the school" [17]. A quantitative research study in the SAJE used a "quantitative cross-sectional group" [54] as a sampling strategy (see Figure 5.2).

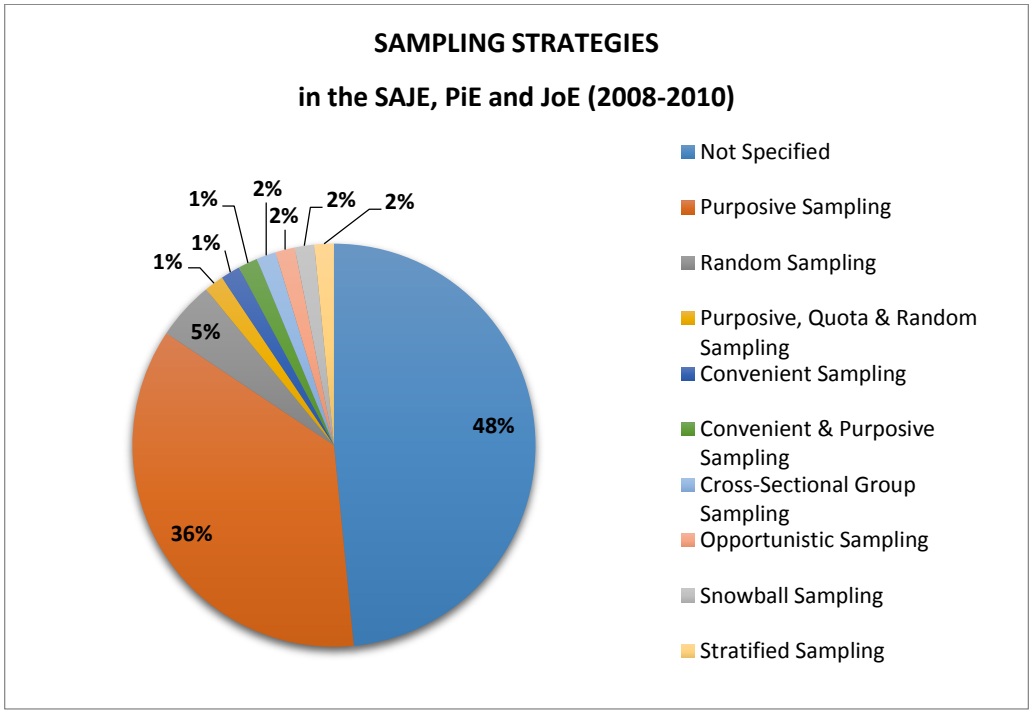


Figure 5.2: Sampling Strategies in the SAJE, PiE and JoE (2008-2010)

The SAJE was the only journal in which a quantitative research methodology study used stratified sampling, which was described as, "a stratified two-stage sample where schools constituted the first level and teachers the second level" [104]. In contrast to the SAJE and the JoE, snowball sampling was only evident in a qualitative research study in PiE. A combination where "[s]ampling was purposeful and convenient" [312] was also found. Another combination of sampling strategies that was only evident in the JoE included three strategies: "A combination of what McMillan and Schumacher (2001:178-179) regard as purposeful, quota and random sampling was used" [28].

5.2 DISCIPLINES, THEORIES AND CONCEPTS IN CS

5.2.1 Disciplines

The articles analysed indicated the disciplinary roots of CS in sociology of education, education psychology and philosophy of education. Articles with their disciplinary roots in sociology of education amounted to 69% (n=44), education psychology 20% (n=13) and the remaining 11% (n=7) of articles had their disciplinary roots in philosophy of education (see Figure 5.3).

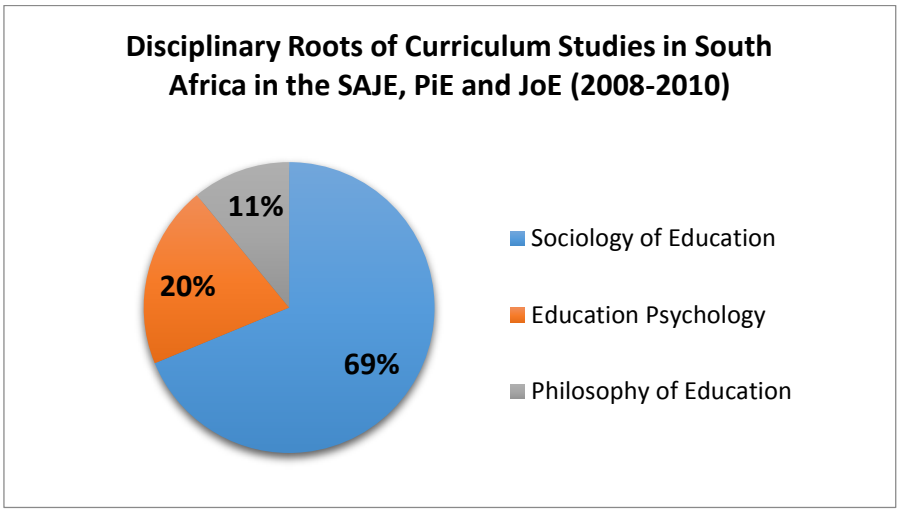


Figure 5.3: Disciplinary Roots of Curriculum Studies in South Africa.

Studies with their disciplinary roots in sociology of education were found in all three journals. The focus of these studies was on language and literacy, the interrogation of knowledge in the curriculum through textbook analysis as well as a focus on Bernstein's theories. Some of the studies that focused on language and literacy explored the political role of language, the interrelationship between discourse, power, power relations, identity and social change. This was captured in a study in the SAJE in 2008 as "[t]o ignore the political role of language in mathematics education research and practice would assume that power relationships do not exist in society" [7]. Studies on textbook analysis of history textbooks focused mostly on gender and power relations and their effect on knowledge in the history curriculum. This was illustrated in a study in a SAJE in 2010 as "feminist post-structuralist discourse analysis as a means of exploring notions of power in History texts so as to open up space for female voices of the past and present and to deconstruct realist historical narrative" [89]. Bernstein's theories such as the "Pedagogic Device" as well as "Bernstein's theory of code, classification, boundary and power" also formed the foundation for some studies and consequently provided an indication of the sociology of education focus in these studies.

The articles analysed indicated that studies with their disciplinary roots in education psychology amounted to 20%, and that the majority of these studies were found in the SAJE and JoE. The focus of these studies ranged from multilingual classrooms, to reading, language and the development of thinking and sense-making. Theories, which had developed from work based on Vygotsky and Piaget, [80, 264], were also found. A "Psycholinguistic Model of Language Development" [54] and focus on "language and the development of thinking" [80] gives an indication of the influence of cognitive structuralism, which would typically be investigated by developmental psychologists (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992).

Only 11% of the studies had their disciplinary roots in philosophy of education and were mostly found in the SAJE in 2008. These studies examined reasoning in mathematics education and realism as a learning theory and as a pedagogy. A study with disciplinary roots in philosophy of education is exemplified in a JoE study in 2010 as *"*[o]ut of this is an emerging return to realism, but of a different kind to the empiricist realism that characterised the positivist era (Sayer, 2001)" [287].

The various disciplinary roots drawn upon in the articles analysed thus signal the complexity in the field.

5.2.2 Specialisations

The majority of the articles analysed focused on knowledge issues. Other prominent areas of specialisation included: language and literacy, pedagogy and teacher education and the professional development of teachers.

Table 5.2: Specialisations in Curriculum Studies

Specialisations in Curriculum Studies	2008	2009	2010	Total
Pedagogy	5	3	3	11
Knowledge issues	8	7	6	21
Textbook analysis	2	2	2	5
Language and literacy	6	4	3	13
Teacher education & professional development of teachers	4	2	3	9
Educational effectiveness (related to curriculum issues)	1	2	2	5
Total	**26**	**20**	**19**	**64**

(Adapted from Bassey and Constable's (1997) fields of enquiry)

These specialisations give an indication of the diversity of the field of CS (see Table 5.2).

5.2.3 Theories and Concepts

For the purpose of this study, a theory is defined as a body of knowledge in which concepts are used to explain phenomena. However, concepts can be drawn from various frameworks and are able to exist independently of theories. A distinction has thus been drawn between theories and concepts. Bernstein's theory of pedagogy and Klafiki's theory for analysing learning content have been operationalised as theories whereas concepts such as multilingualism and vulnerability for example have been operationalised as concepts. Theories have been coded as theoretical frameworks and concepts have been coded as conceptual frameworks to clarify the distinction between the two.

5.2.3.1 Theoretical Frameworks

Theoretical frameworks based on Bernstein's theories were found in the majority of the articles analysed. Bernstein's theory of pedagogy, as a theoretical framework, was exemplified in a study in the JoE as:

> [t]he body of research on which the study attempts to build utilises Bernstein's theory of pedagogy, in which power and control are theorised at high levels of abstraction and can be used to link macro and micro levels of analysis. Bernstein's concepts of pedagogic code, classification, and framing focuses on pedagogy associated with this differential achievement". [298]

Various other theoretical frameworks emerged, which included Vygotsky's theory of social constructivism; learner-centred theory; Klafki's theory for analysing learning content; an e-education policy framework and realism. The findings indicated that additional theoretical frameworks were used in the articles, and these included sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic theories; Cummins' model of language proficiency; ethnography of communication; the theory of structural cognitive modifiability; action research; collaborative leadership and an alternative paradigm of professional development. Many of these frameworks were found in a single study, but there was little evidence of multiple usage across the three journals and over the three-year period. Freire and Foucault's theories and a combination of Bloom and Bernstein's theories were used in one study each. The exceptions were Bernstein's theories, which were used in 5 studies, and Vygotsky's theories, which were used in four studies. However, a combination of Vygotsky and Piaget's theories were used in two studies as theoretical frameworks.

A combination of Bloom's Taxonomy and Bernstein's "classification and framing" was evident in a study in the JoE in 2008, which stated:

> [t]he Bloomian analysis is all about the levels of complexity within the message transmitted and this gave us a seemingly neat analytical combination where Bloom honed in on the complexity of the message and Bernstein on the pedagogic medium the message is carried within. [265]

A similarity among the three journals is that Vygotsky's theories were drawn upon in all of them, although his theories were cited more often in the SAJE. A combination of Piaget and Vygotsky's theories were also used as theoretical frameworks in the SAJE and the JoE. These theoretical frameworks thus had their origins in Psychology of Education such as Bloom and Vygotsky's theories and other theoretical frameworks drew upon Bernstein's theoretical frameworks, which are rooted in Sociology of Education.

5.2.3.2 Conceptual Frameworks

Multilingualism was the dominant conceptual framework in the articles analysed. The debates and complexities within multilingual classrooms were highlighted in articles that used multilingualism as a conceptual framework. The background for the use of multilingualism was succinctly stated in one study as *"*[m]ultilingualism in classrooms is currently prompting debate and has significantly impacted on schooling in South Africa over the last decade" [4]. Another study stated that "[r]ecent research in South Africa points to the fact that procedural teaching is dominant in most multilingual classrooms" [53]. Challenges related to teachers' knowledge of their learner's mother tongue within multilingual classrooms was evident and this was reinforced in another study that focused on challenges that learners face in multilingual classrooms. It stated that *"*[l]earning and teaching mathematics in multilingual classrooms where the medium of instruction is not the learners' home language is a complicated matter" [80].

A variety of other conceptual frameworks, included the following: feminist poststructuralism; interpersonal communication skills; cognitive academic language proficiency; education support services; and, teachers' relationships with their learners. Some articles used concepts, such as: reconciliation and critical pedagogy; metacognitive skills; Vygotsky's transitional periods in childhood development; vulnerability; learner-centred education; visualisation and critical thinking; and, Freire's liberation pedagogy. Other studies were guided by the following concepts: multilingualism; mathematical concepts, such as, counting, calculating and arithmetic; realist interpretations; Foucaultian perspective of space and time; Piaget's concept of equilibration; and, Vygotsky's concept of internalisation. However, these conceptual frameworks were found in one study each with very little evidence of multiple uses across the

three journals over three-year period. The exceptions were multilingualism, which was used in nine studies, constructivism which was used in three studies and reconciliation and critical pedagogy, which was drawn upon in two studies.

Conceptual frameworks had their origins in all three discipline. Some of the conceptual frameworks were drawn from the disciplines of psychology of education such as Vygotsky and Piaget's concepts. Other conceptual frameworks such as Freire's liberation pedagogy have their origins in sociology of education while mathematical concepts, such as, counting, calculating and arithmetic; realist interpretations have their origins in philosophy of education. The articles analysed signal the fragmentation in the field of CS by indicating the various theories and concepts that were drawn upon in the articles that were analysed.

5.2.3.3 Unclear Theoretical Frameworks

A clear theoretical framework was not always easy to discern in some of the articles that were analysed. One study in PiE in 2009, stated that its theoretical and conceptual framework were based on school effectiveness and school improvement. However, the section was entitled as "Conceptual framework" [294]. Some studies used definitions and concepts, as was shown by "the terms reading and literacy are key terms in the present study, I shall define them in this section of the article" [162]. Another example of a study in which the theoretical framework was not clear, was found in a study in the JoE in 2010 that investigated South African students' performance in the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) [316].

5.2.3.4 Cumulative Work

The articles analysed indicated a limited amount of cumulative work. Some evidence of cumulative work emerged in PiE, especially with regard to pedagogy in post-conflict societies. This was encouraged by a special issue in PiE in 2009:

> The June 2009 special issue on "The Pedagogical transaction in post-conflict societies" of Perspectives in Education raises important questions regarding which pedagogies are appropriate in post-conflict societies, and how learners and teachers deal with contested knowledge in the classroom (Jansen & Weldon, 2009:107). [244]

A special issue in PiE in 2002 also encouraged cumulative work in multilingual education. One study in PiE was based on previous work, which highlighted this aspect: *"*In 2002 in a special issue of Perspectives in Education on multilingual education, we outlined the thinking

underlying a proposed dual-medium degree (in Sesotho sa Leboa and English) at the then University of the North" [154].

A study that used Bernstein's theories as a theoretical framework, acknowledged that previous work had drawn upon Bernstein, and that this form of cumulative work in South Africa was valuable:

> In using Bernstein in this way we were able to rely on the excellent work of numerous South African academics who had recognized his usefulness. The influential work of Bernsteinians like Muller, Ensor, Davis, Hoadley, Reeves, Breier and Gamble (see chapters in Muller, Davies and Morais, 2004) helped us to see how it was Bernstein could be productively applied to pedagogic analysis. In particular it was the excellent PhD of Hoadley (2005) that revealed the full extent Bernstein could be taken to when working with the issue of the reproduction of inequality in the classroom. [265]

Although many studies were published on various topics a minimum amount of inter-referencing was found. However, the articles analysed give some indication of the presence of cumulative work to advance the knowledge base in CS. The perspectives in CS will be presented in the section that follows.

5.3 INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES IN CURRICULUM STUDIES

The articles analysed using Pinar's (1978 & 2011) international perspectives indicated that the majority of studies (61%) were located in the traditional perspective, although there is some work that is emerging in the reconceptualization perspective (see Table 5.3). I will discuss the implications of these findings in the next part of this study.

Table 5.3: Characterisation of Curriculum Work within International Perspectives

Characterisation of Curriculum Work within International Perspectives	Total	Percentage*
Traditionalist perspective	39	61
Conceptual-Empiricism perspective	6	9
Reconceptualization perspective	16	25
Internationalization perspective	3	5
Total	**64**	**100**

* The number of articles coded in each perspective was divided by the total number of articles in order to derive the percentage.

5.3.1 Traditionalist Perspective

The articles analysed indicated a focus on field-based research within the classroom. The focus on the classroom was captured in one study in the JoE as "the aim of this investigation was to

analyse the opportunities to learn (OTL) physical science in previously advantaged and disadvantaged schools and classrooms" [303]. The mismatch between policy and practice was explained through an understanding of the context in which teachers work and teachers' ability to adapt a curriculum based on "their prior understandings and beliefs about knowledge, assessment and what constitutes effective teaching" [264] in their classroom practices. Classroom based research also took place within the context of geographic isolation and the social problems associated with poverty. This was highlighted in a study that focused on "teachers' classroom practices, curriculum management in the school and external sources of support available to educators in rural context" [294]. Another example was where classroom research took place using 'lesson study' to improve "teaching and learning in the context of an actual single class lesson" [76].

Another characteristic of the traditionalist perspective also emerged when analysing the articles, namely, service to practitioners. There were examples of research on in-service education, the training of existing teachers and the education and training of new teachers with regards to achieving the goals of the curriculum for specific groups of learners [298; 109]. The challenges faced by teachers in the classroom was highlighted through participatory research-as-intervention workshops [257]. There were issues raised in the articles, such as, the appropriateness of teachers' qualifications, how to enable teachers to provide epistemological access to learners, the changing rules of qualification structures, the changing demands of a new curriculum and the expectations placed on teachers for a new form of interdisciplinary knowledge. These examples all signalled the traditionalist perspective within some studies [317; 277]. One study in the SAJE made a recommendation that "in-service and pre-service education and training of teachers commence[s] immediately" [46]. This study also criticised the Department of Education (DoE) for the lack of resources and the inadequate support given to subject advisors who were expected to help with the implementation of the RNCS. It represented an instance where the DoE was challenged and its deficiencies in the implementation of the curriculum were highlighted. The service to practitioners in this study was emphasised through the concluding remark that "[w]hat matters is what teachers and learners do in classrooms" [87].

Curriculum development as a characteristic of the traditional perspective was found in articles that highlighted the following: implications of "curriculum organisation and the design of classroom instruction" [293], the improvement in learners' results [80] and the

implementations of curriculum development for assessment practices [87]. However, school improvement with a focus on efficiency and school policy was shown in studies that addressed school policies and the role of traditional leadership "in relation to school management, leadership, governance, school-community relations, infrastructural development and curriculum delivery" [162; 267]. Some of the articles analysed indicated a focus on answers to practical problems within the classroom. For example, a focus on textbook selection and evaluation that could be applied immediately to the classroom. Other classroom realities that were addressed by researchers included: barriers to learning, teachers' understanding of the demands of the assessment and the utilisation of classroom spaces to develop aspects of literacy [11; 13; 274; 297].

This meant that issues addressed in these articles helped to answer practitioners' practical problems, with a focus on the realities of the classroom, especially difficulties with the implementation of the curriculum. However, there was also a focus on the efficiency of curriculum implementation, curriculum organisation and design, as well as classroom practice.

5.3.2 Conceptual-Empiricism Perspective

Some of the articles analysed indicated a perspective based on conceptual-empiricism. The researchers' primary identities were in cognate fields such as speech-language therapy and clinical psychology. Collaboration between educators and speech-language therapists [54], as well as collaboration between clinical and education psychologists [153], was evident. A study in the SAJE in 2008 was undertaken by speech-language therapists who were external to the discipline of education, but conducted research because a "group of preschool teachers ... requested advice and support from speech-language therapists" [4]. Collaboration between researchers was also evident in a study in PiE in 2009, where educational psychologists collaborated with a "registered clinical and educational psychologist" who worked in the "Discipline of Psychology" [153]. A conceptual-empiricism perspective also characterised a study in which the researchers' primary identity was not in education, but in a cognate field of mathematics [27; 186]. This researcher reported that he worked in the "Department of Mathematics" [27] and not in a Department or Faculty of Education.

5.3.3 Reconceptualization Perspective

The reconceptualization perspective, with its focus on identity issues, feminism, post-modern and post-structuralism, was found in articles that were analysed in the JoE in 2008 and in PiE

in 2010. Issues of identity and critical pedagogy were the central focus of some of the articles. In one of the articles, it stated: "education in post-conflict and traumatised societies should be partly underpinned by the principle of 'mutual vulnerability' as central to a humanising pedagogy" [176]. This statement highlighted the pedagogic experience and changes to the teaching and learning environment required in the South African context. The reconceptualization perspective was also found in articles that focused on feminism, post-modern historiography, post-structuralism and realist conceptions of knowledge and truth [34; 306]. The focus on knowledge control through textbook analysis and the reproduction of knowledge with a mono-perspective in textbooks was demonstrated and indicated an emphasis on post-modern historiography. One study captured a feminist and post-structuralist perspective as shown by "[w]hat feminism brings to post-structuralism is the ability to address the question of how social power is exercised and how social relations of gender, class, and race might be transformed" [89].

5.3.4 Internationalization Perspective

Some articles analysed in PiE and the JoE had an internationalization perspective. International curriculum inquiry, framed a study in PiE, which was conducted in Rwanda and South Africa within the context of post-conflict societies, and examined the implications for the history curriculum in both countries [182]. Comparative curriculum research was evident in studies in the JoE, where comparisons were made: between South Africa and Britain; and, among South Africa, Anglophone countries and Singapore [261; 316]. Several articles showed different cultural and cross-cultural perspectives and the use of theory in the practice of action research [18; 178; 216; 316].

