

A Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania: an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach

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It all starts here TM

DECLARATION

I the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

A handwritten signature in purple ink, consisting of the letters 'RJM' followed by the word 'unisiers' in a cursive script.

Signature

Date: November 2016

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“I have set you an example that you should do as I have done for you” (John 13:15). Heartily, I thank the Lord God Almighty for revealing to me His everlasting love from start to the end of this study. Indeed, as a lecturer, I desire to imitate God’s Servant’s Spirit and serve others.

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ABSTRACT

The Tanzania Education and Training Policy (1995) suggests plans for improving and transforming the country's educational system to meet the societal needs of the twenty-first century. To implement these plans, the National Higher Education Policy (1999b) explains the need for internationalisation of higher education curriculum. One of the strategies put in place is to ensure that higher education curriculum programmes are developed in line with contemporary national and international circumstances (Tanzania, 1999b). In this thesis, an overview is given of how teacher education aligns Curriculum Studies as a discipline with the contemporary needs in society. The statement of the problem and the lacunae in the scholarship highlighted two main issues: (i) the absence of a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, and (ii) the under-researched nature of the discipline in the country. In this regard, this research explored the extent to which the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach could be used in the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania. The objectives were the following:

- To explore scholarly literature about developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education
- To analyse curriculum documents of a South African university for the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania
- To explore the extent to which pragmatic intervention research could assist in eliciting heads of departments', lecturers' and students' perspectives pertaining to developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education.

In the overview of the body of scholarship the historical developments in the Curriculum Studies discipline, and its curriculum development theories and practices were considered so as to conceptualise the first objective of the study. A qualitative research design was used to conduct the study. The methodological framework was that of a pragmatic intervention design and development. Purposive sampling was employed to select heads of departments, lecturers and students in Curriculum Studies. The study sites were four universities in Tanzania and one university in South Africa. Historical research, document research, and open-ended one-to-one and focus group interviews constituted the data generation methods. The analytical framework employed a dialectical-relational approach to Critical Discourse Analysis. The findings presented in the data analysis chapters addressed the second and the third objectives of the study.

The study's findings confirmed the importance of acknowledging Curriculum Studies as a discipline in its own right which has progressed rapidly in the postmodernism era. The discipline

is characterised by various discourses such as internationalisation and trends which influence teacher education. The growth of the discipline calls for teacher education in Tanzania to provide more space in curriculum design in order to address contemporary Curriculum Studies discourses and trends. As a result, teacher education will empower and transform teachers in their professional work and make it possible for Tanzania to have local experts in Curriculum Studies who can conduct research and publish nationally and internationally.

Furthermore, the findings elicited to what extent the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse could be used as an approach to inform the development of a Curriculum Studies programme. This approach highlights the importance of developing a curriculum based on the nature, the elements and the practice of the discipline. In addition, it necessitates the importance of engaging with the historical events of the discipline (verticality) and the present circumstances of the discipline (horizontality) as well as of including the deliberative theory through the praxis approach to curriculum development. It is vital to understand the notion of internationalisation from this perspective which forms the basis for the whole process of curriculum development. The findings also stressed the need to align the developed curriculum programme with the country's relevant higher education accreditation policies.

Key terms:

Curriculum Studies, internationalisation of Curriculum Studies, Pragmatic intervention research, Tanzania, teacher education

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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an orientation to the study: *A Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania: an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach*. The chapter is structured and presented as follows: It commences with the background to the problem, the statement of the problem and a discussion of the lacunae in the relevant scholarship. Next, the research questions and related research objectives which provided a foundation for the study are presented. The chapter also clarifies some key concepts and how they were considered for the study. A synthesis of the research design used to conduct this study is then provided. The chapter ends with an outline of the organisation of the chapters in the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

Curriculum Studies scholars affirm that Curriculum Studies as a discipline in a postmodern era has progressed to its postparadigmatic phase (Cary, 2006; Goodman, 2010; Miller, 2010; Pinar, 2010b; Scott, 2008; Slaterry, 2006). Postmodernism should be understood as a moment of describing a discipline from different perspectives, and not as a particular moment in chronological time (Hargreaves, 1994; Malewski, 2010; Miller, 2010; Scott, 2008). The ontology and epistemology of postmodernism are important conflated principles (Scott, 2008). According to Scott (2008:136), a postmodern ontology suggests that “fixed and stable values are no longer influential; that entities are decentred, that relations between individuals are unstable; the structures are emergent rather than relatively immune to change; and that progress in society is an illusion”, whilst a postmodern epistemology deals with how the reality of the ontology of postmodernism can be known (Scott, 2008). In this context of understanding postmodernism, Miller (2010:667) asserts that postmodernism could be viewed as a moment of “awareness of *being-within* a particular way of thinking, language, and a particular cultural, social, historical framework.” From this notion of postmodernism, Curriculum Studies as a discipline ought therefore to be considered (Cary, 2006; Miller, 2010; Scott, 2008).

According to Cary (2006) and Slaterry (2006), postmodern curriculum scholars are to respond to emerging discourses in the discipline of Curriculum Studies. This scholarly request is also evident in the work of Goodman (2010) and Miller (2010), thereby reiterating the scholarly response to discourses emerging in Curriculum Studies. The growth of the discipline ought to be appreciated and not considered as a sign of “chaos” (Slaterry, 2006:283). It is for this reason that some countries like Botswana, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Mozambique, South Africa,

Tanzania and Uganda have committed to looking at matters concerning the higher education institutional growth in relation to the postmodernist moment (Bailey, Cloete & Pillay, 2012). In particular, the internationalisation discourse in Curriculum Studies has influenced and challenged scholars on matters concerning higher education to rethink the curriculum of higher education and its implications (Bitzer, 2011; Botha, 2011; Du Toit, 2011; Le Grange 2010a, 2011; Mkude & Cooksey, 2003; Wood, 2011). Barnett (2011), Le Grange (2011) and Mkude and Cooksey (2003) assert that inquiry into higher education curriculum is important in view of the contemporary curriculum needs which include:

- The increased need for professionals. Higher education should ensure that programmes are aligned to the kinds of credentials and capabilities that students need for the labour market. This implies better alignment between higher education and the world of work.
- Value orientation to instil the requisites of solidarity, global citizenship and work empowerment.

The concept of internationalisation is not unfamiliar to higher education institutions in the Tanzanian context (Ishengoma, 2008). On a national level, the motivation and policy for the internationalisation of higher education highlight that the policies on higher education that have been advocated cannot be implemented in isolation and disregard of the presence of availability of a corpus of knowledge in other geographical contexts. Section 8.2.7 of the Education and Training Policy (Tanzania, 1995) explains that there is an inevitable knowledge gap between nations. Tanzania is committed to bridging this gap through international cooperation which involves information sharing and/or exchange of professionals, students and publications. In 1999, the Tanzania Development Vision 2025 (Section 1.2.4) set the goal of producing the quantity and quality of educated people equipped with the requisite knowledge to solve societal problems, meet the challenges of development, and attain competitiveness at regional and global levels within its education system (Tanzania, 1999a). In particular, with regard to higher education, Section 3.2.1 of the National Higher Education Policy (Tanzania, 1999b) explains the rationale for internationalising higher education curriculum discourses:

Curriculum emphasis in higher education institutions shall be placed on programmes that are geared towards responding to the changing world of science and technology and to the corresponding ever-changing needs of people, their government, industry, commerce and the surrounding environment in general.

In this regard, this study was aimed at seeking ways through which the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies as an approach could be used to develop a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in contemporary Tanzania. The rationale for this study was based on two intertwined contextual issues: (i) Curriculum Studies as a discipline is yet to be more recognised

and promoted as an academic discipline for teacher education in Tanzania, and (ii) the Curriculum Studies discourses are to be better realised in order to enable sensitisation of international discourses. This approach might assist in improving and transforming teacher education programmes in the country.

Regarding the first point, this study was timely, because at the time of conducting this research, it was apparent that such a Curriculum Studies programme did not exist for teacher education on postgraduate level (Tanzania, 2013). It was evident that Curriculum Studies modules in some universities are offered within other education programmes at postgraduate level. For instance, a module such as Applied Curriculum Design and Development in Higher Education is offered under the Master of Arts in Educational Management programme, whereas Curriculum Planning, Theory, Designing and Development is offered under the Master of Education programme (TUMA, 2012). However, at some other universities in Tanzania, modules related to Curriculum Studies are offered under specific programmes identified for curriculum issues, such as the Curriculum Studies and Instruction programme (MWECAU, 2015; UD, 2015; UDOM, 2015). Amid such efforts, the contents of Curriculum Studies discourses such as internationalisation seem to have been given narrow space in these teacher education programmes. The concern about narrow spaces for contemporary national and international needs in curricula is also evident in the work of Mkude and Cooksey (2003:588) who comment as follows about curricula in higher education in Tanzania: "... curricula...have recently been relatively more responsive to the needs and aspirations of the nation. But there has not been an attempt to review these needs on a regular basis and revise the curricula accordingly" As a lecturer of Curriculum Studies modules since 2008, I realised that it would be more effective if different aspects of curriculum discourses could be given space in a Curriculum Studies programme. Such an approach could be possible if teacher education could regard Curriculum Studies as an academic discipline in its own right and if a Curriculum Studies programme is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse.

In terms of the lack of scholarly engagement with the discourses of Curriculum Studies, this aspect could be considered as a result of a longstanding under-researched nature of the discipline. As a result, discourses such as the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies became unfamiliar to Curriculum Studies scholars in Tanzania. The literature on Curriculum Studies indicates, for example, that Argentina, Botswana, Canada, Finland, Japan, Norway, Romania, South Africa, Taiwan and Zimbabwe engage with these discourses (Le Grange, 2010a; Pacheco, 2012; Pinar, 2003, 2010c). However, it seems that Tanzanian scholars have not been involved much in these discussions. I argue that the voice of Tanzanian scholars with regard to the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse is highly needed through research and publication; given the rapid growth of knowledge and viewpoints in the discipline. This study

may therefore encourage Tanzanian scholars to contribute to Curriculum Studies as a discipline, and the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, so that current and future directions of the discipline can be discussed both nationally and internationally.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND LACUNAE IN THE SCHOLARSHIP

Based on the explored background to this study, the problem statement concerns two issues: (i) the absence of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, and (ii) the under-researched nature of Curriculum Studies in the country. These lacunae have resulted in insufficient inquiry into the trends underpinning national and international Curriculum Studies discourses, and a lack of research and publication in the discipline from a Tanzanian point of view.

Not much has been written and published about Curriculum Studies in general and in particular for teacher education in Tanzania. Most of the Curriculum Studies literature focuses on school education: curriculum, curriculum development, implementation, evaluation and innovation (see for example, Babyegeya, 2006; Meena, 2009; Muneja, 2013). It is important to kindle the awareness that Curriculum Studies as a discipline is very broad and has progressed as a result of postmodernism. The awareness of the growth of the discipline could be enhanced by regarding Curriculum Studies as a discipline in its own right and developing a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following main question guided the current research:

To what extent, if any, can pragmatic intervention research assist in deriving theoretical guidelines to develop a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse?

To address this question, the following sub-questions were formulated:

- (a) What does the scholarly literature suggest about developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education?
- (b) What does an analysis of curriculum documents of a South African university reveal about the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania?

- (c) How can pragmatic intervention research assist in eliciting heads of departments', lecturers' and students' perspectives pertaining to developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education?

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following research objectives were set for the study:

- (a) To explore scholarly literature about developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education
- (b) To analyse curriculum documents of a South African university for the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania
- (c) To explore the extent to which pragmatic intervention research could assist in eliciting heads of departments', lecturers' and students' perspectives pertaining to developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education.

1.6 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

Some of the concepts used in the study are clarified below in order to explain how the concepts are to be understood. These are key concepts in subsequent chapters.

1.6.1 Curriculum Studies

The work of curriculum scholars like Grundy (1987), Pinar (1997) and Reddy (2014) could assist in elucidating Curriculum Studies from different paradigms such as the traditionalist, conceptual-empiricist and reconceptualist. Traditionalist curriculum work considered curriculum as a product (Breault & Marshall, 2010; Grundy, 1987; Murphy & Pushor, 2010; Reddy, 2014) which is based on plans or intended matters such as a national curriculum, provincial guidelines, and the teaching plans of individual teachers (Breault & Marshall, 2010; Grundy, 1987; Murphy & Pushor, 2010; Reed, Gultig & Adendorff, 2012; Van den Berg, 2014). However, curriculum as product is perceived to be a "narrow interpretation" of curriculum (Graham-Jolly, 2012:231).

On the other hand, according to the conceptual-empiricist approach, curriculum is perceived as process (Breault & Marshall, 2010; Grundy 1987; Reddy, 2014). Curriculum as process is viewed as being "constructed within actual learning situations with actual students" (Reddy, 2014:16). Learning is considered to be a social process and curriculum knowledge is socially constructed and "subject to critique and reconstruction" (*ibid.*).

The perspective on curriculum as process is broadened by the reconceptualist understanding of praxis (Breault & Marshall, 2010; Grundy, 1987; Pinar, 1997; Reddy, 2014). Curriculum is understood from the emphasis on “blending of action and enquiry” (Reddy, 2014:16). Curriculum as praxis involves exploring and theorising the social, economic and political assumptions in curriculum and educational contexts (Bach, 2010; Breault & Marshall, 2010; Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Graham-Jolly, 2012; Grundy, 1987; McLaren & Crawford, 2010; Macpherson, 1996; Malewski, 2010; Pinar, 2010a). From the praxis point of view the Latin word *currere* (the verbal form of *curriculum*) is understood to emphasise that curriculum is a “complicated conversation among teachers and students focused on texts and the concepts they communicate in specific places at particular historical moments” (Pinar, 2010a:177). According to this view, Curriculum Studies is not regarded as product, and it is more than process (Pinar, 2010a). Curriculum Studies consequently becomes “a verb, an action, a social practice, a private meaning, and a public hope” (Pinar, 2010a:178). From this understanding of Curriculum Studies, Hugo (2010:53) avers that “Curriculum Studies is the critical investigation of the process involved in engaging with knowledge structures that have been designed for systematic learning.”

1.6.2 The emergent Curriculum Studies discourses

According to Walker (2005:134), discourse could be understood in the Foucauldian sense as “socially organised frameworks of meaning, a way of thinking, speaking and acting that presents particular relationships as self-evidently true; it allows for certain things to be said or thought and not others.” Goodman (2010), Le Grange (2014), Miller (2010), Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery and Taubman (1995) and Pinar (2007, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2010d) indicate that the Curriculum Studies discipline is characterised by discourses such as internationalisation and democracy, as well as political, racial, gender, phenomenological, autobiographical, biographical, aesthetic, and theological issues. It also relates to curriculum development and its components, curriculum and lecturers/teachers, as well as curriculum and students.

In particular, the focused discourse for discussion in this study was the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies. This discourse engages with the understanding Curriculum Studies as a phenomenon by exploring the meanings derived from various historical events and present circumstances which happen both nationally and internationally in order to make meaning of the phenomenon (Pinar, 2007, 2010c).

1.6.3 Curriculum Studies programme

The term ‘Curriculum Studies programme’ could be understood in its broadest meaning as a programme of study which focuses on Curriculum Studies matters. As a programme of study,

Curriculum Studies aims to equip students with a broad knowledge of the growth of the discipline and its discourses in order to empower students regarding Curriculum Studies matters.

1.6.4 Teacher education

Several scholars have contributed toward explaining the meaning of teacher education by describing the historical, social-economic, political and cultural contexts in which this concept has developed (Babyegeya, 2006; Lukanga, 2013; Meena, 2009; Mhando, 2012). Within these contexts 'teacher education' refers to the development of theoretical and practical requirements for teaching; thus, teacher education could refer to the development of teachers' intellects and skills which are instrumental in teaching. Intellectual and skills developments are basic areas of concern in the overall professional preparation of teachers, since such development enables them to work effectively in the learning institutions in which they operate (Bullough, 2010a; Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997; Macpherson, 1996).

In relation to Curriculum Studies, teacher education aims to prepare teachers who are able and willing to become educational change agents. This intention is evident in teacher education programmes oriented toward social justice, inquiry and multicultural aims, where the expectation is that teachers can and must positively influence wider society, making it more just and compassionate (Bullough, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Macpherson, 1996).

Further, in Curriculum Studies, teacher education entails the understanding of teacher empowerment from the following meanings: "(i) to professionalise teaching in the sense of recognising teachers as experts in the methods and content of teaching, (ii) teachers are best in generating and upholding teaching standards, (iii) teachers as most responsible for classroom practice, and (iv) to protect teachers from interference from mindless bureaucrats, ambitious politicians and ideologies of every stripe" (Ayers, 2010:861).

Teacher empowerment requires teachers to be committed to lifelong learning in the context of education. Empowered teachers must consequently think about what they are teaching for, and what they are teaching against: oppression, subjugation, exploitation, unfairness, unkindness; and move toward generosity, compassion and love (Ayers, 2010; Macpherson, 1996).

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

In this study the research design that was deemed best to address the research questions was an inductive qualitative research design (Creswell, 2014). This design was chosen in view of the nature of this research, namely to identify a problem within a socio-educational context, whereby individuals or groups could be involved to elicit perspectives pertaining to the research questions in order to assist in understanding the inquired research problem (*ibid.*). The design was informed by the five components discussed hereafter.

1.7.1 Pragmatism as a philosophical lens

Philosophical principles and assumptions of pragmatism were used to navigate the study. The focus of pragmatism is on actions, situations and outcomes suited to the process of inquiry into the research problem (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2015). This philosophy was important to the study because it allowed flexibility in the provision of the necessary information required to best look into ways through which the research objectives could be attained.

1.7.2 A pragmatic intervention design and development methodology

A pragmatic intervention design and development methodology was employed to conduct the study. This methodology is one of the facets of intervention research (Thomas & Rothman, 1994a). The other facets are intervention knowledge development and intervention knowledge utilisation (*ibid.*). Intervention research is aimed at assisting social science researchers in applying research methodologies that could elicit practical findings that have the potential for immediate use in the field. In particular, the intervention design and development facet is differentiated from the other mentioned two facets as it is more structured, systematic and is merged with research methods and procedures commonly used (Thomas & Rothman, 1994a). The pragmatic intervention design and development methodology was important to this study because it revealed how relevant the entire inquiry process is to this study; especially the use of specific methods and processes chosen for exploring the research question. The methodology therefore had the potential to provide both theoretical and pragmatic solutions related to the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania; informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse.

1.7.3 Sampling

The sampling technique used for this study was purposive sampling which was chosen due to the nature of this study (Laher & Botha, 2012; Pascoe, 2014). The research participants selected included heads of departments, lecturers and students in the field of education and curriculum. The research participants' experiences made it possible to generate data that were useful in providing answers to the research questions. Research sites involved were universities from Tanzania and South Africa. Tanzania was the context of the study and I opted to explore the South African higher education arena because I had identified a university in this country that currently offers a Curriculum Studies programme for postgraduate students. These sites were most important to this study not because of the geographical connectedness, but due to the fact that these universities offer teacher education programmes.

1.7.4 Data generation methods

The methods used to generate data for the study were historical research, document research, and interviews. Historical research engages with the process of describing, analysing and interpreting the past, based on the information obtained from the selected sources related to the study (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a). For this study, I opted to use historical research in order to understand the past historical movements in the Curriculum Studies discipline and its discourses. By using this method, I became aware of matters related to curriculum development and employed scholarly ideas on how best a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in the context of Tanzania, informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, could be developed at present.

With regard to document research as method, I used this method to gain past and current information from documents kept or used by the universities involved in this study (MacCulloch, 2012; Mertens, 2015). The information obtained from these documents was relevant to this study in the following two ways: (i) some of the documents helped me to understand current practices in developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education, and (ii) other documents were used to supplement evidence of information obtained from historical research and interviews.

Interviews were also used as data generation method in this study since practical and natural responses from individuals or groups could provide information that historical and document research methods could not (Bell, 1999; Cohen & Manion, 1994). Two types of interviews were conducted in this study. One-to-one interviews were conducted with heads of departments and lecturers, whilst focus group interviews were conducted with students from the universities involved in the study, bearing in mind that those participants' different experiences of education

and Curriculum Studies matters could shed light on ways of answering the research questions. Consequently, in using multiple data generating methods I employed processes which assisted me in ensuring the trustworthiness of the data in this study.

1.7.5 Data analysis method

The method of data analysis used in the study was Critical Discourse Analysis (Gee, 2004; Rogers, 2004). In particular, a dialectical-relational approach to Critical Discourse Analysis was the option (Fairclough, 1992, 1995, 2004). The focus on analysing the literal meaning and the intertextual meaning of data through a dialectical-relational approach assisted in discussing the data from different content and contexts more accurately.

In addition, the research design also involved some quality criteria used to ensure trustworthiness of the data, as well as ethical considerations of the research adhered to in the entire empirical study.

1.8 ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS

The following section presents information about the subsequent chapters in this thesis.

Chapter 2: A historical overview of Curriculum Studies as a discipline

This chapter provides an in-depth discussion about the Curriculum Studies discipline. It describes the concept of Curriculum Studies as a discipline (2.2.1). Thereafter, the historical evolution of the discipline is identified and discussed as per the Western and the African orientations (2.2.2). Further, the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (2.3) and modes of knowledge production (2.4) are discussed.

Chapter 3: Curriculum development: approaches, design and the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies

The chapter discusses the questions of curriculum which focus on the nature, elements and practice of curriculum. These questions form a theoretical framework used in the study (3.2). This discussion is followed by a detailed exploration of approaches to curriculum development, with the focus on the product approach to curriculum development, the process approach to curriculum development, and the praxis approach to curriculum development (3.3). Next, curriculum design matters as a component of curriculum development are considered (3.4). Based on this discussion, attention is subsequently given to types of curricula (3.5). The chapter concludes with an exploration of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach to curriculum development (3.6). Chapters 2 and 3 assisted in answering the first research question of this study.

Chapter 4: Research design, methodology, methods and processes

Chapter 4 starts by highlighting forms of curriculum inquiry from the traditionalist paradigm to the present for the purpose of describing a historical background of how inquiries in Curriculum Studies have been conducted in the past. This historical background (4.2) sheds light on the choice of best methodologies which could be employed in inquiry into contemporary Curriculum Studies matters. Thereafter, the research design and its components chosen for exploring the research questions in this study (4.3-4.9) are presented.

Chapter 5: Document research: a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education at a South African university

The chapter describes, interprets and discusses the documents concerning a Curriculum Studies programme for Bachelor of Education Honours (BEdHons)¹ at the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) Level 8 offered at one of the universities in South Africa which was involved in the study. Two documents were used:

- A calendar for Honours and postgraduate programmes of 2015
- A marketing flyer for a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at NQF Level 8

The chapter commences with the descriptive analysis of discursive practice of each document. The description first deals with general information learned from the documents and then focuses on information related to a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at NQF Level 8. The description covers the nature, the elements and the practice of the Curriculum Studies programme (5.2). Therefore, a priori codes were used at this stage of the data analysis process.

The described information is then linguistically and holistically analysed by looking at the textual forms and structure of both documents (5.3). The chapter ends with a holistic analysis of social practice discussed in both documents. The social practices involved in the study of a Curriculum Studies programme are central to the discussion (5.4). The chapter therefore suggests some guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania as a response to the second research question. In particular, attributes of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse are also highlighted in this chapter.

¹ A honours degree is a qualification that students in South Africa obtain after their first bachelor's degree and before they are allowed to apply for a Master's degree (see Section 5.3.1.1).

Chapter 6: Interviews: exploring responses on a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education

This chapter presents, interprets and discusses the perspectives of heads of departments and a subject chair², lecturers and students pertaining to the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education. These participants were from the four universities in Tanzania and one university in South Africa. The chapter commences with an inductive holistic analysis of discursive practice of the nature, the elements and the practice of a Curriculum Studies programme that emanated from the participants' responses (6.2).

Thereafter, the chapter inductively analyses the textual discourses presented by the participants (6.3). The chapter ends with an inductive analysis of social practice discussed by the participants regarding a Curriculum Studies programme (6.4). Consequently, some guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education are identified as an answer to the third research question.

In particular, the guidelines identified for a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse are drawn from the exploration of the body of scholarship in Chapters 2 and 3, and discussions presented in Chapters 5 and 6, and holistically narrated in Chapter 7.

Chapter 7: Conclusions: a contemporary Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania

The concluding chapter provides a synthesis of the study. The findings drawn from the body of scholarship, the documents, and the participants' responses are outlined to respond to the lacunae in scholarship so as to come up with a deeper understanding of the theoretical guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education, informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, and sensitisation of Curriculum Studies discourses in the country. For this reason, the findings provide evidence for the research questions and objectives (7.2-7.3). The chapter also highlights the theoretical, contextual, and methodological contributions of the study (7.4). Next, the limitations of the study are explained (7.5) and suggestions are made for future research (7.6). Finally, personal reflections on my PhD journey are made (7.7).

² A subject chair is the head of a particular discipline, such as Curriculum Studies. This naming is used at the South African university where I conducted my research.

1.9 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This section summarises the chapter by highlighting some concepts and theories underpinning the study. The main aim of this study was to employ the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, as an approach to the development of a Curriculum Studies programme. The main research question that steered this study is:

To what extent, if any, can pragmatic intervention research assist in deriving theoretical guidelines to develop a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse?

Frameworks for the study: The study evolved from several frameworks pertaining to the conceptual, theoretical, methodological and analytical aspects of the topic. The conceptual frameworks and theorists that informed the study in terms of its concept clarification, theory, methodology and the analysis are depicted in Table 1-1. The last column of the table indicates the contextual contribution that this study aims to make.

Table 1-1: A summary of conceptual frameworks and theorists underpinning the study

Conceptual frameworks and theorists that informed the study				
Curriculum concepts	Theoretical	Methodological	Analytical	Contextual
Curriculum Studies The praxis approach: Pinar Curriculum Studies discourses: Cary; Pinar; Scott; Slattery Curriculum Studies programme: broadest meaning Teacher education, educational change agents and empowerment: Ayers; Bullough	A historical overview of Curriculum Studies as a discipline – Chapter 2 Curriculum Studies as a discipline: Shiundu & Omulando; Ornstein & Hunkins Western orientations in Curriculum Studies - historical movements: Flinders & Thornton; Pinar African orientations in Curriculum Studies - historical movements: Le Grange; Mushi The internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse: Pinar Modes of knowledge production: Hessels & Van Lente; Gibbons; Carayannis & Campbell Curriculum development: Approaches, design and the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies – Chapter 3 Questions of curriculum: Dillon The product approach: Bobbitt; Tyler; Taba; Wiggins & McTighe The process approach: Dewey; Walker; Stenhouse; Weinstein & Fantini The praxis approach: Freire; Nyerere The internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, as an approach to curriculum development: Pinar	Chapter 4 Philosophy: Pragmatism Methodology: Pragmatic intervention design and development Sampling: Purposeful Data generation methods: Historical research, document research & interviews Data analysis method: Dialectical-relational approach to Critical Discourse Analysis: Fairclough	Document research: A Curriculum Studies programme at a South African university – Chapter 5 Dillon's questions of curriculum (a priori coding) Dialectical-relational approach to Critical Discourse Analysis: Fairclough Interviews: Exploring responses on a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education – Chapter 6 Inductive coding Dialectical-relational approach to Critical Discourse Analysis: Fairclough	Conclusions: a contemporary Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania – Chapter 7 Contextualising the main research findings to address the research questions and research objectives

CHAPTER TWO

A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF CURRICULUM STUDIES AS A DISCIPLINE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with Curriculum Studies as a discipline in its broadest context and content in order to set the scene for understanding the first research question which sought to explore scholarly literature on developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education (1.4a). An in-depth overview is provided of the body of scholarship on Curriculum Studies as a discipline using a “historical reviews” approach (Howard, 2014:102). The historical review approach served as a guide in organising, structuring and presenting information. This approach assisted me in finding possible ways of covering and understanding Curriculum Studies as a discipline and its related discourses (Pinar *et al.*, 1995; Pinar, 2007, 2010c). The historical reviews approach also assisted in the process of exploring and acquiring insights into the discourses and trends of the discipline of Curriculum Studies in a chronological manner.

The chapter starts by discussing the notion of Curriculum Studies as a discipline, as well as general historical movements in Curriculum Studies; then details are provided of the emerging paradigm of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. The chapter ends with an explanation of Curriculum Studies and modes of knowledge production.

2.2 CURRICULUM STUDIES AS A DISCIPLINE

In this section, the view of Curriculum Studies as a discipline in its own right is provided (Kelly, 1999; Kridel, 2010; Kysilka, 2010; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). The historical evolution of the discipline is discussed and the generic historical movements in Curriculum Studies are explored, based on the Western and the African orientations (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Le Grange, 2010a; Mushi, 2009; Pinar, 1997, 2003; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992).

2.2.1 A discipline in its own right

Despite the controversies that exist among scholars as to what constitutes a discipline or a field of study, I would like to affirm that Curriculum Studies is a discipline. This assertion is based on the three fundamental features for an area of study to qualify as a discipline, as outlined by Shiundu and Omulando (1992): (i) it is dynamic, living, growing, instigating further inquiry, and produces latest knowledge, (ii) it allows for synthesis and coordination of scholarly ideas, and (iii) it is subjected to analysis and simplification which is essential for effective teaching and learning. In particular, Ornstein and Hunkins (2013:161) explain that the dynamics of a discipline include “a community of

persons, an expansion of human imagination, a domain, a tradition, a mode of inquiry, a conceptual structure, a specialised language, a heritage of literature, a network of communications, a valuative and affective stance, and an instructive community.”

According to Kelly (1999), Curriculum Studies emerged as a discipline when scholars in education wished to develop an approach to the study of education and related Curriculum Studies matters on their own, instead of being limited to the confines of other disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, and sociology. Kelly (1999) does not mean that education scholars wanted to exclude Curriculum Studies from the other mentioned disciplines, but scholars needed to study and explore education including the related Curriculum Studies phenomena in its own right.

In similar context, Kridel (2010:251) comments that the expansion of curriculum inquiry to include qualitative, autobiographical, and narrative forms of research in the late 1980s has contributed to Curriculum Studies as a discipline with “a broader conception of educational inquiry and an increased allegiance to the humanities.” Scholars reflected academics’ exploration of knowledge, acts of discovery, and autobiographical reflections about the nature of Curriculum Studies (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Kridel, 2010; Slattery, 2006). Curriculum Studies was therefore identified as a discipline of study which “offered freedom” in inquiring on educational and curriculum issues (Kridel, 2010:251). Likewise, Kysilka (2010:252) asserts that Curriculum Studies “is the framework upon which all other educational decisions are made.” As a result, Curriculum Studies answers questions about curriculum concepts, curriculum principles, curriculum theories, curriculum development, curriculum evaluation, curriculum change, philosophy, politics, economics, history, psychology, teaching and learning, and student assessment (Carson, 2009; Kelly, 1999; Kysilka, 2010; Pinar *et al.*, 1995; Pinar, 2010b, 2010d; Schubert, 2010a; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992).

In relation to the three features that comprise a discipline, and arguments from the previously mentioned scholars, I agree that the historical development of Curriculum Studies as an independent discipline can be traced back to the early 1900s (2.2.2), and I support the view that the discipline is growing and has a promising future. One of the promising prospects is that a contemporary Curriculum Studies programme could be developed for teacher education in Tanzania. According to Pinar *et al.* (1995), the growth of the discipline provokes scholarly discussion on Curriculum Studies discourses such as the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (2.3). It is also evident that the discipline is both nationally and internationally recommended for teaching (Bitzer & Botha, 2011; Carson, 2009; Le Grange, 2010a; Meena, 2009; Pinar *et al.*, 1995, Pinar, 2003, 2007, 2010c). Scholars have the opportunity to study, present, debate and publish about Curriculum Studies at national and international levels. In addition, the discipline is engaged with different modes of knowledge production that will be discussed in Section 2.4.

2.2.2 General historical movements in Curriculum Studies

The generic historical movements in Curriculum Studies were also explored. The discussion below starts with the Western orientations to Curriculum Studies (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Pinar, 1997, 2003), and concludes with a discussion on the African orientations (Le Grange, 2010a; Mushi, 2009; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Urevbu, 1985).

2.2.2.1 Curriculum Studies in the Western world

Curriculum scholars like Flinders and Thornton (1997), Pinar (1997, 2003) and Schubert (2010a) contributed to discussions on the Western orientations to Curriculum Studies by considering the emerging paradigms. Schubert (2010a:233) defines a paradigm as “a composite of values that shapes thought that governs inquiry in a given field.” According to Joseph (2010c), the scholarly work of Thomas Samuel Kuhn in *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (1962) contributed to the understanding of the notion of paradigm. In his work, Kuhn (1977) explored historiographic and metahistorical studies that have contributed to scholars’ understanding of key issues such as “the relationship between the history and the philosophy of science, the relationship between history and the history of science, the historical structure of scientific discovery, and second thoughts on paradigms” (Kuhn, 1977:vii). Thus, according to Kuhn (1977:294), ‘paradigm’ refers to “embracing all the shared commitments of a scientific group.” From this understanding, Joseph (2010c:629) asserts that Kuhn’s work shaped the concept of paradigm within Curriculum Studies to mean “a unifying theoretical framework of an academic discipline as well as a worldview.” As frameworks, paradigms assist scholars in different ways such as to “make sense of their fields, clarify and create new research questions as well as guide their methods and analyses” (Joseph, 2010c:629). Further, in the discipline of Curriculum Studies, paradigms comprise assumptions about “learning and teaching, the nature of reality, knowledge, intelligence, inquiry, discourse, the naming of problems and approaches to problem solving, and social and political values” (*ibid.*). In my study the paradigmatic historical movements in Curriculum Studies that were explored included the early traditionalist, traditionalist, conceptual-empiricist, reconceptualist, and an emerging discourse of internationalisation of Curriculum Studies (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Pinar, 1997, 2003).

2.2.2.1.1 Early traditionalist paradigm

The early traditionalist paradigm in Curriculum Studies can be traced to the 1900s (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Kliebard, 1987). Some scholars recognised for their contribution to this paradigm and also discussed in this study are Franklin Bobbitt, John Dewey, Jane Addams, Maria Montessori, and George S. Counts. Historically, early traditionalist curriculum scholars were influenced by the work of Superintendent Jesse Homer Newlon and Frederick Winslow Taylor (Pinar, 1997). Newlon's work extended ideas of progressive education to educational administrative work and community work (Miller, 2002). In particular, Newlon's work in curriculum revision of the 1920s pointed to the need for curriculum specialists to attend to matters of curriculum (Miller, 2002; Pinar, 1997). Teachers were involved in curriculum development work such as chairing curriculum committee meetings and revising curricula. Newlon contributed to the advancement of Curriculum Studies as a discipline as teachers were acknowledged as collaborative participants in the curriculum development process (Miller, 2002).

Another prominent figure, Taylor, was known as a leading thinker in scientific management movement of the 1920s (Kliebard, 1987, 1992; Pinar, 1997). His scholarly work, *The Principles of Scientific Management* (1911), focused on how industries could increase production at lower costs, but also on the economic purpose to guide for order and regulation of management of production (Kliebard, 1987, 1992). According to Kliebard (1987:95), "the heart of scientific management lay in the careful specification of task to be performed and the ordering of the elements of that task in the most efficient sequence." Within the field of education and curriculum, Taylor therefore advocated "scientific management to increase industrial and educational efficiency" (Bailey, 2010:933). According to this view, students were regarded as "raw materials" from which educational managers could get productive working adults (*ibid.*). The scientific management movement contributed to Curriculum Studies as some curriculum scholars apply "the bureaucratic model" for curriculum development purposes (Kliebard, 1992:119). According to Pinar (1997:122), the bureaucratic model is characterised by "its ameliorative orientation, a historical posture, an allegiance to behaviourism, and technical rationality." Hence, curriculum development work was rigorously discipline-oriented (Eryaman, 2010).

The curriculum work of Bobbitt was "industry inspired by the notion of social efficiency and scientific management of curriculum" (Joseph, 2010c:630). In Bobbitt's publication *The Curriculum* (1918), he insisted that curriculum developers should begin developing curriculum with proper goals. This approach to curriculum development implies that the professional knowledge which is applicable to curriculum work could be found in the logic of "scientific management" and a "systematic series of procedures" (Flinders & Thornton, 1997:3). Further, Bobbitt viewed education as essential for future life (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Kliebard, 1987, 1992). Bobbitt averred that the content of any

curriculum could be 'discovered' from the successful work of adults (Flinders & Thornton, 1997:3). Thereafter, the results from the discovery made would be used to set educational objectives of a given curriculum (Flinders & Thornton, 1997). It is evident that Bobbitt's approach to the curriculum development process did not consider the interest of children, society and economic needs (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Van den Berg, 2014). However, Bobbitt changed his view on education as a means of preparing for future life, and subsequently considered education for the present life (Kliebard, 1987, 1992).

Different from Bobbitt's claim on efficiency as a goal of education, Dewey argued that the goal was the "growth of the experience of the individual" (Flinders & Thornton, 1997:3). From his three publications, *My Pedagogical Creed* (1897), *The Child and the Curriculum* (1915) and *The School and Society* (1916), Dewey presented a theory of curriculum that is coordinated by psychological and sociological factors in education. In addition, Dewey saw curriculum as an outcome of the interactions among students, materials, and teachers (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Mhando, 2012; Noddings, 2005; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). Dewey therefore advocated for creating a curriculum which reflects the nature and the needs of the children and a democratic prospect of society (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Noddings, 2005; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Tanner, 2010).

In similar vein to Dewey's humanistic view in curriculum work, Addams argued for individuals to carry out their lives in an industrial community (Bailey, 2010; Kliebard, 1987). Addams was best known as a pioneer social worker, social activist, peace activist, and feminist who promoted a humanistic view of curriculum in practice (Bailey, 2010). Addams's work was influenced by vocational education movements that emerged in America in the late nineteenth century. The movements advocated for schools' curricula to prepare workers for the nation's new economic structure (Bailey, 2010). Curriculum developers therefore integrated work training skills in the curricula. These curricula addressed issues such as "workforce needs, poverty, unemployment and class tension" (Bailey, 2010:391). Some educationists were in agreement with the movements and developed links between schooling and work, whereas other educationists were not (Bailey, 2010). As a result, some scholars "policed the borders of vocational space to preserve 'authentic' work-centred curriculum" (Bailey, 2010:932). Further, Addams introduced and developed the idea of a settlement house known as Hull House in the USA and aimed at campaigning for better social conditions. This was similar to Dewey's work of advocating for vocationally and academically integrated curriculum as a means of ensuring dignity in human labour, as opposed to segregation (Bailey, 2010). In addition, Addams's work contributed to the development of adult education which embraces vocational curriculum such as cultural experiences, social-economic and linguistic development, democracy, and women's rights (Bailey, 2010; Sandlin & St Clair, 2010; Schubert, 2010b).

Montessori advocated for a curriculum that assists students in interacting with their environment (Barone, 2010c; Mhando, 2012). The philosophy behind Montessori's view of curriculum emphasises the student's experience in a learning environment, and is based on the student's interests. The other strong feature of the Montessori curriculum was that the curriculum was rigorously structured in order to facilitate student learning (Barone, 2010c). Montessori was concerned with the ability and competence of students in learning and she is known for initiating the student-centred curriculum (Barone, 2010c; Mhando, 2012). According to Barone (2010c), Montessori's student-centred curriculum approach employed the previous work of Frederick Froebel in considering the notion of instructive play.

Building on Dewey's view of society as an integral component of curriculum theory, Counts supports a student-centred approach that takes the needs of the student into consideration in the social context of education (Counts, 1997; Flinders & Thornton, 1997). Counts' publication *Dare the School Build a New Social Order?* (1932) is remarkable for the historical movements in Curriculum Studies since it prompted curriculum scholars to inquire into the influence of politics and economy on education and curriculum (Apple, 2010; Counts, 1997; Flinders & Thornton, 1997). Counts' contribution to Curriculum Studies focused on the nature of the content offered in curriculum programmes which were influenced by the era of industrial-expansion in the USA, as mentioned earlier. For Counts, such curriculum inculcated ideas for serving the interests of the elite: the politicians, the financiers and the industrialists (Apple, 2010; Counts, 1997; Flinders & Thornton, 1997). Counts critiqued the source of curriculum development in that "the real question is not whether imposition will take place, but rather from what source it will come" (Flinders & Thornton, 1997:5). Counts therefore argued for "teachers to lead the schools and the public for social regeneration" (Flinders & Thornton, 1997:5). Counts contended that the school curriculum should not reflect the interests of the ruling classes, but rather the needs of the society.

2.2.2.1.2 Traditionalist paradigm

The curriculum formulation of the 1950s and 1960s emanated from elements of the early traditionalist ideas (Christodoulou, 2010b; Hlebowitsh, 2010; Joseph, 2010c; Pinar, 1997, 2010b). The traditionalist paradigm is built mainly upon the scholarly contributions of Ralph Tyler. From this perspective, curriculum work was focused on areas of schooling, administration, teaching, and development of programmes of study (Christodoulou, 2010a, 2010b; Pinar, 2010b) with the focus on the needs of schools and their students. Curriculum development work facilitated instruction and state policy or mandates, excluding political and ethical concerns (Christodoulou, 2010a, 2010b; Pinar, 1997, 2010b).

The traditionalist curriculum scholars were also influenced by the industrial scientific management principles initiated by Taylor (see 2.2.2.1.1). Thus, Tyler in his publication *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (1949) outlined “four main questions” considered as principles for curriculum development (Tyler, 1949:1). Tyler’s rationale for curriculum development was objective-oriented, aiming at what the schools wanted to achieve (Tyler, 1949). These four questions are discussed further in Section 3.3.1.

2.2.2.1.3 Conceptual-empiricist paradigm

Historically, following the national curriculum reform movement of the 1960s, the leadership of the curriculum reform movement were out of the field. This caused traditionalists who were devoted to curriculum work to discontinue their work due to a lack of funds for in-service work and implementation of curriculum proposals (Pinar, 1997). As a result, the work of the traditionalists was questioned and this led to the development of the conceptual-empiricist paradigm (Pinar, 1997, 2010d). According to Pinar (1997:124), the term ‘conceptual empiricist’ was evident in the work of psychologists, philosophers and sociologists who had research interests in schools and education; these researchers believed that “education is not a discipline in itself but an area to be studied by the disciplines.” The work of curriculum scholars was categorised as conceptual and empirical as social scientists employed the terms in studying the field of education and its curriculum (Christodoulou, 2010a; Pinar, 1997). Curriculum Studies as a discipline was therefore studied with other disciplines such as the social sciences and humanities (Christodoulou, 2010a; Kelly, 1999; Pinar, 1997). Some of the prominent curriculum scholars in the conceptual-empiricist period – and whose work contributed to the growth of Curriculum Studies as a discipline – were Joseph Schwab, Decker F. Walker and George Posner (Pinar, 1997).

Despite the conceptual-empiricist view on studying Curriculum Studies within other disciplines, Kelly’s argument regarding Curriculum Studies as a discipline (2.2.1) should not be understood to contradict the conceptual-empiricist view, since Kelly (1999) was of the view that Curriculum Studies should be regarded as a discipline in its own right, yet other disciplines could be employed to inquire into Curriculum Studies matters.

2.2.2.1.4 Reconceptualist paradigm

In the beginning of the 1970s the Curriculum Studies discipline was marked by the reconceptualist movement which was a critical reaction to the conceptual-empiricist approach that was mostly concerned with understanding curriculum (Pinar *et al.*, 1995; Pinar, 1997). According to Pinar *et al.* (1995), ‘curriculum’ refers to the process of inquiry into Curriculum Studies by critically exploring the meanings derived from the various social practices related to the discipline. Such social practices include the study of historical texts and contemporary Curriculum Studies discourses. Thus, Pinar

(1997:126) comments that the reconceptualist paradigm informs “the understanding of metatheory and philosophy of science” which assists scholars in Curriculum Studies “to see clearly their work in the context of the growth of knowledge in general.” Noteworthy reconceptualist scholars include Michael Apple, William Burton, Steven Mann and Alex Molnar.

With regard to historical developments in Curriculum Studies, the reconceptualist concept of curriculum still conveyed the literal and institutional meanings of the previous paradigms, yet were not limited to them (Pinar, 2010d). Curriculum as a concept was understood more broadly or as a “highly symbolic concept which integrates discourses such as “historical, political, racial, gendered, phenomenological, and international” (Pinar, 2010d:376). Further, curriculum change focuses on historicising change to indicate its relationship with contemporary historical movements (Pinar, 1997, 2010d). In Curriculum Studies, it is argued that reconceptualist views on curriculum trends are focused on equality of education, cultural pluralism, international education, and futurism (Apple, 2010). Curriculum Studies consequently emphasises the development of dialogical skills, critical thinking, problem solving, and decision-making skills (Apple, 2010; Joseph, 2010c; Miller, 2010; Pinar, 1997, 2010d).

2.2.2.1.5 Internationalisation as an emerging discourse

The internationalisation of Curriculum Studies is a new movement or discourse which extends the reconceptualist thought that has marked the discipline since the 1970s (Carson, 2009; Lee, 2010; Malewski, 2010; Pinar, 2003, 2010b, 2010d; Reynolds, 2010). The founding scholars include William Pinar and William Doll. The idea of internationalisation was the result of the establishment of the International Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies that was established in 2000 (Li, 2009; Pinar, 2003, 2010d). The discourse is identified with the postmodern movements in Curriculum Studies and therefore highlights “the social construction of knowledge and emphasises integrated curriculum, authentic assessment, education for understanding, dialogue, interaction, perspective taking, creativity and playfulness beyond national borders” (Joseph, 2010c:630). This caused the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies to become the world-wide condition for teaching and a potential source for transformation (2.2.1).

2.2.2.2 Curriculum Studies on the African continent

Historical movements of Curriculum Studies in Africa are discussed next. Curriculum scholars like Le Grange (2010a), Mushi (2009), Shiundu and Omulando (1992) as well as Urevbu (1985) helped to trace historical periods related to Curriculum Studies on the African continent. The historical periods include the pre-colonial, colonial, and postcolonial eras. For the purpose of this study, examples of historical movements were mostly taken from Tanzania which is the country context of the study. It must be noted that I refer to Tanzania Mainland when describing the historical events

before Tanzania Mainland was united with Zanzibar in 1964 and named Tanzania. In doing so, the body of scholarship regarding the country's historical events is presented more accurately.

Le Grange (2010a) asserts that in Africa the stages of development in areas such as education and curriculum differ when it comes to individual countries. In particular, Mushi (2009) explains that even within a country like Tanzania Mainland, educational developments differed among tribes in terms of their environments and cultural norms which bound the tribes.

2.2.2.2.1 Pre-colonial era

Pre-colonial education in Africa is understood as indigenous African education (Mushi, 2009; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Urevbu, 1985). The indigenous African education was promoted in order to “maintain and preserve the cultural heritage of the African tribe and transmission of codes of good behaviour, inherited knowledge, skills and values of the tribes from one generation to another” (Mushi, 2009:3). The purpose of indigenous African education was, amongst other things, to reinforce the cultural solidarity of the tribes, and prepare individuals for life in their own society (Mushi, 2009; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Urevbu, 1985). The following are some of the characteristics of indigenous African education pointed out by Mushi (2009), Shiundu and Omulando (1992) and Urevbu (1985):

- Indigenous African education was community-oriented and linked to everyday life in communities. Thus, the knowledge, skills and values learnt were relevant to the social-economic activities of the individuals.
- The teaching processes depended on the instructors (elders) who were drawn from the family or clan. In teaching, the instructors used didactic methods such as songs, tales, stories, legends, riddles and proverbs, whereas the ‘learning by doing’ method was used to train for practical skills.
- The approach to educating a child was on a communal basis, starting with the parents of the child, relatives and other community members.

However, indigenous African education had limitations. Some of the limitations, as outlined by Mushi (2009), were the following:

- The education was clan- or tribe-oriented to the teaching of aspects which were considered of immediate relevance to that particular clan or tribe only.
- The instructors did not accept changes or challenges in teaching. Instructors adhered to the cultural norms and values they had acquired from the past generations.
- The body of knowledge taught was specific and unchanged, and focused on transmission of cultural heritage.

- Intellectual theory occupied a narrow space in teaching and learning. Emphasis was placed on concrete matters rather than on the abstract.
- The young ones were trained to learn by listening and accepting what they were taught without questioning or reflecting thereon.
- The education lacked proper means of preserving knowledge and depended on the memories of the elders.

From the fourteenth-century, some African countries experienced the emergence of Islamic education from the Middle East, followed by the Christian education from Europe (Le Grange, 2010a; Mushi, 2009; Urevbu, 1985). Curriculum areas included Arabic and English as languages, and Islamic and Christian traditions (Le Grange, 2010a; Mushi, 2009). According to Mushi (2009:3), the indigenous African education was regarded as “complementary to education activities provided by these religious institutions.” Islamic and Christian education was promoted to enable Africans to read the Qur’an and/or the Bible, but mainly for the benefit of the missionaries (Le Grange, 2010a; Mushi, 2009; Urevbu, 1985). Students were introduced to secular subjects such as arithmetic, geography and history in order to employ some literate Africans in different colonial positions (Mushi, 2009).

