EXPLORING LECTURERS' STRATEGIES TO DECOLONISE ENGLISH CURRICULUM AT A SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITY.

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of

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School of Education: Curriculum Studies

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DECLARATION

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As the student's supervisor, I, **Cedric Bheki Mpungose**, hereby approve the submission of the thesis for examination.

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I would like to express my deepest gratitude to the Almighty God who has sustained me in this journey. Without God I would not have conducted this study successfully, but He has given me strength, wisdom, and the needed speed. I cannot thank God enough but the word kept me going and encouraged to push even harder… *"and mine elect shall long enjoy the work of their hands"* Isaiah 65:22b.

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DEDICATION

“Not to us, O Lord, not to us, but to your name give glory because of your loving kindness, because of your faithfulness”. Psalms 115:1-3

ABSTRACT

This study is an interpretive case study research of five English lecturers who reflected on the strategies they employ to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. However, while lecturer's strategies are a common phenomenon the aspect of decolonisation is still very topical. Strategies as a phenomenon was conceptualised into three levels namely: written, habitual and verbal strategies. Reflective activity, one-on one semi-structured interviews and document analysis were used to generate data. The five English lecturers, who were deemed to be rich data sources, were selected through purposive and convenience sampling.

The following research questions framed the study: *What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African University? How do lecturers use these strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African University?* This guided the choice of the curricular spider web (CSW) as the conceptual framework used in the study. The curriculum concepts which constitute the CSW are vital for lecturers to teach effectively and thus form the foundation of any strategies the lecturers may employ. The literature reviewed highlighted strategies that may be used to decolonise the curriculum as well as discussed the curriculum concepts exhaustively.

The three levels (written, habitual and verbal strategies) were used alongside the curriculum concepts to facilitate the data analysis. Through guided analysis, the study found that lecturers use verbal strategies and habitual strategies frequently as opposed to written strategies. Findings revealed that English lecturers that they believed in student's social interaction through sharing of experiences and beliefs to connect the content with student's local context. Additionally, lecturers also used personal teaching approaches as they believed that decolonisation entailed an all - round approach to teaching taking cognisance of global as well as local genres.

This Dissertation recommends that English lecturers use all the three levels of strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Decolonisation of the curriculum can take different forms and be effectively implemented if lecturers approach it from the angle of the CSW concepts and its propositions.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CLT- Communicative Language Teaching

CSW- Curriculum Spider Web

CRQ- Critical Research Question

DUT- Durban University of Technology

HEI- Higher Education Institution

HW- Hard ware

IW- Ideological ware

MOODLE- Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment

NSFAS- National Student Financial Aid Scheme

SW- Software

UCT- University of Cape Town

UKZN- University of KwaZulu-Natal

QR- Qualitative Research

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CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW, CONTEXT AND OBJECTIVES

1.1 INTRODUCTION

From 2015 various student movements have been observed calling for the decolonisation (integration of Africanised scholarship) of the university curriculum**.** This comes 22 years after South Africa gained independence from the apartheid system. Mbembe (2016) advocates for the curriculum to cater for the needs of local and international students. Similarly, Berkvens, Van den Akker, and Brugman (2014) argue that there is consensus among education scholars that quality of education is paramount. They further state that education should involve a number of issues to cover aspects such as relevance, consistency, practicality and sustainability which can be applied across the entire education spectrum; these should encompass all curriculum concepts to ensure quality of curriculum that addresses the needs of both local and foreign students. As a result, this study aimed to explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. This chapter presents the focus of the study, the rationale, summary of literature reviewed, the research questions and objectives, research methods, data generation methods, data analysis, data production, limitations, sampling and ethical issues that were addressed.

1.2 TITLE

Exploring lecturers' strategies to decolonise English curriculum at a South African University.

1.2 FOCUS AND PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study was to explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university.

1.3 LOCATION OF THE STUDY

The study took place in the English education department at a South African university. Five permanent staff (lecturers) were interviewed to explore strategies they employ to decolonise the curriculum. The University offers education as its flagship programme.

1.5 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

My interest in this study emanates from my personal experience. I have been a student in the English education discipline completing a B.Ed. degree from 2013 to 2016, when I started

taking English as my major module. I observed that most literature has been taken from Western scholars, which posed some questions in my mind about the exclusion of African scholars such as Chinua Achebe, Ngugi wa Thiongo, Nadine Gordimer and so on. Work from Western scholars was more privileged; for example, plays, dramas, novels and short stories were mostly written by people from Western countries who live in completely different contexts. As a result, I witnessed that many students withdrew from the English Major 420 module in 2016, simply because they battled with the reading and understanding of Shakespeare in different literature texts such as novels, plays, and drama as we also had to explain how to teach Shakespeare interestingly in class.

In conversation with those students who withdrew from the module, they indicated their frustration as to why university lecturers mostly teach work from Western scholars, while we have African literature that is from South Africa, and the rest of Africa at our disposal. English Major 420 as an exit module is crucial and I believe it should be exposed to different genres of literature ranging from South African, and that in the rest of Africa as well as international contexts. It is in this regard that various student movements since 2016 have been observed calling for the decolonisation of the university curriculum. This led me to question if lecturers do have or use any strategies to decolonise the curriculum/modules, particularly within the English discipline. As a result, I was motivated to conduct this study to explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English Major 420 curriculum at a South African university.

Researchers, refer to strategies as plans of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall aim, they are methods or plans chosen to bring about a desired future such as achievement of a goal or solution to a problem (Bridgstock, 2016; Grant-Skiba & Orwa, 2018; Pratt & Martin, 2017). These researchers, further outline that strategies are needed to solve different curriculum issues that the system is currently facing. These studies suggest that lecturers can strategise at three levels namely: habitual strategies which are personal strategies that draw on an individual's personal identity; written strategies, which are drawn from documented materials; and verbal strategies which are gathered from heresay and drawn from the society in which the lecturers originate or live. From these studies, it is evident that to resolve the phenomenon of the decolonisation of university curriculum, as well as different curriculum issues, there is a need for new working strategies. As Le Grange (2016), states, one of the stages in the decolonisation process is action whereby the dreams and commitments of the colonised people turn into possible strategies for social transformation. This then suggests the need for lecturers

to use certain strategies to decolonise the university curriculum, particularly the English curriculum.

Fomunyam (2017, p.8) defines decolonisation "as a call by university stakeholders to end the white, Western, or the global north's supremacy in South African higher education and then to foster the South African thought, African perspectives, experiences and indigenous epistemologies in the curriculum". Decolonisation of curriculum is defined as the act of challenging and critiquing Western supremacy in university curriculum (Fomunyam, 2017; Le Grange, 2016). Moreover, decolonisation is divided into three types: decolonisation of the mind, decolonisation of university structures and decolonisation of knowledge (university curriculum). However, this study will focus specifically on the strategies to decolonise the university curriculum. As a result, this study sought to explore relevant strategies that are used by English lecturers to decolonise the university curriculum at a South African university. Curriculum refers to the lessons and academic content taught in a school or in a specific course or programme; it is a plan for teaching which is divided into intended, implemented and achieved curriculum (Berkvens et al., 2014; Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). Moreover, Thijs and Van den Akker (2009b), as well as Le Grange (2016), affirmed that in order for lecturers to develop strategies to decolonise the university curriculum effectively, knowledge of curriculum concepts; (rationale, goals, content, resources, assessment, lecturer role, environment, activities, accessibility and time) is pivotal. The above mentioned studies are an indication that this study is topical. There is a paucity of studies that focus on strategies used to decolonise the curriculum particularly the English education curriculum. In closing the gap this study therefore aimed to explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the university curriculum in the English education discipline.

This study aimed to add to the body of literature in the field of university curriculum. It may be beneficial to English education students, as it may inform change in the curriculum structure, within English education. It may also benefit the university management as a whole in considering change and transformation in curriculum structure, as well as assisting lecturers to identify relevant strategies that can be used to decolonise their curriculum.

1.6 LITERATURE REVIEW

As indicated above, strategies are plans of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall goal; they are methods or plans chosen to bring about a desired future, such as achievement of a goal or solution to a problem (Grant-Skiba & Orwa, 2018). Le Grange (2016), says the last

stage in the decolonisation process is action whereby dreams and commitments of the colonised people turn into possible strategies for social transformation. This suggests the importance of strategies in the decolonisation of the curriculum in order to bring change to the content of modules offered at a university. Paul and Reeve (2016), Barrot (2016); and Pan (2015); outline three levels at which lecturers can strategise during curriculum delivery, namely: habitual strategies, which are personal strategies that draw on an individual's personal identity; written strategies which are those strategies drawn from documented materials; and verbal strategies which are gathered from ideas drawn from the society in which the lecturers originate or live.

International studies (Lin, & Martin, 2005 Hokowhitu, 2016), indicate that there is a need to decolonise certain parts of the curriculum in certain modules, as physical education etc., dealing with racism and discrimination among lecturers from different places. Moreover, these international studies advocate for the globalisation of English to equip students with global knowledge in terms of competence. However, they urge lecturers to raise their voices on the issue, as they are the curriculum implementers who engage with students in the classroom context. This suggests that international studies are concerned about globalising the university curriculum, without considering the importance of connecting content and the local context. Duarte, Becker, Jamshidi, Thiele, Mo, Vo and Palsson, (2007), argue that there is a danger in separating knowledge from the social issues of a particular context.

Decolonisation is defined as the act of getting rid of colonised systems, (politics, education, economics and so on.) or setting a country free from being dependent on another country (Le Grange, 2016). Moreover, Le Grange (2016) introduces five steps of the decolonisation process: Rediscovery and recovery is where colonised people discover and recover their own history, for instance, who they were before they became colonised. Mourning is where colonised people lament on their continued subordination because of the colonisers. Dreaming is the stage where colonised people raise their identities and indigenous knowledge systems to think of possibilities to be restored. Commitment is where students become political activists who show interest in raising the voices of the colonised in the university curriculum. Action is the stage where the dreams and commitments of the colonised people turn into possible strategies for social transformation.

Decolonisation is divided into three types: decolonisation of the mind, decolonisation of university structures and decolonisation of the university curriculum. However, this study focuses on the decolonisation of the university curriculum, which is described by Fomunyam

(2017), as a call by university stake holders to end the Western, supremacy in South African higher education, and to foster South African thought. Decolonisation of the university curriculum requires lecturers to use strategies with an understanding of curriculum concepts: rationale, goals, content, learning resources, assessment, teaching environment, time, and teachers' role as well as teaching and learning activities (Amory, 2014; Khoza, 2017). This suggests that understanding these concepts may assist lecturers to opt for the correct strategies to employ in decolonising the university curriculum.

1.7. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives are as follows:

- To explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university.
- To understand how lecturers' implement strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university.

1.8. RESEARCH QUESTION

The research questions of the study were as follows:

- What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?
- How do lecturers use these strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?

1.9 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.9.1 Research paradigm

This study adopted an interpretive paradigm. Hussain (2015) states that interpretive research seeks to understand values, beliefs and meanings of social phenomena and thereby extracts an empathetic understanding of human social activities and experiences. This paradigm was suitable for this study because the researcher aimed to explore different strategies from individual lecturers used to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. The interpretive paradigm yields insight and understandings of behaviour, and explains actions from the participant's perspective, without the researcher dominating the participants. This was the right paradigm because the researcher was able to discover the strategies used and how they are used. This study adopts the interpretive paradigm because its main aim was to understand lecturers' strategies to decolonise English curriculum at a South African university.

1.9.2 Research approach/style

This study was conducted within the case study approach. A case study research style is used as it is directed at understanding the uniqueness and peculiarity of a particular case in all its complexity (Creswell, 2012; Yin, 2009). Starman (2013) defines a case as a specific bounded system where it is possible to identify that some features are within the case whilst others are outside but are significant as context. An interpretive case study was relevant in this study as it enabled the researcher to get rich and open ended answers in understanding lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. As Scotland (2012), emphasises interpretive methods yield in-depth insight and understandings of participants' behaviour.

1.9.3 Sampling

According to Bertram and Christiansen (2014), sampling involves making decisions about which people, settings events, and behaviours to include in the particular study. For this study, the sample consisted of five English lecturers teaching undergraduate students in the School of Education. The participants were chosen through purposive sampling. This type of sampling can be referred to as where the researcher decides which people or groups to include in the sample, on the basis of his/her judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought (Safari & Razmjoo, 2016). This was ideal for this study, as it enabled the researcher to obtain a sample that meets her specific needs - in this case English lecturers teaching undergraduate students, they were also chosen based on their consent to participate in the study. The study also used convenience sampling where subjects we selected because of their convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). I used convenient sampling because my participants were lecturers at the university where I am currently enrolled.

1.10. DATA GENERATION METHODS

Qualitative research uses data generation as opposed to data collection (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). The most frequently used techniques in qualitative researches are observations, interviews, document analyses and focus group discussions (Akmese, 2016; Bhooth, Azman, & Ismail, 2015; Keçea, 2015; Yin, 2009). This study adopts three data generation techniques namely, reflective activity, one-on-one semi-structured interviews and document analysis.

1.10.1 Reflective activity

Reflective activity was used as one of the data generation methods. Reflective activity is the ability to reflect on a situation and on oneself for instance, strengths, ability to solve the problem, impact of the problem on oneself, and emotions, while acting upon the situation (Killen, 1989). Lecturer reflection activity requires lecturers to complete a short set of questions about the phenomenon studied (strategies) (Killen, 1989). In this study, reflective activity was used to explore lecturer's experiences and behaviours regarding strategies they use to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. Lecturers were given time to reflect on their practices to discover if they have/use these strategies to decolonise the university curriculum. The reflective activity (questions) were formulated using curriculum concepts in the curricular spider web outlined as the study's conceptual framework.

1.10.2 One- on- one semi-structured interviews

One- on -one semi- structured interviews were used as one of the data generation methods. Akmese (2016), defines the one -on-one semi-structured interview as a technique of generating data that "involves gathering data through direct verbal interaction between individuals" (p. 8). Interviews are intended to find out what research participant thinks their perceptions or attitudes, and/or their reasons for thinking in a certain way. This study adopted semi-structured interviews because structured interviews have certain disadvantages: for example, they narrows the focus of the research and may ignore equally important issues. Moreover, the semi-structured interview allows deeper exploration of responses by participants – probing and exploring emerging dimensions that may not have been previously considered relevant aspects of a study (Keçea, 2015). Therefore it enabled the researcher to explore responses by participants through probing lecturers' strategies used to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. Each interview was scheduled to last for 45 to 60 minutes in a conducive place that suited the participants and was audio recorded with their consent.

1.10.3 Document analysis

The study also adopted document analysis to generate data for triangulation purposes. Document analysis is a form of qualitative research where documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around a topic (Bowen, 2009). Document analysis is a systematic procedure for studying or evaluating documents, both printed and electronic material (Bowen, 2009; Merriam, 1988). Qualitative research requires robust data generation to ensure the documentation of the research procedure and techniques to ensure credibility; therefore, document analysis has been used with different data generation techniques.

Moreover, like other data generation methods, document analysis requires that data be examined and interpreted in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge. This suggests that document analysis helps to elicit triangulation in qualitative research and documents need to be carefully studied and interpreted to make meaning. Cardno, Rosales-Anderson, and McDonald (2017), asserts that documents that may be used for systematic evaluation as part of a study take a variety of forms. In this study, document analysis involved a critical review of the English major 420 course outline for 2018, course texts (different literature texts used in the module), module content and lesson plans. I used English Major 420 course outline to see if the goals of the module include any strategies used to decolonise the university curriculum as well as to assess whether the choice of literature studied in that particular module is used as a strategy to decolonise the university curriculum.

1.11. DATA ANALYSIS

Denzin and Giardina (2016) describe qualitative data analysis as the range of processes and procedures whereby we move from the qualitative data that have been generated into some form of explanation, understanding or interpretation of the people and situations we are investigating. It is the process of detection and the tasks of defining, categorising, theorising, explaining, exploring and mapping (Ritchie & Spencer, 2002; Scotland, 2012). This suggests that after data generation, the researcher has to read and make the meaning of the raw data that have been generated. Bertram and Christiansen (2014), asserts that data analysis consists of three steps: *reduction*- (sorting and cleaning it up); *display* (presentation in an orderly manner) and *conclusion drawing* (what the data say to you/interpretation). Data analysis is carried out in two ways: induction reasoning starts from the specific to the general (e.g. raw data, - thematise, - concludes) and is open and exploratory while deduction reasoning starts from the general to the specific: hypothesis /theorise – develop categories – fit your data into specific patterns/connections), and is closed and focused (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). This study adopted guided analysis to analyse the data. Guided analysis is driven by both inductive and deductive reasoning (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). I used data from interviews to categorise participant's responses into themes and make conclusions (induction); moreover, I categorised data from reflective activity and document analysis into concepts of the curricular spider web (deductive). Themes that arose from the data and conceptual framework were identified and linked to the literature reviewed in chapter two.

1.12 ETHICAL ISSUES

Ethics refers to the moral principles that guide research from the beginning through to its completion and publication of results (Tolich, Scarth, & Shephard, 2016). Basic principles of ethically sound research include: respect for democracy (guaranteeing the participants freedom to give solicited information), respect for the truth (ensuring the research process does not involve any deception), and respect for persons (ensuring that the study does not infringe upon the dignity and privacy of the participants). As Tolich et al. (2016) say ethical considerations influence and relate to many aspects of research process and help researchers to decide whether a field of study is ethically acceptable or not. In this study, I obtained a research permit from the relevant university offices. I also requested ethical clearance to conduct the research before data were generated. Prospective participants were given letters of consent to sign containing details of the study, with the option of participating and/or withdrawing at any stage of the research. Participants' anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed and the guiding principles were strictly adhered to.

1.13 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness ensures that the research process is truthful, careful and rigorous enough to qualify to make the claims that it does (Denzin & Giardina, 2016).Traditionally, the terms internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity have been used to prove the trustworthiness of a research project. However, some qualitative researchers like Van der Westhuizen (2013), support the use of different terminologies like credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. They argue that in qualitative research, employing the interpretivist paradigm, the way to judge trustworthiness is different from in the positivist paradigm where the former terms are predominantly used. The concepts of reliability and validity are vital concepts in surveys and experiments but not in qualitative research which is concerned with particularities of a phenomenon that is not chosen because it is generalisable (Kozleski, 2017). Qualitative research is more concerned with the quality and description of case studies (Maree & van der Westhuizen, 2009).

Credibility is the extent to which the study actually explores what it claims to explore and reports what occurred in the field (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Using of concepts from the literature, excerpts from field notes and quotes from interviews can increase the credibility of a study. Thus, credibility in this sense can also be assured by establishing 'a chain of evidence (Starman, 2013). Questions of credibility can be addressed by getting an (experienced

researcher) to review and comment on the guidelines for the interview questions to help establish that they are appropriate. This study also elicited a chain of evidence through interviews and document analysis and reflective activity so as to corroborate information gathered from the participants.

Transferability is the extent to which a study's findings can be generalised or the extent to which we can make some form of wider claim on the basis of our research (Rennie, 2014). It can be ensured in research by use of replication logic in multiple case studies. In qualitative research, analytic generalisations can be made through personal engagement in life's affairs or by explicit experience which is so well constructed that the person feels as if it happened to them. According to Stevenson (2016), analytic generalisation is where a study leads to the development of an appropriate theory which then facilitates data generation in a subsequent case study. In this study, transferability would depend on conducting the same study in a South African university that uses the same mode of teaching as that used in this study.

Dependability is the extent to which the research procedure is clear to enable other researchers replicate the study or get similar results (Rennie, 2014)**.** This was ensured by making clear and detailed descriptions of the steps followed in the study. That is to make as many steps operational as possible and to conduct research as if someone were always looking over our shoulder. In this study, I used recorded interviews, document analysis and reflective activity as tools to generate data. Moreover, conformability is the extent to which the findings reflect the experiences and ideas of the participants (Creswell, 2012). For confirmability, there must be evidence after the data have been generated, categorised, reconstructed and interpreted (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). I ensured the interview questions were relevant to answer the critical research questions. Moreover, I took the generated data and interpretations back to the participants to verify that the interpretations were correct and in line with the responses that they gave.

1.14. ANTICIPATED PROBLEMS/LIMITATIONS

One of the limitations that I may face is that if I do not generate data on time, I might not find lecturers during teaching practice period. Another limitation may be that some lectures may not provide rich data since my study is on curriculum decolonization something that has not been implemented formally yet. Moreover, my study being a qualitative research may not be transferable to other similar environments. However, to overcome these challenges, I plan to remind my participants on time so that they can use their free time to plan ahead. My

instruments questions have been designed to be easy to understand and relate with. Lastly, to ensure that my study is trustworthy, I used different data generation methods (triangulation) and also reported every step taken in the research process.

1.15. CHAPTER OVERVIEW

1.15.1. Chapter one

Provides the reader with the general background of the study. This chapter also outlined the title, focus, research objectives and research questions of the study as well as the location of the study. Chapter one indicates the rationale of the study; outlines my personal reasons for conducting the study; what the literature says about the study phenomenon (lecturers strategies) and study focus (decolonizing university curriculum); as well as the significance of the study. In addition, this chapter looked at a brief literature review where the ten concepts of the curriculum spider-web were listed (Van den Akker, 2013). This chapter briefly highlighted the research design and methodology of the study.

1.15.2. Chapter two

Provides the reader with the reviewed literature on specific areas related to the study: lecturer's strategies, origin of higher education, decolonization, curriculum presentation (intended curriculum, implemented curriculum and achieved curriculum), curriculum design approaches, curriculum development cycle as well as curriculum concepts (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a).

1.15.3 Chapter three

Provides details on the methodology adopted by this study in order to achieve research objectives. The adopted research design approach being the interpretive paradigm. This chapter outlines the participants (five lecturers) and research methods (reflective activity, one-on-one semi-structured interviews and a document analysis) as well as the sampling (convenience and purposive sampling), trustworthiness (credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability), guided analysis (inductive and deductive reasoning), ethical issues and the limitations of the study.

1.15.4. Chapter four

Presents, analyses and discusses the findings from lecturer's accounts generated in a case study approach. This chapter displays how guided analysis was used to follow the ten concepts of the curricular spider-web. It also presents how concepts were developed into themes which then

formed categories that were aligned with the three levels of strategies (written, habitual and verbal). These categories ensured that the voices of the lecturers were reflected.