5.4 NATIONAL PERSPECTIVES IN CURRICULUM STUDIES

The articles analysed using Hoadley's (2010) national categories indicated the following focuses on CS: a political sociology account of curriculum processes; critical curriculum work in the 'knowledge and knower modes'; and, curriculum development and its implementation (which is also termed the bureaucratic mode). The articles analysed indicated that the majority of curriculum work (54%) was located in curriculum development and its implementation (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Characterisation of Curriculum Work within National Perspectives

Characterisation of Curriculum Work within National Perspectives	Total	Percentage
Political Sociology Account of Curriculum Processes	3	5
Critical Curriculum Work	26	41
Curriculum Development & Implementation	35	54
Total	**64**	**100**

5.4.1 A Political Sociology Account of Curriculum Processes

The articles analysed indicated a focus on a political sociology account of curriculum processes. Some articles showed the ways in which reconciliation could be taught in post-apartheid secondary school classrooms, despite unequal access to resources and contexts where social class varied [178; 298]. The political sociology account was demonstrated in a study in JoE in 2010, which was based on Bernstein's theories. It revealed the unequal opportunities available to learners in the physical sciences:

> We conclude that notwithstanding curriculum policy goals of equity in quality of learning experiences, actual opportunities to learn physical science are profoundly unequal. The South African National Curriculum Statement (NCS) for Physical Science (2003) emphasises 'high knowledge and high skills', and 'progression' as core principles underpinning the curriculum ... This research based fundamentally on Bernstein's (1996, 2000) theory of pedagogic discourse also employs the notion of opportunities to learn (OTL). [303]

These findings indicate that the political sociology account of curriculum processes is clearly an area that requires investigation in future research.

5.4.2 Critical Curriculum Work (Knowledge and Knower Modes)

Critical curriculum work was undertaken in the 'knowledge and the knower modes'. The articles analysed indicated that critical curriculum work in the 'knowledge mode' seemed to favour: the structure and outcomes of knowledge; curriculum inquiry; and, providing learners with access to abstract and appropriate modes of transmission. One study in the JoE in 2010 focused on the structure of a mathematical text and the use of language in the mathematics classroom. The researchers indicated that:

> We were interested in the ways in which text was specialised, through the move from counting through to calculating without counting; through shifts in the use of apparatus, through different modes of representing numbers and through the steady specialisation of language use in classrooms ... The concept of semantic density highlights the low conceptual level of the pedagogic text, as well as the low rate of transmission. [295]

Some studies highlighted the implications of mathematical knowledge in terms of knowledge structure and outcomes for teaching and learning, because "[m]athematics makes use of symbolic notation, which serves a dual role as an instrument of communication and thought" [27].

Another focus emerged on curriculum inquiry and knowledge control through textbook analysis, which used Bernstein and Bloom's theories. For example, one study in the JoE used "two instruments ... taken from Basil Bernstein and Benjamin Bloom, two exemplary pedagogic thinkers who not only theorized the pedagogic field but produced effective tools to work its terrain" [265]. The use of Foucault's "discursive formation" [176] illustrated how hegemonic discourses undermined integration in schools, as well as how power relations between forms of knowledge and social groups emphasised knowledge.

In the articles analysed, critical curriculum work in the 'knower mode' was found with its focus on: teachers' voices, constructivism, indigenous knowledge, teachers' perceptions and experiences, learner-centred activities and identity. Teachers' voices were emphasised by attempts "to make teacher voices audible" [257]. In support of the critical curriculum work in the 'knower mode', one of the studies in the SAJE in 2009 advocated "[d]ifferent approaches to assessment ... to accommodate the various ways in which learners construct knowledge in social settings" [106]. The 'knower mode' was identified through the incorporation of an indigenous game in the mathematics classroom [60]. The primary focus of some studies was on the teachers' perceptions and experiences that could lead to improved pedagogic practice. Another example was learner-centred factors that could influence learner's comprehension of complex sentence structures and this was illustrated by "[t]he results of the study revealed the participants' perceptions of the impact of certain personal challenges while supporting the preschool learners acquiring ELoLT" and a teachers' "[p]erception of own competencies to teach multilingual learners" [4].

The concept of identity through "othering" [263] in one study enabled a pedagogy of trust and connectedness to develop. Evidence for the 'knower mode' can be gleaned from the experiences and gave a voice to those affected by HIV/AIDS through:

> the discursive practices of HIV/AIDS support groups, ... opens up possibilities for a pedagogy of trust and connectedness [and] the attitudes and practices of members of an HIV/AIDS support group indicate a positive and inclusive conception of people infected and affected by HIV/AIDS that transforms 'the other' into 'another'. [263]

The above issues, related to identity and the voice of both teachers and learners, provided evidence to support the characterisation of these studies as critical curriculum work in the 'knower mode'. By using the voice of young people through action research as a pedagogy, while "respecting the voice of the young and of recognising their creative and perceptive potential to shape and enhance learning" [261], this highlighted the nature of work in the 'knower mode'.

5.4.3 Curriculum Development and Implementation (Bureaucratic Mode)

Curriculum development and its implementation was a central focus in the articles analysed, and they tended to revolve around the challenges related to understanding and implementing the new curricula. The alignment of curriculum content with vastly different assessment methods as well as the implementation of African languages as languages of learning and teaching was found in some articles. Examples of articles which analysed the NCS stated:

- I identify and discuss ways in which different types of connections are described in the South African mathematics National Curriculum Statement and its related documents ... I argue that connections are central to the way the discipline of mathematics, its learning outcomes, and assessment standards are conceptualised.. I then analyse connections in the National Curriculum Statement and its related documents. Finally, theoretical and practical implications of connections in the curriculum are identified. [12];
- Educational transformation in South Africa not only brought about Outcomes-based Education and Curriculum 2005 but also a new Learning Area/Subject, called Life Orientation (LO). A major challenge for LO as a new Learning Area/Subject is the preconceptions that exist about it, and the fact that the attitude of school principals is not conducive to the successful implementation of LO. Against this background it was deemed necessary to investigate teachers' perspectives regarding the implementation of LO in Grades R to 11. [46]

In the articles analysed, challenges were reported with regards to the implementation of new curricula, such as, OBE and C2005, and the introduction of LO as a new learning area. These challenges involved the principals' preconceptions and attitudes and the studies usually concluded with practical suggestions on how to improve support for the curriculum.

5.5 PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS INVESTIGATED

In this section, I present the problems and questions investigated using the various specialisations as organising categories. The first part of the findings relate to the problems posed by CS scholars, which form the basis for the questions investigated in the next section.

5.5.1 Problems Investigated

5.5.1.1 Knowledge Issues

The articles analysed indicated a wide range of problems investigated in knowledge issues in Life Orientation (LO) and the science and mathematics curriculum. Problem statements were found which focused on curriculum reform, curriculum development and implementation, as well as the link between knowledge and truth. Curriculum development and implementation was the focus of research problems that investigated the implementation of OBE and Curriculum 2005 (C2005). The problem regarding the implementation of OBE and C2005 was exemplified in a study in the SAJE in 2009, where teachers' perspectives regarding the implementation of a new learning area, such as Life Orientation (LO), were investigated. The disciplines of psychology, sociology and philosophy of education, were drawn upon in the problems investigated in knowledge issues.

The problem was introduced as follows:

> Educational transformation in South Africa not only brought about Outcomes-based Education and Curriculum 2005 but also a new Learning Area/Subject, called Life Orientation (LO). A major challenge for LO as a new Learning Area/Subject is the preconceptions that exist about it, and the fact that the attitude of school principals is not conducive to the successful implementation of LO. Against this background it was deemed necessary to investigate teachers' perspectives regarding the implementation of LO in Grades R to 11. [46]

While the problems investigated in curriculum development and implementation focused on LO, some of the articles analysed focused on the science curriculum. These articles indicated problems, such as, the disparities in access to education and the need for tools to examine the limitations of the questions in examination papers. Disparities in the teaching of science and the opportunities available to learn physical science in different classrooms in schools was also considered as a problem [303].

Research problems investigated in another area, that is, the specialisation of the mathematics curriculum concentrated on problems related to the concept of connections in the FET mathematics curriculum [12; 17], indigenous knowledge [60] and inductive and deductive reasoning [186]. One article in the SAJE in 2009 explored the connections between education and everyday experiences and revealed the problem of assuming western values in the teaching of mathematics. An indigenous game '*Morabaraba'* [60] was incorporated into the mathematics classroom to encourage the learning of mathematics through using indigenous

knowledge. Very few similarities were noted among the problems investigated in the mathematics curriculum.

5.5.1.2 Language and Literacy

Some articles with regard to language and literacy honed in on problems such as the challenges related to finding solutions to culturally and linguistically diverse urban schools, learners' performance in acquiring English as the language of learning and teaching and the politics of language in multilingual classrooms. A article in PiE in 2008 on reading challenges experienced by adolescents in an urban school formulated a hypothesis as, "[i]t is hypothesised that the measure in which they [adolescents] adapt to changed psychosocial conditions after primary school not only influences their academic and social development but can also blunt the fostering of salient reading habits"[162]. The discipline of psychology of education largely influenced the problems investigated in language and literacy.

5.5.1.3 Pedagogy

The focus of the research problems in the SAJE was on the pedagogical quality of the relationship between educators and learners in support services such as life skills and an HIV/AIDS programme [263], as well as ICT pedagogic practices in mathematics and science [104]. Two studies in PiE focused on problems related to vulnerability in traumatised and post-conflict societies [176; 263]. Within the framework of critical pedagogy and humanising pedagogical principles, education in post-conflict and traumatised societies was shown to be a problem where "mutual vulnerability" [176] was used as the central concept in educational efforts that aimed at reconciliation. This study stated:

> The notions of 'reconciliation pedagogies', 'mutual vulnerability' and 'humanising pedagogies' can be conceptually linked through the following line of reasoning … Pedagogies of this nature aim "to heal the effects of traumatic events that produce guilt, anxiety, resentment and injustice that persist and distort individual and national well-being" (Hattam, 2004, 1). ... Disrupting these frames in a moderated educational setting is the primary objective of the employment of the principle of 'mutual vulnerability'…We are exploring the conceptual links between 'reconciliation pedagogies,' 'mutual vulnerability' and 'humanising pedagogies' throughout this article. For now we turn our analysis to 'power', 'discourse', and 'meaning-making frames' to further strengthen these conceptual links … We finally demonstrate how 'mutual vulnerability' as a humanising pedagogical principle may steer educational practice in post-conflict societies. [176]

The articles analysed indicated that research problems in pedagogy showed very little evidence of similarities and were grounded in the discipline of psychology of education.

5.5.1.4 Textbook Analysis

Research problems related to the selection and analysis of instructional support in science and history textbooks. Problems related to the selection and evaluation of science textbooks were raised in the articles analysed that relate to textbook analysis. However, the problem with post-modern historiography was unique to history textbooks, and other issues found in them included gender bias and the need for multiple perspectives. In a study of history textbooks in the SAJE in 2009, the issue that related to gender bias in history textbooks was succinctly stated as "[t]he problem reported on here arose from the inadequate representation of women in South African school History textbooks" [70].

Another focus was on how support material, such as, teachers' guides, have the potential to model the translation of education policy into teaching activities. This was shown in the following study for languages:

> The paper examines support materials available to teachers of English First Additional Language [Grade Seven] in South African schools. Firstly, by identifying the outcomes expected from teachers and secondly, by trying to establish how teachers' guides for prescribed textbooks model translation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) into teaching activities. [312]

The problems investigated in textbook analysis were similar for history textbooks and were mostly published in the SAJE, while in languages the issue raised was that of support materials for teachers. The selection and evaluation of science textbooks was the only problem raised in the analysis these textbooks. The disciplines of psychology of education and sociology of education influenced the problems investigated in textbook analysis.

5.5.1.5 Teacher Education and Professional Development of Teachers

The articles analysed investigated research problems related to teacher's competence and qualifications. In one study, the research problem was investigated using a mixed methods study that focused on teacher's own understandings of the core competencies in teaching reading skills [30]. Other problem statements recognised that the Department of Education (DoE) had allocated a substantial amount of funding for upgrading the qualifications of educators. This meant that the effectiveness of programmes, such as, the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) in improving the expected competences of under and unqualified educators, was a problem worthy of investigation [74]. Changes in the curriculum from C2005 to the NCS created a demand for qualified teachers to implement the new

curriculum. This problem informed a study that investigated the criteria to inform whether the Western Cape had sufficiently qualified teachers in schools in 2008 [317].

Problems were also investigated that focused on the professional development of teachers. The inadequacies in mathematics education and, in particular, the training of mathematics teachers in rural areas in the Limpopo province were identified as a problem. This led to a survey of demographic profiles and perceived needs for in-service teacher education and training programme (INSET) [72]. The lack of adequate teacher professional development was also cited as a reason that the implementation of OBE was not as successful as envisaged. Related to this issue, the training of teachers to implement the demands required by C2005 was regarded as inadequate. An alternative form of professional development, which used a Japanese lesson study for in-service mathematics and science teachers, was also considered a problem when it was reviewed in a 2010 study in the SAJE [76]. These problems seemed to draw upon the discipline of psychology of education as a lens to investigate problems in teacher education and the professional development of teachers.

Despite the different problems investigated, there were some similarities found in the journals. Examples of these similarities were problems relating to teachers' competence, changes in classroom practices and teacher qualifications, inadequate training of teachers and the need for professional practice as it related to the reshaping of teacher's professional knowledge.

5.5.1.6 Educational Effectiveness

Problems investigated in educational effectiveness included integration in schools, the influence of traditional leaders in schools as well as problems related to learners' results on diagnostic test. Sociology of education is viewed as the discipline through which most of the problems in educational effectiveness were investigated. An example of a study on educational effectiveness with implications at the level of the curriculum is illustrated by:

> the responses and practices of schools and teachers associated with significant improvements in learners' results, and with stagnant or declining levels of learner performance, as measured on the WCED Diagnostic Tests. The data and analysis covers teachers' classroom practices, curriculum management in the schools and external sources of support available to educators in rural contexts that are characterised by geographic isolation and the many social problems typically associated with poverty." [294]

5.5.2 QUESTIONS POSED

5.5.2.1 Knowledge Issues

The articles analysed focused on investigating questions on curriculum implementation in LO and the mathematics and science curriculum. Similarities were noted between SAJE and the JoE, because some studies posed both questions and sub-questions while other studies posed aims and secondary aims. Some studies posed 'why' and 'how' questions and sub-questions in order to investigate the implementation of curriculum policy. How teachers' interpreted policy and why teachers' sense-making of policy was important for implementing policy were some of the questions that were posed. Examples of these implementation questions include:

- Why are teachers' sense-making of curriculum policy critical to the translation of policy into practice? [264];
- [W]hy it is proving so difficult to improve academic achievement. [68];
- [I]s successful curriculum implementation at all possible in the absence of the school principal; and if so, what does this say about the conceptualisation of leadership as it is commonly known? [272];
- [H]ow teachers noticed and interpreted policy and how prior knowledge, beliefs and experiences influenced the construction of new understandings ... how aspects of the situation influenced what teachers noticed and how they interpreted what they noticed about a specific policy, namely, C2005 ... And, … the policy messages inherent in C2005 were unpacked. [264]
- How can we improve our approach as a team?' This question served to "involve the learners in the research process as full participants…This article challenges and extends conventional understanding of action research to show how young people, between the ages of 10 and 17, can interrogate and improve their own practices – both individually and collectively". [261]
- [T]he key research question addressed here is: How do the processes of visualisation promote critical thinking? [219]
- [W]hat opportunities to learn physical science are made available in previously advantaged and disadvantaged South African classroom contexts? [303]

Investigations into learning processes involved the stating of a hypothesis and formulating arguments. A mixed methods study in PiE in 2008 stated the hypothesis of the study: *"*that young children's optimal cognitive performance and modifiability is a function of parent-child MLE interactions" [153]. In contrast, the following argument was stated in an article in the JoE in 2009, which had implications for curriculum organisation and design:

> This paper posits that learners manifest, during the experimental task performance, both the structure of the processes of self-regulation (individuality) and other-regulation processes of their society and culture. These pluralist, heterogeneous forms of cognitive development and functioning suggest a unique socio-cultural context of learning and development – with important implications for curriculum organisation and the design of classroom instruction. [293]

The key knowledge questions that were investigated revolved around teachers' understanding of policy changes and the subsequent implementation in classroom practices, alignment between national examinations and the curriculum, opportunities to learn and improving learners' results. The questions posed in knowledge issues reflected their disciplinary roots in psychology of education, sociology of education and philosophy of education, which supports the problems investigated.

5.6.2.2 Language and Literacy

The articles analysed indicated that questions in language and literacy revolved around English as the language of learning and teaching, multilingualism and the challenges teachers' experiences in teaching English as a First Additional Language (EFAL). Some articles stated the aim, while other studies posed 'why', 'what' and 'how' questions. What the challenges were that faced teachers of EFAL, what the requirements were to become literate in English and how a previously disadvantaged school improved its performance in literacy were among the questions that were posed. This was illustrated in the following studies:

- Why is it that teachers and learners prefer English as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) when research and policy support the use of the learners' home languages for learning? [7]
- what are the challenges that teachers of EFAL [English First Additional Language] in public schools in South Africa face with the implementation of continuous or SBA [School Based Assessment] in the FET band? [87]
- do female ABET learners understand, by way of their life experience and their multilingualism, what are the requirements to become literate in English? If so, how might this be possible in an environment of low English literacy? How are issues of age and educational attainment pertinent to this inquiry, given the improvement of metacognitive skill over time, the legacy of apartheid, and pre-existing negative cultural attitudes about the education of girls? [148]
- how a previously disadvantaged school turned around its performance in literacy by changing both its style and attitude towards teaching reading, after the circuit manager concerned decided to intervene at the school? [322]

Unlike the SAJE and the JoE, a hypothesis was found in PiE in 2008 in a study that questioned reading practices:

> It is hypothesised that the measure in which they adapt to changed psychosocial conditions after primary school not only influences their academic and social development but can also blunt the fostering of salient reading habits. As more rigorous literacy practices are required for optimal development of advanced reading skills, it is important that teachers understand the impact of transitional stressors. Secondary school is the beginning of the final instructional phase during which learners can be guided to effectively read to learn through advanced reading instruction. [162]

Some of the articles in the JoE also stated the purpose rather than a goal or a question. This was exemplified in an article that was published in 2009 on equality between English and African languages in education:

> The purpose of this paper is not to advocate the substitution of English with an African language. We believe that bilingual education is the appropriate choice for South Africa, but in order to achieve full equality between English and the African languages in education, arguments in support of the latter must be put forward proactively. [285]

The questions posed in language and literature were fairly similar across the journals in terms of their focus on issues in language and literature. Preferences for English as a language for teaching and learning, assessment challenges and how to improve learners' literacy levels were investigated as problems faced in multilingual classrooms. The discipline of psychology of education is seen as the disciplinary roots of questions posed in language and literacy.

5.6.2.3 Pedagogy

The articles analysed with regards to pedagogy posed questions about learners' performance, teacher's analysis of their own teaching, ICT pedagogic practices, and the use of a humanising pedagogy in post-conflict and traumatised societies. These questions were posed and, in some instances, the goals were stated in lieu of research questions. Examples of the goals that were explored include:

- [t]he study determined whether a visual multilingual learner companion brought change in learners' performance in mathematics. Also what the educators' views were about this. [80];
- [t]he goal was to understand the pedagogical use of ICTs in schools in 22 education systems. [104];
- [w]e are exploring the conceptual links between 'reconciliation pedagogies,' 'mutual vulnerability' and 'humanising pedagogies' throughout this article. [263].

These studies indicated the exploration of pedagogy through mixed methods and a quantitative approach which relied on goal formulation rather than posing more probing questions of a 'how' nature. Questions in pedagogy were grounded in the discipline of psychology of education to support the problems investigated.

5.6.2.4 Textbook Analysis

The articles analysed that dealt with textbook analysis stated the goal of the studies as well as questions and sub-questions in order to analyse science and history textbooks. Through 'what' and 'how' questions teachers' ability to select appropriate science textbooks was shown:

> We investigated how 16 South African Grade 7 natural science educators selected their textbooks and how they evaluated these textbooks. The question arises whether South African textbooks come up to expectations. The second research objective examined the 16 Grade 7 educators' evaluation of their science textbooks. [11]

The focus of questions in history textbooks was to analyse the text in terms of gender bias. A feminist post-structuralist contribution to gender interpretations in history textbooks raised research questions regarding the knowledge that post-structuralism contributes to the gender debate in history and how it provided possibilities for plural gender interpretation of text. An analysis of gender equality was probed through stating the goal of the study in two parts. The first part was to investigate gender equality in history textbooks and the second part was to investigate the role of teachers and teacher educators as gender change agents. Examples of the questions posed in textbook analysis include:

- Against the backdrop of the above discussion, the following research questions were formulated:
  What new knowledge does feminist poststructuralism bring to the gender debate in History as a school subject? And (b) How does feminist post-structuralist discourse analysis open up space for plural gender interpretation of school History texts? [89];
- [T]he study therefore sought to investigate the extent of gender equality in a sample of school History textbooks, and the role of teachers and teacher educators as agents of change in the gender-in-education initiatives in South African classrooms post 1994. [70]

Although the articles analysed in textbook analysis were on science and history textbooks, the questions posed were similar in that they focused on teacher's evaluation of textbooks and the appropriateness of the text. The disciplines of psychology of education and sociology of education influenced the questions posed in textbook analysis.