2.2.2.2.2 Colonial era

The missionaries’ education extended to the colonial era when colonialists involved themselves in curriculum activities such as composing mainly vocational and religious syllabi for schools (Le Grange, 2010a; Meena, 2009; Mushi, 2009; Urevbu, 1985). School curricula were similar to those that were used in European countries and were not always applicable to the African context (Mushi, 2009). Changes in curriculum occurred only when colonial governments expanded their exploitation of countries’ natural resources (*ibid.*). Mushi (2009) supports the view that the German and British colonial regimes promoted education in order to realise colonial needs such as exploiting raw materials, markets, cheap labour, and investment outlets. In Tanzania Mainland, for instance, colonial education was promoted with a view to meeting the needs and interests of the colonists through the colonial policies which were implemented by the indigenous people (Meena, 2009; Mushi, 2009; Nyerere, 1967). This was evident in the type of curriculum offered for teacher education at college level that emphasised the product approach to curriculum development which was characterised by colonialists’ values and theoretical knowledge (Meena, 2009). Education was therefore used as an instrument for legitimising the colonial regime and as a productive force for meeting the colonialists’ needs (Meena, 2009; Mushi, 2009; Nyerere, 1967).

2.2.2.2.3 Postcolonial era

For the purpose of this study I looked into three main periods with regard to the postcolonial historical movements in Curriculum Studies: early postcolonial developments, historical movements in the 1970s and 1980s, and historical movements from the 1980s to the present. This was done in order to make clear references when discussing matters concerning curriculum development in Tanzania.

Early postcolonial developments

The early postcolonial developments in education were marked by political movements aimed at building an orderly and just society (Le Grange, 2010a; Mushi, 2009; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Urevbu, 1985). After independence, most African countries deliberately eliminated forms of discrimination in education (Le Grange, 2010a; Meena, 2009; Muneja, 2013; Mushi, 2009; Urevbu, 1985). The various policies and strategies demonstrated the new governments' commitment to addressing inequalities in education inherited from the colonial education (Le Grange, 2010a; Mushi, 2009). Most African countries were politically committed to building nations that were socio-economically independent (Le Grange, 2010a; Mushi, 2009). For example, some of the Curriculum Studies reforms in Tanzania after its independence in 1961 articulated in the Preamble Section of Education and Training Policy (Tanzania, 1995) were the following:

- abolition of racial discrimination in the provision of education;
- streamlining of curricula to meet the national needs which were identified as eradication of poverty, disease, and illiteracy;
- promotion of Kiswahili as a national language;
- adoption of a language policy for Kiswahili and English as medium of instruction; and
- promotion of innovations in adult education.

Furthermore, according to Le Grange (2010a), Curriculum Studies reforms were linked to the development of national education policies and these studies largely focused on explaining the successes and failures of postcolonial curriculum. For instance, Tanzania's Arusha Declaration of 1967 advocated the philosophy of education for self-reliance (Tanzania, 2010). The philosophy was initiated by the first president of the United Republic of Tanzania, Mwalimu Julius Kambarage Nyerere, in one of his works, *Education for Self-Reliance* (1967). The goal of the philosophy of education for self-reliance was to guide the planning and practice of education in the country (Nyerere, 1967). According to Section 2.1.1 of the National Qualifications Framework of Tanzania (Tanzania, 2010), the philosophy focuses on the "merger of theory and practice and emphasising the provision and acquisition of practical life skills; linkage between educational plans and practices with national social economic development plans, aspirations and the world of work."

Ishumi and Maliyamkono (1995:51) indicate that the philosophy of education for self-reliance became “a public educational policy” addressing socialist education ideas such as “dignity, equality, cooperative, endeavour, and hard productive work.” Meena (2009:21) also asserts that the philosophy of education for self-reliance encourages “the use of education as a tool for liberation from the colonial mentality of being oppressed through developing an inquiring mind.” Thus, academic teaching was organised together with economic self-reliance activities such as agriculture (Ishumi & Maliyamkono, 1995; Mushi, 2009). In practice, teachers were responsible for guiding and supervising students in these activities. Students were encouraged to be active participants in planning, organising and implementing the activities (Ishumi & Maliyamkono, 1995; Mushi, 2009). Further discussion on the implication of the philosophy of education for self-reliance for curriculum development follows in Section 3.3.3.1.

Historical movements from the 1970s to the 1980s

According to Mushi (2009), in Tanzania the historical movements between the 1970s and 1980s realised events such as the nationalisation of education institutions, the provision of mass education through adult and nonformal education, and conducting workers’ education programmes. Such workers’ educational programmes were aimed at the following:

- enabling illiterate workers to acquire the basic literacy skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, so that they could advance themselves in skills needed for their work;
- encouraging workers to join secondary education in order to improve their academic levels;
- providing vocational training as a means of imparting to the workers the skills and knowledge for efficient work; and
- providing workers with general education which would include political and civic education, industrial education, occupational education, and education about safety and national security.

In the case of university education in Tanzania, within this period two major phenomena were linked to the kind of education offered, namely education for self-reliance and academic freedom (Ishumi & Maliyamkono, 1995). As for the philosophy of education for self-reliance, Ishumi and Maliyamkono (1995) argue that it seemed impossible to employ the philosophy with the already established vision and mission of university education. It was challenging, for example, for a university to merge academic teaching with other economically productive activities within the period scheduled for its students to complete degrees (Ishumi & Maliyamkono, 1995). Regarding the notion of academic freedom, the link was made to the zeal of employing intellectual abilities for academic purposes, yet adhering to the policies of the government which was the major organ governing university education (Ishumi & Maliyamkono, 1995).

Historical movements from the 1980s to the present

Mushi (2009) points out that, from the 1980s to the present, Tanzania has been marked by educational movements in the context of a liberated economy and globalisation. In this period, education and curriculum in particular have been informed by some structural adjustments of educational policies, the challenges of education for youth and adults, and the alternative approaches to formal and nonformal education. In this regard, curricula in higher education are seen to be aligned with labour market needs (Tanzania, 1999b; Tanzania, 2010). A descriptive outline of the historical developments of education in Tanzania is provided in Appendix D.

From the given examples, it is evident that historical and political movements have influenced the growth of Curriculum Studies as a discipline in Africa. According to Le Grange (2010a:19), the three main eras of historical development of education in Africa show that studies on curriculum focus on “developments at a particular moment in time [...] often emphasising a single dimension of the curriculum problem.”

Given the discussion about the nature of Curriculum Studies as a discipline and its historical evolution, it is evident that the complexity and dimensions of the discipline comprise a wide vision of what is happening in the field and emphasise theoretical analyses. Its diversity cannot be considered as an “epistemological crisis” but rather as a form of advancement in the discipline (Pacheco, 2012:14). It is for this reason that Pacheco (2012:15) affirms that “there is no doubt that Curriculum Studies is a healthy and productive scholarly discipline.” Likewise, Kridel (2010:252) suggests that the state of Curriculum Studies “remains innovative, experimental, and [the] importance of the general educational component should not be dismissed.” Curriculum Studies scholars should therefore pay attention to the needs of societies in relation to education rather than individual interests (Kridel, 2010; Pacheco, 2012). This will allow the discipline to expand and change or excel since the discipline is “continuously becoming” (Li, 2009:183), as explained in the background to the problem for this study (1.2).

2.3 THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF CURRICULUM STUDIES DISCOURSE

The exploration of the historical movements in Curriculum Studies in the Western and African orientations has revealed the growth of the discipline of Curriculum Studies to its postparadigmatic phase which informs an emergent discourse of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies (2.2.2.1.5). This section explores the nature of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse in order to set the scene for a discussion on the discourse as an approach to curriculum development (3.6). The section starts with an exploration of the notion of the discourse on the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies, and ends with scholars’ comments on the reality of the future of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse.

2.3.1 The notion of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse

The notion of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse varies in meanings, as explained by some curriculum scholars. For instance, Lee (2010) refers to the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies in two ways: first, it is one of the approaches to international comparative curriculum research (4.2.4), and second, it is an emerging discourse in curriculum theory. Lee (2010:500) explains that Pinar, who has reviewed the field of Curriculum Studies since 1950, notes that curriculum theory is structured in three historical movements, namely “the crisis of curriculum development (1819-1969), reconceptualisation from curriculum development to understanding curriculum (1980 to the present), and internationalisation (2000 to the present).” As such, the three historical movements indicate that the internationalisation discourse in Curriculum Studies extends the reconceptualists’ thought (2.2.2.1.4 & 2.2.2.1.5).

In similar vein to Lee, Carson (2009:146) shows the connections of the aims of the earlier Curriculum Studies movements and the internationalisation discourse:

While reconceptualisation shifted the ground of Curriculum Studies away from its institutional and instrumental roots in curriculum design and development, in order to focus on understanding curriculum as an interdisciplinary text that enables an interpretation of our personal and collective lives; internationalisation of curriculum now deepens this understanding through ‘an encounter with the global and the collective’ [discourses of the discipline].

In particular, Pinar (2007) argues for the intertwined theory of verticality and horizontality to describe the meaning of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. The verticality approach to Curriculum Studies refers to the “intellectual history of the discipline” (Pinar, 2007:xiii). The intellectual history of the discipline relates to educational developments addressed in Curriculum Studies paradigms or eras that inform the past, present and future history of Curriculum Studies (2.2.2).

The horizontality approach to Curriculum Studies analyses the “present circumstances” also known as “external circumstances” of the discipline (Pinar, 2007:xiv). Horizontality focuses on analysing present circumstances in conjunction with the social and political milieus which influence internationalisation discourses (Pinar, 2007). Horizontality consequently draws on educational ideologies and participation in the global knowledge economy (*ibid.*).

The present aspects considered with regard to Curriculum Studies include political events, racial theory, genderism, science and technology, as well as phenomenological, autobiographical and biographical approaches to Curriculum Studies. This also includes aesthetic and theological

influences on the discipline and institutional matters such as curriculum development, curriculum and lecturers/teachers, and curriculum and students (1.6.2). Other related contemporary issues pointed out by Carson (2009:148-156) include “indigenous resistance and renewal of imported curricula, a rejection of the promise of one best curriculum, expression of hope for change through community education, multiculturalism, [and] social justice and ecological sustainability.” In addition, Le Grange (2010a:18-21) explains major contemporary trends in African Curriculum Studies, which include “curriculum innovations, diversification of the curriculum, language policy, and assessment and examination systems.”

According to Pinar (2007, 2010a, 2010c), the discourse of internationalisation of Curriculum Studies requires participation in its intellectual advancement through the cultivation of conversation on verticality and horizontality. These conversations are underpinned by the intellectual labour of reaching understanding through comprehension, critique, and reconceptualisation of what constitutes the discipline (Pinar, 2007). Thus, it is possible to acknowledge Curriculum Studies as a discipline when engaging with “discipline-specific historical contexts and current societal conditions in order to advance Curriculum Studies scholarship” (Pinar, 2007:xi). For this reason, the intellectual dispositions of understanding the discipline persist through participating and not just spectating in disciplinary conversations about verticality and horizontality (Pinar, 2007, 2010a, 2010b). According to Pinar (2010b:270), internationalisation therefore “deepens our understanding of the local through encounter with the global and the collective.”

Pinar (2010c) elaborates on the notion of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies by referring to ways in which nations can share experiences about trends in Curriculum Studies and learn from each other in different ways when responding to the trends. Pinar (2010c) concurs with Trohler (2003:778) that “internationalisation does not mean blind adoption of foreign concepts. It means international discussions among scholars who are historically self-aware of their own traditions, not in order to defend them, but on the clarity to allow different or foreign arguments to be understood.” Likewise, Le Grange (2010c:244) explains that the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies means “critical reflection on one’s nationally distinctive field through conversation with those outside of one’s nationally distinctive field.” In this regard, the notion of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies refers to an emerging discourse of curriculum theory which embraces the verticality and horizontality approaches that outline the current and future directions taken by scholars in the discipline of Curriculum Studies (Pinar, 2007, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c).

2.3.2 Future possibilities of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse

Curriculum scholars affirm that since Curriculum Studies as a discipline has grown exponentially, curriculum scholars need to broaden their understanding of the field (Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Miller, 2010; Pinar, 2010b; Slattery, 2006). The discipline embraces historical texts which show the continuity of curriculum events (Du Preez & Reddy, 2014). Also, the discipline involves contemporary discourses which mark changes within Curriculum Studies (*ibid.*). Within this relationship there is a possibility that the discipline will generate more knowledge within the context of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (Carson, 2009; Du Preez, 2008; Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Li, 2009). Thus, Curriculum Studies scholars should position themselves in inquiry into Curriculum Studies possibilities: it is their responsibility, not their choice (Carson, 2009; Du Preez, 2008; Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Li, 2009).

The reality about the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse is characterised by the following attributes described by Du Preez (2008) as well as Du Preez and Reddy (2014):

- Decentralisation of the global and local forces which enables a transnational space of knowledge generation for the discipline (horizontality);
- Transdisciplinarity as the discipline engages across other disciplines and involves historical and future-oriented studies (verticality);
- Diversification and conversion of the discipline which accommodate movements toward opposite directions. Thus, changes occur within the discipline and reflect that the discipline is not static since it continuously changes its direction.

There is evidence that the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse is the result of globalisation and broader changes in the discipline (Carson, 2009; Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Li, 2009; Pinar, 2003, 2007). Although globalisation has had a significant influence on the mobility of the discipline (and in social sciences in general) it has given rise to the need to find a new space where the discipline can excel (Carson, 2009; Du Preez, 2008; Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Li, 2009). Therefore, the field of Curriculum Studies should be studied at the level of emergence in order to be more responsive to the real needs of education (Du Preez & Reddy, 2014). Du Preez and Reddy (2014:199) assert that Curriculum Studies “should be able to make relevant contributions not only to the field of education, but also to the improvement of social, economic and political conditions.” This could imply that curriculum should deal with imaginations as a complex, interactive social process.

Taking into consideration the discussion on the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, I suggest that Curriculum Studies scholars in teacher education could be in a better position to contribute ideas to the possible future of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, at both the global and the local level, by engaging in inquiry about the discourse as is done in this

study. This should be their responsibility, so that teacher education scholars can claim to be intellectually advanced in the discipline of Curriculum Studies. Further discussion on the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach to curriculum development follows in Section 3.6.

2.4 CURRICULUM STUDIES AND MODES OF KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION

The concept of modes of knowledge production is acknowledged by scholars as a form of generating knowledge in both academic and non-academic institutions (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012; Gibbons, 1997; Hessels & Van Lente, 2008; Nowotny, Scott & Gibbons, 2003; Rip, 2002). Knowledge production has progressed through three phases, identified as mode 1, mode 2 and mode 3 (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012; Hessels & Van Lente, 2008; Rip, 2002). This section explores the nature of these modes of knowledge production, and ends with a general explanation of the relationship between the modes of knowledge production and Curriculum Studies paradigms.

Knowledge production, in the context of this study, is considered one of the essential roles of teacher education in higher education institutions (Hessels & Van Lente, 2008; Msolla, 2006). Universities are acknowledged for engaging in knowledge production that enhances teaching and learning (Gibbons, 1997; Msolla, 2006). According to Gibbons (1997:1), the process of knowledge production and teaching in a university is led by “a disciplinary structure” which governs the organisation and management of the university. In terms of knowledge production, disciplinary structures employ a set of research practices or procedures as a framework for the whole process of knowledge production (Gibbons, 1997).

2.4.1 Mode 1 knowledge production

Historically, the work of Taylor and Kuhn (see 2.2.2.1.1 & 4.2.1) assists scholars in understanding mode 1 knowledge production (Hessels & Van Lente, 2008; Nowotny *et al.*, 2003). Scientific techniques and principles frame the means of inquiry (Hessels & Van Lente, 2008; Nowotny *et al.*, 2003). Thus, in mode 1 knowledge production research processes are generally referred to as “scientific” or “pure” processes (Nowotny *et al.*, 2003:179). However, other scholars refer to mode 1 as an “old paradigm” while referring to mode 2 as a “new paradigm” (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012:3).

According to Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott and Trow (1994), Gibbons (1997), Kraak (2000) and Nowotny *et al.* (2003), mode 1 knowledge production is characterised as follows:

- Knowledge is produced in the context of a particular discipline, for example, physics-based research.

- Knowledge is produced theoretically following prescribed procedures. This makes the inquiry structure uniform.
- Investigations through experiments are considered vital in the process of producing knowledge.
- Specialists are regarded as key researchers who have acquired the correct skills for inquiry.
- Peer researchers are responsible for quality control of the produced knowledge.
- Research results are considered valid due to rigorous explorative processes of inquiry.
- Research results are governed by the autonomous research institutes that are also responsible for the research outcomes.
- Research feedback is prioritised mainly to the research stakeholders.

Scholars have put forward various arguments about mode 1 knowledge production. Firstly, some scholars maintain that mode 1 was introduced as the original type of research and ended after a certain historical period – the exact time is uncertain (Hessels & Van Lente, 2008). Secondly, Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff (2000) claim that mode 1 built upon the material base of science. In modern times, mode 1 was used to justify the autonomy of science. Finally, Hessels and Van Lente (2008) summarise Weingart's (1997) claim regarding the antagonistic arguments made by Gibbons *et al.* (1994) about the future outlook of mode 1. Gibbons *et al.* (1994) claimed that mode 1 is still being applied for education and training at present.

2.4.2 Mode 2 knowledge production

Nowotny *et al.* (2003) assert that politicians and civil servants were encouraged to search for more efficient mechanisms to link science and innovation. This mode of knowledge production was referred to as mode 2 (Joseph, 2010c; Gibbons, 1997; Nowotny *et al.*, 2003). According to Noddings (2005:58) and Nowotny *et al.* (2003:180), the concept of mode 2 knowledge production could be understood as a “new” mode or an emerged paradigm of knowledge production which is rooted in the social context of knowledge production that is “sociology of knowledge.”

The following are the characteristics of mode 2 knowledge production described by Gibbons *et al.* (1994), Gibbons (1997), Hessels and Van Lente (2008), Kraak, (2000), Miller (2010), and Nowotny *et al.* (2003):

- Knowledge is generated within the context of its application. The generated knowledge is the result of all theoretical and practical factors applied within the research context(s). However, Hessels and Van Lente (2008:741) comment that mode 1 knowledge can also result in practical application, but is separated from the actual knowledge production in space and time. Hence a “knowledge transfer gap is required.” In mode 2 such a distinction does not exist.

- Knowledge is produced in a transdisciplinary manner. A range of theoretical perspectives and practical methodologies are used to solve the problems under study. Theoretical perspectives and practical methodologies are embodied in the expertise of individual researchers and research teams.
- Knowledge production is interdisciplinary; it goes beyond transdisciplinary knowledge. Thus, theoretical consensus is attained across disciplines and research results are applied to the problem at hand.
- Knowledge is produced in a diverse variety of organisations, resulting in a very heterogeneous practice. The range of potential sites for knowledge generation includes traditional universities, institutes and industrial laboratories, as well as research centres, government agencies, think-tanks, high-tech spin-off companies and consultancies. These sites are linked through networks of information and communication technology. Research is conducted in mutual interaction, thus knowledge becomes highly transformed.
- Knowledge produced is highly reflexive. The research process is more dialogical and has the capacity to incorporate multiple views. Thus, researchers become more aware of the societal consequences of their work.
- Quality control of knowledge is supplemented by additional criteria of an economic, ethical, social and cultural nature which relate to the context of research. This form of quality control is a result of a wider set of quality criteria.

Numerous scholarly arguments have been made about mode 2 knowledge production (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 2000; Rip, 2000, 2002). Some of them are highlighted in this study: first, the notion of mode 2 as a new research type is contested (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 2000; Rip, 2000, 2002). Some argue that these are evidence that features of mode 2 were already present in the “melting point of the European Renaissance”, before the inception of modern science (Rip, 2000:133). In this regard, Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff (2000), Hessels and Van Lente (2008) and Rip (2002) comment that at least some of the characteristics of mode 2 were evident in the early modern era.

Second, Hessels and Van Lente (2008) note Weingart’s (1997) contention that the characteristics of mode 2 knowledge production comprise a fairly small sector of the entire science system. Mode 2 characteristics make sense only for science as it is close to policy-making. Close attention should therefore be given to the dynamic features involved in a certain area of study, such as uncertainty of knowledge, complexity of subject matter, policy orientation, risk research, environmental research and climate research (Hessels & Van Lente, 2008). In addition, there is a need for further intellectual clarification on attributes of mode 2 based on “empirical evidence to show the rise of reflexivity, transdisciplinarity and new modes of quality control” (Hessels & Van Lente, 2008:754).

2.4.3 Mode 3 knowledge production

Postmodern scholars introduced an approach to knowledge production referred to as mode 3 knowledge production (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012). Mode 3 knowledge production is understood to be an expansion and extension of mode 1 and mode 2 knowledge production (*ibid.*). According to Carayannis and Campbell (2012:1), mode 3 is understood as “the essential trigger mechanism and driving force of sustainable competitive advantage and prosperity.” This implies that mode 3 knowledge production is the result of the growing knowledge economy in which needs are based on production from the university-industry-government partnership (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012). According to Rip (2002:119), mode 3 could be considered as the “main mode of knowledge production in traditional knowledge.” This is due to the fact that mode 3 embodies knowledge production in the crafts and in professional communities (Rip, 2002).

Carayannis and Campbell (2012) explain that mode 3 embraces dimensions of knowledge production and innovation systems which are referred to as Triple Helix, Quadruple Helix, and Quintuple Helix as illustrated in Figure 2-1.

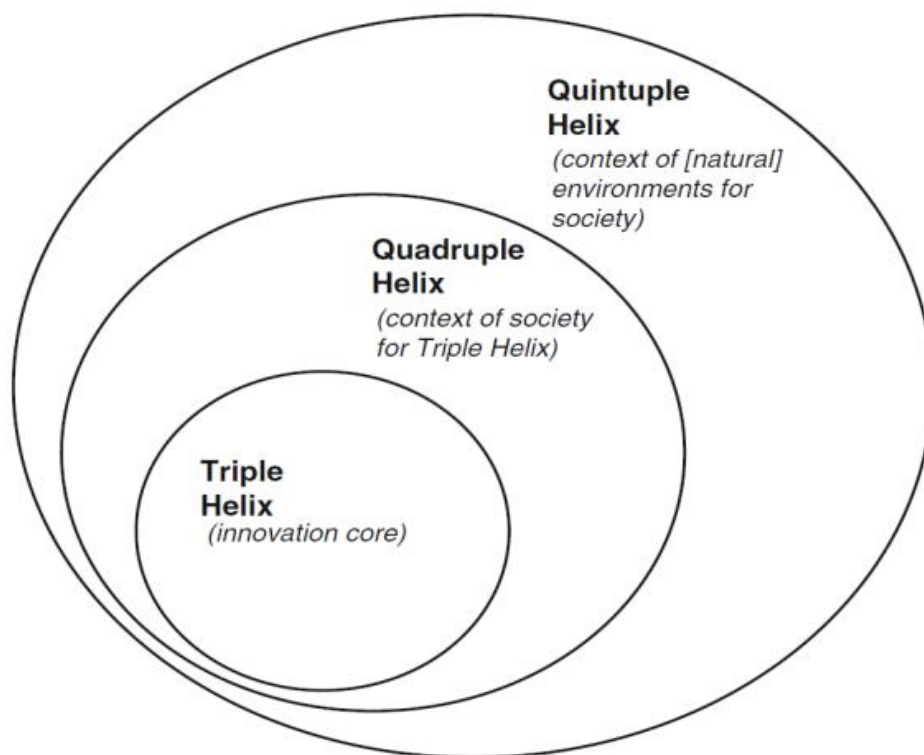


Figure 2-1: Dialectical relations within mode 3 knowledge production (from Carayannis & Campbell, 2012:18)

Figure 2-1 shows that the Triple Helix model of knowledge production stresses the “three ‘helices’ that intertwine” (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012:13). The Triple Helix generates a national innovation system within “academia/universities, industry and state/government” (*ibid.*). Triple Helix could consequently be regarded as “a core model from which society is a context for innovation systems” (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012:17). Further, the Quadruple Helix model of knowledge production is an extension of the Triple Helix. Quadruple Helix is, therefore, an addition of the fourth helix which employs knowledge production and innovation application from media, culture, civil society and their dynamic structures (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012). The Quintuple Helix innovation model merges and contextualises the Quadruple Helix and Triple Helix innovation systems (*ibid.*). As a result, Carayannis and Campbell (2012:17) assert that “the Quintuple Helix brings in the perspective of the natural environments of society and the economy for knowledge production and the innovation systems.” Mode 3 could therefore be broadly understood to form a dialectical mode of knowledge production and innovation systems.

Carayannis and Campbell (2012), as well as Hessels and Van Lente (2008) characterise mode 3 knowledge production as follows:

- Knowledge production is conceptualised as multidimensional, multilateral, multimodal, and multilevel. Thus, there is an overlap of reflexive communications between universities, industries and governmental agencies.
- Knowledge production manages real and virtual knowledge stock and knowledge flow.
- Modalities of knowledge production are catalysed and accelerated and they support the creation, diffusion, sharing, absorption and use of co-specialised knowledge assets. Carayannis and Campbell (2012:5) comment that mode 3 assists in revealing systems theory as a new and important field of application, and in providing a better conceptual framework for understanding knowledge-based and knowledge-driven events and processes in the economy, and hence reveal opportunities for optimising public sector policies and private sectors practices.
- Knowledge production is based on a system-theoretical perspective of social economy, political, technological and cultural trends as well as conditions that shape the co-evolution of knowledge with the knowledge-based and knowledge-driven global economy and society.
- Knowledge production focuses on higher-order learning processes and dynamics that allow for top-down government, university and industry policies and practices, bottom-up civil society, grassroots movements’ initiatives, and priorities to interact and engage with each other toward a more intelligent, effective and efficient synthesis.
- The knowledge production structure is not uniform. It constitutes a research programme that has employed a variety of descriptive claims.

- The body of scholarship for mode 3 knowledge production consists mainly of special issues of scientific journals dedicated to the Triple Helix conference series. The body of scholarship refers to knowledge production relations within university, government and industry as “entrepreneurial science” (Hessels & Van Lente, 2008:747).

Furthermore, scholars affirm that mode 3 knowledge production is at the heart of the twenty-first century Fractal Research, Education and Innovation Ecosystem (FREIE) (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012). Thus, mode 3 consists of innovation networks and knowledge clusters for the purpose of knowledge creation, diffusion and use (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012). The key concepts of mode 3 knowledge production used by Carayannis and Campbell (2012:10-11) are the following:

- Innovation networks which refer to real and virtual infrastructures and infratechnologies that serve to nurture creativity, trigger innovation, and catalyse innovation in a public and/or private domain context such as government-university-industry, public-private research and technology development through cooperative partnerships.
- Knowledge clusters which are agglomerations of co-specialised, mutual complementary and reinforcing knowledge assets in the form of “knowledge stocks” and “knowledge flows” that exhibit self-organising, learning-driven, dynamically adaptive competences and trends in the open systems perspectives.
- A twenty-first century FREIE is a multilevel, multimodal, and multi-agent system. The constituent systems consist of innovation meta-networks (networks of innovation networks and knowledge clusters) and knowledge-meta clusters (clusters of innovation networks and knowledge clusters) which are building blocks and are organised in a self-referential and chaotic manner.

Scholars in mode 3 knowledge production argue that this mode has contributed to a third role that universities must fulfil, namely “economic growth” next to teaching and research (Hessels & Van Lente, 2008:747). This is the result of dialectical practices of knowledge generation within universities, government and industries (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012; Hessels & Van Lente, 2008). In summary, Table 2-1 points out major characteristics of the modes of knowledge production.

Table 2-1: An outline of major characteristics of mode 1, 2 and 3 knowledge production (adapted from Carayannis & Campbell, 2012; Hessels & Van Lente, 2008; Kraak, 2000)

Characteristics	Mode 1	Mode 2	Mode 3
Key feature(s)	University	University, industry	University-government-industry, innovations (media, culture, civil society & their dynamic structures)
Production systems	Discipline-based (Basic research)	Transdiscipline-based (Applied research)	Multidimensional, multilateral, multimodal and multilevel (Experimental development)
Knowledge structures	Formal academic	Hybrid formation: integrates academic and professional knowledge	Extended academic structure, hybrid knowledge and innovation networks and knowledge clusters
Knowledge production circumstances	Controlled circumstances (lab)	Social contexts	Exchange circumstances
Scope of knowledge	Theoretical, abstract, global	Theoretical, contextual, local	Practical, concrete, local
Relation to society	Insular Academic peers are the key external reference	Open, accountable Partnership with society and industry	Open, accountable Partnership with society, industry, government, innovations and clusters

2.4.4 The relationship between modes of knowledge production and Curriculum Studies paradigms

In this subsection, I discuss the relationship between the modes of knowledge production and the discipline of Curriculum Studies based on the explored historical perspectives as well as the paradigmatic perspectives of Curriculum Studies. The practice of mode 1 knowledge production featured mostly in the early traditionalist and traditionalist paradigms (2.2.2.1.1–2.2.2.1.2), also in indigenous African education (2.2.2.2.1). One of the outstanding attributes of indigenous African education was the role of some traditionalist elders in investigating important aspects of knowledge, skills and values to be taught to the young. The traditionalist elders were regarded as specialists who could specify an aspect of social-economic activity to be taught. This process of producing knowledge in Curriculum Studies phenomena relate to mode 1, which is discipline-oriented, encourages discovery as a method of inquiry, and in which specialists and their peers are regarded important role-players in the process of inquiry (4.2.1).

On its part, mode 2 knowledge production became prominent at the time of the conceptual-empiricist and the reconceptualist paradigms (2.2.2.1.3 & 2.2.2.1.4). The outstanding Curriculum Studies attributes of mode 2 include the need to study education and curriculum phenomena within other disciplines (transdisciplinarity approach), and the need to engage in critical inquiry of the meanings derived from the studied phenomena in order to look into influences on and implications of various phenomena within the discipline (4.2.2).

Scholarly ideas related to mode 3 are highly evident in postmodern studies (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012; Hessels & Van Lente, 2008). This is the period of extending and expanding the practices of mode 1 and mode 2 knowledge production. The context and content of knowledge production has become more complex and diverse in order to facilitate ‘understanding’ (2.2.2.1.4). As it was for the reconceptualist paradigm in Curriculum Studies, mode 3 integrates inquiry with intertextual innovation networks and knowledge clusters (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012). Mode 3 knowledge production could therefore facilitate in-depth inquiry of discourses in Curriculum Studies (4.2.3 & 4.2.4).

Furthermore, Curriculum Studies discourses such as the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies (2.2.2.1.5) could be regarded as reflecting the practices of mode 2 and mode 3 knowledge production. Pinar’s theory of verticality shows how historical events and related studies assist in understanding Curriculum Studies (Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Pinar *et al.*, 1995; Pinar, 2007). In similar vein, the horizontality approach to

Curriculum Studies reflects the reality of the present circumstances which ought to be considered in order to understand Curriculum Studies phenomena (Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Pinar *et al.*, 1995; Pinar, 2007).

Both Curriculum Studies and modes of knowledge production are considered to be continuously progressing disciplines (2.2.1 & 2.4). These disciplines are acknowledged for teaching in higher education in order to facilitate students with theoretical and practical knowledge which enables them to encounter real-life challenges in the world of work (Bailey *et al.*, 2012; Barnett, 2011; Bitzer & Botha, 2011; Le Grange, 2011; Ngara, 1995; Msolla, 2006). Higher education and teacher education in particular should therefore emphasise the teaching of Curriculum Studies and its discourses (Bitzer & Botha, 2011; Le Grange, 2010a, 2011; Pinar, 2007; Schubert, 2010a). Discourses such as those on modes of knowledge production could facilitate knowledge and skills for inquiry into Curriculum Studies. The advantage of understanding modes of knowledge production could assist Curriculum Studies scholars in being more aware of multi-research methodologies and paradigmatic lenses which are employed to inquire into Curriculum Studies (Bitzer, 2011; Du Toit, 2011; Schubert, 2010b). In this regard, Kysilka (2010:252) argues that since curriculum is at the heart of all educational matters, scholars in Curriculum Studies should be “avid” scholars, keen to use present methodologies; they should also come up with individual methodologies for a wider way of addressing Curriculum Studies phenomena.

The other advantage of understanding the modes of knowledge production is that Curriculum Studies scholars and students would be in a better position to be involved in the national and international debates related to modes of knowledge production. This could make Curriculum Studies scholars more accountable for their contribution to the broad roles of teacher education in higher education which focuses on research, teaching-learning, social service and economic growth (Gibbons, 1997; Hessels & Van Lente, 2008; Msolla, 2006; Nowotny *et al.*, 2003).

Given the historical overview of Curriculum Studies explored in this chapter, Figure 2-2 outlines scholarly suggestions toward developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education.

The nature of the programme

- Curriculum Studies is a discipline in its own right
- Curriculum Studies as a discipline has progressed to its postparadigmatic phase and informs several Curriculum Studies discourses

The elements of the programme

- Content:** Curriculum Studies historical developments (Western orientations, African orientations, and in particular Tanzanian orientations); Curriculum Studies discourses e.g., internationalisation of Curriculum Studies and modes of knowledge production; important inquiry subcontents such as different paradigmatic lenses and multi-research methodologies
- Results:** The programme outcomes could enable students to demonstrate competencies in engaging in contemporary Curriculum Studies phenomena both nationally and internationally

Figure 2-2: Scholarly contributions to developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education

2.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter answered the first research question which was aimed at exploring the scholarly literature on topics to be considered when developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education (1.4.a). The scholarly literature suggests that it is very important to understand the history of Curriculum Studies, since history unfolds the reality about the past, the present and the future of the discipline (2.2.2). The Western and the African history of Curriculum Studies and in particular the Tanzanian history of Curriculum Studies could therefore be considered among the content of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania.

Furthermore, the scholarly literature affirms that the growth of Curriculum Studies as a discipline provokes the need for teaching Curriculum Studies discourses which include the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies (2.3), and modes of knowledge production (2.4). Such discourses could also form part of the content of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education.

Consequently, Curriculum Studies as a discipline might gain greater recognition as an academic discipline in teacher education in Tanzania, and more consideration will be given to the sensitisation of international discourses in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in the country. This will enable higher education and teacher education in particular to equip students with knowledge, skills and competencies aligned with contemporary social educational needs, both nationally and internationally. The next chapter focuses on the curriculum development approaches, design and the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies.

CHAPTER THREE

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: APPROACHES, DESIGN AND THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF CURRICULUM STUDIES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter explored a vast body of scholarship on Curriculum Studies content and context. This chapter extends the exploration, but focuses on aspects of curriculum development theories and practices for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education by looking at the scholarly literature about curriculum development in general and higher education in particular. As in the case of Chapter 2, this chapter also addresses the first research question (1.4a) and discussed how the information was generated through the historical research method used in the study (Howard, 2014).

This chapter starts with a discussion on the questions of curriculum which assists in explaining the nature, the elements and the practice of curriculum. These questions form a theoretical framework for exploring curriculum development matters in this study. This discussion is followed by an exploration of curriculum development theories based on the history of Curriculum Studies. Next, the chapter explores the design of the curriculum as one of the components of curriculum development. Curricula types based on the discussed curriculum development theories and design are explored. The chapter ends with an exploration of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach to curriculum development.

3.2 THE QUESTIONS OF CURRICULUM: NATURE, ELEMENTS AND PRACTICE

Dillon's (2009) theory regarding the questions of curriculum form a major theoretical framework used in this study. The other theoretical framework that contributed to the study was that of the historical foundations of Curriculum Studies. Dillon's (2009) questions are categorised into three parts: (i) the nature of the curriculum that concerns the meaning of the curriculum, (ii) the elements of the curriculum which are fundamental for designing curriculum, (iii) and the practice of curriculum which describes how one could think and act upon curriculum development. According to Dillon (2009), the answers from the three questions enable curriculum developers to understand broadly "the basic things involved in curriculum and the basic things to ask about these things" (Dillon, 2009:344). Although each question fulfils a certain purpose, the questions depend on each other in terms of the operations and activities involved in the process of developing the curriculum (Dillon, 2009). As a result, the three questions of curriculum could be employed to develop a curriculum programme at any level of education and, in this instance, teacher education in higher education.

This section starts with an explanation of the questions of the nature of curriculum, followed by the questions of the elements of curriculum, and ends with a discussion about questions of the practice of the curriculum. In each part discussions and examples from the context of higher education are given.

3.2.1 The nature of curriculum

The main question regarding the nature of curriculum asks: What is the essence or substance of the proposed curriculum? (Dillon, 2009:344). Possible answers to question(s) on the nature of curriculum enable developers of curriculum to give views on definitions, conceptions, theories or similar national entities pertaining to the proposed curriculum. The questions on the nature of curriculum could assist curriculum developers in learning more about how the historical background, theoretical assumptions and principles have evolved so as to inform them when developing a curriculum programme.

The holistic curriculum theory, the constructivist curriculum theory and the emancipatory curriculum theory are some of the theories that elicit the nature of curriculum and that could be considered when developing a curriculum in higher education (3.3.2 & 3.3.3). In addition, the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach to curriculum development, which is categorised as a deliberative theory to curriculum development, is also considered (3.6).

3.2.2 The elements of curriculum

According to Dillon (2009:345), the question on the elements of curriculum mainly refers to what the things are that make up a curriculum and what we are supposed to do with these things. With these questions, curriculum developers stand a better chance of asking, seeking, and finding some acceptable answers (Dillon, 2009). The elements of curriculum are the things which developers can use to think and act upon in developing the curriculum (Chambers, 2014; Dillon, 2009; Joseph, 2010a; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013). According to Dillon (2009), there are seven kinds of elements, each with a categorical question and sub-questions.

The first element is the lecturer. This element includes all possible questions about the lecturer who is expected to teach students that which they need to learn. The possible questions focus on the lecturer's personality, background, training, qualifications, characteristics and his or her role as an instructor, a curriculum developer, or a facilitator (Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Callahan & Clark, 1977; Dillon, 2009; Du Toit, 2011; Hargreaves, 1994; Reed *et al.*, 2012). According to Du Toit (2011), lecturers should be able to perceive a curriculum in a holistic and multi-disciplinary way. This suggestion is echoed in the work of Botha (2011) and Wood (2011). Also, Ngara (1995:45) points

out that the quality of the lecturer is important because lecturers “can only give what they have.” For example:

- If lecturers are low-calibre professionals who do not have sufficient mastery of their disciplines they cannot be expected to perform at the level of excellence.
- If lecturers are highly qualified in terms of paper qualifications but do not use approaches to teaching that provide the best learning experience for the students the students might not adequately benefit from the learning experience.
- If lecturers are highly qualified and use the correct methods of teaching but do not teach students the basics of the most appropriate subject matter there will be gaps in the students' education.

Therefore, the lecturer as an element of curriculum development influences the process of curriculum development through their teaching to a great extent (Bullough, 2010b, 2010c; Dillon, 2009; Hargreaves, 1994; Joseph, 2010a; Ngara, 1995).

The second element is the student. The possibilities of questions regarding the student include: Who teaches whom? Who should be taught? What are their characteristics, dispositions and qualities? What makes a person a student, and what make a student a learner? Which things about a student should one take into educational account? Should students be considered as unique, with different needs? Should they be considered passive, or fulfil an active role in developing knowledge? (Callahan & Clark, 1977; Dillon, 2009:345; Reed *et al.*, 2012:78). In the higher education context, curriculum developers should remember to consider questions related to cultural diversity, indigenous knowledge and intercultural citizenship when seeking answers about the student (Botha, 2011; Le Grange, 2011, 2014; Lockard, 2010a, 2010b). Scholars in curriculum suggest that students in higher education have the following characteristics: they are more accountable for their own learning, able to construct knowledge, and are more actively involved in knowledge construction (Biggs & Tang, 2007; Botha, 2011; Du Toit, 2011; Geyser, 2004; Le Grange, 2011, 2014; Ngara, 1995; Wood, 2011).

The third element concerns the subject or content. The subject matter includes characteristics such as the nature and content of the subject, materials, and format, including the standard thereof. Questions which could be asked are: What should be taught? Who determines what should be taught? (Dillon, 2009:346). Assumptions underpinning these questions reflect different curriculum development theories (3.3) and in particular curriculum design types (3.5). Other questions are: What knowledge is of most worth? Who should be taught what? (Dillon, 2009:346). In addition, Dillon (2009:346) proposes that when curriculum developers ask questions about curriculum content, they should also ask: “What should be taught to whom for which purpose in which

circumstance”? Thus, by considering these questions together as one question, it will assist curriculum developers in the process of developing the curriculum more cohesively (Diamond, 2008; Dillon, 2009; Hlebowitsh, 2005; Moon, 2002; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013). Furthermore, Du Toit (2011) contends that a curriculum programme in higher education should allow room for students to acquire the disciplinary knowledge (content) and everyday knowledge. Curriculum programmes in higher education which integrate disciplinary knowledge and everyday knowledge might assist students in gaining a deeper knowledge and understanding of the content (Du Toit, 2011). Two reports from UNESCO (2005, 2008) highlight the importance of acquiring deeper knowledge:

- It increases students’ ability both to act as responsible citizens and to add value to society, the economy and political life.
- It empowers students to solve complex, high-priority problems encountered in the real world situations of work, society and life.
- It also empowers students to become lifelong learners contributing to a curriculum that goes beyond mere disciplinary knowledge.

The fourth element is milieu. Possible questions about milieu are related to where and when education takes place (Dillon, 2009:346). Milieu as an element of curriculum refers to the context behind the developed curriculum, such as time, place, circumstance, environment, school/college/university, classroom, and the community surrounding the curriculum activities (Bayrak & Boyaci, 2002; Dillon, 2009; Le Grange, 2014; Joseph 2010a). Curriculum developers should be aware of assumptions about resources, such as classroom, infrastructure, and the availability of a library or laboratory, as well as human resources like lecturers, experts or experienced individuals (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Reed *et al.*, 2012). Other issues that should be considered from the context of higher education include rethinking how a multi-cultural curriculum context can enable a space for interculturalism in the curricula (Botha, 2011).

The fifth element is the aim of the curriculum. Questions related to the aim of curriculum ask: To what end? What is the point of this lecturer teaching this subject to this student in this circumstance? (Dillon, 2009:346). The fifth element covers ideas related to educational purposes, goals, objectives, aspirations and assumptions about social change (Diamond, 2008; Dillon, 2009; Hlebowitsh, 2005; Jacobs, Vakalisa & Gawe, 2011; Moon, 2002; Reed *et al.*, 2012).

The nature of curriculum is pivotal in setting objectives or goals for the curriculum. In addition, Du Toit (2011) and Le Grange (2011) highlight that, in higher education, curriculum developers could deliberate on the roles of universities in relation to the following aspects:

- The general philosophy of education of the respective country;
- The specific philosophy of higher education of the respective country;

- The vision and mission of the respective university;
- The vision and mission of the respective faculty;
- The vision and mission of the respective unit/department.

The sixth element is activity. The activity question primarily asks: How? (Dillon, 2009:346). Thus, the activity element refers to questions of means, methods, and actions to facilitate learning. Dillon (2009), Grundy (1987) and Ngara (1995) urge that at the heart of curriculum development is the process of learning. This implies that learning is achieved through the integration of actions between the lecturer and the student (3.3.2 & 3.3.3). Curriculum developers therefore could suggest activities that assist a student in learning more effectively. In terms of the higher education context, several teaching-learning methods and strategies are recommended, such as problem-based learning, self-directed learning, cooperative learning or peer learning, as well as creating space for intercultural curricula through critical dialogue, stories, texts, thinking and rethinking, and participating (Allen, 2015; Bayrak & Boyaci, 2002; Botha, 2011; Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Du Preez, 2008; Entwistle, 2009; Jackson & Sinclair, 2006; Le Grange, 2011; 2014; Lockard, 2010a, 2010b; McCormick, 1999; Ngara, 1995; Pasha & Pasha, 2012; Wood, 2011). Also, it is important to understand that knowing different methods and techniques of teaching and learning is one thing, whereas the ability to apply them is a different, yet an important art to perform (Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Entwistle, 2009; Hargreaves, 1994; Ngara, 1995; Pasha & Pasha, 2012). In higher education, lecturers should be empowered and committed to the task of continuous experimentation, investigation, inquiry, and study; to negotiating the barriers to teaching; and to striving for growth and lifelong learning. Lecturers could perform these tasks by getting involved in problem-posing and problem-solving activities, team teaching and critical reflection (Bullough, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Du Toit, 2011; Entwistle, 2009; Pasha & Pasha, 2012; Reed *et al.*, 2012).

The seventh element is result, which elicits questions such as: What comes of it? Who learns what? Result as an element of curriculum focuses on the learning outcomes expected after the student(s) have learned certain content (Du Toit, 2011; Maphosa, Mudzielwana & Netshifhefhe, 2014; Moon, 2002). Dillon (2009:346) suggests that curriculum developers could ask: How will the accomplished person be seen to act, feel, think? Curriculum developers in higher education should be able to deliberate on matters regarding assessment purposes and curriculum alignment (Binde, 2012; Du Toit, 2011). As a result, formative assessment and summative assessment should be encouraged in terms of self-assessment, students' portfolios, open-book testing, problem- or project-based learning, prototyping and technology-based evaluation (Binde, 2012; Pasha & Pasha, 2012; Reed *et al.*, 2012).

Joseph (2010a) outlines Schwab's suggestions that (i) the coordination among the seven elements should be considered and that one element should not dominate the others; (ii) when making

curriculum decisions representatives with deep knowledge of each element could participate in deliberations; (iii) the curriculum specialists, who understand the practice of curriculum designing, ought to facilitate conversations among representatives of the elements and guide the processes of curriculum design.

3.2.3 The practice of curriculum

Some fundamental questions arise concerning the practice of curriculum. Such questions assist in how to think and act about curriculum matters. Questions of action regarding curriculum are known as “deliberative” questions (Dillon, 2009:349). Deliberative questions are related to what should be done. Questions of this type have to do with deciding about and developing the curriculum, as well as the implementation and experiencing thereof (Dillon, 2009; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). In considering the practice of curriculum, developers should ask questions in order to think about matters of the discipline of Curriculum Studies and its discourses. Developers should consider how everyday practitioners of curriculum ought to think as they go about their curriculum activities.

In higher education, for instance, this process could be enhanced through workshops, improvements to learning programmes, debates, research and publication. Thus, I concur with Shiundu and Omulando (1992) that the question of how to think and act could also involve thoughts about training curriculum developers. The training should focus on directing awareness to discourses of curriculum development approaches to assist in curriculum development work. In addition, in the process of practising curriculum, curriculum developers ought to demonstrate the ability to relate the question on the nature of curriculum and the elements of curriculum, as well as employing curriculum development knowledge and skills (Diamond, 2008; Dillon, 2009; Joseph, 2010a; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Taba, 1962).

In this study, the questions of curriculum shed light on the discussion of ways of developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in the Tanzanian higher education context. The country’s education system and in particular teacher education in higher education is not isolated from postmodern curriculum development discourses like that of internationalisation (1.2). Dillon’s (2009) views on the need to reconceptualise questions of curriculum were valuable in this study when I dealt with curriculum matters such as developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania. It became evident that the developed curriculum might be better aligned to contemporary national and international needs.

3.3 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

In this section, approaches to curriculum development are explored in detail with the focus on the product approach to curriculum development, the process approach to curriculum development and

the praxis approach to curriculum development. This exploration helped me to gain an understanding of various curriculum development theories and enabled me to focus on attributes of curriculum development which could be employed through the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. Before exploring each of the theories on curriculum development, a summary of attributes to curriculum development theories was provided in order to link curriculum development theories and the historical movements in Curriculum Studies (2.2.2). The curriculum development theories explored in this section are predominantly framed by three paradigms in Curriculum Studies: traditionalism, conceptual-empiricism, and reconceptualism (Pinar, 1997).

Curriculum development is a major area of concern for Curriculum Studies scholars (Pinar *et al.*, 1995; Van den Berg, 2014). Curriculum development is understood in this study as follows:

The curriculum development process...is organic and comprehensive in its outlook. It makes it clear that any determination about how to teach has to be done in relation to what gets taught and that any determination about what gets taught has to be understood in relation to wider learning purposes and accompanying learning effects (Hlebowitsh, 2010:203).

Curriculum development is also associated with the design and operation of educational institutions (Hlebowitsh, 2010). Several components are involved in curriculum development, namely design, implementation, evaluation and maintenance (Chambers, 2014; Hlebowitsh, 2010; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Van den Berg, 2014).

From the scholarly literature about curriculum development theories it became evident that in the traditionalist paradigm curriculum development work was mostly influenced by the work of Newlon and Taylor in the early nineteenth century (2.2.2.1.1 & 2.2.2.1.2). Flinders and Thornton (1997) as well as Murphy and Pushor (2010) explain the attributes to curriculum development within this paradigm. The main attributes reveal that the traditionalist curriculum development approach is discipline-based, usually designed by a higher authority from the higher education context. Furthermore, the implementation follows a top-down approach to the curriculum development process, content is rigorously specific to learning objectives, curriculum builds knowledge and understanding in a specific sequence, the outcomes of the curriculum are measured by the set objectives or aims, and the 'what' questions are over-emphasised. These attributes have also been discussed in the work of Du Toit (2011), Le Grange, (2010b), Mhando (2012) and Reed *et al.* (2012). The attributes inform the product approach to curriculum development (Grundy, 1987; Murphy & Pushor, 2010; Van den Berg, 2014).

The conceptual-empiricist paradigm regarding curriculum development emphasises the link of curriculum work with other disciplines such as psychology and sociology (2.2.2.1.3). According to

Flinders and Thornton (1997) and Reed *et al.* (2012), the attributes of the conceptual-empiricist curriculum development approach are the following: it reflects a transdiscipline-based curriculum; emphasis is on a bottom-up approach to the curriculum development process; and the curriculum content derives from disciplinary knowledge and everyday knowledge as well as from the experience of students. In addition, teachers and students are involved in the process of developing the curriculum, and the 'how' questions are included in the curriculum development process. Du Toit (2011), Le Grange (2010b) and Mhando (2012) explain that these attributes are commonly practised at different levels of education and in particular in higher education. These attributes inform the process approach to curriculum development (Grundy, 1987; Van den Berg, 2014).