1.15.5. Chapter 5

Looks at the overall purpose of this study and whether the findings in the previous chapter addressed the study's purpose effectively. The research findings were summarised related to the study's purpose and the specific research questions: The questions asked: 1.What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university? and 2. How are lecturers' strategies used to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university? Conclusions from this study were derived and linked to these research questions, which were used to achieve the study purpose. The study's purpose was to understand lecturer's strategies, and explain the reasons for using those particular strategies. Finally, relevant and creative recommendations were made including the suggestion for further research.

1.16. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has provided the reader with the general background of the study. It also outlined the title, the focus, research objectives and research questions of the study as well as the location of the study. Chapter one indicated the rationale of the study; outlined my personal reasons for conducting the study; what the literature says about the study phenomenon (lecturers' strategies) and study focus (decolonising university curriculum); as well as the significance of the study. In addition, this chapter provided at a brief overview of the literature where the ten concepts of curriculum spider-web were outlined (Van den Akker, 2013). This chapter also briefly highlighted the research design and methodology of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter unpacks the literature reviewed, and focuses on the study phenomenon (lecturer's strategies), the origin of higher education, and decolonisation in a university (of the mind, university structures, knowledge, and the process), curriculum: (intended, implemented and achieved), curriculum design approaches, curriculum development cycle and concepts of the curricular spider-web. A literature review simplifies the key research concepts, terms and the meanings and also creates the context for the research (Cohen et al., 2011; Silverman, 2013). Furthermore, Silverman (2013) concurs with Yin (2009) that the literature review is all about what has been done by different scholars in one's research field and what has not been done which makes the study necessary. The literature reviewed helps the researcher to identify the knowledge gap in a given area with the aim of bridging it. Moreover the choice of literature reviewed assists the researcher in interpreting and analysing generated data. Hence, this chapter explores lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. This chapter focuses on understanding lecturers' strategies, explaining what informs lecturers' strategies and the lessons that can be learnt from those strategies.

In addition to the above, this chapter is guided by the research objectives and research questions of the study as outlined in chapter one. Figure 2.1 that follows presents a flow chart of the literature review with the first half of the pie representing strategies as the study phenomenon, after which, a contextualisation of the structure of higher education in Africa follows. This is important as it sets the stage to discuss decolonisation in higher education institutions (HEIs) and strategies employed by lecturers in the English discipline of a South African university. Thereafter, the literature around curriculum development and design, as well as curriculum layers is presented to situate the curriculum concepts, drawn from the curricular spider-web, which form the basis of the conceptual framework of the study.

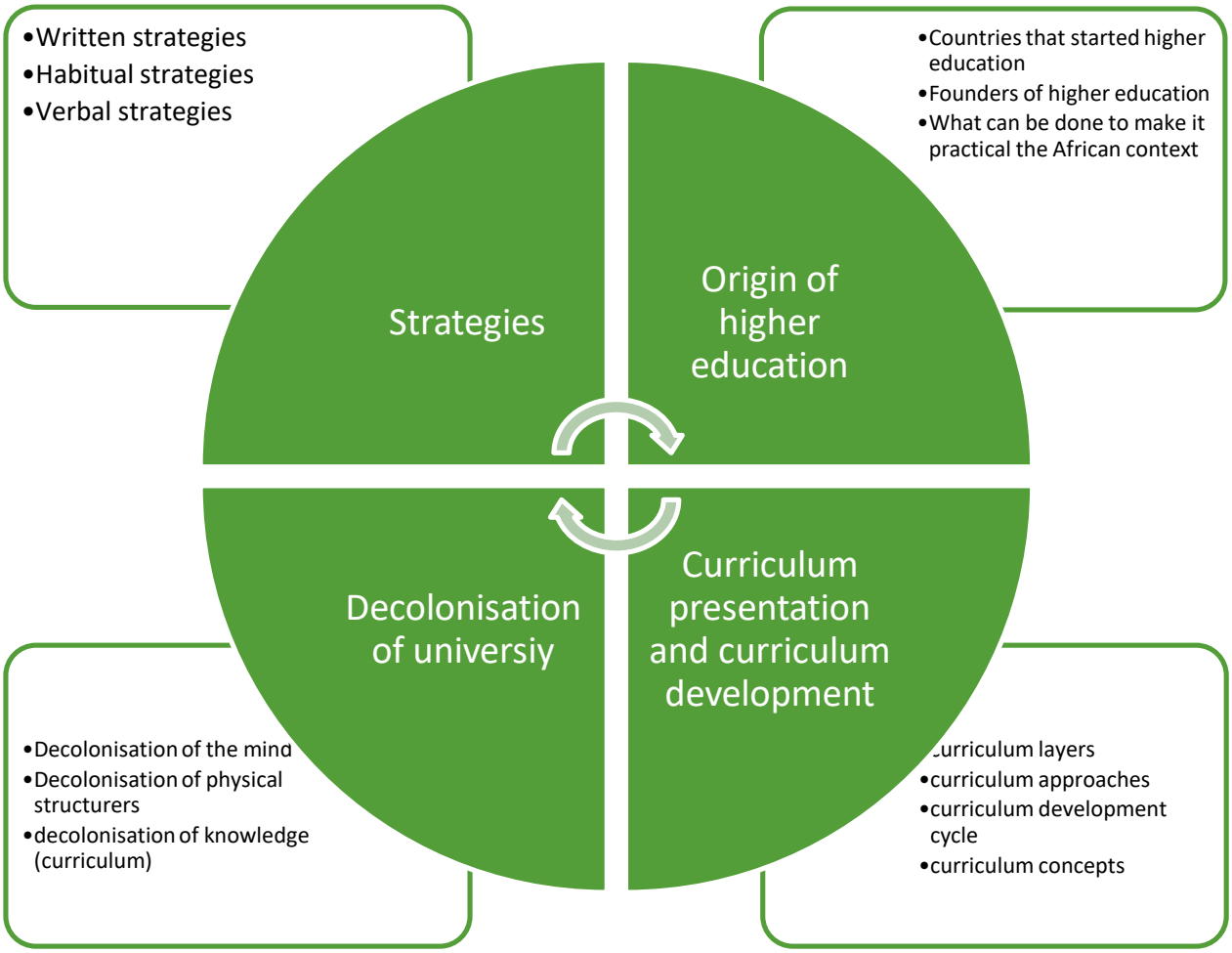

Figure 2. 1: Chapter 2 flow chart

2.2 LECTURERS' STRATEGIES

The success of students is enhanced by lecturers thus "lecturers equipped with modern teaching strategies play a pivotal role in the ultimate progress of students' academic and educational performance" (Gul & Rafique, 2017, p. 1). As a result, teaching strategies are specific actions taken by lecturers to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations (Ganser, 2002; Grant-Skiba & Orwa, 2018). Furthermore, strategies are plans of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall goal, they are methods or plans chosen to bring about a desired future such as achievement of a goal or solution to a particular problem (Barrot, 2016; Grant-Skiba & Orwa, 2018). In addition, Plonsky (2011) classified various strategies into three major categories: cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies. In line with this, Barrot (2016) concurs with Paul and Reeve (2016) as well as Pan (2015) that there are three levels at which lecturers can strategise

during curriculum delivery to decolonise curriculum, namely: written strategy, habitual strategy and verbal strategy.

Written strategies are those drawn from documented materials such as university policies, module outlines, and so on. Written strategies are professionally based on written evidence, as Khoza (2015c), states that these strategies are formal, being drawn from the ethical standards of the institution or from policy documents and other written sources. For instance, for authorities in a university in a certain discipline to come together formally and establish strategies with the aim of changing curriculum, they should be driven by a written policy, setting a way forward in a particular situation. Furthermore, written strategies for professional learning are steps taken by professionals in a particular learning institution to enhance their own development (Barrot, 2016; Kirk & MacCallum, 2017). These are seen as "metacognitive strategies which involves preparation prior to or reflection using planning, monitoring, evaluation, and problem identification" (Plonsky, 2011, p. 198). Moreover, both Plonsky (2011) and Khoza (2017) asserts that written strategies are considered to consist of assessing the situation, monitoring one's own performance, self-evaluating, and self-testing by following certain stipulated criteria. This suggests that these strategies are formal since lecturers follow certain criteria (professionally designed by the institution) to meet the professional standard. In other words, written strategies seem to draw on habitual strategies.

Habitual strategies are those strategies that are designed individually to implement the curriculum accordingly (Barrot, 2016; Bhooth et al., 2015). These strategies are personal strategies that draw on an individual's personal identity such as his/her beliefs and values. Both Khoza (2015b) and Gul and Rafique (2017) refer to habitual strategies as personal actions where it becomes a norm for an individual lecturer to design strategies for better implementation of a modules' curriculum in order to meet his/her individual needs. For instance, an English lecturer can decide to purposefully select only work from African scholars or to continue to teach work from Western scholars using a different teaching approach to relate the content with the African context. These are also called non-formal strategies by Mpungose (2015), because they draw from the sub-conscious mind of each individual person. Moreover Plonsky (2011) as well as Khoza (2015c) refer to these as cognitive strategies where lecturers use their "mental activities language and world knowledge to solve the given tasks. Furthermore, Barrot (2016) as well as Pratt and Martin (2017) affirm that habitual strategies are considered to consist of comprehending processes, storing and memorising processes, and using and retrieving processes. Similarly, Pratt and Martin (2017) and Basturkmen and Von

Randow (2014) refer to habitual strategies as memory strategies which are described as techniques that help lecturers to store data effectively in their mind so as to be able to retrieve it later in order to address any challenge at a particular time. Verbal interactions among colleagues, peers and other education stakeholders are necessary for the strategy can be successful.

Verbal strategies are those that are gathered from hearsay drawn from the society in which the lecturers originate or live. Verbal strategies are referred to as the shared skills, drawn from the society, both for on-going and significant elements of initial professional learning from peers through social interaction (Bianchini, Dwyer, Brenner, & Wearly, 2015; Khoza, 2015c). Moreover, Gul and Rafique (2017) concur with Bianchini et al. (2015) that verbal strategies are preferred approaches to obtain consensus on necessary skills. For instance, an English lecturer may allow students to share from their experiences on how important parent consent is before getting married, to relate to the theme of love in Shakespeare's play *Romeo and Juliet*. Khoza (2015c) refers to these as social strategies which are taken as indirect methods of learning informally that help scholars /professionals to improve their skills by giving and receiving support about new approaches to move forward in the institution. For instance, English lecturers can learn from each other on how one makes a Shakespearean play interesting and practical to students. Moreover, Bridgstock (2016) as well as Kirk and MacCallum (2017), further; affirm that social strategies involve three vital aspects, namely:

1. Asking questions: these strategies involve asking someone, possibly a fellow lecturer, for clarification, verification, or correction.

2. Co-operating with others: this involves interacting with one or more people to improve specific skills (group or pair work).

3. Empathising with others, taking into consideration other peoples beliefs, needs and thoughts.

In other words, these strategies may be used by lecturers in all spheres of their lives during the teaching and learning process, such as during the decolonisation of universities and internationalisation of higher education.

2.3 ORIGIN OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education refers to education at universities, especially to degree level. This type of education was established by different philosophers such as Plato, John Henry Newman, and Karl Jaspers (Barnett, 1990). Halttunen (2006) as well as Barnett (1990) take us through four

perspectives of the origin of higher education origin: the Greek idea of higher education, medieval idea of higher education, Newman's idea of a university and Karl Jaspers and the idea of the university. The Greek idea of higher education is presented in Plato's concepts. Plato presents the allegory of the curve where he presents unknowledgeable people as prisoners who are in the darkness and as soon as they get knowledge they become enlightened. According to Plato, once people come to the light which symbolises knowledge, they come out of ignorance and begin to be critical about information presented to them. Higher education originated in medieval times where the degree started to be universally recognised. John Henry Newman's idea of a university reflects upon England, where Oxford and Cambridge were the only institutions which offered higher education for 700 years, before a non-conformist university started in Gower Street in London. Lastly we have German-Swiss psychiatrist and philosopher Karl Jaspers, who had a strong influence on modern theology, psychiatry, and philosophy. The four perspectives of higher education origin discussed can lead English lecturers to strategise based on written documents.

The above discussion reveals that higher education was initially introduced by scholars of European or Western descent. The structure of higher education is therefore predominantly Western, as it was aligned with what was happening in the countries of the said scholars, such as England, Finland and other European countries. Despite attaining independence, many African countries have continued to model their HEIs along the initial structures introduced to them by their respective colonisers for instance in Rwanda until recently French was the official language and their university education was modelled along the French higher education model. In Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Kenya, Uganda and South Africa, the British model of higher education was adopted whereas Angola and Mozambique aligned themselves with the Portuguese model.

Similarly, the curriculum taught at the various HEIs was largely Western, for instance, in South Africa most of the text books offered to the English students are written by Shakespeare and the language apart from being difficult to comprehend is set in a context far removed from the African students. Other structural issues include the composition of the University Management boards, the structure of the curriculum, the awarding of degrees and diplomas and more. Therefore, the whole concept of higher education as currently offered in African HEIs is copied from the West (including the curriculum and the physical structures such as lecture halls). Furthermore, up till the present moment, curriculum development and design is still modelled along the concepts of Western curriculum founders such as Ralph Tyler (1959),

Lawrence Stenhouse (1969) and William Pinar (2004), among others with little or no marked alterations. In the context of decolonisation, we can still use the steps in Tyler's model but this should be applied to the local context. For example, Tyler (1959) model has four processes: rationale, learning experiences, organisation and evaluation. How these can be fitted into an African context could include changes instead of sticking to one hour written examination assessment, assessment could be of an oral nature, and may include demonstrations and practical experience as used to be done in the African community of education. Thus, in this sense English lecturers can strategise based on written evidence.

A typical example would be a look at how the higher education curriculum is developed and what its intended target is. The curriculum is aimed at preparing students for the world of work (Du Preez & Reddy, 2014). However, there has been an outcry from industry that the graduates leaving HEIs do not have the requisite skills for the job market and hence cost employers a fortune in re-training them (Manik, 2015). For instance, students who are trainee teachers are encouraged to go into the workplace and apply a learner- centred method, while they are taught through lecture methods, and as a result students teach in the way they were trained. Consequently, the curriculum should prepare students for what they will meet in the work-place and therefore there is a necessity to decolonise the university curriculum.

2.4. DECOLONISATION IN EDUCATION

Decolonisation is defined as the act of challenging white supremacy and dominance of colonised systems, (politics, education, economics etc.) or setting a country free from being dependent on another country (Le Grange, 2016; Mbembe, 2015). Both Wa Thiong'o (1994) and Mbembe (2016), affirm that Africanisation is about rejecting the idea that Africa is merely an extension of the West, thus, it's about clarifying what the centre is. By so doing, we are not rejecting other streams, especially the Western stream. However, the aim is to ensure that the African perspective is also considered in the choice of curriculum (Mbembe, 2016; Wa Thiong'o, 1994). This suggests that decolonisation is not aimed at removing the work of Western scholars from our curriculum, rather, it is intended to ensure that the African perspective is offered in equal measure to align with the context and needs of the country. Hence, decolonisation seeks to critique and challenge the dominance of Western scholarship in the university curriculum and advocate for space for African scholarship. Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2015) and wa Thiong'o (2000), assert that decolonisation is divided into three principles: decolonisation of the mind (mental capacity), decolonisation of university structures (buildings, classrooms and others), and decolonisation of knowledge (university curriculum).

2.4.1 Decolonisation of the mind

Oelofsen (2015) and Connell (2016) asserts that it is necessary for black people to overcome the psychological effects of colonialism. Moreover, anti-colonial writers concerned with the psychological effects of colonialism on the oppressed described a 'colonised mentality' marked by a sense of inferiority and a desire to be more like the colonisers (Adjei, 2007; Oelofsen, 2015). Therefore, there is a need to decolonise the mind. Decolonisation of the mind can be defined as the act of creating and fostering a set of mental dispositions (Battiste, Bell, & Findlay, 2002; Wa Thiong'o, 1994). Hotep (2003) and Cordeiro-Rodrigues (2017) affirm that to the decolonise curriculum, individual minds needs to undergo a reversing process, a constructive way to frame a psycho-educational approach for cleansing African minds of European cultural infestation (decolonisation of the mind). For instance, black parents may claim to be proud Zulus, yet they still believe their children are better off learning English at the expense of their own language. This can suggest that their minds are still caged in thinking that anything that seems western or European is better than their own culture. This suggests that there is a need to liberate individual minds from Eurocentric culture and beliefs, thus, fostering habitual strategy.

Mbembe (2016) concurs with wa Thiong'o (2000) that the choice of language and the use of language is central to people's definition of themselves in relation to the entire universe which draws much from their minds. This suggests that Africans are encouraged to use their languages which he argues defines one's culture. Thus, decolonisation of the mind seems to relate to the habitual strategy because these strategies seek individual lecturers to ensure effective teaching and learning by opting to use the useful strategy. For instance a lecturer may use his mind to code switch from English to IsiZulu in order to accommodate all students in the lecture hall. Moreover, decolonising of physical structures is another type of decolonisation which plays a big role during teaching and learning process.

2.4.2 Decolonisation of physical structures

Decolonising physical structures is very important in South African universities as it refers to removing colonial names such as Shepstone Building at the University of Kwa Zulu Natal (UKZN), and Rhodes University after the coloniser Cecil Rhodes, and re-naming lecture venues with local names. For example, a venue such as the Margaret Martin lecture theatre could be re-named to a name that students can relate to. Another aspect could be in constructing lecture venues in a manner that allows discussions and interactions as opposed to the traditional lecture theatres that are not friendly to interaction. Further to this, Mbembe (2016) and Ndlovu-

Gatsheni (2015) assert that a good university education is impossible without an extensive material infrastructure/architecture.

The recent 2015 'Rhodes Must Fall' protests challenged the presence of a statue that has existed for years at the University of Cape Town. This suggests that students are looking for something they can relate to as the majority of students on the campuses are African. For instance, at Durban University of Technology, the Steve Biko campus is named after one of South Africa's revolutionaries Steve Bantu Biko and there is a stature of him at the entrance of the university. Such names make students feel at home and give them a sense of belonging rather than having to struggle to recall a name that they do not even know how to pronounce and feel intimidated by. This suggests that there is a need to change colonial names such as Margaret Martins lecture theatre to lecture theatre 1, 2, and 3 to make buildings comfortable for local people to connect the content taught with the local context. Moreover, decolonising physical structures may also refer to building more straight and flat lecture venues that can allow student's group works and social interaction among peers and lecturer. Decolonisation of an institution's physical structures may be influenced by verbal strategy as it involves what society (students) wants and prefers the most in this case, the change of university space.

2.4.3 Decolonisation of knowledge (university curriculum)

Decolonising knowledge refers to breaking and challenging the political economy of knowledge production that accords certain privileges and legitimacy to certain forms of knowledge while undermining indigenous knowledge (Adjei, 2007; Battiste et al., 2002). For instance, to challenge having only work from Western scholars in a module such as Charles Dickens novel '*Hard Times'* set in the 1800s, Shakespearean plays and American films such as '*The great Gatsby',* while we have work from African scholars such as Chinua Achebe's '*Things Fall Apart',* Ngugi wa Thiongo '*The River Between*' and Alex La Guma's 'A *walk in the Night'* at our disposal. Decolonising the university curriculum can happen in two ways: firstly, it may be that lecturers chose to select knowledge that is only from African scholars for a change and to enforce African values to students and secondly, it may be that lecturers still select some knowledge that is from Western scholars such as Shakespeare but teach it in a way that makes students relate to. For instance, when teaching Shakespeare's play '*The Tempest'* which is about decolonising land, the English lecturer can ask students if they relate to this, then students start to reflect on how South Africa was colonised by the British and Afrikaners,

with the aim of connecting what happened in England 100 years ago to the student's local context.

Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2015) and Mbembe (2016) affirm that there is something extremely wrong when, curricula are designed to meet the needs of colonialism and apartheid continue well into the post-Apartheid era. This suggests that the curriculum should strike a balance between work from Western scholars as well as work from African scholars to meet the needs of all students and to connect content with the local context. As Mbembe (2015) and Connell (2016) assert we are told, to know the world without being part of that world, which makes the content irrelevant to the South African context. However, decolonising the curriculum does not mean restricting work from Western scholars but to ensure that no knowledge is more privileged than the other in the curriculum (Ndlovu, 2013; Wa Thiong'o, 1994). Decolonisation of knowledge (curriculum) may be influenced by written strategies because the selection of content is documented in the intended curriculum documents which may be module templates. This study focuses on the decolonisation of knowledge (the knowledge curriculum).

This study focuses on the decolonisation of the university curriculum, which is defined by Fomunyam (2017), in his interpretive case study as a call by university stakeholders to challenge the Western, supremacy in South African higher education and to foster South African thought. In addition to this, Le Grange (2016) introduces five steps of the decolonisation process: rediscovery and recovery, mourning, dreaming, commitment and action. Recovery and discovery are where colonised people discover and recover their own history, for instance, who they were before they became colonised and try to understand themselves as Africans. Mourning is where colonised people lament their continued subordination because of the colonisers. Moreover, mourning is very important because it brings healing and leads to dreaming. Dreaming is the stage where colonised people raise their identities and indigenous knowledge system to think of possibilities to be restored. For instance colonised people begin to imagine themselves free from the colonised system. Yemini (2017) concurs with Le Grange (2016) that imagining leads to commitment after the picture has been created in the mind. Commitment is where students become political activists who show interest in raising the voices of the colonised in the university curriculum. They commit themselves to doing whatever it takes to change the situation, which leads to actual action. Action is the last stage in the decolonisation process and is the main focus of this study. Action is the stage where the dreams and commitments of the colonised people turn into possible strategies for social transformation such as lecturers giving students a chance to do oral

presentations and demonstrations. For instance, English lecturers give students a chance to present their views on what knowledge should be included in the curriculum and lecturers use demonstration methods to encourage interactions in class. Therefore, during the action stage, English lecturers can strategies on a personal level by drawing on an individual's personal identity. They can also strategise based on documented materials and lastly they can strategise based on heresay from the society from which they originate or where they live. The above discussion suggests how important it is that lecturers understand the university curriculum in education.