5.6.2.5 Teacher Education & Professional Development of Teachers

Generally, various questions and sub-questions were posed in the field of teacher education and professional development of teachers in the articles analysed. Most questions were posed through 'what' and 'why' questions in order to address teachers' achievements with regards to literacy rates, teachers' perception of the effectiveness of the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE), teachers' identities in a post-conflict society and barriers to teaching and learning. Questions also involved professional identities in terms of what knowledge and qualifications, teachers' needs in an in-service programme and changes in epistemological context and the implications for education practice. Examples of such questions include:

- [W]hy is it that some teachers achieve high literacy rates with their learners while others, working in the same school and same environment, do not? [30];

- What issues do teachers perceive to be barriers to teaching and learning? How can participatory video be used with teachers to promote an understanding of their ability to address these barriers? [257] and
- What kind of specialised knowledgebase best provides older and newer teachers in South Africa with strong enough professional identities to develop the autonomy, and flexibility to (a)to meet the expectations of new forms of interdisciplinary knowledge effectively;(b) to effectively teach specialist school subjects; (c) to be effective across related school phases; (d) to be effective across different school contexts; and (e) to be effective in classes with learners at different levels and from different socio-economic and language backgrounds? [317]

Arguments were also advanced in lieu of research questions to explore issues in teacher education, which have implications for practice. This was shown through the following argument: "The paper argues that this changing epistemological context has implications for how teachers might engage with the practice of enabling epistemological access in schools, and it has consequences for teacher education practice too, which I also discuss" [287].

The articles that were analysed on teacher education and professional development focused on what qualifications and professional development were required to implement the curriculum in a post-conflict society. The questions seemed to draw upon the discipline of psychology of education as a lens to investigate problems in teacher education and the professional development of teachers.

5.6.2.6 Educational Effectiveness

The articles analysed in educational effectiveness formulated questions in some articles, while in others, the aims and the purposes of the studies were stated without any evidence of specific research questions. These studies investigated how integration in schools had progressed, how successful school improvement interventions were, what the role of traditional leader was in promoting effectiveness in schools and how learner's responded to the questions in international diagnostic test. Examples of how questions were posed on educational effectiveness are illustrated by the following:

- The questions posed in this study are: how far has integration progressed to in this school? What staffing, curriculum and institutional culture integration are evident? Whose interests do the forms of integration practiced serve? Are there regularities across the levels of integration, and, if so, what do the regularities reveal? [231];
- The aim of the contact was to refresh our memory and to obtain current information about the influence of traditional leadership in these schools. [267];
- The purpose of the paper is to identify the key problems which occur at each of these levels, as a prerequisite for designing more effective school improvement interventions. [284]; and

- In order to explain the unusual patterns in South African children's responses to TIMSS questions, interviews were conducted with 36 Grade 9 children who were all first-language speakers of isiZulu. [316]

The nature of the questions investigated in educational effectiveness thus focused on the school and how curriculum improvements and integration could be implemented in schools. Sociology of education is viewed as the discipline through which most of the questions drew upon in educational effectiveness.

5.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES, DESIGNS AND SAMPLING STRATEGIES

This section reports on the findings in terms of the research methodologies, designs and sampling strategies that were found in the articles that were analysed. The findings of quantitative research methodologies, designs and sampling strategies are followed by qualitative and mixed methods to indicate the methodologies and methods used by CS scholars.

5.6.1 Quantitative Research Methodologies, Designs & Sampling Strategies

The articles analysed indicated that all the quantitative research studies (n=8) emerged from the SAJE. One study indicated that it was "an exploratory, descriptive, contextual research design, implementing the quantitative research method, was selected for the purpose of this study" [4]. Another study phrased the research design as *"*We adopted a quantitative cross-sectional group research design" [54]. Whereas, the University of Pretoria, Wits and the North West University both published the same number (n=2) of quantitative research studies. The University of Zululand, UCT and the North West University published one quantitative study each.

Diverse research designs were found in the articles that were analyses and these included survey designs, exploratory designs, cross-sectional and quasi-experimental non-equivalent group designs and were all appropriate for the quantitative studies in which they were used as shown by the following:

- [t]he survey instrument used in this study was developed from the Science Teacher Inventory of Needs (STIN-3) of Baird et al. (1994). [72];
- [a]n exploratory, descriptive, contextual research design, implementing the quantitative research method, was selected for the purpose of this study. [4];
- [b]ased on the assignment of the learners the quasi-experimental design was seen to be appropriate for the study. Specifically we used the non-equivalent groups design. [80];
- adopted a quantitative cross-sectional group research design, as various different groups were studied, based on one or more variables, at roughly the same point in time.... [54].

The articles analysed indicated that in some articles the sampling strategies were not mentioned. In a quantitative study in 2010 in the SAJE, the sample selection was stated as, "[p]articipants for this study were drawn from REQV 10 educators who were registered part-time for the 360-credit NPDE with the University of Zululand and who were in their second year of the three-year programme" [74]. However, the sampling strategy was not mentioned in this study. There is little information provided about how the sample was selected except for the REQV status, the degree and institution, as well as the year of study of the participants. Another quantitative study in the SAJE made no reference to the sampling strategy but focused on the sample selection of secondary mathematics teachers in the geographic location of the Limpopo province. The sample selection was stated as follows:

> The study was designed as a snap survey of demographic profiles and perceived INSET needs of secondary Mathematics teachers in Limpopo province. The survey of Mathematics teachers was part of a larger study that also included Physical Science and Biology teachers, for whom findings are reported elsewhere (Mabye, 2004; Manyelo, 2004). [72]

Surveys, questionnaires, observations, interviews and focus groups are used to collect data in quantitative studies. Yet, surveys/questionnaires as a data collection method were only found in the SAJE in 2008 and 2010, and constituted the majority of quantitative data collection methods. This was captured in one study as *"*the researchers employed a questionnaire as survey technique to obtain data" [4]. A mixture of quantitative data collection methods was evident in the SAJE, where researchers used either a combination of tests and questionnaires or a combination of questionnaires and observations or a combination of questionnaires and interviews. An example of a study with a combination of a questionnaire and interviews included "A questionnaire was compiled and permission to administer it to Grade 7 science educators …, Two researchers were present at each interview." [11].

The combination of questionnaires and interviews constituted half of the quantitative data collection methods and was captured in another study:

> Because one of the researchers visited the schools by appointment and administered the questionnaires personally ... This method was combined with interviews in order to gain deeper insight into problems respondents were experiencing in their relationships with learners...Construct validity was ensured by having three of the researchers intersubjectively involved in the construction of the questionnaire. [28]

Although survey/questionnaires were combined with qualitative research data collection methods, these studies were coded as quantitative methods (see Table 5.5). However, in one study, the results and discussion only presented the quantitative survey component of the study. This study concluded that "[t]he survey revealed that a relatively small percentage of teachers

(educators) in a largely rural province of South Africa perceived certain indispensable pedagogical relationships not to be needed" [28]. Where combinations of data collection methods were used in quantitative studies, qualitative data collections methods were used to increase the trustworthiness of the survey results.

Table 5.5: Quantitative Data Collection Methods

QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION METHODS	2008	2009	2010	Total
Survey / Questionnaire	3	0	1	4
Test & Questionnaire	0	1	0	1
Questionnaire & Observation	0	0	1	1
Questionnaire & Interviews /Focus Groups	1	0	1	2
Total	**4**	**1**	**3**	**8**

As part of these quantitative studies, pilot studies were also undertaken. Five studies were piloted in the SAJE. This was shown in one study, where a "pilot study was conducted during 2006 to determine the content validity of the self-designed questionnaire used to capture the data in the current study" [46].

Quantitative research methodologies were only found in the SAJE. Survey designs, exploratory and cross-sectional designs drew upon combinations of data collection methods and pilot studies to increase the validity of these studies. Quantitative research methodologies tended to reflect disciplinary roots in psychology of education and a strong positivist orientation.

5.6.2 Qualitative Research Methodologies, Designs & Sampling Strategies

All the articles analysed that used qualitative research methodologies explicitly stated the nature of their studies. Forty-nine qualitative research studies were published over the three-year period in the three journals with the majority (n=22) being in the JoE. Most of these studies emanated from the North West University, followed by UKZN, Wits, UNISA and NMMU. One article analysed in the SAJE indicated that "[a] qualitative phenomenological study was conducted to probe into the way Grade 7 science educators select and evaluate their textbooks" [11]. While a study in PiE stated "[w]e report on a qualitative study" [162], and another study in the JoE stated its approach as "using a qualitative research approach" [312].

The majority of authors who published qualitative studies were from the University of KwaZulu Natal (n=15) followed by Wits (n=9) and UNISA and NMMU with seven authors each. Authors from UNISA (n=5) published more in the SAJE than in PiE or the JoE over the three years followed by the University of the North West and the University of KwaZulu Natal

with three authors each. A pattern of preferences in favour of publishing in a particular journal became evident: authors from the North West only published in the SAJE and not in PiE or the JoE; authors from Cape Peninsula University of Technology, an educational institution, and the University of Johannesburg only published in the JoE. Other authors from the University of Stellenbosch only published in the SAJE and the JoE.

The articles analysed indicated that various research methods were evident. These ranged from case studies to ethnography and combinations of case studies and surveys. The majority of qualitative research (61%) used case studies as a research design followed by ethnography (7%) and intervention research (7%) (see Table 5.6).

Table 5.6: Qualitative Research Designs

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGNS	2008	2009	2010	Total	Percentages
Case study	6	5	6	17	61
Ethnography	0	0	2	2	7
Intervention research & Literature review	1	0	1	2	7
Action research	0	1	0	1	3.6
Action research & Case study	1	0	0	1	3.6
Case study & Ethnography	1	0	0	1	3.6
Case study & Survey	0	1	0	1	3.6
Design research	0	0	1	1	3.6
Participatory methods	1	0	0	1	3.6
Phenomenology	1	0	0	1	3.6
Total	**11**	**7**	**10**	**28**	**100**

Comparatively over the three-year period, all three journals published, more or less, an equal number of case study research design articles, even though the numbers per year varied. The JoE published 59% of the case studies followed by the SAJE totalling 23% and JoE with 18%. Specific reference was made to using a qualitative case study and some studies stated that "we use a qualitative case study approach to examine the efficacy of clustering as an approach to teacher development" [169]. Other articles referred to a "qualitative multi-method case study [which] allowed for in-depth analysis of integration in the school" [169]. One study made specific reference to a particular case study by stating that a "qualitative intrinsic case study was conducted to determine the gender representation in a post-1994 South African school History text" [70]. Some articles also described their research design as a single case study since they "chose a single case study design to examine how a small group of authors designed their textbooks and teachers' guides and used language to recontextualise the NCS for Grade 7 English teachers" [312].

Combinations of case study and other designs were also evident. A combination of a case study and a survey was used in a study in PiE in 2009. This study described its research design as having two components:

> a survey of 752 matric art learners for gathering information on their final art grades, and social class, race, and gender...The second component of the study comprised a multiple case study for detailed exploration of pedagogy in six school classes. [298]

A combination of action research and a case study were also evident [261]. Although not explicitly stated, this study might have employed multiple case studies design since reference was made to four case studies. In addition, a combination of a case study and an ethnographic design was evident in a JoE study in 2008. This study might also have used a multiple case study design, but this was not mentioned accept to refer to six "research projects" [267]. A similarity was found between the JoE and the SAJE, because there were intervention research designs. However, phenomenology as a research design was only found in the SAJE in 2008. Action research as a research design was only found in PiE and this study stated that, "[i]n this article we draw on data from a two-cycle action research project, in which ways of teaching reconciliation in post-apartheid secondary school classrooms are explored" [178]. A participatory research design was found in a JoE study in 2008, which stated that "using participatory methods to understand how HIV/AIDS and other related barriers may affect various types of learning in Richmond" [263]. Ethnography and design research as research designs were only found in PiE in 2010.

Conceptual qualitative studies, such as, those found in PiE did not mention a sample strategy when they attempted to explain the nature of "the conceptual links between 'reconciliation pedagogies', 'mutual vulnerability' and 'humanising pedagogies' and to associate them with the broader framework of critical pedagogy" [176]. Another qualitative conceptual study on post-conflict societies in PiE in 2009 mentioned the sample selection as South Africa and Rwanda, but no mention was made of the sampling strategy. The sample in one of the qualitative studies in the SAJE stated that "[a] questionnaire was compiled and permission to administer it to Grade 7 science educators was granted by the acting regional executive manager. The questionnaire was given to all 37 schools in the Potchefstroom region to be completed by the Grade 7 science educators" [182]. The sample selection was articulated, but without referring to the sampling strategy. Another qualitative study in the JoE in 2009 specified the sample selection in detail:

> Nine Foundation Phase teachers teaching in three different semi-rural, poor schools in the Western Cape constituted the sample for the research reported in this paper. All teachers speak isiXhosa as their first language, the home language of the majority of learners in the

> classes of the teachers was isiXhosa, as was the medium of instruction. Six of the nine teachers had experience in teaching Grade 3; the other three had taught Grade 1 and 2 and in one case, Grade 5. All teachers were female, older than 30 years of age and qualified to teach at the Foundation Phase level. Two of the teachers had Bachelor degrees, and two of the teachers had the lowest level of teacher qualification – a matric plus a three year diploma. The teachers varied in terms of their teaching experience, between 5 years and 25 years. The teachers' classes were on average large, with as many as 57 learners in one class. Only two classes fell within the national teacher: pupil ratio norm of 1:40. [316]

Although the sample strategy was not explicit, some qualitative studies presented the sample in terms of the sample size, demographic information such as the geographic area, and the teachers' qualifications and data collection site.

Qualitative data collection methods in the articles analysed included document analysis, interviews/focus groups, questionnaires and interviews. The majority of studies (34%) that uses qualitative data collection methods used document analysis. Document analysis and a combination of observations and video recordings amounted to 13% of the data collection methods. An article that used document analysis stated that *"*[t]his study employs document analysis as a research method as it involves a systematic and critical examination, rather than a mere description, of an instructional document such as the National Curriculum Statement" [105]. A total of 10% of the CS collected data using interviews and focus groups. Some of the studies indicated the following: the "individual interviews [were] conducted with both the teachers and the learners" [7]; whereas, other studies made reference to "semi-structured interviews" [162; 272]; while several studies used a combination of *"*focus group discussions and interviews" [263] to collect data (see Table 5.7).

Table 5.7: Qualitative Data Collection Methods

QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION METHODS	Total	Percentage
Document analysis	16	34
Observation & Video recordings	6	13
Interviews & Focus groups	5	10
Interviews & Observation	4	8
Document analysis & Interviews	4	8
Document analysis, Observation, Interviews & Questionnaire	2	4
Document analysis, Artefacts, Video, Interviews & Observation	2	4
Document analysis & Questionnaire	1	2
Document analysis, Interviews & Observation	1	2
Document analysis, Observation & Interviews	1	2
Document analysis, Survey & Questionnaire	1	2
Literature review & Test	1	2
Observation, Video & Interviews	1	2
Questionnaire & Interview	1	2
Visual methodologies	1	2
Narrative analysis	1	2

A combination of interviews and observations and a combination of document analysis and interviews was found in 8% of the articles. One of these studies showed this by stating that "[a] case study design enabled us to use interviews and document analysis to discover what actually occurred" [312]. Another study explained the need for interviews in addition to observations as "[t]hese observation sessions were followed up with post-lesson interviews to clarify meanings" [264]. Several articles mentioned that the researchers were non-participants and that "[s]tructured observations were done while the teachers were teaching and we were non-participant observers in the class" [17]. Some articles merely mentioned that observations and video recordings were used to collect data.

Other less frequently used data collection methods in CS in South Africa included: a combination of document analysis and tests; a combination of video recordings and interviews; a combination of questionnaires and interviews; and, visual methodologies and narrative analysis. Narrative analysis and visual methods were not found in many articles, but an example of a narrative analysis was shown in one article, where "three British and one South African – are presented, along the lines of a patchwork narrative. Each 'patch' in turn contributes to the later collation of a theme and ideas that 'stitch' the studies together" [261].

Pilot studies were reported in the SAJE and PiE, and one study stated that "the study commenced with a pilot study. From July to August 2006, 25 pilot interviews about educational attitudes and background were conducted as well as a pilot protocol on metacognitive awareness and skill" [148].

The majority of qualitative research methodology studies used a case study approach and document analysis as a data collection method. Combinations of research design approaches and data collection methods and pilot studies were also found indicating attempts to triangulate the data. These studies tended to mostly draw on the disciplines of sociology and psychology of education as evidenced by their theoretical frameworks.

5.6.3 Mixed Methods Methodologies and Designs

The articles analysed indicated that the majority of mixed methods studies were published in the SAJE and PiE. Most articles analysed indicated that the studies used "[q]ualitative and quantitative analysis" [30; 46, 87] or that "[b]oth quantitative and qualitative analysis were conducted" [34 109, 153]. A researcher used the term 'mixed methods' in a Wits article, where the research method was described as "a mixed-method research design consisting of a combination of quantitative and qualitative research approaches was used in this study" [153]. Most of the authors who published mixed methods studies did so in the SAJE, and they were based at the University of the North West, followed by Wits, CPUT and UNISA.

The research designs found in mixed methods studies included surveys and quasi-experimental designs. One study indicated that "[a] mixed-method research design consisting of a combination of quantitative and qualitative research approaches was used in this study" [153]. I found that in the majority of studies that used mixed methods, the "researchers conducted a descriptive survey" [46; 87; 148]. In contrast to the JoE and PiE, a combination of "a quasi-experimental and interview schedule" [80] was found in a SAJE in 2010. No evidence was found of mixed methods studies in the JoE from 2008-2010.

Mixed methods studies generally stated their sampling strategies in the articles analysed. A mixed methods study in the SAJE in 2010 articulated the sample selection in terms of the following:

> The sample comprised 2,348 learners in Grade 4, Grade 5 and Grade 6 from 20 schools as well as 20 educators from the treatment schools ... The selection was based on the 2006 annual statistics survey that all schools have to submit to the North-West Education Department. The survey provides information regarding enrolment, gender, age, home language and medium of instruction. Analysis of the different schools' reports enabled us to identify and select 20 schools that were similar in composition and nature ... Principals and educators were shown the provisional allocations and were

> asked to give input in selecting the two groups ... In essence inclusion in either group was by mutual consent wherein each school provided one class of Grade 4, Grade 5and Grade 6 learners ... In this regard, the treatment group comprised schools named School A, School C, School E, up to School S. Similarly for the comparison group the schools were named School B, School D, School F, up to School T. Typically the chosen classrooms had a variety of language speakers and except for a few instances a majority of learners spoke languages other than English. [46]

Overall, eight studies were found in the articles analysed that could represent mixed methods studies, five from the SAJE and two from PiE. However, no evidence was found of mixed methods studies in the JoE. There were also diverse combinations of data collection methods used in mixed methods studies (see Table 5.8).

Table 5.8: Mixed Methods Data Collection Methods

MIXED METHODS DATA COLLECTION METHODS	2008	2009	2010	Total
Interviews & Survey/Questionnaire	2	0	0	2
Interviews, Questionnaire& Observation	1	0	0	1
Questionnaire & Document Review	1	0	1	2
Qualitative & Quantitative Questionnaire	0	1	1	2
Test & Interviews	0	0	1	1
Total	**4**	**1**	**3**	**8**

In the SAJE and PiE, there was a combination of interviews and surveys/questionnaires as examples of mixed methods data collection methods. One study reported mixing both qualitative and quantitative data in a questionnaire and stated that "[q]uantitative and qualitative data captured by a questionnaire typify the research design as a survey" [46]. A mixed methods study in PiE, used a combination of interviews and a survey/questionnaire. The complexity of a "mixed-method research design consisting of a combination of quantitative and qualitative research approaches" [153] was evident in the use of three data collection methods in the form of a questionnaire, interviews and observations. This study reported that "[a] parent questionnaire which was used in the initial interview was designed...parent interview [were] followed by a 30-minute playtime, as well as two sessions of individual assessment" [153]. In addition, there were two mixed methods studies found in the SAJE. These studies used a combination of questionnaires and document analysis: "[a] research group of six academics examined the illustrative material of nine series Grades 4–6 primary school history textbooks to identify the extent of racial representation. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted" [34]. The questionnaires were used to provide an indication of the racial composition of the people depicted in history textbooks in order to illustrate that "so-called 'white history' is marginalized in the exemplars" [34].

A combination of a test and interviews as data collection methods was used in a study in the SAJE to determine whether a learner's companion had any effect on learners' achievement in mathematics [80]. Combinations of research designs and data collection methods in the mixed methods studies were published in order to disseminate the findings resulting from this methodology. Psychology of education, sociology of education and philosophy of education served as the disciplinary roots of the studies that used mixed methods.

5.6.4 Unspecified Research Designs and Sampling Strategies

The findings indicated that almost half (48%) of the articles in the SAJE from 2008-2010 did not make explicit their research designs. The lowest proportion (24%) of articles that did not specify their research design were from the JoE. Slightly more than half (28%) of the articles in PiE, did not report on their research designs. In the SAJE, 24% of the studies conducted did not specify their research designs. In addition, half of the mixed methods studies did not explicitly specify what their research designs were (see Table 5.9).

Table 5.9: Unspecified Research Designs

RESEARCH DESIGN NOT SPECIFIED	2008	2009	2010	Total	Percentage
SAJE	7	2	5	14	48
PiE	3	3	2	8	28
JoE	1	3	3	7	24
Total	**11**	**8**	**10**	**29**	**100**

The next set of findings indicated that the majority of studies in the SAJE (39%) did not specify their sampling strategies (see Table 5.10) and that studies in the JoE were generally better at specifying their sampling strategies. However, studies that did not specify their sampling strategies included mixed methods studies and qualitative methodological studies.