The reconceptualist curriculum development paradigm is a critical response to the conceptual-empiricist paradigm. Unlike the conceptual-empiricist, the reconceptualist curriculum development work is aimed at understanding various contexts behind the developed curriculum, which includes social-economic, political and ideological dimensions (2.2.2.1.4). These contextual factors have a significant influence on the process of curriculum development that cannot be ignored (Freire, 1997; Pinar, 2010a). According to the reconceptualist view, curriculum development processes employ a bottom-up approach. This implies that action and reflection form part of the process, and particularly highlight the 'why' questions during curriculum inquiry (Freire, 1997; Steinberg, 2010). This approach to curriculum development is termed 'praxis' (Bach, 2010; Grundy, 1987; Macpherson, 1996; Pinar, 2010a; Van den Berg, 2014). 'Praxis' refers to the process of curriculum development which engages individuals with an understanding of different social contexts and enables them to employ critical pedagogical skills in order to enhance deeper understanding of Curriculum Studies phenomena. These individuals become agents of social change through constant action and reflection, and consequently transcend and transform curriculum in line with the contemporary needs (1.6.1 & 1.6.4).

3.3.1 The product approach to curriculum development

The product approach to curriculum development is associated with the work of prominent thinkers such as Bobbitt, Tyler, Taba, and Wiggins and McTighe (Du Toit, 2011; Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Kliebard, 1987, 1992; Pinar, 1997; Van den Berg, 2014). The curriculum development work of these theorists is discussed next. Bobbitt (1876-1956), who employed techniques of the scientific method in curriculum development, assumed that scientific curriculum development will assist in preparing individuals for life (2.2.2.1.1).

According to Null (2010:188-189), the scientific curriculum development consists of five steps:

- Study the daily activities of adults.
- Prioritise the collected information into objectives.

- Identify the students based upon their abilities and interests as they will most likely fulfil adult roles upon graduation.
- Differentiate the curriculum for each group of students in order to train them for their roles in adult life.
- Study students once they have become adults to assess whether or not the curriculum they completed prepared them efficiently for their daily activities.

Similar to Bobbitt's ideas that curriculum objectives derive from the needs of students and society, Tyler (1902-1994) is best known for his aims-objective model that is product-driven (2.2.2.1.2). According to Tyler (1949), the end or outcome of a curriculum is decided upon before the means to reach the end are determined. Tyler (1949:1) raised four fundamental questions for curriculum development:

- What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
- What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
- How can these educational experiences be effectively organised?
- How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

Tyler (1949) comments that the answers provided in the four questions constitute a rationale for curriculum development in general.

Given the discussed curriculum development processes initiated by Bobbitt and Tyler, it is evident that a lecturer is regarded as a controller, an instructor and a transmitter of learning based on the defined goals (Reed *et al.*, 2012). The assessment is done by the lecturer only, and by looking at what the students has missed out.

Taba (1902-1967) argued that lecturers are implementers of the curriculum and that they should be involved in the curriculum development process (Taba, 1962). Taba's perspective on lecturers' involvement in the curriculum development process introduced a "bottom-up" approach to curriculum development process (Du Toit, 2011:69), whereas, Bobbitt and Tyler were in favour of a top-down approach (Du Toit, 2011).

Taba (1962), like Tyler (1949), emphasised the importance of objectives in curriculum development. This implies that the aims and objectives of the curriculum determine what type of content and learning experiences to select, as well as influencing the nature and the process of evaluation (Du Toit, 2011; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Stern, 2010; Van den, Berg, 2014). Taba emphasised the need to integrate the objectives within content, skills and attitudes. The integration process encourages inductive instructional strategies of concept development in order to realise the objectives (Stern, 2010; Taba, 1962). Students therefore become critical thinkers who search for

meaning in the world in which they live (Stern, 2010; Taba, 1962). For this reason, Stern (2010:837) comments that for Taba, “learning to think was the main goal, and balancing the curriculum to meet multiple needs was the path to attain the goal.”

With regard to Taba’s model of curriculum development, Ornstein and Hunkins (2013:184) indicate that the model consists of the following seven steps:

- Diagnosis of needs
- Formulation of objectives
- Selection of content
- Organisation of content
- Selecting of learning experiences
- Organisation of learning activities
- Evaluation and means of evaluation

In addition, Taba’s work focuses “on ‘intergroup education’ (known currently as multi-cultural education) and supports the cross-discipline design of the curriculum” (Du Toit, 2011:69). In similar vein, Stern (2010:837) comments that Taba’s work includes instructional strategies focused on minority groups or “culturally disadvantaged” individuals.

Wiggins and McTighe (1998), advocate for the backward-development theory to curriculum development. According to Wiggins and McTighe (2005:2-11), the theory encompasses three main stages:

- Identify desired results. (What would we like to accomplish?).
- Determine acceptable evidence. (What should students be able to do?).
- Plan learning experience and instruction. (What values and attitudes should they have, and what skills should they be able to demonstrate?).

Van den Berg (2014:98) states that the backward-development theory enabled curriculum developers to include the following five steps in their decision-making processes:

- Constitution of the process of curriculum development through the above listed questions;
- Selection of content by curriculum developers;
- Narrowing down the content to suitable knowledge;
- Determining how to evaluate success by asking what standards are necessary for the students to be considered successful; and
- Planning of educational activities for students to reach the predetermined goals of the curriculum.

The discussion on the product approach to curriculum development marked scholars' views on a lecturer-centred curriculum and a discipline-based curriculum (3.5.1 & 3.5.2). Criticism of the product approach revolves around its behaviourist, prescriptive, measurement-fixed, oppressive and socially unresponsive nature (Du Toit, 2011; Jacobs *et al.*, 2011; Reed *et al.*, 2012; Van den Berg, 2014). The theories of the product approach all share a common strategy: setting up objectives, drawing up a plan to realise these objectives, implementing the plan, and evaluating its outcomes (Murphy & Pushor, 2010; Reed *et al.*, 2012; Smith, 2000).

Since the product approach is deeply rooted in behaviourism, lecturers tend to organise and perform curriculum activities to alter students' patterns of behaviour, based on certain behavioural objectives (Reed *et al.*, 2012; Van den Berg, 2014). In critiquing this approach, Thijs and Van den Akker (2009) argue that the product approach consolidates the processes of curriculum development and reduces it to a few steps. Procedures are listed as a guide to curriculum development work. However, recent literature warns against the use of theory that is over-prescriptive when developing curriculum, because it tends to reduce complexity and flexibility of ways of developing curricula (Reed *et al.*, 2012; Van den Berg, 2014).

Although lecturers have freedom to plan and practise teaching in higher education, the product approach is often criticised for being deeply oppressive because of its inclination to deskill lecturers (Joseph, 2010d): deskilling leads to "the suppression of lecturers' intellectual and moral responsibilities" (Joseph, 2010d:284). Lecturers and students could therefore become passive and limited in the whole process of teaching and learning (Freire, 1997; Joseph, 2010d).

3.3.2 The process approach to curriculum development

The process approach to curriculum development is associated with the work of Dewey, Walker, Stenhouse, and Weinstein and Fantini (Du Toit, 2011; Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Pinar, 1997; Van den Berg, 2014). Dewey (1859-1952) was an educational philosopher who contributed to the discussion about how a curriculum can be developed by coordinating psychological and social factors in education (2.2.2.1.1). He emphasised the importance of the role of education in contributing to a democratic society. Therefore, Dewey's theory of curriculum development focused on the relationship between school and a democratic society (Bailey, 2010; Flinders & Thornton, 1997; Tanner, 2010). He recognised that "a democracy requires a vital connection between a school and society and that this connection is borne through the student's experience through the school curriculum" (Tanner, 2010:287).

Dewey (1915, 1916) advocated an experimental approach to learning and to curriculum development emphasising the act of learning by doing. Such an approach enables curriculum development that takes account of the students' needs and their experiences (Du Toit, 2011).

According to Du Toit (2011:70), the importance of Dewey's view on curriculum development processes from a higher education perspective is that it is considered "holistic." A holistic curriculum reflects educational practices intended to cultivate the development of human beings by attending to their physical, emotional, psychological, moral, and spiritual growth. Cultivation of personal meaning and fulfilment, love for lifelong learning, and connection to others and the natural world are among educators' aims in the holistic curriculum approach (Bailey, 2010; Du Toit, 2011; Joseph, 2010b; Slattery, 2006).

According to Joseph (2010b:446), a holistic curriculum is characterised by three interrelated themes: (i) the need to cherish and nourish students' natural goodness, (ii) the creation of an integrated, thematic, and well-rounded curriculum to create individuals with full and balanced development, and (iii) the encouragement of connections to communities and the natural world to instil a desire for nonviolence and peace.

Therefore, Joseph (2010b) suggests that a holistic curriculum emphasises the following:

- Students are at the centre of pedagogical practices.
- Lecturers are to nurture or guide the students.
- Physical development takes place through kinaesthetic learning, movement, and rhythm.
- Creativity and expanded consciousness develop through storytelling, meditation, and visualisation activities.
- Students experience aesthetics for life and nature.

In addition, Joseph (2010b:446) comments that "educators create ongoing experiences to help students to feel and understand caring, connectedness, and mutuality with the aim of appreciating democracy and equality through engagement in nonauthoritarian, equal relationships" when approaching curriculum holistically.

Trent and Cho (2010) explain that Stenhouse (1926-1982) advocated for a curriculum that communicates the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in a manner that is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice. Stenhouse (1975:4-5) describes curriculum development as follows:

A curriculum, like the recipe for a dish, is first imagined as a possibility, then the subject of experiment. The recipe offered publicly is in a sense a report on the experiment. Similarly, a curriculum should be grounded in practice. It is an attempt to describe the work observed in classrooms that it is adequately communicated to teachers and the others. Finally, within limits, a recipe can be varied accordingly to taste. So can a curriculum.

Stenhouse (1975) consequently described conditions for lecturers as researchers in curriculum work:

- Lecturers must own the knowledge that they develop by actively researching their practice. They must continuously reflect on their own practice, which should enable them to effect change in the teaching and learning situation.
- Lecturers must reflect on the process of teaching in order to identify and solve problems they encounter in their classes.
- Lecturers need to externalise by observing and studying other lecturers' practice, enabling them to provide alternative views on their own practice.

Like Taba and Dewey, Stenhouse proposed inquiry-based learning as a means to get students and lecturers actively involved in knowledge construction (Du Toit, 2011; Reed *et al.*, 2012; Trent & Cho, 2010).

In 1971, Walker presented a descriptive model of curriculum development which is also referred to as naturalistic theory and is based on three central elements outlined by Walker (1971:51-67) and summarised by Van den Berg (2014:101):

- Providing a platform where the beliefs or principles of the curriculum developers can be voiced;
- Creating the space where the process of curriculum decision-making can be deliberated from the available alternatives; and
- Organising and structuring the curriculum development processes.

According to Walker (1971), the last element of the naturalistic theory suggests that the design work is the ultimate end of the process of curriculum development. However, all the elements are interdependent.

The other theory of the process approach to curriculum development is the humanistic one which was proposed in 1970 by Weinstein and Fantini (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; Pasha & Pasha, 2012; Van den Berg, 2014). This theory links socio-psychological factors to cognition and focuses on the group; it therefore stresses group learning (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; Pasha & Pasha, 2012; Van den Berg, 2014). According to Van den Berg (2014:102), the humanistic theory consists of four steps:

- The lecturer identifies students' details and needs rather than subject matter.
- The lecturer develops student strategies for instruction in relation to students' needs.

- The lecturer develops teaching procedures to enhance learning skills, content, and organising ideas. At this stage, political forces are considered; subject specialists and experts are consulted.
- The lecturer evaluates the outcomes of the curriculum based on cognitive and affective objectives.

Grundy (1987) and Stenhouse (2012) comment that the process approach to curriculum development requires that lecturers and students participate in the process of curriculum development, interpret the curriculum, and translate it into action. In this sense, lecturers as curriculum-makers are given authority to participate in the process of curriculum development through the implementation of curriculum, and to develop professionally as opposed to merely being technicians of curriculum implementation (3.3.1). Curriculum content is concerned with enhancing understanding and interpretation in a holistic manner, rather than pre-selecting a- contextual knowledge to be uncritically conveyed (Du Toit, 2011; Grundy, 1987; Joseph, 2010b; Stenhouse, 2012). The key focus is more student-centred and aligned toward a constructivist approach, rather than a subject-centred approach (Du Toit, 2011; Stenhouse, 2012; Van den Berg, 2014).

According to Biggs and Tang (2007) and Geyser (2004), the constructivist approach could inform the curriculum development process in higher education. The constructivist theory suggests that students are active in constructing knowledge based on their lived experiences. The constructivist approach to curriculum development is aimed at enabling students to internalise, reshape, or transform learned information (Du Toit, 2011; Jacobs *et al.*, 2011; Muijs & Reynolds, 2011; Slattery, 2006). The students are therefore facilitated to construct meaningful and useful knowledge in life. For this reason, Jacobs *et al.* (2011:41) comment that “what is important is not so much what students learn, but how they learn.” Skills learnt become more important than content (Jacobs *et al.*, 2011; Muijs & Reynolds, 2011). Students in higher education could consequently become involved in research, excursions, interviews and group work to enhance the learning experience (Baillie, 2006; Biggs & Tang, 2007; Fryer, 2006; Geyser, 2004; Jackson & Sinclair, 2006).

Critiques posed against the process approach include, first, that highly skilled lecturers are required to implement the curriculum; that is, lecturers with sufficient knowledge, skills and experience to facilitating teaching (Van den Berg, 2014). Second, the process approach might lead to particularism in content knowledge that might not have global significance because it focuses on local or everyday knowledge and limits the value of universal knowledge (Jacobs *et al.*, 2011; Joseph, 2010b; Le Grange, 2011; Van den Berg, 2014). Third, the process approach often does not give adequate attention to the political, economic and historical aspects that are embedded in society. As a result, the process approach denies the inclusion of critical, transformative and

reflective aspects in curriculum development (Jacobs *et al.*, 2011; Hlebowitsh, 2010; Van den Berg, 2014).

3.3.3 The praxis approach to curriculum development

The praxis approach is based on the work of Paulo Freire (1921-1997) in his book, *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (1968). According to Freire (1997:154), the process of curriculum development starts with:

... the present, existential, concrete situation, reflecting the aspirations of the people. Utilising certain basic contradictions, we must pose this existential, concrete, present situation to the people as a problem which challenges them and requires a response – not just at the intellectual level, but at the level of action.

Based on Freire's work and ideas on praxis, scholars in curriculum development arrived at two theories: the emancipatory theory and the deliberative theory (Grundy, 1987; Jacobs *et al.*, 2011; Reid, 1981; Steinberg, 2010; Van den Berg, 2014).

3.3.3.1 The emancipatory theory

The emancipatory theory of curriculum development is based on Freire's problem-posing method that necessitates dialogue and critical participation between students and lecturers to develop a consciousness of the world in which they find themselves (Freire, 1997). Grundy (1987:19) explains that for curriculum to be informed by the emancipatory interest the curriculum will work towards freedom because:

[f]irst...at the level of consciousness, the subjects participating in the education experience will come to know theoretically and in terms of their own existence when propositions represent distorted views of the world (views which serve interests in domination) and when they represent invariant regularities of existence. Second, at the level of practice, the emancipatory curriculum will involve the participants in the educational encounter, both 'lecturers and students', in action which attempts to change the structures within which learning occurs and which contains freedom in often unrecognised ways. An emancipatory curriculum entails a reciprocal relationship between self-reflection and action.

Furthermore, McLaren and Crawford (2010) and Steinberg (2010) assert that the theory of emancipation links with critical pedagogy. Critical pedagogy is based on the assumption that lecturers and students are agents of social change (McLaren & Crawford, 2010; Macpherson, 1996; Steinberg, 2010). Lecturers and students therefore employ reflection and action, and problematise

and challenge oppressive experiences in their direct environment. According to Van den Berg (2014:104), curriculum development that draws on the principles of critical pedagogy implies that curriculum should:

- be committed to the emancipation and the empowerment of the marginalised,
- critically challenge the reproduction of class differences and racialised inequalities,
- ensure that the agency of people is recognised in relation to the historical context, and
- endorse a dialectical perspective that challenges binaries such as individual versus society and theory versus practice.

Curriculum development is therefore a dynamic process that depends on the dialectic relation between action and reflection (McLaren & Crawford, 2010; Steinberg, 2010; Van den Berg, 2014).

Van den Berg (2014:105) explains the emancipatory curriculum development approach as follows:

- themes are generated that present the reality of education and the broader social context,
- a group of educators, students and local volunteers engage in a dialogue about these themes to develop materials for the curriculum,
- the curriculum materials are circulated amongst the group to provoke critical reflection, and
- this should ultimately result in action to realise the ideal of the praxis approach.

Further, regarding the emancipatory approach to curriculum development, Nyerere (1922-1999), who is known as a professional teacher advocate for world social justice, democracy and African unity, argues for a curriculum development process which is rooted in the philosophy of education for self-reliance (Nyerere, 1967). Attributes of self-reliance are participation, cooperation, relating theory and practice, humane value, confidence, self-development, productive life skills, creativity, competitiveness, respect for equality, entrepreneurship, discovery, investigation, and ability to evaluate. According to Mhando (2012), the philosophy of education for self-reliance necessitates an emancipatory consciousness to Tanzanians as it aims to develop citizens who have values, attitudes, skills and knowledge and who are empowered to actualise and value. Nyerere (1967) urges that students and individuals who have received formal education should understand the integral part they play in the nation and recognise the responsibilities they have.

Despite this promising philosophy aimed at leading the education system in Tanzania, Mhando (2012:65) expresses the following concern:

The biggest challenge facing the philosophy has been in developing the right kind of curricula and texts, the right pedagogy...and the right kind of assessment. Since the inception of the idea in 1968 Tanzanian educationists and teachers have not been

committed enough to organise themselves to realise the promise of education for self-reliance.

Mhando (2012:66) therefore comments that the kind of critical consciousness promoted by Freire is what Tanzanians “could expect of education for self-reliance.”

Ngara (1995) comments that the emancipatory theory could potentially promote critical thinking and self-empowerment in students and lecturers in higher education, and Wood (2011) argues that when higher education institutions are experiencing postmodern social change in its broadest sense, curriculum development should be informed by the emancipatory theory.

3.3.3.2 *The deliberative theory*

According to Reid (1981), the central concern of the deliberation theory in curriculum development is to improve and transform people's capacity, both individually and collectively, in order to align theoretical and practical decisions regarding contemporary curriculum development. The assumptions of the deliberative position emphasise that an individual is responsible for improvement and transformation through working with present situations and getting involved in collective discussion to identify and solve problems (Pinar, 2010a; Reid, 1981). The deliberation theory is therefore sensitive to different contexts and cultures, addressing the gap between complete freedom for students to choose what they would want to learn and the prescription of learning content (Van den Berg, 2014). The theory suggests a deliberative process whereby for example, the lectures as facilitators of learning explicitly state their ideas to the students and together they plan ways of learning through constant reflection and adjustment of the plan (Reid, 1981; Van den Berg, 2014).

According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2013:187) and Van den Berg (2014:104), the following six steps of curriculum development are employed in the deliberative theory: public sharing, highlighting agreement and disagreement, explaining positions, highlighting changes in positions, negotiating points of agreement, and adopting the decision. Thus, the whole process of curriculum development happens within a “recognised socially constructed context” (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013:187). According to Reid (1981), Pinar's work on curriculum development is a good example of explaining the implication of the deliberative theory on curriculum development.

Critique on the praxis approach to curriculum development includes the argument that the absence of learning outcomes in this approach to curriculum development poses a challenge to assessment and the setting of standards (Breault & Marshall, 2010; Du Toit, 2011; Jacobs *et al.*, 2011; Scott, 2008). In addition, Ornstein and Hunkins (2013:187) indicate that it is a challenge for curriculum development to take place within a particularist, cultural context, because “[h]ow can one generate solid curricula while taking diverse cultures, customs, and values into account?”

Regarding the discussion about the approaches to curriculum development, it is evident that curriculum development process aims to enhance learning (Grundy, 1987; Ngara, 1995). The approaches demonstrate that skill is the central disposition of the product approach to curriculum, whereas the ability to judge is the central concern in the process approach, and critique is the most important in the praxis approach (Grundy, 1987; Ngara, 1995).

In the context of this study, it was important to consider the approaches when attempting to develop a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania. It was necessary to understand the strength of each approach, yet emphasis had to be placed on the praxis approach which yields to the contemporary needs of society. Furthermore, the need to internationalise higher education Curriculum Studies discourses had to be prioritised.

Thus, for postmodern curriculum development work to be contextualised and relevant for Tanzanian teacher education in higher education, these theories needed to be reconsidered. This implies that the contexts and the content of the developed Curriculum Studies programme should reflect the nature, the elements and the practice of a contemporary curriculum programme which align with Curriculum Studies and its discourses together with the postmodern needs of teacher education.

3.4 CURRICULUM DESIGN

This section explores curriculum design which is central to the process of curriculum development (Hlebowitsh, 2005, 2010; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Posner, 2004). According to Hlebowitsh (2005), the history of Curriculum Studies assists curriculum scholars in exploring curriculum design assumptions and principles such as perspectives on elements of curriculum design, operations involved in curriculum design, and types of curricula that result from the design. This section starts with an explanation of the notion of curriculum design, and ends with a description of curriculum organisation and criteria which are regarded as essential in curriculum design.

3.4.1 The notion of curriculum design

Hlebowitsh (2005) asserts that there is no definite definition of the term 'curriculum design'. The notion of curriculum design depends on one's own understanding and use of the term 'curriculum' (Hlebowitsh, 2005). Both Thornton (2010) and Ornstein and Hunkins (2013) have commented on this position concerning the notion of curriculum design. According to Thornton (2010:199), curriculum design refers to "arrangement of materials prepared in advanced and intended for instruction" or "what emerges from interactions among teachers, students and materials." Hlebowitsh (2005:5) asserts that curriculum design could be broadly defined as "the deliberate and conscious effort to design the totality of the school experience in the interests of producing an educational effect." This meaning supposes three functions of curriculum design: (i) "to set

boundaries or limitations on the 'learning institution' experience, (ii) to identify the nature of an educational experience in the curriculum, and (iii) to see the curriculum in the life of the entire 'education' institution" (Hlebowitsh, 2005:5). With regard to the second function, Ornstein and Hunkins (2013:13) define curriculum design as "the way we conceptualise the curriculum and arrange its major 'elements or commonplaces' (subject matter or content, instructional methods and materials, learners' experiences or activities) to provide direction and guidance as we develop the curriculum."

3.4.2 Curriculum organisation

According to Posner (2004), the term 'organise' could refer to coordination of parts or elements of the curriculum. Yet, curriculum organisation involves a wide range of meanings, depending on the notion of curriculum referred to and the kinds of elements to be organised (Posner, 2004). In the context of this study, curriculum organisation refers to the "systematic arrangement of curriculum elements" (Posner, 2004:128). The organisation of curriculum elements is framed within two organisational dimensions, which entail horizontal and vertical organisations (Hlebowitsh, 2005; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Posner, 2004; Tyler, 1949).

3.4.2.1 Horizontal organisation

Horizontal organisation refers to the coordination and the integration of content across and between disciplines in one academic year or level (Hlebowitsh, 2005; Posner, 2004). There are two criteria for horizontal organisation: integration and scope.

Integration refers to linking content and experiences contained within the curriculum. Integration emphasises horizontal organisation within the entire curriculum. As a result, students are exposed to a unified body of knowledge (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Tyler, 1949). According to Shiundu and Omulando (1992), integration assists students in creating a comprehensive understanding of content experienced in an educational setting; it helps the students to get a unified view and to unify their own understanding with the content.

Scope concerns the breadth and depth of the curriculum content (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Tanner & Tanner, 2007). It pays heed to all the elements of the curriculum (Tyler, 1949). Ornstein and Hunkins (2013) comment that full scope can extend over a year or more, or it can occur within a day, a week or a month.

3.4.2.2 Vertical organisation

Vertical organisation refers to the sequencing of content and the increase in the level of conceptual difficulty (Tyler, 1949). Vertical organisation requires coordination and integration of content from

one academic year or level to the next (Hlebowitsh, 2005; Posner, 2004). There are three criteria for vertical organisation: sequence, continuity, and articulation and balance.

Sequence refers to “the continuity of the curriculum” (Tanner & Tanner, 2007:247) and emphasises the importance of content and experiences to build upon one another in more breadth and depth (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Tanner & Tanner, 2007; Tyler, 1949). Sequencing includes “simple-to-complex learning, prerequisite learning, whole-to-part learning, and chronological learning” and “concept-related, inquiry-related, learning-related, and utilisation-related” notions (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013:157).

Another criterion is continuity. According to Tyler (1949:84), continuity refers to “the vertical reiteration of major curriculum elements.” Thus, knowledge and skills that students should develop over time reappear over time in the curriculum (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Tyler, 1949). Tyler (1949:84) provides an example of continuity:

[I]f in the social studies the development of skills in reading social studies material is an important objective, it is necessary to see that there is recurring and continuing opportunity for these skills to be placed and developed.

Other criteria are articulation and balance. According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2013:158), articulation refers to “the vertical and horizontal interrelatedness of various aspects of the curriculum.” Balance refers to giving fairly appropriate weight to each element of curriculum (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Tanner & Tanner, 2007).

I envisage that the curriculum design principles discussed above would be central to the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania. It is important to consider the following: (i) how best the programme could reflect the content of Curriculum Studies as a discipline and its discourses, (ii) and how this content could be organised in a way that knowledge, skills, and competencies could optimally be achieved (Chapters 2 & 3).

3.5 TYPES OF CURRICULA

The historical background of approaches to curriculum development (3.3) and studies on curriculum design (3.4) set the scene in attempting to understand the origin of the different types of curricula. Du Toit (2011), Ornstein and Hunkins (2013), Shiundu and Omulando (1992) and Urevbu (1985) agree that because Curriculum Studies is underpinned by so many theories, it is inevitable that different types of curricula will emerge. Each curriculum type influences the other and they do not stand in isolation towards another (Du Toit, 2011; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando,

1992). In the following sub-sections, various types of curricula are explored to further generate ideas to develop a Curriculum Studies programme.

3.5.1 A lecturer-centred curriculum

In a lecturer-centred curriculum, the instructional methods of teaching employed are determined by the authoritative lecturer; knowledge is a commodity transmitted from active lecturers to passive students and such knowledge is non-negotiable (Pinnegar & Erickson, 2010; Reed *et al.*, 2012). This type of curriculum is based on certain assumptions about the purposes of education, and beliefs about knowledge, students and learning.

3.5.2 A discipline-based curriculum

A discipline-based (or subjects-based or field-based) curriculum separates the curriculum into distinct disciplines such as science, mathematics, literature, social studies and the arts (Eryaman, 2010; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). The content and skills to be mastered are divided up into distinct areas called disciplines (subjects, fields) with their own logical order and sequence as determined by discipline specialists (Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). A discipline-based curriculum has as its aim to teach specific, current and factual information that emerges from a particular discipline, and assessment focuses on essential knowledge, skills and competencies (Eryaman, 2010; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). According to Eryaman (2010) and Taba (1962), a discipline-based curriculum characterises teaching practice within one subject and encourages lecturers for specialisation, depth of content knowledge, and integrity towards the conventions of their discipline. For lecturers, disciplinary affiliation plays a primary role in their professional engagement for the development and distribution of good practice in teaching and learning. Thus, lecturers plan what is to be taught, and classroom instruction is generally concerned with sequencing resources, moving from rule to example, then to task analysis, teaching hierarchies, the use of drill and practice activities and finally, testing the accurate recall of disciplinary knowledge (Eryaman, 2010; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992; Taba, 1962).

3.5.3 A student-centred curriculum

The progressive views on education and critique of a subject- or discipline-based way of organising learning (2.2.2.2.1) expressed by scholars such as Montessori and Dewey gave rise to the development of a student-centred curriculum. A student-centred curriculum requires that the student is the focal point of learning and teaching and it is based on the nature of students' stages of development, interests and capabilities (Bali, 2012; Kelly, 2010; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). The aims of student-centred curriculum include the following: to make students

comfortable and interested in their work, to make them experience a sense of accomplishment in their daily life, to enable students to be active in the learning process, to provide opportunities for creativity and self-expression, to foster a sense of responsibility and cooperation among students, and to teach students how to appreciate and value aesthetics and nature (Bali, 2012; Kelly, 2010; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). Furthermore, the role of a lecturer who employs the student-centred curriculum is to ensure that students are actively involved in learning processes, to promote group work in order to cater for individual differences and needs, to understand students' abilities and to promote an environment that is conducive to learning (Bali, 2012; Entwistle, 2009; Doll, 1989; Kelly, 2010).

3.5.4 A problem-based curriculum

A problem-based curriculum focuses on “real-life problems of individuals or society” (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013:170). The aim of a problem-based curriculum is to “reinforce cultural traditions and address unmet needs of the community and society” (*ibid.*). A problem-based curriculum is designed to engage students in processes of inquiry into complex problems of significance and relevance to their lives. The practice of a problem-based curriculum begins with an initial experience in which students are challenged with a problematic situation, one that prompts their thinking and causes them to ask multiple questions (Grundy, 1987; Ngara, 1995; Pushor & Murphy, 2010). Thereafter, students decide what is personally meaningful to them, plan their inquiries, engage in their explorations, compile their information, think about their findings, and determine what they have learned in relation to the problem they were confronted with. The lecturer is the active facilitator of student inquiries who leads discussions, and directs and supports groups to collaborate successfully (Grundy, 1987; Ngara, 1995; Pushor & Murphy, 2010). Problem-based curriculum concludes with a culminating experience in which students share their inquiries with one another and with a broader audience (Ngara, 1995; Pushor & Murphy, 2010).

3.5.5 A project-based curriculum

Within the discipline of Curriculum Studies, ideas related to a project-based curriculum began with the concern of how teaching and learning should be conducted in schools during the progressive era (Ngara, 1995; Schultz, 2010). Project-based curriculum represents an ideological framework and a particular approach to how class inquiry can be conducted (Schultz, 2010). The term ‘project-based curriculum’ is sometimes used interchangeably with ‘problem-based curriculum’ (3.5.4). Within project-based curriculum students engage in studying a particular theme, idea or project suggested by lecturers or students themselves. Students are responsible for investigating the given theme either individually or in groups over a given period of time. According to Ngara (1995) and Schultz (2010), this type of curriculum method is inquiry-based, outcome-oriented, and associated

with conducting curriculum in a real-world context. Assessment of project-based endeavours is commonly formative, flexible, varied and continuous. Also, a project-based curriculum is mostly hands-on, emergent, evolutionary, and focused on integrated endeavours that are interdisciplinary or cross-disciplinary. For this reason, the knowledge, skills and dispositions that students gain from this type of curriculum are often transferable to situations beyond the university context (Ngara, 1995; Schultz, 2010).

3.5.6 A service-learning curriculum

A service-learning curriculum is distinguished from the act of community service, because the former is credit-bearing and involves a reciprocity between those serving (as part of the curriculum outcome) and those being served (the community in need) (Keller, 2010). The relation between those serving and those being served is that the service-learning experience serves a need for the student, and it serves a need for those being served or the community (Keller, 2010; Le Grange, 2014). A service-learning curriculum is significant and useful because it directly links theory and practice, and because it affords students the opportunity to look into cultural, political and social matters in the community (Keller, 2010; Le Grange, 2014).

The purpose of this overview, and the historical overview in the previous chapter, was to explore several Curriculum Studies and curriculum-related contents for two reasons: firstly, to determine what to include in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania; and secondly, to explore suitable theories and practices to support the development of such a programme. Additionally, the background obtained in these two chapters enabled me to conceptualise to what extent the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse could inform the development of a new Curriculum Studies programme. Important to note, is that the internationalisation discourse do not feature as prominently in the Tanzanian context compared to the South African context.

3.6 THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF CURRICULUM STUDIES DISCOURSE AS AN APPROACH TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

This section looks at scholarly literature about the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, focusing on it as an approach to inform the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania. The section provides information about the nature of the approach, its elements, and several comments on the practice of the approach.

3.6.1 The nature of the approach

The historical development of Curriculum Studies and the advent of postmodernism gave rise to the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (1.2, 2.2.2.1.5 & 2.3). The internationalisation of Curriculum Studies became an important point of deliberation for scholars in the field (Goodman, 2010; Pinar *et al.*, 1995; Pinar, 2007; 2010a, 2010b, 2010c). New ways of engaging with curriculum development also became pivotal (Cary, 2006; Doll, 1989; Edwards & Usher, 1997; Goodman, 2010; Slattery, 2006).

Doll (1989) and Pinar (2007) are key scholars who engaged with the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach to curriculum development (2.3). According to Pinar (2010a), this approach is rooted in the notion of *currere*, which refers to action and reflection with which individuals must engage in the process of curriculum development (1.6.1). Pinar (2007) was inspired by his professional experiences on analysing and interpreting language and literature from various texts and textual backgrounds (Pinar *et al.*, 1995), the work of Freire (1968) on the emancipatory theory regarding curriculum development (3.3.3.1), and *currere*, which focuses on individual experience in understanding phenomena (Le Grange, 2014:1287). As for the meaning of *currere*, Wallin (2010:2) suggests that Pinar's notion of *currere* could be understood as an "active conceptual force" which allows flexible means of understanding phenomena. Thus, the scholarly work of Cary (2006), Reid (1981) and Slattery (2006) support that viewing the curriculum development process as *currere* could better align the internationalisation of the Curriculum Studies approach with contemporary societal needs in a postmodern society. Le Grange (2014) applies the principles and assumptions of *currere* in higher education.

Based on the earlier discussions of the major attributes of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies as a discourse (2.2.2.1.5 & 2.3), the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies is also an approach to curriculum development which is characterised by the following two attributes: (i) the verticality and horizontality theory of Pinar (Pinar 2007, 2010a, 2010c), and (ii) the deliberative approach to curriculum development (3.3.3.2). In this regard, this discourse concerns understanding the historical events and the present circumstances, so as to appreciate and interpret meanings attached to the relevant phenomena (Pinar 2007, 2010a, 2010c). Also, the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, as an approach, requires individuals to be actively involved in the process of curriculum development in order to gain a deeper understanding of phenomena. This happens when people situate their own positions and then try to consider how other people situate themselves (Pinar 2007, 2010a, 2010c). Personal involvement in the curriculum development process is thus an essential responsibility in this approach (Le Grange, 2014; Reid, 1981; Wallin, 2010). It is in the light of this necessity that Pinar (2010c:236) states that it is important for one to acknowledge "the disciplinary conversation in which one's present undertakings are situated,

however focused on history and society one's research is." The nature of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach therefore requires developing curriculum by engaging with the historical events and the present circumstances, and committing oneself to gaining a better understanding of the relevant phenomena (Pinar, 2007, 2010a; 2010c). Therefore, Slattery (2006:292) asserts that one will be able to "move from the modern paradigm of curriculum development in the disciplines to the postmodern 'moments' of understand curriculum in various contexts in order to move toward justice, compassion, and ecological sustainability."

3.6.2 The elements of the approach

Several postmodern Curriculum Studies scholars have contributed by ascribing characteristics to the elements of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies as an approach to curriculum development (Doll, 1989; Edwards & Usher, 1997; Goodman, 2010; Pinar, 2007, 2010a; Slattery, 2006). The elements to be discussed in this sub-section are the milieu, the aim and outcomes, the content, the activities, the students, and the lecturers.

The milieu as an element of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies involves postmodern influences on curriculum development, whereby different social-cultural contexts are considered in the process of developing curriculum in higher education. The needs of the contemporary society and the students in particular are to be informed by different social-cultural contexts (Bayrak & Boyaci, 2002; Du Toit, 2011; Le Grange, 2010a, 2011, 2014). Likewise, Apple (2010:658) suggests that there is a need for "repositioning" the knowledge in curriculum. This view could imply that matters related to the "political and moral economy" should be taken into account when developing a curriculum (Apple, 2010:659).

The internationalisation of Curriculum Studies has as its main aim to deliberate widely and reach consensus on the nature and scope of curricula. Such deliberations should involve lecturers, students, parents and the community in setting broad and general goals (Doll, 1989; Edwards & Usher, 1997). The goals should be deliberated upon and agreed by the parties involved (Doll, 1989; Edwards & Usher, 1997). However, Wallin (2010) cautions that the rationale for setting a priori goals or learning outcomes of a curriculum programme should not lead to misinterpretation of *currere* from being an active force into a reactive force. This means that the learning outcomes should be used to direct the whole process of teaching-learning and allow flexibility in ways of learning (Le Grange, 2014; Wallin, 2010).

The content of curriculum informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach should include topics related to historical developments of Curriculum Studies and the related present circumstances (Pinar, 2007, 2010a, 2010c). The content should also be interdisciplinary-oriented, transdisciplinary-oriented and aesthetic, and should engage with contemporary issues and

trends (Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Goodman, 2010; Le Grange, 2014; Slattery, 2006). Content taught and the act of learning should be inherently transformative and empowering to students (Le Grange, 2011, 2014; Slattery, 2006). In terms of higher education, Le Grange (2014:1285) argues that universities in particular should arrange learning to take place across disciplines and provide access to “alternative ways of learning, including indigenous ways of knowing” through developing “gender and culturally inclusive curricula” (Le Grange, 2014:1285). Le Grange (2014) suggests ways in which indigenous knowledge could be integrated in the curriculum; for instance, the content on curriculum inquiry could include the value of applying empirical research methods in finding solutions to social-political trends. Such an approach will enable students to conduct interviews with indigenous communities and experts, and to participate and observe different practices and learn about social-political realities. In this context, Lockard (2010b) notes that just as Curriculum Studies encompasses the curriculum as culturally and politically situated, indigenous research is grounded in the social and historical conditions of the indigenous community and in the positionality of the indigenous researcher as a member of the community. In addition, the transformative knowledge gained from these communities supports quality education for native communities (Lockard, 2010b). Le Grange (2014) further argues that universities could expand their social networks to merge with transdisciplinary knowledge produced from research done by industries, government and private organisations to form transdisciplinary knowledge networks, thus, establishing socially distributed knowledge (2.4.2 & 2.4.3). This view is in line with mode 3 knowledge production discussed in Section 2.4.3. Further, Le Grange (2014:1290) explains that the socially distributed knowledge should be extended to involve “ordinary citizens including indigenous communities who are in the best position to know and understand the complexity of challenges they face daily.” Socially distributed knowledge that links universities and local communities can find expression in the curriculum through service-learning programmes (3.5.6).

As for the activities element, Doll (1989:252) suggests that a curriculum be developed that nurtures interrelationships among individuals so that “sharing and caring become central to learning.” Activities to be developed, according to Pinar (2010a:178), should be “autobiographical in nature”, which implies “to study the lived experience of individual participants in curricular conversation.” Here Pinar’s (2010a:178) method of *currere* is significant because it includes the following activities:

- Regressive activity which requires students to re-experience the past in order to be in a position to remember certain phenomena. Goodman (2010:207) supports regressive activity because it “facilitates deconstruction” of phenomena and requires historical inquiry;
- Progressive activity that encourages students to envisage the future or that which is not yet known;
- Analytical activity which encourages students to look into both the past and the present; and

- Synthetical activity that requires students to make meaning of present phenomena once it has been analysed.

In addition, Pinar (2010c) describes these activities as being situated in one's own context, related to questions or concerns about one's own context, and based on exchanging ideas with others.

Activities in higher education should be conceptualised so that the skills that students should acquire are developed and reflected (Le Grange, 2014). Learning activities should occur across disciplines and include sophisticated technologies that will enable students to integrate knowledge, skills and values that might have a transformative effect for both indigenous people and society as a whole (Le Grange, 2014). In similar vein to Le Grange, Botha (2011:164) suggests that space should be created for interculturalism in higher education curricula. This requires that activities designed be infused by "thinking, talking and doing in an intercultural way" and not treated as an add-on approach to curriculum development. Botha (2011:164) makes the following suggestion in this regard:

[A] multicultural context must be changed into an intercultural context. This implies that a context where more than one culture exist next to each other in the same geographical and time space (multicultural) must be transformed to become a context of discovery and transcendence of differences through communication and engagement, leading to mutual reciprocal understanding (intercultural).

To facilitate such transformation, space needs to be created in the curriculum for own and other cultures to be explored, discussed, accepted, understood and appreciated through strategies such as conversation and storytelling, critical engagements, thinking and rethinking, as well as knowing (Botha, 2011). Thus, the activities developed should enable students and lecturers to express the way they know what they know, so as to enable continuous improvement and transformation of the self and social reality (Allen, 2015; Botha, 2011; Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Cary, 2006; Entwistle, 2009; Fryer, 2006; Goodman, 2010; McCormick, 1999).

The discussion about the student and the lecturer as important elements to be considered in curriculum development in the context of internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse should be considered in relation to the types of curricula that were discussed in Section (3.5). Many of these types of curricula, such as student-centred curriculum, problem-based curriculum, project-based curriculum and service-learning curriculum assume roles of students and lecturers to be considered (3.5.3–3.5.6).

Drawing on the work of Doll (1989), Jacobs *et al.* (2011) and Wood (2011), some of these roles were identified:

- Lecturers and students contribute to the learning process.
- Lecturers are not only facilitators, but they themselves are also in a position to learn.
- The class is inspired by a democratic culture which includes respect between lecturers and students, and between students themselves.
- The class are enthusiastic and intrinsically motivated to learn more.
- The class encourage and embrace critical thinkers who are tolerant towards less privileged individuals.
- Students' own positive disposition to learn assists them in mastering the necessary skills.
- Lecturers and students' thinking skills are mutually developed. This develops creativity and results in empowerment.

3.6.3 The practice of the approach

Practice necessitates that we consider how to think about the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies and how to act through this approach. Scott (2008:141) suggests a series of questions to facilitate thinking about and acting upon curriculum development in a postmodern era:

- What knowledge should be included in a curriculum and what should be excluded, and why?
- How should knowledge be arranged in the curriculum?
- What should the relationship be between academic knowledge and pedagogical knowledge?

Apple (2010:658) suggests we also ask: "What can Curriculum Studies scholars as critical educators do to change existing educational and social inequalities and to create curricula and teaching that are more socially just?" More recently, Du Preez and Reddy (2014:199) challenged curriculum scholars who wish to employ the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies as an approach to curriculum development to consider the following:

- What exactly do we mean when we advocate transdisciplinarity in Curriculum Studies?
- What does transdisciplinarity mean for the types of knowledge (or content) that we include in a curriculum?
- What does transdisciplinarity mean for scholars and researchers who engage with Curriculum Studies?

In summation, it is evident from the above discussion about the nature and the elements of curriculum development based on the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse that we should seriously concern ourselves with the historical aspects of Curriculum Studies as a discipline. This should be done with due consideration given to the discipline's contemporary local and global discourses. In addition, we should adopt a participative approach and involve as many individuals or groups in the curriculum development process as possible to enhance the relevance and

representivity of the curriculum. It follows that it is important to understand that the practice of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse should be aimed at enhancing self-understanding and harnessing the ability and skills to be critical (Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Doll, 1989; Grundy, 1987; Ngara, 1995; Slattery, 2006).

Some shortcomings related to the use of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach are similar to other praxis-oriented theories. According to Jacobs *et al.* (2011), such shortcomings include the following:

- Too much emphasis is placed on the teaching-learning process and the curriculum content is often neglected.
- Some lecturers and students may become too critical and radical.
- It might become difficult to maintain discipline in the classroom.
- Assessment might become difficult if learning outcomes are not spelt out clearly.

Based on the exploration of the questions of curriculum, and curriculum development theories and practices, Figure 3-1 below outlines the scholarly suggestions regarding developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education.

The nature of the programme

- Prioritising the praxis approach theory to curriculum development
- The notion of Curriculum Studies as *currere*
- The growth of the Curriculum Studies discipline and its discourses; in particular the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse
- Key attributes of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies which are: verticality and horizontality structures, and deliberative nature of the process of curriculum development

The elements of the programme

- Aims:** derived from all curriculum stakeholders
- Milieu:** various social-cultural contexts behind the developed curriculum
- Content:** Curriculum Studies its discourses and trends; interdisciplinary-oriented, transdisciplinary-oriented, aesthetic; lead to the transformation and empowerment of students in their profession and specialisation; include multi-research methodologies
- Activities:** autobiographical, individuals and groups are involved in learning, podcasts and remote sensing, infusing interculturalism aspects in the curriculum; the process and the praxis -oriented types of curricula which inform various activities
- Students:** central to learning, considered as individuals and as groups
- Lecturers:** facilitators and curriculum-makers, also involved in the learning process
- Assessment:** learning outcomes should be used to direct flexible teaching and learning processes

The practice of the programme

- How to think:** questions related to current matters regarding Curriculum Studies discipline and its discourses
- How to act:** develop a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse

Figure 3-1: Scholarly contributions to developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education

3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter explored approaches to curriculum development so as to formulate an understanding of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies as an approach to curriculum development. This was done to inform the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education, which is one of the main aims in this study (1.4a).

The chapter explored curriculum development theories in order to illuminate how curriculum programmes could be developed. Based on the internationalisation approach that I adopted, the following two attributes were of particular concern: (i) curriculum development should always be based on the verticality and the horizontality structures of the discipline and (ii), as many stakeholders as possible should be involved in the process of curriculum development so as to increase its relevancy both locally and globally (3.6.1).

The internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse is a result of postmodern Curriculum Studies discourses which suggest that curriculum development should be aligned to the needs of society and in particular the students in teacher education (3.6.2). This implies the following: considering the contemporary social, economic and political contexts in curriculum development, involving different educational stakeholders in deliberating about the aims and elements of curriculum development, teaching-learning interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary content which engages with national and international trends in Curriculum Studies discipline. The content should embrace discourse on historical events and present circumstances; using praxis-oriented teaching-learning methods, students should be considered central to teaching-learning activities; learning outcomes should direct teaching and learning process; and teachers should be seen as active curriculum developers and facilitators of teaching and learning. Such an approach, involving the aforementioned elements, might assist in transforming and empowering both lecturers and students. In addition, the discourse necessitates that we consider how to think about the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies and how to act through this approach (3.6.3). In the light of this, teacher education in Tanzania might benefit from an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach to curriculum development. The next chapter provides detail about the research design, methodology, methods and processes employed to conduct this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN, METHODOLOGY, METHODS AND PROCESSES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the research design that assisted in providing answers to the research questions presented in Section 1.4. Research designs are the overall plans and procedures used in the process of conducting research (Creswell, 2014). Scholars have identified three research designs: qualitative research, quantitative research, and mixed methods research. A qualitative research design was chosen for this study because it enables the inquirer to engage individuals or groups in the process of exploring a problem (Creswell, 2014; Merriam, 2002). The other characteristics of a qualitative design which were useful for this study – as pointed out by Creswell (2014) and Merriam (2002) – were that it allows a researcher to explore a phenomenon from different philosophical or theoretical stances; the researcher is the primary agent in generating and analysing the data; and it enables the researcher to strive to understand the meaning constructed by research participants. Situations are understood in their uniqueness as part of a particular nature of the context and their interactions. This understanding is an end in itself; the future is not predicted necessarily. Furthermore, the process of research is inductive; that is, researchers generate data to build concepts, hypotheses or theories where theory is lacking or where existing theories fail. Finally, the product of qualitative research is richly descriptive, complex and extensive. Words and pictures are used to convey what the researchers have learnt about a phenomenon.

The research design consisted of the following five components: (i) a pragmatic paradigm, was used to navigate the methodology; (ii) a pragmatic intervention design and development methodology were employed to conduct the study; (iii) purposive sampling was used to select participants from research sites in Tanzania and in South Africa; (iv) data were generated using methods such as historical research, document research and interviews; and (v) Critical Discourse Analysis of a dialectical-relational approach was used as the method to analyse the data.

Furthermore, I adhered to certain criteria were for the purpose of trustworthiness of the research design and the research findings. The ethical aspects of research were considered in the entire study. Before engaging with each of the research design components in detail, a brief background about historical forms of curriculum inquiry were provided. The background assisted in understanding some of the approaches, methodologies and methods already used to inquire into the Curriculum Studies discipline which enabled me to better situate my own research design components.

4.2 HISTORICAL FORMS OF CURRICULUM INQUIRY

Several scholars, such as Fang He (2010a), Kliebard (1987, 1992), Pinar (1997) and Schubert (2010a), elaborate on the Western orientations and historical movements of inquiry into Curriculum Studies. In this section, I discuss forms of curriculum inquiry based on the four main historical paradigms: traditionalist, conceptual-empiricist, reconceptualist, and from the 1980s to the present (2.2.2.1.1–2.2.2.1.5). Following the history of Western movements in Curriculum Studies, it is possible to trace and identify scientific research and social science research types conducted in the discipline. It should be noted that several scholars note that these forms have been used simultaneously without replacing the existing ones (Fang He, 2010b; Schubert, 2010a). These forms of curriculum inquiry seemed resourceful and are still being applied by curriculum scholars at present.

