Teachers' Approaches to the Teaching of Geography in Eswatini School

by

DLAMINI BOY BONGANI

214583322

**A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
of Master of Education in Curriculum Studies**

School of Education, College of Humanities University of

KwaZulu-Natal (Edgewood Campus)

Durban South Africa

Supervisor*:* Professor. S.B. Khoza
Co-Supervisor: Dr M.E. Shoba

Date Submitted: June 2019

DECLARATION - PLAGIARISM

I, Dlamini Boy Bongani declare that;

1. The research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.

2. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

3. This thesis does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.

4. This thesis does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
a. Their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced
b. Where their exact words have been used, then their writing has been placed inside quotation marks, and referenced.

5. This thesis does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the thesis and in the References sections.

Signed

Student number: 214583322

As the candidates' supervisors we agree/ do not agree to the submission of this Dissertation.

Signature: ....……

 Prof. Simon B. Khoza

Signature: ....……

Dr Makhosi E. Shoba

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to God Almighty who has been with me ever since. To my parents who sacrificed their all and supported my education, Mntfwanenkhosi ngiyabonga mlangeni (May your soul rest in peace) and you Phephetse, Nkhosikati yemalangeni" thank you. Church Friends and colleagues, who prayed and wished me well through this lonely journey, thank you very much. My family, siblings and my critical friends thank you guys.

There is no end to education. It is not that you read a book, pass an examination
and finish with education. The whole of life, from the moment you are born
to the moment you die, is a process of learning. -Jiddu Krishnamurti

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

This thesis presented Eswatini geography teachers' approaches to teaching a section of research skills in Form 5 for the Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) syllabus. The study is qualitative, and utilised the interpretivist approach, and the case study design. Four geography teachers were purposively selected as participants. For generation of data, three data generation methods were used: a reflective activity, classroom observations and one-on-one semi-structured interviews. A conceptual framework was produced from literature on approaches to teaching, which was also utilised in analysing data. Literature on curriculum development approaches afforded three curriculum approaches which influence the teaching approach a teacher uses in enacting the curriculum: technical, communicative, and pragmatic approaches. The following concepts: teachers' rationale for teaching, teaching aims, roles when teaching , content used to teach, teaching methods, teaching resources, role of the community, and testing types used in class were concepts employed to determine the approach the teachers use in teaching the section of research skills. Findings for this study revealed that teachers' approaches revolved around these three components of curriculum development such that the teachers showed limits to understanding learner-centred and teacher-centred approaches. It is recommended that the curriculum be sufficiently elaborated in stating which approach it assumes, making it easier for teachers who enact the curriculum to be guided by the expectations of the approach. Furthermore, the study recommends that, in the event of a curriculum change, there should be adequate training to minimise misinterpretation of the syllabus by teachers.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

GCE'O Level – General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level

ECESWA – Examination Council of Eswatini

NCC – National Curriculum Centre

SGCSE – Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Table of Content

Contents

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND AND ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1   Introduction

This chapter's intention is to give an overview background and orientation of the study. The study was aimed at exploring teachers' approaches to teaching research skills in Form Five (Grade Twelve) of the Swaziland Geography Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) syllabus. The chapter is structured under the following sub-topics: title, focus and purpose of the study, location of the study, rationale, critical research questions, objectives of the study, review of literature, research paradigm, research design and methodology, sampling, data generation methods, data analysis, trustworthiness, ethical issues, limitations of the study, and finally ,the summary.

1.2   Title

Teachers' Approaches to the Teaching of Geography in Eswatini School.

1.3   Focus and purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to explore teachers' approaches to the teaching of research skills, a section of the Form Five (Grade Twelve) geography syllabus at Eswatini School.

1.4   Location of the study

The study was conducted in Eswatini school (formerly known as Swaziland), a small landlocked country found in the South-Eastern part of Africa. Eswatini covers a total surface area of 17 634 km^2 and is bordered by the Republic of South Africa to the North, West and South-East and by Mozambique to the North East side. Eswatini has four political regions: Hhohho, Manzini, Lubombo, and Shiselweni. This study was aimed at exploring geography teachers' approaches in teaching a section on research skills in one high school in the Manzini region. Geography is offered at this school, and there are eight geography teachers in all. Four teachers who were teaching Form Five (Grade Twelve) by the time of data generation were participants in the study. The school was selected because it is one of the largest schools in the

country, with a high pupil intake of more than one thousand learners. It is also situated in a peri-urban area, thus the learners come from both rural and urban areas.

1.5   Rationale of the study

1.5.1   Contextual motivation

In 2009 the high school curriculum in Eswatini (Swaziland) was changed from General Certificate of Education Ordinary level (GCE Level) to a newly introduced SGCSE curriculum in all subjects. Ever since its inception there has been a national outcry on the drastic decline in performance of learners in Form Five geography exams. Through anecdotal sources, and also through being a geography educator, I gather from geography teachers that they are still not aware of the exact approaches to use in the new curriculum, especially for the new section on research skills.Thus the study seeks to elicit the teaching approaches used by geography teachers to enact the curriculum in their classrooms.There has been no study conducted on geography teachers' approaches to teaching of the new curriculum. Grounded on the poor performance of learners alluded to, I therefore became interested in discovering how the geography teachers teach, and why they teach in the way they do, so as to make teachers aware that the way they conduct their lessons has an impact on learner performance. I therefore decided to explore the ways in which teachers approach their lessons. Since teachers are enactors of the curriculum in classrooms, their understanding of changes that come along with reforms brought by the introduction of the new curriculum becomes vital (Tezci, Erdener, & Atici, 2016).

1.5.2 Professional and personal motivation

Through this study I intend to contribute towards the development of an improved geography teachers' pedagogical practice. The study serves as a reflection of their practice, its findings may provide geography teachers with a platform to reflect on and interrogate their own practices in the teaching of the subject. Since poor performance is a subject of national concern, it is vital that one engages this study with the aim of investigating approaches to the teaching of geography so that the performance of learners may be improved. This study may further inform subject inspectors and other ministry of education officials about the concerns apropos of the teaching of geography under the new curriculum. The study may also be of benefit in

informing curriculum planners and policy-makers who are able to install positive changes in the teaching of geography. The participating teachers may also benefit through practical involvement in research. They may also gain some insights into the various perspectives of the teaching of geography through their engagement with data-generation processes. The findings of this research, lastly, may also add to academic research and literature in the field of education in Eswatini (Swaziland).

1.6   Objectives of the Study

The study intends to achieve the following objectives:

1. To explore the teaching approaches used by geography teachers to teach a section of research skills in the syllabus.
2. To explore how geography teachers' use their teaching approaches in their classrooms as they teach a section of research skills.
3. To understand the reasons for teachers' usage of particular approaches when teaching the section of research skills.

1.7   Critical Research Questions

From the objectives, the study was driven by the following research questions:

1. What teaching approaches are used by Form Five geography teachers to teach a section of research skills in the syllabus?

2. How do the Form Five geography teachers use teaching approaches in their classrooms when teaching a section of research skills?

3. Why do the Form Five geography teachers use teaching approaches in particular ways in teaching a section of research skills?

1.8   Literature Review

Tezci et al. (2016), posit that the literature has various classifications and meanings for teaching approaches. Briede (2016), defines the teaching approach as a correlation that would be said to be a dynamic interrelationship of a teacher's practice actions in class which are supported by the teacher's beliefs and intentions. This implies that the teacher's approach is seen when the teacher enacts the curriculum in the classroom. It is evident in the actions the teacher will be seen applying in class. For Uiboleht, Karm, and Postareff (2016),the teaching approach is the way in which teachers present their lessons during teaching. Essentially, Uiboleht et al. (2016)

point out that studies on teaching approaches have identified two main broad categories of approaches to teaching: teacher-centred, and learner-centred approaches. The literature has shown that teachers' teaching approaches are influenced by factors such as attitudes, knowledge, self-confidence, and teachers' self-confidence (Tezci et al., 2016). Scholars have noted that the choice of teaching approach a teacher uses is realised on how the following is handled during the learning process: intended learning aims, objectives and outcomes, the role of teachers and learners, teaching resources used, source of teaching content, teaching practices as well, as assessment practices used (Fisher & Binns, 2016; Gerber, Wilson, & Fien, 1984; Van Eeden, 2018). Furthermore, it has been proven that teachers' teaching approaches affect students' learning styles and their entire learning process (Tezci et al., 2016). Furthermore, Uslu (2018) also maintains that any teaching approach a teacher utilises in class has an effect on student learning. Briede (2016) supports this by pointing out that:

> "The teaching approach chosen by a teacher has a significant influence on the actual learning process, students' academic performance, knowledge and skills, their attitudes towards learning and the subject, the learners' beliefs about their skills as well as feelings and emotions in relation to the subject" (p.36).

This implies that the choice of approach chosen by a teacher to teach a particular topic or section like the research skills section in the geography curriculum in Eswatini (Swaziland) is of great importance. This study seeks to explore this significance. Briede (2016) observes that the putting into practice of new teaching approaches becomes quite unpredictable and complex to teachers, who mostly are comfortable with the old approaches which they have considered to be effective and right. Teachers' teaching approaches are therefore affected by curricular change in a country.

1.9 Research Paradigm

The research paradigm that was chosen for this study is the interpretivist paradigm. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011), posit that the interpretivist paradigm accepts that humanity is in quest of understanding the world in which they live and work by developing meaning that is personal to their experiences. Furthermore, the interpretivist paradigm is also suitable when a researcher seeks to obtain an in-depth understanding of what really takes place in the field (Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016). Maree (2017), asserts that interpretive studies strive to make sense of any phenomena under study through the interpretation of those people affected in the field.

This makes the choice of the interpretive paradigm a good one for this study, as it sought to understand teachers' approaches used in their classrooms. I therefore employed the interpretivist paradigm so as to gain a comprehensive understanding of the approaches used by geography teachers in teaching research skills.

1.10   Research Approach and Design

The study adopted a qualitative research approach. For Maree (2017) the distinguishing feature of the qualitative approach is that it relies more on words that are linguistic rather than numerical data. Furthermore, Maree (2017) clarifies that the qualitative approach engages meaning-based rather than statistical forms of data analysis. De Vaus and de Vaus (2001) grant that the qualitative approach is most suitable for the investigation of socio-cultural norms that have an effect on learning and teaching behaviour, as well as in educational practices. Furthermore, Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) hold that the main aim of the qualitative research is to encourage better self-understanding so as to increase insight into the human condition and actions. This suggests that the qualitative approach chosen for this study is fitting. It afforded me the opportunity to explore and understand the geography teachers' lived experiences as they teach research skills in their classrooms.

Moreover, this study adopted a case study design. Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) describe the case study as a hands-on exploration that involves investigation of a phenomenon within its real setting. Likewise, Njie and Asimiran (2014) posit that the case study is a practical enquiry about a phenomenon set in the place where it actually occurs. The case is generally a bounded entity (a person, organisation or other social phenomenon). Yin (2009) point out that case studies can be divided into three types: descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory case studies. This study is an exploratory case study as it seeks to explore the approaches used by geography teachers as they teach a section of research skills in their classrooms. From an interpretive viewpoint, case studies aim towards a deeper investigation into how participants relate to one another in a specific state that arises from the phenomenon under study (Njie & Asimiran, 2014). The case study is one suitable method of probing a phenomenon where it occurs, and is therefore applicable to this study. The phenomenon will be explored within its context. The case study is useful for generating an in-depth understanding of an issue in its authentic setting (Yin, 2009). Cohen et al. (2011) also insist that a case study is capable of studying a group of people in a specified setting. Njie and Asimiran (2014) state that a case study occurs when an

individual or event or programme is studied in depth by a researcher to promote understanding or to inform practice for similar situations.

1.11   Sampling

Sampling is defined as the procedure utilised in choosing a particular portion of the entire population so as to generate data from the selected portion (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014; De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delport, 2017). Maree (2017) identifies two sampling methods, random, and purposive sampling. This study utilised purposive sampling. Creswell (2014) holds that purposeful sampling applies when the researcher deliberately selects participants for a study based on the researcher's judgement. Babbie and Mouton (2012) state that sampling within the interpretive paradigm is usually purposeful, guided by a certain criterion set by the researcher rather than being random. In fact, purposeful sampling is associated with qualitative research studies (Cohen et al., 2011; De Vos et al., 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016). The selected participants usually have all the characteristics which make them appropriate for generating the data required by the researcher (Maree, 2017).

1.12 Data- generation Methods

This study used three data- generation methods: a reflective activity, observation, and one-on-one semi-structured interviews.

1.12.1   Reflective activity

Blaikie (2000), Cohen et al. (2011) describe reflective activity as a data-generation method comprising a set of questions that query participants who are expected to complete such on a topic being studied. The reflective activity questions asked by the study were created from the conceptual framework that guides this study. The reflective activity befits this study as it responds to the first research question and allows participants to reflect on their practice.

1.12.2   Classroom observation

After receiving the participants' responses to their reflective activity, I proceeded to teachers' classes to conduct classroom observation. Creswell (2014) describes classroom observation as a data-generation method that permits a researcher to witness and note what takes place in

practice at the research site. This happens through the procedure of generating open-ended data through careful observation of participants at the place where the research is undertaken, clarifies Creswell (2014). This observation responded to the second critical question which sought how teachers use approaches in the classrooms which would not have been obtainable from the other data-generation methods.

1.12.3   One-on-one semi-structured interviews

The final data-generation method that was utilised after observations was the one-on-one semi-structured interview. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) describe one-on-one semi-structured interviews as an open response set of questions that generate participants' meanings apropos of a phenomenon. For Maree (2017), semi-structured interviews have the benefit of being flexible, thus they allow the researcher to enquire and seek clarification on responses from participants. The one-on-one semi-structured interviews were suitable for this study as they permitted the participants to be free to supply more detailed responses to the questions that they answered. The questions were the same as those on the reflective activity, as they were also based on the conceptual framework that shaped this study. Since the interviews allowed the participants to be free, this allowed me to generate rich data pertaining to the approaches teachers use when teaching the research skills section.

1.14   Data Analysis

Cohen et al. (2011) describe qualitative data analysis as a way of making sense of data from participants views by taking note of patterns, categories, themes and regularities. In analysing data for this study, I used the guided analysis approach. Guided analysis occurs when analysis is guided and framed by pre-existing concepts (Glesne, 2014). The concepts for this study were taken from literature and formed the conceptual framework. The data from the interviews was transcribed, enabling me to generate themes that were then merged with data from reflective activity and observation, the complete data set was then analysed thematically.

1.15   Trustworthiness

Maree (2017) describes trustworthiness in qualitative research as the means adopted by a researcher to convince readers that findings of a particular study may be trusted and are of high quality. Cohen et al. (2011) state that trustworthiness in qualitative studies is guaranteed in a number of ways: intensive long-term involvement in the field, generation of rich data, and

triangulation. I guaranteed trustworthiness for this study through the use of three data-generation methods: reflective activity, observation, and one-on-one semi-structured interviews.

1.16   Transferability

Maree (2017) describes transferability as the generalizability of a study. Transferability seeks to correlate the degree at which findings of a study may be applicable even to other studies or other individuals, groups, contexts, as well as settings. I ensured this study's transferability by eliciting correct findings of the study of geography teachers' approaches to the teaching of a section of research skills. These were to be applicable and of benefit to teachers who will not be involved in this study but in other, similar contexts to this.

1.17   Dependability

Dependability is described by Cohen et al. (2011) as the consistency of findings of a research study. Essentially dependability is about ensuring that correct information about the findings of the study is given by the researcher. I ensured dependability in this study by including direct quotations from participants to enable readers to check out the findings. I also used a tape recorder during interviews to enhance dependability for this study.

1.18   Confirmability

Creswell (2014) describes confirmability as the steps taken by a researcher to ensure that data presented represents the correct information generated from the participants. Confirmability ensures that interpretations of data are not in any way an invention of the researcher. To ensure confirmability for this study, I did not allow my personal interests to interfere with the study. I also made certain that no participants' responses were tempered with, by recording such responses verbatim (Maree.2017). The questions for semi-structured interviews and reflective activity, together with the observation guide were identical for all four participating teachers. This is one way used by qualitative researchers to ensure confirmability (Creswell, 2014).

1.19   Credibility

Cohen et al. (2011) maintain that credibility in qualitative research is about the truthfulness of findings of a study. Credibility describes confirmation of what participants have said during data generation. To ensure credibility, I gave the four participating teachers their interview

transcripts for them to read. Participants could therefore whether what I had transcribed was what they really had said. Furthermore, Maree (2017) notes that, to ensure credibility in a study, the researcher needs to spend enough time with the participants at the research site which I did.

1.20   Ethical Issues

Ethics are described as a matter of principled sensitivity to people's rights when conducting a study (Cohen et al., 2011). Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) concede that, in any research work that involves humans, as this study, it is essential that the rights of individuals involved are protected from any form of damage originating from the study. It is vital that participants gain full clarification of what the research expects of them, which allows them to make informed decisions about their voluntary participation (Maree, 2017). Therefore, consent to carry out this study was requested first from the University of Kwa Zulu-Natal, then from the Ministry of Education in Eswatini, and thereafter from the school principal at which the study was conducted. Consent from participants was obtained by having them acknowledge the letter of consent by signing it after receiving it. The researcher assured the research participants that anonymity and confidentiality would be maintained throughout the process of the project (Theron & Malindi, 2012). The participating teachers were also told that they were free to withdraw from participating in this study at any stage of the study, should they wish to do so.

1.21   Limitations of the study

Maree (2017) describes limitations as potential weaknesses in a study that may be impossible to avoid which in turn may affect its internal validity. Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) note that limitations are the issues and matters that arise during a study that are out of the control of the researcher. The main limitation of this study was that I am a geography educator and a member of the geography panel within the country. Such positions held would have resulted into the participating teachers providing me with information that was biased, or what they thought I wished to hear.

1.22   Organisation of dissertation

1.22.1 Chapter One

Chapter One presented the background of the study, and had the following sub-topics; purpose of the study, location of the study, rationale of study, literature review, objectives and critical research questions for the study, research design, research approach, research paradigm,

sampling, data-generation methods, data analysis, trustworthiness, ethical issues and limitations of the study.

1.22.2 Chapter Two

In chapter Two I engaged literature focused on the phenomenon of the study: teaching approaches, in which the two types of approach, teacher-centred, and learner-centred approaches were discussed. The next discussion was on the curriculum development approaches which influence the teaching approaches: technical, communicative, and pragmatic curriculum development approaches. The last part of Chapter Two presented the conceptual framework for this study.

1.22.3 Chapter Three

Chapter Three engages an explanation of the research strategy, and how the strategies are suitable for this study. The chapter discusses the research paradigm used, which is the interpretivist paradigm. The qualitative approach, as well as the case study design, is also discussed. The purposive sampling which was the sampling method used, is also described, together with the data-generation methods, which include reflective activity, observation, and

one-on-one semi-structured interviews. The final discussions are centred on issues of trustworthiness and limitations of the study.

1.22.4 Chapter Four

This chapter provides findings of the study. The findings were discussed using themes that emerged as guided by the conceptual framework. Direct quotations from participants are used to ensure that the voices of the participants are heard in the discussions of the findings.

1.22.5 Chapter Five

Chapter five discusses the summary of the study. The research findings are summarised by each theme, checking whether the findings applied to the approaches geography teachers use in their classrooms. The chapter concludes with recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the introduction to the study by clarifying the rationale, objectives, and critical questions for the study. This chapter attempts to discuss literature on teaching approaches as well as approaches to curriculum development. The chapter follows constructs or themes that emerge from the interrogation of the phenomenon.

Literature review is described by Okeke and Van Wyk (2016, p. 47) as an "analytic evaluation of existing studies of a particular subject a researcher undertakes to study". It covers and presents what has already been written by other researchers in the context of a specific area of study. Cohen et al. (2011) grant that the literature review in a study clarifies key concepts, terms and meanings of concepts. According to Silverman (2013) the review of literature portrays agreements and disagreements between a present study and previous studies. In other words, Creswell (2014) asserts that the review of literature provides a framework which establishes how the study is important.

2.2   Teaching Approaches (phenomenon)

Lam and Kember (2006) note that defining teaching approaches has been a difficult task for scholars. There has been much reference to teaching approaches; however, the term "approaches" has not been always carefully operationalised by those scholars. Instead, Lam and Kember (2006) note that the term has always been used in a general way, only referring to the whole philosophy of teaching in general.

 Nevertheless, Lam and Kember (2006, p. 46) define teaching approaches as "the way beliefs are put into practice" and guides teachers in their lesson planning and actions they take in class. Whereas, Al-Zu'be (2013) define teaching approaches as ways that teachers present their

lessons, in other words, the strategies a teacher will adopt for teaching in class . A case study conducted by Lam and Kember (2006) on teaching approaches identified 'beliefs' as the main driver of how and why teachers teach in particular ways. The findings of this study were supported by other studies, such as that of Kaymakamoglu (2018), who also observed that teacher's beliefs possess very powerful pressures which have a huge bearing on the decisions and actions of a teacher: this in turn influences learner performance. Therefore, teacher's beliefs which are encapsulated in their approaches have an effect to learners' performance.

Furthermore, Briede (2016) defines a teaching approach as an active connection between a teacher's intents and principles which influences the teacher's action during teaching and learning. Briede (2016) conducted a study on the relationship between the teaching approach adopted by mathematics teachers and their 9th grade learners. The participants in the study were 34 mathematics teachers. Findings of this study indicate that the aspect of dynamism emphasises that the connection between teachers' beliefs and the teaching approach is vital to the teaching process. Beliefs are central to teaching and learning because they connect activities, with learners' and teachers' behaviour in ways that guide decision making in class (Kaymakamoglu, 2018). However, noteworthy is that there are numerous variables that affect the choice of teaching approaches a teacher uses in the classroom. These include among others, teacher's personal attitudes and beliefs, the subject knowledge the teacher possess as well as teacher's self-confidence (Tezci et al., 2016).

Uiboleht et al. (2016) argue that the choice of approach a teacher chooses shows itself when the teacher handles a class in terms of the role of learners in class, how the learners are involved, how the learners are assessed, as well as in planning for teaching, and the process of teaching as a whole. Everything that happens in class unveils the approach a teacher has chosen to use in that class. It has been observed that the teaching approach a teacher chooses to use in a class affects the way in which learners learn in class and affects the entire process of learning (Tezci et al., 2016). Furthermore, Uslu (2018) also insists that any teaching approach a teacher utilises in class has an effect on student learning. Briede (2016) concurs with Uslu (2018), and points out that the choice of teaching approach has a significant influence on learners' academic performance as well as on the skills and knowledge the learners obtain in class. The importance of the choice of approach to teaching a particular topic therefore has implications for enactment, not only for lessons, but also for the curriculum. In addition, teaching approaches are important because they can either stimulate learners' understanding or de-motivate learners in class.

Uiboleht et al. (2016), Çöğmen and Saracaloğlu (2016) and Cakir (2008) point out that, in most educational literature on teaching approaches, two main types of teaching approach are identified: the teacher-centred approach, and the learner-centred approach. Likewise, Lam and Kember (2006) concur that teaching approaches may either be learner-centred or teacher-centred: these two teaching approaches that have been identified by scholars are discussed next.

2.2.1 Learner-centred approach

A qualitative study by Le Ha (2014) illustrates that there are various understandings of the notion of the learner-centred approach advocated by many academics. Before the understandings of learner-centred approaches are uncovered, Le Ha (2014) gives a philosophical background underlying the learner-centred approach. The approach is informed by the perspective that pedagogy should permit and promote democracy, creativity, social justice, building of critical thinking capabilities, as well as providing for challenging authority for societal transformation (Le Ha, 2014). Furthermore, Arman (2018) grants that the learner-centred approach to teaching assumes the theory of constructivism as its main pillar, that is the constructivist learning theory is a foundation of the emergence of a learner-centred approach.

Generally, in the educational landscape, constructivism is a theory that holds that learners are capable of learning new knowledge if the teacher adds on to what the learner already knows. Learners do not come to class with empty minds, they bring with them prior knowledge. The teacher has to take advantage of such prior knowledge activating that knowledge for learners to create their own, based on their prior experiences. During this process, learners construct new knowledge through simulation and accommodation (Brooks & Brooks, 1999). Simulation occurs when learners connect new knowledge learnt in class with their prior knowledge. Accommodation then occurs when learners accommodate the new knowledge that has been presented in class. Each individual learner constructs his or her own meaning out of the new knowledge gained, thus the approach is referred to as learner-centred.

A case study by Mtika and Gates (2010) on implementing the learner-centred approach illustrated that the great scholar Plato over 2000 years ago revealed ideas of learner-centred approaches through tactical enquiring. Mtika and Gates (2010) also point out that in the United Kingdom as well as the United States of America, learner-centred approaches became robust during the 1940's as many teachers developed and applied learner-centred pedagogy in their classrooms. Likewise, O'Sullivan (2004)O's case study on reconceptualisation of learner-

centred approaches, observed that learner-centred approaches came in full force in the educational spaces in the 1940's after the Second World War. The learner-centred approach was then promoted to developing countries, as it was said to encourage learners to apply critical thinking as well as thinking creatively (O'Sullivan, 2004). Mungoo and Moorad (2015) comment that the learner-centred approach is currently encouraged in many countries; international educational reforms are calling for enactment of lessons through learner-centred approaches.

A qualitative study by Brown (2003) on moving from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred curriculum, describes the learner-centred approach to teaching as a basis for illuminating positive learning environments that increase the likelihood that more learners in a class are likely to experience achievement. The learner-centred approach generally posits that pupils learn better by actively constructing and assimilating knowledge. In a case study on learner-centred approaches, Neilson (2013) notes that the fundamental assumption of the learner-centred approach is that learners will better understand new knowledge if it is constructed on what the learner previously knew. Learners will therefore assimilate new knowledge better when it is connected to their personal experiences and reality. The point of view of Neilson (2013) on the learner-centred approach suggests that the learner, under this approach, should play a central role in his or her learning. The knowledge the learner has to gain is built from what is already in existence in the learner's mind. In such a way, the learner will grasp and further understand the new knowledge gained as it relates to what already resides in the mind.

In a case study that set out to explore reconceptualization of learner-centred approaches, O'Sullivan (2004) contends that the learner-centred approach promotes better understanding for learners, in the sense that it stimulates lively learning, requiring pupils to be more active as they learn. The learners in the learner-centred teaching approach have a greater opportunity of learning and understanding during the course of their lessons as they are actively involved in class. The learners in this approach are also given the opportunity of reaching a level at which they would think critically. The learner's active involvement is a key principle to the learner-centred approach. This view is supported by Le Ha (2014) in a qualitative study in which it is stated that the learner is at the centre of the learning process. The learner has thus the sole responsibility of being active and fully in control of his or her learning. Likewise, findings of a case study by Treesuwan and Tanitteerapan (2016) on students' perceptions on learner-centred teaching approaches support the idea that the learner-centred approach allows learners to have control over the classroom learning process. Such control allows learners to

have more and better opportunities of doing more discovering. Acknowledging that learners' prior knowledge is useful, therefore, and that the learner should be active in class, does promote better understanding in the use of the learner-centred approach to teaching.

In a qualitative multi-case study that set out to explore various approaches to teaching, Uiboleht et al. (2016) discovered that the teacher's role in the learner-centred approach is to facilitate. The teacher facilitates in the learning process as well as in the activities learners are engaged in during class. Teaching and learning under the learner-centred approach thus becomes a collaborative effort by the learners and teachers. The findings of this study were supported by Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2008) in a case study in which it was noted that the facilitation role played by the teacher encourages interaction between the teacher and learners as well as interaction amongst the learners.

Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2008) noted that, through the interactions, knowledge is constructed, the classroom atmosphere encouraging learners to express personal views freely in class; furthermore, the learners are motivated to ask questions for clarity. In addition, the teacher, under the learner-centred approach, is able to employ diverse teaching methods; he or she is cognisant of the learners having dissimilar ways of learning, thus requiring various ways of acquiring knowledge. These teaching methods include classroom discussion, pair work and group work to name but a few.The facilitative role assumed by the teacher in the learner-centred approach inspires learners to interact freely, which helps them in proper gaining new knowledge.

Furthermore, O'Sullivan (2004)'s case study observed that the learner-centred teaching approach allows learners to be actively involved in class, with high levels of participation as they learn. This challenges teachers to plan their lessons in such a way that the learners assume the active role during teaching and learning. The teachers also are expected to embrace teaching practices that will involve problem solving which will stimulate learners to actively participate in class. In the learner-centred approach to teaching, learners are also exposed to levels of analysis and synthesis as they create new knowledge and new understandings (Polly & Hannafin, 2011). This is made possible by the teacher also playing other roles other than facilitation. Arman (2018) notes that the teacher, under the learner-centred approach, also plays the role of being an explainer, a monitor as well as being an enabler.

According to the findings of a case study by Treesuwan and Tanitteerapan (2016) on student's perceptions of learner-centred approaches, the introduction of the learner-centred approach improved learners' learning process and further widened the learners' scope for grasping knowledge in selected Thailand secondary schools. Similarly to this study, findings of a quantitative study by Kwun-hung and Sinn (2010) in Hong Kong showed that learners improved significantly in their learning and performance after being exposed to the learner-centred teaching approaches by their teachers. In Kwun-hung and Sinn (2010)'s study it was even suggested that the learner-centred approach should extend to other subjects as its positive impact was realised in the learners who participated therein. A case study by Shange (2015) on teachers' experiences in teaching geometry in selected schools in South Africa, supports the studies by Treesuwan and Tanitterapan (2016) and Kwung-hung and Sinn (2010), in that the usage of the learner-centred approach greatly aided learners to develop and understand geometry much more readily. Learners do benefit from lessons in any subject which is taught by the learner-centred approach.

However, findings from a case study by Mfeka (2005) revealed that learner-centred approaches are not enacted well by teachers in classrooms. The reasons put forward are: lack of guidance for the teachers and lack of clarity on the curriculum. Teachers involved in this case study, however, agreed that the learner-centred approach was a good principle which would benefit learners, and also positively influence their practice. Mfeka (2005) observed that the failure of the learner-centred approach may well be linked to large numbers of learners in classes combined with pressure of completing the syllabus for teachers so that learners do not fail examinations. Teachers may have certain challenges in enacting lessons in learner-centred approaches in their classrooms which may be far beyond their control. In Lesotho, Khoboli and Malcolm (2004), in a quantitative study, also found out that the teachers had very narrow conceptions in their understanding of learner-centred approaches, thus they failed to enact the approach.

Furthermore, implementing learner-centred approaches has failed in some countries' secondary schools because of the learners themselves, who were against the use of this approach by their teachers. Makunja (2016), in a case study conducted on challenges to implementing a competency curriculum, discovered that the learners were not prepared to embrace the learner-centred approaches which their teachers were using. Findings showed that the learners thought teachers were not fair to them when they gave them an opportunity of constructing their own knowledge. The action of the learners as shown in Makunja (2016)'s findings suggest that the

learners may sometimes be responsible for drawing teachers away from using learner-centred approaches. The learners' attitude suggests that the use of learner-centred approaches is influenced by previous approaches which the learners have been exposed to, and approaches used by other teachers in other subjects.

Weimer (2002) asserts that the principles of the learner-centred approach are grounded in the teacher's role (mainly facilitative), the change in balance of power, and the way the content is self-discovered by learners. According to Arman (2018), the learner-centred approach presumes that learners in a class should be entirely responsible for their learning. Teachers should guarantee that learners are at the heart of the learning progression by allowing learners to interact amongst one another and with the teacher. Learners should further be allowed to form groups and pairs for achieving quality learning. Blumberg (2015)'s study on implementing learner-centred approaches posits that in the 21st century, the majority of research undertaken on theories of teaching supports the utilization of the learner-centred approach to teaching as the best approach to equip learners to be relevant in the global society. This is because the learner-centred approach increases the ability of learners to apply what they have learnt: and further allows long-term retention of knowledge learnt in class.

The learner-centred approach places more emphasis on teachers to know the various learner abilities in their classes. In this way, teachers create classroom environments that are conducive to active learner participation. The teachers can achieve such if they utilise a range of teaching methods aimed at assisting learners to construct new knowledge. Learners must further more apply their knowledge. Learners will thus become fully equipped with leadership skills, skills of critical thinking, leading to a type of education that benefits the society (Blumberg, 2015).

2.2.2 Teacher-centred approach

Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2008) describe the teacher-centred approach as a method of teaching which considers learners as compliant and docile recipients of knowledge transferred from teachers to learners. According to Gregory (2009), the teacher-centred approach to teaching has its starting point in the teacher's self-interest. This is evident in the sense that the teacher adopts a dominant role in the learning practise: he or she will choose the topic and method of delivering the content. Such a teaching process is in fact, a one-way transmission, from teachers to learners: the teacher's main aim in this approach is that learners must acquire knowledge. A study conducted by Al-Zu'be (2013) examining differences between the two

approaches (learner-centred approach and the teacher-centred approach) in teaching English as a foreign language, concluded that teaching via the teacher-centred approach relies on teachers who utilise their know-how in assisting learners in their classrooms to understand: learners play only a receptive role in the classrooms. The teacher-centred approach positions the teacher as a transmitter of knowledge with the learners at the acceptance end.