Table 5.10: Unspecified Sampling Strategies

Not Specified	2008	2009	2010	Total	Percentage
SAJE	5	1	7	13	39
PiE	2	3	6	11	33
JoE	2	4	3	9	27
Total	**9**	**8**	**16**	**33**	**99.99**

5.7 CONCLUSION

The findings presented in this chapter addressed the dominant attributes of CS, which related to the disciplines, theories, concepts, the problems, the questions posed, the research methodologies, the methods used and the characterisation of CS scholarship. After analysing the articles, the results indicated that the majority of the articles had their disciplinary roots in sociology of education. But there were other disciplinary roots too, and this signalled the diversity of the field.

Scholars were able to drew upon a variety of theoretical frameworks, such as, learner-centred theories and, Bernstein's theories. They also used concepts, for example, post-structuralism and Freire's liberation pedagogy. However, the fragmentation in the field became evident, because these frameworks were found in one article each, and there was little evidence of multiple usage across the three journals during the three-year period examined. The only exceptions to this finding were the use of Bernstein and Vygotsky's theories. Some evidence emerged in PiE of cumulative work, especially with regard to pedagogy and studies in multilingual education. But many articles were published on various topics with a minimum amount of inter-referencing.

When applying Pinar's (1978; 2011) international perspectives to the results, the majority of studies were characterised as having a traditionalist perspective. The support for this view was the focus on field-based research within the classroom, service to practitioners, curriculum development, school improvement and answers to practical problems, which were based on the realities of the classroom. Within Hoadley's (2010) national perspectives, the majority of studies were characterised as focusing on curriculum development and its implementation.

The multifaceted nature of CS scholarship became evident in the research problems and the questions posed. Research problems investigated the following: knowledge issues; pedagogy; textbook analysis; language and literacy; teacher education and the professional development of teachers; and, educational effectiveness. The questions posed about knowledge issues dealt with curriculum implementation and how learning processes influenced curriculum design and classroom interaction. Questions posed in language and literacy tended to explore complex sentence comprehension ability, the challenges encountered by teachers of English First Language, the issue of equity between English and African languages and how performance in literacy was influenced by rigorous literacy practices. Research questions in the field of textbook analysis focused on gender equality and how curriculum design influenced the way

the prescribed content was taught. A variety of questions were posed in teacher education and the professional development of teachers. These questions addressed: teachers' achievements of literacy rates; teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of their qualifications; their professional identities; and, the consequent implications for education practice. Research questions within education effectiveness included: progress related to integration, traditional leadership in schools, the identification of effective school improvement interventions, as well as poor performance of learners on diagnostic tests.

The articles analysed also indicated the use of qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. However, in terms of the research methodologies, the majority of articles were of a qualitative nature. Diversity was found in the research designs, even though the majority of the research designs were case studies. Most of the studies used purposive sampling, although the analysis showed that a diverse range of sampling methods were used. A limitation in the findings was highlighted with regard to sampling strategies: only a few studies reported on sample selection in terms of the size of the sample, demographic information, the geographical location, the socio-economic status of the schools and the learners, as well as the language spoken by learners and teachings. Surveys/questionnaires as data collection methods were found only in the SAJE and this approach constituted the majority of quantitative data collection methods. However, the majority of studies used qualitative data collection methods, such as, document analysis and interviews.

In the next chapter, I discuss how these findings address the research questions and help to describe the dominant attributes of CS in South Africa during the period 2008-2010.

CHAPTER 6: INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The findings were presented in the previous chapter and the focus of this chapter is on interpreting and discussing these findings. A synthesis across the three cases is undertaken in order to describe broad patterns that emerged across the data. Claims are made based on the key findings and are discussed in relation to the literature and the wider issues in CS in order to answer the overall research questions, namely, 'What are the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa in the period 2008 – 2010?'

6.2 THEORETICAL ATTRIBUTES OF CS SCHOLARSHIP

6.2.1 Claim 1: Curriculum studies in SA has been informed by the discipline of sociology of education, Bernstein's theoretical frameworks and concepts such as multilingualism.

6.2.1.1 Disciplinary Roots

The majority of curriculum articles in the journals were informed by the discipline of sociology of education. Smith and Ewing (2002) argued that sociologists succeeded educational psychologists in the field of CS. The sociologists were concerned with the social construction of knowledge through language, as well as its implications for CS. In addition, Smith and Ewing (2002) suggested that sociology of education was also concerned with issues of ideology, class, race, gender, poverty and ethnic diversity, and that these ideas have implications for power, control, access and participation in curriculum inquiry. This meant that the discipline of sociology of education was able to help address specific concerns about knowledge and pedagogy in the NCS and the RNCS in South Africa in the period from 2008-2010. These concerns led scholars such as Muller (2000), Hugo (2010) and Hoadley (2010) to focus on Bernstein's theories of organised forms of knowledge in order to understand knowledge structures. Bernstein's (1990) concepts of classification and framing indicated how boundaries between curricula were defined and as a result served to reproduce social inequalities. The major concerns of the articles in this study focused on the nature of power, as well as the relationship between knowledge and its interactions with socio-economic factors. These findings are in sharp contrast to the study by Hoadley (2010), who found that work up to 2007 was located in psychology of education, which focused on perceptions, attitudes and the types of knowledge that students needed. Hoadley (2010) also found that those researchers who worked in the knowledge mode tended to work from within the field of sociology of

education, where Bernstein was the disciplinary hero. The findings in this study also showed Bernstein as the disciplinary hero.

An explanation for the dominance of sociology of education in this study might be that a shift occurred in the review of the NCS with an emphasis on re-introducing knowledge into the curriculum. Ekanem and Ekefre (2014) argued that philosophy played a role in curriculum development since "philosophy of education does influence, and to a great extent determines our educational decisions and alternatives ... [and] those that are responsible for curricular decisions need to be clear about ... their belief system" (p. 265). In light of this argument, philosophy of education could have played a more prominent role in the shift from the NCS to the RNCS. However, Ekanem and Ekefre's (2014) argument was not supported by this study since a minority of articles analysed had their disciplinary roots in philosophy of education. Nonetheless, Hoadley (2010) showed that within the broader education context, the NCS process was led by educationalists, who drew on Bernstein's knowledge structures and Young's (2000) notion of powerful knowledge (disciplinary knowledge) to address issues of social justice, redress, democracy and human rights. These ideas remained a central focus in the RNCS too. Hugo (2010) also highlighted the importance of knowledge structures in post-Apartheid CS in South Africa. This could be a reason why the authors of CS in this study drew upon the work of Bernstein and consequently showed that their disciplinary roots were in sociology of education.

6.2.1.2 Specialisations

The topics in the field of CS covered a wide range curriculum issues. A consequence was that the specialisations in CS in South Africa were diverse and ranged from topics in curriculum issue, pedagogy, textbook analysis and language and literature to teacher education and professional development of teachers. Smith and Ewing (2002) analysed Australian Journals and also found that no clear parameters existed for CS. They showed that general and specific subject matter with diverse ideas, problems, questions, approaches and issues characterised CS in Australia. In addition, Smith and Ewing (2002) argued that CS was enormously eclectic, because it drew on all areas of knowledge in education and that the field of CS was not only contested but also diverse. However, according to Bassey and Constable (1997), there is a level of arbitrariness when publications straddle more than one field.

Knowledge issues as an area of specialisation dominated the field of CS in this study. Within the context of implementing the OBE, C2005, the NCS and the RNCS it is not surprising that

the focus was on knowledge issues in order to support changes in the curriculum. Within the period 2008-2010, debates around the challenges experienced in curriculum development and implementation were a result of curriculum policy changes. In support of this interpretation, Bassey and Constable (1997) argued that the dominance of curriculum issues reflected the responses of researchers to national educational policies. Hoadley (2011) argued that the prioritisation of knowledge and the pedagogic reform in the review of the NCS attempted to separate the conflation between knowledge and knowers. My study implied that the emphasis in research on knowledge issues addressed the needs for: knowledge in the national curriculum, ways to implement Life Orientation (LO) as a new learning area in the curriculum, access to science, tools to examine the limitations of the questions in examination papers and indigenous knowledge in the curriculum.

6.2.1.3 Theoretical Frameworks and Concepts

The findings from this study showed that theoretical frameworks based on Bernstein's theories dominated the field although diverse theoretical frameworks were drawn upon in CS, which signalled the fragmentation of the field. These frameworks ranged from educational and psycholinguistic theories to Bernstein's code theory. However, Vygotsky's theories were used in all three journals (SAJE, PiE, JoE). While Bernstein's theories were drawn upon more often than Vygotsky's theories, there was little evidence of multiple uses of theoretical frameworks across the three journals with the exception of Bernstein, Vygotsky and Bloom's theories. Multilingualism emerged as the dominant concept since it had an impact on schooling in South Africa. Other concepts included feminist poststructuralism, interpersonal communication skills and cognitive academic language proficiency. While concepts rather than theoretical frameworks were found in some articles, the theoretical frameworks were not clearly articulated in other articles. The findings in this study supported Hoadley's (2010) assertion that articles in the three journals articulated definitions for terms or concepts in their research and that there was a lack of consistency in the theory used by individuals as well as the theory developed over time. This study thus endorses the view that research rigour is compromised in the absence of theoretical frameworks to structure and analyse the findings in a particular study (Hoadley, 2010).

The answer to the first research sub-question, namely, 'What disciplines, theories and concepts have informed CS in SA?' has thus been addressed through the dominance of the discipline of

sociology of education, Bernstein's theoretical frameworks and concepts such as multilingualism.

6.2.2 Claim 2: Curriculum studies scholarship in SA was characterised in the traditional perspective, which provided a means to improve the school curriculum, while at the same time maintaining a national focus on concerns with curriculum development and implementation.

6.2.2.2 Characterisation of Curriculum Studies Scholarship

The dominance of the CS scholarship in the traditional perspective indicated consistency with the genesis and ameliorative orientation of the field in the USA. Using an international characterisation (Pinar, 1978 & 2011), the articles analysed in this study focused on service to practitioners; the realities of the classroom; answers to practical problems within the curriculum, such as, knowledge and pedagogy and challenges related to multilingual classrooms. An explanation for the dominance of the traditional perspective could be attributed to its emphasis on improving the school curriculum (Pinar, 2011) which was a priority in South Africa in 2008-2010 due to the curriculum change from the NCS to the RNCS. Within the context of CS as "an interdisciplinary academic field devoted to understanding curriculum" (Pinar, 2011, p. ix), this study showed that the focus of CS scholarship was on understanding local curriculum issues. However, the emergence of research in the internationalization perspective, which addressed South African learners' performance on international tests and regional comparisons of curriculum issues in post-conflict societies, indicated a move towards understanding curriculum issues across regional and global boundaries without compromising on local curriculum issues.

While the international perspectives in CS are important to provide an indication of where CS scholarship is located globally, national concerns with curriculum development and implementation (Hoadley, 2010) were foregrounded in the articles analysed in this study. Using a national characterisation of CS by Hoadley (2010), this study corroborates and supports Hoadley's (2010) research, where the majority (28 out of 34) of studies were concerned with enhancing the implementation of government policy in what she termed the 'bureaucratic mode'. Within the period 2008-2010, this study showed that scholarship was emerging which criticised the Department of Education for the lack of resources and the inadequate support given to subject advisors who were expected to implement the RNCS. Although studies challenging the Department of Education for deficiencies in the implementation of the curriculum were rare, some studies indicated a shortage of resources in all schools, which made

it difficult to implement curriculum changes in a post-Apartheid education system. However, the characterisation of CS scholarship in the international traditional perspective and the local characterisation in curriculum development and implementation provides insights into the theoretical nature of CS scholarship during the period 2008-2010. The second research sub-question of this study, namely, 'How could CS scholarship in the period 2008-2010 be characterised?' has thus been addressed.

6.3 METHODOLOGICAL ATTRIBUTES OF CS SCHOLARSHIP

6.3.1 Claim 3: The diversity and multi-faceted nature of CS is evident in the research questions and problems investigated by scholars.

6.3.1.1 Problems and Questions Investigated

The problems investigated gave an indication of what the pertinent issues were as well as the state of the field (as diverse and multi-faceted), in the period 2008-2010. Some of the problems and questions investigated included: how textbooks were selected and analysed; challenges inherent in curriculum development and implementation; the politics of language in multilingual classrooms; poor literacy levels; poor performance of learners in diagnostic tests and what teachers' required to implement the curriculum. Investigations into these problems and questions indicated that CS was not immune to changes in education and that CS scholarship mirrored the problems experienced in schools from 2008-2010. The problems investigated in CS were also reflected in the research questions posed by CS scholars. According to Creswell (1998) questions may be "open-ended, evolving and nondirectional" (p. 99) and could start with "what", "how", and are usually posed in the form of one central question and several sub-questions. The findings in this study support this assertion as most of the articles proceeded with a key question followed in some cases by sub-questions. However, the research questions in some articles were not explicitly stated. The lack of a research question according to Hoadley (2010) occurs when the knower's subjectivity rather than knowledge is paramount. In contrast to her study, this study showed that articles in curriculum development and its implementation, as well as some articles in the 'knowledge and knower modes', did not specify a research question. Nonetheless, an indication is provided to answer the third research sub-question, namely, 'What problems and questions have scholars formulated?'

6.3.2 Claim 4: Although qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods are contested categories, they have enabled insights into the dominance of qualitative research methodologies and methods such as case studies and document analysis in CS scholarship in South Africa.

6.3.2.1 Research Methodology and Methods

Qualitative studies dominated the field of CS from 2008-2010 and indicated a shift in emphasis from the traditional, scientific quantitative research. Walker (1992) argued that the empirical-scientific-positivist doctrine had lost its grip on the field of CS, without a new doctrine emerging to replace it. Similarly, in international studies, Tooley and Darby (1998) found that the majority of studies were of a qualitative nature. This study found that no quantitative studies were published in the JoE and in PiE and that the research problems investigated were exploratory. Studies in the JoE and PiE have tended to understand problems from the perspective of those being studied (Brikci & Green, 2007) and according to Creswell (2012), exploratory studies are an appropriate focus for qualitative research. Hoadley (2010) also found that the methodology that informed studies in the 'knower mode' was ethnographic and included alternative methodologies such as participative ones.

Research in CS emanated from 15 of the 23 higher education institutions with the majority of publications in the SAJE and the JoE, whereas international studies by Randolph et al. (2013) highlighted that in their study a few universities accounted for most of the publications. This study supports and is consistent with those of Hoadley (2010) in which the majority of the articles published in the SAJE until 2007 were from the former Afrikaans-speaking universities. The reason for this was that the SAJE is the official journal of the Education Association of South Africa (EASA), which is a traditionally Afrikaans education society. However, since Hoadley's study ended in 2007, this study indicates that there has been a slight shift, because researchers from the historically English-speaking universities, such as, Wits and UCT, published one article each in the SAJE during 2008-2010.

Mixed methods studies are contentious and not well defined in CS in South Africa. The findings from this study indicated that in the majority of the mixed methods studies, quantitative data collection was followed by qualitative data collection. This gave an indication of the sequence and importance attached to the quantitative data. However, none of the articles were explicit about the mixed methods research designs they used, such as, (the convergent parallel, explanatory sequential, exploratory sequential, embedded, transformative and multiphase designs designs) postulated by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011). Mixed methods

also represented a pragmatic method that challenged the "incompatibility thesis" (Tashakkori, & Teddlie, 2003). This thesis stated that there was a fundamental difference between qualitative and quantitative methods, which prevented them from being mixed.

Case studies were the most widely used research designs and reinforced Stenhouse's (1983) assertion that curriculum study was case study. According to Randolph et al. (2013), case studies in educational research in the USA were dominant as a design method. However, this study indicated that many of the qualitative CS did not make explicit their research designs. In contrast to this study, Hoadley's (2010) study revealed that qualitative research was generally ethnographic and that participative methodologies were also prevalent. Purposive sampling emerged as the dominant sampling strategy although a diverse range of other sampling strategies were also used by CS scholars. The articles analysed in this study used both probability and non-probability sampling methods (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010), such as, random, convenient, cross-sectional, snowball and stratified sampling as well as combinations, such as, purposive, quota and random sampling as well as combinations of convenient and purposive sampling. The demographic, geographic, socio-economic status of schools and learners, as well as the qualifications and experience of teachers were also highlighted in this study. As an aspect of research design, the articles analysed thus attempted to show who would be studied, when, where and within which context (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Document reviews were the most commonly used data collection method within the diverse data collection methods that characterised post-Apartheid CS scholarship from 2008-2010. Surveys/questionnaires as a data collection method constituted the majority of quantitative data collection methods and were found in the SAJE. The reason for this situation was that only the SAJE published quantitative studies in the period under discussion. In contrast, the studies that used qualitative data collection methods also used combinations of data collection methods where document analysis for example was combined with interviews. The most common data collection method in Tooley and Darby's (1998) study was semi-structured interviews and observations. They claim that these qualitative data collection methods are well established, accessible and yield rich results. Nevertheless, good practice in research in this study was signalled by attempts to triangulate data using combinations of data collection methods. Some CS scholars thus used their research designs to increase the credibility of their studies and to guide the selection of participants, the research sites as well as the data collection methods to answer their research questions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The dominance of

qualitative research methodologies and methods such as case studies and document analysis thus provide an answer to the fourth research sub-question, namely, 'What research methodologies and methods do CS scholars use?'

6.3.3 Claim 5: Knowledge production in CS is dependent on cumulative work.

6.3.3.1 Methodological Limitations

Methodological limitations in knowledge production indicated areas of improvement in CS scholarship. Very little evidence of cumulative research characterised CS scholarship in the period under discussion. This raises a concern in the field of CS, because cumulative work is required to advance the field. Some evidence emerged in PiE of cumulative work, especially with regard to pedagogy in post-conflict societies, but this was encouraged through a special issue in PiE in 2009. Another special issue in PiE in 2002 also encouraged cumulative work, as this was used as a basis for further studies in multilingualism. In addition, a study that used Bernstein's theories as a theoretical framework, acknowledged the importance of cumulative work in South Africa. The findings in this study reinforced Hoadley's (2010) view concerning the fragmentation of the field, due to the general non-cumulative nature of the production of knowledge in her study. The non-cumulative nature of knowledge production is supported in international research by Tooley and Darby (1998), who did not find any replication of research, and there were only a few instances of critical challenges to earlier research. Tooley and Darby (1998) described this as "researchers doing their research largely in a vacuum, unnoticed and unheeded by anyone else" (p.68). Curriculum studies scholars should thus consider the importance of cumulative work emanating from this study.

6.3.4 Claim 6: Explicitly stating the research design enhances the rigour of a study.

Methodological limitations in research designs were signalled in that the majority of articles analysed in this study did not make explicit their research designs. The research by Randolph et al. (2013) also concluded that researchers in qualitative studies, as opposed to quantitative and mixed methods studies, did not make explicit their research designs. This study also revealed other methodological limitations, where some studies did not articulate a research problem. In some cases, a research question was replaced by arguments, objectives, aims or the purpose of the studies. Hoadley's (2010) explanation for the absence of a research question in some studies was that the answer might already be known socially, rather than epistemologically, and that there is thus no need to investigate the problem because it is asserted in a position. This explanation is plausible within the context of this study since arguments

were sometimes advanced in lieu of research questions in the articles analysed in this study. Further methodological limitations were found in the sampling strategies, where most did not make their approach to sampling clear. Some qualitative studies mentioned a sampling strategy, but not how the sample was selected; whereas others mentioned how they selected the sample, but not their sampling strategy. The findings from this study are consistent with Hoadley's (2010) study, where the minority of studies described the sample in terms of race, class and social categories. Limitations with regard to sampling strategies are supported by international research by Tooley and Darby (1998), as some of the articles they analysed also did not report on the method of sample selection or the sample size. Limitations in the research design of a study are viewed as a constraint since research designs serve as a guideline with procedures to direct the collection, analysis and reporting of research (Creswell, 2012) without which validity and reliability of a study are compromised.

6.4. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to make claims which were supported by an interpretation and discussion of the key findings that emerged from this study in order to answer the research questions. The discussion highlighted the use of sociology of education to address concerns in CS regarding knowledge and pedagogy in OBE, C2005, the NCS and the RNCS as well as possibilities in the internationalization perspective for CS research to take place across regional and global boundaries, while still retaining a focus on local curriculum issues. The identification of pertinent issues through the problems and questions investigated and the need for cumulative work and rigour in the use of research designs were also highlighted. Although the findings of this study are speculative, the discussion provided insights into the nature of CS scholarship in South Africa from 2008-2010. This study's findings revealed that the field of CS scholarship was rich, diverse, multi-faceted and fragmented in its theoretical and methodological attributes, which provided an answer to the overall research question, namely, 'What are the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa in the period 2008 – 2010?' This chapter also provided the basis for the following chapter, which is devoted to a discussion of the limitations of this study as well as the concluding remarks.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUDING REMARKS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I briefly summarise the findings of this study. Next, I reflect on the methodology and approach taken in this study. Finally, I discuss the implications of this study and make suggestions for further research.