4.2.1 Traditionalist forms of curriculum inquiry

According to Pinar (1997), the traditionalist curriculum inquirers focused on curriculum inquiry into the broad context of classrooms and school settings. These inquiries were mainly done by school personnel who were less interested in “basic research, theory development and related developments in allied fields” (Pinar, 1997:122). However, the work of Newlon, Taylor and Kuhn influenced much of the traditionalist forms of inquiry (Pinar, 1997; Joseph, 2010c; Schubert, 2010a). The traditionalist inquirers came to employ the “bureaucratic model” in their inquiry work (Kliebard, 1992:115). The inquiry forms were framed by scientific techniques and principles based on identification of specific activities in students, as well as identification of general and specific objectives (Bobbitt, 1997; Kliebard, 1987, 1992). The principles of specific activities included “habits, skills, abilities, forms of thought, valuations and ambitions” (Bobbitt, 1997:11). The objectives of these researchers were considered to be practical, precise and measurable (Bobbitt, 1997; Kliebard, 1987, 1992). As a result, curriculum scholars conducted basic research based mostly on experimental laboratory methods (Bobbitt, 1997; Kliebard, 1992). Further, most traditionalist inquirers employed Tyler’s objective-oriented model in curriculum development. This model is based on the four main questions of curriculum development (3.3.1). However, Fang He (2010a) notes that more forms of curriculum inquiry emerged as curriculum inquirers questioned the traditional ways of engaging in the research processes. For instance, Pinar (1997:122) comments that Tyler’s model was very theoretical: the approaches, methodologies and methods used for inquiry seemed to be “abstract and usually at variance with what occurs in schools.”

As early as 1938, the curriculum inquiry work of Dewey and Du Bois were acknowledged to have contributed to alternative forms of curriculum inquiry (Fang He, 2010a). Dewey developed a theory of inquiry in which “matter and form are intertwined in a flux of continuous movement among the

past, present, and future situated in context” (Fang He, 2010a:213). The theory implies that “conception without perception is empty and perception without conception is blind” (*ibid.*). Thus, human experience becomes the primary purpose of curriculum inquiry (Fang He, 2010a). Du Bois professed activist orientations to curriculum work (Fang He, 2010a). The theory connects “the persons with the political, the theoretical with the practical, and research with equity, equality, and justice” (Fang He, 2010a:214). The influences of these theories on curriculum inquiry are evident in the forms of curriculum inquiry that are discussed next.

4.2.2 Conceptual-empiricist forms of curriculum inquiry

According to Pinar (1997), there was an existing relationship between school personnel (traditionalists) and the conceptual-empiricists. Despite this relationship, the work of school personnel on curriculum inquiry became unstable due to a lack of funds for in-service work, and the implementation of curriculum work resulted from the national curriculum reform movement of the 1960s. For this reason, the work of the school personnel was questioned (2.2.2.1.3). This resulted in the conceptual-empiricist work becoming more influential in the field of education and curriculum in particular (Pinar, 1997). Thus, curriculum inquiries were studied together with other disciplines such as the social sciences and humanities (Fang He, 2010a; Pinar, 1997). The conceptual-empiricist scholars therefore viewed research as socially scientific and dependent upon setting hypotheses, data generation, and interpretation. Some of the conceptual-empiricist scholars such as Schwab, Walker and Posner viewed themselves primarily as psychologists, philosophers, or sociologists with research interest in schools and education (Christodoulou, 2010a; Fang He, 2010a; Pinar, 1997).

According to Fang He (2010a), Schwab advocated three concepts for curriculum inquiry, namely the practical, the four commonplaces of curriculum (learners, teachers, subject matter and milieu), and the situations or contexts of the studied phenomena. Schwab’s fundamental argument on curriculum inquiry processes was that “educational problems are to be examined through multiple research perspectives” (in Roby IV, 2010a:50). This process of inquiry was understood as a “polyfocal conspectus” (*ibid.*). Curriculum inquirers therefore employed integrated forms of inquiry to conduct curriculum research (Roby IV, 2010a, 2010b).

Another form of inquiry is the descriptive method. Pinar (1997:124) comments that Walker proposed “deliberation” or descriptive intent as a core means of the inquiry processes. Walker suggested the application of “the intellectual resources of the field toward improving of the quality of deliberation” (Pinar, 1997:124). For this reason, research results from education and curriculum inquiry were expected to be more effective to societal needs (Pinar, 1997).

4.2.3 Reconceptualist forms of curriculum inquiry

From the 1970s, forms of curriculum inquiry were more oriented towards reconceptualism. The reconceptualist forms of inquiry employed methods which facilitated the 'understanding' of Curriculum Studies phenomena from the past to the present situations (Pinar *et al.*, 1995; Pinar, 1997; Schubert, 2010a). Hermeneutic forms of inquiry were used to interpret metaphoric texts or other educational phenomena (Schubert, 2010a). For instance, Huebner introduced the phenomenological form of inquiry (Fang He, 2010a). Huebner called for an exploration of experience of curriculum through five value frameworks: the technical, the political, the scientific, the aesthetic and the ethical. Other inquirers who busied themselves with phenomenological forms of curriculum inquiries are Macdonald, Willis, Aoki and Van Manen, Pinar and Grumet (Fang He, 2010a). In certain instances, they linked phenomenology with autobiography to study curriculum-related experiences of the past, present and future, as well as the impact of the social milieu on these experiences (Fang He, 2010a).

In this regard, Pinar (1997) and Schubert (2010a) comment that more researchers began to engage in a variety of inquiries to look critically into social and political forces that influenced the nature of curriculum. For instance, Apple, Burton and Molnar are known to have acknowledged the influence of the social-political context in curriculum inquiries. According to Pinar (1997:125-126), these scholars accepted an "ateleological view of historical movement, allying themselves with lower classes whose final emergence from oppression is seen to be inevitable" and part of the "contemporary social order." Further, Willis established critical ethnographic inquiry and portrayed the experience of the poor and working-class youth who were rebelling against school authority who prepared them for working-class jobs (Fang He, 2010a). In addition, Freire pioneered a critical emancipatory theory of inquiry by involving the oppressed Brazilian peasants to liberate themselves through telling their own life stories (*ibid.*).

Another form of inquiry is arts-based educational research which was formulated by Eisner and Barone (Barone, 2010a, 2010b; Fang He, 2010a). Arts-based educational research expands an unfolding orientation to curriculum inquiry that draws inspiration, concepts, processes, and representational forms from the art, as advocated in the work of Knowles and Cole (Barone, 2010a, 2010b; Fang He, 2010a). Arts-based educational research assisted in clarifying and simplifying the understanding of curriculum-related phenomena (Barone, 2010a, 2010b).

4.2.4 Forms of curriculum inquiry from the 1980s to the present

Since the 1980s, Coles called for curriculum inquirers to incorporate narrative, story, autobiography, memoir, fiction, oral history, documentary film, painting and poetry into inquiries in response to the contradictions, diversities, and complexities of human experience (Fang He, 2010a). For instance, the narrative inquiry pioneered by Connelly and Clandinin contributes much in the study of curriculum, teaching and learning (Fang He, 2010a). Recently, Simmonds (2013) researched curriculum implications for gender equity in human rights education in the context of South Africa, and successfully used narrative-photovoice as a methodology. Her methodological contribution to the study illustrated “how one can create a discursive space to engage with controversial topics and promote self-reflexivity” (Simmonds, 2013:296).

Furthermore, Lee (2010) explored how international research is used in curriculum research. International research employs comparative and historical forms of inquiry into Curriculum Studies (Lee, 2010). There are two main issues of concern in international comparative curriculum research, namely (i) that “one nation’s curriculum and its curriculum-making processes can be explained by common international or global context”, and (ii) the extent to which “the particular social cultural context of single national system should be taken into account” (Lee, 2010:497). Lee (2010) consequently argues that international comparative curriculum research should consider either of the following perspectives in its approach: a social cohesion perspective (based on theory of societal system), a socio-structural perspective (based on class and status theory), a world system perspective (based on world-system theory), or an administrative rationality (based on organisational theory).

The basic approaches to international comparative curriculum research discussed by Lee (2010) are:

- The international curriculum discourses approach involves researchers from different countries offering interpretations of a specific problem from their culture-specific perspectives. After rounds of negotiations and discussion, these researchers typically arrive at a common or consensual understanding of concepts and/or develop operational definitions.
- The internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach facilitates international curriculum inquiry through enriching curriculum discourses through different cultural or cross-cultural perspectives. Areas addressed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach cover the verticality and horizontality features of the research field (2.3 & 3.6).

- The transnational curriculum inquiry approach resulted from the process of globalisation in which national spaces, identities and economic boundaries are undone and become homogenised. Transnational curriculum inquiry encourages the internationalisation of curriculum inquiry through performance of local knowledge traditions and ways of knowing in curriculum, rather than emphasising the translation of local representations of curriculum inquiry into universalised discourses and practices.

The other form of curriculum inquiry that different Curriculum Studies inquirers have used successfully is intervention research, introduced by Thomas and Rothman (1994a). In the South African context, Du Preez and Roux (2008), for instance, employed critical theory as a paradigm to frame participative intervention research, in their study on the development of professional programmes for in-service teachers. This methodology assisted the inquirers in applying some of the methodological insights of intervention facets to a particular case study (Du Preez & Roux, 2008). The findings indicated that critical participative intervention research can “recentre the teacher, making professional development something done with teachers and not to teachers” (Du Preez & Roux, 2008:77).

Evident from the discussion hitherto is that qualitative research approaches have become very significant in Curriculum Studies. Several reasons can be provided for this: first, qualitative research allows for exploration, understanding and description of Curriculum Studies problems within different paradigms and contexts (Fang He, 2010b; Schubert, 2010a). Second, the work of Schwab on educational commonplaces signifies the importance of researchers, research participants and practitioners acting together in educational situations (Fang He, 2010b; Joseph, 2010a; Roby IV, 2010b). The notion of togetherness is evidently being applied in qualitative research, such as the intervention research and action research methodologies (Jacobs, 2014; Thomas & Rothman, 1994a). Third, according to Fang He (2010a), the work of Eisner on educational research has brought recognition of multiple forms of inquiry that broadened the understanding of how to transform educational research into significant educational practices. Thus, qualitative inquiries in Curriculum Studies engage in societal issues such as “equity, equality, social justice, and societal change” (Fang He, 2010b:703). Based on my exploration of historical forms of curriculum inquiry and the significance of qualitative research in Curriculum Studies, I was in a better position to make decisions about research design for this study that is in line with contemporary Curriculum Studies approaches.

4.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM: PRAGMATISM

Research paradigms are considered to influence the practice of research since paradigms entail different frameworks for research design, methodology and methods (Creswell, 2014; Garrison & Neiman, 2005; Mertens, 2015; Paul, Graffam & Fowler, 2005; Peirce, 2003). According to Mertens

(2015), pragmatism is understood within two historical periods beginning with an early period from 1860 to 1930. Early pragmatists were Peirce, James, Mead, Bentley and Dewey. The other period was from 1960 to the present. Some pragmatists who are acknowledged within this period and who extended the work of the early pragmatists are Kaplan, Rorty and West.

Creswell (2014) suggests that pragmatism could be an option when inquiring into curriculum matters. The philosophical principles and assumptions of pragmatism are based on “actions, situations and consequences” (Creswell, 2014:10). Pragmatism provided the necessary framework to research the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in the context of Tanzania in higher education. Creswell (2014) outlined the following pragmatist framework of research which was employed in this study:

- Pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality. Inquirers apply research approaches both from qualitative and quantitative assumptions.
- Individual researchers have a freedom of choosing methods, techniques, and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes.
- Pragmatist researchers look at what and how to inquire based on the intended consequences of the studied phenomenon.
- Pragmatists agree that research always occurs in social, historical, political, and other contexts.

4.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY: PRAGMATIC INTERVENTION DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT

Pragmatic intervention design and development was employed as the research methodology in this study. Coe (2012), Creswell (2014) and Nieuwenhuis (2007a) note that scholars ought to select a research paradigm and methodologies that will steer them toward selecting appropriate methods for generating and analysing data. This enables researchers to find possible answers to the research questions they have posed. The pragmatic intervention design and development methodology was important to this study because it revealed how to merge the phases of design and development and the inquiry processes opted for in exploring the research questions. The methodology therefore had the potential to provide both theoretical and pragmatic solutions related to the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania; informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse.

I next explain the research methodology that assisted me in coming up with findings for the studied problem. To clarify this methodology, it is necessary to begin by providing an overview of intervention research and specifically the rationale for using the design and development facet

thereof. The section ends with a discussion about the relevance of the methodology used in the study.

4.4.1 Intervention research

As a form of applied research, the focus of intervention research is to provide practical applications to research questions. Thomas and Rothman (1994a:3) argue that intervention research deals with questions such as the following:

- How to research and make appropriate use of available research findings which have potential application;
- How research methodology may be used to design and develop human service technology; and
- How research for practical use in human service differs from conventional behavioural and social service research.

According to Thomas and Rothman (1994a:3), there are three main facets of intervention research (Figure 4-1 below):

- Empirical research to extend knowledge of human behaviour relating to human service intervention, referred to as intervention knowledge development;
- The means by which the findings from the intervention knowledge development research may be linked to, and utilised in practical application; that is, intervention knowledge utilisation; and
- Research directed toward developing innovative interventions identified as intervention design and development.

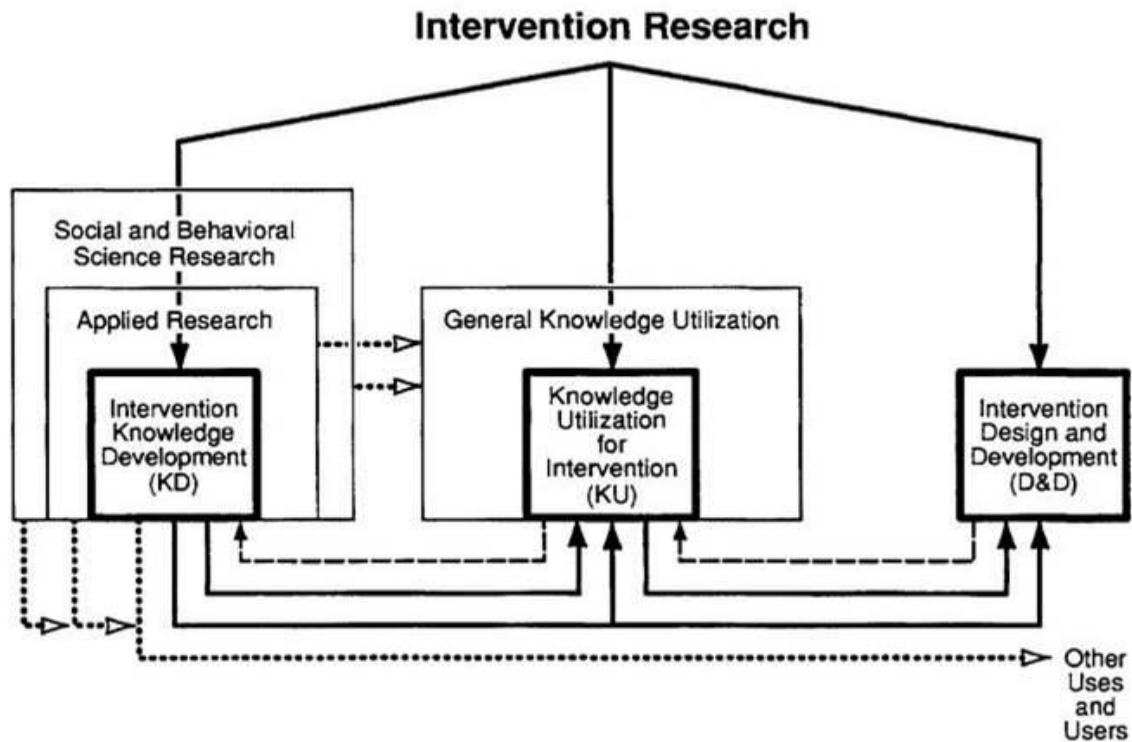


Figure 4-1: Facets of intervention research and some of their interrelationships (taken from Thomas & Rothman, 1994a:5)

Figure 4-1 illustrates the three facets of intervention research. According to Thomas and Rothman (1994a), the intervention knowledge development facet sheds light on the knowledge utilisation as well as on the design and development facets by generating findings which could be applied to the understanding and/or solution of practical problems. Thus, the intervention knowledge utilisation facet engages with the application of findings from the knowledge development facet so as to create an understanding of phenomena being explored (Thomas & Rothman, 1994a). The intervention design and development facet aims to construct a systematic methodology for inquiry about a problem which needs human service interventions (Fawcett, Suarez-Balcazar, Balcazar, White, Paine, Blanchard & Embree, 1994; Thomas & Rothman, 1994a). In addition, according to Thomas and Rothman (1994a), researchers who employ intervention research can engage in each of the three facets separately. This implies that researchers do not have always to engage in all the facets when inquiring about a particular phenomenon.

4.4.2 Processes of the intervention design and development

Fawcett *et al.* (1994), Rothman (1994a, 1994b) and Thomas and Rothman (1994a) argue that the intervention design and development facet can be conducted independently without integrating it with the intervention knowledge development and knowledge utilisation facets. Different from other types of problem-solving research, the design and development facet is “systematic, deliberate and immersed in research procedures, techniques and other instrumentalities” (Thomas & Rothman, 1994a:12). According to Fawcett *et al.* (1994:26), the intervention design and development facet consists of six main phases, namely “problem analysis and project planning, information gathering and synthesis, design, early development and pilot testing, evaluation and advanced development, and dissemination.” The intervention design and development phases are ideally linear and presented in a stepwise sequence (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Thomas & Rothman, 1994a). However, activities involved in most phases could not only continue after the introduction of the next phase but also sometimes loop back to earlier phases, as difficulties are encountered or new information is obtained (Rothman, 1994a; Thomas & Rothman, 1994a).

Each phase of the intervention design and development facet has distinctive operations and activities that need to be performed in order to complete the work of that phase. Fawcett *et al.* (1994) as well as Thomas and Rothman (1994a) describe the various operations and activities under each phase of the design and development facet, as discussed next.

4.4.2.1 Problem analysis and project planning phase

In the first phase of the intervention design and development facet, researchers are usually involved in operations and activities such as first, “identifying and involving clients” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:27). Individuals or groups of clients (research participants) who are concerned about a specific problem could also identify the problem (Thomas & Rothman, 1994a). Researchers choose people with whom to collaborate in order to specify the “specific targets and goals of the intervention” (*ibid.*). Thus, intervention researchers stand a greater chance of being supported by the research stakeholders.

The second operation involves the researchers “gaining entry and cooperation from settings” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:29). The researchers make “conversation” with “key informers” in order to be aware of how best to conduct the intervention research with the “potential participants and members of the group or organisation” (*ibid.*). In so doing, those who give information about the problem obtain a sense of ownership of the research and this could support plans of the study.

During the third operation, researchers “[identify] concerns of the population” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:29) by relying on informal personal contacts and/or key informers like leaders to generate

information about the problem. Fawcett *et al.* (1994:30) suggest methods for generating information as a means of problem analysis which include “interviews, consultations, door-to-door canvassing and group contexts such as community forums.” Close collaboration with the research participants clarifies the research agenda.

The fourth operation is “analysing identified problems” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:30) which involves finding out more about the conditions underlying the problems that will be addressed in the research. The problems can be analysed by using questions which have been formulated to cover the scope of the research goals.

The fifth operation is “setting goals and objectives” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:31). According to Fawcett *et al.* (1994:31), goals refer to “the broad conditions or outcomes that are desired by the community of interest.” Broad goals intend to specify the outcomes that are the end results of the overall intervention research process. Objectives are “those more specific changes in programmes, policies, or practice that are believed to contribute to the broader goal” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:31). The stated goals and objectives help to clarify the proposed outcomes and means of the intervention research project as well as to structure the phase of information gathering and synthesis (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994).

4.4.2.2 *Information gathering and synthesis phase*

The aim of information gathering and synthesis is to acquire knowledge or information for the problems identified in the earlier phase. Sources for acquiring information include “existing information sources” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:32). Such sources could be literature of the particular field, computerised data bases and methods which give researchers access to the knowledge of other fields. This is because social problems seem to derive from different contextual disciplines (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994). Another source of information is “studying natural examples” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:32). Information could be generated through observing how community members face similar problems, and how they have attempted to find solutions to the problems (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994). In addition, information is generated through studying the practices of successful and unsuccessful programmes. This could help to understand challenges which might be encountered during the development phase or other phases of intervention research. According to Rothman (1994b:2), studying natural examples could help to “supplement and specify existing information.” The last way of gathering information is through “identifying functional elements of successful models” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:33). The aim is to understand the potentially useful elements of an intervention so that researchers can design and develop activities for the remaining phases (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Rothman, 1994b).

4.4.2.3 Design phase

In the design phase the researchers busy themselves with activities such as: transcribing, transforming, filtering and/or coding the data so that the results may be incorporated into the design process (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Thomas & Rothman, 1994a). There are two types of data results that emanate from the intervention design and development facet: first, “the research data that may demonstrate relationships between the intervention and the behaviours or outcomes that define the problem of interest procedures” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:34), and second, “the intervention which may include a strategy technique or programme” (*ibid.*). The two operations that are involved in the design phase are “design and observation” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:34). This is the first operation where the researchers refine and use the data strategically in order to meet the intervention goals. The data could assist by suggesting a site for pilot testing (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Rothman, 1994b). The second operation is “specifying procedural elements of the intervention” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:35). Researchers design intervention strategies such as guide books, for example, to facilitate the intervention (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Rothman, 1994b).

4.4.2.4 Early development and pilot testing phase

Three operations are involved in the early development and pilot testing phase. The first is “developing a prototype or preliminary intervention” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:36). This can be done through workshops, telephone consultation, peer-mediated instruction, or other ways of communicating the intervention to intended users. The second operation is “conducting a pilot test” (*ibid.*). The aim of a pilot test is to determine “if the intervention will work” as well as to determine “the effectiveness of the intervention and identify which elements of the prototype may need to be revised” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:37). The third operation is “applying design criteria for the preliminary intervention concept” (*ibid.*). Common guidelines and values for intervention research can be used to provide feedback to ensure that the intervention research meets the required standards for implementation in the field (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Rothman, 1994b).

4.4.2.5 Evaluation and advanced development phase

The fifth phase, the evaluation and advanced phase, involves establishing a plan for more extensive and controlled intervention. This is done by using a broad sample of participants and selecting an evaluation approach in order to engage in the evaluation operations (Rothman, 1994b). There are four operations involved. The first, which is “selecting an experimental design” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:37), involves appropriate methods and procedures for evaluating the study (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Rothman, 1994b). The second operation is “collecting and analysing data” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:38). The data collected from the pilot test are analysed for the purpose of improving the study. Two or more methods of collecting data could be used to ensure the reliability or replicability of the

findings. The third operation is “replicating the intervention under field conditions” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:38). This assists in assessing the generality of the effects of the intervention. The fourth operation is “refining the intervention” for the purpose of standard practice application (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:39).

4.4.2.6 Dissemination phase

After the community intervention has been field tested and evaluated, the intervention is ready to be disseminated to its targeted audiences. Operations involved in this phase include “preparing the product for dissemination” which involves “choosing a brand name, establishing a price and setting standards for the intervention’s use” (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:41). These operations assist in “maintaining the integrity of the product, identifying the potential markets/users for the intervention, and creating demand for the intervention by using strategies such as modelling, sampling and advertising” (*ibid.*). Other operations include “encouraging appropriate adaptation” by employing current innovations, and “providing technical support for adopters” in need of assistance (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994:43).

4.4.3 Processes of pragmatic intervention design and development methodology

In this study the pragmatic intervention design and development methodology involved four main phases which only included problem analysis and proposal writing, generating the data, synthesising the data, and design. The phases are explained in a step-wise manner but, in reality, the design and development facet are typically conducted in a cyclic manner. I checked and rechecked and repeated most activities involved in the different operations for accuracy purposes. Table 4-1 outlines the phases, operations and activities of the pragmatic intervention design and development methodology.

Table 4-1: Phases, operations and selected activities of the pragmatic intervention design and development methodology (adapted from Du Preez, 2008:126; Thomas & Rothman, 1994a:11)

Problem Analysis and Proposal Writing			
Identify a problem in the context of teaching curriculum-related courses Draft a research proposal under study (PhD format requirements) Refine the proposal via promoters, colleagues Evaluate the proposal: critical readers, academic committee and ethics committee	Generating the Data		
	Generate the data through: - historical research by reading existing body of scholarship - document research by selecting existing documents - interviews (one-to-one and focus groups) Checklist the process of data generation Store the data	Synthesising the Data	
		Synthesise body of scholarship and write up chapters Synthesise quality of document Transcribe interviews Describe/present, interpret, and discuss the data	Design
			Use outcomes of interventions to design guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme under study Use existing related curriculum programmes to understand the proposed guidelines under study Use national (Tanzanian) curriculum development guidelines to screen the proposed guidelines under study Finalise the structure of the proposed guidelines for use

4.4.3.1 Problem analysis and proposal writing phase

During the first phase of conducting the pragmatic intervention design and development methodology, I was influenced by my own experience of teaching and the emerging need to develop a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania which would be aligned with the contemporary needs (1.2). Thereafter, as a PhD student I proposed to conduct research titled *A Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania: an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach* as a way of addressing the research question (1.4). For this reason, the context of problem analysis was aligned with the format of writing a PhD proposal. The problem analysis phase considered two main operations which involved several activities. The operations were first, to write a research proposal in collaboration with my promoter. Collaboration was facilitated mainly through one-to-one discussions and communication through e-mail. The format of the proposal used was that of the Faculty of Education Sciences, North-West University, Potchefstroom campus (NWU, 2014). The goal of problem analysis was to meet the proposal requirements for the study which included the following activities:

- Suggesting a working title for the study and clarifying key concepts used in the study
- Identifying the problem and the lacunae in the scholarship which suggested the need for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania
- Formulating the main research question and sub-questions
- Formulating research objectives in relation to research questions
- Overviewing evidence through the body of scholarship
- Overviewing evidence from the body of scholarship to inform my research methodology:
 - Identifying the research philosophy which will enhance the intervention to take place
 - Identifying the methodology appropriate for the study
 - Identifying the sampling method for the study which included study sites and participants
 - Identifying methods of data generation
 - Identifying method of analysing the data
 - Describing quality criteria for ensuring trustworthiness of the data
 - Describing evidence of adhering to the university Research Ethics Committee guidelines since I was to undertake an empirical study
- Summarising the study with regard to its potential theoretical, methodology, and contextual contributions.

4.4.3.2 Data generation phase

The second phase of the pragmatic intervention design and development methodology dealt with data generation. In the process of generating the data for the study, I involved myself with two main operations: reading and analysing, and interviewing. First, through the historical research method of data generation, I explored the existing body of scholarship related to the discipline of Curriculum Studies. Analysis of the body of scholarship helped me to understand the conceptual frameworks and theorists underpinning the study as well as the breadth and depth of the discipline. I also generated the data from reading and analysing relevant and existing documents obtained from the research sites (4.6.1). These documents provided past and current information related to the study (MacCulloch, 2012; Mertens, 2015).

In the second and the last operation, I generated the data from interviewing participants in their natural environments, who shared examples related to their views on the studied phenomenon (4.6.2). One-to-one interviews were conducted with the heads of departments, the subject chair, and the lecturers (4.6.2.1) and focus group interviews were conducted with the postgraduate students (4.6.2.2). In addition, I used a checklist guide to ensure that I had generated the data accordingly through the chosen methods and stored the generated data.

4.4.3.3 Data synthesis phase

After the data were generated, the third phase of synthesising the data commenced. It entailed two operations: synthesising and analysing the data. First, the synthesised data from the historical research were written up into appropriate chapters (Chapters 1, 2 & 3). The data from the documents were also synthesised for quality purposes. The interviews were transcribed and filtered with due consideration to the research questions. The second operation entailed the description/presentation, interpretation, and discussion of the data through the dialectical-relational approach to Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 1992). The information on the second operation was written up in two chapters (Chapters 5 & 6). At the end of this phase I could come up with suggested responses to the research questions which were written up in Chapter 7.

4.4.3.4 Design phase

The fourth phase, design, had only one main operation. I designed guidelines for developing a postgraduate Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. This was the first practical application of the pragmatic intervention design and development outcomes. The guidelines that were designed emerged from the research findings on the nature and the elements of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education mentioned earlier. This operation required that I study the process

of a successful, similar set of guidelines from one of the universities which offered a Curriculum Studies programme at postgraduate level. Knowledge about the guidelines assisted me in structuring the proposed guidelines without changing the content. Furthermore, the guidelines that I designed were aligned with national curriculum development guidelines as stipulated in the National Qualifications Framework and the University Qualifications Framework (Tanzania, 2010, 2012). This operation was very important for this study for two reasons: one is that it ensured that the proposed curriculum design guidelines could be considered applicable in the context of teacher education in higher education in Tanzania. The other was to ensure that the designed guidelines could also be used to assist in conducting the other phases, operations and activities of the intervention design and development facet even after the completion of this study.

4.4.4 Relevance of pragmatic intervention design and development methodology to the study

Pragmatic intervention design and development methodology was relevant to this study for the following reasons: the methodology allowed for a systematic inquiry in the study (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Thomas & Rothman, 1994a, 1994b).

Furthermore, this methodology is very interactive in nature (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Thomas & Rothman, 1994a). The research participants, university colleagues, promoters and I interacted in different phases of the study. These collaborations helped me to ensure more effective outcomes of the interventions.

The understanding of intervention design and development as research methodology made it possible for me to contribute to literature on the use of intervention research, specifically as regards design and development. Literature on intervention research in the context of teacher education in higher education in Tanzania might assist and encourage other education researchers. Future research could also focus on other intervention research facets of knowledge development and knowledge utilisation (Thomas & Rothman, 1994a, 1994b).

In terms of knowledge production systems, the methodology contributed to mode 2 and 3 knowledge production which is considered important in Curriculum Studies inquiries in postmodern times (2.4). Understanding of complex contexts and their dynamic structures is enhanced through such a methodology (2.4.4).

However, the methodology used presented some challenges. First, the work of intervention research demands in-depth knowledge and skills of research designs (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994). The researcher ought to be aware of how intervention design and development as methodology informs

the method of sampling, methods of generating the data, presentation/description, interpretation and discussion of the data as well as adherence to research ethics.

If the research design components are overlooked, then the intervention processes can be impeded. Second, the intervention design and development methodology requires understanding of appropriate research contexts related to the study, such as the context of the research problem, the context of historical sources of data, and the context of discussing research participants' views. If various research contexts are generalised then the outcomes of the interventions become less applicable to the research problem under exploration.

4.5 RESEARCH SITES AND PARTICIPANTS

The first phase of pragmatic intervention design and development methodology – problem analysis and proposal writing – included identifying the research sites where the research was to be conducted, as well as the participants for the study (4.4.3.1). According to Creswell (2014), the idea behind qualitative research is to purposefully select research sites and participants that will best help the researcher to gain an understanding of the research phenomenon. Mertens (2015) refers to sampling as the method used to select a given number of participants or things from an entire community. Matters to consider when selecting a sample include “from whom data will be collected, who is included, how they are included and what is done to conceal or reveal identities” (*ibid.*). Pascoe (2014) comments that qualitative research usually requires drawing a representative sample size of participants who share the characteristics of the larger community. Their responses to the research questions should be closely related to what the responses would have been if the entire community were included. In similar vein, Mertens (2015:343) comments that in qualitative research “the sample size decisions are a bit dynamic”; thus, a researcher can make decisions depending on the nature of the study itself.

The sampling method undertaken for this study is referred to as nonprobability purposive sampling (Laher & Botha, 2012; Maree & Pietersen, 2007; Pascoe, 2014; Wellington, 2000). Nonprobability sampling is used when it is difficult to gain access to the entire community; or sometimes people are included in a sample because they are available and willing to participate in the study (Laher & Botha, 2012; Pascoe, 2014; Wellington, 2000). Mostly, the choice of sampling methods is determined and influenced by the context of the research and the resources that are available at the time (Laher & Botha, 2012; Wellington, 2000). Research scholars explain that the purposive sampling type is used in specific situations where the sampling is done with a specific purpose in mind. Thus, the researcher relies on his/her own experience or previous research reports to find the participants (Laher & Botha, 2012; Maree & Pietersen, 2007; Pascoe, 2014; Wellington, 2000). Maree and Pietersen (2007) and Pascoe (2014) assert that the main advantage of purposive

sampling methods is that the researcher can be ensured that most participants will in fact assist in the generation of data because each participant fits the study. In addition, there are a number of considerations that should be considered when a sample is selected. These include the availability of enough funds, length of time in the field, and the type of recording equipment.

Regarding the research sites, Maree and Van der Westhuizen (2007) as well as Thomas and Rothman (1994a) state that it is important to select research sites that are suitable and feasible for developing the study. Research sites were selected after considering the nature of this study and the nature of academic programmes offered in different universities in Tanzania and in South Africa. The sites involved in this study were five universities. Two were government universities and the other two non-government universities in Tanzania. The fifth university was a government university in South Africa. The five sites were important for this study because they offer postgraduate education programmes for teacher education. The Tanzanian universities only offer Curriculum Studies modules on Master's level that includes course work. In South Africa, the Master's degree in Curriculum Studies contains no course work. For this reason, I explored their BEdHons to gain an understanding of the content covered in Curriculum Studies.

The participants selected for this study were categorised into three groups: the first group were participants who academically manage Curriculum Studies or educational programmes. These were five programme leaders. One leader was selected from each university. The programme leaders have experience in curriculum-related programmes. The second group were lecturers who teach modules in which Curriculum Studies feature. These lecturers therefore had ample experience and knowledge about the subject. The initial plan was to select at least two lecturers per university, which could have given a total of ten lecturers for the study. However, only six lecturers from the five universities were available. The third group were postgraduate students who were assumed to have different levels of learning and understanding of Curriculum Studies. In total, 23 postgraduate students were able to participate in the study via focus group interviews. Thus, the actual number of participants who were available and voluntarily participated in the study was 34. Through the experiences of these participants, useful data was generated that provided possible responses to the research questions.

4.6 METHODS OF DATA GENERATION

According to Creswell (2014) and Nieuwenhuis (2007a), qualitative methods of data generation demonstrate a naturalistic approach to scientific inquiry of phenomena. As such, the studied phenomena are understood from their real contexts or settings and not in an experimental situation as they are for quantitative methods (Creswell, 2014; Nieuwenhuis, 2007a). As a result, audio-visual

materials, documents, observations and interviews, among other things, are used for data generation purposes (Creswell, 2014; Nieuwenhuis, 2007a).

In this study, the second phase of the pragmatic intervention design and development required me to select appropriate methods of data generation (4.4.3.2).

4.6.1 Historical and document research

Historical research is “a systematic process of describing, analysing and interpreting the past, based on the information from the selected sources as they relate to the topic of study” (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a:72). The analysis of the decisions made in the past, as well as the consequences of these actions, help to show where one comes from, where one is heading to, and assists one in making decisions based on the outcomes of the historical situations (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a; Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014). According to Cohen and Manion (1994), historical research in the field of education is valued because it yields insights into some educational problems that could not be investigated by any other method. It also assists in explaining how the present educational system of a certain country has come about, shows how and why educational theories and practices developed, puts educationists in a position to use former educational practices to evaluate emerging ones, and contributes to explaining the relationship between politics and education, school and society as well as the local and global contexts.

For this study, I opted for historical research as method of data generation in order to understand the past historical movements in the discipline of Curriculum Studies and its discourses (Chapter 2). This helped me to explore and understand ideas on Curriculum Studies as a discipline, as well as curriculum development matters (Chapter 3). As a result, I could contribute ideas on how best a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in the context of Tanzania could be developed at present.

Sources of data in historical research are classified into two categories: primary sources and secondary sources (Best & Kahn, 2003; Cohen & Manion, 1994). Primary sources of data are original sources that inform the particular research phenomena. There are two groups of primary sources, namely “the remains or relics of a given period”, such as skeletons, fossils, weapons, tools, buildings and pictures (Cohen & Manion, 1994:50), and “those items that have had a direct relationship with the events being constructed” as written and oral testimony (*ibid.*).

Some other documents regarded as primary sources are manuscripts, constitutions, charters, laws, official minutes and/or records, files, letters, diaries, memoranda, memoirs, autobiographies, genealogies, official publications, wills, newspapers and magazines, maps, transcriptions, log books, certificates, films, paintings and research reports (Best & Kahn, 2003; Cohen & Manion,

1994). Secondary sources of data are sources that indirectly give information about the particular research phenomena. Documents categorised as secondary sources are quoted materials, most history textbooks, encyclopaedias, and prints of paintings or replicas of arts objects (Best & Kahn, 2003; Cohen & Manion, 1994).

In this study, the available historical evidence types were first, the primary sources of information such as textbooks and academic works about Curriculum Studies from the original authors such as Bobbitt (1997), Kliebard (1987, 1992), Stenhouse (1975), Taba (1962) and Tyler (1949). Second, secondary sources of information were professional publications on Curriculum Studies and teacher education as well as scholarly articles. Encyclopaedias of Curriculum Studies, handbooks of Curriculum Studies and dictionaries were also used to inform the study.

As for document research as method, Duffy (1999), MacCulloch (2012), Mertens (2015) and Nieuwenhuis (2007a) assert that most institutions keep documents and records that trace their history and shed light on current issues. In this study, some documents served as a source of information for understanding current practices in developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education, and others were used to supplement information obtained from historical research and interviews. The documents used in this study were gathered from the identified universities and related institutions involved in the study. Such documents were; university prospectuses, university flyers, teaching guides and national curriculum development guides. The information generated from the documents was firstly summarised by following the framework suggested by Wellington (2000:117).

The framework involves asking the following questions:

- Authorship:
 - Who wrote it? Who are they? What are their position and their bias?
- Context:
 - When was it written? What came before it and after it? How does it relate to previous documents and later ones?
- Audience:
 - Who was it written for? Why them? What assumptions does it make, including assumptions about its audience?
- Production:
 - Where was it produced and when? By whom? What were the social-political and cultural conditions in which it was produced?
- Intention:
 - Why was it written? With what purpose in mind?

- Presentation, appearance and image:
 - How is it presented, e.g. coloured or black and white, glossy paper, highly illustrated? What image does it portray?
- Style, function and genre:
 - In what style was it written? How direct is the language? Is it written to inform, to persuade?

The answers obtained from asking these questions assisted me in becoming aware of not only the literal meaning, but also the interpretative meaning of the documents and the body of scholarship (Wellington, 2000). Thereafter, the summarised data were confidentially stored as hard copies and electronic software copies for the purpose of further analysis (Wellington, 2000).

In addition, it is important to distinguish between the use of historical research and document research as part of the data generation methods in this study. The historical research provided a body of scholarship which gave an overview of scholarship in the studied discipline, through describing past and current research on the studied phenomenon, whereas document research focused on types of written communications that assisted me in understanding possible responses to the research questions.

There are various advantages of historical and document research: the sources used as data already exist and therefore can hardly be tampered with or altered, and the historical and document sources enable an understanding of and provide solutions to contemporary problems. Furthermore, researchers cannot be in all places at all times, so historical and document research gives the researcher access to information that would otherwise be unavailable (Cohen & Manion, 1994; Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2015; Wellington, 2000). However, there are also some disadvantages: in some instances, the available data can be incomplete or inaccurate, the resources may be hard to find and the search for these sources may be time-consuming, and sometimes the information that is found may be difficult to comprehend (Cohen & Manion, 1994; Creswell, 2014; Wellington, 2000).

4.6.2 Participants' experiences: interviews

Bell (1999:135) comments that “[t]he way in which a response is made (the tone of voice, facial expression, hesitation ...) can provide information that a written response would conceal.” Interviews are two-way conversations in which interviewers ask participants questions to learn more about their ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviours (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a; Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014; Wellington, 2000). According to Cohen and Manion (1994), interviews as a method of data generation serves as a means of generating different perspectives related to the study and enhance the trustworthiness of the study when used along with other data generating methods. In this study, a broad interview guide was used to structure the open-ended interviews. According to Cohen and

Manion (1994) as well as Nieuwenhuis (2007a), an open-ended interview takes the form of a conversation with the intention that researchers explore with the participants views, ideas, beliefs and attitudes about certain phenomena (see Appendices J-M). Before commencing with the interviews for this study, each participant was provided with an informed consent form explaining the aims and focus of the study and the processes for conducting interviews (4.9 and Appendix C).

4.6.2.1 One-to-one interviews

I conducted one-to-one interviews with heads of departments and lecturers (Appendix J, K, L & M) from each of the five universities. The interview schedule was structured by using three main types of open-ended questions, namely introductory questions that enabled the participant to start thinking about the topic of conversation, key questions that helped to steer the focus of the conversation, and ending questions which brought the conversation to closure (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a; Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014). Following the nature of research questions and objectives, the three main types of open-ended questions were framed following the theoretical framework of the questions of curriculum (3.2).

Further, strategies such as detailed, oriented and clarification probes were used during conversation for the purpose of understanding the information given and also clarifying or checking whether the information was correctly understood (Best & Kahn, 2003; Nieuwenhuis, 2007a; Wellington, 2000). The recording of information was done on a tape-recorder. Some of the key issues which emerged from the conversation were noted down. The interview sessions took about 30 minutes to one and half hours of conversation, depending on the participant's involvement. The data were transcribed in question-by-question format for each participant. Thereafter, the transcribed data were confidentially stored as hard copies and electronic software copies for analysis purposes. One of the limitations of one-to one interviews is that the researcher's presence may bias the interview responses (Best & Kahn, 2003; Creswell, 2014). For this reason, I explained to the participants that as a researcher I was a learner and I wished to learn from their individual experiences.

4.6.2.2 Focus group interviews

A focus group is "a small group made up of perhaps six to ten individuals with certain common features or characteristics, with whom a discussion can be focused onto a given issue or topic" (Wellington, 2000:124). The main purpose of the focus groups was to generate information so as to understand the key issues under exploration (Rennekamp & Nall, 2004; Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014; Wellington, 2000). This assists in making decisions on how to interpret responses in line with the research questions (Rennekamp & Nall, 2004; Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014; Wellington, 2000). The focus group interviews rely on the "interaction within the group", which differentiates it from one-to-one interviews (Mertens, 2015).

According to Wellington (2000:127), the primary strength of a focus group is the “opportunity for creating and collecting data resulting from group interaction.” The focus group’s interaction allows comments, arguments, agreements and disagreements about the issues raised. Thus, focus groups can provide “evidence of ways that differences are resolved and consensus is built” (Mertens, 2015:382).

In this study, the postgraduate students who were studying Curriculum Studies modules formed one focus group from each university. In total, five different focus group interviews were conducted. It is important to understand that for this study it was not possible to find a minimum number of six participants in each focus group as proposed by some scholars (Creswell, 2014; Nieuwenhuis & Smit, 2012; Rennekamp & Nall, 2004; Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007; Wellington, 2000). This was due to the nature of postgraduate classes at the time of data generation. I noted that the number of enrolled students who study Curriculum Studies differs annually. On average, the number of students who participated in the different focus groups ranged between three and six. The focus group interviews enabled me to engage in a dialogical data generation method (Creswell, 2014). Participants built on each other’s ideas and comments to provide an in-depth view not always attainable from individual interviews (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a).

The interview schedule was structured with five main types of open-ended questions (see Appendices N & O). These questions were framed following the theoretical framework of the questions of curriculum as was the case for the one-to-one interview schedule (4.6.1). In addition, I posed questions, used probing techniques when necessary, and participants were involved freely in discussions. I acted as a facilitator that guided the discussions so as not to wander off the topic. The focus group discussions took about one to two hours depending on the issues and the participants’ involvement. The data from the focus group interviews were tape-recorded. I made notes about some of the key issues that emerged from the discussions. The transcripts were written in question-by- question format for each group for the purpose of capturing what the group had to say regarding each question. The transcribed data were later confidentially stored as hard copies and electronic software copies for analysis purposes. According to Nieuwenhuis (2007a), the role of the facilitator should be balanced and not biased. Nieuwenhuis (2007a:91-92) urges that “too much moderator [facilitator] control means that you hear little of the participants’ own perspectives.” Likewise, “too little moderator control means you hear less about the topic that interests you.” Therefore, I attempted to control the focus group discussion by focusing on the discussion and the key questions for the study.

4.7 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS: CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Data analysis in qualitative research is aimed at transforming data into findings (Bezuidenhout & Cronje, 2014; Creswell, 2014). The process of analysing qualitative data involves segmenting and taking apart the data. Thereafter, the data are put together to elicit meaning from the analysed data (Bezuidenhout & Cronje, 2014; Creswell, 2014). According to Mertens (2015), Schulz (2012) and Weaver-Hightower (2015), several analytic methods can be used to analyse qualitative data. Such methods include content analysis, narrative analysis, computer-based analysis, discourse analysis, and Critical Discourse Analysis. In this study the last method named was employed. The use of Critical Discourse Analysis as method was useful to this study because of the nature of the study itself. This means that I could analyse the literal meaning and the intertextual meaning of data from both the historical and document research, and interviews which enabled me to achieve the research objectives (1.5).

4.7.1 Concept clarification of ‘critical’ and ‘discourse’ as used in critical discourse analysis

The notion ‘critical’ could be understood as a way of reconstructing and reconceptualising research phenomena (Schubert, 2010a). Rogers (2004:4) argues that with regard to the work of most critical social theorists, the term ‘critical’ concerns two agendas: “critiquing and resisting domination and creating a society free of oppression.” Therefore, the word ‘critical’ in Critical Discourse Analysis is understood as an extension from critiquing and resisting to “[designing and forging] alternative ways of representing being, and interacting in the world with the goal of creating a society free of oppression and domination” (Rogers, 2004:5). This implies that Critical Discourse Analysis firstly involves critiquing, which refers to the literary meaning of critique, and secondly extends an understanding of analysis based on the analysis of features of the social contexts within which the phenomenon is situated (Gee, 2004; Rogers, 2004).

The word ‘discourse’ in Critical Discourse Analysis is a term which is conceptualised between the views of “the linguistic and the social” (Rogers, 2004:6). Perspectives for understanding ‘discourse’ in Critical Discourse Analysis derive from scholars of linguistics (Fairclough, 1992; Rogers, 2004). According to these scholars, firstly, meanings are representations of linguistic systems such as genres, gestures, images, identity, world views and building relationships (Fairclough, 1992; Rogers, 2004). Secondly, discourse is understood from the social theories of Michel Foucault (Fairclough, 1992; Rogers, 2004). Here, meanings are constructed within different contexts, i.e. social, historical, political and ideological (Fairclough, 1992; Rogers, 2004; Van Dijk, 1985; Wodak & Meyer, 2008). Further, Foucault’s conceptualisation of discourse as “a social rather than a linguistic category” greatly influenced studies on critical discourse and calls for a different notion of the concept discourse (Rogers, 2004:6). For instance, according to Gee (1999:7), Discourse (D in

capital letter) implies “evolve.” Kress (1985:27) refers to discourse as a “mode of talk”, whilst Fairclough (1992:64) refers to discourse as “a dialectical-relationship.” In this study the concept ‘discourse’ is understood from Norman Fairclough’s position.

Fairclough (1992) agrees with other linguists on the use of the term ‘discourse’ to refer primarily to spoken or written language but extends the meaning of discourse to include printed information and non-verbal communication. Discourse are constituted by social structures with different types of social elements which include an economic structure, social relations, social classes and identities, individuals with their cultural values such as beliefs, attitudes and histories, semiosis and consciousness (Fairclough, 1992, 2004; Wodak & Meyer, 2008). Fairclough (1992:63) regards language use as “a form of social practice.” This implies firstly that “discourse is a mode of action” in which people can act upon each other and upon a group or groups. Discourse is also a “mode of representation” (Fairclough, 1992:63). Secondly, in language use there is a dialectical relationship between discourse and social structure. This relationship extends to a position between social practice and social structure (Fairclough, 1992). As a result, social structure becomes a condition for and an effect of social practice. Discourse is “shaped and constrained” by social structure at different levels and is “socially constitutive” (Fairclough, 1992:64). The constitutive nature of discourse can be distinguished by three aspects, which are the social identity and one’s own identity with regard to that particular social identity, the social relations between individuals, and systems of knowledge and beliefs (Fairclough, 1992, 2004).

4.7.2 Approaches to critical discourse analysis

As a term, critical discourse analysis has been approached differently by different scholars. Some refer to Critical Discourse Analysis “CDA, in all capital letters” (Rogers, 2004:2). These are scholars who are associated with Fairclough’s approach to Critical Discourse Analysis. Other scholars refer to critical discourse analysis “cda, lower case” (*ibid.*). These scholars associate their work with varieties of theories and methods of critical inquiry into language practices. Since the method of data analysis in this study applied Fairclough’s theory, I refer to it as CDA. Further, Critical Discourse Analysis involves different approaches. In this study I have summarised four. The aim was to be aware of what differentiates Fairclough’s approach to Critical Discourse Analysis from that of other scholars.

The approaches summarised in this study are first, the discourse-historical approach (Rogers, 2004, Wodak, 2007; Wodak & Meyer, 2008). According to Wodak (2007:209), the term ‘critical’ could mean “having distance to the data, embedding the data in the social, making the respective political stance explicit, and having a focus on self-reflection as scholars undertaking research.” Thus,

Critical Discourse Analysis refers to the exploration of the way in which language and social institutional practices of wider political and social structures overlap in layers (Wodak, 2007).

Second is the sociocognitive approach to Critical Discourse Analysis (Rogers, 2004; Wodak & Meyer, 2008). Critical Discourse Analysis is referred to as “a special approach to the study of text and talk, emerging from critical linguistics, critical semiotics and in general from a socio-politically conscious and oppositional way of investigating language, discourse and communication” (Van Dijk, 1995:17). According to Van Dijk (1985, 1995), Critical Discourse Analysis is concerned with power relations, cultural and social backgrounds as well as intentions inherent in a message conveyed through language.