In addition to the illustration made by Al-Zu'be (2013), a study conducted by McLEAN (2012) argues that learners are portrayed as ultimately inert, while their teachers become active in the teacher-centred approach. The teachers are said to be familiar with the content or the subject matter, whereas the learners are not. Since the purpose of teaching is to make learners acquire knowledge, it then becomes the task of the teacher to spoon-feed the learners the desired correct knowledge. According to Al-Zu'be (2013), the task of transmitting knowledge to learners should not be taken lightly. The knowledge which the teacher imparts to learners in class does not only involve what teachers know, but the teachers in this approach are expected to collect more information from plethora of sources. The information the teacher transmits in class is exactly directed to the needs of the curriculum the teacher follows, such that the learners gain only the correct facts and details of the subject matter. A study by Yuen and Hau (2006), titled "a comparison of constructivist teaching and teacher-centred teaching" shows that teacher's activeness within the teacher-centred approach will undoubtedly enable the teacher to cover more material in a short time as the teacher controls the pacing of the lessons.

According to Makunja (2016)'s case study on challenges facing teachers when implementing the competence-based curriculum, the fact that a teacher-centred approach allows teachers to cover so much of their curriculum in a short time encourages teachers to prefer this approach. It allows them to finish their curriculum in time; and learners are not disadvantaged when external examinations time comes. This is because most of developing countries curricula are examination-driven. The findings of this study are supported by other studies such as that by Mungoo and Moorad (2015), that teachers using the teacher-centred approach are able to pace their lessons in such a way that they finish syllabi on time, to allow learners to write their examinations successfully. Furthermore, Brown (2003) highlights that the teacher is able to cover more content more quickly because he or she selects the important content knowledge for the learners. As an expert, the teacher is able to arrange content for teaching without being flexible to the learners; thus the time for covering the curriculum becomes shortened. This is also made possible by the fact that teacher-centred approaches view learning as being more

about memorising facts and remembering the right answers or solutions in any content delivered in class (Weimer, 2002). The rote learning and facts memorisation save teacher's time. Teachers, as pace setters in the teaching practice, must have the ability to plan their lessons in such a way that they are delivered in good time.

A case study conducted by Khalid and Azeem (2012) on constructive versus traditional approaches reflected that, within the teacher-centred approach, room for classroom interaction or discussion is rarely availed to learners. Teachers assume full control of their classes becoming the only ones to transmit content knowledge to learners. Al-Zu'be (2013) also notes that, in such classrooms, there is little or no noise, as the learners are supposed to be seated quietly so that there are able to absorb all the necessary knowledge delivered by the teacher. In fact, in this approach interaction is not encouraged: as it is believed that it does not enhance the learners' learning per the teaching process (Kaymakamoglu, 2018). The classroom sessions portray dominant atmospheres which could be the contributory factor in covering more content in a short space of time as, in this approach no time is wasted on discussions.

Even though the teacher-centred approach allows teachers to cover more content material in a short space of time, Yuen and Hau (2006) argue that most learners may not remember what they were taught. This is partly because the learners are passive during teaching. Mungoo and Moorad (2015)'s study supports this view. The study uncovered that learners in teacher-centred approaches only memorised what they were taught; such is easily forgotten, as learners often fail to store the knowledge in their long-term memory. Furthermore, McLEAN (2012) illustrates that, in most countries, the typical teacher-centred approach places the teacher as a custodian of the 'secret and always correct one and source of all classroom information'. Such an idea affects learner retention of knowledge. There has recently been a decline in the learners' performance in classes in which teachers use the teacher-centred approach.

An action research conducted by Kaymakamoglu (2018) on teacher-centred approaches identified that some of the challenges contributing to low performance levels of learners in chemistry classrooms in Switzerland, are attributed to the widespread usage of the teacher-centred approach. The findings in the study unearthed that the use of teacher-centred approaches reduces motivation of learners to learn any subject which is considered a difficult one. This is because teacher-centred approaches believe in transmitting knowledge to learners where the emphasis is on the teacher's authority. Such an emphasis limits learners' freedom to

be open to discussions and questioning in class. The design of teacher-centred approaches of transmission of knowledge encourages learners to be passive recipients of knowledge in classrooms; learners' interests and needs are neglected as learners' communication is undermined (Grami, 2012). Brown (2003) concludes that the 21st century classrooms challenge the teacher-centred approach to respond to the ever-increasing varied needs of learners so that all learners are assisted towards better achievement in their studies.

2.2.3   Definitions of the Term Curriculum

One major theoretical issue that has dominated the field of education for many years is the difficulty of finding one meaning for the term curriculum. Pinar (2012) observes that defining curriculum seems to be an enthusiastic discussion on a subject that will certainly not be fully defined. Thijs and van den Akker (2009), Marsh (2009), and Celia and Elize (2018) note that a considerable amount of educational literature has concluded that there is indeed a struggle in defining the word curriculum. This difficulty in defining curriculum has led scholars to present various definitions of the term. In this study a few definitions are discussed. Thijs and van den Akker (2009) define curriculum as a strategy for learning. This means that curriculum acts as an outline of what a teacher does in class for learning to take place. The curriculum proposes certain teaching approaches which will enable the teacher in the classroom to be able efficiently to do his or her work. A curriculum also is defined as a plan of and for learning Pinar (2012), which implies that the curriculum will stipulate the content teachers are expected to teach in class. Like wise Khoza (2018, p.2) concurs with the definition of curriculum "as either a plan for teaching and learning (defined from the intended position – designers' level) or a plan of teaching and learning (defined from the implemented or attained position – teachers' or learners' experiences)". This definition positions the curriculum as an important framework that stipulates the teacher's action in promoting proper teaching and learning. Khoza (2018)'s definition suggests that a curriculum stipulates some teaching approaches that will allow a teacher to enact it well in the classroom, as asserting as it does that a curriculum is a plan for and of teaching.

In addition, Hoadley (2017) asserts that a curriculum is also defined to three extents: "curriculum as intended, curriculum as implemented, and curriculum as achieved" (p. 24). The intended curriculum, Hoadley (2017) asserts, is one that stipulates what should be taught, thus it will include formal written intentions and content of what should be taught in class. In other words, the intended curriculum is policy document and official statement of aims and priorities

of a curriculum. Khoza (2015) describes the intended curriculum as a formal document with written policy and intentions of teaching and learning as framed by theories in education. The implemented curriculum refers to the enacted curriculum which is the way the curriculum is interpreted for delivery by teachers in classrooms. According to Khoza (2015), the implemented curriculum is an interpretation by teachers in classrooms of the intended curriculum.

The implemented curriculum refers to the content of textbooks and testing which occurs in the classroom. In short, it is the taught curriculum, or what teachers really do in their classrooms. Whilst the intended curriculum talks about the process of learning and teaching in classrooms, the implemented curriculum, on one hand places emphasis on the role of the teacher as the one who interprets the intended curriculum. It reveals the teacher's approaches used and chosen for teaching and learning (Henchey, 2007). Lastly, the attained curriculum is about experiential learning, which refers to the knowledge learners obtain in class resulting in their outcomes. Thus learned experience involve the skills, knowledge, and values that learners actually acquire in classrooms as they are exposed to an education system which builds up their sense of identity and general understanding of the entire world (Henchey, 2007).

Furthermore, Thijs and van den Akker (2009) grant that the curriculum may be separated into five ranks. These are the international (SUPRA) curriculum, which refers to global frameworks that guide the curriculum. There is also the national curriculum (MACRO) which is the curriculum in operation at a national or country level. The institutional or school curriculum (MESO) refers to a curriculum that is adopted to be in operation in a school or institution. Then there is the teacher curriculum (MICRO) which refers to the teaching plan or instructional materials a teacher uses in class. The teaching approaches operate at this level of curriculum. Lastly, there is the learner curriculum (NANO) which refers to an individual learner's plan or course for learning.

2.3 Curriculum development approaches

Du Preez and Simmonds (2014) describe curriculum development approaches as a collection of plans about teaching which will help a teacher when enacting a curriculum in class. The curriculum approach, as a plan for teaching, comes with the idea that it will stipulate the teaching approach suitable for a particular subject. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) likewise state

that any curriculum development approach demonstrates perspectives about the goals as well as the objectives of a curriculum, the role of learners' and teachers' as well as assessment objectives of that particular curriculum. This shows that the curriculum approach becomes a map to guide its users who are mainly the teachers. Shoba (2018) reflects that it is important that users of a curriculum understand the development approach that underpins each curriculum they enact in class as that understanding assists them in deciding how they are expected to approach the curriculum as they enact it in class. Similarly, Marsh (2009) asserts that the choice of approach a teacher decides to use when enacting a curriculum in class is indirectly steered by the teacher's conceptualization of the curriculum development approach that underpins the subject taught.

According to Du Preez and Simmonds (2014), there are three different common and popular curriculum development approaches. There is the view of Tyler (technical approach), which is said to be concerned with technical order and which approaches curriculum development as objectives driven by rational decision making (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2014). There is also the communicative approach associated with Stenhouse (2005), which sees the process of the development of a curriculum development as socially constructed. Lastly, there is the pragmatic approach by Freire (1994) which calls attention to curriculum development involving serious reflections that should include dialogue as well as problem posing. These various approaches in the development of a curriculum are based on the understanding that every curriculum specifies firstly, the reason for its development, secondly, the type of knowledge, including skills, that it seeks to offer its consumers for their benefit, and lastly, it states the teaching approach it recommends for the subject for which it is designed.

Celia and Elize (2018, p. 1) maintain that "to optimise the quality of teaching in classrooms, teachers need to comprehend the effect of different approaches to curriculum development, to be able to understand curricula and choose appropriate teaching approaches associated with it". This submits that there is a connection between the approaches to the development of a curriculum and the approaches the teacher will use in enacting the curriculum in class. The three approaches to curriculum development are discussed differently in the next section.

2.3.1 Communicative approach

Thijis and van den Akker (2009) describe the communicative approach to curriculum development as a process that is socially initiated from interactions with various stakeholders. The different stakeholders discuss issues that require to be included in the curriculum; and the final, or best decision, is reached through consensus. Makumane (2018), in her critical action research that dwelt on teachers' strategies for enacting the integrated French curriculum in Lesotho, concedes that in this approach, the parties that are involved deliberate and negotiate for a solution to the suitable curriculum for a country. In a case study conducted by Shoba (2018), which explored teaching experiences of teachers teaching English-speaking, it was posited that the cornerstone to the communicative approach of curriculum development is its relational strategy. Similarly, Makumane (2018), as well Celie and Elize (2018), infer that the communicative approach to curriculum development is a socially constructed process with high consideration of subjective views of stakeholders. Khoza (2016) maintains that the communicative approach places society at the heart of its enactment.

Stenhouse (2005), who is believed to have pioneered ideologies of the communicative curriculum approach, Celia and Elize (2018) set out principles that guide this approach. The communicative approach holds that curriculum designers, as well as enactors', first need to provide resources to conduct activities in class, for the content to be produced, which will then be evaluated. According to Khoza (2015, p.180) 's case study on student teachers' reflections on their practices apropos of the curriculum and assessment policy, "a resource is defined as any person or anything that communicates learning". A resource could therefore be anything that assists the teacher in teaching and learning. Furthermore, Khoza (2015) classifies resources according to three types; hardware, software, and ideological- ware. Hard-ware resources denote any tool or machine or object that may be utilised by a teacher in class for teaching. This could be books, or even for instance weather recording instruments as used by a geography teacher. The software resources include any tool that is used to display information in class. This may include the use of overhead projectors. The ideological-ware is the theory part, which is always held by the teacher and cannot be seen or touched, nevertheless having a great impact in class.

Ideological-ware, in fact is what drives the curriculum/lessons in classrooms, learning falling under such (Khoza, 2015). Resources suggested by the communicative curriculum approach should first be provided, for the curriculum to be enacted successfully. These three types of

resource should always connect well to produce a fruitful teaching and learning experience (Khoza, 2015). Resources also underpin any curriculum enactment in classrooms; it is therefore important for teachers to understand them (Khoza, 2018). Thus, when a geography teacher goes to teach, he or she is expected always to come prepared with the three resources to allow quality enactment of the subject. The teacher should come with theory or knowledge which will be used together with software programmes, and books as hard- ware resources. Ideological ware as a vital resource has to be engaged to ponder activities to be conducted by learners in class for a specific content.

According to Khoza (2016), activities in which learners become involved in during learning in the classroom act as a principle of the communicative approach of curriculum development; they enhance built-in skills which the learners are exposed to as they become engaged in the activities. A critical action research by Mpungose (2018) exploring lecturers' reflections on the use of Moodle to teach a physical science module at a South African university, asserts that, as learners become actively involved in their activities using their everyday experiences, they gain the ability or skill to better comprehend the content of their lesson. Furthermore, Mpungose (2018) stipulates that the activities in the communicative approach assume a major role in the learning that takes place in the classroom. Essentially, activities give learners the opportunity of thinking and reaching informed decisions on how to conclude a task at hand in class. As they perform the activity/activities learners become actively involved. In this way they are assisted in gaining knowledge and also sharing such with their peers increasing learner's ability to grasp content for their class.

Furthermore, Thijs and van den Akker (2009) describe activities as the way in which teachers are teaching. In other words, activities are the approaches the teacher chooses to use in class. The approaches or activities suggested by the communicative approach include group-work and pair work, for example, which have been commended for being helpful in increasing learners' understanding in class (Mpungose, 2018). The activities therefore help the learners to understand the content of the lesson well, as per the principles of the communicative approach, which suggest that activities give birth to the content. In a geography lesson, for example, the geography teacher may prepare activities on how learners can measure the speed of a flowing stream.

As the learners are engaged in activities with the teacher assisting them, they will be creating content on how to measure the speed from the activities in which they were engaged. After the content has been covered, the teacher can assess the learners, which concludes the last of the four principles of this approach. Khoza (2015)'s case study on student teachers' reflections on their practices of the curriculum and assessment policy statement found that an alignment between the resources, activities, content and assessment is vital for successful teaching. Principles of the communicative curriculum development approach are important to the enactors of the curriculum during teaching and learning.

The communicative curriculum development approach advocates that the teacher in a classroom should act as a facilitator who focuses on each individual learner during teaching and learning (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). Mabuza (2018)'s critical action research on Swaziland Junior Secondary educator's reflections on the consumer science curriculum that has been integrated, asserts that the communicative approach perceives the classroom as a seminar in which the teacher's authority should not feature; instead, the teacher should act as a facilitator. As the teacher facilitates in a geography class, his or her role is to create opportunities for learners in the class to easily access content knowledge and skills. Such facilitation that takes place in a communicative class setting sees the teacher and learner employing appropriate teaching approaches that enable both teachers and learners to learn and experiment with new aspects about which even the teacher might not have been aware (Mabuza, 2018). This suggests the societal nature of this approach.

When facilitating, the teacher is expected to make use of the learner's prior knowledge; the lesson is enacted in class, and the teacher will be facilitating. Thus, Hoadley and Jansen (2013) declare that the approach of a teacher suggested by the communicative approach is learner-centred. This is because each learner to consideration during teaching. Thijis and van den Akker (2009) also state that, under the communicative approach, teachers create a favourable atmosphere in the classroom that allows learners freely to discuss the activities conducted in class. Likewise, Celia and Elize (2018) maintain that the approach to teaching in the process curriculum should be learner-centred. This learner-centred approach is based on progressive educational ideas. Such progressive educational ideas seek that learners be involved in class. Learner involvement in a geography classroom may be through questioning the learners, as well as helping them to find information on their own. Furthermore, learners must have the ability to apply what they have discovered to new circumstances.

Shoba (2018)'s study further reiterates that the communicative approach promotes learner-centred teaching, which affords learners with opportunities of gaining social skills. Such skills gained encourage the learners to be socially relevant. Mpungose (2018) also agrees with Shoba (2018), that once learners gain socially related skills, they become confident which helps them to solve social problems they may face. Furthermore, the communicative approach also holds that assessment should be grounded on present learners' knowledge. The approach recommends that assessment should comprise checking how much they have learnt (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). Learners are assessed on what is there rather than what is not there. Mpungose (2018) asserts that assessment in the communicative approach is based on current learners' knowledge instead of absent knowledge.

On another note, the communicative curriculum approach maintains that teachers are professionals who should be allowed to change their teaching plan in a classroom scenario in respect of the needs of the learners and environmental factors at that time. Thus the approach suggests that the curriculum should be approached per a descriptive manner rather than one prescriptive (Celia & Elize, 2018). Furthermore, Hoadley and Jansen (2017), affirm that the communicative approach to the curriculum advocates that teaching must occur everywhere, whether at school or at learners' homes; and that the learners' and the teachers should have a say over what they learn and teach respectively.

Nonetheless, Thijis and van den Akker (2009) contend that the communicative curriculum approach has some limitations in being socially constructed. The fact that the curriculum is contested creates different outlooks of various stakeholders, which affect the way it may be enacted. Time management is yet another disadvantage raised for this approach (Thijis & van den Akker, 2009). This results from the fact that the suggested teaching approach is learner-centred, not allowing the teacher to pace teaching and learning at his or her own speed, since each individual learner is closely considered. Le Ha (2014)'s qualitative case study findings concur that teachers using the learner-centred approach fail to complete their curriculum as allowing learners to set pace for the lesson is exceedingly time consuming.

2.3.2 Technical approach

The technical approach to the development of the curriculum holds that curriculum making is a strictly scholarly and theoretical process based on tested educational philosophies whose focus is mainly on achieving the right content to understand a subject (Thijis & van den Akker, 2009). According to Celia and Elize (2018), the technical approach places more emphasis on the importance of a methodical design development. Thus, this approach is said to be following a linear focus on its end product. For what is to be included in the curriculum, the technical approach believes in conducting research; this will elicit the best content to include in the curriculum and for evaluating the content (Thijis & van den Akker, 2009).

In a critical action research study by Khoza (2018) on reflections on experiences and practices of digital resources in teaching Grade 12 mathematics, it is argued that the technical approach is enacted by following specific identified steps. Under this approach, it is argued that learning is the ultimate purpose of sending children to school. The curriculum that will allow effective learning to take place should be decided on by experts who hold specialised knowledge in subject areas (Celia & Elize, 2018). Hoadley and Jansen (2017) maintain that the technical approach's main attention is on written information or schooled knowledge of the subject to be taught.

Tyler (2013), who is considered an advocate for this approach, argues that the technical approach begins by asking four essential questions: What are the worthwhile educational objectives that should be attained? What is the content? How should the activities be organised? and How can it be determined that the objectives have been accomplished? Thijis and van den Akker (2009) state that this approach teaching and learning follows a laid-down document which clearly articulates objectives, content, activities and evaluation criteria. The objectives clearly spell out the kind of behaviour or content a learner is expected to acquire in each lesson. The content constitutes what the teacher will teach in class to achieve the objectives. The activities refer to how the teaching will be organised when transmitting the content to learners. Lastly, evaluation is a step that seeks to determine whether objectives for a lesson have been sufficiently met. Thus, this approach suggests that teachers follow predetermined objectives as a blue print that leaves no room for geography teachers to modify or fine tune their lessons according to contextual or classroom needs.

According to Läänemets and Kalamees-Ruubel (2013), objectives are necessarily the first step in the technical approach, because they guide all the other activities in developing the curriculum. Lau (2001) clarifies this further, and points out that the objectives become the criterion which is used to select material for teaching and learning. The objectives help to outline the content to be learnt; and are also used in developing tests and examinations for the subject. Scott (2007) argues that to specify objectives in the technical approach is the only logical way of directing learning experiences. This means that geography teachers in this approach will be guided by the objectives of the curriculum as they enact the subject in class. Moreover, Mpungose (2018) asserts that the objectives act as points of reference that guide teaching and learning in the classrooms. Similarly, Tyler (2013) maintains that the objectives act as a fundamental base which guides the whole teaching process. It shows that the objectives offer teachers a reliable focus for the enacted curriculum (Lunenburg, 2011).

However, Hoadley and Jansen (2017) and Thijis and van den Akker (2009) lament that the technical approach's reliance on fixed objectives which are framed and prescribed beforehand makes it too rigid. The over-reliance on objectives limits chances of teachers and learners to change and welcome contemporary and up-to-date knowledge and facts in the world outside the classroom. The teaching of geography, which is a subject that experiences constant new phenomena, may be negatively affected by these predetermined objectives. Furthermore, Shoba (2018) also decries predetermined objectives of the technical curriculum which leave geography teachers with little allowance to add and adjust to the ever-changing geographic knowledge that constantly comes in. Thijis and van den Akker (2009) deplores the technical approach's strong emphasis on accomplishment of predetermined objectives for putting more focus on factual knowledge. The teaching of geography is more concerned with personal views and opinions of learners, which may be overlooked if the curriculum is guided by pre-set objectives.

Furthermore, Scott (2007) bemoans that pre-set objectives render the teachers as technicians; objectives are developed outside the school, which makes context inclined to be ignored. Learners and teachers are not involved, so as to allow for their creativity and flexibility, as they have to follow prescribed objectives, thus overlooking their needs and interests (Mabuza, 2018). Lastly, Lau (2001) deplores that objectives restrict the learners to limited kind of skills, only to knowledge that is articulated in terms that are behavioural. Such perspectives ignore

sophisticated skills that aim at problem-solving skills; these cannot not be stated in interactive terms, whereas the geography curriculum is aimed at promoting the latter skills to the learners.

According to Tyler (2013), the technical approach's selection of the content criteria is directed by the objectives. Celia and Elize (2018) also note that the content should be compatible with the objectives of that particular lesson or subject area. The choice of content, this suggests, is justified by the objectives it seeks to accomplish. Thijis and van den Akker (2009) likewise maintains that the content given to learners to master in this approach is done through the achievement of the set prescribed objectives. Furthermore, Bernstein (1999) points out that the teacher, as guided by the objectives outlined in the planned curriculum, has power over the choice of the content to be learnt. The geography teacher will be guided by the objectives in the curriculum to deliver content to the learners.

 Since the objectives give teachers a clear set of guidelines on what learners need to learn, the content teachers will deliver will be relevant and useful to the learners; it will not be coming from individual teacher interests (Hoadley & Jansen, 2017). The kind of content or school knowledge taught in this approach is not general, but is factual knowledge based on studies which the technical approach suggests teachers should concentrate on when delivering such to learners. Mpungose (2015) maintains that the school knowledge under this approach is based on evidence or research.

The organisation of learning experiences is another essential step of the technical approach, having a strong impact on effectiveness in the fulfilment of the set objectives (Hoadley & Jansen, 2017). In her study, Makumane (2018), describes that the organisation of learning experiences is the way in which teachers enact the curriculum in their classes, that is the way in which teachers deliver the content. Shoba (2018) notes that, under the technical approach, teachers are mainly concerned about the transmission of knowledge which the learners are expected to master and reproduce in times of assessments. In fact, the dissemination of knowledge is cognitively driven, transferring knowledge from the enlightened knowledgeable teacher to the ignorant ill-educated learner (Shoba, 2018). Furthermore, Mpungose (2015) asserts that under the technical approach, teachers possess control over the learning process in classrooms as they select content, sequence it and also set the speed during teaching. It therefore becomes the teachers' sole responsibility to make decisions on what is to be taught,

as guided by the curriculum objectives. The geography teachers in according to this approach, become disseminators of geography truths supported by facts (Makumane, 2018).

Thus, Hoadley and Jansen (2017) imply that the teaching approach under the technical curriculum development approach is teacher-centred. Under this approach learners have minimal control over the way they learn, and the speed at which they learn, as all this is set by the teacher. Khoza (2016), notes that the teachers automatically assume patterns of rote learning when teaching, because they are perceived as keepers of knowledge in this approach. The only alternative they are left with is to administer their lessons using the teacher-centred approach. The fourth, which is also the last step of the technical approach, is evaluation.

Tyler (2013) describes evaluation on the technical curriculum development approach as a procedure meant to check whether the prearranged objectives of a lesson have been accomplished. Evaluation, in this approach, is therefore used to ascertain whether the learning experiences learners were exposed to were towards attainment of pre-set objectives. Moreover, Tyler (2013) maintains that the evaluation step in this curriculum approach should be able to gauge the behaviour of the learners, since it is the aim of education to change the learners' behaviour. Khoza (2018) avers that the evaluation that takes place in this approach concentrates more on what learners should have achieved, that is to say, evaluation considers more what is missing form learners' responses. Likewise, Hoadley and Jansen (2017), concur with Khoza (2018), in that the evaluation process in this approach is based on what learners do not know, or what the learners have left out. Since the technical approach is structured, a specific assessment criterion is always stated.

2.3.3 Pragmatic Approach

Studies on the pragmatic curriculum development approach associate its origins with the ideas of Freire, who saw education as a tool that could be used to emancipate teachers and learners from oppression and discrimination in knowledge production (Freire, 1994; Yosso, 2002; Young, 2013). Kelly (2009) and Hoadley (2018) note that this approach is directed towards liberation of the oppressed, thus the approach comes with ideas of dialogue, reflection, and critical thinking. The pragmatic curriculum approach is also viewed as an emancipatory approach that seeks to encourage voices of learners and teachers to be heard in curriculum spaces (Pinar, 2012; Van Eeden, 2018; Young, 2013). The teachers and learners jointly

deliberate on curriculum issues to which they all contribute. For Pinar (2012), the pragmatic approach to curriculum development aims to promote equality among its users, that is teachers and learners. Hence the notion of top-down practices is discouraged in this approach because the idea is collaboration of the entire society in order to produce practical and relevant teaching approaches.

According to Pinar (2012), the pragmatic approach may be well described through the use of the notion of the 'curriculum as currere' (a life- long journey). The method of currere analyses "one's past experiences so as to recognise more fully, and with more intricacy and delicacy, one's submergence in the present" (Fomunyam, 2014, p. 124). Kanu (2006) describes 'currere' as Pinar's idea in an autobiographical/biographical style, consisting of four steps or moments that depict a pragmatic curriculum development approach: "the regressive, the progressive, the analytical, and the synthetic steps" (Pinar , 2012, p. 36). Furthermore, Pinar (2012) opines that a teacher who would practice 'currere' will be pragmatic in the approach of his or her teaching. As the teacher regresses, he or she obtains data from the past to improve the future.

In the progressive stage the teacher imagines the possible future. The analytical stage takes both the past and future possibilities and synthesise or brings the experiences all together to interrogate the present moment (Fomunyam, 2014; Kanu, 2006; Pinar, 2012). In fact, Pinar (2012) postulates that the users of the curriculum through 'currere' gain the opportunity of being transformed, which the pragmatic approach wishes to accomplish. Thus 'currere' will allow teachers to reconceptualise through questioning their practice with the intention of refining it and uprooting inequity in learning centres. The pragmatic approach seeks to question knowledge production and dissemination and to identify personal needs of teachers and learners (users of the curriculum).

Nkohla (2017) and Khoza (2015) point out that the pragmatic approach of curriculum development is one that seeks to meet the needs of its users by accepting practical consequences as well as usability of the curriculum. Khoza (2019)'s case study on selected lecturers' reflections on the utilization of the curriculum spider web in teaching and supervising Master of Education students, using reflective journals and semi-structured interviews for data – generation, concluded that the pragmatic curriculum approach results from a contestation between the communicative and technical curriculum approaches. Likewise Nkohla (2017)

notes that the pragmatic approach comes as a new approach from the common historical popular technical and communicative approaches. The pragmatic approach therefore comes to solve the tension that exists between the two approaches.

The study by Khoza (2019) further notes that, albeit tensions between the communicative and the technical approach existing, the pragmatic approach harmonises the two and makes up one strong curriculum approach the pragmatic approach. Fundamentally, the pragmatic curriculum approach becomes personal encouraging every individual user of the curriculum to identify and further understand his or her own strengths and/or identity (Freire, 1994; Hoadley, 2018; Khoza & Mpungose, 2018).

This view is shared by Khoza (2016) that the pragmatic approach positions the two individuals involved in learning (teachers and learners) at the heart of a teaching and learning situation. This practice creates a learning setting that aids teachers as well as their learners to construct their own exceptional and specific identities (Khoza &Mpungose, 2018; Lasky, 2005; Rodgers & Scott, 2008). Identity is defined as the academic metaphor for self-in-context (Rodgers & Scott, 2008, p. 733). For teachers, identity becomes a more personal feature which indicates their core principles on teaching (Walkington, 2005). According to Beauchamp and Thomas (2009), the identity of a teacher as per dictates of the pragmatic approach, is key to the teaching profession. Each teacher is given the capability of creating their own philosophies and further understanding their place in society. This view is also shared by (Jansen, 2001; Rodgers & Scott, 2008; Walkington, 2005), that the teacher's identity will give a teacher the ability to be creative and further have a voice in the curriculum and in teaching. A teacher who has personally identified his or herself will then be able to work well with learners in the classroom and in the society in which the school is located (Lasky, 2005; Walkington, 2005).

The importance of identity or personal notion advocated by the pragmatic approach is also emphasised by Fomunyam (2014) in a qualitative case study in which six curriculum university students were participants. The study sought the students' experiences in their schooling journey, and how these related to their personal identity, and social and political dimensions. The study concluded that the personal experiences of learners and teachers are to be taken into consideration when enacting curricula in schools, teaching and learning being a very personal/individual experience. The identity of each person is therefore crucial in teaching and learning, which is what the pragmatic approach advocates.

Celia and Elize (2018) note that the identity teachers have allows a good flow of communication between learners and teachers. The flow in communication is a sign of equal distribution of power, which provides a good learning and teaching relationship producing trust, commitment and mutual respect in schools. Essentially, teachers create the communicative environment that allows learners to construct knowledge, which take the form of personal/individual meaning or identity (Khoza & Mpungose, 2018). The common thread notable in the pragmatic approach to curriculum development is that teachers' and learners' identities derive from careful selection of suitable principles of the technical and communicative approaches that suit every learner in class. Subsequently, this leads to the construction of particular roles during teaching and learning; and one of the roles a teacher is expected to play in the pragmatic approach is that of a researcher.

According to (Hall, 2009; Kincheloe, 2012; Van Eeden, 2018), teachers become researchers in the pragmatic curriculum development approach. This role allows teachers to pose problems and discuss various issues with learners to assist them to become more critical and to understand reality. The teachers' researcher role in this approach allows them to pose problems and discuss various issues with the learners, to assist them to arrive at a more critical view of reality. This is in line with Ramrathan (2017)'s assertion that the researcher role the teacher plays helps in his or her professional development. Van Eeden (2018) and Kincheloe (2012) further note that teachers, as researchers, develop skills that improve their practices and deep theoretical knowledge of the subject that they are teaching. As they play the researcher's role, the teachers continuously learn new knowledge, which increases quality of their work (Clarke, 2009; Radulović & Stančić, 2017).

Thijis and van den Akker (2009) also maintain that the researcher's role the teachers assume in the pragmatic approach is vital. Teachers are expected to constantly revise the draft curriculum (prototype) to determine the ideal curriculum for given educational goals. As teachers constantly revise the prototype, they reflect on its effectiveness and make necessary recommendations. This constant adjustment and alteration of the product is suitable to develop the pragmatic curriculum as it makes the teachers to own the product (Thijis & van den Akker, 2009). The approach therefore is geared to meet the needs and requirements of its users and ensures curriculum ownership by teachers (Makumane, 2018). The teachers end up owning the

curriculum as their product through reflection which is part of the 'currere' which is a notion that drives this approach.

Teachers, as researchers practise much reflection on themselves and their practice. Reflection is one of the practices teacher- researchers apply which helps in improving the quality of their work. For Walkington (2005, p. 54) "reflecting on teacher's practice lead to visible improvement and long-term quality in professionalism". Webb (2015) points out that reflection comes from Pinar's notion of 'currere' as it allows teachers to have a reflective opportunity which positively impacts on their practice. This results from the fact that as teachers reflect, they gain better understanding of themselves as individuals which then shapes their practice. Likewise, Clarke (2009) maintains that, as researchers, teachers in the pragmatic approach are encouraged to apply new enacting tactics by pondering how previous lessons were effective, which then assists to improve quality. As the teachers reflect, they also observe; and as such, obtain new insights into the form of practical experiences that help them in their practice.

The pragmatic approach to curriculum development is thus directed by observation and applied experiences rather than theoretical ideas. The approach is therefore free from external pressures that have a tendency to prescribe objectives and evaluations that neglect learners' understanding and interaction with teachers (Freire, 1994). The dialogical nature of the pragmatic approach creates a value-neutral knowledge transmission to existence amongst teachers and learners as social connections become established in the classrooms (Celia & Elize, 2018: Hoadley, 2018). Such social relations remove the traditional "banking notion of teaching and learning" and promote what is "manifestly possible" in the classrooms, that the pragmatic approach to curriculum development supports (Hoadley, 2018, p.40). According to (Mpungose, 2018; Yosso, 2002; Young, 2013) the "banking notion of teaching and learning" perceives learners as unfilled containers to be packed with knowledge. Harber (2009) argues that this conception of education defeats constructivism as the defining principle in the pragmatic approach. Constructivist learning engages learners in meaning-making processes, and encourages learning through action and reflection (Mejía, 2004; Mpungose, 2018). The constructivist teacher in the pragmatic approach resumes by using formative assessment.