2.5 DEFINING CURRICULUM IN THE EDUCATION CONTEXT

Designing relevant strategies to decolonise the university curriculum is reliant on the curriculum knowledge that lecturers possess (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Mbembe, 2015). Seitz (2017) says that the curriculum contains the totality of learning experiences provided to students in order to attain general knowledge and skills. Furthermore, a curriculum is defined as a plan of teaching and learning, and is also referred to as lessons and academic content taught in a school or in a specific course or programme, (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). In line with this, Pinar (2010) as well as Hoadley and Jansen (2013) asserts that the word curriculum comes from the Latin word *'currere'* which means to run the course. Furthermore, *currere* should focus on the significance of individual experience, to align any course content with society (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Pinar, 2010). This suggests that *currere* aims to accommodate student's social needs, for instance, the knowledge that they receive in class may not be too separated from their daily lives. This relates to a verbal strategy to decolonise the university curriculum where students' needs as social beings are catered for. Furthermore, in their study titled curriculum and curriculum in development, Thijs and Van den Akker (2009b) argue that curriculum is a plan for teaching and learning that comprises three layers, namely intended, implemented as well as achieved curriculum.

2.5.1 Intended curriculum

Studies further indicate that the intended curriculum, which is also known as the prescribed curriculum, is defined as a written plan for teaching and learning (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Furthermore, the intended curriculum contains content and concepts to be learnt, sequence of learning and guidelines of how students should learn and how lecturers should teach (Berkvens et al., 2014; Van der Westhuizen, 2013). For instance, the English Major module template is a formal plan of what is to be taught and learned in

lecture venues in a HEI. This suggests that the intended curriculum relates to curriculum policy makers and designers as people who select knowledge and develop the curriculum. In addition, the intended curriculum may be influenced by written strategy since it is guided by documented materials such as university curriculum policies module templates and outlines (Khoza, 2016b; Ramrathan, 2017). This suggests that for lecturers to design strategies to decolonise the curriculum, they need to consult documented materials to adhere to the procedures. Moreover, the intended curriculum may relate to decolonisation of knowledge (curriculum), as after a careful analysis of university policies, lecturers may have a curriculum plan with local knowledge to make it have sense to local students. Without the actual implementation of any curricular, intended curricular would be useless (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Ramrathan, 2017).

2.5.2 Implemented curriculum

Thijs and Van den Akker (2009b) and Pinar (2010) further asserts that the implemented curriculum also known as the practiced curriculum, offers a complete view of teaching and learning, as it emphasises teachers' role as an interpreter of curriculum. This is the actual implementation of the curriculum in the classroom setting (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). For example, each English lecturer's actual teaching of a novel differs, depending on how they understand the intended curriculum document (planned curriculum). Furthermore, the implemented curriculum relates to lecturers and students because they are the ones who actually put the intended curriculum into practice (Berkvens et al., 2014; Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). This suggests that practicing the actual curriculum in class is more important because it portrays how individual lecturers interpret the curriculum. For instance, two English lecturers teaching the same module using the same intended curriculum may interpret the curriculum completely differently. In other words, practice will differ also in terms of teaching styles and teaching methods thus lecturers are curriculum drivers. This suggests that the implemented curriculum relates to habitual strategies because English lecturers might use individual styles, tastes and preferences to teach their modules such as demonstration through drama or visual representations depending of each English lecturer's creativity (Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Khoza, 2016b).

The implemented curriculum may be influenced by the principle of decolonisation of physical structures since effective curriculum implementation relies greatly on the environment used for teaching and learning if it allows interactions. This suggests that individual lecturer may use habitual taste to make the lecture venue conducive to teach African literature texts (plays,

novels etc.), for instance with open discussions among students about the theme of love in Romeo and Juliet in relation to the South African drama '*uGugu no Andile'* to make/see the similarities and relate them to the South African context. Through learning outcomes, lecturers may dictate whether students have understood the content, and so assessment is crucial. Without the achieved curriculum, progress or failure may not be identified; this is discussed further below (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Zondi, 2015).

2.5.3 Achieved curriculum

Thijs and Van den Akker (2009b) as well as Du Preez and Reddy (2014) affirm that the achieved curriculum also known as the assessed curriculum evaluates whether what was planned to be taught and learnt was actually taught and learnt. For instance the achieved curriculum is for lecturers to examine whether students met the goal of the particular module (English). Moreover, the achieved curriculum also assists the lecturers to see areas of improvement in their curriculum implementation styles. For instance at the end of the semester summative assessment reveals if students actually understood what was taught throughout the semester, and if teaching goals were actually achieved successfully. The achieved curriculum has to do with the students as they are expected to grasp the content of the intended curriculum and also lecturers: whether their intended aims and objectives are reached through learning outcomes (Black, 2015; Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). This proposes that strategies may be designed within all curriculum layers as indicated above (intended, implemented and assessed). The above discussion suggests that the achieved curriculum may be influenced by verbal strategies because what students learn will influence the society they come from. In addition, the achieved curriculum may also relate to the principle of decolonisation of the mind, because the students go and implement what they learnt in the institution to transform the minds of others in the community. Furthermore, the lecturer may be influenced by a large number of students to use a certain teaching method to accommodate the majority. There are different approaches to curriculum design that can be adopted by the designers in developing a new curriculum (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a).

2.6. APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM DESIGN

2.6.1 Instrumental approach

Ralph Tyler's instrumental approach emphasises the importance of a systematic process of curriculum design (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Moreover, Thijs and Van den Akker (2009a) and Ramrathan (2017) assert that Tyler developed a systematic

plan for curriculum development in the book '*Basic principles of curriculum and instruction'* which he called rationale which comprises certain questions for curriculum developers. The instructional approach is influenced by four important questions for all curriculum developers, which are called the Tyler's rationale. Tyler's rationale is mostly used because of its simplicity and the fact that it emphasises the importance of rationale and clear curriculum goals (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Understanding the curriculum visions assists lecturers to strategise on their teaching in order to improve their teaching practice (Khoza, 2014; Ramrathan, 2017). Moreover, Khoza (2015c) and Ramrathan (2017) indicate that rationale is at the centere of teaching and learning which means that it applies to all of the curriculum concepts. This suggests that Tyler's rationale is crucial in curriculum development as it is the motive that drives lecturers' as they need to know why they teach their modules. Tyler's rationale includes the following questions: 1. *Objectives:* Which objectives should education aim for? 2. *Learning experiences:* Which learning experiences are most suitable in order to obtain these objectives? 3. *Organisation:* How could these learning experiences be organised effectively and 4. *Evaluation:* How can we determine whether the objectives have been achieved? Furthermore, the instrumental approach may be related to written strategy because it has specific steps to be followed from the first to the last stage, which suggests that curriculum developers needs to follow such steps when developing curricular. This approach also relates to the principle of the decolonisation of curriculum as knowledge is generated by following the different stages as listed above. Stakeholders' collaboration is necessary in curriculum development.

2.6.2 Communicative approach

Collaboration has been adopted by many curriculum developers to allow for a curriculum that meets society's needs (Bianchini et al., 2015; Bridgstock, 2016) Thus, "the communicative approach emphasises the importance of social strategies"(Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a, p. 18). Moreover, Thijs and Van den Akker (2009a) and Bridgstock (2016) affirm that this approach starts with the more subjective perceptions and views of the designers, the target group, and other stakeholders (students, lecturers, university management parents etc.). Furthermore, this suggests that in this approach, designing is regarded as a social process where parties involved participate in decision making, and solutions and decisions are made based on the consensus between all parties. This further suggests that curriculum design lies in the decision reached by all of the stakeholders involved in education, through collaboration. Ayers (1992) and Bianchini et al. (2015) assert that the curriculum should not be the product of

someone else's thoughts, knowledge, experience and, imagination, thus, lecturers and other education stakeholders should partake in developing the curriculum which helps the lecturer to understand it and develop strategies for better implementation. Walker (1971) introduces a communicative approach model with the following different stages: the platform of ideas: in this first stage, designers and other stakeholders present their views and ideas while striving to reach a consensus; deliberation: designers generate possible solutions to the problem and discuss the one that is most suitable, design is the final stage where results of the deliberation meeting are transformed into a final product draft. Bianchini et al. (2015) as well as Bridgstock (2016) concur that a communicative approach to curriculum development is the preferred way to obtain most of the necessary skills from different stakeholders. The above discussion suggests that communicative a approach relates to verbal strategy, since it accommodates the needs of the society in order to develop a curriculum that directly satisfies community needs.
Addy (2012) and Berkvens et al. (2014) emphasise that educational stakeholders (parents, students, lecturers, trade and industry, trade unions, religious groups, social organisations, researchers, and politics) deciding on the content of each module would help to ensure that the right content is chosen (Berkvens et al., 2014; Quan-Baffour & Arko-Achemfuor, 2009). In line with this Ramrathan (2017) concurs with Khoza (2016b) that although the curriculum may empower students with shared skills and attitudes, most countries differ culturally and therefore, choices should be based on a dialogue centred around local skills, competences, attitudes and values. Berkvens et al. (2014) state that these involve being self-aware, communicative, creative, critical in thinking, socially and culturally reflective, media smart, and able to solve problems and collaborate. This suggests that each curriculum should also involve issues based on the local needs of the society which can be achieved through the participation of different stakeholders as indicated above. For instance, stakeholders in a country may suggest selecting knowledge that is needed in the local community before bringing in knowledge from international contexts. Consequently, this may lead lecturers to exercise verbal strategies to find their needs and preferences in terms of knowledge to include in the curriculum. Direct needs of the local users of the curriculum may contribute in development of relevant curricula.

2.6.3 Pragmatic approach

A pragmatic approach is when close users of the curricula interact to formulate certain curricular (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Furthermore, the curriculum design and evaluation process takes place interactively, in this approach if consensus is not

reached between the users, the experts' and designer's vision becomes the deciding factor. Moreover, this approach is also driven by verbal strategies because curriculum users (society) strive for the curriculum to meet their needs. Furthermore, this approach is also driven by the principle of decolonisation of physical structures as stakeholders involved in curriculum development may suggest classrooms and a learning environment that suits the curriculum users. Creativity is essential in curriculum development to integrate the different necessary skills.

2.6.4 Artistic approach

An artistic approach assures creativity of the designer to develop a unique and relevant curriculum (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). This approach does not have any stages to be followed, rather the designer uses his experiences and perceptions to design the curriculum. Furthermore, the designer is an artist who works according to his own views and ideas by looking at the needs of the target group. This suggests that in this approach, curriculum design is a subjective process as he uses his own habitual tastes and preferences to design the curriculum. Eisner (1979) and Oolbekkink-Marchand, Hadar, Smith, Helleve, and Ulvik (2017) assert the importance of putting the lecturer at the centre of teaching and learning. Moreover, this approach maintains that curriculum enactment must meet the needs of the students. For instance, in this case the lecturer is an artist who from personal experience knows what students needs and designs a curriculum that suits these needs. Both Taole (2015) and Bianchini et al. (2015) affirm that lecturers as implementers of the curriculum should have the chance to develop the curriculum based on their experiences and the student's needs. Moreover, Oolbekkink-Marchand et al. (2017) and Bridgstock (2016) concur that scholars and researchers are not familiar with the class environment and therefore lecturers should be allowed to exercise their agency to creatively design a curriculum suitable for their students' needs in the classroom. The artistic approach relates to habitual strategy, because lecturers, (artists) develop the curriculum based on their personal experiences and preferences. Furthermore the artistic approach may relate to the principle of decolonisation of the mind as the curriculum designer already knows what is needed in the curriculum as an artist. Developing a flexible curriculum is needed to meet the needs of the majority of students.

2.7 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

In the field of curriculum studies, "curriculum development is the process where societal knowledge is taken and connected with group of student's that are located in a space at a given time" (Ramrathan, 2017, p. 97). Curriculum development deals with decision to be taken on

which knowledge is most worth learning in institutions such as universities and schools and organisation of such knowledge is specified in modules to achieve educational goals according to the needs of curriculum users (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). This suggests that curriculum development deals with combining specified needs of educational stakeholders to come up with a curriculum that best suits their needs, such as choice of knowledge to be included in certain modules such as English. Thijs and Van den Akker (2009a) introduce the following chronological stages of curriculum development: analysis, design, development, implementation and evaluation. These are displayed in **figure 2.2** below.

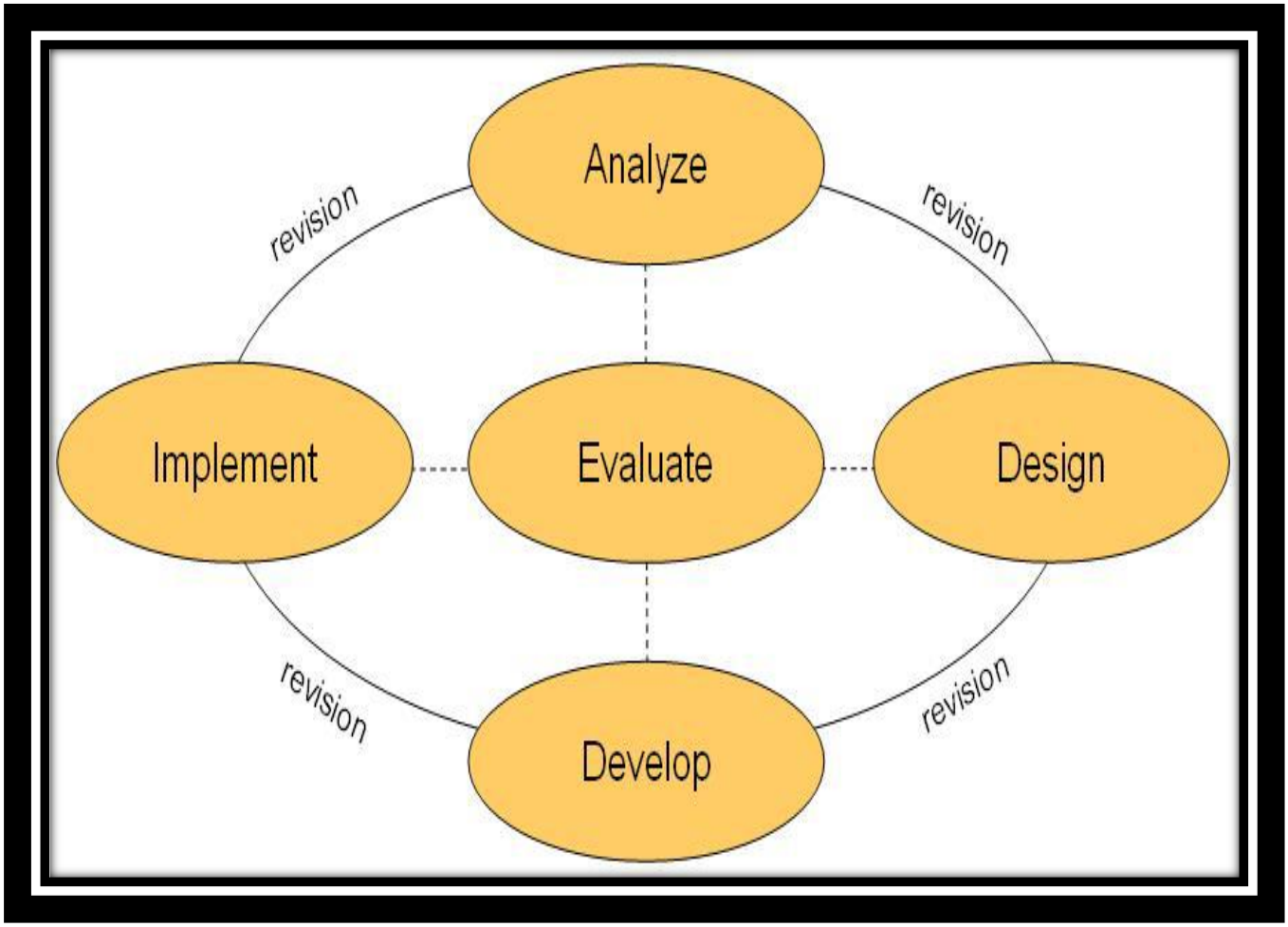

Figure 2. 2: Five cyclical activities to curriculum development by (Van den Akker, 2013, p. 16)

2.7.1 Analysis stage

Thijs and Van den Akker (2009a) introduce analysis as the first stage in curriculum development. In line with this, an interpretive case study conducted by Ulla and Winitkun (2017) on 72 English and Engineering students aimed to identify the students' needs, which are recognised as lack of linguistic needs and language skills. The study reveals that through needs analysis students are be able to feel ownership of the curriculum, as this is designed for them. The study further mentions that the purpose of a needs analysis is for English course instructors to know more about their students' preferences in English language learning. This suggests that needs analysis outlines the current needs of students, which helps lecturers to develop a curriculum that will adequately satisfy students' needs. Moreover, other studies (Pinar, 2005; Ramrathan, 2017; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a) outline that needs analysis is regarded as the most important factor in the curriculum, and is also seen as the foundation in curriculum development because the result thereof is used to design a student-centred curriculum. In other words, through a thorough analysis of students' needs lecturers get to learn what students need presently and what will still be necessary in the future. Moreover, Ingman, Lohmiller, Cutforth, Borley, and Belansky (2017) as well as Thijs and Van den Akker (2009a) assert that different studies realise the importance of needs analysis in language teaching to design and develop an appropriate curriculum that meets students' needs.

The above discussion suggests that curriculum change and development should be embarked on after a comprehensive analysis of students' needs to develop a curriculum relevant to the stakeholders in education. For instance, there can be curriculum change influenced by decolonisation of curriculum. Thus, lecturers in South African universities may take part in the analysis stage by proper analysis of students' needs and an indication of what they need, such as the inclusion of local content in the curriculum compared to one that is dominated by work from Western scholars. As Heleta (2016) and Mbembe (2016) argue, in the post-apartheid period the South African curriculum remains largely Eurocentric and continues to reinforce white and Western dominance and privilege. This suggests that any change in the South African curriculum after the analysis stage may be driven by both verbal and written strategies, since choice of curriculum depends on the lecturers' choice of content, and lecturers' choices are based on students' needs identified though proper analysis. The curriculum design stage follows immediately after the students' needs analysis, as discussed below.

2.7.2 Design stage

Curriculum design includes consideration of aims, intended learning outcomes, syllabus, learning and teaching methods, and assessment (Chugh, Ledger, & Shields, 2017; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). This is the second stage in the curriculum development cycle. The design requirements are carefully established, tested and refined into a relevant and usable product. Bozarth (2012) concurs with Thijs and Van den Akker (2009a) that the design stage defines a problem and formulates a solution. This suggests that after the problem has been identified in the analysis stage, design helps to find a possible solution to the earlier identified problem. For instance, the solution may be for lecturers teaching the English module to design a new curriculum that can address the issue of including local content to decolonise the curriculum. As a result, the design stage seeks lecturers to be influenced by both written and verbal strategies, since selection of relevant content to be included in the English module relates to the intended curriculum. This then suggests that without problem identification and analysis the design of a new curriculum cannot be possible, as this might imply that everything is well with the current curriculum (Bozarth, 2012; Chugh et al., 2017; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Development of the curriculum is another stage that needs to be considered during curriculum development.

2.7.3 Development stage

Development is the third stage in the cycle of curriculum development of(Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Ingman et al. (2017) as well as Thijs and Van den Akker (2009a) state that this stage allows stakeholders in education to contribute to curriculum development after the curriculum document has been designed. As earlier mentioned, curriculum design can take any approach, so in this stage society is given a chance to decide on the areas of improvement in the curriculum before implementation. Consequently societal needs are being addressed with the aim of having a curriculum product that directly addresses students' needs as identified through needs analysis in the first stage (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a; Ulla & Winitkun, 2017). This suggests that whatever the approach used to design the curriculum, stakeholders' suggestions remain necessary. In the context of this study, this stage may require English lecturers to exercise verbal strategies to curriculum development with the aim of allowing students' input to the curriculum reform to ensure that a fair curriculum unfolds and to satisfy the needs of the students in higher education. Ulla and Winitkun (2017) concur with Thijs and Van den Akker (2009b) that good curriculum development is identified by addressing students'

needs through a ‘Communicative needs processor’. Further to this, curriculum implementation is necessary to examine the newly designed curriculum.

2.7.4 Implementation stage

“Implementation is critical to a success of any curriculum” (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a, p. 39). Moreover, Khoza (2015b) and Pinar (2004) assert that after the curriculum has been prescribed in writing, practice is very important to examine whether the proposed curriculum is working or not. Studies (Berkvens et al., 2014; Khoza, 2016a) further outline that curriculum implementation involves several components, such as identifying relevant resources, offering support and addressing barriers to implementation. For instance, after the introduction of the new curriculum in an institution certain regulations are put in place, such as adoption of indigenous knowledge in the curriculum. In other words, the implementation stage may allow lecturers to use their habitual strategies in order to bring in local content to enhance understanding in the module content. As a result, the curriculum implementation stage is influenced by both habitual and verbal strategy. Consequently, methods/teaching approaches may be suggested for better implementation of the English curriculum. Evaluation of the curriculum is very important and needs to be considered to examine the progress of a newly implemented curriculum (Black, 2015; Ramrathan, 2017).

2.7.5 Evaluation stage

Evaluation and feedback is the final stage in curriculum development. Luce and Kirnan (2016) as well as Zondi (2015) state that the purpose of evaluation may be to improve the curriculum and also to gain support and possible resources for it as well as to answer questions about the effectiveness of a specific curriculum. This suggests that after the curriculum has been implemented, evaluation is necessary for follow-up purposes in order to see if the different needs (personal, discipline and societal) are addressed; this feedback may be witnessed after an enacted curriculum has been conducted. Firmino and Leite (2014) concur with Harlen and James (1997) in outlining the importance of giving feedback after the assessment has been conducted to ensure subsequent improvement. This stage is influenced by both written and verbal strategies because lecturers give feedback formally based on certain criteria, and for the curriculum to meet the standards it has to meet some specific requirements. Thus the development stages require lecturers to operate under a certain framework so that their strategies may be useful in decolonising any university curriculum. The success of all stages in

curriculum development is dependent on the lecturers' understanding of curriculum concepts (Van den Akker, 2013).