7.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this case study was to explore the nature of CS scholarship in South Africa, and to contribute to an ongoing exploration and description of the dominant attributes in this field during the period 2008-2010. The cross-case findings are speculative, but they are based on three accredited and peer-reviewed journals that are devoted to research about schooling in South Africa. Collectively, the three journals (SAJE, PiE and the JoE) made up a case study, and provided a rich source of information. By using an in-depth historical and analytical approach, the research questions were addressed in chapter 6. Generalisations are made but these do not extend beyond the three journals, as the aim was not to generalise or to transfer the findings to other journals.

The field of CS scholarship in South Africa was described as being rich, diverse, multi-faceted and fragmented in its theoretical and methodological attribute. The dominant attributes of CS scholarship from a theoretical perspective can be described as scholarship with an emphasis on specialisations in knowledge issues, which were informed by the discipline of sociology of education and grounded in Bernstein's theories. Using Pinar's (1978; 2011) international characterisation, CS scholarship in South Africa was located in the traditional perspective whereas a national characterisation, using Hoadley's (2010) perspective, located scholarship in the 'bureaucratic mode'. The dominant methodological attributes of CS scholarship included qualitative studies that used case study approaches, purposive sampling and document analysis to investigate diverse problems and questions which reflected curriculum implementation concerns. These attributes succinctly sum up the dominant theoretical and methodological attributes of CS scholarship and answered the research questions relating to the disciplines, theories and concepts that have informed CS in SA, the characterisation of CS scholarship, the problems and questions formulated by scholars and research methodologies and methods used by scholars in the period 2008-2010.

7.3 LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

The use of qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches in research have their strengths and weaknesses. In this study, the research questions were used to guide my choice of methodology, data selection and method of analysis. Qualitative research warrants a rich, thick analysis and description of a phenomenon, but this can be time consuming (Merriam, 2009). Although this was a qualitative exploratory study, the sample consisted of 64 articles, whereas most qualitative studies are not as large. The data selection for this study began in 2013 and the analysis continued until 2014, which involved a considerable amount of time. Despite being a labour intensive study, the time taken to conduct this research was beneficial, because it allowed a prolonged exposure to the data.

According to Merriam (2009), one of the limitations of a case study approach was that it offered limited generalisability and as such, claims should not be made based on the applicability of any assumptions outside of the sample. In this case study, the findings are not representative of all the theories and methodologies used by curriculum researchers in other journals, so no broad generalisations can be extrapolated. The findings are also a product of my interpretation of the articles, instead of being based on the various authors' viewpoints obtained from interviews. Based on Shields' (2007) defence of qualitative case studies, there is no 'gold standard' for case studies. Instead, case studies included "paradoxes [with] no simple answers" (Merriam, 2009, p. 53). Guba and Lincoln (1989) suggested that findings could be transferred to other contexts and situations, but encouraged researchers to be wary if they tried to do so. However, as a limitation of this study, I acknowledge that the findings from this research cannot be transferred to other education journals, because this study is context-dependent and time-bound and the reader should be aware of this constraint.

Another limitation of this study is that it was not possible to use multiple sources of information. Creswell (2012) suggested that multiple sources of data collection and analysis should be used for the triangulation of data in a qualitative study. Due to the constraints of a small-scale research project, such as a Master's research report, it was not possible to interview the authors of the journal articles that were analysed nor was it possible to set up a reference group of other students. This meant that a review of documents was the most appropriate approach and the only data selection method used. Thus, this study did not lend itself to multiple data selection methods nor to corroboration of data based on various sources. It is

acknowledged that because of the design of this research study, triangulation was not possible. Consequently, the findings are influenced by my personal perspectives and biases.

In light of the above limitations, which acknowledged the biases in this research, there are issues regarding the ethical conduct of a case study writer, which have been foregrounded by Guba and Lincoln (1989). They claim that unethical writers could chose claims from the data to illustrate any arguments. There are thus biases in any research approach. However, in this research report, a section was included on self-reflexivity, which exposed my epistemological, ontological and axiological biases. In addition, the data analysis process was clarified so that any biases were evident.

Despite the limitations regarding a lack of triangulation of data for the analysis of this study, the steps followed in the analysis can be traced and are open to view, because an audit trail exists on ATLAS.ti. According to Friese (2012), this makes the entire analytic process more transparent. The use of document analysis has both advantages and limitations. According to Yin (1994, as cited in Bowen, 2009), the design of this study requires accuracy of information, which made document analysis advantageous for this research process. However, Yin cautions against a flaw in document analysis, which related to "biased selectivity" as a result of an incomplete collection of documents (1994, as cited in Bowen, 2009, p. 31). I attempted to overcome the issue of biased selectivity by analysing all the articles in the period under discussion, before using inclusion and exclusion criteria to narrow down the sample to a particular focus on CS scholarship. Due to the way I presented the findings of this research and a preference for tables and graphs, I did not make extensive use of the network view in ATLAS.ti. Memos were used, but to a limited extent, as the majority of reflections were captured in a hard-copy diary. The benefit of using memos on ATLAS.ti, is that it could be used to develop interpretations of the data (Friese, 2012) and conceptual ideas (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, as cited in Friese, 2012). I acknowledge that if all the reflections and memos were on ATLAS.ti, then this could have increased the trustworthiness, transparency, credibility and dependability of the analysis. However, a methodological awareness of the benefits of writing memos directly on ATLAS.ti, my proficiency using this programme and what I required from ATLAS.ti, led me to develop a process that included both automated and hard copy reflections to guide the analysis process. This was more useful than simply using an automated process since drawings could be made in the hard copy diary, which would not have been possible on ATLAS.ti.

While the advantages and limitations of the appropriateness of document analysis for this study were outlined, Bowen (2009) argued that "document analysis offers advantages that clearly outweigh the limitations" (p. 31). I have also presented the advantages of using a qualitative data analysis package and the limitations of its usage. Friese (2012) viewed the analysis using software packages as an open-ended invitation to the user to navigate their own way through the software package. This invitation provided an explanation for the eclectic approach I adopted concerning my reflection of the data analysis process using both hard copy and an electronic package.

7.4 IMPLICATIONS

7.4.1 Implications for Curriculum Studies Researchers

This study drew upon Pinar's (1978; 2011) international perspectives and Hoadley's (2010) national characterisation of the field of CS scholarship. South African CS scholarship is located in Pinar's (1978; 2011) traditional perspectives and Hoadley's (2010) 'bureaucratic mode' which focuses on curriculum development and implementation. The implication for practice is that South African CS researchers could use this awareness to consider other perspectives, such as reconceptualization or internationalization in order to bring their scholarship in line with the present movement in internationalization (Pinar, 2011). The advantage of being aware of the different perspectives and exploring internationalization is that CS could take advantage of the role of theory in the advancement of the field. A focus on internationalization in CS could also lead to a regional and global understanding of curriculum issues while still maintaining a focus on local curriculum issues.

In the methodological characterisation of CS scholarship, the dominance of qualitative methodologies and methods was shown. The implication is that CS researchers could use this to follow up on a suggestion by Walker (1992), to gain a better understanding of their own priorities as a field and develop appropriate methodological principles, which are suited to problems in CS. This study highlighted methodological limitations with regard to research designs and sampling strategies. Being aware of these limitations according to Walker (1992) has implications for CS researchers to improve research and to adapt research support policies that treat methodological rigor and sophistication as one important component of excellence in future research.

7.4.2 Implications for Future Research

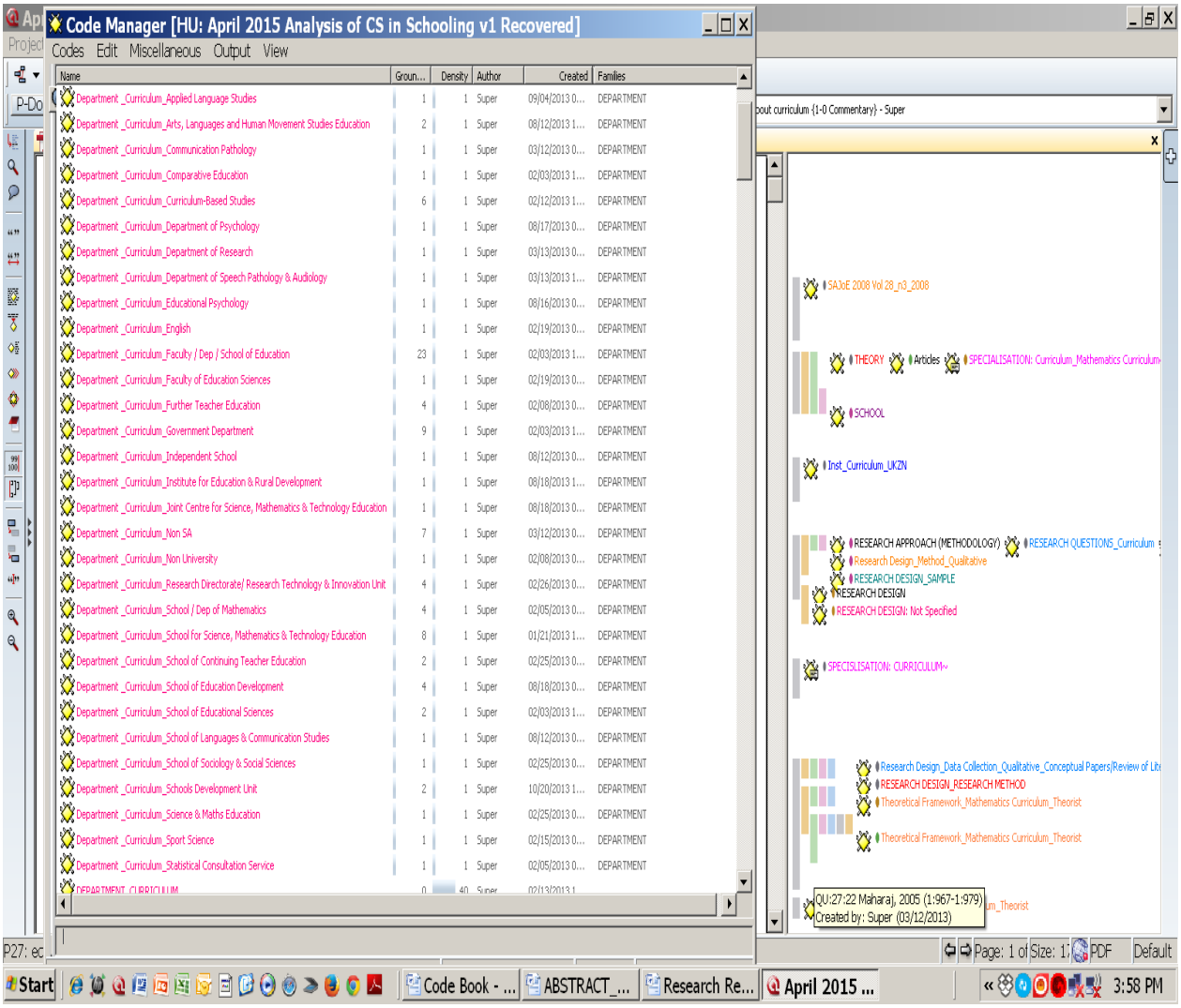
The findings reflected a need for future research. This study indicated that it would be beneficial for future research to concentrate on a more in-depth focus on knowledge structures, in the 'knowledge mode,' and what this could mean for post-Apartheid CS. It would also be interesting to investigate whether similar patterns of scholarship in CS research characterised the field after 2010, or whether changes in scholarship emerged. This study has provided a view of CS with regards to the dominant theoretical and methodological attributes in a particular period. Future research could focus more on the political sociology account of CS and how Bernstein's theories influenced and contributed to policy changes in the field of CS in South Africa.

7.5 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the findings collectively address the research problem and questions and provide insight into the nature of CS scholarship in South Africa. The strength of this study is that it draws on international and national perspectives to characterise scholarship in the field of CS. This provided insights into the diverse, fragmented and multi-faceted work that scholars in the field of CS in South Africa engage in. Although this study only makes a modest contribution to the field by focusing on the nature of CS at a particular point in history, it adds to the accumulation of knowledge and an understanding of scholarship in post-Apartheid CS. This study achieved its purpose of exploring the nature CS scholarship, as well as contributing to a continued exploration and description of the dominant attributes of CS scholarship in South Africa in the period 2008-2010.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1: Coding in ATLAS.ti and Coding Key Words



Code-Filter: All

HU: September 2015 CS in Schooling
File: [G:\RAAZIA MOOSA backup\RESEARCH\RESEARCH REPORT...\September 2015 CS in Schooling.hpr7]
Edited by: Super
Date/Time: 2016-06-01 11:55:45

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
Conceptual Framework_Concepts
DEPARTMENT_CURRICULUM
Department _Curriculum_Applied Language Studies
Department _Curriculum_Arts, Languages and Human Movement Studies Education
Department _Curriculum_Communication Pathology
Department _Curriculum_Comparative Education
Department _Curriculum_Curriculum-Based Studies
Department _Curriculum_Department of Psychology
Department _Curriculum_Department of Research
Department _Curriculum_Department of Speech Pathology & Audiology
Department _Curriculum_Educational Psychology
Department _Curriculum_English
Department _Curriculum_Faculty / Dep / School of Education
Department _Curriculum_Faculty of Education Sciences
Department _Curriculum_Further Teacher Education
Department _Curriculum_Government Department
Department _Curriculum_Independent School
Department _Curriculum_Institute for Education & Rural Development
Department _Curriculum_Joint Centre for Science, Mathematics & Technology Education
Department _Curriculum_Non SA
Department _Curriculum_Non University
Department _Curriculum_Research Directorate/ Research Technology & Innovation Unit
Department _Curriculum_School / Dep of Mathematics
Department _Curriculum_School for Science, Mathematics & Technology Education
Department _Curriculum_School of Continuing Teacher Education
Department _Curriculum_School of Education Development
Department _Curriculum_School of Educational Sciences
Department _Curriculum_School of Languages & Communication Studies
Department _Curriculum_School of Sociology & Social Sciences
Department _Curriculum_Schools Development Unit
Department _Curriculum_Science & Maths Education
Department _Curriculum_Sport Science
Department _Curriculum_Statistical Consultation Service
Department_Curriculum_ Institutional Quality Office
Department_Curriculum_DVC
Department_Curriculum_Education Studies
Department_Curriculum_International_Joint Wits and Kings College London
Department_Curriculum_Marang Centre for Mathematics & Science Education
Department_Curriculum_Mathematics Education
Department_Curriculum_Not Specified
Department_Curriculum_School of Adult Education & HE
Department_Curriculum_Teacher Education
Disciplines_Curriculum_Sociology of Education
Disciplines_Curriculum_Psychology of Education
Disciplines_Curriculum_Philosophy of Education
Editorial Book Reviews
Editorial DUPLICATE
Editorials

FIELD
Higher Education
Higher Education & School
INSTITUTION
Inst_Curriculum_CPUT
Inst_Curriculum_Educational Research Institution
Inst_Curriculum_Government Department
Inst_Curriculum_Independent School
Inst_Curriculum_NMMU
Inst_Curriculum_Non South African Institution
Inst_Curriculum_North West University
Inst_Curriculum_Not Specified
Inst_Curriculum_Rhodes
Inst_Curriculum_Stellenbosch University
Inst_Curriculum_Tswane University of Technology
Inst_Curriculum_UCT
Inst_Curriculum_UJ
Inst_Curriculum_UKZN
Inst_Curriculum_UNISA
Inst_Curriculum_University of Fort Hare
Inst_Curriculum_University of Limpopo
Inst_Curriculum_University of Pretoria
Inst_Curriculum_University of Zululand
Inst_Curriculum_Wits
JoE
JoE No 43 2008
JoE No 44 2008
JoE No 45 2008
JoE No 46 2009
JoE No 47 2009
JoE No 48 2010
JoE No 49 2010
JoE No 50 2010
PiE
PiE Vol 26 1 March 2008
PiE Vol 26 2 June 2008
PiE Vol 26 3 September 2008
PiE Vol 26 4 December 2008
PiE Vol 27 1 March 2009
PiE Vol 27 2 June 2009
PiE Vol 27 3 September 2009
PiE Vol 27 4 December 2009
PiE Vol 28 1 March 2010
PiE Vol 28 2 June 2010
PiE Vol 28 3 September 2010
PiE Vol 28 4 December 2010
Research Aim
RESEARCH APPROACH (METHODOLOGY)
RESEARCH DESIGN
RESEARCH DESIGN: Not Specified
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Mixed Methods_Exploratory
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Mixed Methods_Quasi Experimental and Interview
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Mixed Methods_Survey
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Action Research
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Action Research & Case Study
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Case Study
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Case Study & Ethnography
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Case Study & Survey

RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Design Research Video Methodologies
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Ethnography
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Intervention Research
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Participatory Methods
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Phenomenology
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Quantitative_ Survey Design
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Quantitative_Intervention Research
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Quantitative_Non-Experimental Descriptive
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Quantitative_Quasi-Experimental Design APPROACH
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Interviews & Survey/Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Interviews, Survey & Observation
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Questionnaire & Document Analysis
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Questionnaire & Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Test & Interviews
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Conceptual Papers/Review of Literature
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Discourse Analysis & Interviews
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis & Interviews
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis & Narrative
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis, Interviews & Observation
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis, Interviews, Narrative Analysis
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Interviews
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Interviews & Observation
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Literature Review & Test
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Observation
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Piloting
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Questionnaire & Interview
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Survey, Questionnair, Document Analysis
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Visual Methodologies
Research Design_Data Collection_Quantitative
Research Design_Data Collection_Quantitative Method
Research Design_Data Collection_Quantitative Survey / Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Quantitative Test & Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Quantitative_Piloting
Research Design_Data Collection_Quantitative_Questionnaire & Observation
Research Design_Data Collectiond_Qualitative_Narrative Analysis
Research Design_Data Collectiond_Quantitative Questionnaire & Interviews
Research Design_Ethical Issues
Research Design_Generalization
Research Design_Method_Qualitative
RESEARCH DESIGN_RESEARCH METHOD
RESEARCH DESIGN_SAMPLE
Research Design_Sample_Convenient
Research Design_Sample_Convenient & Purposive
Research Design_Sample_Cross-Sectional Group
Research Design_Sample_Not Specified
Research Design_Sample_Opportunistic
Research Design_Sample_Purposive
Research Design_Sample_Purposive & Representative
Research Design_Sample_Random
Research Design_Sample_Snowball
Research Design_Sample_Stratified
Research Design_Validity
Research Focus_Curricululm_Aural Rehabilitation
Research Focus_Curricululm_Barriers to Learning
Research Focus_Curricululm_Bi/Multilingual Education

Research Focus_Curricululm_Communication Intervention, Cleft Palate & Craniofacial Disorders
Research Focus_Curricululm_Critical Pedagogy
Research Focus_Curricululm_Curriculum
Research Focus_Curricululm_Deaf Education
Researach Focus_Curriculum_Didactics
Research Focus_Curricululm_Discipline & Criminology
Research Focus_Curricululm_Diversity Studies
Research Focus_Curricululm_Education Development
Research Focus_Curricululm_English Language & English Language Teaching
Research Focus_Curricululm_Experiential Learning
Research Focus_Curricululm_HIV/AIDS
Research Focus_Curricululm_Indigenous Knowledge Systems
Research Focus_Curricululm_Language Development
Research Focus_Curricululm_Language Education
Research Focus_Curricululm_Language Policy
Research Focus_Curricululm_Language, Culture & IK in Mathematics and Science Education
Research Focus_Curricululm_Learner Support
Research Focus_Curricululm_Learning
Research Focus_Curricululm_Mathematics & Applied Mathematics
Research Focus_Curricululm_Mathematics Education
Research Focus_Curricululm_Mathematics Teacher Education
Research Focus_Curricululm_Memory & Identity
Research Focus_Curricululm_Movement Education
Research Focus_Curricululm_NON SA
Research Focus_Curricululm_Psychology
Research Focus_Curricululm_Resilience_at risk youth & Educators
Research Focus_Curricululm_Science & Technology Education
Research Focus_Curricululm_Second Language
Research Focus_Curricululm_Social Justice Education
Research Focus_Curricululm_Specialised Education
Research Focus_Curricululm_Speech & Language Disorders
Research Focus_Curricululm_Student Achievement
Research Focus_Curricululm_Violence
Research Focus_Curriculum_Adolescent Issues
Research Focus_Curriculum_Assessment
Research Focus_Curriculum_Career Counselling
Research Focus_Curriculum_Comparative Education
Research Focus_Curriculum_Connections within Maths and Accross Curriculum Disciplines
Research Focus_Curriculum_Curriculum Studies
Research Focus_Curriculum_Education Science
Research Focus_Curriculum_Educational Administration
Research Focus_Curriculum_Educational Management
Research Focus_Curriculum_Educational Policy
Research Focus_Curriculum_Environmental Education
Research Focus_Curriculum_Feminism
Research Focus_Curriculum_History of Education
Research Focus_Curriculum_Inclusive Education
Research Focus_Curriculum_Internationalisation & Globalisation
Research Focus_Curriculum_Language Barriers
Research Focus_Curriculum_Leadership
Research Focus_Curriculum_learning & Teaching Natural and Physical Science
Research Focus_Curriculum_Learning Disabilities
Research Focus_Curriculum_Literacy
Research Focus_Curriculum_Literacy Pedagogy & Inclusive Ed in Teacher Education
Research Focus_Curriculum_Literature
Research Focus_Curriculum_Mathematics for Teaching
Research Focus_Curriculum_Not Specified
Research Focus_Curriculum_Professional Development