According to Koray and Kahraman (2019), formative assessment is carried out by teachers to strengthen learners' knowledge on specific skills and content. Formative evaluation becomes

part of the instructional design for a teacher; and it is useful for instructional development, thus teachers in the pragmatic approach open lessons this way (Tessmer, 2013). Adkins (2018) and Kincal and Ozan (2018) posit that formative assessment motivates learners in class individually, and also increases learners' achievement.

A qualitative case study by Alotaibi (2019) conducted in Saudi Arabia involving 25 participating teachers, concluded that teachers believe that assessing learners formatively has a deep impact on learner's inspiration and achievement in class. This is because formative assessment has activities that advance learners' abilities. Furthermore, formative assessment allows teachers to understand gaps in their learner's knowledge, which propels them to find new approaches thereby increasing learners' understanding. Formative assessment for the pragmatic approach is encouraged, as it is able to be personal, directed to an individual learner, it addresses the needs of individual learners (Khoza & Mpungose,2018). Shoba (2018) illustrates that the formative evaluation and design of activities take place interactively and systematically, because there are experts and literature to guide the process. The major purpose of engaging at the design and evaluation levels is to increase the ownership and usability of the curriculum developed, as it should be understood by all.

2.4   Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is well-defined by Jabeen and Guy (2015) as connected concepts that are obtained in a study. Furthermore, Silverman (2013) grants that the conceptual framework may be a carefully developed description of a phenomenon in such a way that the explanation can link two or more principles in one study. Likewise, Christiansen et al. (2010) concur that the conceptual framework in a study consists of a set of ideas (which are the concepts) that assist a study to gain its focus in a particular way. In earlier discussions in this study on teaching approaches, as well as on curriculum development approaches, certain concepts have been discussed from the technical, communicative, and pragmatic approaches. There are certain concepts featured in the discussions and it is those concepts that have been taken to formulate the conceptual framework for this study. The various concepts that have been selected speak to curriculum and teaching approaches, as the study seeks to explore geography teachers' approaches in teaching a section of research skills in their classes. The concepts that make up the conceptual framework will enable the researcher to impose some sort of meaning: the reality is given of the concepts of the geography teachers' practice is given (Cohen et al, 2011).

The following concepts have been recognised as those ones that influence and speak to the approach a teacher will choose for teaching geography. In technical approach the concepts are: objectives, content, organisation and assessment. In the communicative approach the concepts are: resources, activities, content and assessment. In the pragmatic approach, the goals, and the role of the teacher and community/stakeholders (learners) have been identified as its concepts. Figure 1.1 shows these concepts in each of the curriculum development approaches. The technical approach and communicative approach are a stand-alone, whereas the pragmatic approach takes from both the technical and communicative approach, thus being positioned in between the two. In fact, scholars have described the position of the pragmatic approach from the understanding that it harmonises these two (technical and communicative approaches), but it also more concerned about the individual user of the curriculum (learners and teachers), allowing an individual to understand him or herself (Freire, 1994; Hoadley, 2018; Khoza & Mpungose, 2018).

Furthermore, Khoza (2019) describes the positioning of the pragmatic approach as a result of tensions that exist between the technical and communicative approaches, which then makes the pragmatic approach in the centre of the two approaches and is driven by the rationale of the individual, goals and activities. Figure 1.1 shows the concepts that will be discussed in this section.
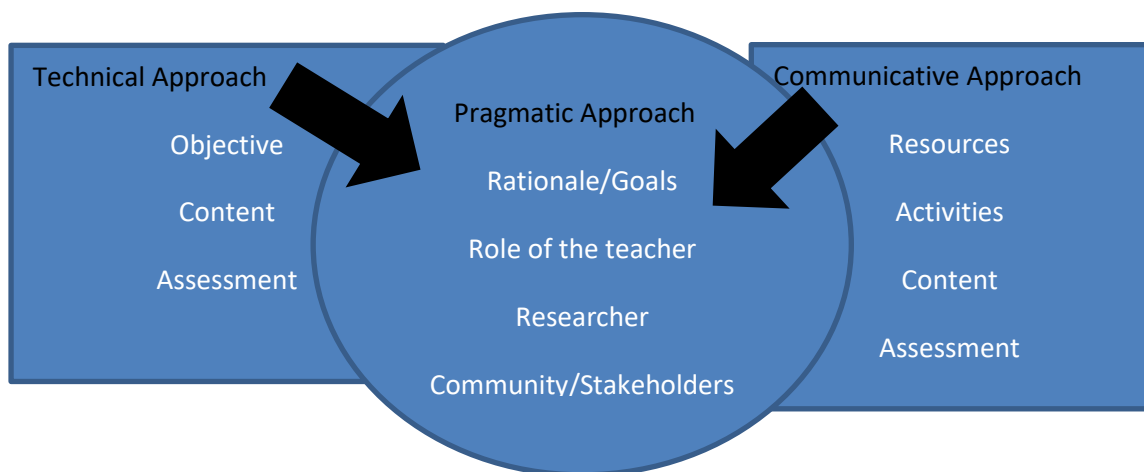
Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework

2.4.1 Objectives

Generally, objectives are described as specific statements of teaching intention. Tyler (2013) for the technical approach, concedes that objectives are the most crucial concepts in the teaching process, as they clearly spell the kind of behaviour or content a learner is expected to

acquire in each lesson. According to Läänemets and Kalamees-Ruubel (2013), objectives are necessarily the first step in the technical approach because they guide all the other activities in developing the curriculum. Lau (2001) clarifies this further, and points out that the objectives become the criterion which is used to select material for teaching and learning.

 The objectives help to outline the content to be learnt and are also used in developing tests and examinations for the subject (Flinders & Thorton, 2013; Celia & Elize, 2018; Marsh, 2009; Tyler, 2013). For the technical approach, objectives become the criteria by which geography teachers can choose the content to impart in class; and also to assist them in outlining instructional procedures. The objectives, in short, carry the idea of what the geography teacher sets out to do in class. Flinders and Thornton (2013) declare that the main advantage of objectives for teachers is that objectives have the ability to promote increased clarity for their practice.

Furthermore, Marsh (2009) asserts that objectives assist the geography teacher in planning for lessons, giving as they do the teacher's guideline of what is expected to be achieved in a particular lesson. Teachers are in schools to assist learners to achieve or gain certain abilities and information. Learners are in schools in order to learn and acquire certain skills and knowledge; therefore objectives help the teacher plan well on what should be taught in class. When planning for their classes, teachers will use the objectives to formulate clear ideas and accounts of what learners are required to learn. Walker and Soltis (2009) note that, if a teacher uses the objectives for planning, the teacher's possibility of having a good lesson is enhanced. The use of objectives allows the teacher to focus on each lesson, which makes the lesson to proceed in a planned manner. Such a way will benefit learners, teachers being aware of what is expected of them as well as from the learners.

The importance of objectives for a teacher is realised from findings of a study conducted by (Budden, 2017). The qualitative study was conducted in a university in South Africa, using both purposive and convenient sampling among selected students in a Master's programme. The study concluded that students' understanding of the significance of objectives helped to direct them when conducting their research; they became aware of what was expected from them, guided by the objectives. Understanding the significance of objectives helped the participants realise that objectives are essential to give a plan of action and further, to direct that plan.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Khoza (2013) which was aimed at exploring reflections of eight lecturers using Moodle to enact their modules in a university in South African, concluded that the formulation of clear objectives resulted in students using Moodle very effectively. The use of objectives is therefore beneficial for both the teacher and learners, as it this cited in the study (Khoza, 2013). Likewise, a qualitative study by Kozikoğlu (2018) that intended to explore the use of objectives by 8th grade English teachers in the USA concluded that expressing objectives helped to avoid waste of time and resources in classrooms. The use of objectives ensures that justice is done in a class. This works well for both teachers and learners; less time is wasted as objectives direct teachers on how to enact their lessons in class.

Tyler (2013), Scott (2016), Walker (2009) make it clear that specifying objectives in the technical approach is the only logical way of directing learning experiences. This means that geography teachers in this approach will be guided by the objectives of the curriculum as they enact the subject in class. Moreover, Mpungose (2018) asserts that the objectives act as points of reference that guide teaching and learning within the classrooms. Similarly, Tyler (2013) maintains that the objectives act as a fundamental basis on which the whole teaching process relies. The objectives assist to provide a reliable focus for the teacher (Lunenburg, 2011). According to the technical approach, the objectives will determine content, learning experiences, as well as evaluation of learners, for any teaching and learning taking place. A geography teacher following the technical approach will utilise and follow the prescribed syllabus which has laid down objectives for teaching.

On one hand, the communicative as well as the pragmatic approaches frown on the curriculum that focuses more on objectives, as recommended by the technical approach. Hoadley and Jansen (2017) and Thijis and van den Akker (2009) lament that the technical approach's reliance on fixed objectives which are framed and prescribed beforehand, makes it too rigid. It is argued that the over-reliance on objectives limits opportunities for teachers and learners to regulate the dynamism of knowledge and facts in the world outside the classroom. Flinders (2013) argues that the outcome of teacher instruction in class is far more complex for only educational objectives to encompass. It is thus unpredictable to judge through objectives the outcome of a classroom setting, especially where there is interaction among the learners themselves and the teacher.

Freire (1994) argues against the use of objectives, by pointing out that the objectives become a tool of oppressing learners and teachers, who will be forced to follow prescribed objectives even if the objectives do not mean anything to them in their society. Marsh (2009) concurs with Freire (1994), by stating that it is argued that objectives are for selecting and organising learning experiences. For Marsh such is not possible; as experiences are unique, and cannot easily be predicted resulting as they do from classroom interactions, prior knowledge, as well as knowledge from the society or environment.

In addition, Gamson, Eckert, and Anderson (2019) criticises overreliance on objectives on the basis that educational outcomes are far more complex and numerous to be encompassed solely by just objectives. The predetermined objectives prohibit the development of curiosity and insightful thinking which the geography curriculum is set out to achieve. Eisner (1983), states that the goals for schooling are the development of creativity and critical thinking, which cannot be measured by simple objectives. If a teacher's teaching approach is driven by the pre-set objectives, the goals of schooling are defeated (Gamson et al., 2019). The approach geography teachers should adopt in teaching a curriculum that requires learners to be creative and critical thinkers cannot rely on predetermined objectives.

Furthermore, the teaching of geography, which is a subject that experiences constant new phenomena, may be negatively affected by these predetermined objectives, as suggested by the technical approach. The pre-set objectives confine the teacher in such a way that it may be impossible to address current geographic phenomena. Freire (1994) argues that teachers, as knowledge producers, should have the individual right to choose what they teach in their classrooms. Their teaching should be such that caters to the desires of the learners and people at which school is located. The pragmatic approach holds that teachers and learners should together draw their own objectives that they think will be helpful to them instead of receiving imposed objectives from elsewhere (Pinar, 2012).

Likewise, Shoba (2018) states that the predetermined objectives of the technical curriculum leave geography teachers with little allowance to add and adjust to the ever-changing geographic knowledge that comes in ceaselessly. Thijs and van den Akker (2009) deplore the technical approach's strong emphasis on accomplishment of predetermined objectives in placing more focus on factual knowledge, while teaching geography is more concerned with personal views and opinions of learners. Such views may be overlooked if the curriculum is

guided by pre-set objectives. For a topic such as the research skills on which the study is based, using pre-determined objectives cannot work well for the teacher. Learners are encouraged to apply and further synthesis what they individually comprehend about a lesson. A teacher may therefore not be bounded by rigid by objectives.

According to Scott (2007), pre-set objectives render the teachers as technicians. The objectives are developed outside the school which ignores the context of where teaching will take place. The learners and teachers are not involved in allowing for their creativity and flexibility, as they have to follow prescribed objectives thus overlooking their needs and interests (Mabuza, 2018). Lastly, Lau (2001) deplores that objectives restrict the learners to a limited array of skills, only to knowledge which is expressed in behavioural standings, ignoring higher-order thinking and problem-solving skills. Such cannot be stated in behavioural terms, whereas the geography curriculum is aimed at promoting the latter skills to the learners. Thus, a geography teacher who will not be confined by set objectives, it is suggested will be one who is inclined to either the communicative or pragmatic approach. The decision will also be witnessed on how and which source of content that particular teacher uses.

2.4.2   Content

Spiller (2009) describes the content as what geography teachers aim to teach when they go to class. In other words, content is knowledge that is taught or learned (Khoza, 2015, Hoadley, 2018, Shulman, 1987). The content may be in form of skills (such as map reading and interpretation skills), knowledge (formal content), behaviour, and attitudes (personal content). Content, in short, defines what teachers teach in their classrooms (Zuma, 2016). Moreover, content may be framed as knowledge (Makumane, 2018). In this study the two are used interchangeably. Such interchangeable usage comes from the idea of Bernstein (1999), who categorically states that content is what is to be learned, which is knowledge gained. Furthermore, Shulman (1987) perceives content as a source of knowledge gained by a learner as exposed by a teacher. In other words, content is the understanding of concepts of a subject. For a geography teacher to be able to pass knowledge to learners, it is vital that the teacher possess a certain considerable amount of relevant knowledge so as to be able to effectively teach learners (Mpungose, 2016).

Research has shown that it is possible that teachers can lack content knowledge to impart to learners. An interpretive study conducted by Zuma (2016) which was aimed to explore the teaching of Geographic Information Systems (GIS) by selected geography teachers in selected South African schools, found that a majority of geography teachers lacked content knowledge of using GIS in their geography lessons. The study's findings defend the fact that teachers should understand fully and know the content they have to teach in class. It is imperative then that geography teachers should have the knowledge of teaching research skills to their learners; they must be able to approach the topic competently. Zuma (2016) argues that it is imperative for a teacher to possess good content knowledge as it gives the teacher confidence and distinguishes between teacher and learner. Ideally, the teacher should be more knowledgeable than the learner. If a teacher lacks content, it may jeopardise curriculum implementation.

The type of knowledge or content that teachers share in classrooms is divided into two categories. The kind of knowledge termed "formal" which is centred on a subject area or on a certain subject discipline (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). This type of knowledge is what the technical curriculum development approach believes is ideal for learners. It is usually produced by researchers and subject specialists who present exactly what the learners should consume, based on research (Biesta, 2013; Pinar, 2012). This formal knowledge is also referred to as "powerful knowledge" (Young, 2007). Such powerful/formal knowledge is organised under topics which may be either horizontal or vertical (Bernstein, 1999). According to Bernstein (1999) and Hoadley & Jansen (2013) the horizontal organisation of topics applies when topics are linked in order to achieve particular objectives. Under the vertical organisation, there is a ranked organisation of content knowledge. For the vertical organisation of knowledge there is ordered organisation of content to be taught in such a way that topics of a subject area connect or feed into one another.

Bernstein (1999) suggests that the vertical organisation of knowledge arranges knowledge from simple to complex knowledge. It must be mentioned that the geography curriculum arranges knowledge in a horizontal manner; although, when teaching research skills teachers are expected to integrate knowledge, which then takes the form of vertical knowledge. Mpungose (2016) states that it may not matter how knowledge is organised, but the important thing is that the geography teacher should master the subject content so that he or she is able to attain the prescribed aims of the subject. The approach a teacher uses in class therefore goes with how the geography teacher arranges the content for the purpose of enacting the

curriculum. What is vital is for a teacher to render effective teaching in class which is grounded on the content knowledge a teacher possesses.

A mixed-methods approach study conducted by Ramnarain and Fortus (2013) investigated educators' perceptions on new topics in the revised physical science high school curriculum in South Africa. The study involved 660 high schools around Gauteng province, discovering that a majority of the teachers had a challenge in grasping content on new concepts. This resulted in the teachers being unable to teach the subject satisfactorily, as they had limited knowledge on the content. It is therefore, vital for teachers to be clear, and to possess the formal knowledge to enhance the smooth transmission of knowledge to learners. Teachers should also use the proper teaching approach to pass formal content knowledge to learners.

Hoadley and Jansen (2013) concede that there is ordinary knowledge which is also a source of content knowledge teachers make use of in their classrooms. Everyday knowledge, according to Bernstein (1999), refers to the type of knowledge a learner comes with to class. This implies that everyday knowledge is obtained from the learners' experiences gained from their immediate environment or society. This includes knowledge obtained from home, as well as interactions with peers or members of society as well as observations that a learner might have. Thus, everyday knowledge is also referred to as common-sense knowledge (Biesta, 2013; Marsh, 2009). It is essential to note that everyday knowledge is easily accessible to every learner; and that this is vital in helping a teacher to understand learners' experiences before the introduction of formal school knowledge. Makumane (2018) views everyday knowledge as an essential bridge towards attaining of school knowledge.

The technical curriculum development approach when it comes to content knowledge states that such comes from research and from subject specialists (Celia & Elize, 2018; Tyler, 2013). As discussed earlier in this study, the content is produced from the objectives. According to Tyler (2013), teachers have no challenges when it comes to the choice of content knowledge; they are given such, coming from tried and tested research studies by subject specialists. The task of a teacher is only to disseminate the content to the learners without any addition or subtraction of anything. Pinar (2012) argues that this allow teachers to execute their tasks in a very simplified manner, such saving their time. Geography teachers, in such an approach, will simply dwell on the official content provided by the school; and work with the learners to realise the objectives of the topic. For the communicative approach, the content is obtained

from a deliberation between stakeholders; who then vote for the final content knowledge that the majority will deem fit for learners (Stenhouse, 2005).

On the other hand, the pragmatic curriculum development approach frowns on content that is prescribed and generalised for all schools. Freire (1994) argues that content is influenced by context. The choice of content to use is therefore driven by the context or environment in which the learners are found. It is the learners, together with the teachers, that must be at liberty to choose content most appropriate to their needs. Society, according to Young (2007), should be the source of content for learners and teachers. Teachers will use more of common knowledge to teach; and thus education will be viewed as non- oppressive compared with compulsory content which might not take into account the society in which the learners are found.

Essentially, while the technical approach will use teacher- centred activities to disseminate knowledge, the communicative and pragmatic approaches will favour learner-centred approaches, taking into account common sense knowledge that derives from the learners. Pike and Clough (2005) point out those geography teachers fail to teach the subject well if they lack content to teach in class. For the geography teachers to enact the content satisfactorily in their classrooms, they should be aware of their teaching approach; so that they may then be able to utilise content knowledge in line with the relevant approach. The content teachers use comes from various resources which becomes our next topic for discussion.

2.4.3   Resources

Khoza (2016), Khoza (2012), Rammapudi (2010) and Zondo (2000) describe a resource in education as any tool or any item (or person) that promotes or enhances learning or communicates learning. It is a commonly accepted idea that for successful teaching, resources are required, resources being so essential to teaching. Resources play an important part in teaching, such that Thijs and van den Akker (2009) see such not as promoting teaching and learning or knowledge construction only, but also useful to spark interest for learners in a classroom. Furthermore, Zondo (2000) poses that the use of diverse types of resources make teaching stimulating for both learners and teachers.

Most teachers accept as true that any successful teaching process hinges on resource usage (Zondo, 2000). Thus, Thijs and van den Akker (2009) perceive resources as curriculum carriers. Stenhouse (2005) argues that resources are the most important component of curriculum enactment. According to Stenhouse, before even the content is chosen, it is important to consider the resources, these determining the content to be taught. A qualitative, naturalistic case study conducted by Zondo (2000), whose aim was to discover the influence of educational resources on the teaching of geography in selected South African schools, concluded that a majority of geography teachers are of the conviction that resources are highly significant in the teaching and learning of geography. Zondo (2000)'s findings showed that geography teachers favour resources because they assist in bringing clarity to learners. However, some teachers were unable to use any resources owing to absence of resources in their schools. In other schools, teachers lacked expertise to use resources; while in yet other schools teachers were disadvantaged by lack of sufficient space, therefore overcrowded classrooms.

Khoza (2012) divides resources into three: Ideological – ware (IW), Hard-ware (HW) and Soft-ware (SW).

2.4.3.1 Hard-ware resources

Khoza (2015) describes the hard-ware resource as any tangible resource or device that aids a teacher in the process of teaching. This suggests that hard-ware resources are physical; they can be touched and seen. Hard-ware resources include chalkboards, computers, laptops, and overhead projectors, to name but a few (Nkohla, 2016). The hard-ware resources are considerably important in teaching, especially in the vertical/ technical curriculum development approach; the hard-ware resources operate in a linear format which instructs learners to follow a plan (Khoza, 2019). Essentially, the teaching of the SGCSE geography curriculum encourages geography teachers to utilise hard-ware resources in their classrooms to maximise chances of learner understanding. Teachers are encouraged to select and effectively use resources in their geography lessons that fit the context in which they will be used. Teachers should use resources that support the class lesson at hand (Ministry of Education, 2006). Geography teachers are further encouraged to be inventive when hard-ware resources are not available. Teachers, together with their learners, are encouraged to make those resources themselves if need be.

According to Yaman (2017), textbooks are considered as one of the most used hard-ware resources in teaching. In essence, geography teaching in most schools in Eswatini depends on prescribed textbooks that learners are expected to have to support their learning. Some learners in some schools however, fail to have the books for lack of funds. It is, however, common in schools that, although teachers may wish all learners in their classrooms to have books, some may not have them and thus are obliged to share with their peers (Van Eeden, 2018). The technical curriculum development approach strongly supports the use of textbooks, as it argues that the textbook has been developed by subject specialists. Thus, most subject specialists agree that it is a challenge to teach without textbooks.

Although textbooks are such an important common resource for a majority of teachers, Mahmoudi and Bakar (2014)'s qualitative study, aimed to investigate the amount of compatibility of English textbooks in Iran, concluded that textbooks may not be in line with the curriculum objectives. This challenges teachers to make a correct judgement before choosing the hard-ware resource to use in their classes. Celia and Elize (2018) likewise note that textbook reliance may hinder, rather than foster, teaching. This means that it is essential that teachers are guided by subject objectives in choosing the hard-ware resource to use. The hard-ware resource is also used to display the soft-ware resource.

2.4.3.2 Soft-ware resources

Soft-ware resources denote any form of material that is used together with hard-ware resources to present multimedia information (Khoza, 2012; Nkohla, 2017). Soft-ware resources cannot be touched unless in print, for example power point slides. Unlike the hard-ware materials which are popular with the technical curriculum development approach, the soft-ware resource is more inclined to the communicative curriculum development approach (Khoza, 2017). This is because the use of the soft-ware resource by a teacher is informed by the needs of the learners, together with their experiences. Furthermore, Khoza (2017) notes that the use of the soft-ware resources takes place in a social space, in a community- building format. This is because, through emails, for example, learners can communicate among themselves and with teachers as well as with other community members. Geography learners, for instance, may communicate with their peers in other schools trying to find out information about a geographical problem.

The soft-ware resources, therefore, may be said to be learner-centred, as learners may be able to utilise them on their own without the teacher's assistance. The research skills topic which this work is about encourages the usage of soft-ware resources. From the Internet learners can conduct research to gain factual knowledge on a phenomenon that is not occurring in their community. However, Shoba (2018) cautions that it is risky to base teaching and learning entirely on soft-ware resources as this may compromise the teacher's position, professionally. The use of soft-ware resources by geography learners, therefore, should always be guided by their teachers. The Internet may have some geographical wrong information that may mislead learners if the teacher's guidance is minimal. This implies that the ideological ware is vital in choosing as well as utilising both hardware and soft-ware resources.

2.4.3.3 Ideological ware

Ideological- ware is described by Khoza (2015), as activities for instruction which cannot be touched or seen. Examples of these could be cognitive processes such as ideas, beliefs, experiences, teaching approaches, and theories (Shoba, 2018). Furthermore, Shoba (2018) grants that the ideological-ware resource reflects personal identities that may be influenced by educational backgrounds, family backgrounds, as well as context. The ideological ware is vital; Khoza (2015) maintains that it is responsible for driving the teacher's activities. In actual fact ideological-ware is personal/ individual; thus it fits in the pragmatic approach as it drives both the hard-ware resources of the technical approach, and the soft-ware resources of the communicative approach. It therefore, lies in the middle, as shown in Figure1.1. Khoza (2012) argues that ideological-ware for the geography teacher is the most important resource. The teacher facilitates teaching through the selection of appropriate resources for classroom instruction. The use of resources by the teacher will be more evident during the time when the teacher chooses activities in the classroom; resources having been identified as important tools for classroom activities.

2.4.4 Activities

Connor et al. (2010) describe a learning activity as any pursuit organised and arranged by the teacher sometimes with learners in class, which is aimed at enhancing learners' ability and skills in grasping content. Mabuza (2018) clarifies that learning activities are different undertakings set up by the teacher for his or her learners that are collaborating with content taught in a class; thus learning activities may be rightly classified as a teaching tool. Activities

become an ideal learning tool in the sense that they engage learners in order to achieve competences in class, as expected by the requirement of the subject or topic for that day (Harmer, 2008). In essence teaching activities refer to any or all experiences that occur during teaching that lead to learners acquiring particular competence or behaviour (Biggs, 2011; Khoza, 2015; Le Grange* & Reddy, 2017; Mpungose, 2016; Nkohla, 2017).

According to Shoba (2018), teaching activities are vital in teaching and learning, as learning then becomes fun and effective for learners. Leibowitz, Naidoo, and Mayet (2017) also concurs that in order for learning to be effective, the teaching activities chosen by a teacher for a lesson should be stimulating. The attainment of objectives is dependent on teaching activities that are stimulating. According to Van Hees, Moyson, and Roeyers (2015) teaching activities must be constructed in such a way that each individual learner benefits there by and that each learner is in control of his or her own learning. Shulman (1987) asserts that the process of selecting appropriate teaching activities is influenced by the teacher's pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). PCK infers the teacher's knowledge as well as the ability of the teacher to organise appropriate and effective teaching activities that are at the level of learners, and in an appropriate context with them. It is also vital to realise that the choice of activity a teacher may use in class is influenced by resource availability (Mahmoudi & Barker, 2014). According to Hoadley and Jansen (2014), it is the curriculum development approach that informs the choice of learning activity a teacher uses, and in essence, the activities may be learner-centred/problem-centred, teacher-centred, or content-centred activities.

2.4.4.1 Learner-centred activities

The learner-centred or problem-centred activities are described as those activities that consider or take into account the interests and needs of learners (Brown,2003: Hoadley & Jansen,2013). Furthermore, Simm and David (2002) state that problem-based/learner-centred activities give learners an opportunity of exchanging ideas in class as they discuss such with each other and with the teacher to create new knowledge that enables them to solve problems and address social needs. The geography curriculum encourages learners to be no longer recipients of knowledge, rather also to be involved as producers of knowledge. In these activities the learners play an important role; activities are centred on them to allow them to be producers of knowledge (Shoba, 2018). In actual fact, learners play a very active role, which allows them to be in charge of their own learning. Learners assume the responsibility, in the sense that each

individual learner is expected to cooperate and negotiate learning with other learners in class, and with the teacher, to construct his or her own knowledge.

Brown (2003) adds that learners work independently or in pairs, and/or in small groupings to accomplish school work. According to Spronken-Smith (2005), even the teachers enjoy and relax as they use learner-centred activities in geography classrooms; thus the activities seem rewarding for both learners and teachers. Furthermore, Simm and David (2002) posit that problem-centred/learner-centred activities help learners to feel empowered. Learners are responsible and in charge of their own learning. Through working in small groups to discuss geography issues and in sharing ideas, learners develop team work and gain inter-personal skills helpful to them even in old age.

Findings of an interpretive study that used a constructivist grounded approach conducted by Tangney (2014), revealed a much broader and a much more holistic notion of learner-centred activities, largely overlooked in the literature. The study uncovered that, besides empowering learners to construct their own knowledge, the learner-centred activity learning style contributes to individual learners' personal academic growth and thus raises the consciousness of each individual learner in class. The concern for each individual learner shown in the study qualifies the learner-centred activity for the communicative approach. Such an approach may be aligned with the pragmatic approach which is concerned with education being responsible for addressing an individual.

Girvan, Tangney, and Savage (2013) argue that, by engaging learners in the process of enquiry as suggested by the learner-centred activity, this raises the spectre of the learners' oppression. The learner-centred activity emphasises building self-confidence and self-belief, which subsequently leads to personal empowerment; thus, even oppressed learners see themselves as active participants in classrooms. This results from the fact that learner-centred activities target the overwhelming and destruction of dictatorial teaching practices in classrooms through encouraging learner contribution to decision-making processes (Sikoyo, 2010).

For Froyd and Simpson (2008) learner-centred activities are beneficial to teaching and learning, as such activities facilitate learners' analytic as well as critical thinking and enquiry skills. Teaching research a skill expects that learners should acquire such, thus geography teachers should use learner-centred activities. The activities under the learner-centred style include

discussions, debates, presentations, games, role plays, and many other activities that see learners being active in class. According to Armbruster, Patel, Johnson, and Weiss (2009), learner-centred activities have been proven to increase academic achievement for learners. By being active in their learning, learners are able to better grasp knowledge in class.

Armbruster et al. (2009) further note that learner-centred activities do not only work for the learner even teachers gain increased morale and enthusiasm. It should be noted that the communicative and pragmatic curriculum development approaches subscribe to the learner-centred activities as these are associated with constructivist ideas that suggest that learners learn best when exposed to knowledge production (Stenhouse, 2005). Learners become vigorously part and parcel of their own learning unlike in the teacher-centred activities where learners are passive.

A qualitative study conducted by Kavari (2012) that used ten purposefully selected teachers, aimed to examine teachers' understanding of learner-centred activities. The study concluded that: teachers favoured and had a positive attitude towards using learner-centred activities in their classrooms. The study indicated that most of the teachers attributed high retention level of learners in their classrooms to the utilization of learner-centred activities. This shows that learner-centred activities have a beneficial influence on teaching and learning. However, some teachers lacked the requisite skills to adapt their instruction in such a way that it would adapt to the learner's limitation of English language literacy. The medium of communication has therefore a role to play when learner-centred activities are implemented in class.

Furthermore, the teachers in Kavari (2012)'s study cited difficulty in implementing learner-centred activities in resource-poor environments, and when large class numbers prevailed. Teachers then opted for using teacher-centred activities. Furthermore, Sikoyo (2010)'s study in Uganda discovered that teachers' implementation of the learner-centred activities is mostly controlled by circumstantial factors and restrictions within schools, as well as in the whole education system. Teachers must therefore be helped to develop strategies for using learner-centred activities in large classes, mostly also being are poorly resourced.

2.4.4.2 Teacher-centred activities

Teacher-centred activities are described as types of activities that are teacher centred (Brown, 2003). In such activities, the main concern is knowledge transmission from teacher to learner. Under the teacher- centred activities, teachers become sources of information; thus, teachers play the key role in the process of teaching and learning. Essentially, Brown (2003) grants that the control of learning under teacher-centred activities lies within the teacher's control. Thus, the common forms of teacher-centred activities include lectures, demonstration lectures, questioning, and many other such activities which the teacher does the talking while the learners are passive in class.

According to Hoadley and Jansen (2013), the teacher in the teacher-centred activity controls the flow of teaching in the classroom and does not focus on learner's active participation. The teacher assumes full control and has authority in the classroom as he or she uses superior understanding of content to propose activities that will drive lessons to meet the objectives of the class. Shoba (2018) argues that this form of activity is beneficial to both learners and teachers; as the teacher drives the teaching and learning process personally, rather than by societal expectations. This assures teachers and learners that they receive required content. The teacher concentrates on maintaining the given structure through giving instruction.

According to Çelik (2018), teacher-centred activities are becoming unpopular as they are said not to guarantee effective learning by learners. They are cited as boring; the teacher plays the key role and learners are hardly afforded the opportunity of discovering facts unaided. However, Mabuza (2018) argues that teacher-centred activities still have certain benefits in the classroom. The teacher is able to provide content for his or her class that is arranged technically for learner's consumption of the curriculum. Thus, the teacher-centred activities are popular for the technical curriculum approaches.

2.4.4.3 Content-centred activities

According to Brown (2003), content-centred activities, as the name suggests, are those activities driven by the content of the subject-matter, such as geography. The activities place more emphasis on and focus on what needs to be taught, thus neglecting learners in the process. This lead to a situation where the learner is somewhat neglected. The main aim of the teacher under the content-centred activity is to put across knowledge of the content as perceived by curriculum developers (Makhumane, 2018). Likewise, Gupta and Pasrija (2016) posit that

content-centred activities focus unto meeting the requirements of content as prescribed in the curriculum. The teacher plays the role of being an instrument, revealing content to learners (Mabuza, 2018). All that teachers are expected to do is to be conscious of organising the content in such a way that all learners are able to consume the knowledge the way it was intended from the planning stage of the curriculum. Even in this teaching approach, a teacher's choice should be in line with delivering the content to learners in the way it was set.