2.8 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A conceptual framework can be defined as the system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs, and theories that supports and informs one's research (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Muzio & Kirkpatrick, 2011). In addition, a "conceptual framework can also be defined as a figure, typically presented as a concept map that summarises all key information presented in the literature review of the study" (Antonenko, 2015, p. 3). This study, which aims to explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university, is guided by Van den Akker's curriculum spiderweb as a conceptual framework. The curriculum spiderweb has ten concepts: rationale, goals, content, resources, time, accessibility, assessment, lecturer role, teaching and learning activities and teaching environment (Khoza, 2015c; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). These concepts drive any teaching and learning process, as depicted in Figure 2.1 (Berkvens et al., 2014; Khoza, 2015c).

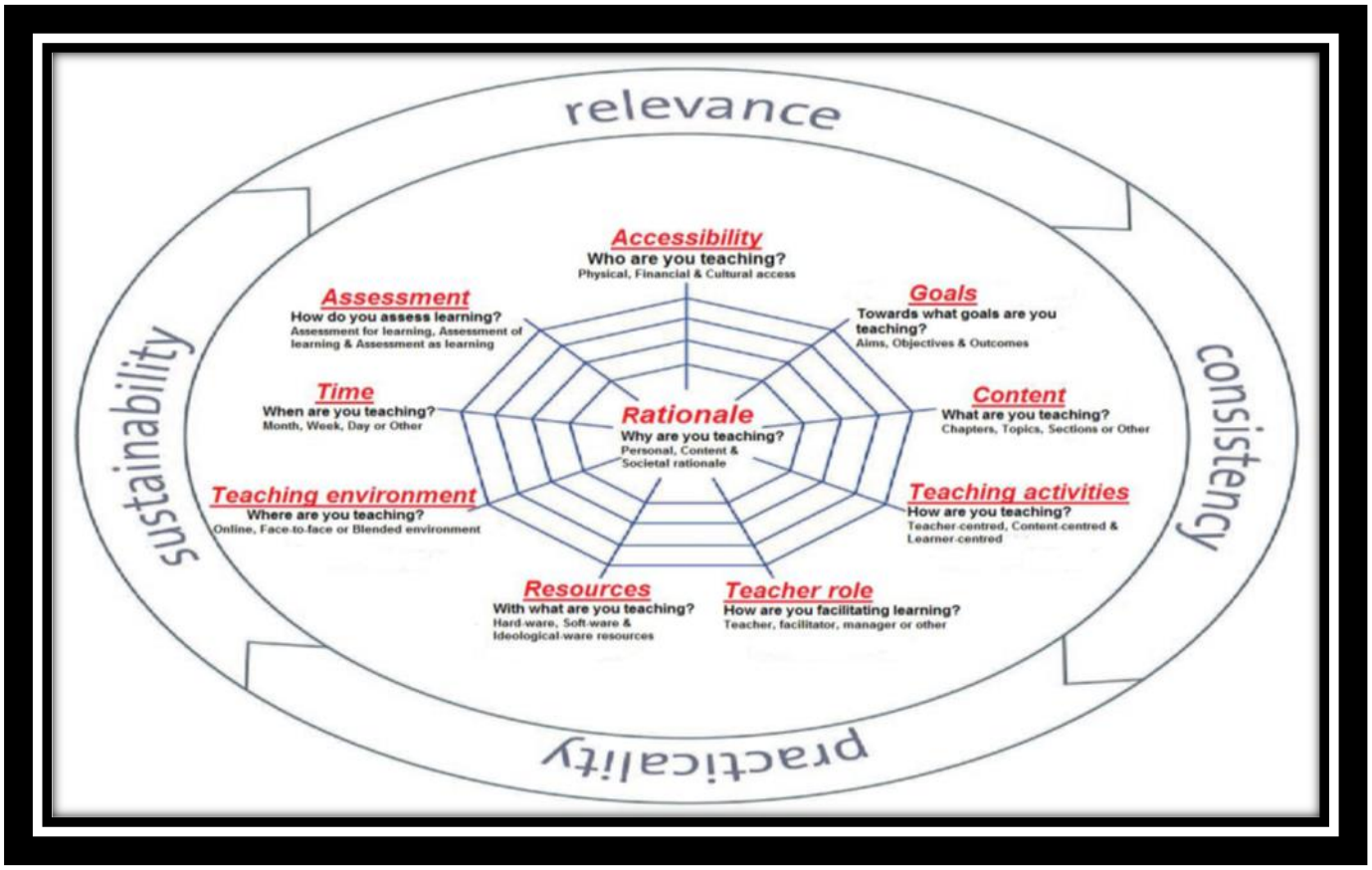

Figure 2. 3: Curricular spider web concepts adopted from (Van den Akker, 2013, p. 109)

Berkvens et al. (2014) asserts that the allegory of the spider's web shows the vulnerability of a curriculum: if components are not addressed in coherence, tension accumulates until the web ruptures and the curriculum loses its integrity. This suggests that all the curriculum spiderweb concepts are interrelated in a way that if one concept is not addressed, the quality of that specific curriculum decreases. Consequently it is suggested that lecturers need to know and understand these concepts and apply them rightfully so that they may be used to strategise in order to decolonise the university curriculum (English) (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). Furthermore, Berkvens et al. (2014) concur with Thijs and Van den Akker (2009a) that there is consensus that quality of education is essential and that thus is determined by bringing the curriculum concepts into balance.

These studies further note that education involves a number of issues; it covers aspects such as relevance, consistency, practicality and sustainability, which can be applied to the whole of education and all the curriculum concepts (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). Relevance refers to the decisions and plans depending on the state-of-the-art (scientific) knowledge and approval of key stakeholders: for instance, to decolonise the university curriculum using content taught as one of the curriculum concepts. Education stakeholders may explore relevant strategies that may be used to ensure that the type of content selected and delivered to students covers important aspects of what is to be learnt in local contexts, while offering an extended curriculum that prepares students with local and international knowledge that allows them to participate globally (Berkvens et al., 2014; Hoadley & Jansen, 2009). This suggests that stakeholders in education judge the type of content offered and whether it is relevant enough to the local contexts of the students before bringing in knowledge from international contexts; for instance, advocating to firstly teach work from African scholars, such as John Kani's play *Nothing but the Truth*, which teaches about African people's values and beliefs and thereafter to consider teaching Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby* which is about the American dream and issues of power, to see how students can relate to local people who use power to abuse other people's rights. On top of relevance, practicality is very crucial for implementation purposes, as discussed below.

Practicality refers to the decisions, policies and materials that can be used by lecturers to fit the setting for which they are designed (Berkvens et al., 2014). For lecturers to decolonise the curriculum they may need to consider their user-centred strategies to check if content taught is achievable enough to be practiced in the local context – for instance, if lecturers continue to teach only knowledge from Western scholars which is from a completely different context than

that of South Africa. As a result, students can end up being confused and wondering what the purpose of the lecturer's teaching knowledge is, that does not link to the learner's environment that they eventually operate in in the field (in schools). Mbembe (2016) concurs with Nyoni (2013) that a curriculum that has knowledge that is purely from Western scholars becomes strange to the local context as it cannot be practicalised. For instance, Charlies Dickens' novel *Hard Times* cannot be practical in the African context because of the time period and lifestyle. As a result it becomes highly important for lecturers to teach knowledge that prepares students for what they will meet in the higher education field (high schools). Consistency follows after practicality to ensure reliable content.

Consistency refers to seeing if the curriculum is in line with the vision and principal goals and objectives and itself (skills and knowledge objectives are interconnected) (Berkvens et al., 2014; Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). For instance, curriculum implementers (English lecturers) should ensure that they do not deviate from the goals which the module aims to achieve, such as to produce English teachers who are ready to face whatever the basic education department gives them to teach. This suggests that as much as lecturers are to design strategies to decolonise the curriculum to fit the local context, they should be careful not to limit students' competencies as English teachers in the making when it comes to all English education aspects. For instance, if lecturers are not careful to maintain consistency to the goals of the module, they might deprive students of crucial knowledge such as the teaching of Shakespearean literature (plays, novels, films), part of the prescribed knowledge to be taught in English. As a result, students might not be competent enough to teach learners something they did not learn in the higher institution. Le Grange (2016) and Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2015) maintain that decolonising the university curriculum refers to the balance of knowledge from Western scholars and from African scholars so as not to restrict any knowledge that is needed in the field. Sustainability is crucial in ensuring quality education as it looks at future goals.

Sustainability refers to a curriculum that is applicable in the current setting but is also future-oriented (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). This suggests that scholars that are used now should still be active in the future for the long-term goals of the intended curriculum document plan. For instance, if we choose to use knowledge from African scholars such as Gcina Mhlophe and others, they have to continue to publish more literature texts to be studied in schools. This is evident with Western scholars such as Shakespeare and Dickens who published a lot of work that is still used today. This ensures readers' sustainability, which is something most African writers still lack (for example, Ngugi Wa Thiongo last published a

book in the year 2000). As a result, it becomes important for English lecturers to still keep knowledge that is from Western scholars that already exists, but to keep on selecting knowledge from recent African scholars; then as time goes on and African writers grow, replacements can be made. Moreover, English lecturers can select literature texts that are likely to be relevant in the long term, regardless of whichever contexts they are from, in tackling issues such as inequality, corruption, love and so on, which are universal themes. This can also enable lecturers to bring the content taught to the local context of the students.

In the context of this study different scholars outline that lecturers need to understand different curriculum concepts in order to develop strategies to decolonise the curriculum, and these concepts have propositions and their respective levels, as depicted in Table 2.1 (Amory, 2010; Berkvens et al., 2014; Khoza, 2015c; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). This implies that understanding of these concepts may assist lecturers to opt for the correct strategies to employ in decolonising the university curriculum. Table 2.1 outlines the layout of the concepts and their corresponding questions and propositions in relation to the three levels of the study phenomenon. This will be used to structure the discussion that follows, explaining each aspect in detail.

Table 2. 1: Concepts, questions, propositions and phenomenon levels

Concepts	**Question**	**Proposition**	**Phenomenon level**
Rationale	Why are you teaching?	Professional Personal Social	Written strategy Habitual strategy Verbal strategy
Goals	Towards which goals are you teaching?	Objectives Aims outcomes	Written strategy Habitual strategy Verbal strategy
Content	What are you teaching?	Knowledge content Personal development content Social preparation content	Written strategy Habitual strategy Verbal strategy
Resources	With what are you teaching?	Hard-ware Ideological-ware Soft-ware	Written strategy Habitual strategy Verbal strategy

Lecturer role	How do you facilitate your teaching?	Assessor Instructor Facilitator	Written strategy Habitual strategy Verbal strategy
Assessment	How do you assess teaching?	Summative assessment Formative assessment Peer assessment	Written strategy Habitual strategy Verbal strategy
Teaching environment	Where are you teaching?	Face to face interaction Online teaching Blended learning	Written strategy Habitual strategy Verbal strategy
Teaching activities	How are you teaching?	Academic writing Tutorials Group work	Written strategy Habitual strategy Verbal strategy
Accessibility	With/who are you teaching?	Financial Physical Cultural	Verbal strategy Habitual strategy Written strategy
Time	When are you teaching?	Contact time Spare time Leave time	Written strategy Habitual strategy Verbal strategy

2.8.1: Rationale

Rationale is defined as a set of reasons or a logical basis for a course of action or belief; it answers the question as to why one is teaching (Khoza, 2016b; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). Moreover, rationale can be defined as the reasons why one is performing a certain action and is a cognitive process that requires us to pull aside the curtains of habit, automatism and banality so that alternative possibilities can be perceived (Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Khoza, 2015c). For instance, lecturers may teach because they have a passion for teaching, because they want to contribute to society's needs, or because they see the need for the knowledge taught. An interpretive case study conducted by Khoza (2015b) of two postgraduate students (participants) on teaching without curriculum vision and goals reveals that postgraduate students are not aware of rationale (visions) behind teaching, which limits quality teaching in their subjects. The study reveals that "understanding the curriculum visions helps lecturers to reflect on their teaching in order to improve their teaching practice" (Khoza, 2015c, p. 2). It is also indicated from the study that when lecturers understand the teaching rationale, they identify relevant curriculum goals, which leads to the use of the correct strategies. In addition, Khoza (2015c) concurs with Berkvens et al. (2014) that the motive that drives our action is

very important; thus lecturers need to know why they teach their modules. As a result, rationale is at the centre of the curriculum concepts, which means that it applies to all of the curriculum issues, including the decolonisation of the curriculum. Furthermore, studies reveal that the rationale for teaching has three aspects, namely professional, personal and societal rationale (Du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Khoza, 2016b; Slaughter & Lo Bianco, 2009).

Professional rationale is a vision that places a discipline or profession at the centre of the teaching/learning environment (Khoza, 2016b; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a, p. 4; Uysal & Bardakci, 2014). Bernstein (1975) as well as Berkvens et al. (2014) assert that professional rationale is guided by performance curriculum, where the focus is on the cognitive domain. Moreover, this kind of rationale (professional rationale) is very specific about the content that must be taught and how it should be taught (Bernstein, 1975; Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). Additionally, Hoadley and Jansen (2013) add that performance of professional rationale allows the lecturer to control the selection, sequence and pace of the knowledge taught in a lecture hall. In addition, Hoadley and Jansen (2013) and Ayers (1992) affirm that in professional rationale lecturers aim to finish the syllabus without students understanding the content taught. This suggests that the focus is the product and not the step-by-step process of teaching the product; thus students' needs are not met. As a result, professional rationale relates to written strategies, as Kirk and MacCallum (2017) as well as Aad et al. (2014) report that institutions' policy documents guide decisions taken by staff to update the curriculum. This suggests that lecturers' teaching practices can be guided by policy documents in choosing the module content; for instance, lecturers can be mandated in their contract to select 70% local literature texts and 30% from international sources to teach in classes. Personal rationale assists lecturers to use their individual identities and beliefs to implement the curriculum effectively.

Personal rationale draws on an individual lecturer's personal identity. Khoza (2016b, p. 3) asserts that "personal rationale puts individual lecturer at the centre of teaching/learning environment" and this is driven by one's habit. For example, a lecturer who has been teaching for a number of years would not dwell too much on preparing for a lecture, but will use personal examples as a way of passing the content on to students and making it really practical. Furthermore, Khoza (2015c) as well as Thijs and Van den Akker (2009a) affirm that personal rationale forms an environment that helps lecturers and students to build up their own unique individual identities as they demonstrate their personal preferences and experiences. Further to this, personal rationale seems to relate to habitual strategy, as Pratt and Martin (2017) as well

as Barrot (2016) assert that habitual strategies are memory strategies which help lecturers to store data effectively in their mind and to be able to retrieve it later. This then suggests that lecturers seem to use their own personal identities in order to develop their own personal strategies for better curriculum implementation. For instance, the lecturer may decide to adopt a certain teaching method such as group work in the lecture hall that may meet students' needs in order to make the curriculum relevant to their local context. In other words, personal rationale drives lecturers to use habitual strategies as individual lecturers have different methods to implement the curriculum. As a result, lecturers' personal rationale allows them to decide whether they address social needs (students' needs) or professional (discipline needs) needs in their teaching process.

Social rationale relates to lecturers wanting to satisfy the needs of the society (students) and studies outline that social rationale places society at the centre of the teaching/learning environment (Khoza, 2016b; Ramrathan, 2017; Zhang & Wang, 2016). This suggests that lecturers need to be aware that students come from the society, and thus their teaching examples should be socially constructed (Bianchini et al., 2015; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). For example, an English lecturer may seek students to contribute towards giving practical illustrations based on what is taught, such as what effects of poverty they see in their communities and what they think can be done to alleviate the situation. As a result social rationale is driven by what Bennett and Maton (2010) called competence curriculum. These studies continue to assert that competence curriculum is the curriculum that encourages teaching that draws from students' everyday knowledge. Furthermore, Hoadley and Jansen (2013) concur with Ramrathan (2017) that competence curriculum provides both lecturers and students with important ways to link the formal knowledge that is taught in school and ways to apply that knowledge in individuals' daily lives. This suggests that competence curriculum emphasises practicality of content; for instance, students should enhance the ability to experience what is being taught in the class.

In addition, Khoza (2013b) as well as Hoadley and Jansen (2013) affirm that social rationale competence curriculum allows students to have control over the selection, sequence and pacing of the knowledge, and this relates to student-centered teaching. Social rationale relates to verbal strategies; for instance, lecturers may use this strategy to create more room for students to participate during the teaching and learning process of English education. From the above discussion considering the rationale for teaching, it is evident that lecturers can generate their

strategies based on three rationales, namely professional, personal and societal. The goal of teaching is another important aspect to be discussed.

2.8.2 Goals

A goal is a desired result or possible outcome that a person plans and commits to achieve (Berkvens et al., 2014; Moskowitz & Grant, 2009) – for example, towards which goal one is teaching (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). An interpretive case study conducted by Khoza (2016b) on two out of eight honours students who were full-time school teachers asserts that goal has three aspects: aims, objectives and outcomes. Furthermore, Berkvens et al. (2014), as well as Kennedy, Hyland, and Ryan (2009), assert that lack of broad education goals makes it extremely difficult to make consistent, specific content choices. This suggests that it is very important for stakeholders in education, like English lecturers, to have clear goals which will assist them to use relevant strategies to teach the intended curriculum effectively. Kennedy et al. (2009) and Khoza (2013b) state that goals must be short and long term, depending on their type; understanding objectives of each module makes room for other smart goals of each module.

Objectives are short-term goals that lecturers set for each lesson they teach: "the objective of a module or programme is usually a specific statement of teaching intention, thus, also objectives indicate the specific areas that the lecturer intends to cover in a block of learning" (Kennedy et al., 2009, p. 5). Khoza (2013b) and Kennedy et al. (2009) argue that objectives give more specific information about what the teaching of the module hopes to achieve; unlike aims where the statement is broad, objectives breaks aims into simpler, achievable goals. This suggests that objectives are smarter than aims in terms of timeframe; where English lecturers use action verbs to measure an objective's timeframe, such as what the lecturer intends to achieve by the end of each lesson; for example, students should be able to explain the characteristics of the main character in a play.

Objectives are influenced by written strategy because objectives are formally written in a lesson plan and set using language aspects such as verbs. Further to this, objectives used to be lecturer-centered but have changed to be in the present continuous tense ('doing' words) (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956; Kennedy et al., 2009; Misco, 2007; Vedder-Weiss, 2017). Objectives relate to written strategies because they draw from the content to be covered in a specific time such as a lecture period. Bennett and Maton (2010), Khoza (2016b) and Ayers (1992) outline that content-based teaching is influenced by performance curriculum. For

instance, if a student was able to get 100% in the class activity, the lecturer will assume that everything was understood without investigating that nothing was copied. Understanding the aims of each module gives room for other curriculum visions.

Aims refer to long-term goals that lecturers have for their modules. Khoza (2016b) and Kennedy et al. (2009) affirm that aims are broad, general statements of teaching intention and are achieved in a long term. Moreover, "aims are usually written from the lecturer's point of view to indicate the general content and direction of the module" (Kennedy et al., 2009, p. 5). For instance, an English lecturer can teach students creative writing with the aim of instilling writing and creativity skills so that in future they may become good writers. Thus, aims are influenced by habitual strategies because lecturers seek to set general goals for their modules (Kennedy et al., 2009; Khoza, 2016b). This suggests that lecturers may interpret content from the intended curriculum and determine the general goal based on their personal needs. For instance, a lecturer can aim to produce African scholars of the future when teaching and instilling local content through his teaching methods. Both aims and objectives indicate lecturers' intentions, but learning outcomes address students' intentions (Kennedy et al., 2009; Khoza, 2015c).

Learning outcomes refer to students achieving the goals (aims and objectives) that are set by the lecturers: "learning outcomes express what students are expected to achieve and how they are expected to demonstrate that achievement" (Kennedy et al., 2009, p. 1). A competent curriculum allows students to have a say in their curriculum, based on their societal needs (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Khoza, 2016a). Learning outcomes are influenced by verbal strategy because after teaching the students writing skills, such skills may be used in the community. For instance, the student may become a well-known writer, like other African writers such as Ngugi wa Thiongo. Moreover, unlike aims and objectives learning outcomes address the needs of students. From the above discussion it is evident that for lecturers to have clear goals to improve the quality of teaching and learning they measure their performance using students' achievements at the end of the teaching period. Moreover, (Kennedy et al., 2009; Khoza, 2016a, 2016b; Ortiz, 2011) suggested that lecturers must understand goals at different levels (objectives, aims, outcomes) to be able to design strategies to decolonise the English curriculum.

2.8.3 Content

Content refers to the body of knowledge and information that lecturers teach and that students are expected to learn in a specific subject or content area, such as English (Aad et al., 2014; Quan-Baffour & Arko-Achemfuor, 2009). Thus the content addresses "the question what are we going to teach is a core question in curriculum development" (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b, p. 14). In line with this, Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfuor (2009) concur with Berkvens et al. (2014) that the broad team of involved stakeholders deciding on the content of each module would ensure that the right content is chosen. Moreover, there are three main propositions for selection of module content: knowledge content, personal development content and social preparation content (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). Knowledge content refers to academic, sustainable and cultural heritage for learning the essentials such as information that is included in the curriculum to enhance students' critical thinking skills (Berkvens et al., 2014; Cesur & Ertaş, 2018; Hoadley & Jansen, 2009). In English education knowledge proposition may be related to language. This part of English deals with language rules such as sentence construction, punctuation marks and figures of speech. In other words, this proposition (knowledge) may relate to written strategy, as it allows lecturers to teach knowledge that is uniform to other international contexts. For instance, academic writing in English needs to follow the international standards stipulated in books and other written sources. This proposition is essential in the use of strategies to decolonise the university curriculum (English), because lecturers may decide what can be done to teach such formal knowledge in a way that students would relate to the content. Mbembe (2015) concurs with wa Thiong'o (2000) that decolonisation of the university curriculum does not mean erasure of international knowledge but a good balance.

Personal development content refers to personal needs and interests of lecturers in any module content. This proposition (personal development content) relates to literature in English education, and this includes the reading of poems, novels, short stories, etc. (Lin & Martin, 2005; Sawaki, 2017; Wa Thiong'o, 1994). For instance, as earlier outlined, decolonisation of the university curriculum may occur in two ways. The English lecturer may decide to select knowledge from African scholars to be taught with the aim of instilling African values and perspectives into students. The other method may be for English lecturers to continue to teach knowledge from Western scholars but trying to link it to the students' local context. For instance, the teaching of a novel from England but making students relate to themes such as the father-son relationship by looking at their own relationships with their fathers to link the

content to the students' local context. As a result, literature is a habitual strategy because choosing a text (play/novel) may depend on the English lecturer's personal taste and identity. Moreover, literature is the most popular content taught in HEIs to enhance higher-order thinking skills, and it is up to lecturers offering the module to select literature according to their needs (Barrot, 2016; Cai, 2016). As a result, lecturers may use their habitual strategies to choose knowledge from African scholars such as Chinua Achebe, Chimamanda, Ngozi Adichie and Ngugi Wathiongo, among others. Social preparation is another proposition that allows societal voice in developing the curriculum.