Third is an approach to Critical Discourse Analysis in terms of “the social and cultural study of language” (Rogers, 2004:11). From a linguistic analysis point of view, Gee (2004:23) agrees that a distinction should be made between “utterance-type meaning” and “utterance-token meaning.” The utterance-type meaning refers to the general range of possible meanings of any word, phrase or structure (Gee, 2004; Rogers, 2004). The utterance-token meaning refers to the possible meanings of a word, a phrase or a structure derived from its actual contexts of use (Gee, 2004; Rogers, 2004). With regard to Critical Discourse Analysis, Gee (2004:28) asserts that the utterance-type meaning and the utterance-token meanings or “situated meanings” form correlations which are associated with “social practices.” Thus, Critical Discourse Analysis “treats social practices in terms of social relations” and “its implications for things like status, solidarity, the distribution of social goods and power” (Gee, 2004:28).

A fourth approach to Critical Discourse Analysis is that of Fairclough’s which originated from a variety of scholarships on Critical Discourse Analysis (4.7.1). Fairclough’s Critical Discourse Analysis focuses on understanding a link between “the textual and the social world” (Rogers, 2004:12). The link forms the dialectical-relational approach to Critical Discourse Analysis which is associated with three key concepts identified as orders of discourse, interdiscursivity and dialectics (Fairclough, 1992, 2004, 2005). The order of discourse is a form of social practice (Fairclough, 2004). It focuses on language forms or content, meanings and uses through “ways of interacting (genres), ways of representing (discourse) and ways of being (style)” (Rogers, 2004:12). As such, ‘ways of interacting’ refers to the kinds of texts that individuals wish to use for different reasons, ‘ways of representing’ refers to the clusters of meanings that give rise to individuals’ different interpretations of texts, and ‘ways of being’ refers to the text structure that individuals agree on as they are using language (Fairclough, 1992, 2004; Rogers, 2004). The concept of interdiscursivity is a key element of Fairclough’s approach to Critical Discourse Analysis. The interdiscursive structure shows “the relationship between and within genres, discourses and styles, and the social world” or social structures (Rogers, 2004:13). Furthermore, the concept of dialectics is regarded as

Fairclough's key approach to Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 1992, 2004, 2005). Dialectics embraces the social practice from different social contexts (Fairclough, 1992, 2004, 2005).

According to Fairclough (2004), Critical Discourse Analysis engages with the relationship between elements of social practice and social structure; including semiotic and non-semiotic elements. Thus, this relationship forms dialectical relations. Fairclough (2004) suggests that the analyst should be aware that the elements of social practice and social structure are different. Thus, social practice and social structure "cannot be reduced to [one dimension of analysis], require separate sorts of analysis, and yet are not discrete" (Fairclough, 2004:123). As a result, the dialectical-relational approach assists in the process of describing, interpreting and explaining "the relationships between texts and social practice at local, national, macro-regional, and global scale" (Rogers, 2004:13). In this regard, the whole process of analysis employing the dialectical-relational approach becomes vital in Critical Discourse Analysis (Rogers, 2004).

In this study, the exploration of different approaches to Critical Discourse Analysis helped me to understand that one cannot draw a distinctive line to differentiate the approaches to Critical Discourse Analysis. Rather, I came to realise that scholars have different expertise and select the type of approach to Critical Discourse Analysis based on their capability and/or interest. I opted for Fairclough's approach to Critical Discourse Analysis for the following two reasons that are related to the nature of my study: (i) Curriculum Studies practices are communicative events which involve different practitioners and stakeholders such as students, lecturers, parents, curriculum specialists, academic committees, the Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Vocational Training, and other related educational institutions. Critical Discourse Analysis was therefore useful in analysing the social structures and practices within Curriculum Studies discourses. In particular, Critical Discourse Analysis enabled me to gain an understanding of the literary meanings and extended the meanings to elicit the interdiscursive relationships made from texts and talk. (ii) As a discipline, Curriculum Studies continues to grow and change, and it is influenced by socio - cultural contexts (2.2.1). Critical Discourse Analysis assisted in explicating the interdiscursive nature of Curriculum Studies discourses including the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (2.3).

4.7.3 Dialectical-relational approach to critical discourse analysis

Fairclough's dialectical-relational approach suggests three dimensions to employing the method of Critical Discourse Analysis. These are discourse-as-text, discourse-as-discursive practice, and discourse-as-social practice (Fairclough, 1992, 1995).

4.7.3.1 Discourse-as-text

Discourse-as-text focuses on two intertwined types of analysis: “linguistic analysis and intertextual analysis” (Fairclough, 1995:188). Linguistic analysis involves the “traditional level of analysis within linguistics” which entails the analysis of vocabulary, grammar, semantics and phonology. Linguistic analysis also involves the analysis of “textual organisation above the sentence” such as the inter-sentential, cohesion, and text structure (Fairclough, 1995:188). For this reason, discourse-as-text aims to “describe large-scale organisational properties of interactions” where the functions and control of interactions are important (Fairclough, 1992:234). A key feature considered under interactions is “who controls the interaction” (*ibid.*). A discussion of the linguistic features within discourse-as-text follows below.

First, vocabulary deals with the kinds of words used in the text; this involves individual words or key words (Fairclough, 1992; Weaver-Hightower, 2015). When analysing vocabulary, the focus is on word meaning which is determined by the context of the utterance and different groups of individuals involved in the text (Fairclough, 1992; Weaver-Hightower, 2015).

Second, grammar deals with how parts of speech are combined into clauses and sentences (Fairclough, 1992:75). The aspect of grammar also involves the text transitivity, themes and modalities (Fairclough, 1992; Weaver-Hightower, 2015). Transitivity deals with the “choices of voice (active or passive)” (Fairclough, 1992:235). Theme deals with the utterance structure of the text. A theme is analysed according to individuals’ utterances made especially at the starting point (Weaver-Hightower, 2015; Wellington, 2000). Modality aims to “determine patterns in the text in the degree of affinity” (Fairclough, 1992:236). Modality assists in analysing the importance of “modality features for social relations in the discourses and controlling the representation of reality” (*ibid.*).

Third, cohesion refers to an aspect of discourse-as-text which deals with “how clauses are linked together into sentences, and how sentences are in turn, linked together to form large units in texts” (Fairclough, 1992:77). Cohesion assists in analysing how the text is described. This involves the use of references, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexicon (Fairclough, 1992; Weaver-Hightower, 2015; Wellington, 2000).

Last, the textual structures or “the architecture of texts” (Fairclough, 1992:78) assist in understanding the flow of information constructed as a monologue, dialogue, advertisement, academic writing, formal and informal structures (Fairclough, 1992; Weaver-Hightower, 2015; Wellington, 2000).

Furthermore, discourse-as-text extends the process of linguistic analysis to intertextual analysis (Fairclough, 1992, 1995; Weaver-Hightower, 2015; Wellington, 2000). This aspect is discussed in Section 4.7.3.3.

4.7.3.2 *Discourse-as-discursive-practice*

Discourse-as-discursive-practice involves “processes of text production, distribution, and consumption” (Fairclough, 1992:78). Emphasis is placed on the ways texts are produced, by whom and how they are distributed and consumed (Fairclough, 1992, 1995; Weaver-Hightower, 2015; Wellington, 2000). The practice of text production is analysed in order to understand the context of the texts and talk. Text distribution describes the intertextual chains of contexts within which the interdiscursive practice is interpreted (Fairclough, 1992, 1995; Weaver-Hightower, 2015; Wellington, 2000). Consumption refers to the coherence of the text (Fairclough, 1992; Wellington, 2000). The intention of analysing the process of text consumption is to “look into the interpretive implications of the intertextual and interdiscursive properties of the discourse sample” (Fairclough, 1992:233). Hence, discourse-as-discursive practice shows the relationship between discourse-as-text and discourse-as-social practice.

4.7.3.3 *Discourse-as-social practice*

Discourse-as-social practice extends the linguistic analysis to intertextual analysis (Fairclough, 1995). Intertextual analysis focuses on “how texts selectively draw upon orders of discourse” (Fairclough, 1995:188). The analysis process of interdiscursivity reveals the relationship between and within the text or social structures and different genres, discourses, and styles as forms of social practices (Fairclough, 1992, 1995, 2004; Wellington, 2000). The aim of analysing discourse-as-social-practice is “to specify the nature of social practice of which the discourse practice is a part” (Fairclough, 1992:237). This helps to explain “why the discourse is as it is” (*ibid.*). Further, discourse-as-social practice helps to “identify the effects of the discourse practice upon the social practice” (Fairclough, 1992:237). Thus, the orders of discourse (genre, discourses and style) are dialectically related with the social structure to enable the process of interpretation of the text (Fairclough, 1992, 1995; Gee, 2004; Rogers, 2004; Weaver-Hightower, 2015; Wellington, 2000). As a result, the critical interpretation of the text involves the understanding of social practice on different levels (Fairclough, 1992, 1995, 2005; Wellington, 2000).

Fairclough’s (1992) approach to Critical Discourse Analysis is represented in Figure 4-2. The embedding of the boxes shows the dialectical-relations within the dimensions (Fairclough, 1992, 1995). The three dimensions in the figure could be interpreted as showing that the analysis process starts with text, then moves to discursive practice and ends with social practice, or vice versa

(Janks, 1997). Thus, Janks (1997:2) suggests that “the focus on any one box therefore has to be seen as a relatively arbitrary place from which to begin.”

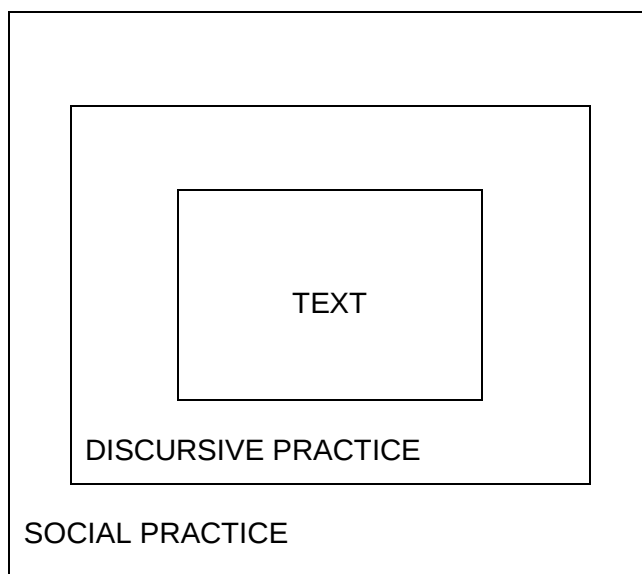


Figure 4-2: Three-dimensional conception of critical discourse analysis (taken from Fairclough, 1992:73)

4.7.4 Application of the dialectical-relational approach: critical discourse analysis in this study

It is evident that scholars have applied different steps to Fairclough’s approach to Critical Discourse Analysis in their studies. For instance, Janks (1997:3) comments, “I usually begin with a text...I tend to work from text to discourse(s)”, Alternatively, Wodak and Meyer (2008:31) indicate that Fairclough’s Critical Discourse Analysis proposes the following steps: “(i) a structural analysis of the context, and then (ii) an interactional analysis, which focuses on such linguistic features as: agents, time, tense, modality, syntax and finally (iii) an analysis of interdiscursivity.” Further, Simmonds (2003:164) chooses to apply the three dimensions of Critical Discourse Analysis, starting with discourse-as-discursive practice, followed by discourse-as-text and ending with the analysis of discourse-as-social practice. The steps followed by Simmonds were also applied in this study.

In this current study, Critical Discourse Analysis was employed in the third phase of the pragmatic intervention design and development methodology when the synthesis of the data was done (4.4.3.3). Figure 4-3 is a visual representation of how I approached Critical Discourse Analysis.

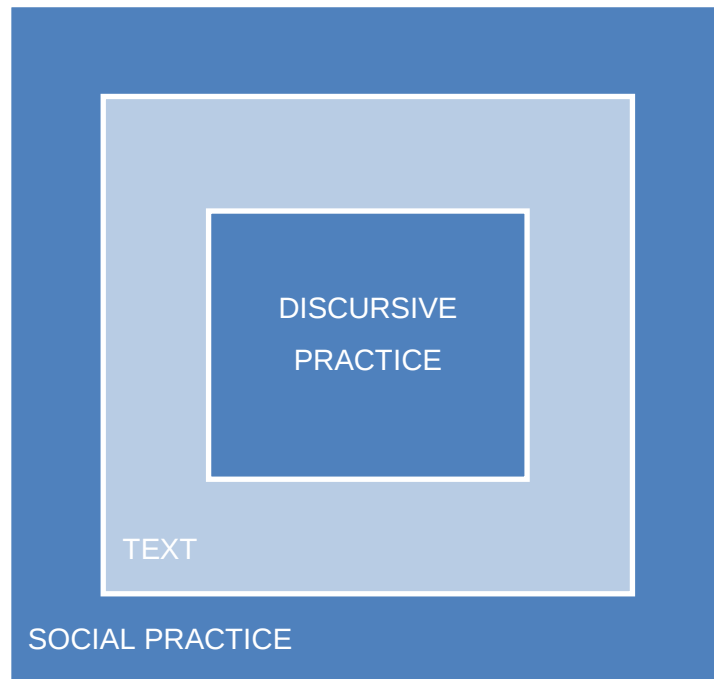


Figure 4-3: The dialectical-relational approach to Critical Discourse Analysis in this study (adapted from Fairclough, 1992:73)

The process of Critical Discourse Analysis in this study involved the following procedures: first, I started with the analysis of discourse-as-discursive practice. I analysed the process of production, distribution and consumption of described documents and presentations of participants' responses. In the case of the document analysis, Dillon's framework for questions of curriculum (3.2) was used to guide the description/presentation of the discursive practices under study. To analyse the interview responses, a holistic inductive method were used. Thus, discourse-as-discursive practice enabled me to focus on the research objectives (1.5) and contextualise the study. Discourse-as-discursive practice sets the scene for the interpretation and discussion of discourse-as-text and discourse-as-social practice.

Thereafter, I continued the analysis using discourse-as-text. I inductively analysed the linguistic features derived from written/described documents and presentations by the interview participants. The analysis of linguistic features made it possible to gain an understanding of the written information (documents) and the information provided by the interview participants. Some of the linguistic features, like vocabulary, assisted me in identifying key words frequently used in the data and themes derived from the data (Fairclough, 1992; Saldana, 2009; Weaver-Hightower, 2015). I was alerted to the variations of meanings in the concepts used by the participants. In addition, the analysis of grammar helped me to understand the participants' different perspectives and common elements of utterances.

Furthermore, the analysis of cohesion enabled me to link and understand different perspectives derived from the data, whilst the analysis of textual structures helped me to understand the style and/or the manner in which the data were described in the documents. In order to avoid repetition of ideas, I did not analyse the structure of the participants presentations since they were already explained in Sections 4.6.2.1 and 4.6.2.2.

I ended the analysis process with an inductive analysis of social practice. Discourse-as-discursive practice and discourse-as-text assisted me in understanding the relationships between and within the social structures and the social practice at play in the context of this study (Fairclough, 1992; Gee, 2004; Rogers, 2004). Discourse-as-social practice assisted in the process of analysing the implications of social practices in relation to the studied phenomenon (Fairclough, 1992; Gee, 2004; Rogers, 2004). In addition, the styles used by the participants to express different views showed, for instance, how an interview participant spoke as a person or generalised information by referring to the social practice related to the discussed phenomenon.

4.7.5 Relevance of the dialectical-relational to critical discourse analysis method in this study

Critical Discourse Analysis based on the dialectical-relational approach was relevant to this study because the approach assisted me to gain an understanding of the linguistic and intertextual properties of the data. The intertwined forms of analysis assisted me in understanding the intertextual relationships among the data from the written documents, the interviews, and the social practice within which the data generation took place. As a result, the process of analysis seemed to be detailed and critical, and ensured trustworthiness of the interpreted data from multiple sources. Therefore, the dialectical-relational approach facilitated in attaining the intervention outcomes and in applying the intervention outcomes practically to address the research questions.

However, I encountered some challenges in applying Critical Discourse Analysis in this study. There is a vast theoretical background to Critical Discourse Analysis in general. This requires a Critical Discourse analyst to be focused on which approach best suits the particular study. Furthermore, the application of Critical Discourse Analysis requires detailed linguistic expertise which non-linguists can easily overlook or misconstrue. To avoid this pitfall, I looked closely into a range of literature on the processes of Fairclough's Critical Discourse Analysis, which assisted me in applying it reliably in this study.

4.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE DATA

In qualitative and quantitative research, researchers have been encouraged to describe their studies in detail in order to enable other researchers to determine whether the design used for the study was appropriate and the findings are usable (Creswell, 2014; Kawulich & Holland, 2014; Koonin, 2014; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b; Nieuwenhuis & Smit, 2012). Similar to the terms 'validity' and 'reliability', which are aspects commonly applied in quantitative research, 'trustworthiness' is the term used in qualitative research. Trustworthiness centres on the authenticity, confirmability, credibility, dependability, transferability, and transformability of the data (Creswell, 2014; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Kawulich & Holland, 2012; Koonin, 2014; Mertens, 2015; Nieuwenhuis & Smit, 2012). Credibility rests on the accuracy with which the researcher interpreted the data that were provided by the participants (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Kawulich & Holland, 2012; Koonin, 2014). Thus, in my study, various techniques were employed to ensure credibility of the data: firstly, through prolonged engagement with the participants at various research sites where I spent much time in discussing the study with them. By doing this, I was able to understand the social context better and to interpret the data more accurately.

Dependability refers to the quality of the methodological processes employed to integrate methods of generating and analysing the data (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Kawulich & Holland, 2012; Koonin, 2014; Mertens, 2015). According to Guba and Lincoln (1989), dependability relates to the stability of the data over time. In this study a pragmatic intervention design and development methodology accommodated the use of the three methods of generating the data and the Critical Discourse Analysis method.

Conformability refers to how well the data generated support the findings and interpretations of the data (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Kawulich & Holland, 2012; Koonin, 2014). In this study, a dialectical-relational approach of Critical Discourse Analysis facilitated a process of detailed analysis through its three dimensions. Thus, the data from different sources were discussed with due consideration of the research questions, which enabled me to arrive at useful findings from the study.

Secondly, the process of data crystallisation was adhered to (Maree & Van der Westhuizen, 2007; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b; Nieuwenhuis & Smit, 2012). According to Maree and Van der Westhuizen (2007:40), crystallisation refers to "the practice of 'validating' results by using multiple methods of data collection and analysis." Crystallisation processes included the use of three different methods of data generation.

Thirdly, I sought clarifications from some interview participants when analysing the data. The clarifications were communicated through e-mails. Thus, clarified information assisted me in interpreting the data more accurately.

4.9 ETHICAL ASPECTS OF THE RESEARCH

Ethical aspects should be considered in every step of research: from the beginning to the completion of the inquiry (Creswell, 2014; Louw, 2014; Ogletree & Kawulich, 2012). Ethics is important because it potentially affects the researcher and all the stakeholders involved in the research (Louw, 2014). Firstly, the NWU ethical application form was submitted to the Ethics Committee to gain approval for the empirical research (see Appendix A). Secondly, a letter requesting permission to conduct the research (Ogletree & Kawulich, 2012) was addressed to the participants of this study (see Appendix B). Thirdly, detailed informed consent forms were given to the participants for them to read. Cohen and Manion (1994) explain that in an informed consent procedure the research participants read the relevant forms and then decide whether to participate in a study after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions on whether to participate. The informed consent forms contain information on matters such as “competence, voluntarism, full information, and comprehension” (Cohen & Manion, 1994:350). As for this study, the informed consent forms contained information about the purpose of the study, procedures for conducting interviews, assurance of no potential risks and discomforts to the participants in the course of interviewing. For this study, three languages, namely English, Afrikaans and Kiswahili, were allowed during the interviews to ensure the participants’ comfort³. Further, information from the informed consent forms included the benefit of the research findings, the confidentiality of participants’ responses, and the rights of the participants, such as to volunteer to be in the study or to withdraw. My contact details, as well as those of my promoter, was also given to participants should they have any further enquiries about the nature of the study. As a result, participants’ who volunteered and were willing to participate in the study undersigned the informed consent forms (see Appendix C).

Fourthly, in analysing the data I followed procedures suggested by Fairclough (1992) for Critical Discourse Analysis. In the process of transcribing, describing/presenting, interpreting and discussing the data I avoided taking sides with the participants’ point of views, disclosing only positive results and respecting the privacy of the participants (Creswell, 2014). In the fifth place, I indicated that the findings from this research would be disseminated to any interested parties. Anonymous views or comments from participants may contribute to the next step of writing scientific articles, teaching guides or chapters in books. Lastly, in reporting the study I consulted and used the NWU Harvard method in developing specific principles of writing and referencing the entire thesis (NWU Referencing guide, 2012). With these ethical aspects adhered to in this study, I acknowledge

³ The responses were translated and double-checked by my promoter and colleagues who speak Kiswahili. Therefore, in certain circumstances the participants’ responses were given verbatim and at other times it was my translations.

the suggestion given by Louw (2014:273) that “ethics is the cornerstone of research, and, without it, the delicate and complex interweave of research falls apart in undesirable ways.”

4.10 CONCLUSION

In this chapter I discussed the research design, methodology, methods and processes used to arrive at possible answers to the research questions (1.4). The pragmatic intervention design and development methodology was used in the study based on an introduction of contemporary qualitative methods and processes used in Curriculum Studies (4.2 & 4.3). Through its various phases, operations and activities (4.4) the methodology enabled me to become systematically involved in the research processes which included sampling, using historical and document research as well as interviews to generate the data, and employing a dialectical-relational approach to analyse the data (4.5-4.7). In the sections on the research design reference attention was given to some quality criteria for ensuring trustworthiness of the data, and adhering to ethical research matters (4.8-4.9). The next two chapters focus on the analysis of data from the documents and interviews.

CHAPTER FIVE

DOCUMENT RESEARCH: A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME FOR TEACHER EDUCATION AT A SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Document research was one of the methods, amongst others, used in the study used to generate data (4.6.1). This chapter explains how the dialectical-relational approach to Critical Discourse Analysis was used to facilitate the description, interpretation and discussion of the data from documents (4.7.4). Two documents were used for data generation: (i) a calendar for Honours and postgraduate programmes of 2015 and (ii), a marketing flyer for a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at NQF Level 8 of the South African NQF. These documents belong to a South African university in the North-West Province (see Appendix F) which was one of the five universities involved in the study. This university is identified as university E in this study so as to ensure anonymity and confidentiality since there were also individuals from this university who were involved in the interviews. The faculty involved in the study was the Faculty of Education Sciences (hereafter referred to as the Faculty). For the purpose of this study the documents are identified as Document E-1 (a calendar for Honours and postgraduate programmes of 2015), and Document E-2 (a marketing flyer for a Curriculum Studies programme for Bachelor of Education Honours). These documents provided useful information about a Curriculum Studies programme for the BEdHons at NQF Level 8.

The chapter starts with a descriptive analysis of the production, distribution and consumption of Document E-1 to elucidate its discursive practice in general, followed by a focused and detailed analysis of discursive practice of a Curriculum Studies programme at NQF Level 8. Document E-2 was also analysed following the same order. For the purpose of coherence and avoidance of repetition of ideas, the chapter also holistically analyses the textual forms of Document E-1 and Document E-2 which form part of Critical Discourse Analysis. The chapter ends with the holistic analysis of the social practice discussed in Document E-1 and Document E-2. The data from these documents provided evidence for the second research question whose objective was to analyse curriculum documents of a South African university to inform the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania (1.5.b).

5.2 DISCURSIVE PRACTICE OF A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME

This section analyses the production, distribution and consumption of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons to illustrate the relevant discursive practice, starting with Document E-1,

followed by Document E-2. The section analyses the programme by following the questions of curriculum in terms of the nature, the elements, and the practice of the programme (3.2).

5.2.1 A calendar for Honours and postgraduate programmes

A calendar for Honours and postgraduate programmes is an official Faculty document. The calendar that is referred to in this study was produced in 2015. In 78 pages the calendar provides information about the structure of the Faculty which is led by the office of the Dean. The Faculty runs three Schools, namely the School of Human and Social Sciences for Education, the School for Education Studies, and the School of Natural Sciences and Technology for Education. Other organs of the Faculty include Quality Assurance, Administration, Finances and Human Capital as well as the Research office which involves in Research Administration, Finances and Internationalisation matters. Apart from the structure of the Faculty, Document E-1 explains the general and specific academic rules of the Faculty which include matters regarding registration, examination, degree attainment, and rules regarding each of the offered programmes. The Document includes the contact details of the registrar of the university. In addition, Document E-1 provides a detailed table of contents, illustrated tables and figures about the structure, and the elements of the programmes offered in the Faculty.

Furthermore, since Document E-1 is produced for information purposes, the document is intended to be used by students who wish to apply for the programme(s), students who are enrolled in the programme(s), academic staff of the Faculty and/or other faculties, administrative staff of the university and the Faculty in particular, as well as researchers. For the purpose of this study, only a BEdHons in Curriculum Studies programme Level 8 was analysed.

5.2.1.1 The nature of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

The name of the programme is Bachelor of Education Honours, abbreviated as BEdHons. The programme is identified at Level 8 of the South African NQF. The degree awarded is Bachelor of Education Honours in Curriculum Studies.

5.2.1.2 The elements of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

5.2.1.2.1 The content

The content of the programme is arranged according to the modules offered. The modules are categorised into three: (i) the fundamental modules, (ii) the core modules, and (iii) the elective modules. The fundamental models are two: Foundations of Education Research (FOER 611), and a Research Project (RSPR 671). The four core modules are Classroom Instruction (CLIN 611), Curriculum Development (CUDE 611), Teaching, Learning and Assessment (TLAS 612), and The

School Curriculum (TSCU 621). Four modules are elective: E-learning (ELEA 611), and Strategic Learning and Development (SLAD 621). The other elective modules are Issues in Curriculum Studies (ISCS 611), and Instructional Media (INME 621) and these are not offered at the institution where this research was conducted. The credit weighting of each module is provided in Tables 5-1, 5-2, 5-3, 5-4 and 5-5.

5.2.1.2.2 The student

Document E-1 explains that the programme is offered to the students who have had a four-year professional teaching degree or a relevant Bachelor's degree capped by a recognised professional teaching qualification.

Also, in bolded writing, the document identifies characteristics of a **full-time student** and refers to “a student for whom study is the predominant activity and follows a curriculum that can be completed within a prescribed minimum period” (NWU, 2015:13).

5.2.1.2.3 The milieu

The document sets out the programme mode of delivery which is either on full-time basis, part-time basis, or through Open Distance Learning (ODL). The minimum duration for the programme is a year for full-time students, and the maximum duration for completing the degree programme is three years for part-time students. The programme structure is divided into two semesters as illustrated in Tables 5-1 and 5-2.

5.2.1.2.4 The activities

Document E-1 indicates that the BEdHons Level 8 programme is offered for on-campus students through the medium of Afrikaans (NWU, 2015:24). Pedagogical activities involved in this programme are generally referred to as the teaching and learning of the fundamental, core, elective and research modules (see Table 5-1).

5.2.1.2.5 The assessment

Document E-1 provides information that the assessment of the programme involves two main methods of assessment. The first method is specific for a fundamental module called Research Project (RSPR 671). This module is assessed through a Research Project report which carries 100% marks. The second method is required for the rest of the modules, and assessment in this case involves Continuous Assessment which carries 50% and Written Examination which carries 50% as illustrated in Tables 5-1, 5-2, 5-3, 5-4 and 5-5.

In addition, the document outlines the module outcomes under each module except for elective modules ISCS 611 and INME 621(see Tables 5-1 - 5-5).

5.2.1.3 The practice of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

Based on the previous information which explains that university E offers a Curriculum Studies programme (1.7.3 & 4.5), and the analysis of the nature and the elements of the programme, it is noted that the programme is currently presented at the Faculty of Education Sciences. The document uses the following tables to describe the structure of the programme (Tables 5-1 & 5-2) and to outline information about the elements of the programme (Tables 5-3 - 5-5).

Table 5-1: BEdHons Full-time Curriculum Studies – curriculum code: O603P (taken from NWU, 2015:28)

Year 1	
First semester	
Module code	Credits
FOER 611	16
RSPR 671 (*)	16
CUDE 611	16
CLIN 611	16
TLAS 612	16
Choose one	
ISCS 611 (<i>Elective</i>)	8
ELEA 611 (<i>Elective</i>)	8
Total 1st semester	88
Year 1	
Second semester	
Module code	Credits
RSPR 671 (*)	16
TSCU 621	16
Choose one	
INME 621 (<i>Elective</i>)	8
SLAD 621 (<i>Elective</i>)	8
Total 2nd semester	40
Total year 1	128

(*) 32-credit module presented across both semesters

Table 5-2: BEdHons Part-time Curriculum Studies – curriculum code: O603P (taken from NWU, 2015:29)

Year 1		Year 2	
First semester		First semester 2	
Module code	Credits	Module code	Credits
FOER 611	16	TLAS 612	16
CUDE 611	16	RSPR 671 (*)	16
CLIN 611	16	Choose one	
		ISCS 611 (<i>Elective</i>)	8
		ELEA 611 (<i>Elective</i>)	8
Total 1st semester	48	Total 1st semester	40
Year 1		Year 2	
Second semester		Second semester	
Module code	Credits	Module code	Credits
TSCU 621	16	RSPR 671 (*)	16
Choose one			
INME 621 (<i>Elective</i>)	8		
SLAD 621 (<i>Elective</i>)	8		
Total 2nd semester	24	Total 2nd semester	16
Total year 1	64	Total year 2	64

(*) 32-credit module presented across both semesters

Table 5-3: Fundamental Modules (taken from NWU, 2015:51)

Module code FOER 611	Semester 1	16 credits	NQF Level8
Title: Foundations of Education Research			
Module outcomes: After completing this module, students demonstrate that they have acquired: • A broad understanding of the range of education theories, ideas and concepts that mark the current social science and educational landscape • The ability to analyse and evaluate knowledge critically in a variety of educational contexts • A basic level of competence to apply the dialectical relationship between education theory and education praxis • The ability to contribute to systematic and disciplined thinking about matter educational			
Method of delivery: Full-time/ Part-time			
Methods of assessment: Continuous assessment 50% Written exam 50%			

Module code RSPR 671	Semesters 1&2	32 credits	NQF Level:8
Title: Research Project			
Module outcomes: After completing this module, students demonstrate that they have acquired the knowledge, skill, disposition and values to: • Identify a research problem in a specific field of specialisation • Prepare a proposal for a project to investigate the identified problem • Conduct the proposed project under supervision • Write a scientific report on the project			
Method of delivery: Full-time/ Part-time			
Methods of assessment: Project Report 100%			

Table 5-4: Core Modules (taken from NWU, 2015:51)

Module code CLIN 611	Semester 1	16 Credits	NQF Level:8
Title: Classroom Instruction			
Module outcomes: By the end of the module, students should be equipped with: • Comprehensive knowledge, practical skills and dispositions regarding strategic teaching in order to effectively implement teaching-learning opportunities in specific learning areas, subjects and contexts			
Method of delivery: Full-time/ Part-time			
Methods of assessment: Continuous assessment 50% Written exam 50%			
Module code CUDE 611	Semester 1	16 credits	NQF Level:8
Title: Curriculum Development			
Module outcomes: By the end of the module, learners should be equipped to: • Understand the theories and models of curriculum design, development, evaluation and innovation/change • Analyse the processes and procedures of curriculum development in South Africa • Develop critical thinking and analyse a wide range of issues in curriculum development • Critically reflect on the National Curriculum Statement (Curriculum 2005 and NCS) Demonstrate an understanding of the role of research in curriculum development, and develop an understanding of factors that influence curriculum change			
Method of delivery: Full-time/ Part-time/ODL			
Methods of assessment: Continuous assessment 50% Written exam 50%			

Module Code TLAS 612	Semester 1	16 Credits	NQF- Level:8
Title: Teaching Learning and Assessment			
Module outcomes: By the end of the module, students should be equipped: • With specialised knowledge of and expertise in teaching and learning theories relevant to the South African and international teaching and learning context. • With a fundamental understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of assessment and how it relates to and impacts on sound assessment practices; • With the knowledge and skills to be able to plan and implement successful classroom assessment.			
Method of delivery: Full-time/ Part-time			
Methods of assessment: Continuous assessment 50% Written Exam 50%			
Module Code TSCU 621	Semester 2	16 Credits	NQF- Level:8
Title: The school Curriculum			
Module outcomes: By the end of the module, students should be equipped: • With a systematic and in-depth knowledge of the school curriculum • To critically analyse the South African education system in general and the school curriculum in particular; • To demonstrate an understanding of the processes of the school curriculum in South Africa; • With skills of relating theory and practice in the classroom situation • To demonstrate an understanding of OBE and its relevance to the school curriculum.			
Method of delivery: Full-time/ Part-time/ODL			
Methods of assessment: Continuous assessment 50% Written Exam 50%			

Table 5-5: Elective Modules (taken from NWU, 2015:67-68)

Module code ELEA 611	Semester 1	8 credits	NQF Level:8
Title: E-learning			
Module outcomes: By the end of the module, students should be equipped with: • A broad understanding of the educational learning theories underpinning e-learning • A broad understanding of e-learning concepts, principles and types used in education • The ability to differentiate e-learning technologies according to their contexts for decision making in education • The ability to develop e-learning strategies in relation to their educational settings • The ability to develop and maintain e-activities • The ability to conduct online assessment and moderation • The ability to design, maintain and facilitate online virtual learning group			
Method of delivery: Full-time/ Part-time/ ODL			
Methods of assessment: Continuous assessment 50% Written exam 50%			
Module code SLAD 621	Semester 2	16 credits	NQF Level:8
Title: Strategic Learning and Development			
Module outcomes: After completing this module, the students demonstrate that they have acquired: Specialised knowledge of and expertise in evidence-based research on the fundamental cognitive and affective components of academic reading, writing and critical thinking relevant to the content areas at all levels of education, current relevant research documents and reports, instructional practices, frameworks and models relevant to academic reading, writing and critical thinking as well as variables affecting strategic learning and the development of effective academic support			
• Method of delivery: Full-time/ Part-time/ODL			
Methods of assessment: Continuous assessment 50% Written Exam 50%			

The discursive practice analysis of Document E-1 provided consequently contextualised the nature, the elements and the practice of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at Level 8 offered at university E. The analysis enabled the understanding of connections of ideas and coherence of the information from the document. This form of analysis set the scene for the analysis of the textual and social structure of the programme which follows in Sections 5.3 and 5.4.

5.2.2 A marketing flyer for a BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

A marketing flyer for a Curriculum Studies programme for the postgraduate degree is an official document from the Faculty of Education Sciences. The document does not indicate information on when it was produced. In a page, brief information of key issues about the programme is provided in order to advertise the programme. The document explains the following: the notion of a Curriculum Studies programme, the general requirements for applying for the programme, the structure of the degree programme, and expectations one could have after attaining the degree. The document also provides contact details about the BEdHons Administrative Coordinator.

Furthermore, in the background of the document there are the following images: a world map, arrows pointing to different directions, crosses of different sizes and four people standing closely together, while two of them are communicating. The phrases “global solutions” and “business plan” are also written on the background of the marketing flyer.

Also, individuals who could use (consume) this document are mentioned. They are students who wish to apply for the programme and students who are enrolled in the programme. Other individuals who were not mentioned but could use this document are academic staff of the Faculty and/or other faculties, the university and/or Faculty administrative personnel, educationists, and researchers.

5.2.2.1 The nature of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

According to Document E-2, the Curriculum Studies programme entails “the study of the curriculum, assessment and teaching-learning within continuously transforming and developing curriculum environments. It engages with social issues and global movements concerning Curriculum Studies nationally and internationally.”

Also, the name of the degree programme is indicated in Latin “*Baccalaureus Educationis Honores* (BEdHons).”

5.2.2.2 The elements of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

5.2.2.2.1 The content

The content of the programme encompasses the following:

- International and national trends in the curriculum
- Assessment and teaching-learning
- The relationship between curriculum and social issues

- E-learning as appropriate for Curriculum Studies, given the global movement toward digital learning
- Research methodology theory in the context of Curriculum Studies
- The skills needed to participate in a continuously transforming curriculum environment

The content is categorised into eight modules: Foundations of Education Research (FOER 611), Classroom Instruction (CLIN 611), Curriculum Development (CUDE 611), E-learning (ELEA 611), Teaching, Learning and Assessment (TLAS 612), Strategic Learning and Development (SLAD 621), The School Curriculum (TSCU 621), and the Research Project (RSPR 671), as illustrated in Tables 5-6 and 5-7.

Table 5-6: Structure of a full-time Curriculum Studies programme (taken from Document E-2)

Full-time students	
Semester 1	Semester 2
Foundations of Education Research (FOER 611)	Strategic Learning and Development (SLAD 621)
Classroom Instruction (CLIN 611)	The School Curriculum (TSCU 621)
Curriculum Development (CUDE 611)	
E-learning (ELEA 611)	
Teaching, Learning and Assessment (TLAS 612)	
Research Project (RSPR 671)	

Table 5-7: Structure of a part-time Curriculum Studies programme (taken from Document E-2)

Part-time students	
Year One	
Semester 1	Semester 2
Foundations of Education Research (FOER 611)	Teaching, Learning and Assessment (TLAS 612)
Classroom Instruction (CLIN 611)	E-learning (ELEA 611)
Curriculum Development (CUDE 611)	Research Project (RSPR 671)
Year Two	
Semester 1	Semester 2
Year Three	
Semester 1	Semester 2
Strategic Learning and Development (SLAD 621)	Research Project (RSPR 671)
The School Curriculum (TSCU 621)	

5.2.2.2.2 *The student*

The document identifies characteristics of students who wish to apply for the programme. Such students are described as follows:

- Students who are passionate about Curriculum Studies, and wish to become more knowledgeable in the discipline;
- Students who hold a Bachelor of Education for four years or Post-Graduate Certificate qualification; and
- Students who wish to specialise in Curriculum Studies, as this qualification is a prerequisite for a Master's degree.

5.2.2.2.3 *The milieu*

The programme is structured for two semesters in each academic year. The mode of delivery is either on full-time basis or part-time basis (see Tables 5-6 & 5-7).

5.2.2.2.4 *The activities*

The pedagogical activities related to the programme involve teaching of several identified modules as shown in Tables 5-6 and 5-7.

5.2.2.3 *The practice of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme*

The information about the nature and the elements of this Curriculum Studies programme could suggest that the programme is currently offered at the Faculty, since the programme is still being advertised. Also, the previous information about reasons for choosing university E which offers a Curriculum Studies programme (1.7.3 & 4.5) could support the inference that the programme is disseminated at present.

In addition, Document E-2 points out the benefits of the Curriculum Studies programme to those who will successfully complete the degree. The programme is essential for professional promotion, provides access to academia, and enables one to apply for a position such as that of a curriculum advisor. Tables 5-6 and 5-7 below provide information about the structure of the programme.

The analysis of discursive practice described in Document E-2 contextualised the production, distribution and consumption of the nature, the elements and the practice of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at Level 8 offered at university E. The analysis assisted in identifying connections and coherence of information described in the document. This discursive practice

consequently formed the basis for analysis of the textual and the social practice which follows in Sections 5.3 and 5.4.

5.3 TEXTUAL DISCOURSES OF A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME

This section presents a holistic analysis of the textual forms and structure which enabled me to interpret a BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme from Documents E-1 and E-2. The section analyses textual discourses starting with the nature, the elements, and the practice of the programme.

5.3.1 The nature of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

The textual analysis of the nature of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons was aligned with the description of the production, distribution and the consumption of the nature of Documents E-1 and E-2 (5.2.1.1 & 5.2.2.1). It involves the following:

5.3.1.1 Programme name, level and award

The analysis of key words helped me to identify the name of the programme, namely 'Curriculum Studies'. The categorised level of the programme is at Level 8 of the South African NQF. The term 'Level' is referred to in Section 8 of Level Descriptors as "one of series of levels of learning achievement arranged in ascending order from one to ten according to which the South African NQF is organised and to which qualification types are pegged" (SAQA, 2012).

A BEdHons is a one-year full-time or two-year part-time degree that prepares students for their Master's degree. To enrol for an Honours degree a student must be in possession of a four-year education degree or a three-year Bachelor's degree with a postgraduate certificate in education. International students are assessed by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) to determine whether they qualify for this Level 8 qualification (South Africa, 2007; SAQA, 2012).

5.3.1.2 The notion of a Curriculum Studies programme

The notion of the programme is provided in Document E-2. A key word used to refer to the programme is "study of." The programme is composed of modules from different fields of study within the Curriculum Studies discipline. The fields mentioned are "curriculum, assessment and teaching." Also, the programme regards the discipline as not static, but as "continuously transforming and developing."

Furthermore, the programme engages with "national and international social issues and global movements" related to Curriculum Studies. The social issues and global movements considered in

the programme include “trends in curriculum, E-learning, digital-learning, research methodology theory” and “the skills” needed for one to be able to “participate” in contemporary Curriculum Studies discourses.

5.3.2 The elements of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

The textual analysis of the elements of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at NQF Level 8 was aligned with the description about the production, distribution and the consumption of the elements of Document E-1 and Document E-2 (5.2.1.2 & 5.2.2.2).

5.3.2.1 The content

A Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons has the following content which is identified with key words “fundamental”, “core”, and “elective” as outlined in Tables 5-8, 5-9 and 5-10.

Table 5-8: Outline of fundamental content for a Curriculum Studies programme (data outlined from Documents E-1 & E-2)

Foundations for Education Research	Research Project
• Education theories • Current social science and educational landscape • Education praxis	• Scientific proposal writing • Conducting the project • Scientific writing of the project

Table 5-9: Outline of core content for a Curriculum Studies programme (data outlined from Documents E-1 & E-2)

Classroom Instruction	Curriculum Development	Teaching, Learning and Assessment	The School Curriculum
• Strategic teaching • Effective teaching and learning in specific areas, subjects and contexts	• Theories and modules of curriculum development, design, evaluation and change • Processes and procedures of curriculum development in South Africa • Issues in curriculum development • National Curriculum Statement • Role of research in curriculum development • Factors that influence curriculum change	• Teaching and learning theories relevant to the South African education system • International teaching and learning context • Assessments theories and its relation and impacts on assessment practices • Classroom assessment	• South African education system • South African school curriculum processes • Theory and practice in the classroom situation • An outcomes-based education (OBE) and its relevance to the school curriculum

Table 5-10: Outline of elective content for a Curriculum Studies programme (data outlined from Documents E-1 & E-2)

E-learning	Strategic Teaching and Learning
• Educational learning theories of e-learning • E-learning concepts, principles and types used in education • Contexts of e-learning technology • E-learning strategies and education settings • E-activities • Online assessment and moderation • Strategies for online virtual learning group	• Concepts and principles of evidence-based research

In addition, the essence of the content is summarised in Document E-2 which states that the foundation modules are based on “research methodology and its application to Curriculum Studies”; aiming at acquiring skills needed to “participate” in a “continuously transforming curriculum environment.”

Furthermore, the core modules engage with the “national and international” Curriculum Studies trends. The elective content of the programme includes some social issues related to Curriculum Studies and E-learning. The content therefore could be understood as engaging with both the historical and the present circumstances of Curriculum Studies, nationally as well as internationally (2.3).

Regarding the content organisation, Tables 5-1 and 5-6, for instance, show that in each semester the content taught is derived from the fundamental, core and elective modules. However, the organisation of fundamental content for the Research Project module stretches over two semesters, which makes it different from the other modules.

Document E-1 indicates “credit” values for each module, as is evident in Tables 5-1 - 5-5. A credit is defined as a “value assigned to a given number of notional hours of learning” (CHE, 2004). It is also stated that “one SAQA [South African Qualifications Association] credit equals to 10 notional learning hours; 120 SAQA credits are approximately equivalent to one year of full-time study” (CHE, 2004).

5.3.2.2 The student

Documents E-1 and E-2 outline the qualification requirements for students who wish to enrol for the programme. The qualification requirements are based on the previous academic qualification students need to have attained; that is, a “four-year professional teaching degree” or a “relevant Bachelor degree.”

With regard to the grammatical context, it is noted that other qualification requirements are referred to by using an adjective “passionate” and a verb “wish.” The adjective “passionate” and the verb “wish” could mean that students who qualify for the programme must have a “strong feeling” to study Curriculum Studies matters (OALD, 1995:809, 1307).

In addition, Document E-1 defines a full-time student as one whose studies are their “predominant activity.” Moreover, they must follow a curriculum, and complete the programme within a prescribed minimum period. The use of the adjective “predominant” implies that a full-time student is one whose studies are prioritised as the “most important” activity within the study schedule of one year (OALD, 1995:868).

5.3.2.3 The milieu

Document E-1 provides information about the programme which is structured as either “full-time basis, part-time basis, or ODL basis” (5.4.2.4). The minimum duration of the programme is a year for full-time students and the maximum duration for completing the degree programme is three years for part-time students. The duration of the programme is qualified with the adjectives “minimum” and “maximum” in order to show the scope of the programme (OALD, 1995:691, 708). The programme structure is divided into two ‘semesters’. According to Wolhuter (2007:216), the term ‘semester’ means six months. In South Africa, the first semester is from January to June and the second semester is from July to December.

5.3.2.4 The activities

Document E-1 indicates that the BEdHons Level 8 programme is offered for on-campus students through the medium of Afrikaans (NWU, 2015:24) and translation services are provided for English students. ODL students' main language of instruction is English.

Also, the organisation of content illustrated in Tables 5-8, 5-9 and 5-10 shows that the pedagogical activities involved in the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme include teaching and learning of fundamental modules, core modules and elective modules, together with research or a project.

5.3.2.5 The assessment

According to Document E-1, the programme is assessed against the “modules outcomes” stipulated under each module as outlined in Tables 5-3, 5-4 and 5-5.

The mode of assessment includes attainment of 50% for Continuous Assessments, which refers to formative assessment, and 50% for Written Examinations, which is summative assessment. For assessment of the fundamental module Research Project (RSPR 671), the mark amounts to a total of 100%.

The outstanding grammatical feature of modality used to identify module outcomes is “should” (Document E-1). The modality “should” is used in sentences before the modules outcomes are stated. For instance, by the end of the module, students “should be equipped to...” Here, the use of the modal verb “should” addresses the “description” of expected outcomes from the modules which students must best be able to demonstrate (OALD, 1995:1043).

5.3.3 The practice of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

The textual analysis of the practice of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at NQF Level 8 was aligned with the description about the production, distribution and the consumption of the practice of Document E-1 and Document E-2 (5.2.1.3 & 5.2.2.3).

Documents E-1 and E-2 provided evidence that a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons is offered at the School for Education Studies. In particular, Document E-1 pointed out the benefits of the programme using key words such as the adjective “essential”, which could mean that the programme is “vital or extremely important” (OALD, 1995:376). Other key words are, “provides” and “enables” which could be understood as “avail or give” opportunity (OALD, 1995:892). Noun phrases such as “professional promotion” and “access to academia”, and the clause “apply for positions” are used in order to explain the benefit of the programme when it has been successfully completed.

Furthermore, the practice of the programme featured the grammatical themes used in the documents. The themes are clearly identified with noun phrases. For instance: module code, title, module outcomes, method of delivery, and methods of assessment (Document E-1). In Document E-2 the themes are identified using questions, for instance: “What is Curriculum Studies?” “How is the degree structured?” “Who should apply?” and “What can obtaining this degree do for you?” For this reason, the entire architecture of Documents E-1 and E-2 could be interpreted as a monologic academic writing style. Specifically, document E-2 contains elements of an advertisement interpreted through images of people, a world map, arrows and crosses pointing to different directions.

Thus, the above textual analysis of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at Level 8 enabled the understanding of meanings of key words used to describe the focus of the programme. Also, the grammatical features analysed assisted in an in-depth understanding of connections of information related to the programme. Moreover, features such as themes formed with noun phrases and questions assisted in interpreting the description cohesively. In addition, the text structure was mainly academic writing style with some elements of advertisement in Document E-2. The textual analysis consequently assisted me in analysing the data more critically and therefore understanding meanings of the data derived from the documents.

5.4 SOCIAL PRACTICE OF A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME

This section discusses the holistic analysis of the social practice which involves orders of discourses between and within the social structure of a Curriculum Studies programme from both Document E-1 and E-2. The section analyses the social practices of the nature, the elements, and the practice of the programme.

5.4.1 The nature of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

The analysis of the social practice involved in the nature of a Curriculum Studies programme for Bachelor of Education at Level 8 was related to the analysis of the nature of discursive practice, and the textual analysis of the programme (5.2.1.1, 5.2.2.1 & 5.3.1). This type of analysis informs the following discussion.

5.4.1.1 *Programme name, level, and award*

A Curriculum Studies programme is categorised at Level 8 of the SAQA Framework Level Descriptors (SAQA, 2012). According to Section 29 of the Level Descriptors, Level 8 focuses on providing a broad indication of the learning outcomes of a programme whose components are:

scope of knowledge; knowledge literacy; methods and procedures; problem solving; ethics and professional practice; accessing, processing and managing information, context and systems; management of learning, and accountability (see Appendix G). The identified level descriptors of the programme assist in developing a programme that is aligned with national requirements, and so that learning experiences are designed on the correct level (Moon, 2002; CHE, 2004; SAQA, 2012). Furthermore, the naming of the programme and its award, that is, the BEdHons in Curriculum Studies, is aligned with the Bachelor of Honours Degree designators specified in Appendix 1 of the Higher Education Qualifications Framework (South Africa, 2007).