In fact, Shoba (2018) argues that content-centred activities always emphasise rigour in prescribed content knowledge, encouraging learners' mastery of such, thus content-centred activities can rightly be classified as passive. This is because learners are only expected to listen carefully to their teachers as they deliver content material. The teachers under the content-centred activities are more concerned with maintaining   accountability and the given standard by curriculum developers of the subject they enact. Consequently, the teacher is expected to constantly align his or her enactment of the curriculum with its objectives, when delivering the geography content knowledge. The geography teacher does not engage the learners to any other form of activity that appeals to their individual or personal needs. Only the content becomes the centre of everything in such teaching and learning spaces.

2.4.5   Goal

An educational goal is described as the desired output result that an educational curriculum plan is willing to achieve (Kennedy, 2006; Khoza, 2013; Nkohla, 2017). This shows that goals are very important for geography teachers who have to enact the curriculum. Their importance is echoed by Shoba (2018, p. 97), who posits that "goals specify the overall orientation of a subject". Teachers when teaching geography are directed by goals. This implies that in the absence of goals, teachers' work can be compromised. According to Khoza (2016b), educational goals are made up of outcomes, aims and objectives. Mpungose (2018) terms the aims as long-term goals for teachers that are stipulated in the curriculum. Objectives, on the other hand, are short-term goals for teachers, which would be what teachers aim to achieve in a particular class session. Outcomes, then, are the goals which the students have to achieve.

2.4.5.1 Aims

The scholastic aim is described as a long-term target set by the curriculum developers which generally expresses the teachers' sense of direction in enacting a subject (Kennedy, Hyland &

Ryan, 2006; Khoza, 2016; Mpungose, 2016). In other words, the aim is a broader and a more general statement about the teaching intentions a teacher has to enact for a particular curriculum. According to Mpungose (2018) aims of any curriculum are concerned with making sure that the personal needs of teachers are addressed, that is to say, aims fulfil what teachers want. Accordingly, the SGCSE geography curriculum stipulates aims for teachers, which include aims that will enable geography learners to; 1) develop an appreciation of the relations and interactions of people and their surroundings in reaction to physical and social processes, 2) advance knowledgeable concern about the quality of the environment and the future of the humanoid habitation thereby enriching learners with a sense of obligation for the care of the environment and its individuals; and 3) help learners acquire facts and understanding of the fundamental systems to the study of human and physical geography (Examinations Council Of Swaziland,2017). The teaching of geography by teachers, therefore, is geared towards fulfilling these long-term targets laid down as aims in the syllabus.

A qualitative study conducted by Khoza (2016a) which explored postgraduate students' understanding of visions concluded that, indeed, the aims as long-term goals for the teacher have an interest in the future of the learners. However, Shoba (2018) states that the aim becomes meaningful to the teachers if they participated in crafting it, for if there is lack of participation in their development there may be decreased teaching levels amongst teachers . This would result in poor performance for learners. The technical curriculum development approach, therefore, which comes with the prescribed aims for teachers, may affect their enactment of the geography curriculum. However, the communicative and pragmatic curriculum development approaches will involve teachers who increase teachers' enacting levels. The aim is broken down to short-term goals which are referred to as objectives.

2.4.5.2 Objectives

Objectives are described as definite statements of the teaching purpose; certain particular parts that a teacher has to cover during the learning process (Govender & Khoza, 2017; Kennedy, 2006). Objectives can therefore be rightly described as specific aims that teachers select to enact a lesson with in class. Objectives, compared with aims, are therefore narrower and more specific to the exact point of what teachers wish to cover or attain in the geography class. Thus, Kennedy (2006) states that as objectives help to clarify the aim, they should therefore be specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, and time- bound (SMART). Khoza (2019) further

maintains that objectives are achieved by teachers when instructing learners to master content that is taken from prescribed formal literature. This implies that objectives are formulated to speak to the specific needs of the subject. This description of objectives may be associated with the technical approach in which teaching is driven by pre-set objectives.

Studies on objectives reveal that they play a crucial role in teaching (Kennedy et al., 2006; Khoza & Manik, 2016; Moon, 2003; Vithal, 2016). Objectives help teachers as they plan even for lessons. Their objectives will assist the teacher to be clear and specific in class and further be able to plan even the resources to be used in a geography class. The clarity in class provides direction and boosts confidence of the teachers while increasing learner understanding of a topic at hand (Mpungose, 2018). Furthermore, Marken and Morrison (2013) perceive objectives as a tool allowing teachers to organise their teaching so as to be fruitful to them and their learners. An interpretivist case study by Khoza (2015) which involved 20 university students and generated data through a reflective journal and one-on-one semi-structured interviews, found that teachers were devoid of knowledge on objectives of subject areas they teach. It was therefore, difficult for the teachers to interpret the curriculum as well as the subjects they were teaching. This shows that objectives are vital for a teacher going into a class.

Consequently, (Khoza, 2013) suggests that it becomes the teacher's responsibility to construct objectives for his or her class for all day- to- day lessons; and such objectives may be sourced from curriculum documents and prescribed textbooks. Once the teacher has constructed his or her objectives, the teacher will benefit from the advantages of objectives stated above. According to Harden (2002), objectives are appropriate for scholastic curriculum motivated by teacher-centred idea of the technical curriculum development approach. However, the learner-centred approaches, on the other hand, are driven by outcomes, and as a matter of fact, objectives become immaterial for these approaches.

2.4.5.3 Outcomes

A learning outcome, as defined by several scholars (Donnelly & Fitzmaurice, 2005; Harden, 2002a; Kennedy et al., 2006; Khoza, 2013, 2015a, 2016b; Moon, 2002), is essentially a statement that outlines what learners are supposed to know, comprehend, and further have the ability to do at the end of study. Unlike objectives, outcomes are far clearer and more precise. Put differently, a learning outcome demonstrates knowledge that learners acquire through

learning experiences proposed by the educator during the enactment process. In other words, learning outcomes become evidence of what learners achieve in class (Mabuza, 2018). Furthermore, Khoza (2015) and Ndlovu, Chikwanha, and Munambah (2017) posit that these learning outcomes are then displayed by learners in terms of attitudes, knowledge, and skills. Jenkins and Unwin (2001) assert that learning outcomes are most indispensable to teaching they allow teachers to drive their learners towards what is expected from them in any lesson enacted in class. Thus, it is important that learning outcomes are clearly defined by the teacher, so that he or she is able to guide learners in the most effective way.

According to Hattie (2005) and Devlin (2006), learning outcomes are influential in as far as raising learners' enjoyment and interest in a lesson during curriculum enactment in class. Accordingly, this means that learners attain the desired outcomes if the teacher presents an interesting and stimulating lesson. Devlin (2006), therefore, advises teachers to utilise the learner-centred/problem-centred approach which uses teaching practices in class that help learners adequately to attain their learning outcomes. The problem centred/learner- centred approach is suggested to be best here because it is able to situate an individual learner at the core of the teaching environment. Likewise, Moon (2003) states that, for teachers to accomplish the desired learning results for learners, it is imperative that they use the social enactment strategies, which is the learner or problem- centred approach.

A qualitative study by Khoza (2013) utilised purposive sampling in selecting six participating Bachelor of Honours facilitators. The study explored the nature of learning outcomes as perceived by the facilitators, using semi-structured interviews and document analysis to generate data. The study discovered that educators were not aware of the learning outcomes of the module they were facilitating. As a result, facilitators used unclear aims and objectives for the module, which greatly compromised their enactment practices. It is therefore, imperative for geography teachers to be mindful of the outcomes that drive their curriculum, so that learners benefit by the teaching and learning. Essentially, since the SGCSE geography syllabus is said to be communicative, it is vital that teachers do use outcomes in the geography classrooms. A geography teacher, who ensures that his or her teaching outcomes are not missed, is one who will be aware of his or her role of a researcher which is discussed next.

2.4.6   Role/Identity of a teacher

The teacher's role that is discussed here shall be discussed simultaneously with the identity of the teacher in education or curriculum. It is also going to be difficult to discuss the role of the teacher in separation from that of learners since the two work together in the teaching process. In essence, there is a teaching and learning environment that is created as the learners and teachers work together. This environment creates a space whereby the learners and teachers create their new specific unique individualities (Khoza &Mpungose, 2018; Lasky, 2005; Rodgers & Scott, 2008).   It is important to note that the technical and communicative approaches (vertical and horizontal reflections) have not been concerned much about the role and identity of the teacher and learners in curriculum, but the pragmatic curriculum approach (diagonal) which frames from the two approaches pays particular attention to the role and self-identity of learners and teachers (Khoza, 2019). The framing of the identities and roles of teachers which the pragmatic approach calls brings with it the advantage of "producing reflective learners with knowledge, skills, and values/attitudes required for local, national, and international activities" (Khoza, 2019.p.2). This suggests the importance of considering the value of personal identities in teaching and learning.

For Rodgers and Scott (2008) the teacher's self- identity in education spaces can be described as an academic symbol for every individual teacher. The teacher's identity is a very personal matter which indicates an individual teacher's belief about teaching. According to Walkington (2005), Beauchamp and Thomas (2009), the identity of a teacher is situated at the heart of the teaching practice. Identity enables teachers to freely construct their new teaching ideas as they now understand their position and role in the society better. Furthermore, (Jansen, 2001; Rodgers & Scott, 2008; Walkington, 2005) concur that the teacher's identity gives an individual teacher the ability to be creative; and further, have a voice in programmes and in teaching issues.

 Lasky (2005) and Walkington (2005) admit that the teachers and learners then who have personally identified themselves, will be able to work well with learners in the classroom and in the society in which the school is located (Lasky, 2005; Walkington, 2005). This submits the significance of identities for geography teachers and their learners. Khoza (2019) notes that through reflecting on their practice, teachers can easily arrive to the point where their identity is recognised and strengthened. Reflective thinking is sourced from the notion of 'currere'

(Pinar, 2012). A teacher practising 'currere' will be able to critically think deeply about his or her practice, which gives a personal direction for the present and future practice plans.

A study by Fomunyam (2014) which was qualitative and a case study involving e six curriculum university students as participants concluded that personal/individual identities of learners and teachers have to be taken into consideration when enacting curricular in schools, because teaching and learning is a very personal/ individual experience. The identity of each person is therefore crucial in the teaching practice, concluded the study. Furthermore, Celia and Elize (2018) grant that the personal identity teachers develop allows them to foster a good flow of communication between them and their learners. The flow in communication is a sign of equal distribution of power which provides a good learning and teaching environment benefiting both teachers and geography learners. Essentially, Khoza and Mpungose (2018) note that the environment created will be a communicative one, in which learners will have the ability to construct their own knowledge, personally and appealing to their identity. Subsequently, this identity a teacher develops propels teachers to assume the researcher role.

Geography teachers teaching a section of research skills in the SGCSE curriculum should play roles of researchers. Freire (1994) calls the role fellow-enquirer, that is, a teacher who, together with learners, is involved in transformational learning. When a geography teacher assumes the role of a researcher or enquirer, he or she is able with ease to discuss various geographical research topics with the learners. Furthermore, the teacher is able to assist the learners to be more critical as they view reality (Hall, 2009; Kincheloe, 2012; Van Eeden, 2018). This role allows teachers to pose problems and discuss various issues with learners to assist them to be more critical in understanding reality. Thus Ramrathan (2017) asserts that the researcher role the teacher plays helps a great deal in his or her professional development. A geography teacher who is also a researcher will be good at enacting the curriculum to the learners. The teachers are able to improve on their skills because, as researchers, they are able to be continuous learners. Thus teachers gain new knowledge, which in turn improves their quality of work (Clarke, 2009; Radulović & Stančić, 2017).

This new researcher role of a teacher, Freire (1994) argues, will dissolve the oppressive teacher-learner relationship, and turn it into a joint learning process which will see joint discovery, joint creation of new knowledge. In this way it will transform the banking learning style in which the teachers owned information while learners were expected to narrate and

memorise the content. Biesta (2015) further argues that this new role, in which the teacher's identity is recognised, enables the teacher to design new opportunities for learners through engaging them in dialogue and critical reflections. Such activities equip learners to create their own meanings and understandings. The teachers and learners are able to do this by allowing the learners to tap into their societal/ environmental/community experiences, which raises a geographical sense of awareness amongst the learners.

Essentially, Biesta (2015) maintains, both the teachers and learners, through their new roles and identity, are transformed in their understanding of the enacted geography curriculum. In essence, the new identity roles of learners and teachers lead to freedom throughout the learning process; it then becomes easy then to construct new understandings and meanings to geography content (Biesta, 2015). Furthermore, the new roles of learners and teachers result in collective acts of enquiry learning, which is aimed towards creating a better society/community.

In the community the teacher, whose role is that of a researcher, and who has fully identified himself or herself has an influence now, education that is offered within society is able to answer the "why" question (Hoadley & Jansen, 2017; Reddy & le Grange, 2017). The "why" question is answered in the sense that education becomes relevant to the community and stakeholders as the identity and role of teachers and learners directly addresses their needs. Khoza (2019) argues that this is because a common factor curriculum of personal habits is crafted by combining strengths from the vertical/technical and horizontal/communicative curriculum approaches. This common factor curriculum becomes influential in the community and stakeholders because it takes strengths from the market driven vertical approach and the societal driven horizontal approach.

This is achieved through the curriculum/education planner's action of going to the people to openly and humbly listen ready to implement the ideas from the community/ stakeholders (Miller, Brown, & Hopson, 2011). Thus, Fomunyam (2017) posits that teachers will have control over the enacted curriculum, and able to decide to support learners with what the community/ society wants and what the stakeholders /market expects. The education offered to learners then becomes concerned with issues of social transformation and social justice (Ledwith, 2001). The curriculum however, will have to assess in different ways which are discussed in the next section.

2.4.7   Assessment

Marsh (2009) "describes assessment as the term usually used to style actions carried out by a teacher to get information about knowledge, abilities, and attitudes of learners" (p.71). This means that assessment is carried out to test learning, to predict future achievement of learners, to grade learners and motivate learners in class. Likewise, Celia and Elize (2018), Hoadley and Jansen (2013) and Thijs and van den Akker (2009) describe assessment as a systematic process that involves the collection of information about a learner's learning to ascertain if what has been initially prescribed in teaching and learning has been attained. Assessment therefore, involves all the activities teachers and learners assume to provide feedback that becomes useful for modifying teaching activities taking place.

Essentially, assessment is used to support teaching, to furnish information about learners' and teachers' work (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). Thus Moon (2003) views assessment as an instrument in the teacher's hands that may be used to enrich teaching. Khoza (2015), Mabuza (2018), and Moon (2003) assert that there are three forms of assessment: assessment-*for*-learning (formative assessment), assessment-*of*-learning (summative assessment), and assessment-*as*-learning (peer assessment).

2.4.7.1 Assessment for learning or formative assessment

Celia and Elize (2018), Khoza (2015) posit that formative assessment or assessment for learning occurs when teachers assess learners for their personal needs in order to check that the progress of the teaching and learning is going according to what has been planned. The studies referred to above maintain that formative assessment include all activities of assessment a teacher can conduct both prior to learning and during learning. This the teachers undertake in order to assist teachers to reflect, so as to take control and direct the teaching process. Mpungose (2018) states that teachers, when conducting formative assessment can apply classroom observation and ask probing questions of the learners. Al-Zube (2013) posits that formative assessment is popular amongst learner-centred teaching approaches which follow the pragmatic or communicative curriculum- development approaches.

In these learner-centred teaching approaches, the formative assessment shifts away from being a grading exercise to being a reviewing self-reflecting exercise that impacts to individual learner's understanding of a topic at hand (Celia & Elize, 2018; Khoza,2019). This means that in such classrooms the geography teacher will use the formative assessment as a diagnostic

tool that measures learner's attainment of knowledge and skills. The teacher will concentrate on what is present rather than what is missing. This then will require the geography teachers to give prompt feedback to the learners as this type of assessment helps to check the degree of comprehension of each learner (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013).

Marsh (2009) points out that teachers have to be clear and quick when conducting formative assessment. Such ready assessment encourages and motivates learners; formative assessment emphasises progress and achievement rather than failure. Essentially, when a teacher gives positive feedback, learners are motivated and stimulated, resulting in quality learning. Moreover, formative assessment assists teachers to regulate their teaching to suit the current level of their learners' understanding of a topic (Celia & Elize, 2018; Reinders & Lázaro, 2007).

In the pragmatic and communicative/learner -centred teaching approaches, teachers start their lessons by formative assessment (Marsh, 2009). This is usually in the form of oral questioning or dialogue. Shoba (2018) notes that the dialogue that exists among the geography teacher and the learners promotes lively learning. As the teachers' questions learners, their thinking gets stimulated; learners are then able to improve in their critical thinking - skills required by the research- section topic applying to this study. Likewise, Thijis and van den Akker (2009) posits that formative assessment allows an interface between a current topic and the learners' progress. Formative assessment differs from summative assessment because it is not as much interested in grading but in equipping the teaching and learning process.

2.4.7.2 Assessment of learning or Summative assessment
Thijis and van den Akker (2009), Kennedy et al. (2006) and Khoza (2015c) admit that summative assessment is useful in defining the cognitive capacities of learners as the end of an enacted curriculum. This means that summative assessment is carried out at the end of a prescribed curriculum such as the geography SGCSE curriculum which ends in Forma Five (Grade 12). Khoza (2019) states that summative assessment assess what learners have learned; and concentrates on what is cognitively missing from the learners' responses. In actual fact, Marsh (2009) points out that this type of assessment concentrates on giving marks. Learners therefore, do not gain anything in the form into their progress in the course of curriculum enactment. Marsh argues that summative assessment is conducted too late to improve learners' results. The scholar also continues to state that summative assessment encourages some learners to perceive themselves as failures; because by failing a topic test twice, a learner can

expect to gain same even in up -coming tests. Summative assessment is therefore rather less helpful in refining the standard of teaching (Nkohla, 2016).

2.4.7.3 Assessment as learning or peer assessment

Khoza (2015), Mpungose (2016) and Reddy and le Grange (2017), describe peer assessment as similar to formative assessment in the sense that it is also concerned with learners' current progress in the teaching   and learning process. Makumane (2018) refer to these suggestions that peer assessment engages learners during teaching and learning. Assessment as teaching takes place when a learner is assessed by other learners in class,   usually based on a criterion set by the teacher. Peer assessment is commended because it requires active learning and engagement in class (Celia & Boyse, 2018). Furthermore, Marsh (2009) notes that peer assessment encourages learners to challenge one another in classrooms, which is a way of motivating them to excel in their work. In geography classrooms, peer assessment allows learners to learn from one another, which is one way increasing learner understands.

Accordingly, peer assessment encourages social skills amongst learners as it fosters cooperation between learners in a class (Shoba, 2018). Learning to work with one another encourages the learners to develop interpersonal skills which are generally required by the SGCSE curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2014). Furthermore, as the learners assess one another, empathy and self-confidence is cultivated, which are yet other essential social skills the curriculum aims to achieve. Moreover, Clark (2008) argues that peer assessment magnifies learners' responsibility during teaching and learning; the learner becomes actively involved by monitoring others' learning. This helps the geography learner to have increased responsibility and commitment to his or her work, which may, in turn, lead to quality learning and understanding of a topic such as research skills.

2.5   Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the teachers' approach, which is the phenomenon for the study, has been discussed. The literature has shown that approaches may be defined as the ways in which teachers' beliefs are put into practice in classrooms. The chapter further showed that there are two main approaches teachers use in enacting the curriculum: learner-centred and teacher-centred approaches. Curriculum, as the field in which the study is located, was defined, together with the three curriculum -development approaches. The first approach discussed was the communicative approach, which is developed from a consensus of stakeholders involved, thus

it is societal in nature. The technical approach followed, which is driven by pre-set objectives that should be followed by curriculum enactors. The last approach was the pragmatic approach which is an emancipatory approach, resulting from taking parts of technical and communicative approaches to present a personal/individual approach. The conceptual framework discusses concepts that have been taken from the curriculum development approaches, such as objectives, content, resources, activities, role of the teacher, goals, as well as assessment. The next chapter discusses the methodology of this study.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

The preceding chapter deliberated on teachers' approaches to teaching a section of research skills in the geography Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) geography syllabus. This chapter presents the design and methodology used to fulfil the objectives and research questions that were mentioned in the first chapter. This chapter deliberates on the following; research paradigm (interpretivist), research approach (qualitative), research design (case study), sampling, data generation methods, analysis of data, trustworthiness issues and limitations of this study. A summary of the chapter is given in conclusion.

3.2   Research Paradigm

The research paradigm is well-defined by a number of scholars as a body of coherent assumptions and conceptions that align scholars' thinking in research (Christiansen, Bertram, & Land, 2010; Creswell, 2014; De Vos et al., 2017; Glesne, 2014; Leed & Ormrod, 2015; MacMillan & Schumacher, 2006; Maree, 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016). Furthermore, Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) state that the research paradigm works as guide or map for scientific researchers to solve particular identified issues. Silverman (2013) sees a paradigm as a framework which assists researchers and scientists with guidelines and models for finding solutions to problems when conducting research. A paradigm shapes and also directs the actions and thinking of a researcher.

One of the helpful actions of the research paradigm is that it shapes the researcher's choice of data collection methods in a study (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014; De Vos et al., 2017; Lincoln & Guba, 1994; Maree, 2017). Together with directing the choice of the data-gathering methods, the paradigm becomes instrumental in the interpretation of the collected data (Christiansen et al., 2010; Cohen et al., 2011; Glesne, 2014). This demonstrates that the research paradigm is pivotal to the data collection as well as to the data interpretation stage of a study.

Creswell (2014), Crano and Brewer (2002) aver that it is essential for every research study to clearly outline the research paradigm it chooses to utilise: each paradigm reflects a certain particular set of principles about the nature of truth. There are various types of research paradigm that are classified according to their different beliefs on ontology, epistemology, methodology, and axiology. Scholars concur that the various paradigms that exist in research are each made up out of unique and specific philosophical assumptions that direct and shape the researcher's actions and thinking patterns when working on a study (Maree, 2017; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016; Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013). According to MacMillan and Schumacher (2006), Lincoln and Guba (1994) and Christiansen et al. (2010) the post-positivist, the critical paradigm and the interpretivist are the popular paradigms that guide research work in education.

 Cohen et al. (2011) attest that the positivist paradigm is aligned with facts, thus it could be described as reality and fact-based. Likewise, Glesne (2014), and Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) point out that the post-positivist paradigm aspires to patterning, prediction, and objectivity thus it is a paradigm aimed at constructing new laws for new guidelines of behaviour. The critical paradigm is described as an emancipatory paradigm which is used in studies that aim to change or transform or enhance fairness and justice in a society (Cohen et al., 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 1994; Maree, 2017).

As the purpose of this study was to explore geography teachers' approaches to teaching a topic on basic research skills in the SGCSE geography curriculum, the interpretive paradigm was deemed most appropriate. Christiansen et al. (2010), and Cohen et al. (2011) posit that the main concern of the interpretive paradigm is to comprehend the human experience or the phenomenon under study through the meanings assigned by the people in the spaces in which they find themselves. In other words, the interpretivist paradigm attempts to understand and

further appreciate peoples' experiences in terms of its actors (Maree, 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016; Ritchie et al., 2013).

This suggests that the interpretivist paradigm aims to establish meaningful action that is socially constructed by the people through studying their fluid socialization patterns (Cohen et al., 2011). Fundamentally, the interpretivist paradigm relies on, and is more informed by social opinion. Maree (2017) also notes that this paradigm relies on social opinion because of the belief that knowledge is constructed by gaining meanings which people attach to their actions, through interacting with them in their own spaces. The interpretivist paradigm assumes that people may be much more readily understood by the researcher when they are engaged within their own spaces (Christiansen et al., 2010; Crano & Brewer, 2002; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016).

Essentially, since the interpretive paradigm engages people with the aim of understanding them in their context, this means that the researcher "creates an effort to get inside the person in order to appreciate them from within"(Cohen et al., 2011, p. 17). This implies that the minds of the geography teachers who were participants in this study are the original sources of the knowledge sought on the teaching approaches used in their classrooms. The minds were therefore accessed through requesting participants to write a reflective activity; as well as observing participants teaching in classrooms, and even engaging them on one-on-one semi-structured interviews. This was consequently to answer the research questions that guide this study; (What approaches are used by the teachers? How and Why are these approaches used?), so that the description and explanation of the approaches is given from the geography teachers' point of view (Maree, 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016).

The interpretivist paradigm assumes that each individual person is unique; and such uniqueness results in the creation of multiple realities on how people interpret events (Christiansen et al., 2010; Creswell, 2014). The interpretivist paradigm therefore unearthed the differences geography teachers have in enacting the curriculum in their classrooms, by obtaining an full understanding of the dynamics that influence their actions in class (De Vos et al., 2017).

It is also worth noting that the interpretivist paradigm was used in this study, being fully aware of the criticism levelled against it. Scholars such as Creswell (2014) and Cohen et al. (2011) note the subjective nature of the interpretivist paradigm as its main weakness, thus findings cannot be generalised beyond the studied situation (Maree, 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016). The aim of this study was therefore not to generalise the findings. Instead, this study aimed at gaining a deeper understanding of the approaches geography teachers use in teaching the

section of research skills; furthermore, acquiring reasons for using such approaches. The understanding of the geography teachers in the interpretive paradigm was gained through the utilisation of the qualitative research approach.

3.3   Methodological Paradigm

The methodological paradigm is generally described   as a set of plans and procedures to be carried out during research. There are three common types of methodological research paradigm; qualitative, quantitative, and mixed approaches (Creswell, 2014; Lincoln & Guba, 1994; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Merriam, 1998). This study used the qualitative paradigm which is described by de Vaus (2001, p. 47) as "one that is suitable in the investigation of socio-cultural norms that have an effect on learning and teaching behaviour, educational practices and educational outcomes".

Since this study strives to explore geography teachers' approaches to teaching, the qualitative paradigm is deemed best suited to the purpose. It has been mentioned in the earlier section that this study used the interpretivist paradigm which aimed at visiting the environment in which the participants may be found. The qualitative paradigm fitted well, as it allows a researcher to interact with participants where they are in their real-life context (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, McMillan and Schumacher (2010) theorise that the qualitative paradigm is best used when investigations on a particular phenomenon are conducted based on the interactions of the participants, particularly within areas of educational practice.

 In this study, the interactions involved face-to-face interviews, as well as observations of the participating teachers in the school at which they teach. Getting closer to the participants was in line with the qualitative paradigm as Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) note that such an action promotes better self-understanding of the participants which further increases insight of the participants' actions. Likewise, Maree (2017) notes that the qualitative paradigm seeks to understand a phenomenon such as the teaching approaches in real-life situations. In this study, this required visiting the participants' school as well as classrooms to observe the teaching approaches they use. For McMillan and Schumacher (2010),Creswell (2014) and Maree (2017), the qualitative paradigm's reliance on data that is generated in natural settings, and the form of data that is linguistic (words) rather than numerical, increasing the richness of the data, the researcher having to mine earnestly for more data.

The strength of the qualitative paradigm is that it allows the production of thick rich, data generated directly from the participants to describe the phenomenon under study MacMillan and Schumacher (2006). Furthermore, the thick, rich data is generated from the participants who are involved in qualitative studies; such persons are usually those who have experienced the phenomenon (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Leed & Ormrod, 2015). For this study, the four teachers who were participants were teaching geography Form Five (Grade 12) classes at the time when this study was conducted, thus they became sources of rich data. This approach becomes even more relevant if the researcher utilises the case study design.

3.4   Research Design or Style

Creswell (2014) and Lichtman (2006) note that, in qualitative research, there are various types of design that may be used by a researcher. These are ethnography, grounded theory, case study, phenomenology, and narrative research styles. Walter (2006) allow that design in research refers to the frame of reference a particular study chooses to follow as influenced by a paradigm chosen. This research used the case study design to comprehend the phenomenon under study.

The case study chosen for this study seemed to be the best style, as I intended to explore a case of Form Five geography teachers. Yin (2009), notes that case studies are undertaken within a specific space with the purpose of gathering rich descriptions of a phenomenon. For Creswell (2014) a case study is a logical enquiry into a phenomenon with the aim of describing and expounding on it. Likewise, Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) define the case study as an applied exploration exercise that involves investigation of a phenomenon in its actual setting. Njie and Asimiran (2014) also note that the case study is a practical enquiry into a phenomenon that is conducted in the actual place where it occurs. The case is commonly a confined entity (a person, organisation, or other social phenomenon (Merriam, 1998; Njie & Asimiran, 2014; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016).

The case study design has been selected as suitable for this study because it gave me the opportunity of positioning myself to where the participants were, so as to capture rich data; participants were able to express themselves in their own words (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014; Maree, 2017). Using the case study style further enabled me to gather rich data because it allowed the use of three data collection methods (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014; De Vos et al., 2017; Glesne, 2014; Lichtman, 2012). In this study I used a reflective activity, classroom

observation, and one-on-one semi-structured interviews, in which I was able to engage in conversation with the participants to gain a deep understanding of their meaning of the world they live in (Yin, 2011).

According to Njie and Asimiran (2014), and McMillan and Schumacher (2010), case studies aim for a deeper scrutiny of ways in which participants relate to one another in a specific space, from an interpretive perspective that arises from the phenomenon under study. The case study design has also been selected for this study because the research questions are what and how which are questions best answered by the case study design (Creswell, 2014; MacMillan & Schumacher, 2006; Maree, 2017). Yin (2009) posits that case studies may be divided into three types: descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory case studies. This is an exploratory case study, as it seeks to explore the approaches used by geography teachers as they teach a section of research skills in their classrooms. The case is the four geography teachers who were teaching Form Five (Grade 12) at the time the research was undertaken. For Yin (2009), the exploratory case study is used in exploring circumstances in which interventions being studied have no clear outcomes. When engaging participants in this study I anticipated that the participants might, at the end, provide the various approaches which they use in their teaching, therefore the exploratory case study was deemed the best.

The case study is criticised for being difficult to make generalizations from its findings (Cohen et al., 2011). However, Flyvbjerg (2006, p. 6) observes that "it is improper to conclude that one cannot make a sweeping statement from a single case…and the case study is appropriate for generalising because of its in-depth approach". For this study, the selection of one school to explore geography teachers' approaches was not a representative of all schools, for the aim of the study was not to generalise findings to a greater populace. Another limitation of the case study design, according to Cohen et al. (2011), is that case studies are not easily opened to cross-checking, thus they may be subjective, personal, and selective. However,(Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 10) argues that " case studies embrace a strong bias towards fabrication of predetermined ideas than towards substantiation". In this study I abided by trustworthiness, to ensure that all explanations were supported by evidence gathered from the field.

3.5 Sampling

Cohen et al. (2011) describes sampling as the process of selecting or drawing a few participants or subjects for a study from a larger population. Likewise, Creswell (2014)

explains sampling as a procedure used in selecting a percentage of a larger populace for the purpose of a study undertaken. Moreover, Maree (2017) states that sampling is a method used to select from an entire population a portion that will be used for a study. For Christiansen et al. (2010), sampling is all about a researcher making a decision about the settings , events or individuals to use when generating data for a study. These definitions submit that sampling infers choosing a segment of a larger group to generate data for a study. Cohen et al. (2011) contend that sampling is a vital element of any research study.

Scholars have identified that there are two forms of sampling: probability sampling, or random sampling and non-probability or purposive sampling (Crano & Brewer, 2002; Leed & Ormrod, 2015; Lichtman, 2012; Lincoln & Guba, 1994; Maree, 2017). Probability or random sampling focuses on the larger population, and equal chances are given to select a sample; whereas non-probability sampling or purposive sampling focuses on a few members of the wider population (Maree, 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016; Ritchie et al., 2013; Silverman, 2013). Since this is a qualitative study, whose key focus is on the depth and richness of data, I have used purposive sampling, as this type is usually used in qualitative studies rather than random sampling (Maree, 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016; Silverman, 2013).

3.5.1 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling, as described by Cohen et al. (2011, p. 156), is the situation " when a researcher selects the cases to be involved in the sample". The choice the researcher makes in selecting the sample is based on certain characteristics that the participants possess that make them a good source of data for a study (Glesne, 2014). MacMillan and Schumacher (2006) also state that the participants sampled purposively are those who have deep understanding and are well informed of the phenomenon under study, thus they will offer rich data to the researcher. Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2011) clarify that purposive sampling gives a researcher the right to decide which participants are to be included in the study, founded on individual features sought by the demands of the study. For this study, four geography teachers who were teaching in Form Five at the time of this research were purposively chosen. These teachers were chosen because they were the only knowledgeable people for this study: they had in-depth, rich knowledge of the phenomenon under study (Babbie & Mouton, 2012; Maree, 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016).