Social preparation content refers to issues of module content that are relevant to prepare students for societal trends and needs (Aad et al., 2014; Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Thus social preparation relates to the creative writing part of the English education module and creative writing includes students producing different texts such as essays, letters, wedding cards, etc. (Barrot, 2016; Bianchini et al., 2015). In other words, it is related to verbal strategy because lecturers teach the content to address students' needs which will be applicable to different societies after they have completed their degrees. For instance, students' writing of different texts depends on the issues they come across in their daily lives; as a result writing can help them to express their thoughts and ideas about different things such as the university curriculum. Moreover, through English lecturers' teaching of creative writing skills to students they might instil an interest in them to become writers in the future who might write about different social issues such as embracing one another's culture as South Africans. This suggests that selection of module content should cover all social needs of students to allow for flexibility in English education (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Khoza, 2015b; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). This suggests that personal development is necessary to allow students to develop individual needs. Resources that lecturers use in their classrooms is another important issue in our curriculum and is discussed below.

2.8.4 Resources

Resources are texts, videos, software and other materials that lecturers use to assist students to meet the expectations for learning defined by provincial or local curricula (Amory, 2010; Battiste et al., 2002). Moreover, resources in curriculum terms answer the question 'With what is one teaching?' (Khoza, 2016b; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). An interpretive case study conducted by Khoza (2015c) on university lecturers who used the online environment in the teaching of their modules identifies three types of resources in education: hardware, which can be any tool/machine/object used in education; ideological-ware, which refers to activities that

we cannot see and touch in education, such as theories and others; and software, which can be any material used in conjunction with tools to carry/display information. Resources in education are used to facilitate teaching and learning effectively (Amory, 2014; Berkvens et al., 2014; Miles & Darling-Hammond, 1998); this suggests that the combination of all types of learning resources in education would ensure smooth and clear delivery of content (curriculum implementation).

Hardware resources are teaching resources such as machines, objects or tools (Amory, 2014; Bian, 2018; Khoza, 2017). These are resources that can be touched, such as a laptop, projector, and English textbooks. Such resources can be very useful for lecturers to deliver the curriculum effectively. Moreover, Amory (2014) affirms that hardware resources are there to support the theories that guide the teaching of any module, such as English. This suggests that they are needed to ensure a smooth teaching and learning process; however, lecturers can continue to teach in the absence of such resources. Hardware resources relate to written strategies because there are instructions that one has to follow when using such resources. For example, it is written in the intended curriculum that students need to buy a certain book, such as *Purple Hibiscus* by Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie – they do not just decide to buy any book. Moreover, in order for a lecturer to use a computer he/she must follow some instructions such as creating password and so on. This suggests that lecturers may use hardware resources as a strategy to decolonise the curriculum by encouraging students to buy a certain book that written by an African scholar, like the one mentioned above. Ideological-ware resources are crucial as they define the module purpose, and are discussed below.

Ideological-ware resources refers to different theories that are designed for specific modules, such as English. Khoza (2017) and (Amory, 2014) refer to ideological resources as formal theories that drive the teaching of modules such as English. Moreover, there are different theories that are used when teaching English, which include critical pedagogy, social or cognitive constructivism and communicative language teaching (CLT). As a result, ideological resources should be those that drive any lesson in education, because learning is not about technology (hardware or software) but it is about ideology (ideological-ware), which involves different theories (Amory, 2014; Khoza, 2013a, 2013b). This suggests that ideological-ware should be dominant, because students are able to construct their own learning collaboratively; moreover, lecturers are the best resources ever.

Other resources such as software and hardware should be there to support/complement ideological-ware resources of the module (English). Ideological-ware resources are influenced by habitual strategies, because each English lecturer chooses the theory that guides his/her teaching. For instance, one may choose to use critical pedagogy to influence students to critically engage with issues discussed in the literature texts in relation to their daily lives. In other words, ideological-ware should drive the curriculum in education because through specific module theories the lecturer automatically has all the resources. Software resources are used together with hardware resources, as discussed below.

Software resources work in conjunction with tools such as laptops to display information (Amory, 2014; Khoza, 2017), such as using Moodle to communicate notes and slides to students. Software resources are used very closely with hardware resources, because if the lecturer wants to display slides he/she uses the laptop and the notes that are posted on the learning sites are taken from textbooks that are used in the module. The university in this study is becoming more technologically advanced, as they have decided to offer laptops to all students so that they can easily access Moodle to get content that is posted by lecturers. Software resources are also used to support the ideological resources that were discussed earlier. Amory (2014) and Berkvens et al. (2014) maintain that technology should be used to support complex human, social, and cultural interactions but not to drive the teaching process. Software resources are influenced by verbal strategies because they seek to communicate information to the students, just like using Moodle to communicate important information concerning the module.

2.8.5 Lecturer role

The lecturer role refers to the teaching approach that a lecturer uses to communicate the intended curriculum to students. Samuel (2014) as well as Steyn (2010) indicate that the most common role a lecturer plays in the classroom is to teach knowledge to students. However, lecturers are to perform the seven roles that are stipulated in the Norms and Standards for Educators (Gul & Rafique, 2017). In the curriculum the lecturer's role answers the question 'How does one facilitate teaching?' (Gul & Rafique, 2017; Liu, Hu, & Gan, 2013; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a; Vandeyar & Killen, 2007). Furthermore, different studies reveal that there are three roles that lecturers are likely to perform in their lectures; the English lecturer may act as an assessor (content-centred teaching), instructor (lecture-centred teaching), and/or as a facilitator (student-centred teaching) (Khoza, 2013a, 2015b; Peterson & Lorimer, 2012;

Vikash, 2014a). An interpretive case study conducted by Khoza (2013a) on student teachers' reflections on the new curriculum implementation reveals that the curriculum concentrates too much on a certain period to finish the syllabus. Thus lecturer-centred teaching is mostly adopted. This suggests that the motive of the lecturer in the implementation of curriculum depends in most cases on an individual lecturer's written strategies (content-centred) to teaching and learning, habitual strategies (lecture-centred) or verbal strategies (student-centred).

Content-based instruction is an approach in language education that is designed to provide second-language students with instruction in content and language (Balbay, Pamuk, Temir, & Dogan, 2018; Brinton & Snow, 1989; Gul & Rafique, 2017). (Khoza, 2013a, p. 12) states: "If lecturers use time frame to drive their lessons, then they are applying the content-centred approach (for cognitivist)". This suggests that the content-based approach, also known as content-centred teaching, is the teaching that focuses on covering/finishing the syllabus that is indicated in the planned curriculum in a certain period of time. Thus, in this teaching approach the lecturer plays the role of an assessor. For example, the aim of the English lecturer is to cover all chapters in the textbook without checking the effectiveness of teaching and learning (if students really understand or not). In this approach the lecturer plays the role of an assessor to evaluate the teaching and learning process from time to time, to ensure that the syllabus is covered in the stipulated time. Therefore content-centred teaching may be influenced by a written strategy because the lecturer aims to instruct second-language speakers on content and rules, and such content is specified in the templates and module outlines, to be covered in time. Furthermore, it may also be related to the decolonisation of knowledge (university curriculum) because knowledge is organised to be covered; thus lecturers can ensure that students learn and understand African philosophies, such as ethno-philosophy, nationalist ideological philosophy, etc. Besides content-centred teaching, lecture-centered teaching is also adopted by English lecturers, as discussed below.

A lecture-centered teaching approach refers to teaching that puts the lecturer's beliefs and identity at the centre of the teaching and learning process. Maharajh, Davids, and Khoza (2013) define a lecturer-centred approach as a teaching method where the lecturer is actively involved in teaching while the students are passive recipients of content. This is a traditional way of teaching and learning where lecturers play the role of instructors as they are perceived as the sole source of information (Beeman-Cadwallader, Buck, & Trauth-Nare, 2014; Kisaka, 2017; Priestley, Robinson, & Biesta, 2012). This suggests that students are to take instructions from

the lecturers without questioning and/or challenging statements made. Killen (1989) as well as Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfuor (2009) concur that the lecture-centered role is the complete opposite of a student-centered approach where students are seen as having information that needs to be scaffolded in the classroom through social interactions. We cannot conclude that lecture-centred teaching is bad; however, students should be allowed to participate in their learning.

The lecturer that uses a lecture-centred approach is driven by habitual strategies, because he/she teaches based on personal beliefs and their individual approach to teaching and learning. Furthermore, since this is a traditional way of teaching it becomes a habit for an individual lecturer to use the one and the same method (instructor). This may be as a result of many factors, such as overcrowded lecture venues where instructors have no choice but to purely lecture the students rather than playing the role of facilitator. Furthermore, the lecture-centred teaching method may be influenced by decolonisation of the mind; for instance, the lecturer may decide to narrate the story of apartheid in South Africa and how the youth of 1976 stood up for change, as a way of transforming young minds to see themselves as capable of changing social issues in the 21st century. Lecturers as facilitators promote student-centred teaching in lecture halls.

Student-centred teaching which relates to lecturers as facilitators refers to the teaching and learning approach that puts students at the centre of the teaching and learning process. Jaramillo (1996, p. 21) states that "Student centered pedagogy involves less moral discourse or talk time on the part of the lecturer and shifts more time, control and responsibility of learning to students". Both Killen (1989) and Bridgstock (2016) assert that a student-centred approach is when instruction is geared towards giving students more control of activities. This suggests that in student-centred classrooms the lecturer, unlike only giving instructions to students plays the role of facilitator of teaching and learning. In various institutions student-centred teaching is largely recommended to ensure that students take part in the teaching and learning process. Furthermore, Khoza (2015b) as well as Hoadley and Jansen (2013) report that understanding the aims and objectives of the module helps lecturers understand content to achieve learning outcomes to drive their lessons, and are therefore applying the student-centred approach. Moreover this approach allows students and facilitators to share the focus, instead of only listening to the lecture. In this way, not only the students learn but also the lecturer learns from his/her students' prior knowledge as it is shared.

The student-centred approach may be influenced by verbal strategies because as the lecturer interacts with students in class, being a facilitator of the learning process, he/she would know if students prefer also to be taught African/local literature as they are free to share their ideas. Through this approach students socially and cognitively construct knowledge on their own. The student-centred approach (facilitator role) may also be related to the decolonisation of university structures (lecture venues); for instance, an English lecturer may allow students to work in groups, and change class arrangements to allow discussions, through which African values and beliefs are promoted. Assessment is very important in education as discussed below.

2.8.6 Assessment

Assessment is a broad term defined as a process of obtaining information that is used for making decisions about students, curricula, programmes and educational policy (Firmino & Leite, 2014; Qu & Zhang, 2013). Black and Wiliam (2009) state that "Assessment is also thought of as the bridge between teaching and learning as it provides feedback on learning outcomes". Dwyer (1998), Kanjee and Sayed (2013) as well as Black and Wiliam (2009) affirm that assessment consists of both evaluation and measurement. It is also a tool that is used to find out or to measure if students have understood what they have been taught by the lecturer in a specific period of time (Qu & Zhang, 2013; Zondi, 2015). This suggests that assessment reveals if teaching and learning in a specific period of time was successful through achievement of stipulated goals and objectives by the lecturers. Furthermore, assessment helps provide assessors with diagnostic feedback in order to know the students' needs, with the aim to satisfy such needs (Earl & Giles, 2011; Zondi, 2015). Moreover, (Qu & Zhang, 2013) and Didicher (2016) affirm that assessment helps educators evaluate students' progress in a certain period of time; for example, at the end of a teaching period assessment determines if the student can move on to the next level. This suggests that assessment helps to motivate students' performance – the fact that they will be graded at the end of the learning period encourages them to work hard and perform well. It also encourages students to attend classes, knowing that they will be assessed on what is taught in class (Didicher, 2016; Earl & Giles, 2011). Assessment also provides lecturer self-evaluation; the lecturer is able to see the areas where s/he needs to improve him/herself in terms of teaching skills for better results (Firmino & Leite, 2014; Qu & Zhang, 2013). Black and Wiliam (2009), Berkvens et al. (2014) and Khoza (2016b) declare that assessment is separated into three aspects: assessment of learning, (summative), assessment for learning (formative), and assessment as learning (peer).

Assessment of learning refers to the summary of the teaching and learning process in a certain period of time, such as a semester; "Assessment of learning (summative assessment) occurs when lecturers reflect and evaluate students' progress to inform their future learning goals" (Black & Wiliam, 2009, p. 5). This type of assessment determines if the students can progress to the next level or not. Examples of summative assessment activities are tests at end of the term and examinations at the end of the year. Studies define summative assessment as that which is used to assign grades and classifications and also to determine students' academic development at the end of the teaching and period (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Firmino & Leite, 2014; Qu & Zhang, 2013). This suggests that through summative assessment the teaching and learning journey is concluded when achievements are obtained. For instance, for a student to know if they can do English Major 420, they need to pass English Major 410. Furthermore, summative assessment relates to written strategies as students are examined based on certain standards and criteria. For example, students are assessed on different levels, from the lower to upper levels of Bloom's taxonomy, in order to finally grade a student's overall performance. Luce and Kirnan (2016) and Firmino and Leite (2014) affirm that assessment of learning is important as it evaluates the whole process of teaching and learning.

Assessment for learning happens during the implementation of the curriculum prior to summative assessment and it gives feedback both to students and lecturers; "Assessment for learning (formative assessment) occurs when lecturers use inferences about student progress to inform their teaching" (Black & Wiliam, 2009, p. 5). Formative assessment is not for grading but it helps both the lecturer and the student to see where they lack, in order to improve in their practice (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Examples of formative assessment activities are homework and class activities, among others. Moreover, while this type of assessment gives feedback to students for developmental purposes, it also helps lecturers to reflect on the teaching approaches in order to do better in future. In addition to the above, Ramrathan (2017) concurs with Berkvens et al. (2014) that formative assessment is conducted as the learning process continues; this suggests that an English lecturer can keep on asking questions to see if students are still following the teaching process. These may be verbal, such as "Mention three main characters in this drama", or through written classwork to discover if the objectives of the lesson are being achieved. Formative assessment relates to habitual strategy because one gets feedback and still tries to correct mistakes; further to this, individual lecturers design questions based on personal choice and identities assessment. Peer assessment stimulates students' critical skills.

Assessment as learning refers to students evaluating each other's work for developmental purposes; "Assessment as learning (peer assessment) is when lecturers use evidence of student learning to make judgement on student's achievement against goals and standards" (Harlen & James, 1997, p. 4). Furthermore, Ramrathan (2017) as well as Hoadley and Jansen (2013) assert that peer assessment occurs when students assess one another's work based on the evidence of criteria given by the lecturer. This suggests that by this kind of assessment lecturers allow each student to learn through the developmental comments of other students. For example, an English lecturer may give students a task to assess one another based on academic writing skills, by looking at the language, paragraphing, etc. Moreover, just like formative assessment peer assessment provides feedback to the students to improve in the future (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Qu & Zhang, 2013). This suggests that peer assessment is influenced by verbal strategy as students share knowledge, values and beliefs to learn from one another in a relaxed classroom environment. The teaching environment is another important curriculum concept in education, which is discussed below.

2.8.7 Teaching environment

Teaching environment refers to the diverse physical locations, contexts, and cultures in which lecturers teach and students learn (Aşıkcan, Pilten, & Kuralbayeva, 2018; Bozarth, 2012; Poon, 2013). In the curriculum the teaching environment answers the question of where one is teaching (Khoza, 2015b; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). An interpretive case study conducted by Khoza (2015b) on 22 South African postgraduate university students from one university and one department (Curriculum Studies) reveals the importance of any module curriculum to stipulate the best location to deliver that particular content of the module. Moreover, the study further asserts that there is a need for curriculum designers to clarify which knowledge the curriculum promotes (global/local knowledge) in order to opt for the most suitable and relevant location to deliver such knowledge. In line with this, Budden (2017) concurs with Hoadley and Jansen (2009) that the teaching environment has three propositions: face-to-face contact, online teaching and learning, and blended leaning. This means that the curriculum can be facilitated based on the above teaching environment components.

Face-to-face instruction is when the lecturer and students are in a place dedicated to instruction, and the teaching and learning take place at the same time. This aspect refers to a traditional way of teaching that promotes physical attendance of both students and lecturer at the specific location (lecture theatre venue). Moreover, Poon (2013) as well as Tolich et al. (2016) assert that face-to-face instruction allows effective social constructivism between students and

lecturers. This suggests that this type of learning environment allows group interactions in the classroom situation so that the teaching process can be open for everyone to participate. This is applicable to a curriculum that promotes the teaching of local African knowledge, as different studies further argue that there is a need to use face-to-face interaction to promote local knowledge needs of everyday/general knowledge in educational institutions (Bhooth et al., 2015; Bozarth, 2012; Ravenscroft & Luhanga, 2018). This suggests that based on the structure of each curriculum, the lecturer can then conclude which aspect to adopt; for instance, language teaching usually promotes class and group discussions, which means that this proposition can work well when teaching an English module.

Face-to-face teaching and learning is influenced by written strategy, because it is stated in this university's policy that lecturers should teach students through face-to-face interaction (Aşıkcan et al., 2018; UKZN, 2017a). Moreover, face-to-face interaction may relate to the decolonisation of physical structures, because teaching English language requires a flexible class environment to foster discussions and openness in terms of sharing ideas. For example, in such an environment students can share how they feel about the content taught in the module in terms of relating it to their African beliefs and values.

Online learning refers to teaching that takes place on the internet with the assistance of personal computers. Khoza (2015b) and Hoadley and Jansen (2013) concur that education policy is intended to promote and encourage lecturers and students to be technology literate. This means that as the world is becoming more technologically advanced, the education sector is also adapting to that change and therefore online learning has to be introduced to overcome forms of restrictions such as sociocultural factors, distance and time. (Ison, 2014, p. 8) says, "Online teaching and learning is the one that takes place over the internet. It is often referred to as 'e-learning'." Online learning is a modern way of teaching and learning where ideas are shared on the internet between lecturers and students (Adebisi & Oyeleke, 2018; Jokinen & Mikkonen, 2013; Khoza, 2015b). Whereas face-to-face teaching may limit long-distance students in terms of time and cultural factors, online learning can happen anywhere at any time. Online learning seeks lecturers to be influenced by habitual strategies, as each lecturer may use this platform when he/she is away for personal or professional journeys in order to reach students anywhere. Blended learning is another aspect that has recently been adopted to facilitate teaching and learning in educational institutions, as discussed below.

Blended learning refers to the mixture of face-to-face and online teaching. Studies reveal that if the curriculum aims to promote knowledge in local contexts and at the same time be sensitive to global imperatives, blended learning may be adopted as a way to facilitate teaching and learning (Almasi & Zhu, 2018; Khoza, 2015b; Poon, 2013). Furthermore, "Blended learning is an education program (formal or informal) that combines online digital media with traditional classroom methods; it requires the physical presence of both lecturer and student, with some element of student control over time, place, path, or pace" (Patel & Patel, 2017, p. 11). This suggests that blended learning is more flexible in terms of teaching and learning, as it may accommodate both local and international students. As indicated earlier, decolonising the university curriculum in the South African context does not promote exclusion of international knowledge (Mbembe, 2015; Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2015), and so foreign students are not excluded from the curriculum; knowledge from Western scholars is still taught, and through blended learning the curriculum can strike a balance between the two types of knowledge.

An English lecturer can this teach in a physical learning environment while using Moodle to communicate notes of the module to students elsewhere for easy accessibility. Khoza (2015b) as well as Ramrathan (2017) argue that people (students and lecturers) have to make use of internet resources which connect them to all the corners of the world and bring education into their living room. This suggests that flexibility is good and should be considered in university teaching. Students should be aware of the latest technological resources used in education worldwide. Thus, blended learning seeks lecturers to be influenced by verbal strategy, because the English lecturer may decide to combine the two teaching environments to make leaning convenient for all students, whether distant or close (Poon, 2013; Vikash, 2014b). Teaching activities are needed for effective facilitation of the teaching and learning process.

2.8.8 Teaching activities

Teaching activities refers to the tasks that are given to students to consolidate the teaching and learning process. Berkvens et al. (2014) and Hoadley and Jansen (2013) affirm that students around the globe should experience inspiring teaching and learning activities that promote critical thinking, creative problem solving and personal responsibility for learning. In curriculum concepts teaching and learning activities answers the question as to how one is teaching (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Teaching and learning activities takes place in three ways: academic essay writing, tutorials and groupwork activities (Andersson, 2007; Cai, 2016; Loddington, 2008). Moreover, in the English education discipline learning activities are always in this form to complement the lecturers' teaching

approaches. Thus an essay is a document that has a defined structure – an introduction, a body and a conclusion (Andersson, 2007; Jiang, 2015; Sluijsmans & Prins, 2006). Formal activities in the form of essays are good because they allow for individual expression and can show the depth of learning. Moreover, "essays examine student's ability to form coherent arguments that can show the breadth of student knowledge and understanding" (Andersson, 2007, p. 6). This suggests that essays are good formal activities because they assist English lecturers in developing students' writing skills through the use of written strategies. Essays train students to express themselves in the form of writing as certain language rules are followed when producing academic texts. Essays are more frequently used activities in the English discipline, especially as formal activities for formative and summative assessments. In other words, academic essay activities may be influenced by written strategies because lecturers use certain guidelines to evaluate this activity such as the use of a certain rubric. For instance, students are evaluated based on expression (language rules, grammar, etc.) and content to see if they are actually following instructions stipulated in the activity (relevant information). This may also be related to the decolonisation of knowledge (curriculum), since it is a more formal activity based on intended curriculum document. Tutorials are also used in English for assessment purposes, as discussed below.