5.4.1.2 The notion of a Curriculum Studies programme

The notion of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at Level 8 could be discussed in two contexts. First is the context of how educational phenomena are commonly defined. According to Scheffler (1960), the notions of education-related discourses could be defined in three ways as: a stipulative definition, a descriptive definition, or a programmatic definition. A “stipulative” definition refers to a meaning of a phenomenon according to a particular context or theory advocated by a certain author (Scheffler, 1960:13). A “descriptive” definition means a definition which is explanatory in nature (Scheffler, 1960:15), whereas a “programmatic” definition refers to the practical role of a phenomenon (Scheffler, 1960:19) when applied to the definition of a Curriculum Studies programme as is the case in Document E-2 (5.2.2.1). Thus, the notion of a Curriculum Studies programme could be interpreted from the programmatic point of view where its elements are explained.

The second context is that of understanding ‘Curriculum Studies’ as a term from the praxis point of view (1.6.1). A Curriculum Studies programme could be understood as the programme which requires individuals’ involvement in understanding Curriculum Studies phenomena. These individuals should critically inquire and reflect upon different social contexts that influence Curriculum Studies as a discipline and its discourses (3.6.1). This notion of a Curriculum Studies programme features in Documents E-1 and E-2.

Furthermore, the main fields of a Curriculum Studies programme for a BEdHons curriculum are assessment and teaching-learning, which inform the content of the programme. The programme is composed of the foundation, the core and the elective content which all together lead to “applied competence” in understanding the programme (SAQA, 2012). According to Section 6 of the Level Descriptors, applied competence is referred to as “foundational competence [which] embraces the intellectual academic skills of knowledge together with analysis, synthesis and evaluation, which includes information processing and problem solving; practical competence includes the concept of operational context; and reflexive competence incorporates student autonomy” (SAQA, 2012).

In this regard, the Documents indicate that the core content of the programme engages with historical movements in Curriculum Studies and discourses such as the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies (2.3). Further, the programme includes content about social issues and global movements. This content is also reflected in some of the elective modules considered in the programme. The content of elective modules focuses on the relationship between Curriculum Studies and present circumstances understood as the horizontality structure of the discipline of Curriculum Studies (2.3). As a result, it could be asserted that the nature of the studied programme at university E is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies as an approach to the development of this programme (3.6.1).

Moreover, the programme engages with fundamental content bases on research methodology useful for contemporary Curriculum Studies problems. This implies that the programme features the content of modes of knowledge production which are very influential in the Curriculum Studies discipline and its discourses (2.4). Apart from dealing with broad Curriculum Studies content, the programme includes the teaching of skills required for one to 'participate' in the discipline. This suggests a hands-on involvement with Curriculum Studies in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the discipline as a whole in order to become a scholar in the field (3.6.1).

The evidence from Documents E-1 and E-2 suggests that the nature of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons categorised among teacher education programmes within the highest level of learning achievement apart from programmes which are at Level 9 and Level 10. The BEdHons in Curriculum Studies programme clearly reflects the contemporary needs required for teacher education programmes within the highest level of achievement (CHE, 2004; SAQA, 2012).

Given the discussion about the social practice of the nature of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons students, it is evident that the nature of this programme embraces aspects of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies. Also, the programme level and award that is aligned with the relevant higher education policies. The information discussed here about the nature of the programme form the basis for understanding the other components of curriculum as discussed in Section 5.4.2

5.4.2 The elements of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

The analysis of the social practice concerning the elements of a Curriculum Studies programme was brought into conversation with the analysis of the elements of discursive practice, and the textual interpretation (5.2.1.2, 5.2.2.2 & 5.3.2). This method of analysis informs the following discussion.

5.4.2.1 *The content*

The content captured in the programme includes core modules that address the discipline of Curriculum Studies, modules pertaining to the other related disciplines, research methodology, and elective modules. The disciplinary content engages with the historical nature of Curriculum Studies (verticality), and the transdisciplinary content involves skills and knowledge related to the present circumstance (horizontality) (2.3). Aspects relating to the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse are also covered.

5.4.2.2 *Content organisation*

Documents E-1 and E-2 outlined the horizontal and vertical organisational dimensions of the content of the programme. The horizontal organisation of the Curriculum Studies programme content indicates that different core modules and elective modules are organised for semester 1 and semester 2. This implies that the programme integrates content from different disciplines (3.4.2.1), which helps students to understand the taught programme more holistically and to see connections among the content taught. Horizontal organisation enables students to apply knowledge and skills in both Curriculum Studies as a discipline and matters related to other disciplines (Allen, 2015; Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; SAQA, 2012). Scholars in Curriculum Studies endorse the view that content of a Curriculum Studies programme should be interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary in order to align with contemporary discourses and trends in the discipline (3.6.2).

The vertical organisation (3.4.2.2) of the content is identified with the fundamental Research Project module (RSPR 671) which is offered in both semester 1 and semester 2 for full-time Curriculum Studies students. In the first year, it is offered in semester 2 and in the third year in semester 2 for the part-time Curriculum Studies students.

Furthermore, a sequencing criterion was used to organise the two fundamental modules. This means that Foundations of Education Research (FOER 611) whose content is more theoretical is first taught in the first semester of the first year, and is then followed by the Research Project (RSPR 671) whose content is more practical. The advantages of the vertical organisation of the content of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons could assist students in gaining a more profound knowledge of research methodology which could be applied not only to Curriculum Studies problems but also to socio-political problems (2.4.4).

Regarding the allocation of credit values as stipulated in Document E-1, Maphosa *et al.* (2014:359) comment that “the credit system serves as a cornerstone to the administration of higher education institutions internationally, nationally, and institutionally.” In the context of university E, the use of the credit system provides the ability to manage and compare academic qualifications of students who

are South African citizens as well as international students who wish to study in the Faculty (Document E-1). Also, the identification of credits enables the users of the documents to understand and differentiate the weighting credits for the modules. It is important to note that this study did not inquire further about the method of calculating credit allocation since it was not considered to be part of the study. However, curriculum developers are encouraged to understand the method of calculation of credit(s) aligned with the relevant NQF (Maphosa *et al.*, 2014).

5.4.2.3 *The student*

Apart from the academic qualifications needed for a student to be enrolled in a Curriculum Studies programme, the data from the documents indicate that the students should be “passionate” and “wish” to study the curriculum discipline and its discourses. In the context of teacher education in higher education, this could be interpreted as meaning that students are to be enthusiastic about the programme (3.2.2). A Level 8 student is expected to “demonstrate” capacity, an understanding, and the ability to successfully complete the programme (SAQA, 2012). Scholars of teacher education view postgraduate programmes as essential for students to become professionally empowered for their work (1.6.4 & 3.6.2).

5.4.2.4 *The milieu*

Milieu as an element of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons extends the understanding of how the content of the programme is organised. It considers the scope of the programme which is offered for a “minimum” range of one academic year and a “maximum” range of three years. The minimum duration is considered for a full-time programme, and a part-time programme extends to a “maximum” of three years. According to the social practice of university E, full-time students and part-time students attend classes on campus, whereas ODL students attend their local centres and communicate with lecturers via white board sessions.

The use of the terms ‘minimum’ and ‘maximum’ helps to clarify the scope of organisation of the programme. The programme extends teaching and learning opportunities to students who could wish to be enrolled as either full-time or part-time students. This kind of scope of the programme is useful for teacher education in higher education since it allows for pre-service and in-service teachers to be enrolled in the study. The scope considered in the organisation of this programme is also supported in the work of Van der Horst and McDonald (2003:6) as the attribute of a curriculum programme in the context of South Africa which regards educators to be responsible for creating learning environments that are “inviting, challenging and motivating.”

5.4.2.5 The activities

According to Document E-1, the medium of instruction for on-campus students is Afrikaans. The social practice of university E makes provision for translation services into English. ODL students' main language of instruction is English.

The use of more than one language in curriculum development in higher education is in line with Section 3.3.2 of the Language Policy Framework for South African Higher Education (CHE, 2001). The use of the two languages enables students to conduct their studies in the language they are most familiar with, at the same time fostering the national and international languages (CHE, 2001).

Furthermore, the textual analysis of the content, the students and milieu of the programme provides evidence that a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons involves teaching, learning and research activities which could inform a student-centred curriculum, a problem-based curriculum, a project-based curriculum, and a service-based curriculum. These types of curricula are recommended for teacher education in higher education (3.5.3-3.5.6). Also, the kinds of pedagogical activities which could be demonstrated through these types of curricula enhance learning achievement appropriate to a qualification on NQF Level 8 (SAQA, 2012).

5.4.2.6 The assessment

The data from Document E-1 indicate that the stipulated outcomes of the programme modules focus on what students should be equipped to do in order to demonstrate an understanding of knowledge and acquisition of skills related to the programme. In similar vein, Van der Horst and McDonald (2003) comment that in the context of South Africa module outcomes should be realised from what educators want to achieve and what the students must be able to do. This is a reflection of the student-applied competence theory which forms a theoretical framework for developing curricula in higher education in South Africa, as explained in Section 3 of the Level Descriptors (SAQA, 2012). In addition, the provision of learning outcomes intends to direct and not to restrict the pedagogical processes (SAQA, 2012).

The data from Document E-1 also indicate that both formative assessment and summative assessment form part of the programme. In the context of South Africa, Van der Horst and McDonald (2003) argue that positive and constructive ongoing assessment is essential for success in learning. Yet, this does not mean that all students will be able to achieve the same outcomes, rather that all students should be granted opportunities to reach their full potential. For this reason, it could be interpreted that formative and summative assessments are in line with the need to enable students in teacher education in the context of South Africa to apply their knowledge and experiences in achieving the set module outcomes and in particular learning outcomes.

In view of the discussion regarding the data on elements of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons at Level 8 offered at university E, it could be generally interpreted that the programme entails broad content of Curriculum Studies discipline and its discourses. This enables a student to apply competence in different contexts and systems as a teacher and a researcher in contemporary society. Furthermore, it is important to ensure that all the elements of the programme are coherently developed for the programme to be more meaningful to students (3.2.2). The majority of the discussed elements of the programme were in line with the scholarly discussions about the process and praxis approaches to curriculum development (3.3.2 & 3.3.3). In addition, policy documents of the country's context contribute considerably to a deeper understanding of the elements of the curriculum.

5.4.3 The practice of the BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme

The analysis of the social practice involved in the nature of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons in Curriculum Studies was related to the analysis of the practice of the discursive structure, and the textual analysis of the Curriculum Studies programme (5.2.1.3, 5.2.2.3 & 5.3.3). Here follows the discussion.

The analysis of the social practice of a Curriculum Studies programme for BEdHons could stimulate reflection on the need for a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education at present. The Documents indicated that the programme is currently needed for professional development in teaching, research and curriculum development positions. This need is also aligned with the national needs for higher education programmes (CHE, 2004).

This matter was also emphasised in Document E-2 where images of the world map and individuals who communicate, as well as phrases such as 'global solution' and 'business plan' were used to convey the importance of Curriculum Studies programme. The data from this document suggests that Curriculum Studies is needed for teacher education in higher education, both nationally and internationally. In particular, the term 'global' (cf. 'globalisation') could be seen as referring to a "flow of people's cultures ideas, values, knowledge, technology, and economic across borders resulting in a more interconnected and interdependent world" which informs the context of Curriculum Studies (Knight, 2008:5). The aforementioned dimensions of globalisation have a great influence on Curriculum Studies as a discipline and its discourses. For instance, the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse integrates global dimensions into Curriculum Studies as a discipline. As a result, the discipline continuously grows (1.6.2, 2.2.1, 2.3 & 3.6.1).

From the above discussion on the social practice of a Curriculum Studies programme, it is evident that in developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education, curriculum developers should consider the nature, the elements, and the practice of the programme

against the recent higher education curriculum programme policies of the specific country. This is an important point because a policy document of such nature must have presented the rationale for developing higher education curriculum programmes which meet both the national and international contemporary needs. The dialectical relations between the context of an academic institution (university E), and the contexts of programmes and the institution's stakeholders, such as students and the higher education organs, necessitates the need to inform the curriculum development process by the praxis-oriented approach.

This enables the developed programme(s) to meet the national requirements as well as the needs of students and other stakeholders. Figure 5-1 summarises the data derived from the documents.

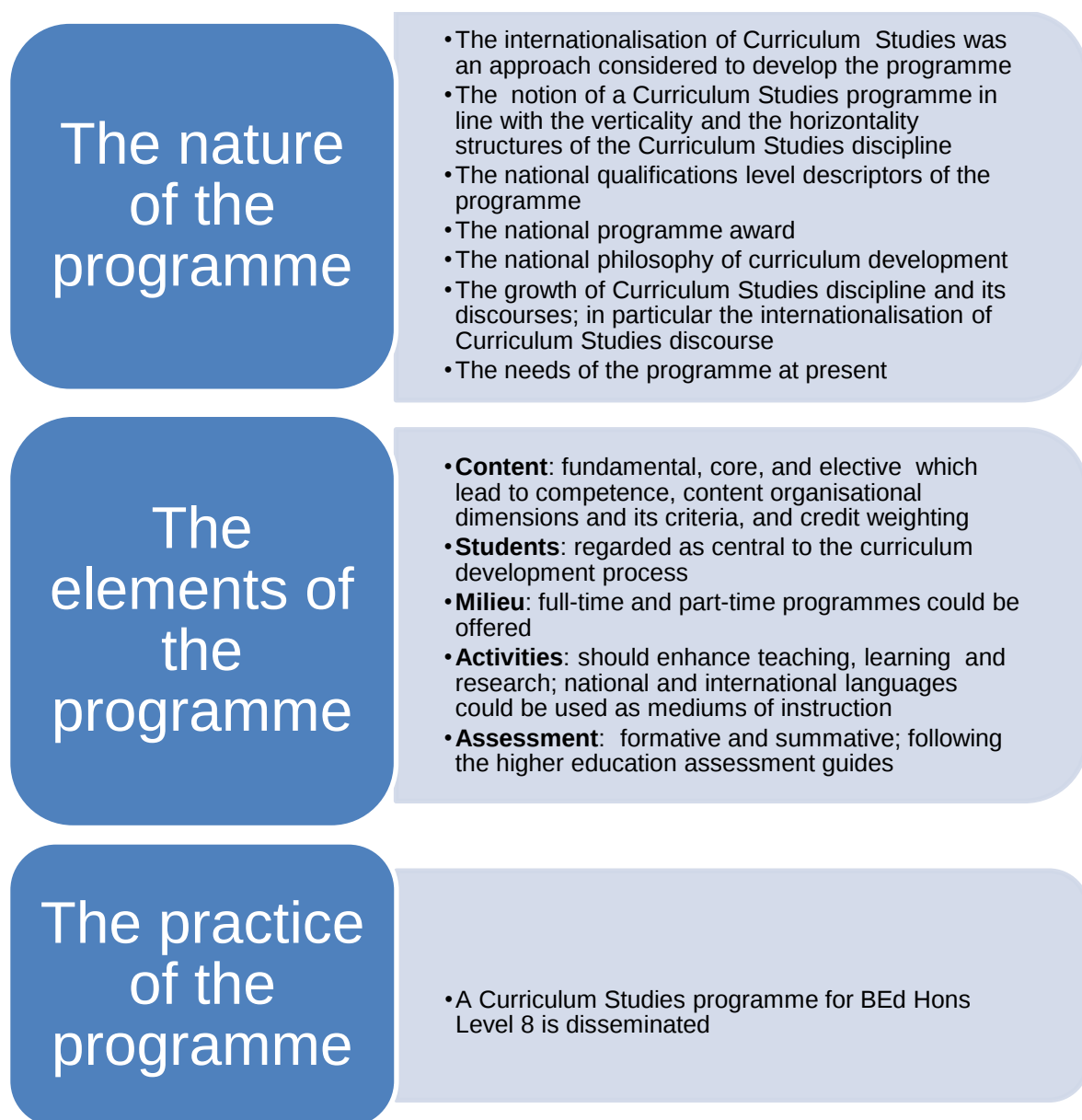


Figure 5-1: Theoretical guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme (summarised data from Documents E-1 & E-2)

5.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter described, interpreted and discussed the data on a BEdHons Curriculum Studies programme at Level 8 offered at a South African university. The analysis involved understanding of the production, distribution and consumption of the data generated from the documents, looking at the meanings derived from the language used and discussing the social structure related to the data regarding the study.

The dialectical-relational approach as a method for analysis assisted in contextualising the data, highlighting deeper meanings of the discussed data, and showing the relationships of social structure and social practice involved in the study. In particular, mention was made of the historical events (verticality) and present circumstances (horizontality) that inform the structure of Curriculum Studies, as well as of the higher education political organs which must be consulted when developing a curriculum programme. For this reason, the method used to analyse the documents made the whole process of analysis critical and made it possible to answer the research question which was aimed at investigating how documents of a South African university could assist in developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania (1.5.b). The analysis of these documents consequently shed light on ways of developing a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of a Curriculum Studies discourse, and brought awareness of the internationalisation aspects that informed the development of the programme. The next chapter addresses the interview data and explores responses from heads of departments, a subject chair, lecturers, and students in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education.

CHAPTER SIX

INTERVIEWS: EXPLORING RESPONSES ON A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores the interview responses from the research participants who were approached to generate the data for this study (4.6.2). The participants were from the four universities in Tanzania and one university in South Africa. The chapter explains how CDA in the context of a dialectical-relational approach was used to facilitate the presentation, interpretation and discussion of the responses from heads of departments, a subject chair, lecturers, and students pertaining to the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education. This was done to address the third research question for the study (1.4c). The use of the three different interview sources assisted in the process of crystallisation of the data for the purpose of trustworthiness (4.8).

In order to ensure coherence and avoidance of repetitions of ideas, the chapter starts with the holistic analysis of the discursive practice of the nature, the elements and the practice of a Curriculum Studies programme as communicated by the heads of departments, a subject chair, lecturers, and students. Despite this focus, all participants responded to some common questions which sought general views on a Curriculum Studies programme, and some participants responded to other questions which focused on aspects of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. The rationale for addressing different questions to different participants was based on the nature of the curriculum-related programmes offered at participating universities; it was evident that the four universities in Tanzania offer Curriculum Studies as a module within educational programmes, whilst the South African university offers Curriculum Studies as a programme (4.5).

Next, the chapter inductively analyses the textual forms and structure used by the participants in representing matters related to a Curriculum Studies programme. The social practice related to the analysed discursive practice is also presented in this chapter, together with the textual analysis, in order to enhance the process of critical analysis and an in-depth understanding of the data.

Table 6-1 provides an overview of the environments of the five universities where the research was conducted in Tanzania and South Africa. The overview is also expounded in Appendices E and F, which assist in elucidating the geographical locations of the universities, and in Appendices G and H, which provide details concerning the content of the level descriptors of postgraduate programmes involved in the study. The discursive structure of the university environments was

important because it informed the discursive practice which assisted in contextualising the study within the different contexts.

Table 6-1: The environments of the five universities involved in the study

UNIVERSITY ID ALPHABET	UNIVERSITY A	UNIVERSITY B	UNIVERSITY C	UNIVERSITY D	UNIVERSITY E
TYPE	Government	Government	Non-government	Non-government	Government
NATIONAL CONTEXT	Tanzania	Tanzania	Tanzania	Tanzania	South Africa
REGION/ PROVINCE	Dodoma	Dar es Salaam	Kilimanjaro	Arusha	North-West
FACULTY INVOLVED	Education	Education	Education	Education	Education Sciences
POSTGRADUATE PROGRAMME INVOLVED	Master of Arts in Educational Management	Master of Arts in Educational Management	Master of Arts in Educational Management	Master of Arts in Educational Management	Bachelor of Education Honours (Curriculum Studies)
LEVEL DESCRIPTORS	9	9	9	9	8
DELIVERY MODE	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time	Part-time

6.2 DISCURSIVE PRACTICE OF A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME

This section analyses the production, distribution and consumption of a Curriculum Studies programme. The chapter presents the discursive practice communicated by the participants. Discourse-as-discursive practice makes it possible to contextualise the study and consequently sets the scene for the interpretation and discussion of discourse-as-text and discourse-as-social practice. The section starts with the holistic analysis of a Curriculum Studies programme based on its (i) definitions, (ii) purposes, (iii) objectives, (iv) contents, (v) activities, (vi) influences in the field of Curriculum Studies in Tanzania, and (vii) challenges for developing a Curriculum Studies programme in Tanzania.

The section ends with the analysis of discursive practice focused on the aspects of the internationalisation discourse with regard to a Curriculum Studies programme that is offered at the South African university. Participants from this university responded to the following: (i) the notion of internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, (ii) the notion of a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, (iii) the elements of a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation discourse, (iv) the influences of a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of

Curriculum Studies discourse on the field of curriculum, and (vi) procedures for developing a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by this discourse. Table 6-2 below indicates the naming of the interview participants.

Table 6-2: Naming of the heads of departments and a subject chair, lecturers, and students

UNIVERSITY ID. ALPHABET	LEADERS	LECTURERS	STUDENTS		TOTAL
			Individuals	Group	
UNIVERSITY A	Head Department (HD01-uA)	Lecturer (L01-uA) Lecturer (L02-uA)	Student (S01-uA) Student (S02-uA) Student (S03-uA)	S FCG-uA	06
UNIVERSITY B	Head Department (HD01-uB)	Lecturer (L01-uB)	Student (S01-uB) Student (S02-uB) Student (S03-uB) Student (S04-uB) Student (S05-uB) Student (S06-uB)	S FCG-uB	08
UNIVERSITY C	Head Department (HD01-uC)	Lecturer (L01-uC)	Student (S01-uC) Student (S02-uC) Student (S03-uC) Student (S04-uC) Student (S05-uC) Student (S06-uC)	S FCG-uC	08
UNIVERSITY D	Head Department (HD01-uD)	Lecturer (L01-uD)	Student (S01-uD) Student (S02-uD) Student (S03-uD) Student (S04-uD) Student (S05-uD) Student (S06-uD)	S FCG-uD	08
UNIVERSITY E	Subject Chair (SBC-uE)	Lecturer (L01-uE)	Student (S01-uE) Student (S02-uE)	S FCG-uE	04
TOTAL	05	06	23		34

6.2.1 General responses on a Curriculum Studies programme

6.2.1.1 Definitions

From a Tanzanian perspective, a Curriculum Studies programme was defined as a programme that prepares specialists for curriculum work. Participant HD01-uB stated that it is “a programme that will prepare a person in curriculum development, design and evaluation...to complete each and every element...of curriculum.” This is similar to the definition provided by participant HD01-uC: “[It is] a programme which consists of all aspects of curriculum including curriculum development, design, innovations, evaluation and curriculum monitoring.” Also, L01-uA perceived Curriculum Studies programme as that which prepares specialists in curriculum matters.

Participants HD01-uA, HD01-uD and L02-uA were vaguer in their definitions when describing it as “a programme which deals with the study of curriculum”, “plan of study which focuses on a preparation of curricula which can be applicable to any level of education”, and “a programme that will enable teachers to get more experience [in] teaching and learning.” These definitions resonate with the discussion about curriculum as product which renders it a narrow interpretation (3.3.1). In the four focus group interviews with the student participants from Tanzania, it became evident that they saw a Curriculum Studies programme as a linear process of designing, planning, developing and evaluating curriculum materials. This is in line with Tyler’s approach discussed in Section 3.3.1.

On the contrary, one participant from the South African university (SBC-uE) provided me with a Faculty marketing pamphlet that contained a definition of Curriculum Studies. It reads as follows: “the study of the curriculum, assessment and teaching-learning within continuously transforming and developing curriculum environments. It engages with social issues and global movements concerning Curriculum Studies nationally and internationally” (5.2.2.1). This definition resonates more closely with curriculum as praxis (3.3.3) and the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies (3.6). This phenomenon also became evident in the focus group interviews with the South African students who defined Curriculum Studies as follows: “[A]t this moment we focus basically on South African reform but...then we have to involve the reform of participating countries” (S02-uE). Along the same line of thought, S01-uE gave a broad definition of Curriculum Studies when describing it as “something bigger than just one curriculum but more in a broader sense and then going deeper into the different curricula.”

With the exception of two lecturers (L01-uA & L02-uA), the other participating lecturers gave broad definitions of a Curriculum Studies programme in which the discipline is not only seen as a plan of study (1.6.1). For example, when defining Curriculum Studies, participant L01-uB stated: “I remember there are several definitions of curriculum...we don’t really have a single definition of curriculum...it’s the totality of what happens...in the schools [... it focuses] on all of the things which

will be taking place in the school environment.” Participants L01-uC, L01-uD and L01-uE held the same broad view of a Curriculum Studies programme.

6.2.1.2 *The purposes*

Some participants emphasised that the purpose of a Curriculum Studies programme is to provide teachers with the “skills, knowledge and competencies in developing curriculum for specific levels of education” (HD01-uA). Participant HD01-uC stated that the purpose is “to prepare teachers who are capable of conceptualising the curriculum concepts using them in practice through implementation of curriculum in schools.” Participants HD01-uC and HD01-uD agreed that by equipping teachers they could become experts in curriculum practice and implementation. However, they did not consider teachers as active participants in the curriculum development processes, but merely as implementers of national policy that is being developed by experts outside of the school system (2.2.2.1.1, 2.2.2.1.2, 3.3 & 3.3.1). The lecturers (L01-uA, L02-uA & L01-uB) focused extensively on providing teachers with knowledge so that they can implement the curriculum effectively and bridge the gaps between policy and practice.

Many participants stressed the importance of Curriculum Studies in developing experts in the field. For example, participant HD01-uB stated that the purpose of the programme is “to prepare specialists in curriculum” who can identify “the philosophy of the country, identifying special issues in curriculum to be included in the programmes whether it is primary, secondary or Teachers’ Training Colleges.” This participant suggested that “the specialists should be able to know the timing, the designs, the models, the different curriculum types...used in different countries, developed and developing countries” and that “the experts should also be...an inquirer...ready to learn from others...with an open mind to be ready to listen...be ready to do whatever is intended in terms of curriculum for the benefit of the country.” The lecturers agreed with the development of experts in the field when using concepts such as “specialists in curriculum” (L01-uA), “professionals in curriculum” (L01-uC) and “experts in curriculum” (L01-uD & L01-uE). In one of the focus group interviews in Tanzania (S FCG-uB), the students also agreed that the purpose of the discipline is to develop “specialists in curriculum. The idea of curriculum experts as inquirers corresponds with the perspective of participant SBC-uE who argued that “Curriculum Studies is an area of scholarship that touches each and every teacher” and that teachers “need to have knowledge of different teaching styles...how to develop curriculum...how to make curriculum context specific and make it applicable to the audience.” The emphasis on teachers being more involved in curriculum development processes is aligned with the praxis (3.3.3) and in particular the deliberative (3.3.3.2) approaches to curriculum development.

Three of the student participant focus group interviews (S FCG-uA, S FCG-uB & S FCG-uD) from Tanzania highlighted the importance of Curriculum Studies in providing them with knowledge on how to implement the curriculum in practice. The Tanzanian students stressed the importance of Curriculum Studies as a subject to assist them in planning, designing, developing, implementing and evaluating curriculum (S FCG-uA, S FCG-uC & S FCG-uD). The South African focus group elaborated extensively on education change in the country and the empowerment of teachers to deal with these changes.

6.2.1.3 The objectives

Some participants (HD01-uA, L01-uB & L01-uE) were of the view that the main objective of a Curriculum Studies programme is to enable students to demonstrate an understanding of different perspectives of the term 'curriculum' and its historical developments. HD01-uD stated that the main objective of such a programme is "to promote an understanding about [the various] meanings of curriculum." Participant L01-uB identified the same objective for the programme. In addition, participant L01-uB asked if the programme could deal with the historical developments in Curriculum Studies and suggested that "[the] historical developments in Curriculum Studies could feature in [the programme]." Similarly, L01-uE commented that "it is very important to know the history of curriculum [so as] to know the past mistakes and not to repeat them...but to improve." This objective is in line with the explored body of scholarship on the notions of curriculum (1.6.1) and historical developments in Curriculum Studies (2.2.2).

Another objective of the programme is to assist students in demonstrating skills in designing curriculum materials and implementing them effectively. HD01-uB stated that it is "to identify...the best models in curriculum development...design and evaluation." Participants HD01-uA, HD01-uD and L01-uB stated the same objective regarding providing skills in various curriculum components. For this reason, participants HD01-uC, L01-uA and L02-uA were of the opinion that teachers become competent in curriculum implementation and practice. For example, participant HD01-uC stated the objective of the programme as follows: "to prepare teachers who are competent and effective in the implementation process in schools." This is in line with the literature about curriculum design which is a key component of curriculum development process (3.4).

Many participants stressed the objective of the programme as to develop knowledge and skills in research methodology in Curriculum Studies. The participants were of the view that the knowledge and skills in Curriculum Studies inquiry would enable students to become scholars in the field of curriculum. Participant HD01-uB suggested in particular that the programme could equip students with "skills of persuasion especially to political figures on how a curriculum should be adopted." Furthermore, participants HD01-uC, HD01-uD, L01-uA, L01-uC and L01-uD stated generally that

the programme should prepare scholars in Curriculum Studies. For example, participant HD01-uD commented as follows: "... teachers become experts and resource persons in the area of curriculum ..." and "... to train Tanzanian specialists who would help [to] define curriculum issues...for the purpose of developing the country" (L01-uC). This objective is in line with the body of scholarship on promoting praxis-oriented research methodology and methods in Curriculum Studies in order to empower researchers and practitioners in the field (2.4.4).

The participant from the South African university (SBC-uE) explained that the objectives of their programme focus on topics listed in the Faculty marketing pamphlet (5.2.2.2.1):

- International and national trends in curriculum;
- Assessment and teaching-learning;
- The relationship between curriculum and social issues;
- E-learning as appropriate for Curriculum Studies, given the global movement toward digital learning;
- Research methodology in the context of Curriculum Studies; and
- The skills needed to participate in a continuously transforming curriculum environment.

These objectives embrace features of a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation discourse (3.6.2).

6.2.1.4 *The contents*

The participants' responses regarding the content of the programme were categorised into five main areas as explained below:

- Curriculum development content. The content includes "different curriculum approach[es]" (HD01-uA), and "how to think about curriculum in different paradigmatic positions" (S FCG-uE). Other participants who agreed on the teaching of curriculum development theories were HD01-uD, L01-uE and S FCG-uC. Many participants regarded this aspect as important. The participating students (S FCG-uE) explained that "different curricula have different backgrounds and you have to understand...why [curriculum developers] have developed [a certain curriculum] in a certain way ...". Other participants (HD01-uD, L01-uB & L01-uE) supported the importance of curriculum development content for a Curriculum Studies programme. For example, participant L01-uB explained that "curriculum is something out to change every time...you must have people who are able to [advise on how to make changes]." Furthermore, many participants were of the opinion that curriculum development content provides teachers with knowledge, skills and competencies in curriculum design matters (HD01-uA, HD01-uB, HD01-uD, L01-uA, L02-uA, L01-uB, L01-uE, S FCG-uA, S

FCG-uB, S FCG-uC & S FCG-uD). For example, participant L01-uB commented: “[The content of] designing is very important because we have to restructure curriculum every time.” This is in line with the discussed body of scholarship on curriculum development theories (3.3) and curriculum design (3.4).

- The other content of the programme is the history of Curriculum Studies. Participant S FCG-uE commented: “... history is useful” and “... through history of Curriculum Studies one gains an understanding of [the] philosophy [of education] of the country and how that philosophy influences curriculum decisions” (HD01-uB). Participants HD01-uA, L01-uB, L01-uD and L01-uE agreed on the importance of understanding past, present and future events in Curriculum Studies. For example, participant L01-uB suggested that “history is useful...there are events you need to look back [on].” This resonates with the literature on a historical overview of Curriculum Studies as a discipline as discussed in Chapter 2.
- Teaching-learning and assessment were also suggested as content for the programme. This content involves studying “theories of learning and teaching” (S FCG-uC), “effective teaching and learning” (HD01-uD), “how you evaluate curriculum and why you need to evaluate it” (L01-uE), and “how to construct questions [and] how to use different methods of assessment” (S FCG-uC). Also, participants HD01-uA, HD01-uB, L01-uA, L02-uA, L01-uC, S FCG-uA, and S FCG-uD suggested that teaching-learning and assessment are essential content components for a Curriculum Studies programme. The student participants from the South African university stressed that the content of a Curriculum Studies programme should inform teachers about how to become curriculum agents and leaders. This is in line with the exploration of the curriculum development process which is informed by the emancipatory theory, the deliberative theory and the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (3.3.3.1, 3.3.3.2 & 3.6).
- Some participants suggested that the content of a Curriculum Studies programme should be curriculum and society. Participant SBC-uE explained that it should include “all forms of social issues [such] as marketisation of education, globalisation of education and what implications that have for teacher education on different levels whether they are social, economic or political”, as well as “contemporary issues that arise in the society as curriculum is not static” (HD01-uC). Also, the contemporary needs of society were considered important by participants HD01-uB, HD01-uD, L01-uA, L01-uC and S FCG-uE. Furthermore, participants from the South African university also mentioned issues such as “the digital movement” and “Curriculum Studies as a continuous, transforming environment” (SBC-uE). The content regarding curriculum and society is closely related to the discussion on the horizontality approach to the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (2.3.1).
- One student focus group (S FCG-uB) suggested that “curriculum research” should also be considered as an important part of the content for the programme discussed.

6.2.1.5 *The activities*

6.2.1.5.1 *Factors that influence pedagogical choices*

Some participants commented on the four factors that contribute to the choice of teaching and learning approaches to be considered when developing a Curriculum Studies programme: (i) the kind of content to be taught, (ii) the number of students in class, (iii) the availability of instructional resources, including technological aids, and (iv) the students themselves. For example, participant L01-uB commented that “methods depend on content.” Participant HD01-uA had the same response regarding how specific content determines the choice of teaching and learning activities. Participant S FCG-uC suggested that “it will depend on the number of students.” The concern about the number of students as a factor for different teaching-learning approaches was also explained by participants SBC-uE and L01-uE. For example, participant SBC-uE explained that “in one of my classes I only have three students. So I take on completely different methods of teaching and learning than I will do in my other classes where I have three hundred students.” These factors were also discussed in the exploration of the body of scholarship, and the view was that curriculum developers, in particular lecturers, should choose different approaches to teaching since the content of most disciplines change over time, also students are to be considered as individuals and/or as groups who have different learning styles (3.2.2). In the context of teacher education in higher education, students’ backgrounds play a considerable role in the process of curriculum development. For instance, in the case of postgraduate students in particular, one could expect to find students with different backgrounds. Some might be in-service or pre-service teachers, they can be national or international students, and their academic backgrounds will be very diverse. All of these factors influence the ways in which students learn (3.2.2).

6.2.1.5.2 *Pedagogical dimensions*

According to the participants, the pedagogical dimensions involve participatory approaches, non-participatory approaches, and a mixture or integration of approaches. These approaches are embedded in various methods, techniques, and activities for teaching and learning. The participatory approaches were explained as follows: “methods which emphasise learning rather than teaching” (L02-uA), “all [student]-centred activities” (L02-uA), “student-centred approaches and hands-on approaches are very basic” (L01-uC). Other similar responses about student-centred approaches were given by the student participants in the focus group interviews in Tanzania and South Africa.

Furthermore, some participants explained ways in which participatory approaches could be employed as “giving in assignments” (S FCG-uE), “projects...in terms of evaluating curriculum models” (HD01-uB), “problem solving would be the best [and] practical oriented [methods] through

task[s]...like [in] curriculum design and curriculum development” (L01-uA), and “students should be involved in project works, collection of materials, materials design and assessing...portfolio records” (L02-uA). Other participants with similar views about assignments, projects and methods for problem solving were HD01-uA, HD01-uC, HD01-uD, L01-uB and L01-uC.

The other method of teaching and learning categorised under the participatory approach was field study. Participant HD01-uD requested: “study tours to curriculum-related sectors like...[the] Tanzanian Institute of Education.” Participants L01-uB and S FCG-uA also suggested the use of field study as method. In particular, students mentioned some of the activities involved in field study as “discussions” (S FCG-uA, S FCG-uB, S FCG-uD and S FCG-uE), “interventions and debate” (S FCG-uA), and “demonstration or designing [of] a simple curriculum” (S FCG-uB).

The non-participatory approach referred to the lecture method (HD01-uB, HD01-uD, L01-uA, S FCG-uC & S FCG-uD). However, some participants were of the view that the two approaches (participatory and non-participatory) could be considered together to facilitate optimal teaching and learning. Participant SBC-uE commented: “In [an] ideal way, I think they need to be a combination of approaches.” The students of focus group FCG-uC extensively argued that “even if the teacher is not facilitating as such or lecturing, in the lecture method the teacher can incorporate certain activities, for example, think, pair and share, or the teacher can ask students to discuss in small groups.” They also gave an example of “buzz groups in three [groups]”, saying that “even if you have a class of six hundred students in buzz groups they can discuss...you can give them questions” (S FCG-uC). Furthermore, the participants suggested the use of expert speakers to facilitate lectures: “[I]t could be nice if experts on the topic comes and talk to you” (S FCG-uE). Some other participants (L01-uB, HD01-uB & HD01-uD) also suggested the use of guest speakers as a method of teaching.

In particular, participant S FCG-uC explained the usefulness of using both the participatory and non-participatory approaches: “[We] would prefer the mixture of participatory and non-participatory.” They gave the following reasons: “There are times [lecturers] need to make the [students] do it on their own but there are times you need to direct them. There are times [we] need a word from a senior.” They elaborated that “even if [we] are given...for instance to design a curriculum...alone, [we] may do the way [we] think it is right.” Yet, “if the lecturer...comes in and directs [us] as [we] are all listening then [the lecturer] sets [us] off to go to the field and do it on [our] own.”

The discussion about the three approaches to teaching and learning is, for the most part, in line with the approaches to curriculum development discussed earlier (3.3.1-3.3.3).

It was evident that the approaches influence each other and therefore all are important for teaching and learning in a Curriculum Studies programme. Also, in line with the purpose, objectives, and

content of a Curriculum Studies programme (6.2.1) the pedagogical dimensions for teacher education and in particular for a Curriculum Studies programme should encourage praxis-oriented teaching and learning approaches which enhance a student-centred curriculum, problem-based curriculum, project-based curriculum, and service learning-based curriculum (3.5.3-3.5.6).

6.2.1.6 The influence of a Curriculum Studies programme from a Tanzanian perspective

From a Tanzanian perspective, the influence of a Curriculum Studies programme in the field of education was considered vital by many participants. Participant L01-uC commented that “it will go a long way in preparing a practical teacher” (L01-uC). Participants HD01-uC, L01-uA, L02-uA, S FCG-uA, S FCG-uB, S FCG-uC and S FCG-uD believed that the programme outcomes will influence curriculum implementation and practices. For example, participant S FCG-uB commented that such a programme “will produce qualified teachers with basic skills in curriculum.” In this regard, participant L01-uC added that “the nation will have teachers [who are not] simply theoretical [but] teacher[s] who [have an] experiential approach to...teaching and learning”, and “[teachers] are equipped with new teaching styles rather than sticking on to old-fashioned styles” (S FCG-uC). Similar explanations were given by participants S FCG-uA and S FCG-uD regarding developing teachers who can apply what they have studied to real-life contexts.

Moreover, the participants indicated that a Curriculum Studies programme fosters the recognition and promotion of the Curriculum Studies discipline in the nation. The participants viewed that “there is a need to have a programme like a [Curriculum Studies programme]” (L01-uB), and “[This programme] will reform the curriculum itself [as] what was provided to teachers in a nutshell...would be [attended to in] depth and detail” (S FCG-uC). In addition, participants HD01-uA, HD01-uB, HD01-uD, L01-uB and S FCG-uA described ways in which the Curriculum Studies discipline could receive more attention. For example, participant HD01-uA commented that “the field of curriculum will have more people in that specialisation.” Regarding ways of promoting the programme, they felt that “these [specialists will] go and fill the gaps of the experts who are needed” (HD01-uA), and “we can have people who are able to debate on curricula” (L01-uB). Participants HD01-uB and L01-uD agreed that the discipline of Curriculum Studies could be promoted much more through having a Curriculum Studies programme.

Responses from participants from the Tanzanian universities regarding the influence of a Curriculum Studies programme in their country are very much in line with the broad aim of this study indicated in Section 1.2. Also, participants’ responses suggest ways of responding to the lacunae in the study as pointed out in Section 1.3.

6.2.1.7 *Challenges for developing a Curriculum Studies programme in Tanzania*

I interviewed only the heads of departments from the Tanzanian universities about possible challenges for developing a Curriculum Studies programme in the country. Their responses are presented in three categories.

Firstly, there are challenges regarding the political powers that influence curriculum in higher education. These challenges were described in two ways. One view was that there would be resistance to the development of a 'new' programme which focuses on Curriculum Studies as a discipline. In the context of this study, the term 'new programme' could be interpreted as a programme which had not been offered before: "[I]f you want to develop [a] Curriculum Studies programme and if it is a new programme [it] has to pass through...decision-making bodies or committees...you may face some challenges because people are not used to it" (HD01-uA). Also, participant HD01-uB commented that "there will be a little bit of resistance especially with the Ministry of Education and...other stakeholders." This is because "they believed that curriculum does not stand by its own. [It] has to be supported by other courses, for example, the psychology, the foundations and the philosophy of education, for that matter...one cannot have only [a] Curriculum Studies programme without having other courses" (HD01-uB). The view that a Curriculum Studies programme must be integrated with other disciplines was also highlighted by participant HD01-uD. This is in line with the earlier discussion about the conceptual-empiricists who insisted that Curriculum Studies be conceptualised in the context of other disciplines as a way of shifting from the traditionalists' thoughts (2.2.2.1.2 & 2.2.2.1.3).

There are also challenges related to the ever-changing nature of the country's education policies. Participant HD01-uC commented: "[P]olicy issues which will lead to formulation of some of the objectives and determining the level of designing of this programme can become a problem [due to the changing of policies]." This resonates with the discussion about the influence of political powers on curriculum (3.6.2).

Secondly, there are challenges that emanate from an assumption that the nation does not need so many curriculum experts, yet there seems to be a need for promoting Curriculum Studies as a discipline. The participants described two challenges in this category. One was the concern about the future of the programme. Participant HD01-uB commented that "the product from the programme might saturate the system before even it runs for two, three, four years ... [m]aybe these experts might be helpful...if they are distributed...into these districts through the district educational officers, regional educational officers." However, participant HD01-uB was of the opinion that it was an advantage to have more curriculum experts "because we are missing these people."

The other concern that was raised concerned the lack of curriculum experts in the higher education sector to design and explore the possibilities of a Curriculum Studies programme. Participant HD01-uC was of the view that “[developing a Curriculum Studies programme] requires...people who have enough skills...in curriculum design whereby we have few of them, and those few...we are not very sure whether they are ready or might be too busy because they are few”. Participant HD01-uA also expressed his concern: “[T]o get the right personnel in that area...I think that is critical.” These challenges echo the main objective of this study (1.2 & 1.3). The nation (Tanzania) needs local scholars in the Curriculum Studies discipline who will assist in different contexts related to this sector of education.

Thirdly, the participants indicated challenges related to time and financial expenses needed for developing a Curriculum Studies programme. One participant (HD01-uC) commented as follows: “Needs assessment requires some expenses including expenses for developing the data collection instruments, orientation and induction of the personnel who will be involved...in the whole process.” The concerns about timing and financing of curriculum development processes were also discussed by participants HD01-uA and HD01-uD. This is in line with the body of scholarship on intervention design and development whereby at its first phase curriculum developers have to analyse the situation behind the developed curriculum. At this stage, curriculum developers could budget for curriculum development work (4.4.2.1).

6.2.2 Participants’ responses to a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation discourse

6.2.2.1 The notions of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse

Participant SBC-uE argued that “I don’t think there is one theory” [due to the fact that] “firstly ... the field is still developing to such extent that [there is] still uncertainty of what we should call [the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies theory].” The subject chair continued: “Secondly, I think there is wide body of scholarship with different perspectives and intakes that influence how people use this term or how they come to use [internationalisation of Curriculum Studies theory].” In this regard the four meanings were attached to the notion of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse: The first, namely borrowing, was explained as follows: “[B]orrowing is one part...is to compare” (SBC-uE) and “you use curricula of different countries or places (whatever may be) [and] you combine them to make your own” (S FCG-uE).

The second concerns an international standard curriculum for all. This was expressed as follows: “... having...one curriculum for everybody” (S FCG-uE), “the curriculum of Curriculum Studies in itself [is] internationalised”, and “have same standards where you teach students the same things about curriculum” (L01-uE).

The third meaning was linked to the content of internationalisation. One response was that it relates to “where a specific module covers the content knowledge of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies” (L01-uE). Another respondent stating that “within a course it is about students learning about globalising issues and how this influence curriculum in a particular country” (L01-uE). The student participant focus group interview (S FCG-uE) mentioned ‘globalisation’ as a concept which is related to internationalisation.

Fourth, the participants related internationalisation to the work of Pinar (2007): “[a] theory of Curriculum Studies engages both the horizontality and verticality [structures] which says we should not only look at the current circumstances or issues but also look at the past, also looking at the global and local as well as historical studies, [as well as] to look at normative possibilities for the future of Curriculum Studies” (SBC-uE).

In a follow-up discussion, the subject chair commented on the relationship between the discourse phenomenon and the term ‘Curriculum Studies’ by saying that “one cannot begin to conceptualise different theories of Curriculum Studies if we don’t know what the concept of Curriculum Studies could entail” (SBC-uE). As a result, “one needs first to consider the complexity of what Curriculum Studies itself could mean then position that within...internationalisation of Curriculum Studies theories.”

The explanation of different notions of the term ‘internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse’ is in line with the body of scholarship about different perspectives on the phenomenon which is determined by the context and content related to the discourse (2.3.1). In particular, the subject chair clarified the exact meaning of the discussed phenomenon as explained by Pinar (2.2.2.1.5, 2.3 & 3.6.1). Also, it is evident that it is very important to understand the context and content of ‘Curriculum Studies’ as a term in order to define the nature of a Curriculum Studies programme clearly (1.6.1).

6.2.2.2 A Curriculum Studies programme informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse

6.2.2.2.1 The notions

Participants SBC-uE and L01-uE defined a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as follows: “[A Curriculum Studies programme] is conforming to a certain extent to what other universities do...in Curriculum Studies, what methods are used...modules ...” (L01-uE). According to this definition, the geographical context of internationalisation is unlimited. It could mean universities within or outside of one’s own country.

Also, “to teach about internationalisation and globalisation” (L01-uE), “we need to make sure that our programme offers a really suitable and engage with a range of modules that allows us to approach internationalisation of Curriculum Studies theory...from different perspectives” (SBC-uE). This participant went on to say that “some of [the modules] are more focused on looking at international curricula and how they have been developed”, and “other modules focused more on e-learning and technology and globalisation and all that topics which elicits different nuance of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies” (SBC-uE). The subject chair further explained that “we should make sure that in all elements...there is an element of integration and infusion of this theory...also conceptual progression.” Furthermore, she suggested that one “should think about [the] research project”, because “you actually need to apply your knowledge, to apply what you have learned and the content about Curriculum Studies in this form of a project.” Also, the manner of presenting the research project and how the modules should be learned were suggested as follows: “to elaborate on what does this [knowledge] mean for the scholarship of Curriculum Studies [in order to] get our students...to see the bigger picture to better understand Curriculum Studies in its entirety and in all of [its] complexity; then we can start to embrace this notion of internationalisation” (SBC-uE). Also, participant L01-uE stressed the need for students to critically apply knowledge and skills in Curriculum Studies research projects. This is in line with the discussed body of scholarship about the deliberative theory of curriculum development which informs curriculum development processes with due consideration given to the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (3.3.3.2 & 3.6.1).

6.2.2.2.2 *The objectives*

Participants SBC-uE and L01-uE discussed the objectives of a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse in two ways. The first is that there is an element of comparison. The comparison can be understood on two levels. Level one is “to see other universities, what do they regard as important for such a programme and what are their objectives” (L01-uE), “then to compare what they say, the students should know about your programme” (L01-uE). Thus, the objectives of a Curriculum Studies programme offered at different universities are compared nationally and internationally.

Level two is to compare matters related to Curriculum Studies in different contexts. The participants explained that “you compare what is happening internationally” (L01-uE), “we do address [in our objectives the] national and international trends...we also focus on social issues...global movement...e-learning, digital learning, technological age...we need to embrace that” (SBC-uE). Further, “we also need to look at current and past traditions even within the notion of...for example, research methodology”; therefore, “positioning [the] programme within...the horizontality and verticality theory of Curriculum Studies” (SBC-uE).

In addition, the programme objectives should encourage the way of thinking about Curriculum Studies as an evolving discipline. The subject chair was of the opinion that “we also need to develop certain skills, attitudes, knowledge and values ... we need to think about curriculum as continuously transforming environment [that means] our curriculum is not static or rigid.” The elements of the objectives explained above are in line with literature on a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation aspects (3.6.2).

6.2.2.2.3 *The contents*

Participants from the South African university elaborated on the influence of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse on the content of a Curriculum Studies programme. Student participants suggested that “it will have more space for comparisons and deeper understanding of the topics ... but it can be a bad thing if the [topics] are too many” (S FCG-uE). Also, “if we internationalise these topics we [will] gain more perspectives on each topic” (S FCG-uE).