The fact that purposive sampling ensures that only knowledgeable people are selected to participate in a study gives great strength as a sample method chosen for use in this study (Christiansen et al., 2010; Cohen et al., 2011; MacMillan & Schumacher, 2006; Maree, 2017). The justification is that the knowledgeable sample will offer the necessary data for the study. The four teachers chosen were teaching the Form Five classes, in which the teaching approaches as the phenomenon of the study were enacted. Such participants would seem best chosen. Purposive sampling, however, has received criticism from some scholars who argue that it lacks reliability. Some participants may generalise their responses, some participants maybe biased (Glesne, 2014; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016). To avoid generalizability in this study, participants were allowed to reflect on their approaches using a reflective activity; and were able to respond to interview questions satisfactorily. The four teachers who were participants in the study are shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 - Participants' Details

Participants	Age	Teaching Experience	Gender	Qualification	Class
Mrs Hlophe	29	6 Years	Female	B. A+ P.G.C. E	4 and 5
Mrs Ngwenya	43	21 Years	Female	B. ED	4 and 5
Mrs Masuku	38	14 Years	Female	B. A	4 and 5
Mr Mamba	30	8 Years	Male	B.A + P.G.C. E	4 and 5

3.6 Data generation Methods

Cohen et al. (2011) submit that in qualitative case studies like this, a researcher can utilise a variety of methods to generate data. These may include field notes, interviews, observations, life histories, journal notes and video and audio recordings. For Creswell (2014) and De Vos et al. (2017), qualitative researchers use more than one data generation method because they aim for triangulation. Triangulation is the method used by researchers in qualitative studies to check and confirm the validity of their studies (Maree, 2017; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010;

Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016). To generate data for this study, the reflective activity, observations and semi-structured interviews were utilised, to explore geography teachers' approaches to teaching a section of research skills to the Form Five learners. First, participants were given a reflective activity and were given two weeks to respond to it. Thereafter I went to the school to conduct classroom observations, which were followed by the semi-structured one-on-one interviews.

3.6.1 Reflective activity (open- ended questionnaire)

Reflective activity as a data generation instrument has been pronounced by Cohen et al. (2011) as an instrument that expects participants in a study to complete a set of certain questions that a researcher has compiled for them to answer so as to respond to the researcher's questions pertaining to a study. The key element of reflective activity, as suggested by the definition, is that it allows the participants to freely respond to the questions about the phenomena under study in their own words. The participants reflect independently in their practice, responding to the questions given by the researcher (Cohen et al., 2011; Ovens & Tinning, 2009). Furthermore, Ovens and Tinning (2009) argue that reflective activity is the best data collection instrument capable of unpacking participants' own experiences and knowledge on a phenomenon under study.

In this study I had aimed to discover geography teachers' approaches. The reflective activity was suitable, as each teacher used the time given to individually reflect on how he or she approaches lessons in class. After giving clarity to each of the questions in the reflective activity, the teachers were given two weeks to describe their approaches in their own time, guided by the questions. Reacting to the questions in their spare time allowed the teachers freedom to think over, without being there, the approaches they use in their classrooms. The outcomes of the reflective activity were collected before we made the classroom observations.

I designed a reflective activity using the concepts discussed in the conceptual framework discussed in Chapter 2. Teachers were requested to reflect on the set of the questions discussed below, using the method I clarified to the teachers. These questions were the same as used for the one-on-one semi-structured interviews.

The first question was aimed at generating teachers' responses to why they were teaching geography, or the rationale for teaching geography. Most participants did not understand the meaning of rationale. Instead, they answered why they were teaching geography, the main reason behind their going to school to teach? Their responses offered three propositions which represented the three approaches to curriculum development. A pragmatic teacher would state that he or she is teaching for personal reasons that is to say, the teacher is passionate about the subject. A societal teacher would say that he or she was teaching for societal reasons, meaning that society or the community needs learners to learn geography; thus the teacher responds to community expectations. A technical teacher would cite content or formal reasons, meaning that it is an official requirement, or duty from the Ministry of Education to teach the learners, in other words, he or she is employed as a geography teacher therefore must fulfil the role of teacher.

The second question was about goals; establishing the aim of teaching the subject by each teacher. Teachers understood the meanings of intentions, that is to say, their intentions as they teach the learners. Some pointed out that they wished for their learners to excel in their exams. In future, learners may take geography related employment fields, such as becoming town planners, environmentalists, pilots, and geography teachers. Some of the teachers pointed out that their intention was to complete the syllabus so that learners are not disadvantaged when they sit for final external examinations. One mentioned that the intention was to help learners appreciate geography, such that they may apply its principles even in their own spaces. This teacher, for example said that she intends to instil nature conservation, water management and the importance of environmental cleanliness in the learners.

Question Three was focused on what was used for teaching geography content. Here teachers had to respond on the sources of their teaching materials. A teacher may use prescribed text books alone, which is solely technical; whilst another teacher may organise teaching material from colleagues, or from geography workshops, which is a societal source. Pragmatic teachers would organise and search for personal information to be used in class. Others pointed out that they use all three sources to develop their own material, which helps learners to understand issues during lesson enactment.

The fourth question's aim was to establish the nature of activities the teachers expose their learners to during classroom sessions. As discussed in Chapter Two, these activities would

either be learner, content or teacher centred depending on the approach a teacher uses in enacting the curriculum in class. Once a teacher spells out the activity to be used, it would then be clear which teaching approach to be applied. The teachers did not understand the use of activities in this question; instead they said that they understand teaching methods/teaching approaches.

Question Five sought to establish the teaching resources and materials that the geography teachers use in their classrooms. For the teaching resources, the teachers preferred to talk about teaching aids. They said they understand such to be items that assist them as they enact the curriculum. The question sought to discover what the geography teachers use to help them teach the subject well.
.

The sixth question expected teachers to reflect on how they perceive their role as they teach geography. In other words, the question wanted to find out from the teachers on how they make their learners construct knowledge. The three propositions that came out here were either a teacher is a researcher/enquirer, a facilitator or an instructor.

Question seven sought to find out as to how far the geography teachers involve their community or society in their teaching. It transpired from their reflections that some teachers never involve the community whilst other believe that they teach to meet the societal needs so they work together with the community and others sometimes cater for the societal needs.

The last question required teachers to display knowledge on how they assess their geography learners. Although some teachers were comfortable with the use of testing, after having clarified to them that this means the same as assessing , they came up with three propositions, which were; formative assessment (class work, quizzes, test and end of term examinations), peer assessment, and summative assessment (external examination).

The four geography teachers were persuaded to respond honestly and professionally to the questions on the reflective activity. After having sought the relevant ethical clearance, I visited the school and met with the head of the geography department. He was able to identify four geography teachers as participants in the study. Since I only wanted only teachers teaching Form Five learners, I was able to elicit three females and one male teacher as participants, even though I had initially hoped for two male participants. I met with all four teachers, informed

them about my study. I explained to them that there would be no financial benefit; they would be at liberty to withdraw anytime they wished no reason necessary for withdrawal. All four teachers agreed to participate in the study, and signed consent forms. I then elaborated on the three data generation methods.

Teachers were given the reflective activity on paper, leaving spaces for them to fill their responses. The reflective activity given to the teachers is shown as (Appendix G). Teachers were given two weeks to respond to the questions. During the second week, I called participants to remind them that I would be collecting the questionnaires at the end of the week. All the participants answered, returning the completed responses. Two participants had responded in a separate sheet of paper, complaining of lack of space for their answers. The next data generation method comprised lesson observations.

3.6.2   Lesson observations

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) attest that lesson observation is a data generation method that allows a researcher to witness and overhear exactly what is happening in the research location. For De Vos et al. (2017), lesson observation occurs when a researcher collects data by just looking, instead of asking questions. Essentially, the researcher observes and records activities taking place while the teacher is teaching in class. Furthermore, Creswell (2014), posits that through the use of observation, the researcher gains first hand data in the field. I thus I chose to use lesson observations so that I could note how the teachers use the various approaches to teaching geography in their classrooms. The lesson observation allowed me to generate '"live"' data from the field (Cohen et al., 2011). Through observing the lessons, I was able also to see the teaching resources, as well as the activities the learners were engaging in class. The lesson observations assisted to confirm the information that was given by the participants in their reflective activity responses.

An observation schedule giving the seven concepts discussed in Chapter Two was used. Each teacher was observed during a one-hour lesson. I came to the classes as an outsider who merely observed the lessons without participation or even disturbing the teachers and the learners. All I did was to record my observations on the observation schedule. This means that I was a non-participant observer in these classes (Maree, 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016). All four teachers welcomed me to their classrooms and enacted their lessons whilst I observed them. My

observation was based on answering the second operational question. The observation also contributed towards findings for the first descriptive and third philosophical questions. Lesson observations were aimed at discovering the source of content used in class (teaching material), the role of the teacher while teaching, the activities that learners engage in, the teaching resources (teaching aids) used in class as well as assessment types used. The observation schedule (Appendix H) sees these out.

There is however, the challenge of utilising observation as a data production instrument, in that a single observer only carries his or her perceptions of what happened in the classroom, which could dispute trustworthiness of the study in question (Robson, 2007). Issues of trustworthiness, will however, be dealt with later in this chapter. Furthermore, Robson (2007) argues that an observer can only capture a limited amount of observable behaviour in a class, which aspect was addressed by using an observation schedule on which were all the concepts I had set out to observe in each lesson. All these weaknesses do not defeat the fact that observation is the only data collection method that gives an accurate record of what the teachers actually did in class, rather than what they say they do. The next data generation instrument was the semi-structured one-on-one interviews.

3.6.3 One-on-one semi-structured interviews

Creswell (2014) describes the one–on-one semi-structured interview as the data generation method in which the researcher would ask questions from participants, and take down responses at the same time. In addition, Cohen et al. (2011) point out that semi-structured interviews permit the researcher to mine for more information, being able to probe for more responses and to seek clarity. This occurs while the interviewee is given freedom, thus responding appropriately to questions. Moreover, the interviewee is free to respond in the language he or she comfortable with (Creswell, 2014; Maree, 2017).

Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) argue that using semi-structured interviews is helpful to the researcher as it enables the generation of rich philosophical data; this is helpful in understanding how the participants construct knowledge within their reality. Furthermore, Maree (2017) asserts that semi-structured interviews become useful for validating data that emerge from other sources. Essentially, this study utilised the semi-structured interviews at the end to validate data produced from the reflective activity and lesson observations. The one-on-

one semi-structured interview was preferred as a data generation method for this study because it is flexible; it allowed me to obtain differing views on the approaches teachers use to teach geography. The interviews were also good and helpful in drawing out opinions and attitudes from the participating geography teachers (Cohen et al., 2011).

The fact that the questions I had prepared were open-ended allowed me to draw in-depth information about the approaches teachers used in their classrooms. The open-ended questions also allowed me flexibility to re-phrase questions so as to clarify them to the participant (Maree, 2017). This was even made easier by the fact that the HOD gave us an office in which we conducted the interviews with all four teachers, individually. For those concepts teachers did not understand, the open-ended questions and follow-ups made possible by the semi-structured questioning allowed me to simplify the question until teachers understood what was being asked of them. The one-on-one semi-structured questions are shown as (Appendix I).

However, Creswell (2014) and Robson (2007) lament that data generated from semi-structured interviews may be biased or deceptive providing only perspectives that the researcher expects. This complaint was addressed. I continuously emphasised the aim of the research to the participants, and further requested them to be honest in their responses. The use of reflective activity and classroom observations also counteracted the issue of gaining deceptive and biased data. Table 3.3 shows the data generation plan for this study.

Table 3.2 The Data collection Plan

The Data production Plan Questions	First Research Question	Second Research Question	Third Research Question
Research questions	What approaches do geography teachers use in their classrooms?	How do the geography teachers use these approaches in their classrooms?	Why do the Form Five geography teachers use the chosen approaches in teaching the section of research skills?
Why is the data being generated?	To identify teaching approaches used by geography teachers in teaching the introduction to research skills	To explore how geography teachers, use the selected approaches in teaching the introduction to research skills.	To understand the reasons for teachers' usage of particular approaches when teaching the section of research skills.

What are the research strategies?	Reflective activity	Non-participant classroom observation will be used.	One-on-one semi structured interviews.
Who (What) were the sources of data?	Four geography teachers who were currently teaching Form Five (grade 12); one male, three females. Participants were selected from the six members of the geography department; the four selected were currently teaching geography in the form five classes.	Four geography teachers who were currently teaching Form Five (grade 12). One was male and three were females. They were selected from the six members of the geography department; the four participants were currently teaching geography in the Form Five classes.	Four geography teachers who were currently teaching Form Five (grade 12); one male and three females. Teachers were selected from the six members of the geography department; the four participants were currently teaching geography in the Form Five classes.
Sound reasons for this plan to fit data collection	The reflective activity allowed participants to respond as fully as they wished to the questions freely in their own time. The lesson observations allowed the researcher to collect data as seen by the teachers live in class The semi-structured interviews were useful for drawing out attitudes and opinions of the participants and necessitated in-depth rich data to be collected. Using these three methods enabled me to understand teachers' approaches to teaching geography in Form Five. A tape-recorder was used to transcribe the participants' responses so as to ensure validity of the study.	The reflective activity allowed participants to respond as fully as they wished to the questions freely in their own time. The lesson observations allowed the researcher to collect data as seen by the teachers live in class The semi-structured interviews were useful for drawing out attitudes and opinions of the participants and necessitated in-depth rich data to be collected. Using these three methods enabled me to understand teachers' approaches to teaching geography in Form Five. A tape-recorder was used to transcribe the participants' responses so as to ensure validity of the study.	The reflective activity allowed participants to respond as fully as they wished to the questions freely in their own time. The lesson observations allowed the researcher to collect data as seen by the teachers live in class The semi-structured interviews were useful for drawing out attitudes and opinions of the participants and necessitated in-depth rich data to be collected. Using these three methods enabled me to understand teachers' approaches to teaching geography in Form Five. A tape-recorder was used to transcribe the participants' responses so as to

			ensure validity of the study.

3.7   Data Analysis

Cohen et al. (2011) describe data analysis especially in qualitative studies as a way a researcher makes logic of the data generated from participants. The researcher makes sense of the data through taking note of patterns, themes, regularities and categories. For Maree (2017) data analysis is a close systematic activity that a researcher engages upon after collecting data which separates a whole chunk of data into different smaller parts. Maree (2017 continues to clarify that the researcher takes what they have heard and seen on the field and break it down to smaller units that are meaningful. De Vos et al. (2013) see data analysis as a method that bring meaning and order to the voluminous data generated from the field. As a process that expects the researcher to work through, Maree (2017) and (Creswell, 2014) advise that data analysis should be dealt with in an organised manner.

Since this study is qualitative, it meant that the data analysis process was in interpretation of words instead of numbers (Creswell, 2014; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016). I used guided analysis as an organised manner of interpreting the data. For Maree (2017), guided analysis allows the determination of categories by the researcher before the data generation process. According to Maree (2017) the process does not end there as it also requires modification of the pre-determined categories as per the influence of data generated from the field. Khoza (2015a) also observes that the pre-determined categories can be refined when the data from the field comes up with more relevant ones. For Glesne (2014) this is an advantage of using guided analysis as it is easy to allow researchers to amend pre-determined categories in order to allow essential issues that transpire from data generation. Essentially, I used guided analysis that utilised deductive and inductive reasoning. Deductive analysis meaning categories/concepts were pre-determined or determined before interacting with the data, and inductive analysis occurred when interacting with the actual generated data (Maree, 2017; Glesne, 2014).

The themes used in this study were raised by the study's phenomenon which is teachers' approaches and they were formulated as per the research questions. The categories also were deliberated in the literature review chapter where they later formulated the conceptual framework of this study. Consequently, the themes were formulated from the three curriculum development approaches which become the ones that influence teacher's approaches. The approaches are; the technical approach which is the professional approach that expects teacher-centred approaches, the

communicative and pragmatic approaches call for learner centred-approaches although the communicative is more on social aspect and pragmatic is more personal. From the discussion on the three approaches then came concepts, and the way a geography teacher interacts with each concept determines the teaching approach s/he assumes. This made this study to come up with eight themes with each theme stating the three propositions which are the curriculum development approaches. These are shown and discussed in detail in the next chapter. To make sense of the pre-determined and collected themes I had to engage open coding.

Cohen et al. (2011) and Maree (2017) describe open coding as the process where the researcher organises data, identify patterns in the data, categorise it and allocate labels to the text to describe it. The aim of engaging in open coding was to arrange data in such a way that it is classified into categories so as establish patterns. For Maree (2017), it is vital to identify the themes and categories because then data analysis becomes possible. I therefore, in this study, using guided analysis coded the participants' responses from the semi-structured interviews, reflective activity and from observation schedule. For (McKernan, 2013) coding reactions from open ended semi-structured interviews is strenuous and laborious as the researcher deals with different views from participants. I however, could not feel these negative effects as I utilised the pre-determined concepts to guide participants' responses, thus their different views were in line with the concepts.

My first step was to transcribe the data from the interviews which was on the audio-recorder. Cohen et al. (2011) bemoans that the transcription of data consumes a lot of time for a researcher and can be costly if a researcher decides to engage a scribe. Maree (2017) however, notes that engaging a scribe may lead to incorrect interpretation of the data, so I transcribed the data on my own spare time which permitted me to familiarise myself more with it thus enabling me to easily select the relevant information I needed which would not have been the case had I used a scribe. From then, I was able to ascertain patterns of concepts that were consistent, which were discovered through carefully reading the generated data. I then matched the new concepts/themes and categorised them with the pre-determined themes for classification. This also helped to identify data that was in line with the phenomenon and study questions, so the data that was not useful was reduced.

3.8   Trustworthiness
Maree (2017) posits that trustworthiness is the way by which a researcher convinces readers of a study that its findings can be trusted and that the findings are of high quality. Maree (2017 further states that whilst in quantitative studies reliability and validity are important, for

qualitative studies like this one, researchers have to ensure trustworthiness and credibility of a study. For Cohen et al. (2011) trustworthiness in research study can be established by the following methods; collecting rich data, intensive long-term participation, intervention, respondent validation, and triangulation. Triangulation is utilised by researchers to establish validity of their studies.

Cohen et al. (2011) and Maree (2017) describe triangulation as referring to the generation of data by a researcher using a diversity of data generation methods. In this study I guaranteed trustworthiness by generating data by using three methods; reflective activity, lesson observation and semi-structured one-on-one interviews. Yin (2009) and (Creswell, 2014) identify four trustworthiness indicators that apply for qualitative studies which are; dependability, confirmability, credibility, and transferability. It is important to note that all these were taken into consideration throughout the study which helped in gathering and analysing data that would be deemed trustworthy.

3.8.1   Dependability

Maree (2017), De Vos et al. (2017)) and Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) describe dependability as the extent to which a research study is liable to come up with similar results if the study would be carried out again in the same context using same methods. For Cohen et al. (2011) dependability simply denotes to the consistency and reliability of a study. For this study, the whole research process from formulation of the problem and its research questions as well as objectives to participants' selection, data generation tools as well data analysis decisions were documented for the purposes of dependability. Glesne (2014) suggests that if a researcher wants to achieve dependability for a study, it is advisable that the researcher goes back to the participants to check if what was recorded on the field is correct, thus   I took the transcribed data to the four participating teachers to verify if what I have transcribed truly reflected what they said.

Furthermore, according to Cohen et al. (2011), dependability infers giving correct information in a study thus I used direct quotations from the four participating geography teachers to circumvent being bias and further increase validity of the data by providing direct evidence from participants. With all these I believe this study has achieved dependability.

3.8.2 Confirmability

According to Shenton (2004) confirmability refers to a researcher's concern to being objective in a study. Kumar (2012) grants that confirmability is concerned with ensuring that in a study, the researcher's personal inclination has no effect in the findings which can lead to a bias study. Confirmability then could be said to be measures that are taken to make sure that a study's findings are free from biasness. To eliminate biasness in this study, I utilised triangulation through using three data generation methods. Cohen et al. (2011) grant that triangulation is the use of multiple data generation methods in a single study, thus, I used the reflective activity, lesson observation and semi-structured one-on-one interviews. Triangulation was used in so as to confirm my findings.

The participating teachers were first given the reflective activity and the next step was doing lesson observations which were to verify if what was said in the reflective activity does happen in actual classroom practice and the one-on –one interview were meant to confirm all that was said in reflective activity and observed in the classroom. Moreover, similar questions were used in all three data generations sources for all the four teachers. This was done to eradicate biasness in the study for its confirmability. The interviews were also recorded to make sure that the data analysed was exactly what the participants said, and not a personal biased interpretation by the researcher.

3.8.3 Credibility

Silverman (2011) describes credibility as the researcher's concerns about the truthfulness of a study's findings. Shenton (2004) grants that credibility in a qualitative study like this one denotes to the degree to which its outcomes are trustworthy and believable from the participant's perspective. Furthermore, Shenton (2004) also points out that one way used to guarantee credibility in qualitative studies is by the use of credible and trustworthy data generation methods. In this study I used reflective activity, lesson observation and one-on-one semi-structured interviews to address its credibility. Moreover, from the onset and in all the data production process the four participating teachers were encouraged to be honest which also ensures credibility. I also did "member checks" to ensure credibility of this study, which is described by Rolfe (2006) as allowing participants to review their interview transcripts.

3.8.4 Transferability

Cohen et al. (2011) describe transferability as the degree by which findings and results of a study are used to generalise to a larger population. Dawson (2009) posits that in order for a researcher to ensure transferability in a study, thick descriptions of context and research methods should be done as well providing evidence of raw data to allow readers of the study to consider their interpretation. I did a thorough narration of the context of the study and further did a comprehensive explanation of the phenomenon as well as the three data generation methods were also well described, and also included direct quotations from participants in my findings to enhance transferability. However, as this study is qualitative, its main focus is not on generalisation and transferability but it was aimed at give an in-depth understanding geography teacher's approaches rather than replication of same to wider population.

3.9 Ethical Issues

According to (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014; Glesne, 2014) ethical issues in research are the principles or standards of behaviour that researchers need to consider when conducting a research study which involves human like this one. Glesne (2014) posits that ethical issues are a matter of being sensitive to the rights of human beings when conducting research, in other words ethics emphasise on human respect and dignity. Leed and Ormrod (2015) point out that for research studies that involve human beings, ethics are vital as there are the ones that provide moral guidelines for researchers to conduct their studies in a morally acceptable manner. Essentially, this study took principles of ethics into consideration. Christiansen et al. (2010) and Maree (2017) give the following as indicators of ethical issues in research; ensuring that permission is obtained, ensuring informed consent, providing confidentiality and anonymity and preventing harm to participants.

Since the study was aimed at exploring geography teachers' approaches in teaching in their classroom, the first gatekeeper I had to approach was the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) in Eswatini (Swaziland). I sought right to conduct research in the school from the MOET through a letter shown as (Appendix A). Luckily enough for me the ministry through the Director of Education granted me the permission that is shown in the letter (Appendix B). The letter from the MOET was used to seek for permission to conduct my study in the high school I had indicated. I wrote a letter to the principal seeking the right to carry out my study

in the school see (Appendix C) and the principal allowed me to carry out my study in the school through a permission letter see (Appendix D).

Furthermore, in ensuring that the right permission is obtained, I drafted the study's research proposal and submitted it to my supervisors after having been assigned to. The supervisors helped in guiding the study through corrections they made after which it was submitted to the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee for ethical clearance. The ethical clearance certificate was granted see (Appendix F). The certificate is vital for assuring that indeed all precautions were well taken to confirm that the participants' rights in the study got due respect as expected. To ensure informed consent from participants, the four participating teachers were approached and informed about the study's purpose, the data generation methods, and their role in the study was fully disclosed.

The four teachers were informed about their right to pull out from the study at time and point they wished. They were also informed that there was no financial gain through partaking in the study and that their decision to withdraw had no repercussions to them or their school. Furthermore, they were informed that there would be no monetary gain in participating in the study. After the explanation they all luckily signed the consent form, see (Appendix E). To provide confidentiality and anonymity in this study I assured the four participating teachers that I would be upheld by the ethical standards of my institution, thus I would not share any information to anybody. I also assured them that all confidential materials such as the recorded audio, transcripts and any other data will be kept safe, locked in a safe at the university and will be destroyed after five years. With regards to anonymity, participants' identities were safeguarded through the use of fictitious names. To ensure that participants would not experience any form of harm, participants were assured that the information they gave for this study would only be for this study and nothing else.

3.10   Limitations and Possible Problems

According to Creswell (2014) limitations in a research study refer to the shortcomings that a researcher may identify in conducting a study. For Maree (2017), limitations are potential weakness in a study that may be impossible to avoid which in turn may disturb the internal validity of any study. Okeke and Van Wyk (2016) note that limitations are the issues and matters that arise during a study that may be out of the researcher's control. The main limitation

of the study is that I am a geography educator and a member of the geography panel in the country, thus such positions would have resulted to the participating teachers providing me with information that is bias, or that they thought I want to hear. I overcame this by allowing the participants to freely provide their own data (reflective activity they wrote alone) without my influence. I also assured them that the study was my personal work which was not in any way linked to evaluating their school work.

As a result, the participants completed their reflective activity well and they seemed to be free and at ease during lesson observations and they each communicated freely and openly during the one-on-one semi structured interview sessions. This shows that they did not have some "pressure" of pleasing me. The other limitation attributed to this work could be the fact that it is a qualitative case study that only involved four participants. Its small scale is blamed by scholars (Cohen et al., 2011; Maree, 2017; Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016) that its findings maybe be personal and subjective thus it cannot be generalised. Essentially, the study's aim was not to simplify but to get deep understanding of teachers' approaches of teaching the research section in the form five geography syllabus. Readers however, can use this study for transferability other than generalisation.

3.11   Chapter Summary

Chapter 3 discussed in facts the research paradigm, research approach, methodological design/style, sampling and sampling methods, data generation methods used as well as data analysis. Trustworthiness (credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability), as well as ethical issues were also discussed and concluded by presenting limitations that threatened the validity of this study. The next chapter, chapter 4 focuses on data analysis which follows the data analysis procedures presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter discussed the study's research design and methodology that was employed in generating data. This chapter presents the generated data as well as findings. The findings are discussed based on the concepts that formulated the conceptual framework discussed in Chapter Two. However, some concepts which are in line with these emerged from the field; they are also discussed. The data presented and deliberated in this chapter goes towards answering the three critical questions for this study;

- What teaching approaches are used by Form Five geography teachers to teach a section of research skills in the syllabus?

- How do the Form Five geography teachers use teaching approaches in their Classrooms when teaching a section of research skills?

- Why do the Form Five geography teachers use teaching approaches in particular ways in teaching a section of research skills?

As has been indicated in previous chapters, data was generated using three data generation tools (reflective activity, lesson observation, and one-on-one semi-structured interviews). The three methods were for ensuring trustworthiness as well as minimising bias in the study, through triangulation. I have used "verbatim quotations" from interviews in order to provide proof and enhance dependability of this study through the participants' voices. Pseudonyms of participants have been used to safeguard ethical issues of confidentiality and anonymity. All four participating teachers were black Swazis (Emaswati). There are referred to as Mrs Hlophe, Mrs Ngwenya, Mrs Masuku and Mr Mamba.

4.2 Data Presentation and Discussion

This section discusses the findings of teachers' approaches to teaching research skills a section in the Form Five geography syllabus. The findings are presented in themes of the conceptual framework that guides this study. From data generation, some themes which are those the teachers are used also emerged; and they echoed those of the conceptual framework. The themes discussion reveals the approaches teachers use when teaching geography. The section discusses the themes of what was analysed from the reflective activity, lesson observation, and one-on-one semi-

structured interviews. The themes and the questions that accompanied each concept, together with the three propositions that represent the three curriculum development approaches, are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Concepts, Questions and Propositions. Source: Adapted from Khoza (2018, p. 8)

Themes	Questions	Teacher's Reflection Based on:
Reason for teaching	Why are you teaching geography/research skills?	Personal reasons (Pragmatic) Content reasons (Technical) Societal reasons (Societal)
Aims	Towards which goals/aims are you teaching geography/research skills?	Outcomes Objectives Aims
Topics	Which topics do you teach as research skills?	Personal/I choose my own Societal/Organise from colleagues/workshops Official/Provided by MOET)
Teaching Methods	Which activities are you using to teach research skills?	Learner-centred Content-centred Teacher-centred
Teaching Aids/Teaching material	What material are you using to teach geography?	Ideological ware/Personal Software/Societal Hard ware/Technical
Teacher's Role		Facilitator Researcher/Enquirer

	How do you facilitate learning in your geography classrooms?	Instructor
Community	How do you involve the community in your geography teaching?	Work together Sometimes Never
Testing	How do you assess learners in your geography lessons?	Formative Peer Summative

4.2.1   Theme 1- Reason for teaching geography

Findings that arose from the data indicated various reasons for geography teachers to teach their learners. The reason for teaching is the same as the rationale; these two words being used interchangeably in this study. Khoza (2017, 2015a) is of the view that rationale cannot be observed, thus information about rationale was generated by the reflective activity and semi-structured interviews. In both data generation methods, the response from the four teachers exhibited that they were not aware exactly of their reason for teaching the research skills section. All four teachers generally highlighted that they teach research skills because they love geography as a subject, therefore their reason was passion, which is pragmatic; and in the reflective activity some had written a number of reasons.

Three participants mentioned that they wanted their learners to pass at the end the year, as the section is compulsory for their examination. Moreover, they wished their learners to grasp this topic as it would help them continue taking geography in their future studies. This rationale has more of an affinity with the societal reasons. Further discussion during interviews also elicited the highlighting that teachers are teaching because they are employed by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET).They have to work to earn a living; otherwise, because the research skills section is a challenge they would be leaving out the section. Their responses showed that they did not understand the three reasons (personal, societal or content). Teachers lacked understanding of the rationale for teaching. Khoza (2013), fears that, if there is lack of awareness of the rationale for classroom teachers, there might be a challenge in connecting

teacher's practice and theory. Essentially, the participants' responses ranged from pragmatic, to societal, to technical reasons.

The teachers' responses;

Mrs Hlophe:

> *"Eyi...for me it's the love I have for the subject, but the way the research skills section frustrates me, you don't know how it gives me tough time, but then once I am assigned to teach it, I should make sure I don't disadvantage the learners…"*

Mrs Ngwenya:

> *"As in why I teach, it's my work, duty calls. But I teach the research skills section because I want my learners not to be disadvantaged when they get to the examination, because they should pass, I want them to pass geography, and they should like it too. But more than anything I love this subject, even when I can start afresh to choose subjects to teach, I can go for geography, but some of these topics like research skills are challenging to teach"*

Mrs Masuku:

> *"Mhhh,, eish,, ok it is because it is in the syllabus, my job is to follow and cover all that is in that syllabus and I am employed to teach geography, otherwise I wish I could jump it every time I am expected to do it, but then I can't do that because the learners should pass their examinations, I get happy if they do good in their external exams"*

Mr Mamba:

> *"This is an interesting section for me and I teach it so that my learners will enjoy doing it even when they get to college or university, I like it gives them a base unlike us who were made to do research in the university and we were blank and generally I wish they could love geography like I do as it is a basis for all sciences and opens up many opportunities for them"*

The teachers' accounts of their reason for teaching the section of research skills in the geography curriculum show that they follow the prescribed (intended) Swaziland General Certificate for Secondary Education (SGCSE) curriculum. This indicates that the SGCSE syllabus is in line with the technical approach in which there is a clear prescription for the entire

intended content to be taught (Tyler, 2013). The teachers therefore are obliged to teach the content. They all acknowledge doing this section focusing on the technical approach as being on the subject content being taught. This gives the idea that the teachers follow a prescriptive curriculum in which they teach the given curriculum cover-to-cover.

Pinar (2012) argues that, if teachers are expected to enact a prescriptive curriculum like these do, even their teaching approach will also be rigid. Furthermore, a prescriptive curriculum will also be performance driven, all the teachers stating that they wanted the learners to pass. According to Hoadley (2017), and Celia and Elize (2018), most countries' curricula are driven by performance expectations and targets set by the world bodies such as the World Bank. These bodies push countries to perform to particular standards for a country's education to be recognised globally. They set high stakes for countries' curricula which, in turn, influences countries to perform as per the expected level. Teachers then push the technical curriculum for learners to pass, since they are enacting a results-driven curriculum (Celia & Elize, 2018).

Some of the responses to the reflective activity and during interviews highlighted that three of the teachers were not comfortable with enacting the research skills section. These teachers lack content knowledge. Shulman (1986) describes content knowledge as teachers' subject knowledge as well as its structure. It is imperative that teachers be knowledgeable with subject content so as to enact it well (Shulman, 1986). Van Eeden (2018) notes that most geography teachers in many developing countries lack the content knowledge they are expected to teach to learners. This may be accredited to a numerous reasons which include curriculum changes; as most teachers teach what they also learnt during their school years. If they come across new topics, they face a challenge (Gerber et al., 1984).

When probed during interviews on the reasons for finding teaching this section a challenge, their responses were:

Mrs Hlophe:

> "I had a bad experience in my school years, my geography teacher did not teach us this topic, and I think you are aware that what we do now here in classes is influenced by how our teachers also taught us. From my school I just had a negative attitude towards this topic".

Mrs Ngwenya:

"eish, really I don't know where to start, I think my problem is that I have been teaching geography for a long time. I had enjoyed teaching the previous curriculum (GCE Level),it did not have all this new sections, now when this SGCSE was introduces we had to switch to this new topics which we were not even workshopped adequately as we had a single day workshop and even the TOT's in those workshops were not clear. That is my main challenge with this topic, I like it but since I did not even do it during my school time, it gives me challenges"

Mrs Masuku:

"It is a new topic which was not clearly introduced to us, so one is still not confident in teaching it as it requires the learners to do more application and critical thinking which I feel I lack the skill of making them reach there".