Tutorials are activities that take place after a lecture has been held to provide more clarity based on what was learnt in the lecture: "tutorial is a period of tuition given by a university or college tutor to an individual or very small group" (Park, 2015, p. 3). Moreover, individual tutorial activities are usually dealt with by students individually after each successful lecture and individual lecturers set questions based on their choice of content to be covered. This suggests that students individually show if they understand previous lectures. Moreover, these activities are influenced by habitual strategy because tutorials allow lecturers to ask questions that may probably be covered in the formal assessment, depending on what the individual lecturer chooses to include. For instance, an English lecturer may choose to use tutorials to ask students to analyse a certain play in relation to what is happening in the local context, with the aim of connecting the content to the local context. Furthermore, Basturkmen and Von Randow (2014), Cai (2016) and Katsara (2018) assert that individual answering in tutorials develops students' critical and creative skills.

Groupwork refers to work done by a number of people in collaboration. Ganser (2002) and Nyoni (2013) assert that groupwork activities are good for the following reasons: working collaboratively with others helps students to learn from each other as they construct knowledge

on their own for the completion of the task. Furthermore, English activities consists of a group which is composed of individuals, persons with their own personality dealing with a problem (Bozarth, 2012; Loddington, 2008). Loddington (2008), Gweon, Jun, Finger, and Rosé (2017) as well as Bennett and Maton (2010) assert that through groupwork activities students gain an insight into group dynamics. For instance, when students work together they can help each other to list and discuss issues that relate more to the context from the literature text studied. Bozarth (2012) and Cai (2016) affirm that groupwork also prepares students to tackle assignments that are more comprehensive. This suggests that groupwork activities help students develop their interpersonal skills. Furthermore through groupwork a higher average grade can be achieved. Groupwork activities may be influenced by verbal strategies because these activities allow society (students) to share information concerning local everyday experiences while being guided by lecturers as facilitators.

2.8.9 Accessibility

Accessibility refers to the availability of lecturers and students in the teaching environment for the implementation of curriculum. Accessibility answers the question 'With whom are you teaching?' (Berkvens et al., 2014; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). Accessibility has three components: financial, physical and cultural. Financial accessibility refers to the availability of funds to support students' education in higher institutions as well as lecturers' payment (Frey et al., 2017; Hill-Zuganelli, Cabrera, & Milem, 2017; Perrault & Clark, 2017). Moreover, in this context financial accessibility refers to bursaries, loans, and the National Student Financial aid Scheme (NSFAS), etc. It also refers to the contract that lecturers sign as agreement of payment proposed. This suggests that financial resources are needed for the success of the student's education – hence recent movements have seen students protests for free education. Financial accessibility is related to written strategy because the institution's documents reflect the means through which students pay for their fees and lecturers sign contract documents regarding their payment. Based on this, lecturers can use the financial accessibility to strategise as a way to decolonise the curriculum by relating teaching to the context of the majority in class (black students) and tackling financial issues in class.

Physical accessibility refers to lecturers' contact time with students in a teaching environment (Addy, 2012; Frey et al., 2017; Yuen, 2010). It may include lecturers' physical availability to the students to deliver the content in a conducive environment for teaching and learning (Erasmus, 2013; Richardson & Swan, 2003). Lecturers may use different means to get to the lecture halls: some may be staying inside campus, some close by and some even far away from

the campus. However, Erasmus (2013) stresses the importance of lecturers' physical presence to the students for social interaction and discussions. As a result, it becomes the lecturers' choice how they come into physical contact with the students to enhance effective teaching. This suggests that physical accessibility relates to lecturers' habitual strategies because they individually choose to either use personal cars, busses or to stay on campus to access lecture venues easily and on time. However, the institution do not permit permanent staff members to stay in the students' residences, since the university does not have cottages for lecturers (Erasmus, 2013; Finnis, Howell, & Gorrie, 2014; UKZN, 2017b).

Cultural accessibility refer to students' different backgrounds in terms of cultures, religion and languages (Del Carpio & Del Carpio, 2015; Mweli, 2018). According to Sosibo and Katiya (2015b) as well as Bozarth (2012) cultural accessibility relates to the verbal strategy since students come from different language and cultural backgrounds (e.g. the culture of the KwaMashu community is Zulu). Therefore, knowing that, an English lecturer will prepare to teach according the community's culture, beliefs and values. For instance, taking note that students are cultural beings, the English lecturer may ask students to share how they do certain things in their cultures. Taking the issue of the Shakespearean play *Romeo and Juliet*, English lecturers may ask students to list the procedure that is followed before people can finally be joined in marriage and the importance of parents' consent in the whole process, with the aim of connecting the content to the local context. Horstemke, Siyakwazi, Walton, and Wolhuter (2016) as well as(Steyn, 2010) assert that schools are part of the community, and therefore students are culturally constructed. Therefore English lecturers may use the culture and language of students to select African literature that speaks to their context and also embrace students' languages before they are taught English (Del Carpio & Del Carpio, 2015; Perrault & Clark, 2017). Wa Thiong'o (1994) indicates that to decolonise African minds means treating African languages as equal to English. Time allocation is important in education, as discussed below.

2.8.10 Time

Time is the system of the sequential relations that any event has to any other, as past, present or future; the indefinite or continuous duration for which events succeed one another (Ganser, 2002; Letizia, 2017). In the curriculum time answers the question of when one is teaching (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a). In higher education time includes three components: contact time, spare time and leave time (Cunningham & Yamasaki, 2018; Cupita & Andrea, 2016; Letizia, 2017). Contact time may be the period where lecturers meet

with students in lecture venues for the purpose of teaching and learning (Cunningham & Yamasaki, 2018; Ganser, 2002; Liberatore, Morrish, & Vestal, 2017). Grant-Skiba and Orwa (2018) as well as Cunningham and Yamasaki (2018) assert that in English contact time allows lecturers to facilitate the teaching process while students engage with one another through social constructivism. This suggests that contact time is during work hours. Depending on the university timetable, lecture sessions may be between one hour to one and a half hours in duration. This suggests that contact time may relate to written strategy, because the discipline stipulates in writing the number of contact sessions for each module such as English.

Lecturers' spare time is important to ensure effective planning and reflection, and may refer to free time lecturers have in their offices; they may use this period for consultation with students and proper planning of subsequent lectures (Letizia, 2017; Lowenthal, Dunlap, & Stitson, 2016). Moreover, in higher institutions lecturers may use their spare time to supervise postgraduate students. This suggests that during this time English lecturers may decide to select literature to be learnt and devise effective ways to teach each piece of writing. Moreover, this suggests that spare time may relate to habitual strategy, because individual lecturers may choose to use their spare time to design practical strategies to decolonise the curriculum; for instance, taking a British novel written by Charles Dickens and thinking of how to relate it to the African context with practical examples to illustrate this.

Leave time is important for lecturers to refresh their minds with new current knowledge, and may refer to the time period where lecturers take a break from their job for a stipulated period of time (Ganser, 2002; Kirk, 1996; Mulvaney, 2014). Leave time may be at different times, depending on the type of leave taken; for instance, sabbatical leave for an individual lecturer to take a break from teaching and focus on their studies may be for a whole year or a semester (UKZN, 2017b). Lecturers may use their leave to take a complete break from academia or go to conferences to expand their knowledge in the field, which may include reading more about recent news on decolonising the curriculum. This suggests that leave time may relate to verbal strategy, because the lecturer may communicate/network with other colleagues from different institutions to learn new strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Thus, this period may be used to devise strategies that can be used in decolonising the curriculum.

2.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The literature presented here reflected on how the components of the curricular spiderweb are used as concepts for proper curriculum implementation. This includes issues of content for the

module, rationale, goals, resources, lecturer role, assessment, teaching environment, teaching activities, accessibility and time. The literature has shown that lecturers can design effective strategies to decolonise the curriculum using different concepts of the curriculum spiderweb. Issues of curriculum including curriculum approaches and the five stages of curriculum development were discussed. This chapter explored the literature on lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum in an HEI. The next chapter will show how this study will set about answering the research questions by outlining the research methodology.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The literature review chapter presented how the components of the curriculum spiderweb are used as concepts for proper curriculum implementation, including issues of content for the module, rationale, goals, content, resources, assessment, lecturer's role, teaching environment, teaching activities, accessibility and time. The literature has also shown that lecturers can design effective strategies to decolonise the curriculum using different concepts of the curriculum spiderweb.

The main purpose of this study was to explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. To achieve this goal the following objectives were designed to guide the study:

- To explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university; and
- To understand how lecturers implement strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university.

Moreover, in order to engage with the research question, the following critical research questions were formulated:

- What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?
- How do lecturers use these strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African University?

The research design is a blueprint or road map that guides the study in terms of the relationship between the research paradigm – approach (es) – method(s) – data generation techniques – data analysis – and discussion for a particular study (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). This chapter aims to indicate the research approach adopted in this study (qualitative approach), cover the research paradigm (interpretive paradigm), research style/approach (case study), sampling (convenience and purposive sampling), data generation methods (reflection activity, one-on-one semi-structured interviews and document analysis), trustworthiness/authenticity (credibility, dependability, transferability, conformability), data analysis (guided analysis), and ethical issues as well as the study's limitations.

This chapter therefore aims to give more details about the research strategies adopted to address the research objectives and questions indicated above. Figue 3.1 is a flow chart that gives a step-by-step outline of the research design and methodology that was adopted in this study.

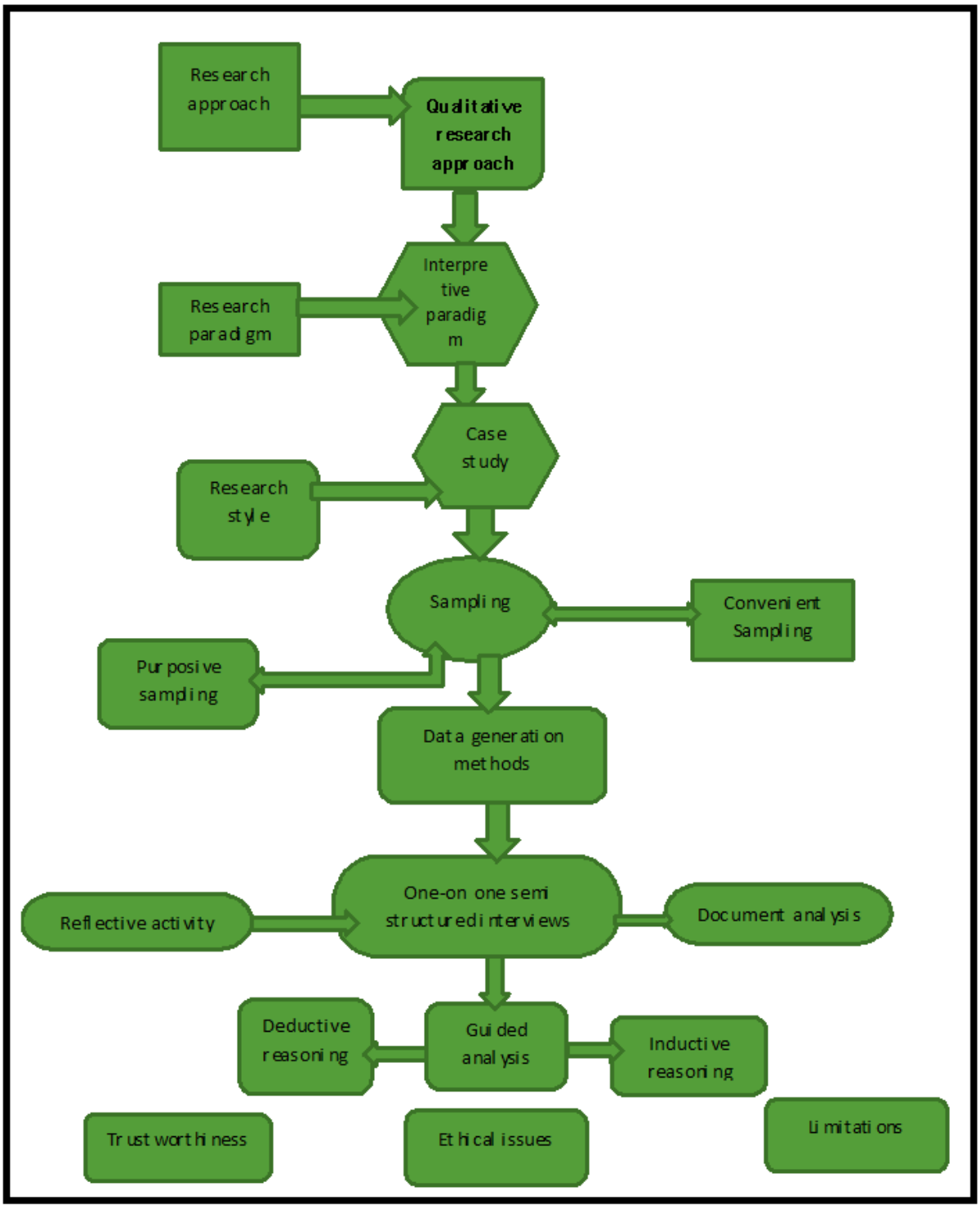

Figure 3. 1: Chapter 3 flow chart

3.2 LOCATION OF THE STUDY

The study took place in the English education department at a South African university – the Edgewood campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN). Five permanent staff (lecturers) were interviewed to explore the strategies they employ to decolonise the curriculum. The university offers Education as its flagship programme.

Figure 3. 2: University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) Edgewood campus

3.3 QUALITATIVE FIELD OF RESEARCH

This study has adopted a qualitative study approach Cohen (2011) as well as Jwan and Ong'ondo (2011) assert that the research approach is a blueprint or road map that guides the study, and that it can either be qualitative or quantitative in nature. Moreover, Richards (2003) and Rubin and Rubin (2011) concur that the qualitative research approach is a multi-method in focus and involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This suggests that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings while trying to make sense and also to interpret the phenomena in terms of the implications people bring to them. Futhermore, research in this field involves individuals' opinions, experiences and feelings while producing 'subjective' data, which are relative to the ideology of the qualitative approach (Marshall &

Rossman, 2014; Rubin & Rubin, 2011). Moreover, qualitative research emphasises the socially constructed nature of reality, which may be the relationship between the researcher, the participant and the study itself (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Rule & John, 2011). This suggests that in qualitative research the researcher is not expecting uniform responses from the participants, but rather subjective and personal responses, which makes it crucial for researchers to probe for deeper responses to get rich data. As this study aims to explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum, I generated participants' responses through social interaction with each lecturer. In other words, this approach was relevant for this study since individual lecturers gave personal subjective responses based on their strategies used in decolonising the curriculum.

Creswell (2012) as well as Jwan and Ong'ondo (2011) introduce seven important features of qualitative research: studies human participants in natual settings, focuses on perspectives, interpretations and understandings of individuals, places emphasis on the process, mostly uses inductive analysis, intends to work with unstructured data and empasises the need for flexibility. Thus, qualitative research is concerned with life as it is lived; lived experiences are explored in real-life situations (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011; Kumar, 2005). This suggests that the qualitative field of research allow researchers to be deeply involved in social constructivism with participants and the study itself to explore real-life stuations.

Cohen et al. (2011) and Silverman (2013) affirm that focusing on natural settings means mantaining openness of mind and avoiding judging a matter at face value. For example, if English students are failing a certain module, it would help for the researcher not to judge the practice of lecturers but to use observations to get a deeper understanding of the matter. Moreover, qualitative research can run for a long priod of time or for a short time, depending on the nature of the study being conducted. For instance, this study did not take long because the way I planned to conduct the research was mainly to understand the strategies lecturers use to make the teaching meaningful to their students. In addition to the above, Denzin and Giardina (2016) and Silverman (2013) affirm that not all people allow strangers into their private and confidential settings, which suggests that strengthening the relationship between researcher and participant is crucial.

In qualitative research the interest is in meanings and perspectives (Rice, 2000; Silverman, 2013). Jwan and Ong'ondo (2011) and Creswell and Creswell (2017) assert that qualitative researchers seek to discover different meanings that participants give to their behaviour and

opinions they have on particular issues. Futhermore, the aim of qualitative researchers is to obtain in-depth knowledge of the participant's social life being, and to understand individual people's experienes the researchers must be close to them, live with them and look at the world through their perspectives (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). In qualitative research subjectivity is not seen as a failure but rather as an important way to show understanding, and individuals' beliefs and values interconnect to their culture. This suggests that qualitative researchers need to be neutral and not to allow their feelings to judge participants' views, and they need to expect different responses from different people because since people are not all the same they may not see things in the same way.

As this study took the form of a case study, I ensured that I allowed individual perspectives from different participants, especially their views and thoughts about curriculum decolonisation in South Africa. In this respect I did not expect to get uniform responses as might be expected in quantitative research. For instance, some informants did not even believe in decolonisation of curriculum at all, they thought that students should only be exposed to international literature for purposes of advancement. On the other hand, some informants had strong reasons as to why the curriculum should be decolonised, and shared the personal strategies they employ in their teaching to achieve this.

In order to get in-depth responses I had to use unstructured interviews; my research questions were not asked in the same way, as a way of probing for more information. The study was an interpretive case study of English lecturers, but I treated each lecturer as an individual because they each have different views and implement the curriculum very diffently. In addition, although data were analysed using guided analysis, most of the themes emerged from the raw data itself to allow the data to speak for itself. I generated the data through social constructivism with the participants because I asked about practice in classes to discover strategies that they use to decolonise the curriculum. The research paradigm is key in any study as it tells us more about the researcher, and this is discussed below.

3.4 RESEARCH PARADIGM

People see the world in different ways. A paradigm constitutes a way of looking at the world and interpreting what is observed (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Creswell, 2012). There are different educational paradigms: positivism/post-positivism, interpretivism and the critical paradigm (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). Moreover, Scotland (2012) as well as Keçea (2015) assert that a research paradigm is made up of the following

components: ontology, epistemology, methodology, and methods. This suggests that it is important for researchers to indicate the paradigm their studies adopt to ensure that the readers understand the process the research takes. Ritchie and Spencer (2002) as well as Bertram and Christiansen (2014) believe that working within a certain paradigm determines what kind of questions are supposed to be asked. For example, in post-positivisim questions are too structured since it is usually in the quantitative field of research (e.g. one-word answers), whereas in the critical and interpretive paradigms responses may be open-ended since they are in the qualitative field of research. Moreover, Creswell and Creswell (2017) as well as Bertram and Christiansen (2014) concur that paradigms also determine how data should be generated; for example, the interpretive and critical paradigm usually use different methods of data generation that allow for in-depth answers. Futhermore, a paradigm is indicated by the way data are interpreted; for instance, in interpretive and critical paradigms inductive reasoning is mostly used to analyse, although theories are also used (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Denzin & Lincoln, 2002).

This study falls within the interpretive paradigm, described as one that aims to understand the social world (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). In the interpretive paradigm multiple interpretations are accepted as equal and valid, allowing subjective interpretations of questions asked. Interpretive research also seeks to understand values, beliefs and meanings of social phenomena and thereby extracts an empathetic understanding of human social activities and experiences (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Hussain, 2015). This suggests that interpretivists do not expect the same responses from the participants, but rather allow different perceptions. Futhermore, interpretivists are concerned with understanding the values, beliefs and perceptions of individual participants (Maree & van der Westhuizen, 2009; Marshall & Rossman, 2014). My study aimed to understand the strategies used by individual lecturers to decolonise their English curriculum. This suggests that in this paradigm data are generated through social constructivism and interaction between the researcher and the participants. Taylor and Medina (2013) as well as Silverman (2013) believe that this paradigm permits researchers to build rich local understandings of the life-world experiences of lecturers and students and of the cultures of classrooms, schools and the communities they serve. Moreover, the 'genuineness' criteria of the interpretive paradigm focus on the principles of the relationship established by the researcher with their participants, and include: *fairness:* are the readers represented fairly?, *educative:* did the participants benefit by learning about their social world?, *catalytic:* did the participants benefit by identifying problems associated with their social

world?, and *tactical:* did the research empower the participants to improve their social situation? (Rule & John, 2011; Taylor & Medina, 2013).

Researchers need to take a position regarding their perceptions of how things really are and how things really work (Cohen et al., 2011; Cronje, 2013). Blewett (2015) as well as Scotland (2012) indicate that ontology is concerned with what constitutes reality. This suggests that researchers need to take a stand based on what they believe and how they view and perceive things. Different paradigms naturally contain different ontological views; thus, they each have different assumptions of reality which support their particular research approach (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Scotland, 2012). Futhermore, Guba and Lincoln (1994) as well as Marshall and Rossman (2014) believe that the ontological position of interpretivism is relativism. This suggests that reality is subjective to each and every individual; in this case, what makes reality for one English lecturer may differ from what another English lecturer views as reality. Moreover, Scotland (2012) as well as Cohen et al. (2011) believe that reality is individually constructed, which means that realities are as many as there are individuals. This suggests that what we perceive to be reality may differ from one person to another – and no one would be wrong as long as each can give reasons for their interpretation.

In this study one participant believed that reality is that in order to decolonise the curriculum, lecturers need to ensure that they work with students through face-to-face contact, for example, encouraging groupwork among students in classes in order for them to share their values and beliefs between different cultures. On the other hand, another participant believed that in order to decolonise the curriculum lecturers should be the ones to impose the importance of valuing our African beliefs, by using examples and emphasising the beauty of African society with its different cultures and beliefs. This means that people will always view things differently, which is the beauty of subjectivity and the interpretive paradigm. Futhermore, this relates to the habitual strategy of decolonising the curriculum because individuals use different ways to fulfil one aim which is curriculum decolonisation. Epistemology can also indicate the paradigm used in a certain study, and is discussed below.

Cohen-, Manion, and Morrison (2002) as well as Rule and John (2011) assert that epistemology is the theory of knowledge with regard to its methods and the distinction between justified belief and opinion. Futhermore, the social world can only be understood from the position of individuals who are participating in it (Cohen et al., 2011; Kozleski, 2017). Both Ritchie and Spencer (2002) as well as Rubin and Rubin (2011) believe that the interpretive paradigm

concentrates on understanding a phenomenon from an individual's perspective while exploring interactions among individuals as well as the historical and cultural contexts which people live in. This suggests that epistemology is concerned with how individuals construct, acquire and communicate knowledge. The above discussion suggests that knowledge is individually constructed; perceptions and experiences of individuals cannot be the same. Ensuring epistemology in this study was opening the discussion between the participant (English lecturer) and myself to unpack responses on lecturers' strategies that they use when teaching. For instance, through social constructivism between the participants and myself I was able to discover that some lecturers believe that when teaching international literature in their lectures they bring in the African context for practicality. In this way context and practicality were created as themes in decolonising the English curriculum.