Furthermore, the discourse will make it possible to prepare Curriculum Studies scholars in the field of Curriculum Studies. The subject chair said, “[W]e will develop students as thinkers ... they will be able to not only act on Curriculum Studies...as teachers in teacher education but also reflect...the whole notion of praxis ...”. As a result, “... our students [become] scholars in the field”, that means “somebody who has...[a] more in-depth perspective of Curriculum Studies.” “[These scholars] can apply [Curriculum Studies] even to other fields of study...multi- and interdisciplinary” and “[the discourse] enables them to stretch their horizons, to give them further possibilities and to move beyond the compass-zones of a particular context or perspective of thinking...and to go beyond that” (SBC-uE). For that reason, “we will have teachers and thinkers...curriculum advisers [as well as] postgraduate students” (SBC-uE). Participants L01-uE and S FCG-uE emphasised the advantages of getting more scholars in the field through promoting this kind of programme. Based on the responses from participants, it is evident that a Curriculum Studies programme offered at university E features elements of a programme which is informed by the internationalisation aspects (3.6.2).

6.2.2.2.4 *The activities*

In order to enhance the internationalisation aspect in a Curriculum Studies programme, the subject chair suggested: “We need to expose our students to this discourse whether it is through podcasts...skype; we have various operators and technological means...to expose our students to this discourse and nuances that are recent.”

The subject chair elaborated that “people are loading podcasts every day, for example YouTube videos whatever it might be talking about the hot topics” and “they are talking about what is relevant now,”... [The technological devices] engage with the scholarship and discourses of Curriculum

Studies on such different levels which is often quite difficult for students for instance to read in a book or to become aware of ..." (SBC-uE). Participant L01-uE explained that several approaches to teaching and learning should be employed. The activity element is also in line with the previous discussion on the importance of technological devices on contemporary teaching in higher education (3.6.2).

6.2.2.3 Procedures for developing a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation discourse

The subject chair and one of the students (L01-uE) responded on the procedures for developing a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. Firstly, it was argued that "[w]e could inform our curriculum with what perhaps is relevant to students and what they are experiencing" (SBC-uE). Secondly, it was emphasised that one should talk to different people, "[read] articles about internationalisation, how it should happen", and "look at universities that have already [developed such a programme]...look what they say is important, talk to different stakeholders" (L01-uE). Furthermore, the subject chair explained that "we need to collaborate with our colleagues from different programmes for two reasons." The first one "is to tell them what we want to achieve with our curriculum modules so that...to allow for this natural space in integration and infusions." The second reason is that "the internationalisation theory is not only in Curriculum Studies ... [These colleagues] could help each other and learn from each other and be aware of how other programmes are integrating and accommodating and embracing the internationalisation theory even in different disciplines" (SBC-uE).

Thirdly, it was argued that one should "choose a curriculum design and then just start doing it!" (L01-uE). The subject chair suggested that "we need to look at the types of modules that we are presenting and in which modules we will have more conceptual depth and progression ... which modules will embrace...that theme to the internationalisation debate." The subject chair also commented that "if our modules don't address different elements of Curriculum Studies then we cannot expose our students to what the internationalisation theory would mean within those different dimensions of Curriculum Studies." The subject chair put forward the following reason: "Curriculum Studies in itself – as we have already said – has many different dimensions and many different...theoretical underpinnings in itself but must not be an add-on."

Fourthly, the subject chair explained how evaluation could be done and that it "can happen in different forms"; for example, "[At] our institution students need to provide module reflections, course reflections at the end of the course." The subject chair elaborated that the students reflect on "the study guide...the module outcomes...the lecturers themselves ..." Therefore, "one can really use that

to inform how we compose or develop this type of programme” and “we could inform our curriculum with what perhaps is relevant to students and what they are experiencing.”

The above analysis of the discursive practice of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education contextualised the nature, the elements and the practice of the programme under study. This analysis set the scene for analysing the textual and the social practice of a Curriculum Studies programme.

6.3 TEXTUAL DISCOURSES OF A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME

This section inductively analyses the textual forms and structures of the participants’ responses regarding a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education. The section starts with the textual analysis of vocabulary used and the grammatical features, and ends with the analysis of cohesion. This enabled me to gain an in-depth understanding of the meanings that were portrayed in the interview transcriptions.

6.3.1 Vocabulary

6.3.1.1 Metaphors

Several metaphors were used to explain the essence of Curriculum Studies. Participant S FGC-uA said: “[Curriculum Studies] is a battlefield.” This could mean that Curriculum Studies is considered as a “place” (discipline) which is contested in terms of its aims to prepare scholars or practitioners in the field (OALD, 1995:84). Participant S FCG-uC explained: “[Curriculum Studies] is where education is born.” This could imply that Curriculum Studies is fundamental to all educational matters. Participant S FCG-uD referred to Curriculum Studies as “a backbone of education.” Here, Curriculum Studies is seen as the “main sustenance” of the education system (OALD, 1995:71). Also, “teachers are the vehicles for education” (S FCG-uC). Thus, it is important for Curriculum Studies to be included in teachers’ training because it is the “means” by which educational matters can be expressed (OALD, 1995:1262). These analysed metaphors which were used to explain the vitality of Curriculum Studies are in line with the discussion on understanding Curriculum Studies as an academic discipline which has a great contribution to make to all forms of social life (1.2 & 2.2.1). This was also evident in the discursive practice of the influences of a Curriculum Studies programme on different nations and in particular on Tanzania (6.2.1.6 & 6.2.2.2.3).

Regarding students’ views about their experiences in learning Curriculum Studies, several metaphors were used. Some of the metaphors had negative connotations, for example: “[Y]ou know curriculum courses are not difficult, but teachers have made [them] to be seen as courses from heaven!” (S FCG-uA); “[Students] had different dreams they would wish to attain in the future, and

their dreams were just buried ..." (S FCG-uC); "[W]e see that [the field of] curriculum has many spectators! People who pretend to know, talking too much about education, but are not experts" (S FCG-uC); and "[Curriculum Studies] don't quench the thirst of the majority" (S FCG-uD). These negative metaphors could be interpreted as implying that students are not satisfied with the practices of Curriculum Studies as an academic discipline. This is in line with the statement of the problem and lacunae in this study (1.3). Another student participant S FCG-uC, acknowledged that what they had learned about Curriculum Studies had enabled them to implement curriculum in schools. For this reason, "curriculum is the key for education" (S FCG-uC); it is "very important in education" (S FCG-uC). This is in line with the discursive practice on the essence of a Curriculum Studies programme (6.2.1.6) which was evident in the participants' responses from Tanzanian universities that students learn extensively about how to implement curriculum.

In explaining the purpose of a Curriculum Studies programme, certain metaphors were used. For example, "opening the eyes to [know] the ABCDs of the curriculum" (S FCG-uC) could imply that the purpose of the programme is to create awareness of, or assist in understanding curriculum matters. An idiom, ABCDs, which was also used by L01-uA, suggests that there are "basic facts" related to curriculum which are to become known through this programme (OALD, 1995:2). Furthermore, the metaphor "backbone" was used in the context of discussing content for the studied programme. Participant S FCG-uD emphasised that "[curriculum] design is the backbone content [for the programme]." Participant L01-uE used a simile to compare history to a boat on the ocean and thus highlighted the importance of studying the history of Curriculum Studies. This lecturer explained that "history is like a big boat on the ocean; it starts to move very slowly, changes directions and turns around." Thus, "through history we can know how the boat moves, it shows you the direction." The metaphors used to explain the content of a Curriculum Studies programme are in line with the previous exploration of the historical developments in Curriculum Studies (Chapter 2) and the discussion on curriculum design (Section 3.4). Also, the discursive practice that dealt with the contents that should inform a Curriculum Studies programme endorses the idea that the history of Curriculum Studies and curriculum design aspects are pivotal, both theoretically and practically, in the discipline (6.2.1.4 & 6.2.2.3).

In general, the influence of a Curriculum Studies programme was regarded as vital to the nation. Participant L01-uB used a metaphor "heart" and explained: "If education is the heart of [the] development of the country, curriculum is at the heart of education" (L01-uB). The metaphor "heart" could be interpreted as "the central or most important" aspect (OALD, 1995:529). Again, this supports some of the findings of the analysis of the discursive practice (6.2.1.6 & 6.2.2.2.3).

6.3.1.2 *Tyler as the only Curriculum Studies theorist?*

From a Tanzanian perspective, the meaning of a Curriculum Studies programme was related to Tyler's key components of the curriculum development process. For example, participant S FCG-uC stated: "[Curriculum Studies is] a field of study which orients students on how to design, develop, implement, evaluate and innovate learning experiences." Participants S FCG-uA, S FCG-uB and S FCG-uD gave the same definition with an emphasis on how to implement the components of curriculum. Participants HD01-uB and HD01-uC also emphasised the teaching of the mentioned components albeit in the context of preparing specialists in curriculum matters. This suggests a narrow interpretation of the phenomenon, which is in line with a product approach to curriculum development (1.6.1 & 3.3.1). With regard to the students' experiences of learning Curriculum Studies, participant S FCG-uA commented: "[F]or Diploma level it was okay, but for a Bachelor programme it was a challenge...[we were] taught four things only: planning, developing, designing and evaluation."

On the contrary, participant S FCG-uE from the South African university elaborated on their definition of a Curriculum Studies programme, saying that it is more than learning about the "fathers of curriculum", named "Franklin Bobbitt and Maria Montessori." The programme is about "global issues too" (S FCG-uE). Here it could be interpreted that the students are familiar with the process and praxis approaches to the curriculum development process (1.6.1, 3.3.2, 3.3.3 & 3.6.1). For this reason, the meaning of the programme is broader and further endorses the findings of the analysis of the discursive practice pertaining to the definitions of a Curriculum Studies programme from participants from the South African university and some participants from the Tanzanian universities (6.2.1.1).

From the aforementioned, two things became evident. First, in the Tanzanian universities, Curriculum Studies seems to have a limited space for integration of other contents apart from contents related to Tyler's key issues or terms in curriculum development (3.3.1), which is in line with discursive practice of the content of the programme (6.2.1.4). Secondly, Curriculum Studies has been taught as a module from lower levels of teacher education; that is Diploma and Bachelor's levels. Meena (2009) states that teacher educationists at college level in Tanzania had agreed to develop four educational modules, which were previously taught as one. The four modules are: (i) The Foundations of Education, (ii) Education Research, Measurement and Evaluation, (iii) Education Psychology, Guidance and Counselling, and (iv) The Curriculum and Teaching syllabus (Meena, 2009:51-52). In particular, The Curriculum and Teaching syllabus module seems to be considered as the basis for teaching Curriculum Studies at Bachelor's and Master's level (Lukanga, 2013). This was also evident in the discussion about the background of this study (1.2).

6.3.1.3 *Curriculum Studies as knowledge*

Participants from the four focus group interviews from the Tanzanian universities stressed that Curriculum Studies is a programme which provides information related to core curriculum matters. A key phrase used to imply this was 'what to teach'. For example, participant S FCG-uA stated: "Curriculum Studies assists me to know what to teach," and participant S FCG-uB commented that "Curriculum Studies enables student-teachers to have the knowledge [of] curriculum." The other participants, S FCG-uC and S FCG-uD, used the same key phrase 'what to teach' to explain their interests and how they perceive the purpose of the programme. Another key phrase was 'to know', which implies that Curriculum Studies has the purpose of merely providing knowledge. Participant HD01-uA stated: [One of the objectives for the programme] could be to know the components of curriculum." Other participants added: "[T]o know the fathers of curriculum" (HD01-uD) and "to know all the things about curriculum" (L01-uB). This is in line with the discussion about the product approach to the study of Curriculum Studies (3.3.1). The phenomenon of Curriculum Studies as knowledge is also endorsed in the findings of the discursive practice in terms of the definitions and objectives of the programme (6.2.1.1 & 6.2.1.3).

6.3.1.4 *Curriculum Studies as didactics*

The key phrase 'how to teach' suggests a perspective of curriculum as didactics. Student focus group interviews from the Tanzanian universities extensively emphasised Curriculum Studies as an area of study which deals with how to teach. For example, participant S FCG-uC explained: "I want to know how to teach" and "how to evaluate curriculum." This need to understand the methodology of teaching was also explained by other participants (S FCG-uA & S FCG-uB). In line with this thought, participant L01-uA insisted: "[W]e don't know how to assess! We need to teach how to assess." Also, participant L02-uA commented: "[W]e normally teach how to prepare materials." The discursive practice of the objectives and the content for the programme also support the notion that Curriculum Studies deals with teaching-learning and assessment methodology (6.2.1.3 & 6.2.1.4).

6.3.1.5 *Curriculum Studies as a dormant discipline*

In relation to the extensive knowledge about Tyler's rationale (6.3.1.2) and the emphasis on content related to methodology, some students experienced Curriculum Studies as a dormant discipline. For example, S FCG-uC put forward the following argument: "[O]ur curriculum has remained theoretical, traditional, and conservative. It doesn't change despite the fact that the world is changing, but we have remained stagnant" (S FCG-uC), and "most of programmes do not make students to practise what they have learned in real life" (S FCG-uB). This claim is in line with the identified need for this study as elaborated in the background to the study (1.2). Also, the same arguments feature in the

discursive practice where arguments about the central importance of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education are discussed (6.2.1.6 & 6.2.2.2.3).

6.3.1.6 The influence of lecturers who teach Curriculum Studies

Some students are disappointed by their Curriculum Studies lecturers. Participant S FCG-uC commented: “Most of the lecturers are not teachers...and that becomes a problem because [they were not equipped to teach] so [students-teachers] lack what their lecturers lacked” (S FCG-uC). “When I was an undergraduate...my lecturer failed to convince me to appreciate [Curriculum Studies], but in postgraduate I find curriculum interesting” (S FCG-uC). “In my first degree I was taught [Curriculum Studies] by someone who studied Religious Studies, it was very hard for me and probably with others to understand the concepts of curriculum” (S FCG-uC). Also, participant S FCG-uA argued: “[W]hen lecturers teach you see everything is simple, but when it comes to exams, results marks are very low. At the end you hate the course. Teachers have to change their ways of teaching curriculum issues” (S FCG-uA). At university E participant S FCG-uE suggested: “[We would like to be taught] by somebody that has gone through the programme and maybe excelled like [with] Master’s or PhD.” This echoes the literature discussion regarding the importance of the quality of the lecturer who teaches Curriculum Studies (3.2.2).

6.3.1.7 Progression and integration of Curriculum Studies modules

The Tanzanian students struggled to see how Curriculum Studies was integrated in or related to their other modules, because these students study curriculum modules in Education and Management programmes. As a result, they do not learn much about Curriculum Studies. They also complained that there is little progression in Curriculum Studies modules. For example, participant S FCG-uA commented: “Nothing new. From Diploma to Master’s we have been learning the same things. Designing, planning, development and evaluation ... When you look at the relationship between the term ‘curriculum’ and the content they don’t match.” In similar vein, participant S FCG-uB commented that “curriculum modules provide a narrow scope of knowledge. They need to integrate these modules with other modules.” Based on the literature review on curriculum development theories (3.3) and curriculum design (3.4), I would argue that one should use appropriate curriculum design principles that rely on a variety of theories when organising a balanced curriculum programme (3.4.2.1 & 3.4.2.2). This matter was also alluded to in the discursive practice discussion about developing a Curriculum Studies programme (6.2.2.3).

6.3.1.8 *Curriculum as praxis*

Several participants pleaded for a curriculum programme which engages with the theory and practice of Curriculum Studies to bridge the gap between theories learned and real-life experiences. For example, L01-uB insisted: “[W]e should ask why do we teach certain content ...” Participant S FCG-uC argued that “most education programmes are good, but the way of implementing them becomes a problem.” In the context of how to teach the programme, most participants suggested the use of participatory approaches, and other participants commented that there is a need for using both participatory and non-participatory approaches. For example, participant L01-uC commented: “I believe in student-centred approaches and hands-on approaches.” Others stated that “students [should] practise what they have learned” (S FCG-uD) and “I believe in making students wonder and giving them questions to think about” (L01-uE). In the context of teaching about internationalisation matters, L01-uE insisted: “... but [students] should also critique it, why are we doing this? Why do we want to internationalise everything?” In line with the discussion about the praxis approach to curriculum development (3.3.3), these participants propose greater awareness of understanding curriculum as praxis to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

6.3.1.9 *The politics of Curriculum Studies*

In terms of content for a Curriculum Studies programme, most participants suggested that socio-political issues should be included in the programme. For example, participant S FCG-uC remarked: “[Y]ou cannot talk about curriculum without talking about political atmosphere. The politics influence curriculum, and curriculum is always embraced by the politics.” This participant added that “[curriculum must embrace the] needs of society, technological change and the environmental changes” (S FCG-uC). Participant HD01-uC also suggested: “... innovations are very important given the changing needs of our society.” Along the same line of thought participants SBC-uE, S FCG-uE, L01-uE and S FCG-uC used terms such as ‘marketisation’, ‘digital learning’ and ‘e-learning’ to give examples related to the politics of curriculum. This is in line with the earlier discussion about the content for a curriculum programme whose needs address the contemporary needs of a society (3.6.2). Also, the needs or issues pointed out by the participants relate to the discursive practice about the content for a Curriculum Studies programme (6.2.1.4).

6.3.1.10 *Internationalisation of Curriculum Studies*

Participant S FCG-uA suggested that in the content of a Curriculum Studies programme “there should be a relationship between countries.” Participant S FCG-uC proposed that “we need to have this programme so that we can engage in global issues.” However, participant S FCG-uC cautioned that the programme should not over-emphasise foreign topics. Students from the South African university agreed with this view: “[I]t can be a bad thing if [topics] are too many” (S FCG-uE).

The textual analysis of the politics of Curriculum Studies is also evident in the discussion on aspects of internationalisation of Curriculum Studies (3.1.9). This is in line with an extensive exploration of the phenomenon in the literature review (2.2.2.1.5, 2.3 & 3.6) and relates to the findings presented in the discursive practice (6.2.2.2.1 & 6.2.2.2.3).

6.3.1.11 The need for a specialised Curriculum Studies programme

Several participants stressed the need for a specialised Curriculum Studies programme. For example, participant HD01-uA said: "I am working at a university which offers education, but we don't have [a Curriculum Studies] programme which we need." Participant HD01-uB commented: "I see [having a Curriculum Studies programme] as an advantage. We are missing these people in this area ...!" Another participant was of the opinion that "surely we need experts in [Curriculum Studies] since it is an important area, we need experts!" (L01-uB). Participant HD01-uD said: "I would advise you [to] recommend for autonomous institution like universities to give this area attention." In addition, participant S FCG-uA suggested: "[I]t is better to [study Curriculum Studies] as a programme, so that we can learn different issues in Tanzania, Africa and outside Africa" and participant S FCG-uB expressed interest by stating that "we will be interested to see [that] curriculum is taught as a discipline." The participants from S FCG-uC and S FCG-uD expressed the same wish for a specialised Curriculum Studies programme to be developed. This provides evidence to support the need for this study (1.2 & 1.3). The discursive practice also agrees that a specialised Curriculum Studies programme has great influence on the field of education and curriculum (6.2.1.6 & 6.2.2.2.3).

6.3.2 Grammatical features

Many participants used the active voice. For example, HD01-uB commented: "... but for me I don't see [having a Curriculum Studies programme] as a challenge...I see it as an advantage." Participant L01-uD commented: "I see that soon after independence we don't speak much about our national philosophy." Participant L01-uE said: "I [appreciate it] when my students understand what I have done."

Modalities such as 'can', 'could' and 'might' were used especially when participants gave various suggestions or opinions. For example: "... it might be perceived that ...we don't need so many experts in curriculum" (HD01-uD) and "... maybe these experts might be helpful ..." (HD01-uB).

Some participants used noun phrases. For example, several curriculum components were referred to with the use of noun phrases such as "aspects of curriculum" (HD01-uC), "issues of curriculum" (HD01-uD), and "elements of curriculum" (HD01-uB).

Also, an adverbial phrase “at the moment” (HD01-uA) was used to indicate “the present time” (OALD, 1995:717).

Several participants used verb phrases. For example, “[A Curriculum Studies programme] is an area which focuses fundamentally on curriculum issues without having to water it down ...” (L01-uC). The phrasal verb “water it down” could mean that this programme should be “essential or specific” for curriculum matters and not over-generalised (OALD, 1995:1283). Participant HD01-uB commented that “the [graduates] from the programme might saturate the system ...” The phrasal verb “saturate the system” could mean “no further addition is possible” for curriculum experts needed in the country (OALD, 1995:996).

Indefinite pronouns were used by some participants. For example, in the sentence “We need to be specialists in Curriculum Studies because everything in education starts with curriculum” (L01-uE), the indefinite pronoun “everything” could mean “most important or central to matters” regarding curriculum (OALD, 1995:381). Participant SBC-uE explained: “Curriculum Studies...touches each and every teacher ...” The indefinite pronoun “each” could mean “an individual” teacher while “every” could refer to all teachers together as a group (OALD, 1995:349). Participant HD01-uB used the same indefinite pronouns “each and every” to explain the elements entailed in a Curriculum Studies programme.

Participant HD01-uA used an adjective “critical” to comment on the inadequacy of curriculum experts in Tanzania: “I think that is critical.” The adjective “critical” could mean “of the greatest importance” (OALD, 1995:266).

Some participants used idiomatic expressions such as “hand in hand” (L01-uC) which was used to explain the need for the political powers to work “closely together” with education stakeholders (OALD, 1995:514). Participant L01-uE used an idiomatic expression “reinvent the wheel” to explain the importance of studying the history of Curriculum Studies so as not to repeat “similar problems or troubles” which had occurred before (OALD, 1995:379). Participant SBC-uE commented: “Curriculum Studies touches...each and every student.” The idiomatic expression “touches” could mean “to affect or concern” (OALD, 1995:1207).

Participants SBC-uE and S FCG-uE frequently used an interjection (“Yes!”) to express agreement. Participants HD01-uB and SBC-uE used abbreviated terms assuming that the abbreviations are familiar to me – for example, “TIE” and “TAMISEMI” (HD01-uB), “TSCU” (SBC-uE), and “TCU” (HD01-uD & L01-uC). TIE, TSCU and TCU are also used in the previous chapters. TAMISEMI is an abbreviation for *Tawala za Mikoa na Serikali za Mitaa* (Regional Administration and Local Government).

6.3.3 Cohesion

Some participants used numbers and conjunctions to link ideas. For example, the objectives of a Curriculum Studies programme were stated as: "... one could be...and another ..." (HD01-uD); "The main objective could be...the second ..." (HD01-uB). Also, when defining the notion of an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, participant L01-uE said: "... could be [seen] in two levels. One is...and the other level is ..." Also, in explaining reasons for lecturers as curriculum developers to collaborate despite their different disciplines, participant SBC-uE explained: "First [you] tell them ... The second reason ..." (also see 6.2.2.3).

Some participants made direct references to scholars in Curriculum Studies in order to elaborate their responses. For example, in suggesting content for the programme, participants HD01-uA and HD01-uB referred to "Tyler, Taba, Tanner and Tanner" and "Akker." Furthermore, "William Pinar" was named by participants SBC-uE and S FCG-uE when discussing matters related to internationalisation. For example, the subject chair noted that "some time ago William Pinar himself developed what is called an interdisciplinary theory." The discussed references helped me to gain an understanding of the extent of exposure that the participants had to curriculum theorists (3.3).

In addition, participant L01-uD made reference to time by explaining that "since 1961 to 2015 things have changed." This is in line with the exploration of phases of historical developments of education in Tanzania (2.2.2.2.3). Participant HD01-uB used "an informal way" of referring to political individuals as "figures" (OALD, 1995:415).

Other participants gave examples to elaborate on their responses. For instance, the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) was frequently mentioned as an example of a resource centre for Curriculum Studies related matters (HD01-uB, HD01-uD, L01-uB & S FCG-uB). Also, in emphasising the use of integrated approaches to teaching, participant S FCG-uC gave an example: "... the [lecturer] can ask students to discuss in small groups, let's say buzz group...thus, you can incorporate other activities with the lecture method."

Rhetorical questions were also used to link or extend ideas. For example, participant L01-uE asked: "Do we know in South Africa how our students learn in class, or do we only apply what has been researched in other countries?" and "Why do we want to internationalise everything? Is it about capitalism so [that] we can serve the masters of capitalism? Why do we need this internationalisation?" Participant L01-uB wanted to know: "Is there something related to these developments of curriculum?" Participant L01-uD expressed a personal concern as follows: "What does the national education philosophy tell us about the education system?"

The above discourse-as-text analysis enabled me to understand meanings of key words, metaphors and key themes emanating from the interviews which were used in a particular context. The grammatical features assisted me in understanding the position taken by respondents when discussing a certain phenomenon. Also, different phenomena could be used to explain the same information in the same context. Along the same line of thought the same metaphor could be used in a different context and could thus convey a different meaning. The analysis of cohesion helped me to see how clauses, phrases and sentences were linked to bring a deeper meaning of information. This dimension of Critical Discourse Analysis assisted me in interpreting the study more critically.

6.4 SOCIAL PRACTICE OF A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME

This section inductively extends the analysis of the textual discourses of a Curriculum Studies programme to an intertextual analysis. Intertextual analysis involves the analysis between and within the forms of social practice at play and augments the discursive practice and the textual discourses. The forms of social practice are analysed in the following order: the universities' environments, the growth of Curriculum Studies as a discipline, the influence of programme accreditation policies, and a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. The section ends with a discussion on procedures for developing such a programme.

6.4.1 The universities' environments

The primary social practice in the five universities used for this study is that they offer postgraduate educational programmes (see Table 6-1). The discursive practice revealed that the interview participants' especially those from South Africa, were very much aware of and knowledgeable about a Curriculum Studies programme. They were able to respond extensively and descriptively to the interview questions regarding the nature, the elements and the practice of the studied programme (6.2.1 & 6.2.2).

Despite their broad knowledge of a Curriculum Studies programme, the discursive practice and the textual discourses indicated that participants had different interpretations of the nature, the elements and the practice of the programme under study (6.2 & 6.3). For example, most of the participants from the Tanzanian universities discussed Curriculum Studies based on the product and process theorists (6.3.1.2-6.3.1.5).

On the contrary, most participants from the South African university and a few participants from the Tanzanian universities mentioned the praxis approach to curriculum development processes (6.3.1.8-6.3.1.10). As another example, participants from the South African university came up with

four different meanings of the notion of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (6.2.2.1). Therefore, the social practice within the universities' environments provided evidence that the participants were familiar with Curriculum Studies matters, although the extent of familiarity differed among the participants between and within the universities.

6.4.2 The growth of Curriculum Studies as a discipline

From the explored body of scholarship on Curriculum Studies as a discipline, it became evident that the discipline is moving towards a postparadigmatic phase (1.2 & 1.6.3). In the light of this movement, the discipline tends to engage with postmodernist discourses and trends such as the internationalisation and modes of knowledge production system (1.6.3, 2.2.2.1.5, 2.3, 2.4, 3.3.3 & 3.6). Because of this rapid growth in the discipline and the steady progress made, it is even more important for it to respond to the needs of contemporary society.

However, the textual discourses provided evidence that Curriculum Studies is offered as a module within other educational programmes in the Tanzanian universities. This narrows the scope of the content for the study and consequently the discipline is perceived as dormant (6.3.1.2-6.3.1.5 & 6.3.1.7). On the other hand, the South African university offers Curriculum Studies as a programme which engages with a wide range of topics including Curriculum Studies discourses, as was alluded to in the discursive practice (5.2.2.2.1, 6.2.1.3 & 6.2.2.3) and the textual analysis (6.3.1.8-6.3.1.10).

With regard to the pace of the growth of Curriculum Studies as a discipline, there is a need for teacher education in Tanzania to rethink the growth of the discipline and realise the need to provide space for teaching Curriculum Studies discourses and trends more broadly and in detail (1.2 & 6.3.1.11). This does not mean that Curriculum Studies should not be integrated as a module for other educational programmes as it is currently practised, since other educational programmes such as Master of Arts in Educational Management (see Table 6-1) have their focused purposes. Rather it is a plea that the universities should recognise and promote Curriculum Studies as an academic discipline. For this reason, the teaching of Curriculum Studies could be considered to be offered as a programme. This will widen the scope of the content to be taught by engaging with the teaching of contemporary issues relating to the discipline (6.3.1.9-6.3.1.11). As a result, the discipline will not be under-taught or under-researched (1.2 & 1.3).

The South African university should also be continually aware of the emerging discourses so that they can modify their programmes. This request is evident in the discursive practice of the need to evaluate a Curriculum Studies programme (6.2.2.3). Teacher education in the twenty-first century should ensure that the teaching of Curriculum Studies as an academic discipline is informed by postmodernist Curriculum Studies discourses. This could be done by evaluating the present Curriculum Studies programmes that are informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies

discourse (6.2.2.3) or by developing the discussed programme as is currently needed in Tanzanian teacher education (6.3.1.11).

6.4.3 The influence of programme accreditation policies

In relation to the discussion about the growth of the Curriculum Studies discipline (6.4.2), the discursive practice supports that teacher education should offer theoretical and practical aspects of Curriculum Studies. This will enable students to apply knowledge and skills related to curriculum matters and to become competent as specialists and scholars in the discipline (6.2.1.3, 6.2.1.5.2, 6.2.1.6 & 6.2.2.2.2-6.2.2.2.4). The higher education programme accreditation policies also put forward that in order to accredit any university programme they must be convinced that the programme will contribute to the social, cultural and economic development of modern society (CHE, 2004; Tanzania, 2012). For example, the Tanzania University Qualifications Framework requires that the rationale for developing a programme needs evidence which includes ways in which the programme meets specific needs in education and the needs of the stakeholders like students who will study that programme (Tanzania, 2012).

6.4.4 A Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse

The analysis of the social practices (6.4.1-6.4.3), thus far, necessitates a discussion of the social practice of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. The nature of this programme needs to be understood very clearly by the stakeholders. This is because the discursive practices have revealed different notions of the terms 'a Curriculum Studies programme' (6.2.1.1), 'the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse' (6.2.2.1), and 'a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourses' (6.2.2.2.1). In particular, a Curriculum Studies programme should be understood as a programme which engages with both historical events (verticality) and the present circumstances (horizontality) of the Curriculum Studies discipline (2.3).

This perspective of a Curriculum Studies programme embraces the understanding of the national and international discourses and trends that mark the Curriculum Studies discipline (2.3, 3.3.3 & 3.6). The notion of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies should be framed in the context of Pinar's theory of internationalisation (2.3). The theory is attributed to: (i) engagement with the historical events (verticality) and present circumstance (horizontality) (2.2.2, 2.3, 2.4 & 6.2.2.2.1), and (ii) the deliberative approach to curriculum development (3.6.1 & 6.3.1.8). Therefore, the nature of a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse must be understood from Pinar's theory of internationalisation. Such focused

interpretation of the meanings of the key terms related to the programme forms the basis for understanding the elements and the practice of the programme under discussion.

Furthermore, the discursive practice and the textual discourses enabled me to understand the elements of a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. Firstly, the purpose and the objectives of the programme should clearly focus the theoretical and practical aspects of the programme (6.2.1.2, 6.2.1.3 & 6.2.2.2.2). In the context of higher education, it is evident that any programme of study must have its purpose which is aligned with specific level descriptors (see Appendices G & H). Furthermore, in this study the purpose of the discussed programme is differentiated from the objectives of the programme as it is more general in terms of content and the context of the programme (6.2.1.2, 6.2.1.3 & 6.2.2.2.2), whilst the objectives of the programme entail a clear description of the outcomes of the programme (Diamond, 2008; Jacobs *et al.*, 2011; Moon, 2002). In the context of higher education, these objectives are to be linked with the purpose of a programme at a particular level of qualification. According to Sections 16 and 17 of the Level Descriptors of the South African NQF, a level descriptor is designed to act as a guide and a starting point for curriculum development matters so as to provide a broad indication of learning achievements or outcomes that are appropriate to qualification at a specific level (SAQA, 2012). In similar vein, Section 2.1 of the Tanzania UQF also explains that it is important for curriculum developers to understand and adhere to the level descriptors (Tanzania, 2012).

Secondly, the content of the programme should entail an in-depth study of the historical developments in Curriculum Studies and the discourses that accompany and inform the discipline (2.6.2.1.4 & 6.2.2.2.3). This implies that the content embraces the internationalisation theory of verticality and horizontality (2.3 & 3.6.2). A detailed understanding of the content of the programme could assist curriculum developers (lecturers) in preparing relevant module outcomes. Also, the module outcomes assist in the formulation of learning outcomes which are considered central to the process of teaching and learning (SAQA, 2012; Tanzania, 2010, 2012) since students are placed at the heart of the learning process by shifting attention from teaching to learning (Du Toit, 2011; Maphosa *et al.*, 2014; Moon, 2002).

Thirdly, the pedagogical activities in a Curriculum Studies programme informed by the internationalisation discourse should encourage a mixture of the participatory and non-participatory approaches, including the use of technology, so as to enhance the internationalisation dimension (6.2.1.5.2 & 6.2.2.2.4). This implies that the programme should enhance skills for critical reflection as was discussed in the discursive practice and textual discourses (6.2.2.3, 6.3.1.8 & 6.3.3.4).

According to Brockbank and McGill (1998:56), the term 'reflection' embraces two things:

First, the process or means by which an experience, in the form of thought, feeling or action, is brought into consideration, while it is happening or subsequently. Secondly, deriving from the first, the creation of meaning and conceptualisation from experience and the potentiality to look at things as other than they are [that is] critical reflection.

Thus, reflection requires skills in interaction between lecturers and students, and among students themselves. Such skills include reflective dialogue, and awareness of an individual's intentional and unintentional happenings (Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Du Preez, 2008).

Fourthly, Teachers are to be knowledgeable about the content of the programme and about applying different pedagogical skills (6.2.1.5.2, 6.2.2.4, 6.3.1.6 & 6.3.1.8). Biggs and Tang (2007), Fryer (2006), Hannum (2008), Jackson and Sinclair (2006) and Wolhuter (2007) comment that in order to facilitate effective teaching in higher education, lecturers as curriculum developers should use approaches which will help them to meet the learning outcomes. This scholarly request is also evident in the work of Allen (2015), who reiterates the usefulness of a praxis-oriented approach to teaching and learning in higher education. In particular, the textual discourses on Curriculum Studies lecturers indicated that lecturers should be more conscious of their profession because they have a great influence on their students and their learning experiences (6.3.1.6). This also confirms the earlier discussion on the quality of the lecturer who teaches Curriculum Studies (3.2.2).

6.4.5 Procedures for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education that is informed by the internationalisation discourse

The discursive practice of ways of developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education which embraces the internationalisation aspects (6.2.2.3) described several procedures. Firstly, curriculum developers are required to share their ideas about developing the programme with as many as possible stakeholders such as students, lecturers and the government. This collaboration will enable stakeholders to share their required needs, as discussed in the discursive practice of how to develop a Curriculum Studies programme (6.2.1.2, 6.2.1.3, 6.2.2.2.2 & 6.2.2.3). The explored literature about the praxis approach to curriculum development (deliberative theory) stressed the need to involve different individuals in the different phases of curriculum development. This approach would encourage stakeholders to see that they own the programme and the programme will benefit them (3.3.3.2 & 3.6.1). At this stage, curriculum developers would be in a position to analyse the situation related to the needs for the programme, such as time, human resources and money (Diamond, 2008; Geyser, 2004; Marais & Meier, 2007; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). It is important for time to be scheduled for reflections and revisions of the developmental activities in order to enable curriculum developers to come up with a systematic working schedule (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2003; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992).

Secondly, curriculum developers should generate information regarding the nature, the elements and the practice of a Curriculum Studies programme. In this study, particularly, the discursive practice (6.2.1.7) and the textual discourses (6.3.2.1, 6.3.2.4 & 6.3.2.6) helped me to understand some challenges that could be encountered when developing the discussed Curriculum Studies programme in the Tanzanian context. Furthermore, the generated information should be synthesised by using appropriate methods; thus, activities such as presentation, interpretation and discussion of the data could be involved (Marais & Meier, 2007).

Thirdly, the curriculum developers need to attend to the design of the programme. The discursive practice (6.2.2.3) and the textual discourses (6.3.1.7) suggest two important activities that should be included in designing the programme, namely (i) categorisation of modules that make up the programme in line with its purpose, objectives and content. These modules should feature content related to the verticality and horizontality structures of the Curriculum Studies discipline; and (ii) organisation of content, which should be done with due consideration given to integration, progression and infusion. This is in line with the previous discussed literature about ways of organising a curriculum programme (3.4). In addition, during the design phase curriculum developers are advised to use important documents which provide guidelines for how the design could be structured (CHE, 2004, 2012; Tanzania, 2012). Curriculum developers could compare the designed programme with similar successful or unsuccessful curriculum programmes for necessary modifications (4.5.2.3).

Fourthly, the teaching of the programme needs to be evaluated at the end of the semester. This evaluation is done in different forms such as evaluating study guides, module outcomes and the lecturers themselves (6.2.2.3). This kind of evaluation is called “instructional evaluation” (Shiundu & Omulando, 1992:188) and it is done for the sake of re-examination, revision and improvement of the implemented curriculum programme (Marais & Meier, 2007; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). The whole process of developing the programme could also be evaluated since the curriculum development process does not have a definite end, but is a continual process. This is referred to as “programme evaluation” (Shiundu & Omulando, 1992:188). Other procedures for developing such a programme that have been discussed in an earlier chapter are an early development and pilot testing phase, and a dissemination phase (4.5.2.4 & 4.5.2.4.5).

Given the above analysis of social practice of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education, it was evident that different forms of social practices dialectically relate with the discursive practices and the textual discourses under investigation.

The social structures such as the higher education organs, universities (lecturers and students) and society ought to network to ensure successful practices in offering a Curriculum Studies

programme. Despite this dialectical relationship, the whole process of curriculum development becomes more politically sensitive due to the fact that education systems are governed by different educational bodies for different reasons, one of which is quality assurance. Therefore, political powers make a large contribution to the process of curriculum development. Figure 6-1 summarises the theoretical guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education as discussed by the interview participants.

The nature of the programme

- Which approach to develop the programme? (the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach)
- Meaning of the programme in line with the verticality and horizontality structures of the Curriculum Studies discipline
- Level of the programme
- The rationale for the programme in line with internationalisation aspects
- Policy requirements on the nature of the programme

The elements of the programme

- **Purpose:** what is to be achieved, why the programme, what can obtaining this programme do?
- **Objectives:** formulation of programme objectives, modules outcomes and learning outcomes which reflect internationalisation aspects
- **Lecturers:** qualified in their profession and passionate for the work
- **Content:** with verticality and horizontality structures of the Curriculum Studies discipline, fundamental, core and elective; organised by following criteria; research projects must engage with and reflect internationalisation aspects; skills for engaging in an evolving Curriculum Studies discipline, and skills for effective reflection of the programme
- **Activities:** praxis-oriented teaching and learning approaches, strategies, techniques, activities including web means; factors for choosing pedagogical dimensions include: number of students, availability of resources, type of content and characteristics of students

The practice of the programme

- The need to develop a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse
- Curriculum development procedures are: situational analysis phase, generating information and synthesis phase, designing phase, early development and pilot testing, evaluation and advanced development, dissemination, and instructional evaluation

Figure 6-1: Theoretical guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme

6.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented, interpreted and discussed the data gathered from the interviewed research participants about a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education. The chapter looked into the nature, elements and practices of a Curriculum Studies programme by employing the three dimensions of Critical Discourse Analysis, namely discourse-as-discursive practice, discourse-as-text and discourse-as-social practice.

This method of analysis assisted me in contextualising the data, looking into language used so as to interpret the data more accurately, and relating the data by discussing the social structure and the forms of social practice involved in the discussed phenomenon. This method of analysis enabled me to gain an in-depth understanding of participants' views on the research question, whereby perspectives pertaining to the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse were sought (1.4c). This method consequently made the whole process of data analysis critical.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS: A CONTEMPORARY CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN TANZANIA

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This study explored the ways through which the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies as an approach could be used in the development of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania. The contextual background to this study indicated that teacher educationalists in Tanzania need to rethink Curriculum Studies as an academic discipline in its own right, and become more aware of contemporary discourses in the discipline (1.2). From the problem statement and the lacunae in the scholarship, it became evident that there is an absence of a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, and that the discipline is under-researched in the country (1.3). Therefore, the need arose to develop a Curriculum Studies programme which is in line with contemporary societal needs and that engages with emerging discourses such as internationalisation.

In an overview of the body of scholarship the historical developments in Curriculum Studies as a discipline were highlighted, together with the relevant curriculum development theories and practices. Subsequently, I conceptualised the extent to which the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach could inform the development of a new Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education based on the first research question (Chapters 2 & 3).

The methodological framework was informed by a pragmatic philosophy which was aligned with the intervention design and development methodology. To conduct research within this methodology and philosophy, the following methods were employed: purposeful sampling was used to select relevant sites and participants, and historical research as well as document research and interviews were conducted to generate data. The data were analysed using the dialectical-relational approach to the Critical Discourse Analysis method (Chapter 4). Also, the chapters on data analysis presented the findings that addressed the second and the third research questions (Chapters 5 & 6).

In this chapter, I reflect on the scholarly suggestions (Chapters 2 & 3), the methodological framework (Chapter 4), and the data findings from the documents and the interviews (Chapters 5 & 6) in order to deepen the understanding about the extent to which a pragmatic intervention research could assist in deriving theoretical guidelines. These guidelines will be used in the future to develop a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in higher education in Tanzania that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse (1.4). This chapter is

consequently presented in the following order: it commences with background on the curriculum practice in university teacher education in Tanzania and provides a discussion of the theoretical guidelines that emanated from the research so as to inform the development of a Curriculum Studies programme based on the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. Thereafter, the contribution of the thesis to knowledge and the limitations of the study are presented. Recommendations are subsequently made for future studies. The chapter ends with a self-reflection on my PhD journey. I included this reflection to indicate what I have learned from this study, to provide a contextualisation to deepen my understanding of the research, and to orientate me to apply the findings of the study at my university in Tanzania.

7.2 CURRICULUM PRACTICE IN UNIVERSITY TEACHER EDUCATION IN TANZANIA

This section gives an overview of the context of university teacher education in Tanzania. The section starts by highlighting the nature of university-based teacher education and ends with discussions about the structure of Master's programmes. This background is important because it links with the findings from the study and the contemporary practice in university teacher education in the country.

7.2.1 University-based teacher education programmes

According to Part I of Preliminary Provisions and Section 3 of the Tanzania Universities Act (7 of 2005) the term 'university education' refers to "education offered at a university college or university that leads to an award of a degree." The universities in the country focus on promoting research, teaching-learning, social services and economic growth (Tanzania, 1999a; 1999b; 2010). University education which is rooted in the philosophy of education for self-reliance is geared towards addressing the increasing demand for higher education, the enhancement of entrepreneurship, democracy, good governance, sustainable resource development and usage, and to keeping abreast of developments in science and technology (Tanzania, 1995; 1999a; 1999b; 2010).

The practices of university-based teacher education programmes are categorised into two levels: the undergraduate and the postgraduate levels (Tanzania, 2012). In this study, I highlighted facts about the Tanzania postgraduate teacher education programmes that fall under the directorate of postgraduate studies (MWECAU, 2015; TUMA, 2012; UD, 2015). The directorate of postgraduate studies is responsible for higher education studies and the directorate is managed by a director who coordinates curriculum activities with faculties/colleges of universities. They also align their activities with the office of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor for Academic Affairs and the office of the Vice-Chancellor (Tanzania, 2005).

The following are some of the Master's and PhD programmes offered for teacher education in Tanzanian universities: Master of Education, Master of Arts in Education, Master of Arts in Educational Management, Master of Educational Management and Administration, Master of Education in Curriculum and Instruction, Master of Education in Assessment and Evaluation, Master of Educational Planning and Administration, Doctor of Philosophy, and Doctor of Philosophy in Education (MWECAU, 2015; TUMA, 2012:23; UD, 2015:51). It should be noted that Curriculum Studies features as modules within these programmes (MWECAU, 2015; TUMA, 2012; UD, 2015).

7.2.2 Structure for Master's programmes

In both government and non-government universities the structure for Master's programmes is quite similar. Firstly, the Master's programmes are offered by respective faculties/schools and coordinated by the director of postgraduate studies, as explained earlier (Tanzania, 2005). The study duration differs from one university to the other depending on the mode of study (full-time or part-time basis) as well as on whether the programmes are done by coursework and mini-thesis, or only by way of a thesis (MWECAU, 2015; TUMA, 2012; UD, 2015). The programmes are designed to prepare students for professional qualifications in their respective fields and they are chiefly geared towards career-oriented learning to prepare students for the competitive job market. Section 2.1.1 of the National Qualifications Framework (Tanzania, 2010) stipulates the aim of higher education programmes as follows:

[T]o promote the acquisition of higher levels of intellectual, professional and management skills; prepare middle and higher level professional human resources for service in the different sectors of the economy; and provide opportunities for intellectual, scientific and technological excellence and higher level performance.

However, Mhando (2012:210) points out that university teacher education in Tanzania is challenged by a number of issues including "the relevance of the teacher education programmes offered", the quality of lecturers, the availability of teaching and learning materials as well as the teaching methodologies used (Babyegeya, 2006; Lukanga, 2013; Meena, 2009; Mhando, 2012).

Secondly, the Master's programmes are comprised of core and elective courses of a particular Master's programme offered. Some of the core courses offered by teacher education Master's programmes are Sociology of Education, Comparative Education, Curriculum and Teaching, Educational Policy and Planning, Contemporary issues in East Africa, Research Methodology in Education, Instructional Technology in Education, Psychology of Human Growth and Development, Management of Education and School Administration, Curriculum Planning, Theory Design and Development, Curriculum Development in Science Methods of Teaching, Professional Development in Science Methods of Teaching, Educational Psychology, Theories and Principles of Teaching, as

well as a dissertation based on the field of the programme concerned (MWECAU, 2015; UD, 2015; TUMA, 2012).

Thirdly, the process of teaching and learning is aligned with the Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) theory related to curriculum development, whereby learning outcomes are placed central to the teaching and learning process (Tanzania, 2012). The teaching and learning activities involve integrated approaches to instruction. Small groups and individual assignments such as book reviews, semester papers, class presentations and discussions are encouraged depending on the nature of the programme. Teaching methods such as lectures, projects and study field are highly recommended (TUMA, 2012). The mediums of instruction, Kiswahili and English, are stipulated in Section 5.5.8 of the Education and Training Policy of 1995. Except for Kiswahili, which is the national language, and other languages used in foreign language-oriented programmes, English is the language used mostly in instructing non-linguistic programmes.

Lastly, students' assessments are done in each course of a particular programme through continuous assessments. This is followed by a final university examination, and an oral examination for the dissertation or thesis. In the light of the general information about curriculum practice in university teacher education in Tanzania, I next present several theoretical guidelines that emanated from my study to inform the development of a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse.

7.3 THEORETICAL GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME FOR TEACHER EDUCATION INFORMED BY THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF CURRICULUM STUDIES DISCOURSE

The theoretical guidelines provide information about the nature, the elements and the practice of an ideal Curriculum Studies programme that could be considered when such a programme is developed in Tanzania.

7.3.1 The nature of the programme

The discussion on the nature of the programme in Chapter 3 dealt with the essence of the proposed Curriculum Studies programme (3.2.1). First, it is important to recognise that Curriculum Studies as a discipline has progressed to a postparadigmatic phase. Curriculum Studies needs to be better recognised and promoted as an academic discipline in its own right. Although teacher education institutions in Tanzania offer Curriculum Studies as modules within other educational programmes, it is important to offer it as a programme in order to better provide space for teaching matters regarding the discipline and its discourses nationally and internationally. Curriculum Studies is a dynamic, living, growing field and it produces cutting-edge knowledge about the discipline; it allows

synthesis and coordination of scholarly ideas, and it is recommended for effective teaching and learning (2.2.1). As a result, the proposed programme will enable the country to train local scholars as experts in the discipline (1.2, 1.3 & 2.2.2).

Second, the praxis approach to curriculum development processes should be prioritised with a focus on the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach, based on Pinar's theory (2.3, 3.3.3.2, 3.6.1, 5.2.2.1 & 6.4.4). The body of scholarship on historical developments in Curriculum Studies in Tanzania has revealed that the philosophy of education for self-reliance embraces elements of the praxis approach (3.3.3.1) which could also feature in the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse.

Third, it is vital to understand the notion of the term 'Curriculum Studies'. According to the findings, this study considered the meaning of Curriculum Studies from the praxis perspective. 'Curriculum Studies' as a term is perceived as neither product nor process, but as praxis, which refers to the Latin verb *currere* that necessitates individuals' involvement in conceptualising Curriculum Studies-related phenomena through critical reflections on the different social contexts at a particular time (1.6.1, 3.6.1 & 6.2.2.1). Postmodernism furnishes the discipline with discourses such as historical, political, racial and gendered modes of knowledge production which include phenomenological and autobiographical interventions and critical inquiry; aesthetic and theological influences; advances in science and technology; and internationalisation. Other discourses are related to curriculum development and design, lecturers/teachers of Curriculum Studies, and students. The discipline also engages with curriculum trends which are focused on equality of education, cultural pluralism, decolonisation, international education and futurism. Other trends include curriculum innovations, diversification of the curriculum, language policy, and assessment and examination systems (2.2.2.1.4, 2.2.2.2.3 & 2.3.1). Therefore, teacher education in Tanzania could develop a Curriculum Studies programme that covers most of these discourses and trends. By doing so, teacher education will empower teachers to become educational change agents in the country.