Mr Mamba said:

"The teaching of research skills does give me a challenge in the sense that it expects the learners to engage themselves in some application which takes time for me to channel and propel them to reach that level. I still run short of the proper knowledge of how best and quick I can be able to push them to reach the stage of making conclusions in any given research problem. It's a pity that even in our workshops those who treat this topic fail to give us a satisfactory direction on how best to teach this part. The subject inspectors who are to help us are very few, like there has been one inspector for the whole country for the past three years, and presently the subject do not have an inspectors who would be maybe helping us in this situation. Presently it's a try and error, but then one is happy because some make it in the final examinations"

The teachers' narrations show that they do lack the content knowledge of the research skills section. Moreover, the curriculum does not stipulate how the teachers should approach topics contained, nor how to teach them. This implies that the geography teachers are provided with specific content to be taught; and the decision on how to approach the content in teaching it lies with each individual teacher (Stenhouse, 2005). The fact that the syllabus allows an individual teacher to decide on how to approach the stipulated content implies that enactors are compelled by personal/pragmatic reasons to enact the subject. For Freire (1994) and Khoza (2015b) the pragmatic/ personal rationale is the most important requirement as it engages teachers to think critically about the teaching of the research skills section and furthermore

drives them to have the passion which most of them indicated they generally possess. However, the limitation is the lack of content knowledge and best teaching approach for teaching the section.

The findings have also indicated that teachers' agency has become an essential element in the teaching of research skills, in the sense that the teachers highlighted challenges with their content knowledge in teaching this section. Nevertheless, while shouldering such constraints, they continued to teach the learners. The pedagogical content knowledge was cited as a challenge; and the workshops or subject inspectors did not help. All the participants lamented that the geography inspectorate which is in charge of the teaching of the subject in schools did not run beneficial workshops when the curriculum was introduced. The teachers highlighted that, to make matters worse, for the past three years, there has been only one geography inspector in the country. When asked about annual workshops, the teachers said that even in the workshops those colleagues who treat the topic fail to meet their expected demands. In the midst of these problems, the teachers relied on teachers' agency, which is the capacity of the teachers to teach the section even under the present problematic situations (Priestly, 2011). Undoubtedly, the teacher's agency has an influence on the approach the teachers use in the classrooms.

For Biesta, Priestley and Robinson (2015), the agency of teachers includes professional knowledge and skills that the teachers apply in the interests of assisting learners to pass. Campbell (2012) notes that teacher's agency also involves a high level of commitment that teachers apply in defeating environmental and social constraints that affect their work. Agency is the interplay of individual teacher's efforts, therefore it is dependent on personal qualities (Gerber et al., 1984; Priestley, 2011). The agential capacity of the geography teachers may be said to be pragmatic. It becomes each teacher's individual effort to teach the learners despite prevailing constraints. As attributed to some of their responses, teachers have seen it work for them previously as they claim to have learners who have managed to obtain good grades in the subject.

Besides the teacher's agency, Freire (1970) refers to the teachers' commitment and love for the job which some describe as 'radical love'. When the teachers put to practice radical love in their classes, there is an approach to teaching that they will utilise. Kincheloe (2012) describes the radical love concept as the situation in which a classroom teacher is dedicated to the work, the teacher wants the best from the learners, the teacher is concerned about the learners and

lastly goes beyond the call of duty for the learners. Judging from the constraints the teacher highlighted, it is suggested that they then practice radical love. This was even evident when one pointed out that she sometimes has to come on Saturdays to teach her learners because of the long syllabus which she cannot finish if she cannot sacrifice her weekend.

The geography teachers also highlighted societal reasons. They pointed out the desire to have their learners excel in external examinations so that they may proceed to tertiary institutions. This implies that the teachers wish learners to have a better life. For Campbell (2012) and Stenhouse (2005), teachers assume the position of social agents when they execute their work to transform the social lives of learners. These teachers are therefore social agents as they are all geared to address societal/community needs through their teaching. They suggest that this will lead to the betterment of the lives of others in the community. Moreover, teachers themselves said that they teach because of societal needs of employment.

Yet another aspect which the findings uncovered is the issue of teachers' experience. Mrs Ngwenya, especially, mentioned that she has a long experience as a geography teacher; she has taught the GCE syllabus. When the SGCSE syllabus was rolled out, she says she had to "switch" to meet the teaching expectations of the new syllabus. The demands of the new syllabus with its new topics that did not feature in the old one were different. Celia and Elize (2018) posit that, usually a new syllabus comes with new teaching approaches that teachers are expected to use. Chisholm and Leyendecker (2008) argue that most countries' teachers fail to embrace the new changes and continue to treat the new syllabus like the old one as teachers are mostly resistant to change. The teaching approach used in teaching the research skills will be influenced by her previos teaching experience. ANgwenyaglu, Alimbekov, Alkharusi, Alzand, Anderson, Babalola and Clement (2012) suggest that experienced teachers require in-service training to help them remove old styles of teaching and accommodate change.

Generally, the findings on the reasons for teachers teaching research skills show that teachers were not aware of the personal, societal, and pragmatic reasons, as such. During the interviews, it is when one would realise how the teachers thought of the reasons of teaching the research skills. It is vital that teachers are aware of the reason for teaching. This can encourage teachers to question the curriculum ideology in place, so as to realise areas that need improvement, such as the general lack of content knowledge and approach to teaching research skills to the Form Five learners. The next concept is the goal/aim of teaching geography.

4.2.2 Theme Two- aims of teaching.

The teachers' responses to their reflective activity indicated that they taught without defining the aims, objectives, and outcomes for their teaching. Teachers lacked knowledge on the difference between outcomes, aims, and objectives. Even during the interview sessions, the four teachers confirmed that they had no idea of the difference these three designations. When probed further on the effect of their ignorance on their teaching, they said they were not aware that such has any bearing in their practice and enactment of the SGCSE curriculum. For Khoza (2013) and U. J. J. Hoadley (2017), it is essential that enactors know the aims, objectives, and outcomes, so that they may have a full understanding of the curriculum they are enacting. Aims are the long-term goals which identify the knowledge and skills learners have to possess upon completing a curriculum. The SGCSE curriculum is generally aimed at equipping learners to meet changing needs of the nation, and attain internationally acceptable standards.The curriculum is driven by societal needs which should be considered by a geography teacher when enacting the curriculum.

Objectives are generally short-term goals that portray precise statements of the teacher's purposes in class. On the other hand ,outcomes refer to what learners are anticipated to understand, know and further be able to demonstrate upon completion of the syllabus (Celia & Elize, 2018; U. J. J. Hoadley, 2017; Kennedy, 2006). It should be noted that the SGCSE geography syllabus has laid down general objectives and specific objectives for each topic for the teacher's use. Thus, the participants have only said that they are used to objectives as they always write about them in their daily preparation books; and are not aware of the specific outcomes. Teachers do not ask themselves the purpose of the content knowledge they are teaching to learners, so that they avoid simply transmitting such without reasoning (Jansen, 2001). If imparting geography knowledge without considering the objectives, aims, and outcomes, the geography teachers are not aware which best approach to use when teaching and are not aware of the skills they are developing in the learners.

The teachers in their own words said:

Mrs Hlophe:

> *"Although I am not aware what you want me to say about this three as I have never had a chance of differentiating them, but I teach because I want to instil nature conservation in my learners, they should love the nature and further more pass my*

subject. The objectives I don't worry about them because the syllabus provided us with them so my aim is to teach it as it is".

Mrs Ngwenya:

"Eyi, how is this question different from the first one? Because for me the three mean one and the same thing, my aim is to produce good results using the guiding objectives in our syllabus, eish, as for the outcome I seriously have no idea what you expect I can say".

Mrs Masuku:

"My aim is to make the learners understand topics that I teach so that they have no problem in examinations, I don't know whether you get me well, I aim for good results all the time. At the same time, I make sure learners are aware of their geographic surroundings like keeping their class clean, switching off lights during the day and closing leaking taps. The objectives are provided for in the syllabus, I make sure to fulfil those"

Mr Mamba:

"Iyoo is there a difference between these three? Because me I teach in such a way that learners pass so that they may enjoy the possible careers that come with learning geography such as being a town planner, environmentalists etc, so when I get to class, I use the objectives in the syllabus to push towards making them pass.

From all the participants, it was obvious that they simply used the objectives in their syllabus, seemingly enjoying that it has made their work easier. No one was clear about aims and outcomes of the syllabus. This is despite the fact that the general aim of the curriculum, which is in accordance with the National Education Policy Statement on Education (2009), states clearly that students are equipped to meet varying needs of the society/community. For Van Eeden (2018) the issue of teachers not being aware of key pedagogical principles such as aims, objectives, and outcomes has been a constant concern in times of curriculum changes in many countries. This is despite the fact that it has been realised that for geographical knowledge to be effectively transmitted to learners, the teachers should be aware of the subject's aims, objectives, and outcomes (Van Eeden, 2018, p. 281).

Stenhouse (2005) advises that curriculum enactors should use approaches to teaching that are in line with the societal needs where the learners live, for what learners' experience in the classrooms is practised outside school boundaries. Likewise, Freire (1994) argues for a type of education that will equip each individual learner in class to be relevant in his/her community. Education should be useful in liberating oppressed mind sets of learners. Béneker, Palings and Krause (2015) point out that it is vital for geography teachers to possess their own curricular vision, which will allow them to understand the educational purposes of the curriculum they are enacting. This advocates that teachers have to be aware of the aims, objectives, and outcomes of the curriculum which they enact, because from that understanding they will teach the correct content to the learners, content being discussed next

4.2.3   Theme Three- content taught.

The data generated from the reflective activity, lesson observation and interviews pointed out that the teachers were very clear about the content or topics to cover for the research skills section. They elaborated that the topics to be covered are clearly laid down for them in the syllabus. The SGCSE curriculum is technical, as it has arranged the topics for the teachers to cover vertically (Bernstein, 1999). On their reflective activities teachers indicated that the topics they cover for this section are well laid down in the syllabus. Even when observing them in class, none amongst the four displayed a limitation of the topic to cover in that lesson. It was in the interview sessions, when probed on the nature of knowledge, that they confessed that there were not aware of personal and societal content knowledge. The responses to the reflective activity were:

Mrs Hlophe: "*I teach the topics as they have been indicated in our syllabus*".

Mrs Ngwenya: *"Our job was made easy, I do not struggle with topics to cover, it is all in the syllabus".*

Mrs Masuku: *"The topics are well stipulated in the syllabus; I have no problem with the content".*

Mr Mamba: "*Our syllabus has tabled all the topics so well*".

In the one-on-one semi-structured interview sessions, I asked participants to elaborate on the kind of content or knowledge they teach the learners. None of the four teachers were aware of the propositions of personal, societal and official content. Their summarised response was that

all they know was they are teaching geographic content and not aware that the content or topics may be divided into these three propositions. This suggests a limitation on the part of the teachers as enactors of the curriculum. Shulman (1987) posits that content knowledge includes some skills teachers should help learners to benefit by; content knowledge does not cover topics. Furthermore, Hoadley (2017) concurs that teachers should possess enough knowledge to be confident in passing it on well to learners. For Young (2007), it is unfair for learners to be exposed only to the "powerful knowledge" (topics in the syllabus).

Learners should also be exposed to everyday knowledge, which is knowledge they obtain from their society, which will help them to become critical thinkers (Young, 2007). The teachers therefore had to be aware of the personal and societal knowledge, instead of relying only on technical knowledge given as topics of the syllabus. The findings in the first theme did arrive at the limitation on content knowledge on the part of teachers. The fact that, even in this theme the teachers pointed it out, suggests that it is a cause for concern. Young (2007) mentions that teachers are expected to possess enough knowledge for their classes. As well as having the content and skills, teachers must be able to transmit such content well to learners.

Furthermore, according to Hoadley (2017), teachers must have full comprehension of the content of the subjects they teach. This implies that teachers should make decisions on the content they teach, so that they can source information which can place them in a better position to understand what they teach. The research skills section requires knowledgeable as well as competent teachers who are ready to engage with controversial discussions with learners, so as to give them the interrogative mind set the topic requires (Van Eeden, 2018). This implies s that teachers must not rely on the syllabus alone; they need also to use other content sources. Fisher and Binns (2016) note that most geography teachers experience challenges in obtaining content knowledge because they were trained to be technicians rather than being researchers. Thus, teachers are comfortable with what they are given, even if a topic like research skills requires them to be researchers. The next concept will discuss teaching methods/activities teachers use.

4.2.4   Theme Four- Teaching methods or activities.

For this theme, teachers were expected to explain each teaching method or activity identified as; teacher-centred, content-centred or learner-centred activities. Findings indicated that the teachers were not aware of the differences between the various activities they engage in with the learners in their classrooms. The teachers also had no idea of which activities they should use in the syllabus and section for this study. Teacher-centred activities refer to the situation in which classroom learning entirely depends on the teacher. The geography teachers relay content knowledge to minds of passive learners who are seen as "buckets" to be filled by the teacher (Gerber et al., 1984, p. 11). The content-centred activities occur when the teacher covers and transmits only factual knowledge from the prescribed syllabus to the learners.

The teachers teach the subject matter as given by curriculum designers (Hoadley, 2017). As with the teacher-centred activities, the content-centred activities imply that learners are passive receivers of the powerful information that teachers disseminate to them. On the other hand, learner-centred activities are those in which the learners play the main role in their learning. These methods include pair work, group work, and presentations. Here teachers plan activities that allow learners to make knowledge in their own individual ways. The teachers take into consideration each individual learner's interests and needs in these activities (Hoadley, 2017; Pinar, 2012). From data generated in this study, all teachers stated that they use teacher-centred activities, content-centred activities as well as learner-centred activities.

Mrs Hlophe shared the following on her teaching activities:

> *"As I did mention earlier on, my main concern is that my learners should pass at the end of the year and that will be made possible by me pushing the long syllabus. I remember in my case at school, our teacher could not cover some of the topics and I think it affected us when we wrote our final examinations. I push the syllabus through using question and answer and group discussions and presentations sometimes. I do give my learners some time to discuss but I time them because these learner-centred approaches waste a lot of time. To save time I then teach most of the time and ask them questions either orally or written work".*

The lesson observation on Mrs Hlophe elicited more or less what she suggested. The teacher introduced her topic by asking some questions. Thereafter, she instructed learners to sit in groups of four and gave each group a question. After five minutes, each group representative presented responses and thereafter it was Mrs Hlophe who taught for the rest of the time. She

did ask some questions while teaching and at the end summarised by giving learners a written exercise. Just as she said, she gave the learners a few minutes for discussion and presentations. When probing her further in the interview she pointed out:

> "*the problem we have is that our syllabus is long, so if one gives the learners a lot of time in doing the work, the delay and we lose time in the process, at the end I will be blamed for failing them*".

The teacher is more concerned with covering the content which she sees the teacher-centred activities, as the best approach to save her time.

Mrs Ngwenya shared her experiences:

> "*I know the syllabus expects us to use learner-centred activities. That is what they told us when the GCE syllabus was scrapped-off. In as much as I use the group work, presentations as well as trips which however the administration has stopped in the past year, I also push the syllabus which I do best when I teach. The discussion and group work is a problem in my class because it is too big so the learners get time to make noise and the class gets too disorganised. Moreover, in the groups a few learners are active, the rest get time to play. I end up giving them home works and it has helped me to move fast in covering the syllabus*".

In the lesson observation, I also discovered that the teacher has a large number of learners in her class. She did not do group discussion this day, but there was a lot of brainstorming and learners were responding to questions raised by the teacher. Mainly, the lesson was content- and teacher-centred. In the interview, when I asked her whether the activities she uses do help her learners to reach the application and analysis (critical thinking) as the section expects, she said:

> "Yes, *I think so because when I give them questions most of them get them correctly. But I think what helps me is that I sometimes take them out to do field work, like they then get hands on in some of the issues which I have used in the previous years and it has helped me a lot as they pass at the end*".

She is the only one who brought up the issue of field work which, is supported by geographers. Field work helps improve learners' critical thinking skills as it allows them to see the reality of the geographical phenomena (Fisher & Binns, 2016; Gerber et al., 1984; Van Eeden, 2018).

According to Taber (2012), the field trip or educational excursion the teacher talked about is in line with constructivism which enables learners to construct their own individual meaning in a flexible, different learning environment. Fuller, Rawlinson and Bevan (2000) grant that learners enjoy field work as they are able to learn via first-hand experience, which greatly enhances learners' understanding. For a topic such as the research section, field trips can assist learners to understand what would have been abstract information easier and faster when it is displayed in the opent (Fisher & Binns, 2016). Topics in the research section like traffic counts, measuring river depth, velocity and weather recording, do require learners to go out to the field and experience the reality so that they become able to construct new knowledge for themselves.

Mrs Masuku had the following to say:

> *"I use all the activities in my class almost all the time. I follow the curriculum to give them the content as prescribed to us but as I teach the research section, I am aware that the questions in their examination are not the normal recall ones, so I make sure that in this section I involve and allow them to speak. I do this by assigning group tasks and presentations in discussions are done in class. I sometimes group them in pairs to reduce noise and sometimes I also make them to debate on the benefits and disadvantages of using for example certain sampling methods. I get excited when I see them discussing, even those who struggle and I give them some help. The syllabus is long, but I try to finish it".*

During observations, I did witness what she talked about. She came to class with pamphlets and learners were instructed to sit in pairs. The learners were tasked with describing what they read in their pamphlets, and how that was a problem for the environment. The learners, after about eight minutes, started to describe as per instruction. At the end the teacher summarised the topic, informing learners to go read a certain page in their prescribed books for the next day's lesson. When I asked her how this does not delay her much, and how she succeeds in finishing the long syllabus, her response was:

> *"I think it's a matter of planning and drawing the ground rules with the learners at the beginning of the year. I also discuss the syllabus with them and try to explain to them that they are expected to be active learners as questions in this section are not recall but require them to apply knowledge, the discussions and presentations therefore are where they practice those skills".*

Mr Mamba had this to say about activities of teaching the research skills section;

> *"I usually begin my lessons by asking my learners a few oral questions based on previous day's lesson. It then depends, sometimes I start by introducing the topic or sometimes I bring any teaching aid that we will use together with them to introduce a topic. I do all this with the topic in mind because what is important is to teach what is in the syllabus, so in all we do in class we push the syllabus. I personally believe in involving learners in my class because there are the ones who will write the examinations, they should be able to express themselves because it is their thinking that is required not mine. My teaching therefore uses a number of activities because the learners should be busy otherwise, they will sleep in class".*

In his class when I went for observation Mr Masuku had a slide presentation for his learners. He said;

> *"I bring this projector and computer to my class most of the time because I have realised that it helps me well when I need the class to discuss on something research related using it. Like today I wanted us to together study the urban morphology, so the images I had helped them to discuss whiles seeing what we are talking about".*

The section on research skills which the study was focused on, expects teachers to engage their learners in such a way that they operate above the level of knowledge (define, list, state, recall); but instead be pushed to reach the level of analysis, synthesis and evaluation in terms of the Bloom's taxonomy of mental processes (Bloom, 1956). The section requires learners to develop certain skills such as data collection, hypothesis formulation, and testing, as well as data interpretation and evaluation (Examinations Council of Swaziland, 2018). Geography teachers should select and further employ activities that will be in line with the content aims to push learners to a level from which they are able to evaluate or make judgements about knowledge. This requires an individual learner's strength of thought, which should be groomed by the activities the teacher engages in with the learners in class.

The approach or approaches geography teachers choose to utilise in teaching research skills is portrayed in the type of activities the teacher engages the learners in with the classroom. For Van Eeden (2018) the activities a geography teacher engages the learners in are crucial to the teaching process, as they greatly influence the learning experience for learners. The geography syllabus, as alluded to earlier on, spells out to the teachers the topics or content the teacher has

to cover. It does not tell with any certainty the activities or approach that should be adopted in teaching the topics (Gerber et al., 1984). It is expected that teachers utilise their pedagogical content knowledge to offer activities that will assist the learners to achieve expected goals (Bernstein, 1999).

Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is described by Shulman (1986) as the form of knowledge a teacher should possess which is beyond knowing the subject matter per se, but reaches to the level of using the subject content to teach others. This implies that PCK includes how a geography teacher chooses and uses examples and illustrations during teaching and learning. Moreover, PCK includes a teacher's demonstration of an understanding of how to teach learners in such a way that they will understand. The teacher will therefore need to think of activities that will assist learners to understand a lesson taught, with the selecting of activities from the PCK. The teacher's choice of activities should align with the goals and content of that particular lesson (Khoza, 2015b). The Swaziland National Policy Statement on Education (2009), however, does state that the SGCSE curriculum expects a shift from classroom activities that do not involve learners, adopting those activities that take into account learners' needs and interests.

All the teachers used the prescribed content to teach in their classrooms and they all engaged learners in some learner-centred activities although some blamed the learner-centred activities for being time wasting and too noisy because of large class sizes. The most common activity was question and answer, which saw the teachers being the ones taking more time in sessions. On the argument of the class size, Van Eeden (2018), notes that the classroom appearance, size of the class (total number of learners in a classroom), as well as learning resources, have a substantial influence on the teacher's choice of learning activities to utilise. The expectation of the learners' understanding of the content area, however, should be always kept in mind by teachers when engaging learning in various activities in their geography lessons. The aim of the activity is to help learners grasp new knowledge at the expected level (Gerber et al., 1984). The next discussion is on the theme of teaching resources.

4.2.5 Theme five- teaching aids/ materials or resources.
Findings in this study revealed that the four geography teachers utilised almost the same teaching materials or resources. As with the teaching activities, the common resources used were hard-ware and software, and the teachers were not really aware of themselves as important resources (ideological-ware). The teacher-centred approach was thus mainly used. The findings

generated were that the most commonly used resources were chalkboard, textbook, instruments, and maps. Two teachers, in their responses to the reflective activity, cited the use of laptop, power point, newspapers and pamphlets. All four teachers concurred that resources are crucial in geography teaching as their use triggers the learners' thinking, and encourages learners to discuss what they see in a visual resource, for example. For those teachers who have an issue of completing the syllabus on time, they did mention that sometimes they deliberately leave out certain resources; such resources delay the lesson as learners tend to take a long time looking at the resource.

According to Van Eeden (2018), geography teaching requires the use of resources or teaching materials to enhance teaching and learning. Zondo (2000) notes that the use of resources in geography classes makes learning interesting and stimulating to learners. This increases their level of understanding and further ignites their curiosity. Gerber et al. (1984) argue that a geography teacher cannot do justice when teaching without using a resource. Thijis and van den Akker (2010) describes a resource in teaching as any instrument or tool or a person that is used to promote learning. Khoza (2013) and Samuel (2008) view teachers as essential resources in teaching, teachers helping learners to acquire knowledge. The teacher as a resource plans in his or her mind the content, resources, and teaching activities that will be suitable for learners.

As with the other themes, in order to ascertain the approach of teaching research skills, the resources or teaching materials were separated into three groups. There were the hard ware resources, the tangible resources such as chalkboard, textbook, instruments (for instance thermometers), laptop, newspapers, pamphlets, topographical maps, and periodicals. The hard ware is usually used by a teacher to transmit factual information, thus it is associated with the technical approach. Software resources are those made for displaying information using hard ware, such as Power Point slides. Such aids are socially oriented, thus associated with the communicative approach. Lastly was the ideological-ware which refers to the mind of the teacher as he or she plans the whole enactment process for a lesson. The teacher plans how to reach each individual learner in class for the purpose of enhancing understanding. Such planning is associated with the pragmatic approach.

Mrs Hlophe had the following to say about resources:

> *"I always use the prescribed text book and luckily enough the school uses rental system, all learners have the books. If we are learning bout climatology, I do bring some of the*

instruments as we have them in the department for them to see. But sometimes when I bring the instrument the learners then take a long time describing it which makes me to lose time. Rarely, I bring some newspaper cuttings especially when we look at issues like flood which we do not experience in Swaziland".

When I probed her further in the interview session that the learners maybe enjoy the resource, and that is why they take time in describing it, she said:

"Ya I see that they enjoy it like one time I brought a Six's thermometer and passed it around the whole class to see, then they started to have many questions around it, which I think we're wasting my time. I realised late that maybe there were learning but then I cannot be delayed with that as there are many topics to cover for the syllabus is just too long".

For my observation of the lesson, the teacher had brought her textbook and a map which she pinned on the board for learners to see. The teacher directed learners to a certain page of the textbook and asked learners to describe the photograph shown there; further more to compare it with the map she had pinned on the board. That took about twenty minutes. Thereafter it was the chalkboard that was used as she continued with her lesson. The teacher would occasionally refer her class to the page number in the book where all that she was explaining per chalkboard was found.

Mrs Ngwenya narrated her use of resources the following way:

"I am not used to the ideological ware, and I don't know how to use it. The hardware resources are what I used daily in my class. There is no way I can teach without the prescribed text book and the learners have theirs too. At times the prescribed text is shallow in a topic, I prepare additional material for them and write it down in the chalkboard for all to benefit. I have never used the PowerPoint, I cannot use the computer, but I wish to learn. We also have map and instruments s in the department if a topic requires, I bring those to my class. So far, I have no challenges with the resources I use, they help my class".

In the class observation session, the teacher had brought the textbook. And after writing the topic of the day in the chalkboard, she asked the learners questions which they had been given the previous lesson: the learners responded. The teacher then instructed learners to open the book. The teacher then continued writing on the chalkboard as learners jotted down notes.

When I questioned her during the interview concerning the value of using other resources, the teacher replied:

> *"Like I said before, my big class will make too much noise if I bring other resources that will make them discuss. I know from training that the resources or teaching aids help our learners but practically it is impossible sometimes. In a way maybe I disadvantage my learners but in the previous year's using the same resources I have got some good results".*

She brought the issue of the class size again as a factor that disadvantages her in using software resources. She was not aware that it all depends on her as ideological ware to plan and manage the class in such a way that will make the use of a resource a benefit to the learners. The teacher did, however, mention that, if she can learn how to use a computer, she would use software resources in her class.

Mrs Masuku on resources expressed:

> *"I use the hard ware resources more than the software ones. There is no laptop in our department, we only have the projector, since I don't have as well, and I borrow it when I have to do slide presentation. Most of the time I depend on the text book although I do not follow it as is because it is shallow sometimes and had outdated statistics. Most of the time I bring pamphlets, newspapers for my class. I don't know about the ideological ware. The use of instruments is also common in my class and it helps every time I bring a resource for the learners will talk about what they see. I have seen its advantage also in making the learners alert. Most of the time they discuss and the representative of a group comes forward to use the chalkboard to write contributions from the group".*

Just as she narrated, observations also reiterated that she had brought pamphlets which were distributed amongst groups in class. The learners used the pamphlets together with their book to prepare their presentations. Mrs Masuku though was not aware that she had used the ideological-ware (herself) to organise the pamphlets for the class. She mentioned that she has even encouraged her learners to bring to class any material they see which would be helpful. She said learners come with a great deal of such material which she photocopies and pins on the class bulletin board. Teacher has seen this as one way of making learners search for information for themselves.

Mr Mamba said:

> "*I don't want to lie, I only use hard ware and software, and I have no idea of the ideological ware. I use the chalkboard and the prescribed book, but I always like to bring with me a different teaching aid every time I come for class. I bring the maps and instruments we have from department and I also download some material for my classes. If the lesson allows, I also prepare power point slide presentations. I always bring different teaching aids because I noticed that the learners become more attentive when I bring something to class. I like the PowerPoint presentations because they allow me to show them some pictures, I download from the internet which helps in their critical thinking. Most of the time if we discuss about something that they see, almost all of them get involved in the discussions.*"

When I observed his class, Mr Masuku offered a power point presentation. He used the presentation for the classroom discussion. I noticed that the learners were all glued to the Power Point presentation, and they all had something to say. He told the class to read from certain page numbers in their books for the next lesson. This shows that he used a mixture of hard ware and software.

The use of resources by the teachers shed some light on the teaching approach they utilise in enacting the research skills section. The fact that they all use the chalkboard shows that they are using the technical approach, which mainly engages the chalk-talk, textbook teaching, which is basically teacher-centred (Gerber et al., 1984). The fact that some of the teachers use software suggests that they use the communicative approach. It was obvious that the teachers did not consider their ideologies, the pragmatic approach which would be seen in how they select the resources for their learners. The decision which the teachers make always has a bearing on the approach or role which they are expected to play in their classrooms. The next discussion is on the roles teachers' play in class as they teach research skills.

4.2.6   Theme six- role of teachers

For this study, teachers were made to discuss three roles: facilitator, researcher, and instructor. Teachers being facilitators implies that the teachers allow learners to become independent thinkers in class, making them more responsible for their own learning (Drobot, 2019). The facilitating teacher assists and encourages learners to develop their skills since the teacher is

not the only one who holds knowledge. Furthermore, Arman (2018) points out that if a teacher is a facilitator, the learners take the central role during their learning by doing a variety of tasks as groups or pairs. Furthermore, learners are free to make comments to improve each other's work. For Drobot (2019), if teachers are facilitators in class, they will do less talking and much of the talking will be done by learners. As the learners talk, they gain courage to argue out their views and express themselves freely. Likewise, Hedeen (2005) posits that being a facilitator represents the distribution of authority and obligation in a classroom where "the teachers consciously remove themselves from the centre of the room and allow learners the freedom to exercise their will and participate in activities of learning that address their interests. Furthermore the obligation of learning becomes a full responsibility of the learners."(Hedeen, 2005, p. 188).

According to Arman (2018), a teacher in a classroom plays a number of roles. These roles range from being a manager, instructor, coach, mediator, facilitator, researcher, to many others. It should be noted that all these roles are for one purpose, to assist learners during their learning process to reach a higher level of knowledge and skills on a particular discipline. Thijis and van den Akker (2009) also insists that the roles teachers undertake must be to facilitate learning. This implies that it is imperative for teachers to be aware of their roles when enacting a curriculum. It is equally imperative to note that the SGCSE geography syllabus does not specify the roles geography teachers are expected to undertake when teaching this subject. Such a situation leaves the teachers with a choice of suitable roles, which might compromise policy and practice expectations.

Teachers as researchers or enquirers, refer to the situation in which the teacher is enquiry oriented, that is, the teacher asks learners and him or herself many questions while teaching which allows for creating a dialogical classroom (Agnello, 2016). The teacher as a researcher is a critical thinker who is democratic and allows self-directed learning in the classroom (Freire, 1994). Furthermore, Mertler (2016) notes that a researcher-teacher is intrigued by what learners do and say in class. The researcher will be curious about the response of learners; thus may ponder on better ways of teaching the lesson at hand. As an action researcher, the teacher will then choose to do things differently from a reflective practitioner. Teachers as researchers also listen to the voice of learners; and further allow them to listen to one other's voices, thus in such a classroom, every individual's contribution is valued (Mertler, 2016). Heeden, (2005),

points out that in such a classroom, learners listen and respect one another. They think more creatively, and arrive at solutions together with their researcher teacher.

Teachers, as instructors, are grounded in the concept that teachers are the most important individuals in classrooms, carrying knowledge that has to poured into learners (Arman, 2018). This is the role of a teacher in which the minds of learners are viewed as empty containers that the teacher is tasked to pour information into. Freire (1994) sees this role as the banking notion, in which "it is the teacher who knows and the learners who are thought, it is the teacher who speaks and the learners who quietly listen, it is the teacher who makes and prescribes his choice and the learners who follow his prescription" (Freire, 1994, p. 14). The teacher assumes the role of being dominative, directive, and fully rooted by authority becoming in charge of learning (Arman, 2018).

From the findings, participants presented a homogenous range of responses on how they facilitate the research skills section in their classes. From the reflective activity, all four teachers indicated that they mostly introduce their lessons by asking learners questions from the previous lesson; and then from there they start to teach. Mrs Hlophe had the following to say in her reflective activity:

> *"This question for me is similar to the previous one on activities, but then let me respond by saying that I give questions in the beginning of the lesson based on the previous day's lesson and then I proceed with my lesson and most of the time I teach them since I have to push the syllabus".*

Mrs Ngwenya: "*I waste no time when I facilitate in my class, usually I just ask a few questions on the last lesson we had and from there I continue teaching them".*

Mrs Masuku: *"I facilitate using many ways, but mainly its question and answer and then from then depending on the topic we do discussions presentations and other facilitation skills I do is allowing them to work in pairs and I move around them to ascertain if they are working or playing".*

Mrs Masuku responded in his reflective activity: "*I believe by facilitation it means how I teach them. I use the questions and answer and probing them if they do not understand. We also do group work and I sometimes bring slide presentations and we discus as a class".*

Findings from observations reiterated findings from the reflective activity. Mrs Hlophe had three oral questions she gave to her class. Learners raised hands and the three that she pointed to were able to give correct answers. She then wasted no time and continued to deliver the lesson of the day, the teacher continued to talk, offering a few questions which were testing for understanding. All in all, the teacher did the talking for the duration of the class. Even when she asked the learners towards the end of the lesson whether there were any questions, the learners kept quiet. The teacher gave them a task to read a certain page number for the next day's lesson. I had almost the same experience in the large class size of Mrs Ngwenya, who also did the talking for the entire class duration. There was one student who asked for clarity. The teacher asked other learners to respond to the question. Two learners responded correctly. The teacher commented on their answers and continued with her lesson.