Like any other research paradigm the interpretive paradigm has its limitations. Scotland (2012) and Richards (2003) assert that reaching a consensus is problematic in the interpretive paradigm; if reality is subjective and differs from person to person, then research participants cannot be expected to arrive at the same interpretations as some researchers might expect. This suggests that subjective responses may be disadvantageous when seeking to make a final decision on the data generated. Moreover, in most cases knowledge produced by the interpretive paradigm has limited transferability as other contexts may not produce the same results (Rice, 2000; Scotland, 2012). In addition, both Hussain (2015) as well as Rubin and Rubin (2011) assert that since the interpretive research is based on a subjective viewpoint, it is usually hard to generalise the findings, which can be problematic since policy-makers seek general observations in the field if any change must occur in the curriculum. Futhermore, researchers may have to be very careful about their contextualisation, that is not to reveal certain information so as to protect participants' identities (Miskon, Bandara, & Fielt, 2015; Silverman, 2013). In addition to the above, although interpretivists allow participants to raise their voices, the researcher is the one who has the final decision about the direction that the research takes. Moreover, the final interpretation of the data is made by the researcher himself. For instance, the researcher decides on the best route to interpret their data and how they view participants' responses. Also, while the researcher may have plenty of data, only certain information may be chosen to be made public (Marshall & Rossman, 2014; Miskon et al., 2015; Scotland, 2012).

In adressing the above limitations to the interpetive paradigm, I as a researcher do not see subjectivity as a weakness since it reveals what individuals think about a particular issue.

Therefore, as a researcher my interest was not in participants' consensus but rather in their individual strategies employed during teaching. This assisted me as a researcher in understanding different strategies which individual lecturers use in ther teaching. Moreover, to ensure trustworthiness in this study I used triangulation (different data generation methods), because this study cannot be generalisable or transferable. Moreover, I made sure that I didn't reveal participants' identities in order to protect them and to ensure anonymity and ethical behaviour. I display their responses in the data presentation section using numbers to code each participant, and I supported how I came to conclusions using confirmibility from the participants themselves.

This paradigm was suitable for this study as it allowed me to explore different strategies that individual lecturers used to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university though social interaction with English lecturers. Moreover, this paradigm allowed me to get in-depth responses from the participants on the issue of their personal and social strategies to decolonise the English curriculum. Interpretivism yielded insight and understanding of behaviour and explained actions from the participants' perspective, without the researcher dominating the participants. This was the right paradigm because the researcher was able to discover the strategies used and how they are formulated. Research style reflects beliefs regarding the most significant way of getting knowledge related to research, and is further discussed below (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Research style simplifies the research paradigm.

3.5 RESEARCH APPROACH/STYLE

This study was conducted within the case study research style. Case study research is used as it is directed at understanding the uniqueness and peculiarity of a particular case in all its complexity (Creswell, 2012; Yin, 2009). Starman (2013) and (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011) define case as a specific bounded system where it is possible to identify that some features are within the case whilst others are outside but are significant as context: "The objective is usually to investigate the dynamics of some single bounded system, typically of a social nature" (Starman, 2013, p. 3). This may take the form of studying each person individually (his or her activity, special needs, life situation, life history, etc.), a group of people (a school department, a group of students with special needs, teaching staff, etc.), individual institutions or a problem (or several problems), process, phenomenon or event in a particular institution in detail (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007b; Denzin & Lincoln, 2002).

Case studies are a style of research often used by researchers in the interpretivist paradigm (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011), and can be intrinsic, instrumental or multiple: "It can be classified as intrinsic if the study is undertaken primarily because one wants a better understanding of a specific case – in all its particularity and ordinariness, this case is of interest" (Starman, 2013, p. 3). Case studies are also considered as a form of descriptive method, but if we climb to the causal level, the case study proceeds towards a causal experimental method. Furthermore, case studies highlight a developmental factor, which suggests that the cases are generated and evolve over time, often as a series of specific and interrelated events that occur in that particular time and that particular place. This study looked at the case of English lecturers teaching undergraduates at a South African university. An interpretive case study was relevant here as it enabled the researcher to get rich and open-ended answers from the participants in understanding lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. Scotland (2012) emphasises that interpretive methods yield in-depth insight and understandings of participants' behaviour.

There are different types of case studies and they are differentiated into intrinsic, instrumental and multiple/collective case studies (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011; Kozleski, 2017). This study has adopted the instrinsic type of case study, where the study is undertaken because one wants a better understanding of a particular case (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). Futhermore, amongst others, cases studies include the following benefits. Both Bassey (1999) and Cohen et al. (2011) assert that case studies are strong in reality but because of their subjectivity are not very easy to organise. However, case studies recognise the complexity of social truths by attending to social situations (Gillham, 2000; Starman, 2013). This study aimed to study the case of English lecturers to understand their practice and I discovered the individual strategies they use to decolonise the curriculum.

Thomas (1998) with Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, and Ormston (2013) indicate that case studies are a step to an action; their insights may be directly interpreted and put to use for staff or individual self-development, for formative evaluation or for educational policy making. In this study I gave each participant a reflective activity to evaluate their previous teaching of English and through interaction to suggest ways to strategise for better practice in the future. Lecturers might actually consider new societal or individual strategies to decolonise the curriculum based on the ideas that emerged during the interviews. In addition, Flick (2014) as well as Gerring (2006) assert that case studies are also capable of serving multiple audiences. This suggests that stakeholders may benefit from one case study; for instance, this is a case study on English

lecturers and students may benefit if strategies are applied in the curriculum. Other lecturers from different fields can also benefit by using some of the strategies outlined here to decolonise their own curriculum. However, case studies also have their limitations, which are discussed below.

Case studies have a few limitations attached to them. Results in case studies may not be generalisable unless in situations where the researchers see their application (Cohen et al., 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). This suggests that qualitative research may not be easily generalised to other contexts because responses are subjective, which implies that they may change in different contexts. Moreover, Denzin and Lincoln (2011) as well as Creswell (2012) indicate that case studies tend to have problems of obsessive bias, regardless of attempts made to address reflexibility. This suggests that with case studies, if not careful the researcher might be biased to allow and embrace participants' subjective responses.

An interpretive instrinsic case study was relevant to allow me to gain insight in terms of how English lecturers operate and if they have strategies in place to decolonise their curriculum. To address the above limitations I ensured that I reported each and every step I followed to come to my conclusions. I also allowed participants to share their strategies that they use, and then as a researcher I made final conclusions based on most common themes that emerged. For example, most lecturers preferred to create co-operative learning to allow openness, and the students shared their daily experiences to ensure content is connected to their context (verbal strategy). Sampling helps in the process of selecting the population to generate the necessary data for the success of the study, and is discussed below (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

3.6 CONTEXT AND SAMPLING

Sampling involves making decisions about which people, settings, events, and behaviours to include in the particular study (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). This suggests that the researcher decides which people participate in the study, as the researcher selects cases or participants from broader populations. This is in line with what Maree and van der Westhuizen (2009), Marshall and Rossman (2014) as well as Richards (2003) believe – that a researcher cannot study a wide range of all the people, but a certain group of people is chosen for specificity and practicality. Therefore the researcher chooses the population they need to contribute to and participate in the study. Thus as a researcher I selected a sample of English lecturers to participate in my study since I could not study all of the lecturers at the same time. Usually in qualitative research the sampling size is not great because what the

researcher wants is in-depth data, unlike in quantitative studies where sampling sizes tend to be big because most involve surveys (Denzin & Lincoln, 2002; Rennie, 2014). In line with this, Rice (2000) as well as Bertram and Christiansen (2014) also believe that there are sampling methods that are related to qualitative research as well as those that relate to quantitative research; however, some methods can be used in any field – such as questionnaires. Moreover, sampling is divided into different types from which a researcher can choose: random, purposive, stratified and convenient sampling (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). Further to this, purposive as well as convienient sampling were the sampling methods adopted in this study.

Table 3. 1: Study participants' profiles

Participants	Experience	Modules	Qualification	Gender	Race
Partcipant P1	10	English	Doctrate	Male	African
Participant P2	10	English	Doctrate	Female	Indian
Participant P3	23	English	Doctrate	Female	White
Participant P4	3	English	Masters	Male	African
Participant P5	4	English	Masters	Female	African

3.6.1 Purposive sampling

The participants were chosen through purposive sampling, which is where the researcher decides which people or groups to include in the sample, on the basis of his/her judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Safari & Razmjoo, 2016). This suggets that the researcher chooses people that can meet the research purposes. As this study sought to explore English lecturers' strategies to decolonise the curriculum, I did not choose any lecturer but puposively chose English lecturers. This was ideal for this study as it enabled me to obtain a sample that met my specific needs, in this case English lecturers teaching undergraduate students. Participants were also chosen based on their consent and experience in teaching English in HEIs. The context in which this study took place is specifically an HEI in South Africa. For this study the sample consisted of five English lecturers teaching undergraduate students in the School of Education. However, Creswell (2012) asserts that a limitation of purposive sampling is that potential participants

may not be interested in the study. In support of this, it was not easy for me to find prticipants that had much experience in teaching in HEIs. To address this limitation I made sure that I approached as many English lecturers as possible, so that if some did not meet the purpose or did not respond positively, I would still have an adequate sample size. Convenience sampling, which was also used to select participants in this study, is discussed below.

3.6.2 Convienient sampling

The study also adopted convenience sampling, where subjects are selected because of their accessibility and closeness to the researcher (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). This suggests that the researcher selects potential participants that can be reached/accessed as easily as possible. Cohen et al. (2007b) indicate that researchers in qualitative research are allowed to choose a sample from populations close to them. I selected five English lecturers who are working in an HEI where I am studying. The participants were selected based on their experience in teaching English students in an HEI. I used emails and verbal conversation as means to recruit my participants. However, Denzin and Giardina (2016) note that one of the limitations of convenience sampling is that the researcher might choose partcicipants that do not really represent the population, although they are easily accessible. To ensure that I avoided this I selected six lecturers who were permanent staff teaching English in this particular institution.

3.7 METHODS OF DATA GENERATION

Qualitative research uses data generation as opposed to data collection (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). The most frequently used techniques in qualitative research are observations, interviews, document analyses, and focus group discussions (Akmese, 2016; Bhooth et al., 2015; Keçea, 2015; Yin, 2009). This study adopted three data generation techniques, namely reflective activity, one-on-one semi-structured interviews, and document analysis. These are discussed below.

3.7.1 Reflective activity

Reflective activity is designed to nudge practitioners to reflect on a situation; it seeks professionals to reflect on the basis of their individual strengths, for instance the ability to solve the problem, or to reflect on the emotional impact of the problem on oneself (Cowan, 2017; Roessger, 2015). Both Cowan (2017) and Tsutsui and Takada (2018) believe that professions have adopted reflective activities in their institutions for different reasons, which can be classified as follows: reflection for action, reflection in action and reflection on action. In the

context of this study, lecturers' reflective activity relates to reflection for action since the lecturers asked themselves what they have to do to design a plan of action for this fresh task (designing strategies for decolonisation of curriculum), including any necessary development of their abilities. This suggests that reflection for action allows lecturers to examine their previous practice and thereafter strategies in order to achieve the new goal, which in this case is decolonisation of the university curriculum. Moreover, lecturers' reflection activity requires the lecturers to complete a short set of questions about the phenomenon studied (strategies) (Dewey, 1938; Killen, 1989). This suggests that lecturers were given time to reflect on their practices to discover whether they have certain strategies to decolonise the university curriculum. The reflective activity (questions) were formulated using curriculum concepts in the curricular spiderweb outlined as the study's conceptual framework (chapter two). The activity requested that lecturers reflect on set questions, as represented in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3. 2: The research concepts, questions and expected responses

Concepts	**Questions**	**Lecturers' are expected reflect based on:**
Rationale	Why are you teaching English Major 420?	Professional Personal Societal
Goals	Towards which goals are you teaching English Major 420?	Objectives Aims Outcomes
Content	What content are you teaching in English Major 420?	Knowledge content Personal development content Social preparation content
Resources	What resources are you using to teach English Major 420?	Hard-ware Ideological-ware Soft-ware
Lecturer role	How do you facilitate the teaching of English Major 420?	Assessor (content centered) Instructor (lecture centered) Facilitator (student centered)
Assessment	How do you assess the learning of English Major 420?	Summative assessment Formative assessment Peer assessment
Teaching environment	Where are you teaching English Major 420?	Face to face interaction Online teaching Blended learning
Teaching activities	Which activities are you using to teach English Major 420?	Academic writing Tutorials Group works
Accessibility	How do you access the teaching of English Major 420?	Financial access Physical access Cultural access

Time	How long do you teach English Major 420?	Contact time Spare time Leave time

Based on Table 3.2, lecturers were expected reflect based on propositions identified on each concepts from the literature (chapter 2).

Question 1 was expected to stipulate the content that lecturers teach in English Major 420. This requested lecturers to indicate the content they teach under three sections of English: Literature, Creative writing and Language. Moreover this question also aimed to explore how lecturers select literature to be taught in lecture venues in terms of context (African or international literature). Berkvens et al. (2014) assert that content on any module should prepare students on the three propositions of professional knowledge, social preperation and personal preperation. Therefore, based on the three areas of teaching in the English module (Literature, Creative writing and Language), lecturers were expected to indicate the strategies they use to decolonise their curriculum, whether personal, societal or professional strategies.

Question 2 aimed to explore the lecturers' rationale for their teaching of English Major 420. In this question lecturers were expected to respond on their personal reasons for teaching this module, the societal reasons for teaching this module according to the needs of the community as well as professional reasons for teaching it. Khoza (2016b) revealed that the success of any teaching lies in the rationale of each lecturer. This suggests that rationale at any level prepares lecturers to strategise effectively with the aim of decolonising their curriculum. I expected to get responses on strategies created based on personal, professional or societal rationale.

Question 3 requred lecturers to outline goals for which they teach English Major 420. Moreover, in this question lecturers were expected to explain the goals according to aims, objectives and outcomes (Kennedy et al., 2009): where they want to see their students in the long run (aims), the short-term goals they stipulate each time they go to lecture (objectives), as well as who they want their students to be in the societies they come from (outcomes). This question also aimed to find out if lecturers have strategies based on these propositions in order to decolonise the curriculum. I expected to get responses on strategies created in terms of aims (personal), objectives (professional), and outcomes (societal visions).

Question 4 intended to discover assessment types they mostly used when evaluating this module. The assessment types that lecturers were expected to respond on were formative and summative as well as peer assessment (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Kisaka, 2017; Zondi, 2015).

This suggests that this question intended to find out if lecturers use all forms (assessment for, as and of learning) of assessment in evaluating students' knowledge and if they use these types of assessments to design strategies with the aim of decolonising their curriculum. I expected to get responses on strategies created by individual participants' (formative), strategies created for social purposes (peer assessment) and those created professionally (summative assessment).

Question 5 aimed to understand resources that lecturers use in their teaching of English Major 420. This also recquired lecturers to indicate the kind of resources they use to to teach the module according to three propositions: hardware, software and ideological-ware resources (Khoza, 2015b). This also expected to find out if lecturers have specific theories (ideological-ware) that guide their module, except for supporting resources in the teaching of a module (hardware) and software resources. Moreover, this question expected to explore strategies lecturers designed based on teaching resources in order to decolonise the curriculum. I expected responses on how to strategise using theories (ideological-ware - habitual strategies) of the module, to strategies are created using societal views (software - verbal strategies) and to strategise on hardware resources (writen strategies).

Question 6 was based on where English lecturers teach their module in terms of teaching and learning environment propositions: through face-to-face interaction, online learning and blended leaning (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009a; Yuen, 2010). This suggests that this question aimed at finding out if lecturers use traditional ways of teaching and learning (face-to-face interaction), advanced ways of teaching and learning (online learning) or a combination of traditional and online learning (blended learning). Moreover, this question was to explore strategies lecturers use in order to decolonise the curriculum, e.g. making the teaching environment conducive for both African as well as well as international students (co-operative learning) and e-learning. I expected responses on how the teaching and learning environment can be made conducive for the context in which lecturer and students share information (e.g. group activities to allow for social constructivism).

Question 7 expected to explore English lecturers' role in the teaching of English Major 420. Here the lecturer was to indicate which role he/she plays in the facilitation/teaching of this module. Moreover, lecturers were expected to respond on the three propositions to this concept: instructor, facilitator or assessor (Bridgstock, 2016; Maharajh et al., 2013). This suggests that lecturers were expected to indicate if they are lecture-centred, student-centred or content-

centred in their teaching of English Major 420. Moreover, I wished to know how they strategise based on the different roles they play in their teaching of the module. I expected to get responses on the lecturer's way of teaching as strategies to decolonise the curriculum (e.g. using content-centred teaching or otherwise).

Question 8 expected to explore teaching and learning activities/tasks lecturers use to assess their teaching over a certain period of time, to be answered based on three propositions: formal, informal as well as continous activities. Bozarth (2012) as well as Loddington (2008) believe that in English activities are always in the form of individual tasks and group activities as well as formal academic writing. Moreover, the question was to find out if lecturers have strategies in these activities which are designed to decolonise the curriculum. I expected responses on, for example, using academic writing to create a strategy to decolonise the curriculum.

Question 9 aimed to find out how lecturers provide access to their teaching. Lecturers were expected to answer based on three concept propositions: physical, financial and cultural accessibility (Addy, 2012; Sosibo & Katiya, 2015a). This suggests that lecturers had to indicate the cultural and financial state of their students, as well as their physical availability to teach students in physical interactions, plus how they strategise based on the three propositions with the aim of decolonising their curriculum. In this question I expected to understand, for instance, how cultural accessibility can influence examples the lecturer gives as a strategy to decolonise the curriculum.

Question 10 intended to find out how long lecturers spend in teaching. Time allocation was looked at in three propositions: contact time, spare time and leave time (Cunningham & Yamasaki, 2018; Ganser, 2002). This question aimed to understand how lecturers spend their time apart from contact time with students in lecture venues in terms of designing strategies to be used to decolonise the English curriculum. I expected responses on, for instance, how lecturers use their spare time as well as holiday time to learn recent ways (strategies) in the academic world on how to decolonise the curriculum for better implementation in future. One-on-one semi-structured interviews were the second data generation method used in this study, which is discussed below.

3.7.2 One- on- one semi-Structured Interviews

The study used one-on-one semi-structured interviews as the second method of data generation. Remenyi (2012) believes that an interview in the academic field can be defined as a formal data generation technique whereby the researcher generates verbal evidence from a reasonably

knowledgeable informant. In line with this, Akmese (2016) defines one-on-one semi-structured interviews as a technique of generating data that "involves gathering data through direct verbal interaction between individuals" (p. 8). This suggests that the researcher must find participants who are knowledgeable enough through experince to ensure that the data generated are rich enough. Moreover, interviews are intended to find out what research participant thinks their perceptions or attitudes, and/or their reasons for thinking in a certain way are (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013; Webb, 2015).

This study used semi-structured interviews because structured interviews have certain disadvantages: for example, they narrow the focus of the research and may ignore equally important issues. Moreover, the semi-structured interview allows deeper exploration of responses by participants – probing and exploring emerging dimensions that may not have been previously considered relevant aspects of a study (Keçea, 2015; Webb, 2015). Remenyi (2012) and Jeffrey (2016) point out that interviews are usually used in qualitative research because they allow the researcher to generate rich and meaning-making data from different informants. The strength of semi-structured inteviews is that they help the researcher to find new ways of quetsioning; this assisted me to get more in-depth data (Rennie, 2014; Webb, 2015). After realising that my questioning was poor, I asked the same question differently as a way of probing to get to the strategies the lecturer uses in their teaching of English Major 420 to decolonise the curriculum.

Interviews have some limitations. It may happen that the researcher is directed to someone who does not have the required data (Jeffrey, 2016; Webb, 2015). Moreover, some participants were negative about the research, and were not willing to offer their opinions or knowledge. In this situation I made sure that I did not force answers from those who were not willing to share their perspectives and knowledge. When I realised that the informant was not giving the required information I politely ended the interview with all due respect. In addition I made sure that I did not only rely on interviews, since I suspected that I might face some challenges. I used other sources of data generation (triangulation) to acquire a sufficiently comprehensive understanding of the study's phenomenon (strategies) from the participants.

Interviews were really useful in this study as I generated very rich data from the English lecturers regarding their strategies to decolonise the curriculum. After I received the reflective activities from the participants we then agreed on a suitable time, place and date to conduct the interviews. This enabled me to explore responses from participants through probing lecturers'

strategies used to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. These interviews took about 30 to 45 minutes, and were carried out in a conducive place that was suitable for each participant. I also used an audio-recorder with the consent of participants. Moreover, one-on-one semi-structured interviews were very useful for this study because I was able to acquire information on the different personal and societal strategies that lecturers use in teaching to decolonise the curriculum, and this led me to conduct document analysis.

3.7.3 Document analysis

In support of the above, document analysis was also used as one of the data generation methods in this study. Document analysis is a qualitative research method where documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around a topic (Bowen, 2009; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). Merriam (1988) as well as Remenyi (2012) believe that document analysis is a systematic procedure for studying or evaluating documents, whether printed or electronic material. Bassey (1999) affirms that document analysis may serve as a powerful source of data generation in qualitative research. This suggests that analysing the documents related to the study may give the researcher rich and reliable data that would answer the study's critical research questions. Jwan and Ong'ondo (2011) agree with Bassey (1999), in that researchers should use the documents that the participants use in their practice. Futhermore, Bowen (2009) concurs with Rennie (2014) that a very strong benefit of document analysis as a source of data generation is that documents enrich the credibility of a study, which is an important part of trustworthiness. Document analysis helps to elicit triangulation in qualitative research, and the documents need to be carefully studied and interpreted to make meaning (Cardno et al., 2017; Yin, 2009). This suggests that documents can be used best alongside other data generation methods, as I have done in this study, by using reflective activity and one-on-one semi-structured interviews to explore English lecturers' strategies to decolonise the curriculum.