Fourth, the notion of a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse should be understood to refer to the two main attributes advocated by Pinar (2007). Thus, the programme should engage with historical events (verticality) and present circumstances (horizontality) that are of national and international relevance (2.2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 5.4.1.2 & 6.4.4). In addition, I would suggest that the deliberative approach to curriculum development be followed. This approach encourages education stakeholders to improve and transform matters regarding curriculum development processes (3.3.3.2, 3.6.1, 3.6.2 & 6.4.5). Curriculum scholars in Tanzania should be aware of the different meanings related to the discussed discourse and focus on Pinar's theory of internationalisation in order to deepen their understanding of the Curriculum Studies as an academic discipline which engages with internationalisation discourse. Furthermore,

the advantages of a broad awareness of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse could encourage teacher educationalists in Tanzania to equip Curriculum Studies students with knowledge, skills and competencies in matters related to contemporary topics of Curriculum Studies. This will enable the country to develop scholars in Curriculum Studies who would be able to participate actively and contribute to the body of scholarship in the discipline (2.2.2.1.4, 6.2.1.6, 6.2.2.2.3 & 6.3.1.11).

Fifth, the level of the programme to be developed should be identified so as to better focus the curriculum development process (5.4.1.1 & 6.4.4). The programme level, UQF Level 9, is aimed at the postgraduate Academic Master's Degree (Tanzania, 2012).

Sixth, the name of the programme and its award (5.4.1.1) should be spelt out in line with Section 5.3 of the UQF (Tanzania, 2012).

Finally, the research findings highlighted that the rationale for developing the programme must be in line with the requirements of the nation as stipulated in relevant higher education policies. The findings endorsed the need for this programme in Tanzania, so as to better equip teachers when applying curriculum theories and practices in their work. Curriculum Studies as a transformative discipline meets the objectives of the UQF which aims to ensure the quality of curriculum programmes for higher education (1.2 & 6.4.4).

7.3.2 The elements of the programme

The seven elements to be discussed next refer to the things which make up the curriculum (3.2.2). The first concerns the aims, the purpose and the objectives of the programme. The aims of the programme should be derived from the curriculum stakeholders who must deliberate widely and reach consensus on the nature, the elements, and the practice of the programme (3.6.2). The purpose of the programme should be clearly identified in line with the focused meaning of the term 'a Curriculum Studies programme' and the level descriptors of the programme. The main purpose of this programme should be to train qualified individuals with highly specialised knowledge, skills and competencies in Curriculum Studies and curriculum inquiry (6.2.1.2 & Tanzania, 2012). In line with this purpose, the programme objectives should be formulated. The research findings assisted me in formulating tentative programme objectives, namely demonstrate knowledge about various conceptions of Curriculum Studies, demonstrate an understanding of historical developments in Curriculum Studies (nationally and internationally), critically engage with curriculum development processes, conduct praxis-oriented research in Curriculum Studies, and demonstrate the ability to be empowered and engaged with Curriculum Studies discourses. From these objectives, the modules outcomes and learning outcomes of a Curriculum Studies programme could consequently be formulated (5.4.2.6 & 6.4.4).

Second, the lecturers who are expected to be involved in this programme and those from different disciplines should be informed about the nature and the elements of the programme. Lecturers should be aware of the programme from the start of its development. This will enable them to feel involved and to contribute ideas about the programme which had not been taught at their faculty/university before. Furthermore, the lecturers should be informed about what is expected of them when teaching Curriculum Studies in a praxis context. They should be active, empowered scholars who demonstrate creative thinking. The lecturers as facilitators and curriculum developers should be willing to share experiences with co-lecturers and students (3.2.2 & 3.6.2). In addition, lecturers are regarded as role models for students and peers in teaching and research (3.2.2, 6.3.1.6 & 6.4.4).

Third, the students should also be informed about the programme. I suggest that potential students in this programme should also share their needs and interests to do justice to a deliberative approach to the development of the programme. In addition, students should be treated as individuals who must engage in the learning process and must also be able to function in groups to share experiences (3.2.2, 3.6.2, 5.4.2.3 & 6.3.2). In line with OBE which guides higher education in Tanzania, students should be central to the teaching and learning activities. The internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach further encourages every student to act and reflect on what they have learnt in order to deepen their understanding of pertinent phenomena in relation to the historical events and the present circumstances of the discipline, and the local and the global aspects of Curriculum Studies as a discipline (6.3.1.8 & 6.4.4).

Fourth, the content of the programme should engage with the teaching of the Curriculum Studies discipline which must be transdisciplinary, interdisciplinary and aesthetic in order to empower students in their profession and specialisation. This will enhance a more powerful and profound understanding of the discipline and its discourses (3.2.2, 5.4.2.1 & 6.4.4). The study's findings indicated that it is important to consider the following content for the programme: curriculum development theories, the history of Curriculum Studies (Western, African and Tanzanian orientations), teaching-learning, assessment, curriculum and society, and research methodology in the context of the discipline. The content must be informed by national and international discourses and trends (2.3, 2.4, 3.6.2, 5.4.2.1, 6.2.1.4 & 6.2.2.3). In addition, the content of all the modules, and in particular the research project, should equip students with skills which will enable them to reflect critically on the entire programme in order to demonstrate the praxis approach of the programme. The content should be organised following the horizontality and verticality dimensions by employing the organisational criteria which are integration, scope, sequence, continuity, articulation and balance (3.4, 5.4.2.2, 6.4.4 & 6.4.5).

The fifth element concerns the milieu in which the programme is delivered. The findings indicated the following: curriculum developers should provide space in the development for national and international needs from different social contexts such as political, cultural and economic, because of the ever-changing nature of societal needs (6.4.3). Also, the multi-cultural dynamics in the university and society at large are to be infused in a Curriculum Studies programme (1.2, 3.2.2 & 3.6.2). Also, the credit weighting of each module (5.4.2.1) should be indicated in line with Section 4.3 of the UQF credit system (Tanzania, 2012). In addition, curriculum developers should clarify if the programme is offered on full-time or part-time basis (5.4.2.4 & 7.2.2). Other important aspects to consider under milieu are the availability of relevant library facilities, and human resources, such as lecturers who are equipped to teach Curriculum Studies.

Sixth is the activity element which is at the heart of the learning experiences (3.2.2). The findings indicated that the programme should prioritise the use of praxis-oriented approaches to teaching and learning. This will ensure that the students are central to the teaching and learning process. Teaching and learning methods such as problem-based learning, project-based learning, and service learning should be considered (3.2.2, 3.5.3, 3.5.4, 3.5.5, 3.5.6, 3.6.2, 5.4.2.5, 6.2.1.5.2 & 6.2.2.2.4). Further, these activities could be employed together with sophisticated technologies so as to make teaching and learning processes more relevant to the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach.

The last element is instructional assessment, which forms part of the programme through formative and summative assessments (3.2.2, 5.4.2.6 & 6.4.5). Instructional assessment should be directed by the learning outcomes, whereby in employing the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach the learning outcomes should enable students to demonstrate competencies in engaging in contemporary Curriculum Studies phenomena both nationally and internationally. Further, the assessment of dissertations or theses should be aligned with universities' assessment guides (7.2.2).

According to the literature findings, curriculum developers should be able to ensure the co-ordination and balance among the elements in the process of curriculum development in order to make the developed curriculum more efficient (3.2.2).

7.3.3 The practice of the programme

The practice of the programme refers to issues related to how to think and act upon matters regarding the studied nature and the elements of the programme (3.2.3).

7.3.3.1 How to think about Curriculum Studies matters

The findings from the study suggested that curriculum developers in Tanzania need to think more critically about Curriculum Studies trends and discourses. This will enable them to be sensitive to current issues regarding the discipline. Some of the questions noted from this study focus on the nature and the elements of curriculum in postmodernism (3.6.3 & 6.3.3).

Bitzer (2011:52-53) suggests the following to researchers and curriculum developers in higher education as they think about Curriculum Studies matters:

- Be aware of existing research and publications in order to avoid repetition of searching into exactly the same problem, and learning from other research and experiences.
- Cooperate and network within subjects and fields of learning, and across disciplines, professional fields and expertise.
- Develop an agenda of curriculum inquiry with an aim of prioritising curriculum inquiry issues which are necessary at a certain period of time.

By doing this, curriculum development work will be brought in line with the contemporary needs in society.

7.3.3.2 How to develop a Curriculum Studies programme

7.3.3.2.1 Team work and important documents

According to the findings, developing a successful Curriculum Studies programme requires good team work. The team of curriculum developers could involve faculty members who will be responsible for the programme (heads of departments, lecturers who teach curriculum-related modules, and students). Other members of the team could be lecturers from other faculties who can share their experience on the internationalisation aspects as considered in their programmes, experts in curriculum development matters, and support staff (3.2 & 6.4.5). On its part, the curriculum development team should work with relevant policy documents that inform the minimum requirements in terms of aims, objectives and roles for developing a curriculum (6.4.5; Tanzania, 1995; 1999a; 1999b; 2005; 2012; 2014).

7.3.3.2.2 Procedures

The body of scholarship on pragmatic intervention design and development methodology used in conducting the study and the data from the participants suggest six main phases for the curriculum development process to take place. The phases could be used to develop any curriculum programme, yet the difference between these programmes could be seen from the proposed nature of the programme and the designed elements of the programme. The first phase is the problem analysis. Curriculum developers should be involved in several operations and activities to enable them to identify the problem, to share the problem with as many stakeholders as possible, and to identify the concerns of the stakeholders before a programme is developed (4.4.2.1, 4.4.3.1, 6.3.2.1 & 6.4.5).

The second phase entails the gathering and synthesis of information which involves operations and activities that could enable curriculum developers to know the nature, the elements, and the practice of the proposed Curriculum Studies programme. The data generated is then synthesised systematically by employing appropriate methods (4.4.2.2, 4.4.3.2, 4.4.3.3, 6.3.2.1 & 6.4.5). This study provided recent and useful findings to inform the development of a Curriculum Studies programme in Tanzania.

The third phase is the design phase. At this stage, curriculum developers should begin to develop and design the programme based on the findings from the problem analysis and the information that was gathered and synthesised (4.4.2.3, 4.4.3.4 & 6.4.5). This process should adhere to higher education institutions' official guidelines which stipulate the structure for developing a curriculum programme (6.4.5). This study also provided useful findings for theoretical guidelines which could be employed at the design phase of the development of the studied programme.

It is recommended that universities that wish to develop a Curriculum Studies programme should engage in further research to inform their curriculum development procedures by including phases 4, 5 and 6 of the intervention research methodology.

Fourth, early development and pilot testing that entails operations and activities to test a programme should be considered (4.4.2.4). Pilot testing of the programme ensures the trustworthiness of the nature and elements of the curriculum programme (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Marais & Meier, 2007; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). Data emerging from the pilot testing could be used to make decisions regarding the curriculum programme. Thus, the curriculum programme could be improved or modified (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Marais & Meier, 2007; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992).

The fifth phase concerns the dissemination process where the developed programme is put into practice (4.4.2.6). The curriculum programme becomes effective when lecturers and students

interact with the curriculum through teaching-learning (Marais & Meier, 2007; Posner, 2004; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). At this stage, lecturers and students should demonstrate critical thinking and reflection on matters related to the roles of the lecturer and the notion of teaching, the roles of the students and the notion of learning, the resources to facilitate teaching, the notion of knowledge, and the manner of assessment (Reed *et al.*, 2012). Furthermore, it is important for curriculum developers to understand that there are other activities which must be performed in this phase, especially when disseminating a programme which had not been taught before. These activities involve continuous advocating for the programme and constantly providing materials and the administrative means to facilitate teaching-learning (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992).

The sixth phase involves operations and activities for evaluation (5.4.2.6 & 6.4.5). Two kinds of evaluation of the programme could be conducted: instructional evaluation and evaluation of the entire curriculum development (Marais & Meier, 2007; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). Instructional evaluation refers to the feedback obtained from the lecturers and the students about the taught curriculum programme in order to improve the programme (6.4.5). The programme evaluation refers to evaluation of the whole process considered for developing the curriculum programme since curriculum developing is a continuous process (Marais & Meier, 2007; Shiundu & Omulando, 1992).

Given the above reflection on the theoretical guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse, it can be concluded that a pragmatic intervention research methodology – through its design and development facet – is of great use in developing theoretical guidelines to inform a future Curriculum Studies programme. Appendix I provides an analytical summary of the theoretical guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania.

7.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE THESIS TO KNOWLEDGE

This study has contributed to the body of knowledge in Curriculum Studies, and has made a contextual and methodological contribution. Although this study was contextually located in the Tanzania, its findings might have a wider impact on Curriculum Studies research internationally. The contributions are the result of the entire inquiry focused on the research question (1.4).

7.4.1 Theoretical contribution: Curriculum Studies as a discipline

Theoretically the study has contributed to the understanding of the historical overview of Curriculum Studies as a discipline, and its discourses and trends, which promotes sensitisation of the Curriculum Studies discourse. Also, the body of scholarship has contributed to the understanding of

influential theories and practices in curriculum development. It is suggested that it will help future programme designers to determine what to include in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania, and to conceptualise the feasibility of developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse. In particular, this study was the first that explicitly theorised the nature, elements and practices of Curriculum Studies amidst the internationalisation discourse.

7.4.2 Contextual contribution: Teacher education in Tanzania

The study aimed to create an awareness of the importance of a Curriculum Studies programme for Tanzanian teacher education and to promote Curriculum Studies as a discipline in its own right. In higher education, teacher education is guided on how to develop a Curriculum Studies programme informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse for postgraduate (Master's) students. Thus, Tanzania will have its own local experts in Curriculum Studies who will contribute to Curriculum Studies discourses on various levels in education institutions, associations, organisations, journals, and national and international projects. In addition, teacher education in higher education will be enabled to offer programmes for Curriculum Studies up to a doctoral level. This will assist Tanzania in training local scholars in Curriculum Studies who will engage in teaching Curriculum Studies in higher education and become involved in scholarly debates about the discipline.

7.4.3 Methodological contribution: Pragmatic intervention design and development methodology

The methodological contribution to this study can be explained in two ways. Firstly, the background regarding historical forms of curriculum inquiry and the significance of qualitative research in Curriculum Studies contributed to the understanding of various forms of curriculum inquiry from the traditionalist paradigm to the present, and its significance and implications in contemporary Curriculum Studies inquiry. This enabled me to justify my selection of a pragmatic intervention design and development methodology.

Secondly, the pragmatic intervention design and development methodology contributed to the practical application through the use of its distinct phases and how it could be employed when a curriculum is developed. This methodology was merged with the research methods and procedures commonly used in qualitative research. The methodology consequently assisted in deriving the theoretical guidelines to develop a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse; in particular, by employing the first three phases of curriculum development, namely situational analysis, data generation and synthesis, and designing of the studied guidelines. The guidelines were designed

immediately by applying the findings systematically, and also by considering the theoretical framework of the questions of curriculum based on the nature, the elements and the practice. The possibility of using the findings immediately is also useful. In addition, literature on intervention research in the context of Tanzania is encouraged through this study.

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limitations related to data presentation and discussions were experienced in the study:

7.5.1 Data presentation limitations

In one of the documents used for data generation (Document E-1) the modules' outcomes for Issues in Curriculum Studies (ISCS 611) and Instructional Media (INME 621) were not described (5.2.2.2.1). I also noted that these elective modules were not mentioned in Document E-2. However, since there were other elective modules closely related to ISCS and INME, I studied the content of those modules to determine possible content for the two mentioned modules.

Also, one of the research participants (HD01-uB) volunteered to be interviewed, but at times the participant did not want his/her views to be disclosed or recorded. Therefore, I considered the views generally and rephrased them without changing the original meaning.

7.5.2 Data discussion limitations

Regarding the elements of a Curriculum Studies programme discussed in this study, I did not inquire how to calculate credits for the suggested modules (5.4.2.2), since this would need a different study. Yet, the data from Document E-1 could sensitise curriculum developers to their responsibility of allocating credits for each module of a curriculum programme in line with the value assigned to a given notional hours of learning as stipulated in the NQF of South Africa as well as in the Tanzanian frameworks.

Furthermore, due to the nature of this study, I elaborate more on which praxis-oriented teaching and learning approaches, methods, techniques and activities should be considered, and why. However, there is a vast body of scholarship on how to facilitate reflective learning in higher education which can also be included as a praxis-oriented teaching and learning approach.

7.6 RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE STUDIES

Given the nature of this study, it is suggested that a future study could address the issue of extending the process of developing a Curriculum Studies programme from the second operation of the design phase, to the dissemination phase, and evaluation phase. This implies that further

research could be conducted in order to employ the theoretical guidelines for developing the programme in other phases of curriculum development discussed in this study which include early development and pilot testing, dissemination, and evaluation (7.3.3.2.2). The process of extending the present research to other phases of curriculum development will be beneficial to teacher education in Tanzania because a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse will be practically offered at Master's degree level. My promoter and I gained funding from the National Institute of the Humanities and Social Sciences Council of South Africa to further this research in 2017.

7.7 SELF-REFLEXIVITY

I started my PhD journey knowing that I would become an expert in Curriculum Studies. I also knew that I had to produce a scholarly work, yet I did not know much about the in-depth requirements for producing a scholarly work. In this section, I reflect on the processes I went through when generating data and writing up this thesis.

According to Diamond (2008), a scholarly work should meet most of the following criteria:

- There should be a high level of understanding of the discipline.
- The thesis aims should be clear, and appropriate methodologies should be used.
- The thesis should be written or documented in an academically accepted style that abides by academic principles of reporting research.
- The thesis should be significant to the context of study, and even beyond. This implies that the thesis can break new ground, and can be replicated or elaborated.
- The work should be examined or peer-reviewed.

Based on some of these criteria, I first conducted a historical analysis to gain an in-depth understanding of Curriculum Studies as a discipline and its theories and practices. I studied the historical developments, discourses and trends related to the discipline both internationally and nationally. Here I started to understand the importance of history as one of the foundations for Curriculum Studies. The historical framework helped me to gain a greater understanding of the historical developments in education in my own country (Tanzania) and to reflect critically on these developments.

I became aware of the general theoretical frameworks that could be used to develop curriculum programmes for different levels of education. These frameworks enabled me to broaden my understanding of what types of questions ought to be asked when inquiring into Curriculum Studies and when developing new programmes. Literature on approaches to curriculum development enabled me to arrive at an approach that could be aligned with Tanzanian policies. I consistently

asked myself: What makes the approach that I argued for more important than other curriculum development processes? This question was important because it enabled me to contextualise and customise the research in the Tanzanian context.

Methodologically, the pragmatic philosophy enabled me to be flexible to use intervention design and development facet together with other methods for data generation and analysis. It was interesting to see how the phases of pragmatic intervention design and development complemented the research methods and procedures for conducting qualitative research in Curriculum Studies. I was also excited to reach a stage where I could apply the findings to answer the main research question. At this stage I was able to envisage how I could advise co-lecturers, curriculum developers, and researchers on matters related to the development of curriculum programmes. Also, the Critical Discourse Analysis method used in the study enabled me to gain an in-depth understanding of the data. In particular, I became more aware of the following two things: (i) the possibility of having different meanings derived from a phenomenon and its implications for curriculum development, and (ii) the influence of political practices in the process of curriculum development. This enabled me to understand the limitations of my work as a lecturer and a curriculum developer. I am now in a better position to argue for or against Curriculum Studies issues.

The result of this work added confidence to my work as a lecturer in Curriculum Studies, and as a curriculum developer who can contribute knowledge through workshops, article writing, study guides and books. It also made me more critical about academic discourses.

7.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter conclusions were drawn about the study: *A Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania: an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach*. The chapter focused on the lacunae in the study, provided critical responses to the findings and provided theoretical guidelines for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania. In writing this final chapter I was in a position to indicate how I perceive my contribution to existing knowledge. It also enabled me to identify limitations of this study and to recommend how this research could be expanded upon. As a result, the entire process of the study was contextualised as evidence of a scholarly work which I and other Curriculum Studies scholars could apply so as to enhance the discipline and add to the exponential growth in this vibrant discipline.

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APPENDIX A

ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE OF PROJECT



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

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Institutional Research Ethics Regulatory Committee

Tel +27 18 299 4849
Email Ethics@nwu.ac.za

ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE OF PROJECT

Based on approval by Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences, the North-West University Institutional Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (NWU-IRERC) hereby approves your project as indicated below. This implies that the NWU-IRERC grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the project may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

Project title: A Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania: an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach.																															
Project Leader:	Prof P du Preez																														
Student:	R Munisi																														
Ethics number:	<table border="1"><tr><td>N</td><td>W</td><td>U</td><td>-</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>3</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-</td><td>1</td><td>4</td><td>-</td><td>A</td><td>2</td></tr><tr><td colspan="3">Institution</td><td colspan="6">Project Number</td><td colspan="2">Year</td><td colspan="4">Status</td></tr></table> Status: S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation	N	W	U	-	0	0	3	1	1	-	1	4	-	A	2	Institution			Project Number						Year		Status			
N	W	U	-	0	0	3	1	1	-	1	4	-	A	2																	
Institution			Project Number						Year		Status																				
Approval date: 2015-06-04	Expiry date: 2020-06-03																														
Category	N/A																														

Special conditions of the approval (if any): None

General conditions:

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:

- The project leader (principle investigator) must report in the prescribed format to the NWU-IRERC:
 - annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the project,
 - without any delay in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.
- The approval applies strictly to the protocol as stipulated in the application form. Would any changes to the protocol be deemed necessary during the course of the project, the project leader must apply for approval of these changes at the NWU-IRERC. Would there be deviated from the project protocol without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the NWU-IRERC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility the NWU-IRERC retains the right to:
 - request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project;
 - withdraw or postpone approval if:
 - any unethical principles or practices of the project are revealed or suspected,
 - it becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the NWU-IRERC or that information has been false or misrepresented,
 - the required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately,
 - new institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.

The IRERC would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher, and wishes you well with your project. Please do not hesitate to contact the IRERC for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

Linda du
Plessis

Digitally signed by Linda du Plessis
DN: cn=Linda du Plessis, o=NWU,
ou=Vaal Triangle Campus,
email=Linda.duplessis@nwu.ac.za,
c=ZA
Date: 2015.07.13 10:44:33 +0200

Prof Linda du Plessis

Chair NWU Institutional Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (IRERC)

APPENDIX B

AN EXAMPLE OF A LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT EMPIRICAL RESEARCH



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
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POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

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<http://www.nwu.ac.za>
<http://www.hreid.co.za>

..... 2015

To whom it may concern.

Dear Prof./Dr.

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT EMPIRICAL RESEARCH IN YOUR UNIVERSITY

I hereby request permission for Mrs Rose Joseph Munisi to do empirical research at your university. Mrs Rose J Munisi (student number 25531905) is an enrolled PhD student at the School for Education Studies at North-West University, Potchefstroom campus in South Africa. The title of her thesis is *A Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania: an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach*.

Mrs Munisi would like to conduct her empirical research in this particular university environment as it fits the profile required by the research project. Her research is centred on developing a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach. Her research will require the participation of a curriculum or education subject group/unit/department leader, two lecturers who teach curriculum related modules/courses, and six postgraduate students who study curriculum models/courses. This research will aim to explore the profile required experiences and opinions about developing a Curriculum Studies programme of such nature and its challenges in particular in the context of Tanzania.

Mrs Munisi's research has been approved by the ethical committee of the North-West University (Ethics number NWU 00311-14-A2). All the information (through individuals' and focus group interviews) that is gained from the heads of departments/subjects, the lecturers, and the students will be handled confidentially and within the ethical rules of research determined by the North-West University. Aspects such as informed consent, voluntary participation and respect for anonymity will be adhered to.

I sincerely hope you will be able to accommodate Mrs Rose J Munisi and I thank you for your assistance in this study.

Regards

Prof. Petro du Preez

Study Promoter

APPENDIX C

AN EXAMPLE OF CONSENT FORM USED FOR INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS



POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

CONSENT FORM FOR CURRICULUM STUDIES

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS

TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Researcher:

Rose Joseph Munisi

Study title:

A Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania: an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach

You are requested to participate in an individual interview which will be conducted by Rose Joseph Munisi, from the School for Education Studies, Faculty of Education Sciences, North-West University, Potchefstroom campus in South Africa. The research results of this study will be made public in the form of a PhD thesis, scientific articles, book chapters, and study guides. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because of your experiences in leading curriculum related programmes.

In general this study will focus on an in-depth study of the discipline of Curriculum Studies and its discourses and trends. It aims to explore issues such as the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse as an approach to curriculum development, and the possibility of coming up with a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by this discourse. The Curriculum Studies proposed to be developed is for the Academic Master's Degree students in Tanzania.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study aims to bring awareness that Curriculum Studies as a discipline is very broad and has great contribution for teacher education. The teaching of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education will allow opportunity for in-depth study of the discipline and this will facilitate improvement and change in the fields of curriculum and education in Tanzania. For this reason, the interview questions are formulated in line with research objectives based on perspectives pertaining to developing a Curriculum Studies programme for

teacher education in higher education. Data generated from the interviews will assist in guiding on how to develop such a programme.

2. PROCEDURES

If you will be willing to participate in this interview, I will give a welcoming note, conduct the interview and take notes. You will be expected to respond to interview questions which will be posed to you. Please feel free to share your views. Your opinion will be used for decision-making or guiding action for this study. Your responses will remain anonymous and your name will not be mentioned in the report. The conversation will be audio-recorded for later playback.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The study to be undertaken will not provide any potential risks and discomforts to the participant.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

To the academic disciplines, better awareness will be brought to Tanzania on the growth of Curriculum Studies. The research findings will bring bright light in the way of seeing the possibility and feasibility for developing a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Not applicable.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Information will not be released to any other party for any reason.

The audio recorded data and field notes can be reviewed by the participant at any stage during the research process. Audio recorded data will be destroyed as soon as it has been transcribed by the researcher.

In the thesis the university sites and the participants' names will, for example, be referred to as: university A or (uA) with head of department 01-uA or (HD01-uA).

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also not answer a particular question and still continue with the rest of questions. The researcher may withdraw you from the conversation if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF RESEARCHERS

If you have any question or concern about the research, please feel free to contact Prof. Petro du Preez (study leader/promoter) at (018 299 4737) e- mail: Petro.dupreez@nwu.ac.za and Rose J Munisi at mobile: +255 754 970 625(Tz) or 061 738 5034 (SA) e-mail: munisi_rose@yahoo.com.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, please ask the researchers or promoter of the study.

SIGNATURES OF PARTICIPANT AND RESEARCHER

The information above was described to me by Rose Joseph Munisi in English and I am in command of this language. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study.

_____ *Name of Participant*

_____ *Signature of Participant*

Rose Joseph Munisi _____ *Name of Researcher*

_____ *Signature of Researcher*

_____ / _____ /2015 _____ *Date*

APPENDIX D

A SUMMARY OF MAJOR HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS OF EDUCATION IN TANZANIA (ADAPTED FROM TANZANIA, 2010:11-12)

Traditional Tanzania and colonial era

- Emphasised principles of good citizenship, community and survival life skills and perpetuation of valued customs;
- Restricted access to education and training during the German and the British colonial periods.

Postindependence: Education Act 1962

- Abolition of racial discrimination in the provision of education; streamlined the curriculum, examinations, administration and financing of education; promoting Kiswahili as a national language.

Arusha Declaration 1967

- Introduction of the philosophy of Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) focusing on merger of theory and practice and emphasis on the provision and acquisition of practical life skills; linkage between education plans and practices with national social economic development plans, aspirations and the world of work.

Education Act 1969

- To support implementation of the ESR philosophy.
- Re-orientation of school curriculum to meet national needs.
- Compulsory enrolment of school age children in primary school, under the provision of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme.
- Introduction of Post-Primary Technical Centres (PPTCs) and Folk Development Colleges (FDCs).
- Replacement of foreign examinations with national examinations.
- Requirement that work be an integral part of education and social life.
- Introduction of terms system to primary and secondary education relevant to the needs of individuals and the country.
- Introduction of vocational programmes in secondary schools (Form 1-4) as a means of preparing young people for the world of work just after graduation.
- Abolition of direct entry by Form 6 leavers to tertiary, and higher education and training institutions, and their pre-requirement to serve the nation for at least six months.

Education ACT 1978

- Requirements that all public and private schools be registered.
- Establishment of schools categories including National Schools (i.e., all public schools, other than primary schools or adult education centres, managed by a Local Authority; All FDCs and Colleges of National Education), and regional schools (i.e., all primary schools and adult education centres with the former falling under the direct control of the Commissioner of National Education).
- Compulsory enrolment and attendance of primary education by all children between age 7 and 13 years.

Presidential Commission on Education 1981

- Review of education system based on quality improvement following massive expansion of Basic Education, led to:
- Establishment of the Tanzania Professional Teachers' Association.
- Introduction of new curriculum packages for primary, secondary and teacher education levels.
- Establishment of the Sokoine University of Agriculture, the Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences and the Open University of Tanzania.
- Establishment of Faculty of Education at the University of Dar es Salaam.
- Formulation of a National Policy for Science and Technology.

Task force on Tanzanian's Education System for the twenty-first century

- Recommendations of Task Force led to the formulation of the Tanzania Education and Training Policy with emphasis on the promotion of partnership between the government and the private sectors in the provision of education and training.

Education and Training Policy 1995

- Private sectors participation in the provision of education.
- Emphasizing the provision of quality education.
- Promoting access to education by focusing on equity issues.
- Promoting and emphasizing the growth of the culture of education for job creation and self-employment.
- Defining the structure of Tanzanian formal education and training as 2-7-4-2-3+(pre-primary, primary, ordinary, and advanced secondary education, and university/tertiary education).

Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) 1995

- Establishment of VETA as an organ to coordinate VETA schools and colleges in the country. Post primary vocational schools offer crafts courses in tailoring, masonry, painting, carpentry etc., lasting up to four years, and ending with a conferment of a Trade Test Certificate (III, II, I).
- Recognition of VECTEC qualifications is through registration with either the VETA or the National Council for Technical Education, NACTE.

National Higher Education Policy 1999, National Technical Education and Training Policy (1996) and the Universities Act, 2005

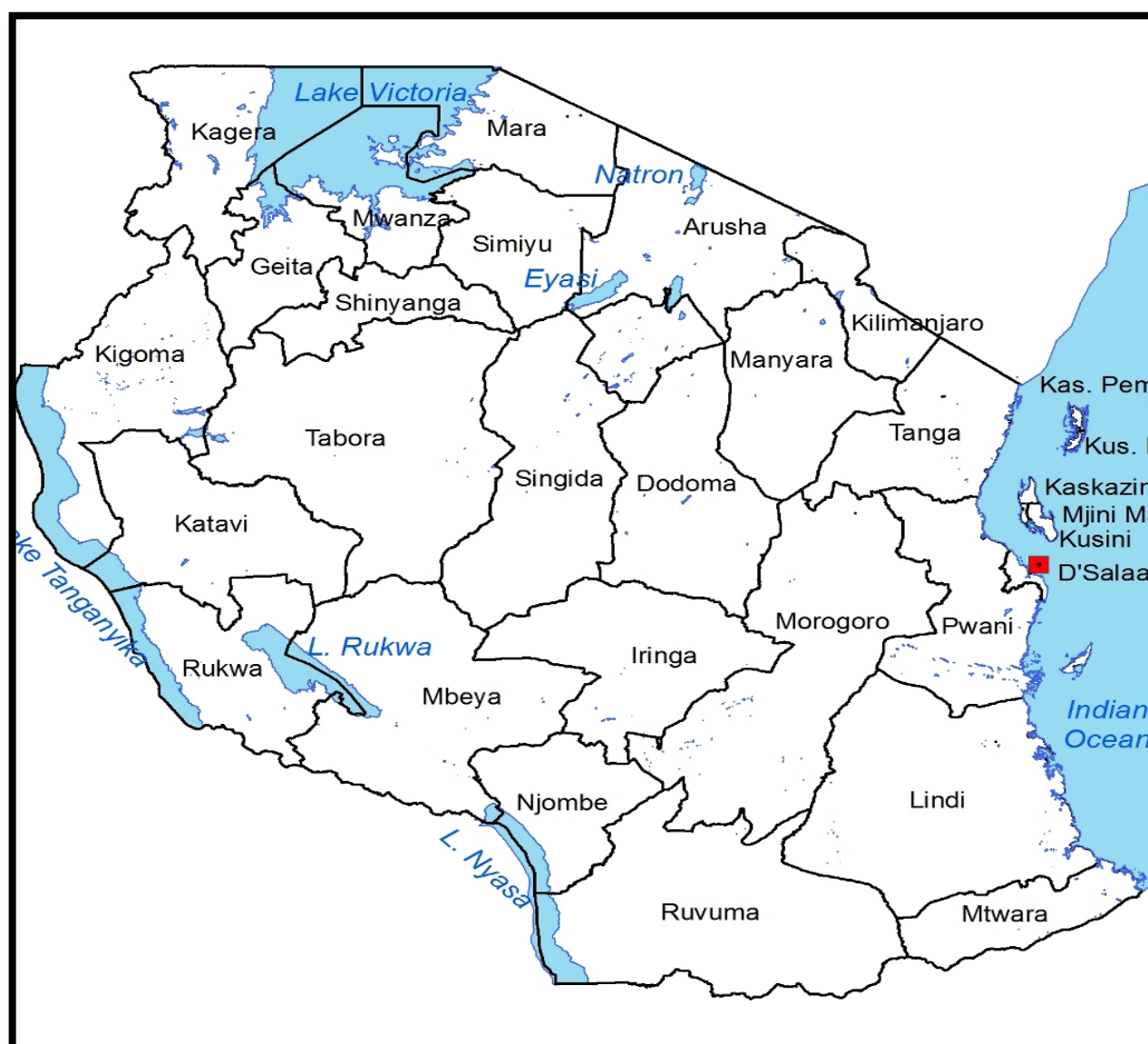
- Tertiary education and Training coordinated by NACTE, and the Higher Education Accreditation Council, currently the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU).
- TCU coordinates and regulates quality in Tertiary and Higher education specifically in universities and university colleges.
- Tertiary and Higher education and Training encompass all post-ordinary level secondary education leading to award of certificates, diplomas and degrees .
- NACTE regulates all non-university institutions.

Nonformal education

- Nonformal education growing in importance and is being promoted by the Government.
- Delivery systems which include informal education, the different stages of adult literacy, evening schools, continuing and open university education, library self-study, correspondence schools, radio programmes, television programmes, and technical devices programmes.
- Essentially, in nonformal education, it is the student who sets the pace for own studies, and there is flexible duration for promotion or completion.

APPENDIX E

GEOGRAPHICAL REGIONS FOR UNIVERSITIES A-D, TANZANIA



Dodoma Region – university A
Dar es Salaam Region – university B
Kilimanjaro Region – university C
Arusha Region – university D

SOURCE: <http://www.pesptz.org/index.php/map?lang=english> Date of access: 07 Sept. 2016.

APPENDIX F

GEOGRAPHICAL REGION FOR UNIVERSITY E, SOUTH AFRICA



SOURCE: <http://kzntopbusiness.co.za/site/kzn-in-context> Date of access 30 Sept. 2016.

APPENDIX G

DESCRIPTORS OF LEARNING ACHIEVEMENT AT LEVEL 8 NQF (TAKEN FROM SAQA, 2012:10-11)

- a. Scope of knowledge, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate knowledge of and engagement in an area at the forefront of a field, discipline or practice; an understanding of the theories, research methodologies, methods and techniques relevant to the field, discipline or practice; and an understanding of how to apply such knowledge in a particular context.
- b. Knowledge literacy, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate the ability to interrogate multiple sources of knowledge in an area of specialisation and to evaluate knowledge and process of knowledge production.
- c. Methods and procedure, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate an understanding of the complexities and uncertainties of selecting, applying of transferring appropriate standard procedures, processes or techniques to unfamiliar problems in a specialised field, discipline or practice.
- d. Problem solving, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate the ability to use a range of specialised skills to identify, analyse and address complex or abstract problems drawing systematically on the body of knowledge and methods appropriate to a field, discipline or practice.
- e. Ethics and professional practice, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate the ability to identify and address ethical issues, based on critical reflection on a suitability of different ethical value systems to specific contexts.
- f. Accessing, processing and managing information, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate the ability to critically review information gathering, synthesis of data, evaluation and management processes in specialised contexts in order to develop creative responses to problems and issues.
- g. Producing and communicating information, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate the ability to present and communicate academic, professional or occupational ideas and texts effectively to a range of audiences, offering creative insights, rigorous interpretations and solutions to problems and issues appropriate to the context.
- h. Context and systems, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate the ability to operate effectively within a system, or manage a system based on an understanding of the roles and relationships between elements within the system.
- i. Management of learning, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate the ability to apply, in a self-critical manner, learning strategies which effectively address his or her professional and ongoing learning needs and the professional and ongoing learning needs of others.
- j. Accountability, in respect of which a learner is able to demonstrate the ability to take full responsibility for his or her work, decision-making and use of resources, and full accountability for the decisions and actions of others where appropriate.

APPENDIX H

DESCRIPTORS OF LEARNING ACHIEVEMENT AT LEVEL 9 ACADEMIC MASTER'S DEGREE NQF (TAKEN FROM TANZANIA, 2012:22-28)

Purpose: Academic Master's Degree qualifies individuals to have highly specialised knowledge, skills, and competencies for research and problem solving in a specific field of study.

- a. Knowledge: Graduates of Academic Master's Degree will have highly specialised knowledge in the field of work or study, as the basis for original thinking and/or research, and critical awareness of knowledge issues in a discipline and at the interface between fields in a discipline.
- b. Skills: Graduates of Academic Master's Degree will have specialised problem solving skills required in research and/or innovation in order to develop new knowledge and procedures, to integrate knowledge from different fields, have ability to use a range of established techniques to initiate or propose solutions to problems arising from a specific context.
- c. Competencies: Graduates of Academic Master's Degree will demonstrate ability to: reflect critically and creatively on theory and application; systematically and creatively deal with complex issues; design, appraise and make sound judgements using research data and information; clearly communicate research findings to specialist and non-specialist audiences; learn and work independently with minimum supervision.

APPENDIX I

A SYNTHESISED SUMMARY OF THEORETICAL GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM STUDIES PROGRAMME FOR TANZANIA

The nature of the programme

- Curriculum Studies as an academic discipline has progressed to postparadigmatic phase
- The praxis approach to curriculum development, employing Pinar's theory of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies
- The notion of Curriculum Studies (*currere*)
- The notion of a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach (verticality & horizontality structures of the discipline, and the deliberative nature of the approach to curriculum development)
- The level of the programme to be developed as per NQF
- Naming of the programme and its award as per NQF

The elements of the programme

- **Purpose:** qualify individuals to have high specialised knowledge, skills and competencies in Curriculum Studies (in line with NQF)
- **Objectives** focus on: concept Curriculum Studies, historical developments in Curriculum Studies (nationally and internationally), curriculum development components, praxis-oriented methods and methodology in Curriculum Studies; engagement in Curriculum Studies discourses
- **Lecturer:** curriculum-maker, curriculum thinker, facilitator;
- **Student:** central to teaching and learning
- **Content:** transdisciplinary-oriented, inter-disciplinary oriented, aesthetic, curriculum development theories and related matters, history of Curriculum Studies (nationally and internationally), teaching-learning, and assessment, curriculum and society and research in Curriculum Studies. The content must be informed by aspects of the internationalisation
- Content should be organised by employing the horizontal and vertical organisation dimensions and their criteria (integration, scope, sequence, continuity, and articulation and balance)
- Content should be credit weighted as per NQF
- **Milieu:** specific space for national & international social needs, multi-cultural dynamics in university, explanation of delivery mode, availability of library and human resources
- **Activities:** praxis-oriented teaching and learning activities employed with the technological devices & adherence to the approved medium of instruction
- **Assessment:** formative & summative, research project

The practice of the programme

- **How to think:** think questions relate to Curriculum Studies at present
- **How to act:** develop a Curriculum Studies programme that is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach
- **Approach:** team work, and the use of relevant national policies
- **Procedures (6 phases):** problem analysis, information gathering and synthesis, design, early development and pilot testing, dissemination and evaluation

APPENDIX J

AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW SCHEDULE USED WITH HEADS OF CURRICULUM STUDIES-RELATED DEPARTMENTS IN TANZANIA

Open-ended questions for individual interview with curriculum departments leaders

in selected universities in Tanzania

To be conducted between January and June 2015

Interviewer: Rose Joseph Munisi

I. INTRODUCTORY QUESTION

What is the difference when Curriculum Studies is being taught only as a course in an educational programme and Curriculum Studies being a programme of its own?

II. KEY QUESTIONS *(following 3 orders of curriculum questions by Dillon, 2009)*

a) Nature of a Curriculum Studies programme

How would you define a Curriculum Studies programme?

b) Elements of a Curriculum Studies programme

- *(Questions on educational purposes)*

- What could be the purpose of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in the country (Tanzania)?
- What could be the objectives of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in the country?

- *(Questions on courses/modules)*

- What are the possible issues to be taught in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?
- Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

- *(Question on activities)*

- Which are the possible methods/techniques that can be used to teach Curriculum Studies courses/modules?
- Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

c) Practice of a Curriculum Studies programme

- What could be the challenges for develop this programme?
- In what ways can the teaching of a Curriculum Studies programme influence or (make the difference in) the field of curriculum for teacher education?

III. ENDING QUESTION

Is there anything we should have talked, but did not?

APPENDIX K

AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW SCHEDULE USED WITH CURRICULUM STUDIES SUBJECT CHAIR IN SOUTH AFRICA

Open-ended questions for individual interview with Curriculum Studies subject-chair

in a selected university in South Africa

To be conducted between January and June 2015

Interviewer: Rose Joseph Munisi

I. INTRODUCTORY QUESTIONS

- i. How does a Curriculum Studies programme differ from other educational programmes?
- ii. How do you understand the concept of internationalisation of Curriculum Studies?
- iii. How do you relate the concept of Curriculum Studies and the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies?

II. KEY QUESTIONS *(following 3 orders of curriculum questions by Dillon, 2009)*

a) Nature of a Curriculum Studies programme

- i. How would you define a Curriculum Studies programme?
- ii. How would you explain about a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach?

b) Elements of a Curriculum Studies programme

• *(Questions on educational purposes)*

- i. What could be the purpose of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?
- ii. What could be objectives for a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?
- iii. What are the relationship between these objectives and the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies discourse?

• *(Questions on courses/modules)*

- i. What are the possible issues to be taught in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?
- ii. Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

• *(Questions on activities)*

- i. How will the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach influence the suggested taught issues?
- ii. Which are the possible methods/techniques that can be used to teach Curriculum Studies courses/modules?
- iii. Please may you give reason for each of your responses?

c) Practice of a Curriculum Studies programme

- i. How can we develop a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach?
- ii. In what ways can the teaching of a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach influence (or make a difference in) the field of curriculum for teacher education?

III. ENDING QUESTION

Is there anything we should have talked, but did not?

APPENDIX L

AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW SCHEDULE USED WITH CURRICULUM LECTURERS IN TANZANIA

Open-ended questions for individual interviews with curriculum courses/modules lecturers

in selected universities in Tanzania

To be conducted between January and June 2015

Interviewer: Rose Joseph Munisi

I. INTRODUCTORY QUESTION

What is the difference when Curriculum Studies is being taught only as a course in an educational programme and Curriculum Studies being a programme of its own?

II. KEY QUESTIONS *(following 3 orders of curriculum questions by Dillon, 2009)*

a) Nature of a Curriculum Studies programme

How would you define a Curriculum Studies programme?

b) Elements of a Curriculum Studies programme

• *(Questions on educational purposes)*

- i. What could be the purpose of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in the country (Tanzania)?
- ii. What could be the objectives for a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in the country?

• *(Questions on courses/modules)*

- i. What are the possible issues to be taught in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?
- ii. Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

• *(Questions on activities)*

- i. Which are the possible methods/techniques can be used to teach Curriculum Studies courses/modules?
- ii. Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

c) Practice of a Curriculum Studies programme

In what ways can the teaching of a Curriculum Studies programme influence (or make a difference in) the field of curriculum for teacher education?

III. ENDING QUESTION

Is there anything we should have talked, but did not?

APPENDIX M

AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW SCHEDULE USED WITH CURRICULUM LECTURERS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Open-ended questions for individual interviews with Curriculum Studies lecturers
in a selected university in South Africa
To be conducted between January and June 2015

Interviewer: Rose Joseph Munisi

I. INTRODUCTORY QUESTIONS

- i. How do you understand the concept of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies?
- ii. How do you relate this concept with the idea of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach?

II. KEY QUESTIONS *(following 3 orders of curriculum questions from Dillon, 2009)*

a) Nature of a Curriculum Studies programme

- i. How does a Curriculum Studies programme differ from other educational programmes?
- ii. How would you define a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach?

b) Elements of a Curriculum Studies programme

• *(Questions on educational purposes)*

- i. What could be the purpose of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?
- ii. What could be objectives for a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?
- iii. How can we relate these objectives with the concept of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach?

• *(Questions on courses/modules)*

- i. What are the possible issues to be taught in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?
- ii. Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

• *(Questions on activities)*

- i. How will the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach influence the suggested taught issues?
- ii. Which are the possible methods/techniques that can be used to teach Curriculum Studies courses/modules?
- iii. Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

c) Practice of a Curriculum Studies programme

- i. How can we develop a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach?
- ii. In what ways can the teaching of a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach influence the field of curriculum for teacher education?

III. ENDING QUESTION

Is there anything we should have talked, but did not?

APPENDIX N

AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW SCHEDULE USED WITH CURRICULUM STUDIES STUDENTS IN TANZANIA

Open-ended questions for focus groups interviews with Curriculum Studies students
in selected universities in Tanzania
To be conducted between January and June 2015

Interviewer: Rose Joseph Munisi

I. OPENING QUESTION *(for participants to talk and feel comfortable during the interview).*

Please may you tell us briefly about your interests in curriculum issues?

II. INTRODUCTORY QUESTIONS *(for the group to start thinking about the topic at hand - questions that help focus the discussion).*

- i. What are your views on current educational programmes offered for teacher education in Tanzania?
- ii. Why is the knowledge about the field of curriculum important for teacher education?

III. TRANSITION QUESTIONS *(provide a link between the introductory questions and the key questions)*

- i. Think back to when you studied Curriculum Development/Curriculum and Instructions or any other curriculum related course. What would you like to tell us about these courses?
- ii. What is the difference when Curriculum Studies is being taught only as a course in an educational programme and Curriculum Studies being a programme of its own?

IV. KEY QUESTIONS *(focus on the major areas of concern; following 3 orders of curriculum questions by Dillon, 2009).*

a) Nature of a Curriculum Studies programme

How would you define a Curriculum Studies programme?

b) Elements of a Curriculum Studies programme

• *(Question on educational purposes)*

What could be the purpose of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?

• *(Questions on courses of study)*

- i. What are the possible issues to be taught in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?
- ii. Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

• *(Questions on activities)*

- i. Which are the possible methods/techniques that can be used to teach Curriculum Studies courses/modules?
- ii. Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

c) Practice of a Curriculum Studies programme

In what ways can the teaching of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education influence the field of curriculum and education?

V. ENDING QUESTION *(brings the session to closure). Is there anything we should have discussed, but did not?*

APPENDIX O

AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW SCHEDULE USED WITH CURRICULUM STUDIES STUDENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Open-ended questions for a focus group interviews with Curriculum Studies students

in a selected university in South Africa

To be conducted between January and June 2015

Interviewer: Rose Joseph Munisi

I. OPENING QUESTION *(for participants to talk and feel comfortable during the interview).*

Please may you tell us briefly about your interest in Curriculum Studies?

II. INTRODUCTORY QUESTION *(for the group to start thinking about the topic at hand- a question that helps focuses the discussion)*

What are the current issues that have emerged in the study of Curriculum Studies?

III. TRANSITION QUESTION *(provides a link between the introductory question and the key questions)*

How would you explain the concept of the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies?

IV. KEY QUESTIONS *(focus on the major areas of concern; following 3 orders of curriculum questions by Dillon, 2009)*

a) Nature of a Curriculum Studies programme

How would you define a Curriculum Studies programme?

b) Elements of a Curriculum Studies programme

• *(Question on educational purposes)*

What could be the purpose of a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?

• *(Questions on courses/modules)*

i. What are the possible issues to be taught in a Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education?

ii. Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

• *(Questions on activities)*

i. How will the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach influence the suggested taught issues?

ii. Which are the possible methods/techniques that can be used to teach Curriculum Studies courses/modules?

iii. Please may you give reasons for each of your responses?

c) Practice of a Curriculum Studies programme

In what ways can the teaching of a Curriculum Studies programme which is informed by the internationalisation of Curriculum Studies approach influence the field of curriculum for teacher education?

V. ENDING QUESTION *(brings the session to closure).*

Is there anything we should have discussed, but did not?

APPENDIX P

LANGUAGE EDITOR DECLARATION

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DECLARATION

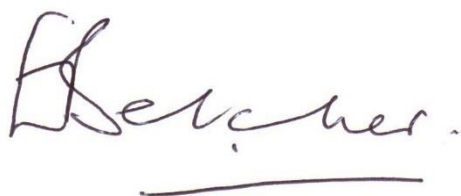
I hereby certify that the doctoral thesis mentioned below has been properly language edited.

Title of thesis

A Curriculum Studies programme for teacher education in Tanzania:
an internationalisation of Curriculum Studies
approach

Candidate

Rose Joseph Munisi

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Ella Belcher', with a horizontal line underneath.

ELLA BELCHER
Somerset West
21 November 2016