With Mrs Masuku and Mr Mamba it was a little bit different. Mrs Masuku had brought some pamphlets to class. The learners were instructed to sit in pairs and the learners were free to move around to choose with whom to pair. The learners took some time discussing the pamphlets and thereafter they rose to do a presentation; after which the teacher summarised on the board the topic. Learners were asked to respond to some questions towards the end of the lesson. Mr Masuku had brought a Power Point presentation and learners were discussing based on the power point with questions he posed to the learners. In these two teachers it I observed that the learners were free and responded actively to questions. They also corrected one other with the assistance of the teachers who were doing little talking.

In the interviews it came out that the teachers were not aware of the three roles and what each entailed. They were, however, aware that there ae teacher-centred and learner centred teaching methods. The researcher role was new to all of them. After explaining to them what each of the roles meant, it again become clear from our discussion that they are most playing the instructor and facilitator roles. The researcher role was played by the other two participants; however, they were not aware that their practice was placing them in that role.

Mrs Hlophe:

> *"It means I am the instructor because I really do not give the learners enough time for doing something in my class. Like I have been saying from the beginning I think I am very slow and if I can waste time in groups, I may not finish the syllabus. You know sometimes I have to conduct classes on Saturdays and even school holidays to make sure I finish the syllabus."*

When I probed her on her view about being facilitator she replied: "*Even in our workshops the tell us to use that role, but for me it wastes time, and I don't think my learners are affected by me being an instructor as they can see I am pushing*"

Likewise, Mrs Ngwenya labelled herself as an instructor. She said:

> "*Like you saw, I have a big class, if I can try other roles of teaching, the noise and disorganisation become too much. I am used to being the facilitator that I am because for the previous syllabus we were expected to give learners facts as they were. Now I am aware they want us to be facilitators which thing is not feasible in large classes and when can one get the time to push the content. I don't think my learners are disadvantaged because I give them the content and they practice when they write tests.*"

Mrs Masuku:

> "*I was definitely not aware of the role of being a researcher, and I think I do facilitate and instruct my learners. I always start by being an instructor as I give those questions and tasks to do. Then I like to see them working on their own because I believe they should construct their own knowledge and I help where they need guidance. I think this is the best way to teach research skills because unlike our school days the learners now have access to information and knowledge, they are not empty. When they do the discussion, I also think they gain the critical thinking skills that the section requires from them.*"

Mr Mamba gave almost the same account as Mrs Masuku:

> "*It's my first time to hear the role of a researcher, but for instructor and facilitator I have heard of those. I think I play the roles of facilitator and instructor. I like and favour the facilitation role because I think the learners are adults in Form Five, they can think on their own and besides this section of their syllabus requires them to think. I see no reason then of being the one to spoon feed them, thus I allow them to do the discussions which I think are best in improving their thinking skills*".

From the interviews it came out clearly that the teachers are aware of their changed roles that are expected in this syllabus. What the findings presented here was that some of the teachers have not embraced the shift; thus they still play the role of instructors where they take the central position during teaching and learning. These teachers were not all aware of the role of

being a researcher; however the way in which Mr Mamba and Mrs Masuku facilitated in their classrooms, reflected that they were being researcher-teachers. In the current technological world, where knowledge is available in plenty, teachers should shift towards embracing constructivism. Constructivism holds that learners already have some knowledge within them that teachers must make use of to help them construct new knowledge (Vygotsky, 1962).This idea calls for a shift from the instructor role to the facilitator and researcher roles. The teachers may not be able to drive the shift alone, but the community or stakeholders who will be discussed next should also come aboard.

4.2.7   Theme Seven – community involvement.

Findings indicated that the participating teachers had differing views about community involvement in their teaching of the research skills section in the geography syllabus. Community involvement, as a theme for this study, was introduced by literature from scholars of the pragmatic curriculum development approach (Freire, 1994; Tanenbaum & Miller, 2014). Fundamentally, the concept of community involvement is an important feature of the pragmatic approach which talks much about critical pedagogy. According to Tanenbaum and Miller (2014), critical pedagogy is not only concerned with encouraging individual learners' achievement, but it is motivated by teaching that allows learners to explore socio-political forces that influence their lives as well as those of people in their communities. This implies that critical pedagogy seeks to empower learners to be active citizens in the community. If learners are empowered, their learning can be of benefit and significant to both the learners and the community.

 Moreover, Helmer (2014) enlighten that knowledge is socially constructed therefore there is a need to ascertain how learning offered in schools matches the needs of the community. This can minimise the potential of an oppressive system of education; since involving the community education can be seen to be emancipatory (Freire, 1994). Kajner, Chovanec, Underwood and Mian, (2013) note that, if teaching and learning combines real world community experiences and school curricula, learners may be encouraged morally and psychologically, which can lead to improved performance in school subjects. For Sanders (2001), community involvement by teachers brings about improved learner performance, in the sense that the community provides necessary resources for classroom learning. Freire (1994) suggested that teachers have to change the face of schools by simply being flexible in allowing their learners to benefit or learn from their communities.

According to Sanders (2001), community itself is a powerful metaphor in educational spaces, thus definitions of community are hard to settle in educational conversations (p. 80). For this study community shall refer to the surrounding society in which a school is located, which will include stakeholders of schools such as parents, curriculum planners, the ministry of education, and examinations bodies to count but a few. This understanding of the community was used in the data generation process; and participants were expected to respond on how they involve the community in their teaching of research skills in their classrooms. From literature discussed in Chapter Two, if teachers are following the technical approach, they will receive the curriculum from curriculum planners, enacting it producing learners for higher institutions. The communicative approach will, on the other hand, drive a curriculum that has been voted for by the society. The pragmatic approach expects that collective teaching and learning between schools and community which benefit not only learners but the community as well (Huffling, Carlone & Benavides, 2017).

All the four participants in this study talked about the general existence of a connection between them and the community. They said they had never invited any person from outside to their classrooms, and cited protocol issues. Any outsider, they said should be invited through the MOET, and the principal is the one who should do that. Because of this process, the teachers said they have not even thought about inviting an outsider. From a generic point of view, teachers stated that, in their teaching they do use examples from the community such as telling learners where a geographical feature may be found. The only mention of stakeholders was when teachers pointed out that the institutions of higher learning do visit the completing classes to inform them of entry requirements to the institutions and the different courses they offer. Mr Mamba said: *"I think that is the only time I would see stakeholders in the school otherwise parents come for meetings and they do not set foot in our classrooms".* Mrs Hlophe and Mrs Ngwenya pointed out: *"in as much as it is a good idea, the visitors in classrooms can disturb and waste time for us".* Mrs Masuku pointed out that she remembers in her university, her lecturer brought a guest to talk to them once on a certain topic. She has never done this in her teaching because of administrative challenges.

The responses of the teachers suggested that there is minimal classroom involvement of community in their teaching of research skills. Huffling, Carlone and Benavides (2017) state that, in most classes, there is little or no involvement of the community in the learning of children. This is despite the fact that if schools can open community involvement in the teaching and learning process there could be multiple benefits for learners (Sanders, 2001).

For Miller, Brown and Hopson, (2011) the involvement of the community can allow schools to produce products which benefit the community. Van Eeden (2018) also notes that the use of people from community has great advantages for teaching and learning: the community members can enhance knowledge and information contained in learners' textbooks. In Swaziland (Eswatini) the issue of community involvement is not popular amongst teachers as it is centred on dialogue (Freire, 1994). The socio-cultural, as well as political spaces of the country do not encourage such dialogue. In Swaziland the authoritarian, dominating approach is more prevalent. It is highly possible then, that the teachers' practice is influenced by the general societal norms of the country which may favour more teacher-centred, technical approaches, rather that communicative/pragmatic community involving ideas. The next theme under discussion is testing or assessing learners.

4.2.8   Theme Eight- testing/assessment.

Van Eeden (2018, p. 467) describes assessment as "the process of gathering evidence on the achievement of learning intensions". This definition implies that assessment is a crucial component of teaching. Its importance lies in that, through assessment, teachers are able to attain feedback regarding the enactment of subject knowledge and content in class. Khoza (2015c) also notes that assessment is administered by teachers to ascertain how they have achieved their goals set for enacting a curriculum. Thus it can be argued that assessment in a way drives the curriculum enactment process in classrooms. For Kennedy et al. (2006), teaching approaches should be related or in line with assessment executed for a curriculum. Van Eeden (2018) and Hoadley and Jansen (2017) note that assessment may be classified into three types: formative assessment, peer assessment and summative assessment. In the study teachers were required to respond on these three types of assessments: the way in which a teacher deploys them suggests the teaching approach used.

Reddy and Le Grange (2017) and Van Eeden (2018) posit that formative and peer assessments are both classified as assessment for learning. It is assessment for learning in the sense that it is useful in finding out where a learner is in his or her learning in class. This allows the teacher to give guidance to the learner. Formative assessment is also useful in providing feed-back and feed-forward for a teacher (Van Eeden, 2018). Feedback is gained by generating learners' responses on what was learnt previously; and feed-forward allows the teacher to check what learners have on knowledge that has to be covered. Thus, the purpose of formative assessment

is to support the teaching process. The important element of formative assessment is that learners become actively engaged during teaching and learning thus they have the chance of constructing their own knowledge (Reddy & Le Grange, 2017). Summative assessment on one hand is assessment of learning in the sense that it evaluates academic achievement of learners at the end of a programme. The aim of summative assessment is to determine what learners have learnt. Van Eeden (2018) notes that summative assessment is characterised by high-stakes; it is usually developed and administered externally and it is aimed at assigning a grade to learners. Learners in Form Five sit this assessment at the close of the school year in Swaziland.

It is valuable to note that the geography curriculum has no reference to assessment that teachers are expected to give learners. It only specifies the assessment criteria for summative assessment purposes. In the reflective activity teachers were not be able to state the type of assessment they used in their classrooms. Mrs Hlophe:

> "I *give my class a lot of written work in form of home works. I also give them oral questions when I check for understanding in class and also give them topic tests or monthly tests. The monthly test is a must as the administration requires the scores of learners. When I set tests, I make sure I prepare them with questions that will help them in their final examinations. From beginning of the year, I start preparing them for final exam"*

Mrs Ngwenya also stated that she was not able to identify the difference in the assessments when completing her reflective activity:

> *"All I do is that I give my learners a lot of work. Every week thy have a written task either done as classwork, homework or quiz. I make sure that I mark their way and quickly bring back exercise books. Sometimes I make them write corrections. I also use a lot of questioning in my class although you find that some learners are scared to speak in class so there are those who dominate. I try to make sure that they equally participate in the questions I pose while teaching."*

Mrs Masuku in her reflective activity:

> *"I like questioning my learners; I use a variety of ways to question them. Usually when I introduce a topic, I ask them to see how much they know about it. In almost all my lessons I start with questioning and end with it. I also make them write a lot of class*

112

works and tests at the end of every topic. The tests help me to gauge how much they know in a topic. Sometimes they do presentations in class and I enjoy when I see them asking each other or asking the one who was doing the presentation. Sometimes a whole period is taken by questioning and I am happy when that happens, especially in research topic because it is challenging to most learners".

Mr Mamba also did not say anything different from his colleagues. He was also not aware of the different types of assessment. He said:

"I do ask my learners a lot of questions, form oral questions to written tasks. The written tasks are individually or group work sometimes. I also encourage them to ask one another especially in presentations. The questions in set in monthly tests are usually those taken from past exam papers because I want them to be in line with examinations terminology from the onset".

When I went for class observations, I saw what teacher had talked about in their reflective activity; although in some classes the answering was done by the same learners. It was in the interviews where the teachers were able to note the difference between the assessment types Teachers opened up on their practise of each. It is worth noting that all the teachers highlighted that summative assessment is their major goal; they prepare their learners to do well in their final year.

Mrs Hlophe expresses that she believes in formative assessment as it helps her test for understanding. For peer assessment she said: "*I am afraid that can make them laugh at each other and besides they can waste my time".*

Mrs Ngwenya also said: "I *believe much in doing the asking myself because the learners can play if they would be allowed to ask each other."*

Mrs Masuku had a different story to tell: "*I enjoy when they ask each other. In fact, I trained them to be able to ask and respond to questions from their classmates. Whenever one was presenting the rest ask questions and I that way I saw that the one answering and the rest benefit. And I discovered that an explanation from one of them is always remembered by the rest."*

Mr Mamba said: "*Ya I trained these guys to question everything especially in research. Everyone answering, it is the rule of the class should answer without fear of being belittled by the rest. They do it satisfactory*".

It can be noted that the teachers used a great deal of formative assessment during their teaching, although it was not peer assessment for the other two participants (Mrs Hlophe and Mrs Ngwenya). Peer assessment occurs when learners' asses one another. This type of assessment is said to be pragmatic, as it allows an individual learner to be active and construct his or her own knowledge as they engage in solution-finding activities (Van Eeden, 2018). The formative assessment includes group work and presentations, associated with the communicative approach. Both these approaches are linked to the learner-centred approach. The summative assessment which teachers all stated that they give to learners, is associated with the teacher-centred approach, as influenced by the technical curriculum development approach. It should be noted that these teachers aim at making their learners do well in the high-stakes examination at the end of the year, thus the frequent use of summative assessment.

4.3 Chapter Summary

The chapter offered data generated from four geography teachers who were participants in this study. The data was generated through a reflective activity, classroom observations, and semi-structured one-on-one interviews. The findings were thematically analysed using a conceptual framework which was generated from the literature discussions set out in Chapter Two. The next chapter is a summary of the whole study, together with recommendations taken from the findings.

Chapter Five

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1   Introduction

The last chapter presented data generated from the field, and further analysing and discussing such data. This chapter provides a summary of the study, together with conclusions and recommendations.

5.2   Summary of the study

This study intended to explore approaches used by geography teachers to teach a section of research in the SGCSE syllabus in an Eswatini school. Essentially, the study was set out to understand the approaches the teachers use, how they use the approaches in their classrooms and why they use the approaches the way they do.

5.2.1   Chapter one

This chapter examined this study's background. The focus and purpose of the study was given together with its location and rationale. The objectives of the study were stated as;

- To explore the teaching approaches used by geography teachers to teach a section of research skills in the syllabus.
- To explore how the geography teachers' use the teaching approaches in their classrooms as they teach a section of research skills.
- To understand the reasons for teachers' usage of particular approaches when teaching the section of research skills.

The study was set to respond to three critical research questions that guided it from the beginning. In response to the questions, various literature sources were explored in undertaking this empirical study to ascertain the teaching approaches used by teachers as they teach a section of research skills in the SGCSE syllabus. The following section shows the research questions which are individually discussed by utilising both literature sources and generated data.

5.2.1.1 First research question: What teaching approaches are used by Form Five geography teachers to teach a section   of research skills in the syllabus?

According to Uiboleht and Postareff (2016), Cakir (2008) and Lam and Kember (2006) studies on teaching approaches have identified two main comprehensive types of approach to teaching: teacher-centred and learner-centred approaches. Thijis and van den Akker (2009) and Khoza

(2016b) posit that teaching approaches teachers use are informed by three curriculum development approaches; the technical approach, the communicative approach, and the pragmatic approach. Tyler (2013) and Hoadley (2018) describe the technical approach to curriculum development as one that is systematic in nature, following a framework that stipulates prescribed objectives. As a result, the curriculum lays down topics in a vertical manner (Bernstein, 1999). The objectives that drive the technical curriculum are used to develop teaching materials such that the content knowledge learners receive is based on facts through research (Celia & Elize, 2018; Tyler, 2013).

From the generated data it emerged that the teachers rely on content given in the curriculum in which they all said they follow the objectives as they are. The teachers also all rely on the prescribed textbook for teaching. Two of the teachers also mentioned that they perceive their role to be instructors as they have to unpack the given content to the learners. The technical approach influenced the choice of approach these teachers used, thus the teachers mainly used the teacher-centred approach to teaching. Generated data on assessment also unearthed that the teachers are all teaching to making sure that their learners pass the final examination, which is the summative assessment, also associated with the teacher-centred approach.

The communicative curriculum development approach, according to Stenhouse (2005), is one in which educational stakeholders deliberate on curriculum issues and, through voting, the majority's view is followed. In such a way, this approach takes into consideration the needs of the society, such that, even when teaching, the teachers should consider learners' views and contributions (Celia & Elize, 2018). In this class the teacher becomes a facilitator who uses learner-centred activities. Two of the teachers showed elements of the communicative approach as their lessons were interactive. The teachers also spoke about teaching the learners so that they can do well, which suggests that the teachers wish to give back to the community.

The pragmatic curriculum development approach is about empowering of individuals by encouraging personal development (Freire, 1994). According to this approach, education should be emancipatory, and should allow learners in class to learn, not only prescribed content, but also from the community. Khoza (2015a) argues that this approach develops the critical thinking of individual learners and places the teacher in class as a researcher. From generated data the teachers were driven by personal passion to teach the learners; and some used pamphlets in class, which shows some elements of the pragmatic approach. The teachers also used formative assessment which suggests that they were pragmatic in their approach. Through

the influence of the curriculum development approaches, generated data showed teachers using both teacher-centred and learner-centred approaches.

5.2.1.2 Second research question: How do the form five geography teachers use teaching approaches in their classrooms when teaching a section of research skills?

This question was mainly answered utilising data generated during classroom observation of the four teachers. The concepts which were aligned mainly with answering this critical research question were; teaching methods, and the role of the teacher. Van Eeden (2018) notes that the methods or activities a teacher directs learners to perform in class informs the teaching approach the teacher is using. The findings indicated that two of the teachers used mainly teacher- centred activities as they were the ones who did more talking than the learners. These teachers did not make groups nor allow learners to create presentations. These teachers played the facilitator role, which also suggests that there were using the teacher-centred approach. The learners were passive listeners as the teacher poured out knowledge to them. The other two teachers were facilitators, as they used group work as well as pair work in teaching. They assumed the facilitator's role in their classrooms. The teachers therefore used both the learner and teacher-centred approaches in their classrooms.

5.2.1.3 Why do the Form Five geography teachers use teaching approaches in particular ways in teaching a section of research skills?

The data generated from the one-on-one semi-structured interviews was able to elicit the reasons for teachers using teaching approaches in particular ways. One of the main general reasons is that all the teachers lamented lack of training or workshops or support from the MOET. The most experienced teacher stated that when the SGCSE syllabus was introduced, there was no proper training of teachers that would capacitate them sufficiently to teach the research skills section, which was a new topic. The teacher stated that she then continued to approach the syllabus the way she is used to. It has been noted that in most countries, teachers who have to enact the curriculum in classrooms are not given enough time to understand new approaches expected from them to implement in the event of a new curriculum being introduced (Chisholm & Leyendecker , 2008). The lack of proper training and orientation then creates a gap between practice and policies argue Chisholm and Leyendecker (2008), in the sense that what the policy expects to be done is not practised at classroom level. Usually, a new

curriculum suggests an approach or approaches that are suitable for enacting it. A new curriculum often comes with new topics that are seen as relevant in the country at that particular time (Uiboleht, Karm & Postareff, 2016).

Two of the teachers also declared that large class numbers hinder them from adequately using learner-centred activities; the learners would be uncontrollable, and the lesson would take too much time. The large numbers of learners in classrooms is a general worry for most educators in developing countries. Teachers may need to be given skills on how to handle large classes when using the learner-centred teaching approaches (Mfeka, 2005). The lack of support knowledge was another aspect raised by teachers which suffer from lack of support. The participants pointed out that they are not aware of some of the expected practices. For example, they are not aware of the reason for teaching; they do not know the aims and outcomes of the topic or subject as a whole; they do not know the role they have to play in classes. From their accounts, it was clear that in-service training and support from the Ministry of Education is needed for the adequate enactment of the syllabus.

A brief literature review, as well sampling and data collection methods were also deliberated in Chapter One. Issues of ethics and the study's limitations were presented at the end.

5.2.2   Chapter Two

This chapter deliberated on literature that dealt with teaching approaches. The literature included discussions on curriculum development approaches (technical, communicative and pragmatic approaches). The last part of the chapter was a discussion on the conceptual framework that shapes this study.

5.2.3   Chapter Three

This chapter presented the study's paradigm, approach, design as well as the methodology that was adopted. The qualitative approach within the interpretivist paradigm was discussed. It emerged that the study is a case study in one high school of Eswatini where four teachers were purposively chosen as participants. These teachers were selected because they were teaching the Form Five classes when this study was undertaken. To generate data, the study used reflective activity, classroom observation and one-on-one semi-structured interviews. Issues of enhancing trustworthiness, transferability, dependability, as well as confirmability were

also deliberated upon in this chapter. Chapter Three presented data analysis, ethics and limitations of the study.

5.2.4   Chapter Four

In this chapter the findings of data generated were discussed. The analysis of the data was based on the themes that were discussed in Chapter Two to explore the geography teachers' approaches to the teaching of the research skills section in the school.

5.3   Findings of the Study

The major findings of this study will be discussed following the concepts from the conceptual framework.

5.3.1   Reasons for teaching research skills

The findings indicated that the four teachers taught without being aware that their teaching should be directed by a reason/reasons for teaching. The teachers stated that they were teaching because they are driven by passion. They also revealed that they aim to see their learners pass the external examination at the year end. Khoza (2015a) notes that the teachers' most influential reason for teaching is the personal reason, which these teachers gave. Furthermore, Khoza (2013) states that it is vital for teachers to be aware of the reason for their teaching: such awareness fosters the link between what they practise in class and the theory behind the practice. If the geography teachers understand the reason for teaching, their classroom practice will, in turn, improve. For Kehdinga (2014a), understanding the reason for teaching is vital for teachers, as it gives them the opportunity of theorising on the enacted curriculum, which benefits the learners.

The findings also showed that teachers are struggling to have a clear reason for teaching as they are following a prescribed, rigid curriculum which is high stakes and performance driven. The teachers therefore find themselves dealing with a technical curriculum which encourages a rigid approach. The teachers identified that they then utilise their teacher agency to push their work. Teachers stated that they are teaching because they are employed by the MOET, that professional obligation compels them to teach although they are not aware whether their reason is personal, societal, or technical.

5.3.2   Aims of teaching

Findings indicated that the teachers taught without a proper understanding of aims, objectives, and outcomes. It transpired that the teachers follow the objectives that are given in the SGCSE curriculum. The objectives they follow are general ones which do not speak to their contexts. This finds struggling to manage the demands of the curriculum in class. The fact that the teachers are given objectives suggests that the teachers are enacting a technical curriculum (Tyler, 2013). The curriculum, however, has personal and societal needs which demand that the teachers be aware of the aims and outcomes. Teachers were blank on the aims and outcomes. This suggests that their teaching was guided by the objectives of enabling learners to do well in external exams. This is despite the fact that Kennedy et al. (2006) point out that it is imperative for teachers to identify the aims and outcomes of the curriculum they are enacting so as to effectively perform their practice.

5.3.3   Content taught

Shulman (1986) states that teachers must possess enough content knowledge so as to be capable of teaching effectively in their classes. Likewise, Van Eeden (2018) insists that geography teachers must have adequate content when they have to teach a topic such as research skills. As well as basic content knowledge, Shulman (1986) argues that teachers should have PCK, which greatly helps in enacting the curriculum. Findings indicated that the teachers were dealing with a prescriptive curriculum which stipulates all the content for them vertically (Bernstein, 1999). For this content-driven curriculum, the teachers indicated that they merely follow the content as it is which practice Van Eeden (2018) does not encourage on a topic such as research skills, as this requires teachers to discuss issues freely from constraints of prescribed curriculum content.

The findings indicated that teachers rely on the given content in their syllabus. As it is also the content that is examined, they are afraid of deviating from it. Teachers did mention that they mainly rely mainly on textbook content, and also partly on colleagues. While the topic expects teachers to assist learners by using other sources of content, it transpired in the findings that the teachers are pushing a prescribed content. This suggests a gap between the curriculum expectations and its actual enactment in class. Fisher and Binns (2016) blame the training of teachers as the cause for the overreliance of teachers on the curriculum given content, stating that teachers are trained to be technicians, which encourages them into working with what they have been given.

5.3.4   Teaching methods/activities

The findings indicated that the teachers used various activities when teaching the research skills section.   The activities were mainly teacher-centred and content- centred. With two teachers there were learner-centred activities witnessed. The teachers, however, did not have an idea of the expected activity they had to utilise for the topic. They argued that they were not properly trained on this syllabus. They also lack the necessary and expected support from the subject inspectors. The research skills section expects learners to be pushed to the synthesis and evaluation level of the Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom, 1956). This is because the learners in this section are expected to construct their individual understanding and evaluation which suits well when learners are introduced to learner-centred activities.

The findings indicated that two of the teachers failed to engage learner-centred activities because of large classes, as well as the desire to finish the syllabus on time. One teacher mentioned the use of field trips which, however, the school administration does not encourage; whereas Van Eeden (2018) supports the value of field trips for geography learners. For Young (1994) and Hoadley (2017), the use of the learner- centred activity approach in teaching is always an advantage to learners.

5.3.5   Teaching aids/materials or resources

The findings revealed that the most common teaching aids used by teachers were the prescribed textbook and chalkboard. Tyler (2008) states that the textbook is the most common teaching aid used worldwide and it is useful in assisting teachers plan and enact their lessons well. The use of the prescribed textbook and chalkboard suggests that the teachers used more teacher-centred activities in their classes. Two of the teachers provided pamphlets in their classes and Power Point presentations which suggest that they were more into learner-centred activities. The school also it was discovered, has maps which teachers use in class.   The teachers however, were not aware of themselves as resources. Samuels (2008) and Khoza (2013) argue that teachers are vital ideological-ware resources who plan and enact the curriculum. The teachers are also responsible for selecting the resources for the classes. Van Eeden (2018) laments that if teachers lack the skill and art of selecting and making resources, their teaching will be limited.

5.3.6   Role of teachers

The findings indicated that the teachers did not fully understand their roles when teaching the research skills section. Two teachers were obvious instructors whilst the other two were facilitators and/or researchers. Arman (2018) clearly states that the teacher as an instructor pours knowledge to empty learners; whilst a facilitator and researcher according to Agnello (2016), has a dialogical class in which knowledge is shared from teacher to learners and vice versa, and even amongst learners themselves. It also transpired from the findings that the SGCSE syllabus is different from the O'-level syllabus therefore; even the roles of the teachers were expected to change. The SGCSE curriculum does not specify the probable role the teachers are to play, thus teachers decide the role they have to assume in class. However, the introduction of the curriculum assumes that teachers will shift to the facilitation and researcher roles. Teachers agreed to be aware of such, however, when it comes to class enactment the approach they choose to use is then influenced by other factors such as large class sizes.

5.3.7   Community involvement

The findings revealed that teachers did not involve the community in the teaching of geography lessons. It transpired that teaching still depended on the teachers; and the community is only featured at a general level when institutions of higher learning visit learners for presentations. The idea of community involvement as per Freire (1994)'s view is limited. The school operates independently from the community although learners are prepared through education to fit in the community. The argument of time that would be wasted if the community were involved in classes featured a great deal amongst the teachers. The findings revealed that the teachers had a negative attitude towards involving anyone from the community in their classes.

5.3.8   Testing

The findings indicated that teachers engaged their learners in formative and summative assessment. Peer assessment was not popular. The teachers used formative assessment as part of the teaching and learning taking place in their classrooms. The summative assessment seemed to be the most important assessment as the curriculum is examination driven. The main aim of the teachers is for their learners to do well in examinations. It is a pity then that is how they are taught. It has been alluded to in Chapter One that results have dropped ever since the SGCSE was introduced. It remained unclear whether the assessments the teachers give to the

learners were in line with the evaluation and synthesis levels which are an expectation for the research skills section.

5.4   Suggestions for further research

This study attempted to close the gap of Eswatini geography teachers' understanding of the teaching approaches that are used in teaching the research skills section. Further research is however suggested because:

- There are few studies on SGCSE geography teaching in Eswatini.
- As the problem was the low grades learners gain in their geography external examinations, studies can be undertaken that can concentrate on other possible causes rather than teaching approaches.
- Other studies may be conducted on schools located in different regions of the country, or even in different areas, as this was undertaken in a semi- urban school.

5.5   Recommendations

5.5.1   First recommendation

As it transpired that the teachers are not conscious of the reasons for teaching the research skills section, one can recommend that when the curriculum is developed, teachers should be involved, they being the ones who enact the curriculum in class. The National Curriculum Centre (NCC), as well as the geography panel, should have well-planned support systems for classroom teachers when a new syllabus is rolled out, so that the teachers are made aware of what is expected from them at the outset.

5.5.2   Second recommendation

NCC and the geography panel of Eswatini should spell out the aims and outcomes of the geography syllabus. Furthermore, in-service training should be conducted so that the teachers are aware of the significance of aims and outcomes and objectives of the syllabus, for the research skills section in particular; as the teachers have indicated that they face a challenge in teaching this section.

5.5.3 Third recommendation

It is not clear whether the SGCSE syllabus is technical or societal or pragmatic. Teachers are given the syllabus with specific content to teach; however, the teachers are not aware of how far to go in the teaching. The MOET should therefore organise workshops, supporting the teachers, as they seem to be struggling in teaching this content. This leads back to the involvement of teachers when a new curriculum is introduced.

5.5.4 Fourth recommendation

Most of the teachers lamented that they are facing difficulties of teaching the research skills section because they did not learn it at school or even in tertiary education. As a result, they use approaches that were used in previous syllabi. This again leads back to the support and follow up that MOET through inspectors, should be geared up to assist and train teachers when syllabi change. Teachers should be helped to shift from a syllabus there are using to fit the demands and expectations of a new one. Head teachers, through the MOET, should be made aware that some subjects such as geography require learners to take field trips. Schools should ensure that such happens for the benefit of learners.

5.5.5 Fifth recommendation

Teachers should be trained on how to make, organise, and select resources for their geography lessons. They should be made aware that resources are vital to geography lessons. Teacher training institutions can come in handy in this regard.

5.5.6 Sixth recommendation

Teachers were not aware of their role in this syllabus. The MOET should state the role teachers are expected to play in this syllabus, so that teachers are not confused on how they are supposed to enact the section. A workshop must be organised, helping teachers on how to be a facilitator or researcher in a geography classroom. Teachers complain that such roles use excessive class time.

5.5.7 Seventh recommendation

It is high time that schools stop operating in isolation from the community. The MOET should devise strategies that will see schools working hand in hand with communities for the benefit of learners. Schools should open doors for community members that can bring positive knowledge to learners so that learners can fit well in the society upon completing school.

5.5.8 Eighth recommendation

The MOET, together with the Examinations Council of Eswatini (ECESWA), should make sure teachers are trained on assessment. Teachers seem unaware not aware of the nature and the demands of the evaluation, synthesis, and analysis questions that the research skills section expects learners to be aware of.

5.5.9 Conclusion

This chapter deliberated on the findings of this study. The findings were organised according to the concepts of the conceptual framework. Suggestions for further research were also highlighted and the chapter ended with recommendations.

References

Adkins, J. K. (2018). Active learning and formative assessment in a user-centered design course. *Information Systems Education Journal, 16*(4), 34.

Al-Zu'be, A. F. M. (2013). The difference between the learner-centred approach and the teacher-centred approach in teaching English as a foreign language. *Educational research international, 2*(2), 24-31.

Alotaibi, K. A. (2019). Teachers' Perceptions on Factors Influence Adoption of Formative Assessment. *Journal of Education and Learning, 8*(1), 74-86.

Arman, M. S. (2018). Student-centered approach to teaching: It takes two to tango. *Ahfad Journal, 35*(2).

Armbruster, P., Patel, M., Johnson, E., & Weiss, M. (2009). Active learning and student-centered pedagogy improve student attitudes and performance in introductory biology. *CBE—Life Sciences Education, 8*(3), 203-213.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2012). The practice of social research. Fourteenth impression. Cape Town: South Africa: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The qualitative report,, 13*(4), 544-559.

Beauchamp, C., & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding teacher identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. *Cambridge journal of education, 39*(2), 175-189.

Bernstein, B. (1999). Vertical and horizontal discourse: An essay. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 20*(2), 157-173.

Biesta, G. (2013). Knowledge, judgement and the curriculum: on the past, present and future of the idea of the Practical. *Journal of curriculum studies, 45*(5), 684-696.

Biesta, G. (2015). What is education for? On good education, teacher judgement, and educational professionalism. *European Journal of Education, 50*(1), 75-87.

Blaikie, N. (2000). Designing Social Research. Malden: Cambridge, Polity Press.

Blumberg, P. (2015). How Critical Reflection Benefits Faculty as They Implement Learner-Centered Teaching. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 2015*(144), 87-97.