Research Focus_Curriculum_Research Ethics
Research Focus_Curriculum_Research Methodology
Research Focus_Curriculum_School Governance
Research Focus_Curriculum_School Maths Curriculum Policy & Implementation
Research Focus_Curriculum_Science Education
Research Focus_Curriculum_Statistics
Research Focus_Curriculum_Stereotyping & Textbooks
Research Focus_Curriculum_Teacher Development
Research Focus_Curriculum_Teacher Education
Research Focus_Curriculum_Teaching & Learning
Research Focus_Curriculum_Teaching & Learning Mathematics
Research Focus_Curriculum_Teaching & Learning Mathematics in Multilingual Classrooms
Research Focus_Curriculum_Technology in Education
Research Focus_Curriculum_Textbook Evaluation
Research Focus_Curriculum_Visual Learning Communities
RESEARCH METHOD_Curriculum
Research Problem
RESEARCH QUESTIONS_Curriculum
Research Questions_Sub-Questions
SAJoE
SAJoE 2008 Vol 28_n1_2008
SAJoE 2008 Vol 28_n2_2008
SAJoE 2008 Vol 28_n3_2008
SAJoE 2008 Vol 28_n4_2008
SAJoE 2009 Vol 29_n1_2009
SAJoE 2009 Vol 29_n2_2009
SAJoE 2009 Vol 29_n3_2009
SAJoE 2009 Vol 29_n4_2009
SAJoE 2009 Vol 30_n1_2010
SAJoE 2009 Vol 30_n2_2010
SAJoE 2009 Vol 30_n3_2010
SAJoE 2009 Vol 30_n4_2010
SCHOOL
SPECISLISATION: CURRICULUM
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Curriculum
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Educational Effectiveness
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Literacy/English Language
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Mathematics Curriculum
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Non SA
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Pedagogy
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Science Education
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Teacher Education/ Professional Development
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
THEORY_Conceptual Empiricist
THEORY_Critical Curricululm Work Knower Mode
THEORY_Critical Curricululm Work Knowledge Mode
THEORY_Curriculum Development
THEORY_Internationalization
THEORY_Policy Studies
THEORY_Reconceptualist
THEORY_Traditional

Coding Key Words

Traditionalist Perspective

- Service to practitioners
- Field based research
- Research on realities of the classroom / school setting
- Curriculum development / revision of curriculum
- School improvement (functional efficiency)
- Answers to practical problems
- No theory building or scientific rigour
- Ameliorative orientation
- Ahistorical posture
- Behaviourism allegiance
- Technological rationality

Conceptual-empiricism Perspective

- Researchers from other disciplines conducting research in education
- Education as a field is blurred
- Researchers' primary identity is in a cognate field
- Scientific education research should inform curriculum design
- Education not a discipline in itself: borne out of philosophy and psychology and thus should be studied by others

Reconceptualism Perspective

- Curriculum inquiry is a central theme
- Focus on educational experience: education is not a commodity
- Influence of post-structuralism
- Attempts to redefine the field
- Use research methodologies which create new paradigms in CS
- Conceptual themes: postmodernism, identity, cultural studies, gender studies, feminist theory, political theory, racial theory, literary theory, queer theory

Internationalization Perspective

- Focus on contemporary scholarship
- Theory in practice
- Economistic conceptions
- International curriculum inquiry
- Comparative curriculum research
- Different cultural and cross-cultural perspectives
- Horizontal and global
- Vertical and historical as well as future oriented
- Understanding curriculum theory and history

- Curriculum development and evaluation of themes of inquiry
- National context is as important as research in the international context

Political Sociology Account

- Focus on policy
- Policy frameworks
- Pedagogical short-comings of OBE
- School knowledge and everyday knowledge
- What needs to be learned
- Pedagogic techniques
- Social justice
- Curriculum and pedagogy conflated
- Access to disciplinary and specialised forms of knowledge

'Knowledge' Mode

- Assert the boundary
- Tight control and focus on knowledge
- Knowledge structures
- Knowledge production
- Knowledge reproduction

'Knower' Mode

- Constructivism / relativism
- Indigenous knowledge
- Learner and teacher experience
- Identity
- Prior knowledge of learner is emphasised through voice and experience
- Particular forms of pedagogy
- Focus on epistemology

'Bureaucratic' Mode

- Research to support formal official statements
- Government influence on curriculum practice
- Teacher training
- Upgrading teacher qualifications
- Implementation of policy
- Official position on curriculum and policy foregrounded at the expense of critique
- Theoretical resource drawn from the 'knower' mode: OBE & constructivism
- 'knower' mode provides legitimacy

Quantitative Research

- Scientific tradition of inquiry

- Experiments
- Correlation design
- Surveys
- Positivism
- Post-positivism
- Probability sampling
- Deductive logic

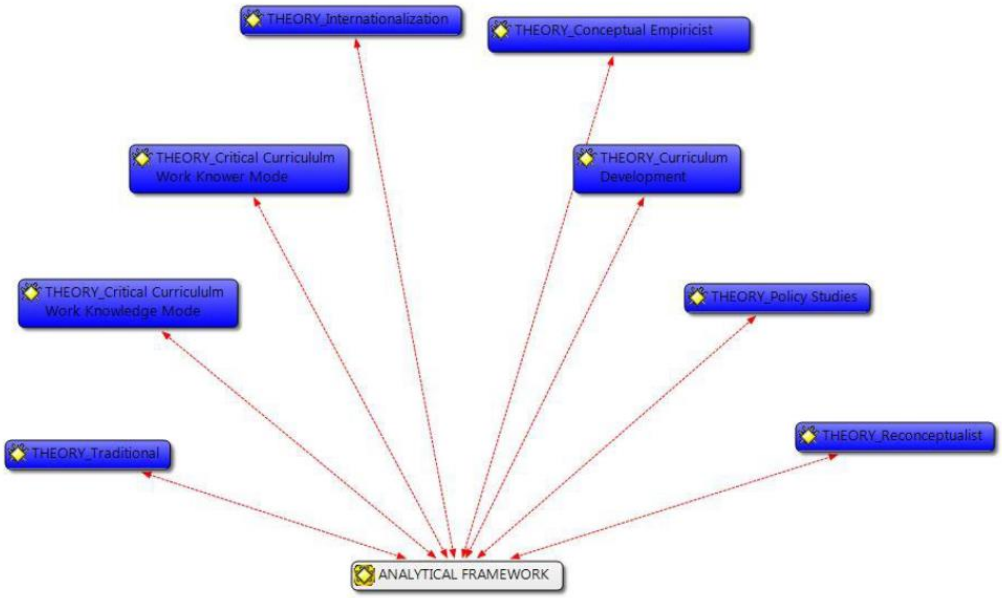
Qualitative Research

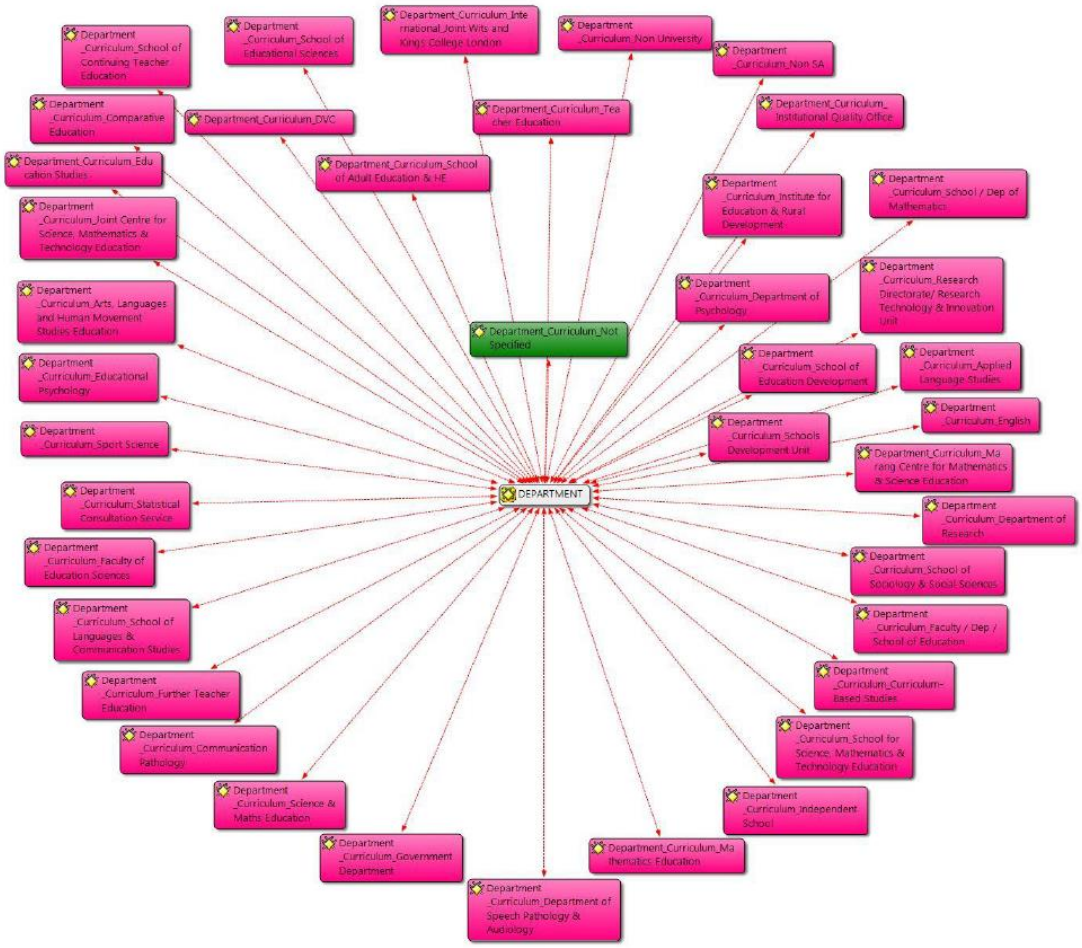
- Humanist traditions
- Case studies
- Ethnography
- Biography
- Narrative analysis
- Interpretivism
- Non-probability sampling
- Inductive logic

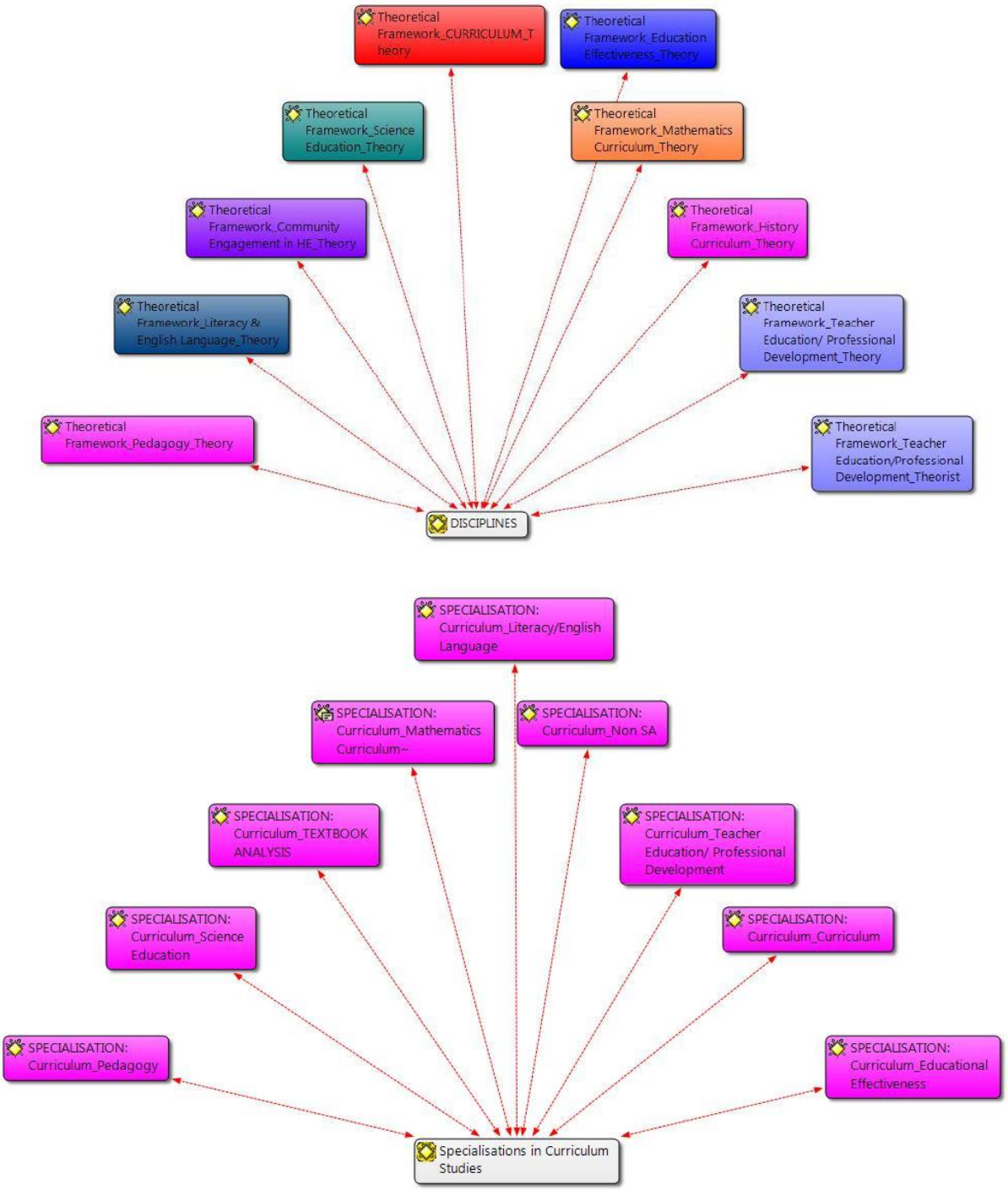
Mixed Methods

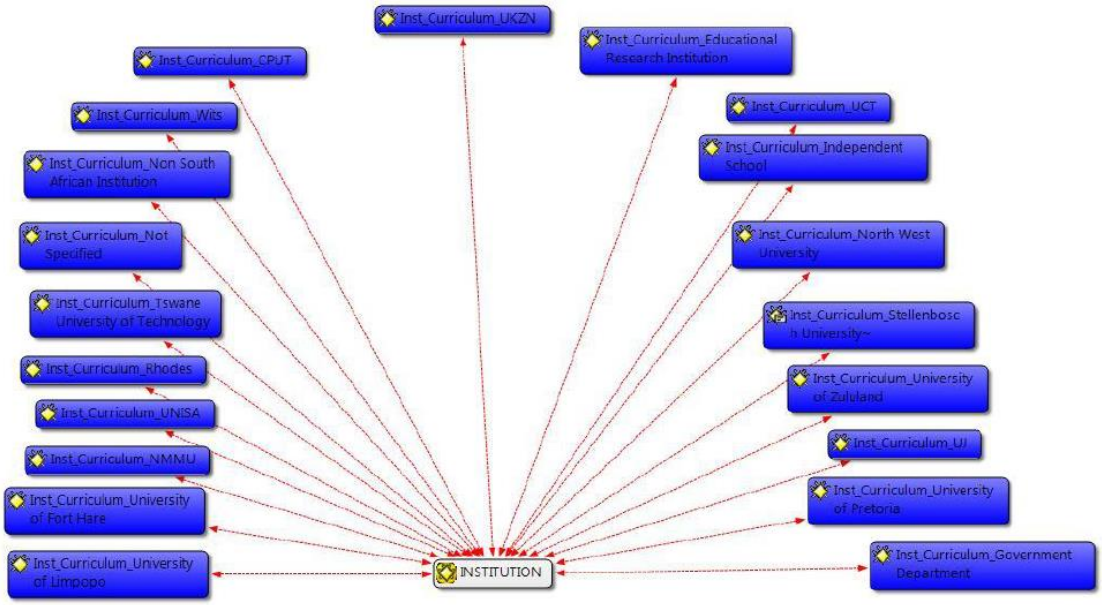
- Combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in one study
- Parallel sampling
- Convergent parallel design
- Explanatory sequential design
- Exploratory sequential design
- Embedded design
- Transformative design
- Multiphase design

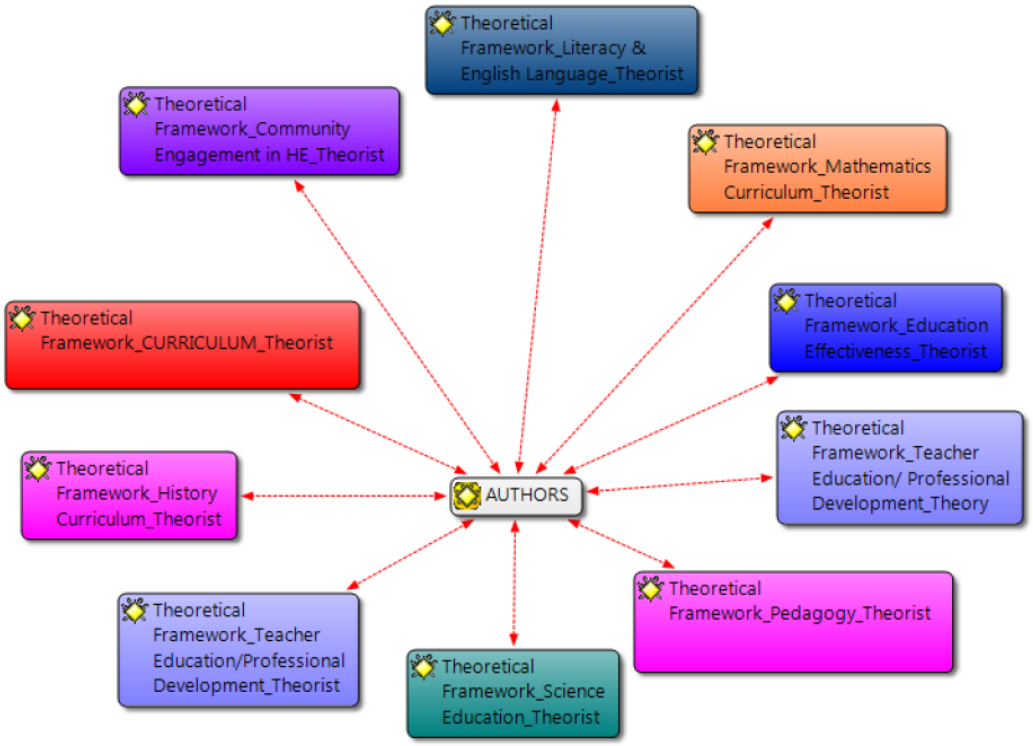
APPENDIX 2: Code Families and Network View

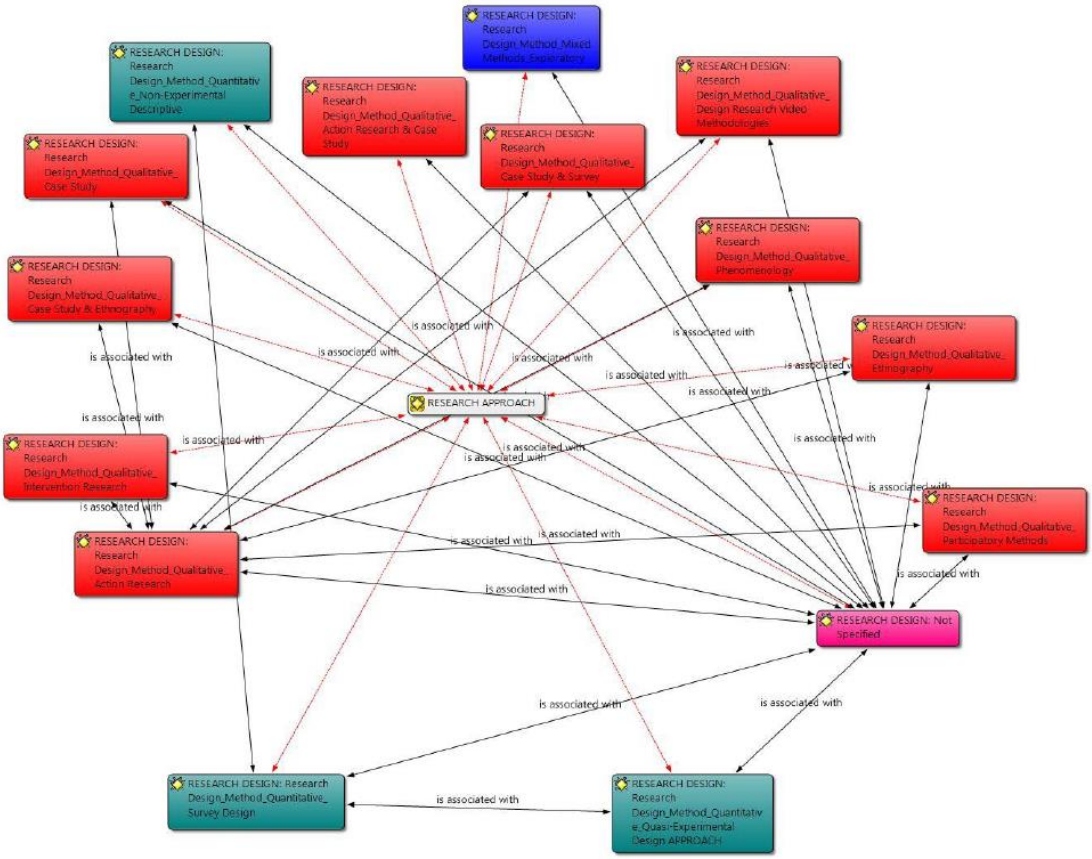


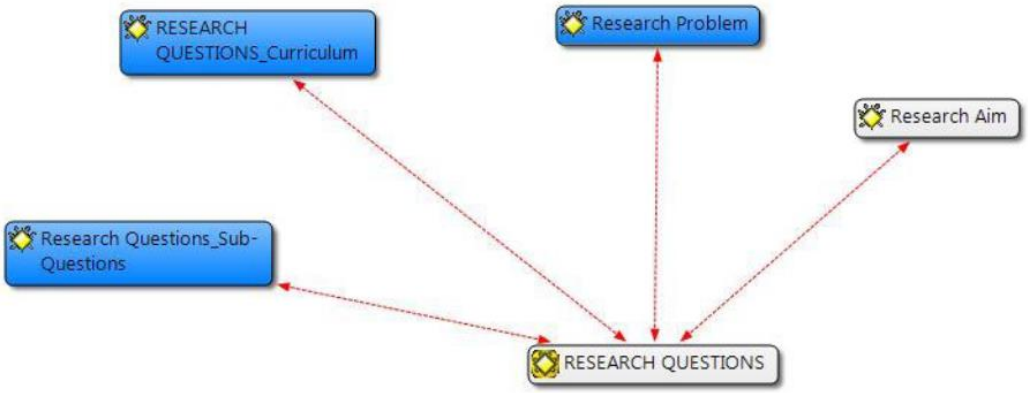


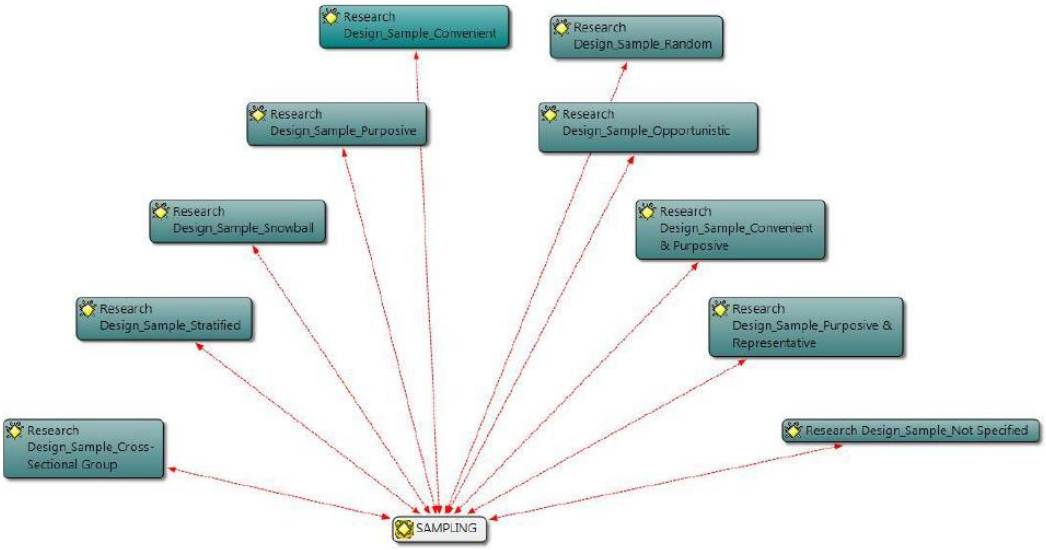

Theoretical Framework_CURRICULUM_Theory
Theoretical Framework_Education Effectiveness_Theory
Theoretical Framework_Science Education_Theory
Theoretical Framework_Mathematics Curriculum_Theory
Theoretical Framework_Community Engagement in HE_Theory
Theoretical Framework_History Curriculum_Theory
Theoretical Framework_Literacy & English Language_Theory
Theoretical Framework_Teacher Education/ Professional Development_Theory
Theoretical Framework_Pedagogy_Theory
Theoretical Framework_Teacher Education/Professional Development_Theorist
DISCIPLINES
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Literacy/English Language
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Mathematics Curriculum~
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Non SA
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Teacher Education/ Professional Development
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Science Education
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Curriculum
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Pedagogy
SPECIALISATION: Curriculum_Educational Effectiveness
Specialisations in Curriculum Studies

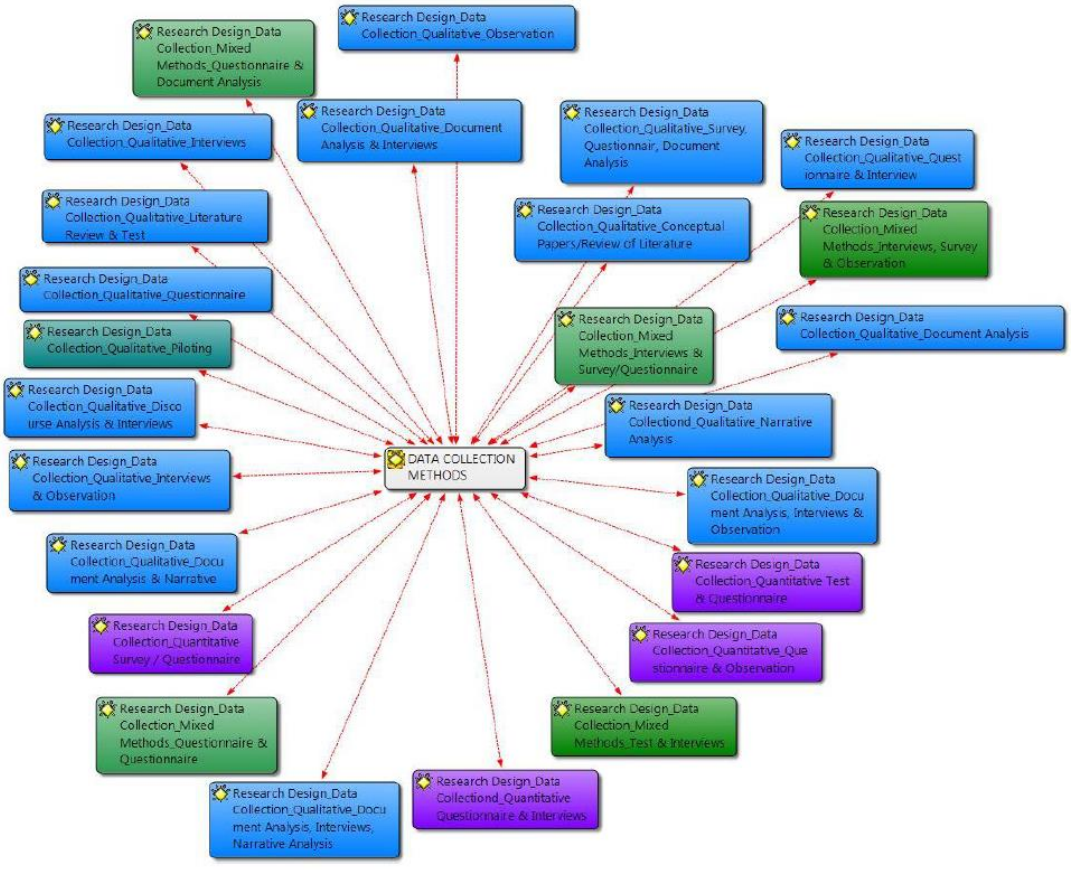

Inst_Curriculum_UKZN
Inst_Curriculum_CPUT
Inst_Curriculum_Educational Research Institution
Inst_Curriculum_Wits
Inst_Curriculum_UCT
Inst_Curriculum_Non South African Institution
Inst_Curriculum_Independent School
Inst_Curriculum_Not Specified
Inst_Curriculum_North West University
Inst_Curriculum_Tswane University of Technology
Inst_Curriculum_Stellenbosch University
Inst_Curriculum_Rhodes
Inst_Curriculum_University of Zululand
Inst_Curriculum_UNISA
Inst_Curriculum_UJ
Inst_Curriculum_NMMU
Inst_Curriculum_University of Pretoria
Inst_Curriculum_University of Fort Hare
Inst_Curriculum_Government Department
Inst_Curriculum_University of Limpopo
INSTITUTION


Theoretical Framework_Literacy & English Language_Theorist
Theoretical Framework_Community Engagement in HE_Theorist
Theoretical Framework_Mathematics Curriculum_Theorist
Theoretical Framework_CURRICULUM_Theorist
Theoretical Framework_Education Effectiveness_Theorist
Theoretical Framework_Teacher Education/ Professional Development_Theory
Theoretical Framework_History Curriculum_Theorist
AUTHORS
Theoretical Framework_Teacher Education/Professional Development_Theorist
Theoretical Framework_Pedagogy_Theorist
Theoretical Framework_Science Education_Theorist


RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Mixed Methods_Exploratory
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Quantitative_Non-Experimental Descriptive
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Action Research & Case Study
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Design Research Video Methodologies
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Case Study
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Case Study & Survey
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Phenomenology
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Case Study & Ethnography
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Ethnography
RESEARCH APPROACH
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Intervention Research
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Participatory Methods
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Qualitative_Action Research
RESEARCH DESIGN: Not Specified
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Quantitative_Survey Design
RESEARCH DESIGN: Research Design_Method_Quantitative_Quasi-Experimental Design APPROACH
is associated with


RESEARCH QUESTIONS_Curriculum
Research Problem
Research Aim
Research Questions_Sub-Questions
RESEARCH QUESTIONS


Research Design_Sample_Convenient
Research Design_Sample_Random
Research Design_Sample_Purposive
Research Design_Sample_Opportunistic
Research Design_Sample_Snowball
Research Design_Sample_Convenient & Purposive
Research Design_Sample_Stratified
Research Design_Sample_Purposive & Representative
Research Design_Sample_Cross-Sectional Group
Research Design_Sample_Not Specified
SAMPLING


Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Questionnaire & Document Analysis
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Observation
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Interviews
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis & Interviews
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Survey, Questionnair, Document Analysis
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Questionnaire & Interview
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Literature Review & Test
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Conceptual Papers/Review of Literature
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Interviews, Survey & Observation
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Piloting
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Interviews & Survey/Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Discourse Analysis & Interviews
Research Design_Data Collectiond_Qualitative_Narrative Analysis
DATA COLLECTION METHODS
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Interviews & Observation
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis, Interviews & Observation
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis & Narrative
Research Design_Data Collection_Quantitative Test & Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Quantitative Survey / Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Quantitative_Questionnaire & Observation
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Questionnaire & Questionnaire
Research Design_Data Collection_Mixed Methods_Test & Interviews
Research Design_Data Collection_Qualitative_Document Analysis, Interviews, Narrative Analysis
Research Design_Data Collectiond_Quantitative Questionnaire & Interviews

APPENDIX 3: Example of a Memo

MEMO: Coding (1 Quotation) (Super, 2013-08-30 14:35:59)
P206: persed_v27_n4_a6 2009.pdf:
(1:95-1:110)
No codes
No memos
Type: Theory

Coding is subjective. 'learning subject' article included as a curriculum article but while reading the article it became clear that the learning subject referred to a learner and his/her identity. No knowledge claims were found so this article was excluded based on inclusion and exclusion criteria.

APPENDIX 4: Number of Authors and Research Focuses

Table 4.3 Number of Authors by Department (SAJE, PiE, JoE) 2008-2010

DEPARTMENT	NUMBER OF AUTORS
Faculty / Department / School of Education	23
Not Specified	19
Government Department	9
School for Science, Mathematics & Technology Education	8
Department of Further Teacher Education	4
School / Department of Mathematics	4
Research Directorate/ Research Technology & Innovation Unit	4
School of Education Development	4
Department of Curriculum-Based Studies	3
Department of Arts, Languages and Human Movement Studies Education	2
School of Continuing Teacher Education	2
School of Educational Sciences	2
Schools Development Unit	2
Department of Education Studies	2
Marang Centre for Mathematics & Science Education	2
Department of Teacher Education	2
Department of Applied Language Studies	1
Communication Pathology	1
Department of Comparative Education	1
Department of Psychology	1
Department of Research	1
Department of Speech Pathology & Audiology	1
Department of Educational Psychology	1
Department of English	1
Faculty of Education Sciences	1
Independent School	1
Institute for Education & Rural Development	1
Joint Centre for Science, Mathematics & Technology Education	1
School of Languages & Communication Studies	1
School of Sociology & Social Sciences	1
Department of Science & Maths Education	1
Department of Sport Science	1
Statistical Consultation Service	1
Institutional Quality Office	1
DVC's Office	1
Department of Mathematics Education	1
School of Adult Education & HE	1
International Joint Wits and Kings College London	1

Table 4.4: Author's Research Focus (SAJE, PiE, JoE) 2008-2010

RESEARCH FOCUS/INTEREST	NUMBER OF AUTHORS
Not Specified	46
Curriculum Studies	6
Teacher Education	6
Psychology	5
Assessment	4
Mathematics & Applied Mathematics	4
Mathematics for Teaching	4
Science Education	4
Literacy	4
Mathematics Education	3
Comparative Education	3
Teaching & Learning	3
English Language & English Language Teaching	3
Learning & Teaching Natural and Physical Science	3
Barriers to Learning	2
Bi/Multilingual Education	2
HIV/AIDS	2
Language Education	2
Educational Policy	2
Environmental Education	2
Teacher Development	2
Technology in Education	2
Statistics	2
Learning Disabilities	2
Aural Rehabilitation	2
Communication Intervention, Cleft Palate & Craniofacial Disorders	1
Critical Pedagogy	1
Curriculum	1
Deaf Education	1
Discipline & Criminology	1
Diversity Studies	1
Education Development	1
Experiential Learning	1
Indigenous Knowledge Systems	1
Language Development	1
Language Policy	
Language, Culture & IK in Mathematics and Science Education	1
Learner Support	1
Learning	1
Mathematics Teacher Education	1
Memory & Identity	1
Movement Education	1

Resilience, At risk youth & Educators	1
Science & Technology Education	1
Second Language	1
Social Justice Education	1
Specialised Education	1
Speech & Language Disorders	1
Student Achievement	1
Violence	1
Adolescent Issues	1
Career Counselling	1
Connections within Maths and Across Curriculum Disciplines	1
Education Science	1
Educational Administration	1
Educational Management	1
Feminism	1
History of Education	1
Inclusive Education	1
Internationalisation & Globalisation	1
Language Barriers	1
Leadership	1
Literacy Pedagogy & Inclusive Ed in Teacher Education	1
Literature	1
Professional Development	1
Research Ethics	1
Research Methodology	1
School Governance	1
School Maths Curriculum Policy & Implementation	1
Stereotyping & Textbooks	1
Teaching & Learning Mathematics	1
Teaching & Learning Mathematics in Multilingual Classrooms	1
Textbook Evaluation	1
Visual Learning Communities	1

APPENDIX 5: Research Methodology

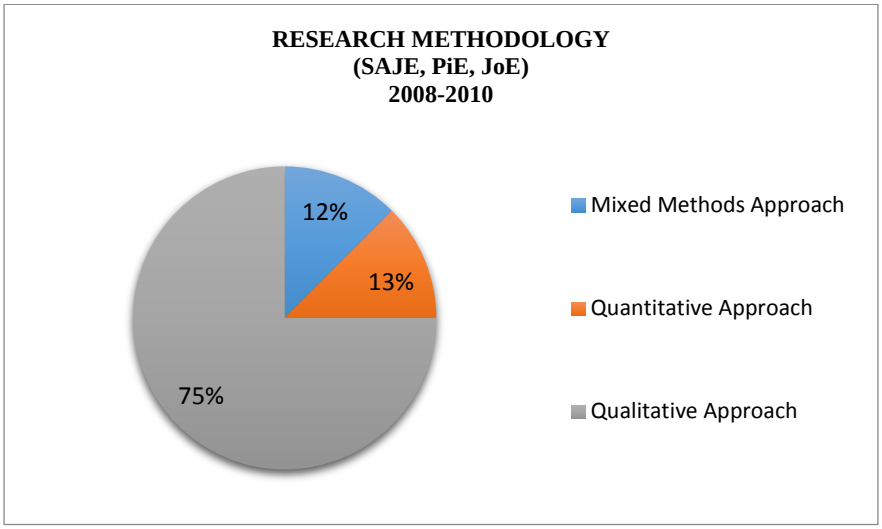


Figure 5.4: Research Methodology in the SAJE, PiE and the JoE (2008-2010)

APPENDIX 6: Reference List of the 64 Articles Analysed
(Arranged in numerical order as per analysis)

[4]. Plessis, S. D., & Louw, B. (2008). Challenges to preschool teachers in learner's acquisition of English as Language of Learning and Teaching. *South African journal of education*, *28*(1), 53-74.

[7]. Setati, M. (2008). Access to mathematics versus access to the language of power: The struggle in multilingual mathematics classrooms. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(1), 103-116.

[11]. Lemmer, M., Edwards, J. A., & Rapule, S. (2008). Educators' selection and evaluation of natural sciences textbooks. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(2), 175-187.

[12]. Mwakapenda, W. (2008). Understanding connections in the school mathematics curriculum. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(2), 189-202.

[13]. Neli, M., & Theron, L. (2008). Critique of a language enrichment programme for Grade 4 ESL learners with limited English proficiency: a pilot study. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(2), 203-219.

[17]. Kazima, M., Pillay, V., & Adler, J. (2008). Mathematics for teaching: observations from two case studies. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(2), 283-299.

[27]. Maharaj, A. (2008). Some insights from research literature for teaching and learning mathematics. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(3), 401-414.

[28]. Maharaj, A. (2008). Some insights from research literature for teaching and learning mathematics. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(3), 401-414.

[30]. Condy, J. (2008). The development of an enabling self-administered questionnaire for enhancing reading teachers' professional pedagogical insights. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(4), 609-624.

[32]. Walt, M. V. D., Maree, K., & Ellis, S. (2008). A mathematics vocabulary questionnaire for use in the intermediate phase. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(4), 489-504. [32]

[34]. Engelbrecht, A. (2008). The impact of role reversal in representational practices in history textbooks after Apartheid. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*(4), 519-541. [34]

[46]. Van Deventer, K. (2009). Perspectives of teachers on the implementation of Life Orientation in Grades R-11 from selected Western Cape schools. *South African Journal of Education*, *29*(1), 127-145.

[54]. Van Rooyen, D., & Jordaan, H. (2009). An aspect of language for academic purposes in secondary education: complex sentence comprehension by learners in an integrated Gauteng school. *South African Journal of Education*, *29*(2), 271-287.

[60]. Nkopodi, N., & Mosimege, M. (2009). Incorporating the indigenous game of morabaraba in the learning of mathematics. *South African Journal of Education, 29*(3), 377-392.

[68]. Horn, I. (2009). Learner-centredness: an analytical critique. *South African Journal of Education*, *29*(4), 511-525.

[70]. Schoeman, S. (2009). The representation of women in a sample of post-1994 South African school History textbooks. *South African Journal of Education*, *29*(4), 541-556.

[72]. Rakumako, A., & Laugksch, R. (2010). Demographic profile and perceived INSET needs of secondary Mathematics teachers in Limpopo province. *South African Journal of Education*, *30*(1), 139-152.

[74]. Ngid, D., Sibaya, P., Sibaya, D., Khuzwayo, H., Maphalala, M., & Ngwenya, N. (2010). Evaluation of the effectiveness of the 360-credit National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) programme. *South African Journal of Education*, *30*(1), 27-39.

[76]. Ono, Y., & Ferreira, J. (2010). A case study of continuing teacher professional development through lesson study in South Africa. *South African Journal of Education, 30*(1), 59-74. 20.

[80]. Botes, H., & Mji, A. (2010). Language diversity in the mathematics classroom: does a learner companion make a difference?. *South African Journal of Education, 30*(1), 123-138.

[87]. Reyneke, M., Meyer, L., & Nel, C. (2010). School-based assessment: the leash needed to keep the poetic'unruly pack of hounds' effectively in the hunt for learning outcomes. *South African Journal of Education, 30*(2), 277-292.

[89]. Fardon, J., & Schoeman, S. (2010). A feminist post-structuralist analysis of an exemplar South African school history text. *South African Journal of Education*, *30*(2), 307-323.

[104]. Blignaut, S., Els, C., & Howie, S. (2010). Contextualizing South Africa's participation in the SITES 2006 module. *South African Journal of Education*, *30*(4), 555-570.

[105]. Edwards, N. (2010). An analysis of the alignment of the Grade 12 Physical Sciences examination and the core curriculum in South Africa. *South African Journal of Education*, *30*(4), 571-590.

[106]. Stears, M., & Gopal, N. (2010). Exploring alternative assessment strategies in science classrooms. *South African Journal of Education, 30*(4), 591-604.

[109]. Nel, N., & Müller, H. (2010). The impact of teachers' limited english proficiency on English second language learners in South African schools. *South African Journal of Education*, *30*(4), 635-650.

[148]. Cherian, L., & Du Toit, C. (2009). *Literacy learning in Limpopo–a multilingual environment*. Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria.

[153]. Russell, C., Amod, Z., & Rosenthal, L. (2008). The Effects of Parent-Child Mediated Learning Experience (MLE) Interaction on Young Children's Cognitive Development. *Perspectives in Education*, *26*(4), 28-41.

[154]. Ramani, E., & Joseph, M. (2008). Achieving Academic Excellence through Higher-Order Cognition in an African Language: Students Researching" Small Talk" in Sesotho sa Leboa. *Perspectives in Education*, *26*(4), 42-56.