Briede, L. (2016). The relationship between mathematics teachers' teaching approaches and 9th grade students' mathematical self. *Journal of Teacher Education for Sustainability, 18*(1), 34-47.

Brooks, M. G., & Brooks, J. G. (1999). The courage to be constructivist.

Brown, K. L. (2003). From teacher-centered to learner-centered curriculum: Improving learning in diverse classrooms. *Education, 124*(1), 1-19.

Budden, R. (2017). *Exploration of factors that inform curriculum studies students to use eresources in conducting Masters of Education dissertations at a South African university.* (Doctor of Philosophy Full research)), University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban.

Cakir, M. (2008). Constructivist approaches to learning in science and their implications for science pedagogy: A literature review. *International Journal of Environmental and Science Education, 3*(4), 193-206.

Celia, B., & Elize, D. P. (2018). CURRICULUM STUDIES: Development, interpretation, plan and practice: Van Schaik.

Çelik, H. C. (2018). The Effects of Activity Based Learning on Sixth Grade Students' Achievement and Attitudes towards Mathematics Activities. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education, 14*(5), 1963-1977.

Chisholm, L., & Leyendecker, R. (2008). Curriculum reform in post-1990s sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development, 28*(2), 195-205.

Christiansen, I., Bertram, C., & Land, S. (2010). *Understanding research*. Pietermaritzburg: UKZN Faculty of Education.

Clarke, M. (2009). The ethico-politics of teacher identity. *Educational philosophy and theory, 41*(2), 185-200.

Çöğmen, S., & Saracaloğlu, A. S. (2016). Views of high school teachers on learning and teaching.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Surveys, longitudinal, cross-sectional and trend studies. Research Methods in Education7th ed*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Connor, C. M., Ponitz, C. C., Phillips, B. M., Travis, Q. M., Glasney, S., & Morrison, F. J. (2010). First graders' literacy and self-regulation gains: The effect of individualizing student instruction. *Journal of School Psychology, 48*(5), 433-455.

Crano, D. W., & Brewer, M. B. (2002). *Principles and methods of social research*. Los Angeles: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research: Choosing Among Five Approaches. (3rd ed.)*. Los Angeles: Sage.

De Vaus, D. A., & de Vaus, D. (2001). *Research design in social research*. California: Sage.

De Vos, A., Strydom, H., Fouche, C. B., & Delport, C. S. L. (2017). *Research at grassroots.(4th ed)*. Pretoria: Van Schaik publishers.

Devlin, M. (2006). *Challenging accepted wisdom about conceptions of teaching in academic development.* University of Melbourne.

Du Preez, P., & Simmonds, S. (2014). Curriculum, curriculum development, curriculum studies? Problematising theoretical ambiguities in doctoral theses in the education field. *South African Journal of Education, 34*(2).

Eisner, E. (1983). " Educational Objectives: Help or Hindrance?" Elliott Eisner [1967]. *American Journal of Education, 91*(4), 549-560.

Fisher, C., & Binns, T. (2016). *Issues in geography teaching*: Routledge.

Flinders, D. J. T., S.J. (2013). *The curriculum studies reader*. NewYork: Routledge.

Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative inquiry, 12*(2), 219-245.

Fomunyam, K. G. (2014). Curriculum theorizing and individualism: An exploration of the curriculum's relation to the social, personal and political dimensions of schooling. *Mevlana International Journal of Education (MIJE), 4*(2), 122-131.

Freire, P. (1994). Pedagogy of hope: Reliving pedagogy of the oppressed, trans. *Robert R. Barr (New York: Continuum, 1998)*.

Froyd, J., & Simpson, N. (2008). *Student-centered learning addressing faculty questions about student centered learning.* Paper presented at the Course, Curriculum, Labor, and Improvement Conference, Washington DC.

Gamson, D. A., Eckert, S. A., & Anderson, J. (2019). Standards, instructional objectives and curriculum design: A complex relationship. *Phi Delta Kappan, 100*(6), 8-12.

Gerber, R., Wilson, P., & Fien, J. (1984). *The Geography Teacher's Guide to the Classroom: On being on geography teacher in the 1980s and beyond*: Macmillan.

Girvan, C., Tangney, B., & Savage, T. (2013). SLurtles: Supporting constructionist learning in second life. *Computers & Education, 61*, 115-132.

Glesne, C. (2014). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. New York: Pearson.

Govender, N., & Khoza, S. (2017). Technology in education for teachers. *Education Studies for Initial Teacher Development, 1*, 66-79.

Grami, G. M. (2012). ARE LEARNER-CENTRED APPROACHES THE ANSWER TO SAUDI LANGUAGE CLASSES? *Annual Review of Education, Communication & Language Sciences, 9*.

Gregory, J., and R.Jones. . (2009). Maintaining Competence': A Grounded Theory Typology of Approaches to Teaching in Higher Education. *Higher Education, 57*(6), 769-785. doi:10.1007/s10734-008-9175-8.

Gupta, M., & Pasrija, P. (2016). Co-Operative Learning: an Efficient Technique To Convert Students Into Active Learners in Classrooms. *MIER Journal of Educational Studies, Trends and Practices, 2*(1).

Hall, K., Murphy,P.and Soler.J. (2009). *Pedagogy and Pactice*. London: Sage Publications.

Harber, C. (2009). *Toxic schooling: How schools became worse*: Educational Heretics Press.

Hattie, J. (2005). The paradox of reducing class size and improving learning outcomes. *International journal of educational research, 43*(6), 387-425.

Hedeen, T. (2005). Dialogue and democracy, community and capacity: Lessons for conflict resolution education from Montessori, Dewey, and Freire. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly, 23*(2), 185-202.

Henchey, N. (2007). The state and the curriculum: questions and options for Quebec. *McGill Journal of Education (Online), 42*(3), 443.

Hoadley, U. (2018). *Pedagogy in Poverty;lessons form twenty years of curriculum reform in South Africa*. New York: Routledge.

Hoadley, U., & Jansen, J. (2013). Organising knowledge for the classroom: SAIDE/Oxford University Press, Johannesburg.

Hoadley, U. J. J. (2017). *Curriculum;organising knowledge for the classroom*. Capetown: Oxford University Press.

Jabeen, H., & Guy, S. (2015). Fluid engagements: Responding to the co-evolution of poverty and climate change in Dhaka, Bangladesh. *Habitat International, 47*, 307-314.

Jansen, J. D. (2001). Image-ining teachers: Policy images and teacher identity in South African classrooms. *South African Journal of Education, 21*(4), 242-246.

Jenkins, A., & Unwin, D. (2001). How to write learning outcomes.

Kanu, Y. (2006). 'Currere'to the rescue? Teachers as 'amateur intellectuals' in a knowledge society. *Journal of the Canadian Association for Curriculum Studies, 4*(2).

Kavari, J.-H. J. K. (2012). *Examining the knowledge and practices of selected Namibian accounting teachers about learner-centred methods of teaching.* Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.

Kaymakamoglu, S. E. (2018). Teachers' Beliefs, Perceived Practice and Actual Classroom Practice in Relation to Traditional (Teacher-Centered) and Constructivist (Learner-Centered) Teaching (Note 1). *Journal of Education and Learning, 7*(1), 29-37.

Kelly, A. V. (2009). *The curriculum: Theory and practice*: Sage.

Kennedy, D. (2006). *Writing and using learning outcomes: a practical guide*: University College Cork.

Khalid, A., & Azeem, M. (2012). Constructivist vs traditional: effective instructional approach in teacher education. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 2*(5), 170-177.

Khoboli, B., & Malcolm, C. (2004). *Science teachers' views of learner centered education in Lesotho.* Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 12th annual conference of the Southern African Association for Research in Mathematics, Science and Technology Education. Durban: SAARMSTE.

Khoza, S. (2016). Is teaching without understanding curriculum visions and goals a high risk? *South African Journal of Higher Education, 30*(5), 104-119.

Khoza, S. B. (2012). Who helps an online facilitator to learn with students in a day. *Mevlana International Journal of Education, 2*(2), 75-84.

Khoza, S. B. (2013). Learning Outcomes as Understood by" Publishing Research" Facilitators at a South African University. *Online Submission, 3*(2), 1-11.

Khoza, S. B. (2015). Student teachers' reflections on their practices of the curriculum and assessment policy statement. *South African Journal of Higher Education, 29*(4), 179-197.

Khoza, S. B. (2018). Can Teachers' Reflections on Digital and Curriculum Resources Generate Lessons? *Africa Education Review*, 1-16.

Khoza, S. B. (2019). Lecturers' Reflections on Curricular Spider Web Concepts Transformation Strategies. In E. N. I. C.L.Scott (Ed.), *Transformation of Higher Education Institutions in Post-Apartheid South Africa* (pp. 15-26). New York: Routledge - Taylor & Francis Group.

Khoza, S. B., & Mpungose, C. B. (2018). *Use of the Moodle Curriculum by Lecturers at a South African University.* Paper presented at the ICEL 2018 13th International Conference on e-Learning.

Kincal, R. Y., & Ozan, C. (2018). Effects of Formative Assessment on Prospective Teachers' Achievement, Attitudes and Self-Regulation Skills. *International Journal of Progressive Education, 14*(2), 77-92.

Kincheloe, J. L. (2012). *Teachers as researchers (classic edition): Qualitative inquiry as a path to empowerment*: Routledge.

Koray, Ö., & Kahraman, E. (2019). Pre-Service Preschool Teachers' Opinions about the Formative Assessment. *TOJET: The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology, 18*(1).

Kozikoğlu, İ. (2018). The Examination of Alignment Between National Assessment and English Curriculum Objectives Using Revised Bloom's Taxonomy. *Educational Research Quarterly, 41*(4), 50-77.

Kwun-hung, L., & Sinn, M.-c. (2010). Teacher as the Change Agent: Implementation and Impact of a Learner-centered Approach in Teaching Argumentative Essays to Senior Secondary ESL Learners in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Learning, 17*(4).

Läänemets, U., & Kalamees-Ruubel, K. (2013). The taba-tyler rationales. *Journal of the American Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies (JAAACS), 9*(2).

Lam, B. H., & Kember, D. (2006). The relationship between conceptions of teaching and approaches to teaching. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice, 12*(6), 693-713.

Lasky, S. (2005). A sociocultural approach to understanding teacher identity, agency and professional vulnerability in a context of secondary school reform. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*(8), 899-916.

Lau, D. C.-M. (2001). Analysing the curriculum development process: three models. *Pedagogy, culture and society, 9*(1), 29-44.

Le Ha, P. (2014). The politics of naming: Critiquing "learner-centred" and "teacher as facilitator" in English language and humanities classrooms. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 42*(4), 392-405.

Ledwith, M. (2001). Community work as critical pedagogy: re-envisioning Freire and Gramsci. *Community development journal, 36*(3), 171-182.

Leed, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2015). *Practical Research, Planning and Design*. Cape Town: Pearson.

Leibowitz, B., Naidoo, K., & Mayet, R. (2017). Teaching in and for Social Justice *Transforming Teaching and Learning in Higher Education* (pp. 79-98): Springer.

Lichtman, M. (2012). *Qualitative research in education: A user's guide: A user's guide*: Sage.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of qualitative research, 1*(2), 163-194.

Lunenburg, F. C. (2011). *Critical thinking and constructivism techniques for improving student achievement.* Paper presented at the National Forum of Teacher Education Journal.

Mabuza, D. C. (2018). *EDUCATORS' REFLECTIONS OF THE SWAZILAND JUNIOR SECONDARY INTEGRATED CONSUMER SCIENCE CURRICULUM: TOWARDS DEVELOPMENT OF A UNIQUE CONTENT AREA.* (phd), Kwazulu Natal, Edgewood.

MacMillan, J. M., & Schumacher, S. (2006). *Research in Education: a conceptual introduction*. New York: Harper Collins.

Mahmoudi, L., & Bakar, K. A. (2014). Iranian National Curriculum and the Pre-university English Textbook: The Degree of Compatibility of Objectives. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies, 2*(2), 4-8.

Makumane, M. A. (2018). *Educators' Enactment Strategies of the French Integrated Curriculum: An Action Research of Lesotho Educators.* (phd), University of Kwazulu-Natal, Edgewood.

Makunja, G. (2016). Challenges facing teachers in implementing competence-based curriculum in Tanzania: The case of community secondary school in Morogoro Municipality. *International Journal and Social Science, 3*(5), 30-37.

Maree, K. (2017). *First steps in research*. Cape Town: Van Schaik Publishers.

Marken, J., & Morrison, G. (2013). Objectives over Time: A Look at Four Decades of Objectives in the Educational Research Literature. *Contemporary Educational Technology, 4*(1), 1-14.

Marsh, C. J. (2009). *Key concepts for understanding curriculum*: Routledge.

McKernan, J. (2013). *Curriculum action research: A handbook of methods and resources for the reflective practitioner*: Routledge.

McLEAN, A. C. (2012). *Destroying the Teacher: The Need for Learner-Centered Teaching.* Paper presented at the English Teaching Forum.

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in Education: Evidence-Based Inquiry*. London: Pearson.

Mejía, A. (2004). The problem of knowledge imposition: Paulo Freire and critical systems thinking. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science: The Official Journal of the International Federation for Systems Research, 21*(1), 63-82.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education. Revised and Expanded from" Case Study Research in Education*. St Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Mertler, C. A. (2016). *Action research: Improving schools and empowering educators*: Sage Publications.

Mfeka, S. F. (2005). *Teachers' understanding of the concept of learner-centredness in the revised national curriculum statement. A case study of two Durban township high schools.* (Med), University of Kwazulu Natal, Durban.

Miller, P. M., Brown, T., & Hopson, R. (2011). Centering love, hope, and trust in the community: Transformative urban leadership informed by Paulo Freire. *Urban Education, 46*(5), 1078-1099.

Moon, J. (2003). *The module and programme development handbook: A practical guide to linking levels, outcomes and assessment criteria*: Routledge.

Mpungose, C., B. (2018). E*xploring lecturers' reflections on the use of moodle to teach physical science modules at a south african university.* (Phd), Kwazulu Natal, Edgewood.

Mtika, P., & Gates, P. (2010). Developing learner-centred education among secondary trainee teachers in Malawi: The dilemma of appropriation and application. *International Journal of Educational Development, 30*(4), 396-404.

Mungoo, J., & Moorad, F. (2015). Learner centred methods for whom? Lessons from Botswana Junior Secondary Schools. *African Educational Research Journal, 3*(3), 161-169.

Ndlovu, T., Chikwanha, T., & Munambah, N. (2017). Learning outcomes of occupational therapy and physiotherapy students during their community-based education attachment. *African Journal of Health Professions Education, 9*(4), 189-193.

Neilson, F. (2013). Teaching scientific writing using the learner-centred approach. *Medical Writing, 22*(1), 23-25.

Njie, B., & Asimiran, S. (2014). Case study as a choice in qualitative methodology. *Journal of Research & Method in Education, 4*(3), 35-40.

Nkohla, M. (2017). *Educators' Reflections on their Practices of Agricultural Sciences Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement.* (Maters), Kwazulu - Natal, Edgewood.

O'Sullivan, M. (2004). The reconceptualisation of learner-centred approaches: A Namibian case study. *International Journal of Educational Development, 24*(6), 585-602.

Okeke, C., & Van Wyk, M. (2016). *Educational Research: An African Approach.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Ovens, A., & Tinning, R. (2009). Reflection as situated practice: A memory-work study of lived experience in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(8), 1125-1131.

Pike, S., & Clough, P. (2005). Children's voices on learning about countries in geography. *International Research in Geographical & Environmental Education, 14*(4), 356-363.

Pinar, W. F. (2012). *What is curriculum theory?* USA: Routledge.

Polly, D., & Hannafin, M. J. (2011). Examining how learner-centered professional development influences teachers' espoused and enacted practices. *The Journal of Educational Research, 104*(2), 120-130.

Postareff, L., & Lindblom-Ylänne, S. (2008). Variation in teachers' descriptions of teaching: Broadening the understanding of teaching in higher education. *Learning and Instruction, 18*(2), 109-120.

Priestley, M. (2011). Schools, teachers, and curriculum change: A balancing act? *Journal of Educational Change, 12*(1), 1-23.

Radulović, L., & Stančić, M. (2017). What is Needed to Develop Critical Thinking in Schools? *Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal, 7*(3), 9-25.

Ramnarain, U., & Fortus, D. (2013). South African physical sciences teachers' perceptions of new content in a revised curriculum. *South African Journal of Education, 33*(1).

Ramrathan, L., Grange,L and Higgs,P. (2017). *Education Studies for Initial Teacher Development.* Capetown: Juta and Company,Pty (Ltd).

Reinders, H., & Lázaro, N. (2007). Current Approaches to Assessment in Self-Access Language Learning. *TESL-EJ, 11*(3), n3.

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., & Ormston, R. (2013). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers.* London: sage.

Robson, C. (2007). *How to do a research project: a guide for undergraduate students*: Blackwell.

Rodgers, C. R., & Scott, K. H. (2008). 40 The development of the personal self and professional identity in learning to teach.

Scott, D. (2007). *Critical essays on major curriculum theorists*: Routledge.

Shange, D. S. (2015). *An Exploration of Teachers' Experiences in Teaching Grade 10 Geometry Within Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) in Umbumbulu Circuit.* University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood.

Shoba, M. E. (2018). *Exploring Teachers' Experiences of Teaching English-Speaking Skill to Second Language Learners in the Intermediate Phase in three KwaNdengezi Township Primary Schools.* (Doctor of philosophy), University of Kwazulu-Natal, Edgewood.

Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard educational review, 57*(1), 1-23.

Sikoyo, L. (2010). Contextual challenges of implementing learner-centred pedagogy: the case of the problem-solving approach in Uganda. *Cambridge journal of education, 40*(3), 247-263.

Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*. London: SAGE Publications Limited.

Simm, D., & David, C. (2002). Effective teaching of research design in physical geography: a case study. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 26*(2), 169-180.

Spiller, D. (2009). Assessment: Feedback to promote student learning. *Manuscript submitted for publication, The University of Waikato, The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.*

Spronken-Smith, R. (2005). Implementing a problem-based learning approach for teaching research methods in geography. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 29*(2), 203-221.

Stenhouse, L. (2005). *An introduction to curriculum research and development*. London: Butler and Turner Limited.

Tessmer, M. (2013). *Planning and conducting formative evaluations*: Routledge.

Tezci, E., Erdener, M. A., & Atici, S. (2016). The Effect of Pre-Service Teachers' Epistemological Beliefs on Teaching Approaches. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 4*(12A), 205-215.

Theron, L. C., & Malindi, M. (2012). *Conducting qualitative research: Practical guidelines on*

fieldwork. Cape Town: Juta.

Thijs, A., & van den Akker, J. (2009). Curriculum in development. Enschede, Netherlands: SLO–Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development.

Treesuwan, R., & Tanitteerapan, T. (2016). Students' Perceptions on Learner-Centered Teaching Approach. *Stanisław Juszczyk*, 151.

Tyler, R. W. (2013). Basic principles of curriculum and instruction *Curriculum Studies Reader E2* (pp. 60-68): Routledge.

Uiboleht, K., Karm, M., & Postareff, L. (2016). How do university teachers combine different approaches to teaching in a specific course? A qualitative multi-case study. *Teaching in Higher Education, 21*(7), 854-869.

Uslu, O. (2018). Analysis of Variables That Affect Teaching Learning Approaches and

Epistemological Beliefs of Pre-Service Teachers by Structural Equation Model. *International Journal of Research in Education and Science, 4*(1), 237-251.

Van Eeden, E. S. W., P. (2018). *Teaching & learning History & Geography*. Pretoria: Van Schaik publishers.

Van Hees, V., Moyson, T., & Roeyers, H. (2015). Higher education experiences of students with autism spectrum disorder: Challenges, benefits and support needs. *Journal of autism and developmental disorders, 45*(6), 1673-1688.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). *Language and thought*. Ontario, Canada: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press.

Walker, D. F. S., J.F. (2009). *Curiculum and aims*. London: Teachers' Colege Press.

Walkington, J. (2005). Becoming a teacher: Encouraging development of teacher identity through reflective practice. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 33*(1), 53-64.

Webb, M. A. (2015). *RESISTING IN THE MIDST OF CHAOS: ONE REVOLUTIONARY EDUCATOR'S CURRERE JOURNEY.* Miami University.

Weimer, M. (2002). *Learner-centered teaching: Five key changes to practice*: John Wiley & Sons.

Yaman, S. (2017). Investigating consistency of questions in primary and middle school science textbooks with objectives in science curriculum. *Journal of Education and Training Studies, 5*(4), 81-89.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research, Design & Methods 4th ed*. Carlifonia: Thousand Oaks,Sage.

Yosso, T. J. (2002). Toward a critical race curriculum. *Equity & Excellence in Education, 35*(2), 93-107.

Young, M. (2013). Overcoming the crisis in curriculum theory: A knowledge-based approach. *Journal of curriculum studies, 45*(2), 101-118.

Yuen, K. M., & Hau, K. T. (2006). Constructivist teaching and teacher-centred teaching: a comparison of students' learning in a university course. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International, 43*(3), 279-290.

Zondo, A. M. (2000). The impact of educational resources on the teaching and learning of geography in secondary schools.

Zuma, S. (2016). *Teachers' Reflections of Teaching Geographical Information System (GIS) at Grade 11 Within CAPS in a Township School in the UMhlathuze Circuit.* University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood.

Appendix A- Letter of request to conduct research, Eswatini Ministry of Education and Training.

Dlamini B.B (Mr)

P.O.BOX 7159

Manzini

03 January 2019

The Director

Eswatini Ministry of Education and Training

P.O.BOX 39

Mbabane

Dear Sir/ Madam

Re: Application for Permission to Conduct Research at Swazi National High School.

I am Dlamini Boy Bongani a student studying for Masters of Education in Curriculum Studies at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood campus, Pinetown, South Africa. I am conducting a study to explore teaching approaches used by form five geography teachers. I

have observed that geography teachers are not sure about what approaches to use when teaching the form five classes especially the section on research skills, which has led to low passing rate in geography final examinations results in schools in the SGCCE sylabus. I intend to carry out a case study research of geography teachers at Swazi National High School as it one of the biggest schools in the country. I therefore, would like to kindly request to use four teachers in the geography department who will be teaching form five by the time of data gathering. Please note the following:

- The school and teachers' confidentiality is guaranteed;
- The interview and observation may last for about 1 hour;
- Any information given by the teachers cannot be used against the school, and the generated data will **ONLY** be used for purposes of this research;
- There will be no limit on any benefit that the school and teachers may receive as part of participation in this research project;
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years;
- Teachers have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. The school and the teachers will not be penalised for taking such an action;
- The school and teachers are free to withdraw from the research at any time without any negative or undesirable consequences;
- Real names of the school and teachers will not be used, but symbols such as A, B, C, and D will be used to represent teachers' names;
- The research aims at understanding the approaches used by geography teachers when teaching their form five learners;
- The School and teachers' involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved.

I can be contacted at:
Cell: +268 76087383 /078 040 9747
Email: boydlamini74@gmail.com

My supervisors ;

 Prof. SB Khoza who is located at the School of Education, Edgewood campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
Contact details: email: khozas@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: 0312607595.

 Dr Shoba Makhosazane who is located at the School of Education, Edgewood campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
Contact details: email: shobam@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: +27312603688

Discipline Co-ordinator is Dr. NM Nzimande,
Curriculum Studies, School of Education,
Edgewood College, University of KwaZulu-Natal
(Tel) 0312602470 (Cell) 0822022524, Email: nzimandem2@ukzn.ac.za

You may also contact the Research Office through:
Ximba Phumelele
HSSREC Research Office,
Tel: 031 260 3587 E-mail: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

Appendix B- Permission letter from Eswatini Ministry of Education and Training

The Government of the Kingdom of Swaziland

Ministry of Education & Training

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

P. O. Box 39
Mbabane, SWAZILAND

10th January, 2019

Attention:
Head Teacher:
**Swazi National High School**

THROUGH
Manzini Regional Education Officer

Dear Colleague,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA FOR UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU NATAL STUDENT – MR. BOY BONGANI DLAMINI

1. The Ministry of Education and Training has received a request from Mr. Boy Bongani Dlamini, a student at the University of KwaZulu Natal that in order for him to fulfill his academic requirements at the University he has to collect data (conduct research) and his study or research topic is: *"Teachers Approaches to the Teaching of Geography in Eswatini"*. The population for his study comprises of four participants consisting of teachers from the above mentioned school in the Manzini Region. All details concerning the study are stated in the participants' consent form which will have to be signed by all participants before Mr. Boy Bongani Dlamini begins his data collection. Please note that parents will have to consent for all the participants below the age of 18 years participating in this study.

2. The Ministry of Education and Training requests your office to assist Mr. Boy Bongani Dlamini by allowing him to use above mentioned school in the Manzini Region as his research site as well as facilitate him by giving him all the support he needs in his data collection process. Data collection period is one month.

M.E. KHUMALO
ACTING DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING
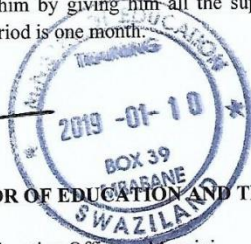
Cc: Regional Education Officer – Manzini
        Chief Inspector – Secondary/High
        Head Teacher of the above mentioned school
        Prof. S.B Khoza – Research Supervisor

Page **1**

135

Appendix C- Letter of request to school

Curriculum Studies, School of Education

College of Humanities,

University of KwaZulu-Natal,

Edgewood Campus

Dear Sir/Madam

Re; **Request to conduct a research**

My name is Dlamini Boy Bongani. I am a Curriculum MED candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood campus, Pine Town, South Africa.

I am interested in exploring form five geography teachers' teaching approaches and have identified your school to be the one where I would carry out my research. Your school has been chosen because of its large enrollment and that the geography department has sufficient teachers for this study. I have observed that form five geography teachers are not aware of the approaches to use in teaching the research skills section in the SGCSE syllabus which makes learners to get poor results in their final examinations.

I would like to apologise in advance for any inconvenience I might cause on my side. Hopefully the research will not disturb the smooth running of the school.

My plan is to interview four teachers from the geography department in your school who will be teaching form five geography classes when the data is generated .I would like to assure you that information gathered will be treated with utmost confidentiality. I am bound by ethical standards of conducting research not to reveal any information gathered. Furthermore the dignity, privacy and interest of the participants will be respected. The following items will be given to the teachers to read:

Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person, but reported only as a population member opinion;
- The interview, observation may last for about 1 hour and may be split depending on your preference;
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only;

- There will be no limit on any benefit that the participants may receive as part of their participation in this research project;
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years;
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalised for taking such an action;
- The participants are free to withdraw from the research at any time without any negative or undesirable consequences to themselves;
- Real names of the participants will not be used, but symbols such as A, B, C and D will be used to represent participants' names;
- The research aims at knowing the approaches form five geography teachers use in their classrooms;
- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved;
- If you are willing to be interviewed, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment.

	willing	Not willing
Audio equipment		
Photographic equipment		
Video equipment		

I can be contacted at:

Email: boydlamini@74@gmail.com

Cell: +268 76087383/ 078 040 9747.

My supervisors;

Prof. SB Khoza who is located at the School of Education, Edgewood campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
Contact details: email: khozas@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: 0312607595.

Dr Shoba Makhosazane who is located at the School of Education, Edgewood campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
Contact details: email: shobam@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: +27312603688

Discipline Co-ordinator is Dr. NM Nzimande,
Curriculum Studies, School of Education,
Edgewood College, University of KwaZulu-Natal
(Tel) 0312602470 (Cell) 0822022524, Email: nzimandem2@ukzn.ac.za

You may also contact the Research Office through:

Ximba Phumelele
HSSREC Research Office,
Tel: 031 260 3587 E-mail: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

DECLARATION

I……………………………………………………………………… (Full names of Head Teacher) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent for the school and teachers to participate in the research project.

I understand that the school and teachers are at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should they so desire.

…………………………………….. …………………………………………
SIGNATURE OF HEADTEACHER   DATE

Appendix D - Letter of permission by principal

Mr BB Dlamini
P.O.Box 7159
MANZINI
ESWATINI
M200

Dear Mr Dlamini

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SWAZI NATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL

Your application to conduct research entitled: **"TEACHERS' APROACHES TO THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAHY 'at** Swazi National High school has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.

2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programs are not interrupted.

3. The school and the Department concerned will support the researcher while conducting his work.

Principal

Appendix E- Consent letters of participants

<div align="right">

Curriculum Studies, School of Education, College of Humanities,

University of KwaZulu-Natal,

Edgewood Campus,

</div>

Dear Participant

<div align="center">

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

</div>

I am Dlamini Boy Bongani a student studying for Masters of Education in Curriculum Studies at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood campus, Pinetown, South Africa. I am conducting a study to explore teaching approaches used by form five geography teachers. I have observed that geography teachers are not sure about what approaches to use when teaching the form five classes especially the section on research skills in the SGCSE syllabus, which has led to low passing rate in geography final examinations results in schools.

Therefore, to gather the information, I am interested in asking you some questions and also do classroom observation.

Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person, but reported only as a population member opinion;
- The interview and observation may last for about 1 hour and may be split depending on your preference;
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only;
- There will be no limit on any benefit that the participants may receive as part of their participation in this research project;
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years;
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalized for taking such an action;
- The participants are free to withdraw from the research at any time without any negative or undesirable consequences to themselves;
- Real names of the participants will not be used, but symbols such as A, B, C, and D will be used to represent participants' names;
- The research aims at knowing the approaches form five geography teachers use in their classrooms;
- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved;

- If you are willing to be interviewed, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment.

	willing	Not willing
Audio equipment		
Photographic equipment		
Video equipment		

I can be contacted at:

Email: boydlamini@74@gmail.com

Cell: +268 76087383/ 078 040 9747.

My supervisors;

Prof. SB Khoza who is located at the School of Education, Edgewood campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
Contact details: email: khozas@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: 0312607595.

Dr Shoba Makhosazane who is located at the School of Education, Edgewood campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
Contact details: email: shobam@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: +27312603688

Discipline Co-ordinator is Dr. NM Nzimande,
Curriculum Studies, School of Education,
Edgewood College, University of KwaZulu-Natal
(Tel) 0312602470 (Cell) 0822022524, Email: nzimandem2@ukzn.ac.za

You may also contact the Research Office through:

Ximba Phumelele
HSSREC Research Office,
Tel: 031 260 3587 E-mail: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

DECLARATION

I…………………………………………………………………… (Full names of the participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participate in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should they so desire.

…………………………………..   ……………………………………
SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT   DATE

Appendix F- Ethical clearance certificate

UNIVERSITY OF ™
KWAZULU-NATAL

INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

09 May 2019

Mr Boy B Dlamini 214583322
School of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Mr Dlamini

Protocol reference number: HSS/0215/019M
Project Title: Teachers' approaches to the Teaching of Geography in Eswatini School.

Full Approval – Expedited Application
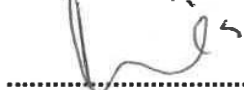
In response to your application received 02 April 2019, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL.**

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 1 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

....
Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)

/px

cc Supervisor: Prof SB Khoza and Dr ME Shoba
cc. Academic Leader Research: Dr A Pillay
cc. School Administrator: Ms S Jeenarain, Ms M Ngcobo and Mr SN Mthembu

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)
Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/8350/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za / snymanm@ukzn.ac.za / mohunp@ukzn.ac.za
Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

Appendix G – Reflective Activity

Concepts	Questions	Reflection responses by teacher
Reason for teaching	Why are you teaching geography/ research skills section?	
Aims	Towards which aims are you teaching geography/ research skills?	
Content	What content do you teach when teaching skills?	
Teaching Methods	Which methods/ activities do you use to teach research skills section?	
Teaching Aids	What materials/resources do you use for teaching research skills?	
Teacher's Role	How do you facilitate your class when teaching research skills?	
Community	How do you engage the community in your research section lessons?	
Testing	How do you test / asses your learners?	

Teacher's pseudonym_____

Appendix H- Classroom observation schedule

Date; _____   Class;_____   Duration;_____ Topic; _____

Concept	Guiding observation question	Observer's comments
Aim	Towards which aims is teacher teaching research skills	
Content	What content do you teach when teaching skills?	
Teaching Methods	Which methods/ activities do you use to teach research skills section?	
Teaching Aids	What materials/resources do you use for teaching research skills?	
Teacher's Role	How do you facilitate your class when teaching research skills?	
Community	How do you engage the community in your research section lessons?	
Testing	How do you test / asses your learners?	

Appendix I- Semi – structured one- on- one interviews

Pseudonym of participant…………………………   Date……………………

1.Reason for teaching- Why are you teaching Research skills/ geography?

2. Aims- Towards which aims are you teaching research skills/geography?

3.Content- What content are you teaching when teaching research skills?

4.Teaching methods- Which methods/activities do you use when teaching research skills?

5.Teaching aids- which teaching aids/materials do you use when teaching research skills?

6.Teacher's role- How do you facilitate your class when teaching research skills?

7.Community- How do you engage the community when teaching research skills?

8. Testing- How do you test your learners?

Appendix J – Turnitin report