[162]. Du Toit, C. M., Bouwer, C., & Bouwer, A. C. (2009). Transitional influences on early adolescents' reading development. Perspectives in Education, Volume 27(1), 91-100.

[169]. Jita, L. C., & Ndlalane, T. C. (2009). *Teacher clusters in South Africa: opportunities and constraints for teacher development and change*. Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria. Perspectives in Education, Volume 27(1), 58-68.

[176]. Keet, A., Zinn, D., & Porteus, K. (2009). Mutual vulnerability: A key principle in a humanising pedagogy in post-conflict societies. *Perspectives in Education*, *27*(2), 109-119.

[178]. Ferreira, A., & Janks, H. (2009). Doves, rainbows and an uneasy peace: Student images of reconciliation in a post-conflict society. *Perspectives in Education*, *27*(2), 133-146.

[182]. Weldon, G. (2009). Memory, Identity and the Politics of Curriculum Construction in Transition Societies: Rwanda and South Africa. *Perspectives in Education*, *27*(2), 177-189.

[186]. Mudaly, V. (2009). Iterative Processes in Mathematics Education. *Perspectives in Education*, *27*(3), 302-310.

[217]. Samuel, M. (2010). Searching for a "pedagogy of hope": Teacher education and the social sciences. *Perspectives in Education*, *28*(1), 5-15.

[219]. Makina, A. (2010). The role of visualisation in developing critical thinking in mathematics. *Perspectives in Education*, *28*(1), 24-33.

[229]. Ayliff, D. (2010). 'Why can't Johnny write? He sounds okay!'Attending to form in English second language teaching. *Perspectives in Education*, *28*(2), 1-8.

[231]. Naidoo, D. (2010). A discursive formation that undermined integration at a historically advantaged school in South Africa. *Perspectives in Education*, *28*(2), 19-30.

[244]. Geschier, S. M. (2010). Vulnerability and belonging in the history classroom: A teacher's positioning in "volatile conversations" on racism and xenophobia. *Perspectives in Education*, *28*(3), 23-33.

[253]. Alant, B. P. (2010). We cross night": Some reflections on the role of the ESKOM Expo for Young Scientists as a means of accommodating disadvantaged learners into the field of Science and Technology. *Perspectives in Education*, *28*(4), 1-10.

[257]. Olivier, T., De Lange, N., & Wood, L. (2010). Using participatory video to explore teachers' lived experiences. *Perspectives in Education*, *28*(4), 43-51.

[261]. Holderness, B., Bold, C., Henry, D., & Wood, M. (2008). Extending boundaries: young people as action researchers. *Journal of Education, 43,* 57-78.

263]. Rule, P. N. (2015). Unbinding the Other in the Context of HIV And AIDS and Education. In *Journal of Education, 43(3),* 79-99.

[264]. Blignaut, S. (2008). Teachers' sense-making and enactment of curriculum policy. *Journal of Education, 43*(1), 101-125.

[265]. Hugo, W., Bertram, C., Green, W., & Naidoo, D. (2008). Bernstein, Bloom and the analysis of pedagogy in South African schools. *Journal of Education*, *43*, 31-56.

[267]. Mbokazi, S., & Bhengu, T. (2008). An unexplored partnership: the influence of traditional leaders on schooling. *Journal of education, 44*, 49-66.

[272]. Edwards, G., & Smit, B. (2008). Collaborative leadership as a necessary condition for successful curriculum implementation. *Journal of Education*, *44*, 109-122.

[274]. Bertram, C. (2008). Doing history?": Assessment in history classrooms at a time of curriculum reform. *Journal of Education, 45*(4), 55-177.

[277]. Hardman, J. (2008). Researching pedagogy: An activity theory approach. *Journal of Education, 45*, 65-95.

[284]. Taylor, N. (2009). The State of South African schools Part 1: Time and the regulation of consciousness. *Journal of Education, 46*(10), 1-24.

[285]. Dalvit, L., Murray, S., & Terzoli, A. (2009). Deconstructing language myths: which languages of learning and teaching in South Africa. *Journal of Education*, *46*, 33-56.

[287]. Lotz-Sisitka, H. (2009). Epistemological access as an open question in education. *Journal of Education, 46*, 57-79.

[293]. Muthivhi, A., & Broom, Y. (2009). School as cultural practice: Piaget and Vygotsky on learning and concept development in post-apartheid South Africa. *Journal of Education*, *47*, 55-72.

[294]. Meyer, S., & Kühne, C. (2009). Grappling with change: case studies from the rural education project. *Journal of Education, 47*, 73-99.

[295]. Ensor, P., Hoadley, U., Jacklin, H., Kuhne, C., Schmitt, E., Lombard, A., & Van den Heuvel-Panhuizen, M. (2009). Specialising pedagogic text and time in Foundation Phase numeracy classrooms. *Journal of Education, 47*(5).

[297]. Dixon, K. (2009). Producing literate subjects? Using the spatial and temporal as lenses to examine early literacy classrooms. *Journal of Education, 47*(5), 31-54.

[298]. Bolton, H. (2009). What really matters: aspects of pedagogy linked to access to and achievement in specialised knowledge for learners in differing social class contexts. *Journal of Education, 47*, 101-126.

[303]. Naidoo, D., & Green, W. (2009). Differentiated pedagogy in diverse physical science classrooms. *Journal of Education, 48(2)*, 7-36.

[306]. Horsthemke, K. (2010). 'Knowledge diversity', truth and schooling: in (cautious) defence of realism. *Journal of Education, 48(5)*, 77-98.

[312]. Stewart, S., & Modiba, M. (2010). Investigating policy at a practical level: challenges in translating the new curriculum for teachers in South Africa. *Journal of Education*, 50*(2)*, 161-196.

[316]. Dempster, E., & Zuma, S. (2010). Reasoning used by isiZulu-speaking children when answering science questions in English. *Journal of Education, 50*, 35-58.

[317]. Reeves, C., & Robinson, M. (2010). Am I 'qualified' to teach? The implications of a changing school system for criteria for teacher qualifications. *Journal of Education*, 50*(7)*, 7-33.

[322]. Le Cordeur, M. (2010). From 0 to 100%-How Raithby Primary turned their literacy performance around. *Journal of Education, 49*(Augustus).

REFERENCE LIST

Allais, S. (2010). *The implementation and impact of national qualifications frameworks: Report of a study in 16 countries*. Geneva: International Labour Office.

Bassey, M. (1999). *Case study research in educational settings*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Bassey, M., & Constable, H. (1997). Higher education research in education 1992-1996: Fields of enquiry reported in the HEFC's RAE, *Research Intelligence*, *61*(July), 6-8.

Bernstein, B. (2000). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity.* Oxford: Rowman & Littlefield.

———. (1990). Vertical and horizontal discourse: An essay. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, *20*(2).

———. (1971). On the classification and framing of educational knowledge. In M. Young, (1981). *Knowledge and Control*. London: Collier-Macmillan.

Bertram, C. & Christiansen, I. (undated). Understanding research. An introduction to reading research. Unpublished course material. Durban: University of KwaZulu Natal.

Black, T.R. (1999). *Doing quantitative research in the social sciences: An integrated approach to research design, measurement, and statistics*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Bowen, G. A., (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, *9*(2), 27-40.

Brikci, N., & Green, J. (2007). *A guide to using qualitative research methodology*. MSF: UK.

Cameron, R. "Mixed methods research: The five Ps framework". *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods, 9*(2), 96-108.

Carr, W. (1993). Reconstructing the curriculum debate: An editorial introduction. *Curriculum Studies*, *1*(1).

Chi Kin Lee, J. (2010). Internationalization of curriculum studies. In C Kridel (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of curriculum studies*, (. 500-501). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

Christodoulou, N. (2010). Conceptual-empiricism perspective. In C Kridel (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of curriculum studies*, (p. 139-140). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

Christodoulou, N. (2010). Traditionalist perspective. In C Kridel (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of curriculum studies*, (p. 886-887). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

Clark, J. A. (2000). The Tooley report on educational research: Two philosophical objections. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, *32*(2), 249-252.

Clement, D.H. (2007). Curriculum research: Toward a framework for "research-based curricula". *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 38*(1), 35-70.

Cole, A. L., & Knowles, J.G. (1993). Teacher development partnership research: A focus on methods and Issues. *American Educational Research Journal, 30*(3), 473-495.

Coleman, M., Graham-Jolly, M., & Middlewood, D., (2003). (Eds.) *Managing the curriculum in South African schools*. The Commonwealth Secretariat, Huddersfield, UK.

Connelly, M. F., & Phillion, H & J. (Eds.). (2008). *The handbook of curriculum and instruction.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. (4th Ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches. (2nd Ed.), Thousand Oaks, London: Routledge.

Creswell, W.C. (1998). Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions. Thousand Oaks, New Delhi: Sage.

Creswell, K.W., & Plano Clark, C. L., (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Snyder, J. (1992). Curriculum studies and the traditional of inquiry: The scientific tradition. In P. W. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on curriculum: A project of the American Educational Research Association* (p. 41-72). New York: Macmillan.

Deacon, R., Osman, R., & Buchler, M. (2012). Education research in South Africa, 1995-2006. *Journal of Education, 53,* 97-116.

———. (2010). South African research on education management: An exercise in futility? Paper For Kenton Conference. Martin Prew, Centre for Education Policy Development. Retrieved from http://www.cepd.org.za/files/pictures/Kenton_2010_paper_by_Martin_Prew.pdf

———. (2009). *Audit and interpretative analysis of education research in South Africa: What have we learnt? Research report for the National Research Foundation*. Johannesburg: Centre for Education Policy Development. Retrieved from http://www.nrf.ac.za/files/Doc%202A-FINAL_REPORT%20NRF%20Education%20Audit%2031%20March%202009(1).pdf

du Plessis, S., & Louw, B. (2008). Challenges to preschool teachers in learner's acquisition of English as Language of Learning and Teaching. *South African Journal of Education*, *28*, 53-75.

Ekanem, S. A., & Ekefre, E.N. (2014). Philosophical foundations of curriculum development in Nigeria: The essencist model. Journal of Educational and Social Research. 4(3), 265-271. Retrieved from http://mcser.org/journal/index.php/jese/article/download/2721/2688

Ensor, P. M. (2001). "From Pre-Service Mathematics Teacher Education to Beginning Teaching: A Study in Recontextualising." *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, 20, 2–14.

Emmel, N. (2013). *Sampling and choosing cases in qualitative research*. London: Sage.

Fossey, E., Harvey, C., McDermott, F., & Davidson, L. (2002). Understanding and evaluating qualitative research. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry, 36*(6), 717-732.

Friese, S., (2012). *Qualitative data analysis with ATLAS.ti*. London: Sage.

Graff, J. C. (2013). Mixed methods research. In H.R. Hall & L.A. Roussel, (Eds.), *Evidence-based practice: An integrative approach to research, administration and practice*. Retrieved from http://samples.jbpub.com/9781449625917/25917_CH03_045_064.pdf

Grbich, C. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis*: An introduction. London: Sage.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (p. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). *Fourth Generation evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Hancock, D.R., & Algozzine, B., (2006). *Doing case study research: A practical guide for beginning researchers*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Hoadley, U. (2011). Knowledge, knowers and knowing. In L. Yates & M. Grumet (Eds.). *World Yearbook of Education - Curriculum in Today's world: Configuring knowledge identities, work and politics*. London: Routledge.

———. (2010). Tribes and territory: Contestation around curriculum in South Africa. In W. F. Pinar (Ed.), *Curriculum studies in South Africa: Intellectual histories and present circumstances* (p. 125–176). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hawkins, J. N., & Jacob, W. J. (2010). In W. F. Pinar (Ed.), *Curriculum studies in South Africa: Intellectual histories and present circumstances: Intellectual histories and present circumstances* (p. ix-x). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hugo, W. (2010). Drawing the line in post-apartheid. In W. F. Pinar (Ed.). *Curriculum studies in South Africa*: *Intellectual histories and present circumstances* (p. 51-106). New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Jackson, P. W. (Ed.) (1992). *Handbook of research on curriculum: A project of the American Educational Research Association*. New York: Macmillan.

Jansen, J.D. (1999). Why outcomes-based education will fail: An elaboration. In J. Jansen & P. Christie (Eds.), *Changing curriculum: Studies on outcomes-based education in South Africa* (p. 145-156). Cape Town: Juta.

Jansen, J. D. (1990). Curriculum as a political phenomenon: Historical reflections on Black South African education. *Journal of Negro Education, 59*(2), 195-206.

Johansson, U. (2003). Frame factors, structures, and meaning making: Shifting focus of curriculum research in Sweden. In W. F. Pinar (Ed.), *International Handbook of Curriculum Research* (p. 575-598). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Journal of Education (JoE) website. (2015) http://joe.ukzn.ac.za/notes.aspx

Knowles, J.G., & Cole, A.L. (2008). *Handbook of arts in qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kridel, C., & Newman, V. (2003). A random harvest: A multiplicity of studies in American curriculum history research. In W. F. Pinar (Ed.), *International Handbook of Curriculum Research* (p. 443-456). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Le Grange, L. (2010). South African Curriculum Studies: A historical perspective and autobiographical account. In W. F. Pinar (Ed.). Curriculum studies in South Africa: *Intellectual histories and present circumstances*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Lincoln, Y. S. (1992). Curriculum studies and the traditional of inquiry: The humanistic tradition. In P. W. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on curriculum: A project of the American Educational Research Association* (p. 79-95). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic observation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Long-Sutehall, T., Sque, M., & Addington-Hall, J. (2010). Secondary analysis of qualitative data: A valuable method for exploring sensitive issues with an elusive population? *Journal of Research in Nursing, 16*(4) 335-344.

Lotz-Sisitka, H. (2009). Epistemological access an open question in education. *Journal of Education*, *46*, 56-77.

Lovet, T., & Smith, D. (1995). *The origins and nature of curriculum. Curriculum: Action on Reflection Revisited* (3rd Ed). Wentworth Falls, NSW. Social Science Press.

Mcdougal, S. (2011). The future of research methods in African Studies graduate curriculum. *Journal of African American Studies*, *15*, 279-289.

McMillan, J.H., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry* (7th Ed.). New Jersey: Pearson.

McNiff, S. (2008). *Art-based research*. London: Jessica Kingsley.

Malewski, E. (2010a). Post-Reconceptualization. In C. Kridel (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of curriculum studies*, (p. 669-671). Los Angeles: Sage.

Malewski, E. (2010b). A Way of Knowing in the Future of Curriculum Studies. In E. Malewski (Ed.), *Curriculum Studies Handbook. The Next Moment* (p. 534-539). New York: Routledge.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2006). Designing Qualitative Research (4th Ed). Thousand Oaks, Los Angeles: Sage.

Maodzwa–Taruvinga, M., & Cross, M. (2012). Jonathan Jansen and the curriculum debate in South Africa: An essay review on Jansen's writings between 1999 and 2009. *Curriculum Inquiry*, *42*(1), 126-152.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to research and implementation*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (2001). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Mouton, J. (2012). *Understanding social research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Muller, J., & Taylor, N. (2000). Schooling and everyday life. In J. Muller (Ed.), *Reclaiming knowledge: Social theory, curriculum and education policy*. London: Routledge.

Namey, E., Guest, G., Thairu, L., & Johnson, L. (2007). Data reduction techniques for large qualitative data sets. In G. Guess & K. Macqueen (Eds.), *Handbook for team-based qualitative research*, (p. 20-27). United Kingdom: Altamira Press.

Null, J. W. (2008). Curriculum development in historical perspective. In M.F. Connelly & H. J. Phillion, (Eds.), *The handbook of curriculum and instruction* (p. 478-490). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pacheco, J. A. (2012). Curriculum studies: What is the field today? *Journal of American Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies*. *8*, 1-18.

Paton, M. C. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd Ed.). California: Sage.

Pinar, W.F. (2013). *Curriculum studies in the United States*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

———. (2011). *The character of curriculum studies: Bildung, currere, and the recurring question of the subject*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

———. (2010). On the internationalisation of curriculum studies. In W. F. Pinar (Ed.), *Curriculum studies in South Africa: Intellectual histories and present circumstances* (p. 221–242). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

———. (2009). The reconceptualization of curriculum studies. In D. J. Flinders & S. J. Thornton (Eds.), *The Curriculum Studies Reader* (p. 168-175). New York: Routledge.

———. (2008). Curriculum theory since 1950: Crisis, reconceptualization, internationalization. In M. Connelly, H. Fang & J. Phillion, J. (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of curriculum and instruction* (p. 491-513). Los Angeles: Sage.

———. (2007). *Intellectual advancement through disciplinarily: Verticality and horizontality in curriculum studies*. Rotterdam: Sense.

———. (2003). The internationalization of curriculum studies. Paper presented to the biannual meeting of the Mexican Council of Education's National Conference on Education Research, Guadalajara, November 2003. Retrieved from http://www.riic.unam.mx/01/02_Biblio/doc/Internationalizaton_Curriculum_W_PINAR_(MEXICO).pdf

———. (1978). The reconceptualization of curriculum studies. In D.J. Flinders & S. J. Thornton (Eds.), *The curriculum studies reader* (p. 89). New York: Routledge.

Pinar, W.F., Reynolds, W.M., Slattery, P., & Taubman, P.M. (1995). *Understanding curriculum*. New York: Peter Lang.

Perspectives in Education (PiE) website. (2015). http://www.perspectives-in-education.com

Quinn Patton, M., & Cochran, M. (2002). *A guide to using qualitative research methodology*. United Kingdom: Medecins Sans Frontieres.

Randolph, J.J., Griffin, A.E., Zeiger, S.R., Falbe, K.N., Freeman, N.A., Taylor, B.E., Westbrook, A.F., Lico, C.C., Cristy, N.S., Sprull, N.M., Holt, C., Smith, K., McAnespie, H. (2013). A methodological review of the articles published in Georgia Educational Researcher from 2003-2010, *Georgia Educational Researcher Online Edition*, 10(1), 1-18. Retrieved from http://www.gaera.org/ger/v10n1_2013/N1_SP13_Randolph_et_al.pdf

Richlin, L. (2001). Scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching. In C. Kreber, (Ed.). *Scholarship Revisited: Perspectives on the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 86, summer*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., & Elam, G. (2003). Designing and selecting samples. In *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London: Sage.

Roberts-Holmes, G. (2011). Doing your early years research project: A step-by-step guide. (2nd Ed.). London: Sage.

Saldana, J. (2013). The coding manual for qualitative Data reduction techniques for large qualitative data sets researchers. (2nd Ed.). London: Sage.

Savenye, W.C., & Robinson, R.S. (1996). Qualitative research issues and methods: An introduction for educational technologists (p. 1045-1071). Retrieved from http://www.aect.org/edtech/39.pdf

Schubert, W.H. (2008). Curriculum inquiry. In M.F. Connelly, &, H. J. Phillion (Eds.), *The handbook of curriculum and instruction* (p. 98-109). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Setati, M., Chitera, N., & Essien, A. (2009). Research on multilingualism in mathematics education in South Africa: 2000-2007. *African Journal of Research in MST Education*, Special Issue, 65-80.

Setati, M. (2008). Access to mathematics versus access to the language of power: the struggle in multilingual mathematics classrooms. *South African Journal of Education, 28,* 103-116.

Smit, B. (2002). Atlas.ti for qualitative data analysis. *Perspectives in Education, 20*(3), 65-75.

Smith, D., & Ewing, R. (2002). Curriculum studies: Storylines change. *Transformation in Education*, *5*(1), 26-45.

Soudien, C. (2010). What to teach the natives: A historiography of the curriculum dilemma in South Africa. In W. F. Pinar (Ed.), *Curriculum studies in South Africa: Intellectual histories and present circumstances* (p. 19-49). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

South African Journal of Education (SAJE) website. (2015). http://www.sajournalofeducation.co.za/index.php/saje

Stenhouse, L. (1983). *Defining the curriculum problem: An introduction to curriculum research and development*. London: Heinemann.

Stern, B.S., & Kysilka, M.L. (2008). *Contemporary readings in curriculum*. United Kingdom: Sage.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (Eds.). (2003*). Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*. California: Sage.

Thomson, S.B. (2011). Qualitative research: Validity. *Journal of Administration and Governance, 6*(1), 77-82.

Tooley, J., & Darby, D. (1998). *Educational research: A critique*. London: Office of Standards in Education (OFSTED).

Walker, D.F. (1992). Methodological issues in curriculum research. In P. W. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on curriculum: A project of the American Educational Research Association* (p. 98-115). New York: Macmillan.

Wraga, G.M., & Hlebowitsh, P.S. (2003). Toward a renaissance in curriculum theory and development in the USA. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 35*(4), 425-437.

Young, M.F.D. (2010a). The future of education in a knowledge society: The radical case for a subject-based curriculum. *Journal of the Pacific Circle Consortium for Education, 22*(1), 21-32.

Young, M.F.D. (2010b). Curriculum theory and the problem of knowledge: A personal journey and an unfinished project. In E. Malewski (Ed.), *Curriculum studies handbook: The next moment* (p. 219-230). New York: Routledge.

Zhang, H., & Zhon, Q. (2003). Curriculum studies in China: Retrospect and prospect. In W. F. Pinar (Ed.), *International handbook of data reduction techniques for large qualitative data sets curriculum research* (p. 443-456). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.