Like other data generation methods, document analysis requires that data be examined and interpreted in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011; Rennie, 2014). Futhermore, "documents of all types can help the researcher to uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research" (Merriam, 1988, p. 8). This suggests that the researcher needs to study the chosen documents thoroughly to understand them well before interpreting what is in the document. Cardno et al. (2017) assert that documents that may be used for systematic evaluation as part of a study take a variety of forms. They include advertisements; agendas, attendance registers, and minutes of meetings; manuals; background papers; books and brochures; diaries and

journals; event programmes (i.e. printed outlines); letters and memoranda; maps and charts; newspapers, and more (Bowen, 2009; Scotland, 2012). However, in this study document analysis involved a critical review of the English Major 420 course outline (2018), course texts, lecture notes and lesson plans. I used the English Major 420 course outline to see if the curriculum concepts discussed in the literature review (chapter two) are used to design relevant strategies to decolonise the university curriculum.

Bassey (1999) asserts that document analysis requires a researcher to seek permision from the authorities involved to use the documents as a data generation method. To ensure ethical procedure I discussed provision of the module course outline, course texts and lesson plans used when teaching the module with the module co-ordinator, and these were provided to me. It took me three days to study the documents on the schedule displayed in Figure 3.3. Each concept was unpacked on the basis of its propositions. This analysis was carefully done in my space without any disturbance from 18h00 to 20h00 each day for a week. All of the above data generation methods were guided by the steps detailed in the table below.

Table 3. 3: Document analysis schedule

Concepts	**Propositions**
Rationale	Professiona, Personal, Societal rationale
Goals	Objectives, Aims, Outcomes
Content	International, Rest of Africa, South African
Resources	Hardware, Ideological ware, Software
Teacher role	Assessor, Instructor, Facilitator
Assessment	Summative, Formative, Peer assessment
Teaching environment	Face to face interaction, Online learning, blended learning
Teaching activities	Academic writing, Tutorials, Groupworks
Accessibility	Financial, Physical, Cultural accessibility
Time	Contact time, Spare time, Leave time

Table 3. 4: Data generation plan

	Question one	Question two

Why was the data generated?	What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise English curriculum at South African University?	How do lecturers' use these strategies to decolonise English curriculum at a South African University?
What was the research strategy?	Qualitative research strategy	Qualitative research strategy
Who were the sources of data?	English lecturers	English lecturers
Where was the data generated?	Within the English education departnment at a South African university.	Within the English education departnment at a South African university.
How was the data generated?	Reflective activity, one on one semi structured interviews and document analysis.	Reflective activity, one on one semi structured interviews and document analysis.

3.8 DATA ANALYSIS

Qualitative data analysis is defined as the classification and interpretation of linguistic material to make conclusions based on the data given by the respondents (Creswell, 2012; Yuen, 2010). Yin (2003) as well as Denzin and Giardina (2016) assert that in qualitative research data analysis includes carefully looking at the generated data, designing different categories and organising specific issues into different themes with the aim of answering the research questions. This suggests that generated raw data cannot be made sense of on their own; after the process of data generation the researcher then needs to undertake data analysis: "data analysis in qualitative research is a systematic process of of transcribing, collating, editing, coding, and reporting the data in a manneer that is sensible to the reader and researcher for the purposes of interpretation and discussion" (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011, p. 103). Bertram and Christiansen (2014) assert that data analysis consists of three steps: *reduction* (sorting and cleaning it up); *display* (presentation in an orderly manner); and *conclusion drawing* (what does the data say to you/interpretation). Data analysis is done in two ways: by inductive reasoning, which starts from specific to general (e.g. raw data – thematise – concludes, and is open and exploratory), while deductive reasoning starts from general to specific (hypothesise

/theorise – categories developed – fit the data into specific patterns/connections, and is closed and focused) (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Flick, 2013).

Qualitative research emphasises the step-by-step process of analysis of the phenomenon being studied – the process between the input and the output (Creswell, 2012; Richards, 2003). This suggests that qualitative researchers should clearly indicate how they came to conclusions based on the participants' interpretations, understandings and perceptions. Moreover, Ritchie and Spencer (2002) as well as (Silverman, 2013) assert that in qualitative research inductive reasoning is usually used, and analysis does not usually start with the theory, but rather the themes arise from the data generated. However, this does not mean that one cannot start with a theory, but many qualitative researchers seek to generate concepts or theories from the data obtained. In this study I used both inductive as well as deductive analysis to make sense of the data generated with regard to different strategies lecturers use to decolonise their curriculum. I used inductive reasoning to form ten themes namely: rationale, goals, content, resources, lecturer role, assessment, teaching environment, teaching activities, accessibility and time. However, some themes were expected to emerge from the data though deductive reasoning.

Kumar (2005) as well as Kozleski (2017) affirm that qualitative research focuses on unstructurerd data, that is data are not numerical and are totally different from those of quantitative research where the focus is on numerical data. Thus, in this case I used probing during interviews in order to get deeper responses on the strategies lecturers used to decolonise their curriculum. Moreover, qualitative research emphasises reflexibility, which refers to the researcher's contribution to the construction of meanings in the research process and the awareness to remain outside of participants' subject matter (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011; Silverman, 2013).

Jwan and Ong'ondo (2011) introduce six steps to analyse data in qualitative research: transcribing the data, refamiliarisation with the data, first phase coding, second phase coding, third phase coding, and producing a report. Transcription involves turning raw data from verbal into written texts (Creswell, 2012; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011), which is recognised as the first step in qualitative data analysis. Transcription also helps the researcher not to have to write too many notes during the interviews, since all that the participant is saying is recorded. Flick (2014) as well as Jwan and Ong'ondo (2011) suggest that the researcher transcribes the data personally, so as to internalise and throughly understand the data. During transcription the researcher needs to write down every single thing that is recorded, including, laughter,

affirmations and pauses; also, the researcher may want to use the same data for future publications (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011; Ritchie & Spencer, 2002).

Transcription is very tedious and time-consuming, but is a valuable process (Creswell, 2012; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). In this study I ensured that transcription was done according to each theme of this study, based on the curricukar soiderweb, which made it a little more interesting because I was dealing with one theme at a time across all the participants' responses. Moreover, I took the initiative to transcribe the recordings myself without any assistance, which enabled me to understand the data even more. Creswell (2012) states that transcription might produce too much text that may be a problem for the researcher to control and identify for each participant. To avoid this limitation I labelled my transcribed data using pseudonyms for easy access and to aid remembrance. This process took me about a month and a half. What I realised is that transcription is a lot of work but very helpful for understanding the data better.

The second stage is for the researcher to refamiliarise themselves with the data. Rice (2000) as well as Jwan and Ong'ondo (2011) concur that although researchers may understand their data during transcription, they still need to re-read it to understand the data in a deeper way. I needed to have a thorough understanding of the data before getting to the actual analysis so as to make reliable claims as well as reliable conclusions based on the participants' responses. To ensure that I understood my data I read the transcripts over and over again because I was dealing with one theme at a time, to ensure that I made justifiable arguments about each theme and its propositions.

Coding is an analytical process in which data in both qualitative and quantitative research are categorised to facilitate analysis (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011; Ritchie et al., 2013): "coding involves highlighting extracts of the transcribed data and labelling these in a way that they can be easily grouped" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2002, p. 250). Jwan and Ong'ondo (2011) assert that this should be done in three stages which are: first phase coding- starting with a Microsoft wordfiles; second phase data- dealing with codes generated during first phase and third phase coding- grouping categories into themes. Here I also removed all the unnecessary staff such as "*uhm" and "like"*.

3.9. ETHICAL ISSUES

Ethics refers to the moral principles that guide research from the beginning through to its completion and publication of results (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011; Kanuka & Anderson, 2007). Basic principles of ethically sound research include: respect for democracy (guaranteeing the

participants freedom to give solicited information), respect for the truth (ensuring the research process does not involve any deception), and respect for persons (ensuring that the study does not infringe upon the dignity and privacy of the participants). As Tolich et al. (2016, p. 8) assert: "Ethical considerations influence and relate to many aspects of research process and help researchers to decide whether a field of study is ethically acceptable or not." There are many ethical issues in research as a whole; I just highlight issues related to this study. Kanuka and Anderson (2007) state that the above can be ensured through informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality, openness and integrity, ensuring participants' privacy (regarding sensitive information, e.g. religious and sexual practices, income, and ethnic prejudice), protection from harm (physical and psychological – both researcher and participant), accuracy of the data and their interpretation (falsified data may reduce the public's trust in research), acknowledgement of sources and avoiding plagiarism, as well as beneficence and justice. In this study I considered permission to conduct the research, informed consent as well as confidentiality and anonymity, which are discussed below.

3.9.1. Permission to conduct the study

In this study the first step was to follow the research ethics process. Thus I obtained premission to conduct the research from the relevant university ethics offices. With the help of my supervisor I then applied for access via a letter to the gatekeeper, since my study was conducted in an HEI. After I received these permissions I then applied for ethical clearance. After it was fully approved I then started the process of generating the data from the participants who had given their consent to take part in the study. When I sent the consent letters to participants to request their involvement in the study, I also attached the ethical clearance to assure them that the whole process was legal and recognised by the institution. This whole process assisted me to obtain the trust of my participants regarding the study. Once I had informed consent from potential participants I could proceed with the study.

3.9.2 informed consent

In line with research ethics informed consent was requested from the participants to volunteer to take part in the study. Informed consent is the process where individuals decide whether to participate in research or not after being informed of the facts that can directly influence their decisions (Cohen et al., 2007b; Kanuka & Anderson, 2007). I recruited different permanent English lecturers to participant in my study through emails and I also visited them personally with the consent forms that explained everything about my study in detail. The consent forms

indicated that their participation in the study would be voluntary and that there would be no incentives attached to this. It was also outlined that they were also free to decide not to participate, or to withdraw from the study at any stage with no resultant harm or threats to them or their reputation. I gave each participant enough time to understand what was written in the consent letter, and they gave their responses after a proper understanding of the whole research purpose.

3.9.3 Confidentiality and anonymity

Qualitative researchers need to ensure their participants' confidentiality and anonymity, and this was done in this study. Cohen etal. (2011) assert that confidentiality and anonymity are where the researcher ensures that real names of the participants are not used so that other people are not able to identify them. Before interviews were conducted I outlined to the participants that their real names would not be used in the research, so as to encourage them to be as open as possible. I used pseudonyms such as participant A, participant B and so forth to refer to them in order to protect them from anything happening to them as a result of their responses.

3.10 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness ensures that the research process is truthful, careful and rigorous enough to qualify to make the claims that it does (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007a; Denzin & Giardina, 2016). Traditionally the terms internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity have been used to prove the trustworthiness of a research project. However, some qualitative researchers like Maree and van der Westhuizen (2009) support the use of different terminology like credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability in their place. They argue that in qualitative research employing the interpretivist paradigm the way to judge trustworthiness is different from in the positivist paradigm where the former terms are predominantly used. The concepts of reliability and validity are vital in surveys and experiments but not in qualitative research, which is concerned with particularities of a phenomenon that is not chosen because it is generalisable (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Kozleski, 2017). Qualitative research is more concerned with the characteristics of case studies (Maree & van der Westhuizen, 2009; Remenyi, 2013). Discussion of the four terms that relate to trustworthiness in qualitative research (credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability) follows.

3.10.1 Credibility

Credibility is the extent to which the study actually explores what it claims to explore and reports what occurred in the field (Cowan, 2017; Yin, 2003). It can be achieved by the researcher demonstrating that s/he indeed carried out the research, such as giving a detailed account or description of the research process (Hoffman, 2010; Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011) using concepts from the literature, excerpts from field notes and quotes from interviews. Thus, credibility in this sense can also be assured by establishing a 'chain of evidence' (Denzin & Giardina, 2016; Starman, 2013). In a study the questions of credibility can be addressed by getting an experienced researcher to review and comment on the guidelines for the interview questions, to help establish that they are appropriate. This study elicited a chain of evidence through interviews, document analysis and reflective activity so as to corroborate information gathered from the participants. I reported each and every step I took in conducting this research, and also used verbatim extracts from the data in the data presentation section to reflect the exact words of the participants.

3.10.2. Transferability

Transferability is the extent to which a study's findings can be generalised or to which we can make some form of wider claim on the basis of our research (Cohen et al., 2011; Rennie, 2014). This can be ensured in research by use of replication logic in multiple case studies. In qualitative research analytic generalisations can be made through personal engagement in life's affairs or by explication of experience that is so well constructed that the person feels as if it happened to them. According to Stevenson (2016) analytic generalisation is where a study leads to the development of an appropriate theory which then facilitates data generation in a subsequent case study. Jwan and Ong'ondo (2011) state that transferability is very difficult in qualitative research, especially because of the subjectivity of participants' responses. However, in this study I ensured transferability by allowing other researchers who conducted the the same study in another context to refer to the findings of this study.

3.10.3. Dependability

Dependability is the extent to which the research procedure is clear enough to enable other researchers to replicate the study or get similar results (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Rennie, 2014). It can be ensured by making clear and detailed descriptions of the steps followed in the study; that is, to make as many steps operational as possible and to conduct research as if someone were always looking over our shoulder. In this study I used recorded interviews, document analysis and reflective activity as tools to generate data to ensure triangulation. In a qualitative

study like this dependability might not be possible because of participants' subjective responses. However, to ensure dependability I not only relied on the participants' responses but also used the English module outline and the module templates that they used in their teaching in order to strenghthen my findings and conclusions based on tangible evidence.

3.10.4. Confirmability

Confirmability is the extent to which the findings reflect the experiences and ideas of the participants (Creswell, 2012; Kanuka & Anderson, 2007). For confirmability there must be evidence after the data have been generated, categorised, reconstructed and interpreted (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). To ensure confirmability I ensured that research questions were relevant to answer the critical research questions. Moreover, I took the generated data with the interpretations back to the participants so that they could verify that interpretations were correct and in line with their responses. Furthemore, to ensure confirmability I also give some participants' responses in the data presentation to show exactly what the participants said in response to a particular question. I also copied the document that I used to complement the answers provided by the participants as well as the reflective activity that they completed. To conclude, triangulation was used to ensure trustworthiness in this study.

3.11. Limitations

The fact that I started generating data at a period when lecturers had just resumed in a new semester was a disadvantage for me, since the participants were very busy, which made it very difficult to get hold of them for interviews. However, I was very flexible and able to arrive at any time convenient for them, even if it was later in the day. Also, the fact that I am a very young researcher and was dealing with experienced lecturers made me lose self-confidence, which resulted in me being afraid of them in such a way that with the first participant I realised that my questioning was very poor. However, as I moved forward with the process of generating data I worked on my weaknesses and was more confident during the subsequent interviews that I had with other participants.

3.12. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research design and methodology of this study and defined the research approach, research paradigm, research style, sampling, data generation methods including data generation plan, data analysis, ethical issues, and trustworthiness as well as limitations of the research. Each method's weaknesses were also mentioned, with ways to

overcome them. All of the above-mentioned methods give an outline of the research procedure and also provided direction as to how it should be conducted so as to achieve its intended objectives. The English lecturers' strategies to decolonise the curriculum were explored using the methods indicated above. The following chapter provides analysis of the data generated through the earlier defined research methods, the main focus being is to outline the research findings and provide discussion thereof.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter three presented the research design and methodology used in this study. This chapter discusses the results of the data that were generated through the three data generation methods (reflective activity, one-on-one semi-structured interview as well as document analysis). The findings were guided by the curricular spiderweb conceptual framework used for this study. The curricular spiderweb concepts represent themes in this chapter in order to present the data that were generated. The responses of five English lecturers in an HEI were used for data generation, and the participants are referred to as participant (P) 1, P2, P3, P4 and P5, as detailed in Table 3.1 in the previous chapter. To support the research findings and discussion direct quotations from participants are included in the presentation of the data.

4.2 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Creswell and Creswell (2017) indicate that presenting data in more detail using direct quotations from participants' responses ensures the study's credibility, as highlighted in chapter three. Moreover, to ensure clear presentation as well as analysis of data in a more comprehensive way, visual presentations may assist the reader to understand the study. As a result, Table 4.1 has been designed to show how data are presented using the curricular spider-web concepts as the themes, as indicated in chapter three. Discussion of findings will be linked with the related literature that was discussed in chapter two. Strategies are discussed on three levels as the literature suggested: written, habitual and verbal strategies used to decolonise the curriculum. Each strategy level is related to different categories and/or themes. The excerpts shown below each theme are taken from the participants' reflective activities and interview responses.

4.2.1. Theme 1: Rationale

Participants gave different reasons for teaching the module based on curricular spider web concept which sought to find lectures' rationale behind the teaching of English major 420. By looking at participants' responses through reflective activity and one on one interviews, reasons for teaching this module trace across all rationale levels (professional, personal and societal), as will be seen in the excerpts below.

P1: *"I've always loved teaching and English happened to be one subject I was good at in school… I was at some stage in my life involved in ABET, the teaching of adults to write and to read, as far as languages are concerned in this country… it's a reality that for social stability one has to be literate in English."*

P2: *"I think I've always been interested in studying English at school, I read very widely as a child … I also realised that reading is seriously undervalued by people, by children, by adolescents, by parents. I wanted to share that with people who were not exposed to reading… I'm teaching English understanding that it's a global language understanding what it can do for people but also understanding how much students want English to go further in life."*

P3: *"I realised how important English teachers are and how crucial it is to be literate in English and that if it is not taught well then students cannot understand the language, then every other module is going to suffer… I worked in deep rural areas in Empangeni, and it was then I saw how valuable education is and how important English is as a gateway to success, so I felt this sense of social responsibility to teach it well and to send good English educators out there and people who are readers and encourage others to read."*

P4: *"I decided to teach English because the majority of students I deal with are second language speakers so I wanted them to be proficient in the use of English language… I have realised that in the society to be economically viable we need English."*

P5: *"When I was in high school I didn't have good English teachers so I wanted to come back and be a teacher I never had probably as a high school student… people always think that English is associated with whiteness I wanted to bridge that gap between English and African communities and to bring back the English into our communities. For example now I have academic literacy that I teach adults… I have passion for English that love for the language, because if you love the language I mean you cross the boundaries… English is growing so fast that everyone must understand it."*

P1, P2, P3 and P5 outlined that they teach English Major 420 to assist students as members of society to be proficient in the language. As P3 reported:

"I realised how important English teachers are and how crucial it is to be literate in English… I worked in deep rural areas in Empangeni, and it was then I saw how valuable education is and how important English is as a gateway to success, so I feel this sense of social responsibility to teach it well and to send good English educators out there and people who are readers and encourage others to read."

In line with this, P2 also agreed with the social rationale behind the teaching of English major 420 and added *"I also realised that reading is seriously undervalued by people, by children, by adolescents, by parents, I wanted to share that with people who were not exposed to reading"* (social rationale). P2 agreed with P4 when she stated that *"I'm teaching English understanding that it's a global language, understanding what it can do for people but also understanding how much students want English to get further in life."* (professional rationale).

In addition, P1, P2 and P5 indicated their interest in and love for teaching the module. P5 outlined that *"I have passion for English that love for the language, because if you love the language I mean you cross the boundaries."* In line with this assertion, P2 further stated that *"I think I've always been interested in studying English at school…"* P1 also agreed with both P2 and P5 in sharing the love and passion for teaching English (personal rationale).

(Berkvens et al., 2014; Khoza, 2016b; Uysal & Bardakci, 2014; Zhang & Wang, 2016) suggested that rationale should be the driving force for lecturers teaching their modules in order to make strategies to improve their teaching methods. The above-mentioned studies further outlined that the rationale that may drive teaching and learning can be professional, personal or social. Furthermore, studies refer to personal rationale as individual reasons for doing a particular action; in this case lecturers may be driven by passion to teach English Major 420 (Barrot, 2016; Gul & Rafique, 2017). In addition, according to Plonsky (2011) a personal rationale may be influenced by habitual strategies which cause lecturers to plan individually or to use personal habits and beliefs to solve a particular problem. On the other hand, Bridgstock (2016) reminds us that the social rationale was said to be influenced by different parties to benefit society; in this case a lecturer may be teaching English with the aim of uplifting the students' (society) communication skills. As a result the social rationale may be driven by verbal strategies which may cause different lecturers to work collaboratively to meet society's needs (Bianchini et al., 2015; Zhang & Wang, 2016). Moreover, Khoza (2015c) asserts that professional rationale may be influenced by formal reasons behind doing a particular action; in this case lecturers might be teaching English because it's a global language and it is

documented in the module templates as to what content is prescribed in order to meet international standards. As a result, professional rationale may be influenced by written strategies since lecturers may use institutional policies to strategise. The literature reviewed in chapter two suggested that lecturers can effectively strategise using all rationale propositions (professional, personal and societal) rationale (Bianchini et al., 2015; Bridgstock, 2016; Gul & Rafique, 2017).

During the data generation process lecturers outlined their reasons behind the teaching of English Major 420 on the basis of the three rationales (professional, personal and societal). However, the findings revealed that all of the lecturers' (P1, P2, P3, P4 and P5) reasons for teaching English Major 420 relate to the social rationale. For instance, P4 agreed with P3 when she highlighted that her teaching of English in a rural area made her realise how important it is for students to be literate in English, and that she is willing to groom and send good English teachers into the field. Moreover, P2 also outlined that she teaches English to develop students who are readers and who will encourage their learners to read, also with the aim to create a reading generation. In addition, P3 agreed with P5 when she added that she wanted to make students unlearn the notion that knowing English is related to whiteness; thus, she wanted her students to realise that they can do well in the language.

On the other hand, lecturers also outlined their personal reasons for teaching English Major 420. P1, P2 and P3 agreed with P5 and outlined that they teach English because they are driven by love and passion for the language. Only two participants stated their professional reasons for teaching the module: P4 and P5 asserted that they realised that English is growing fast which makes it necessary for everyone around the world to know the language in the professional setting.

The findings indicated that the majority of English lecturers were driven by a societal rationale when teaching English Major 420. Moreover, findings indicated that few lecturers were driven by the personal and professional rationale in their teaching of the module. Consequently, this suggests that few English lecturers are influenced by written and habitual strategies which may seek them to base their teaching on written documents, rather they are driven by the love and passion they may have for the module.

The English Major 420 module outline (2018) also showed that most reasons for teaching the module were related to the societal rationale. The document revealed that the teaching of English Major 420 is also influenced by the professional rationale which draws much from

written policies, in this case the teaching of language command. However, the document was silent on the use of personal rationale in teaching the English module. The overall findings suggest that English lecturers were much influenced by verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum, which draws a great deal from what is suggested by public ideas (society).

4.2.2. Theme 2: Goals

Participants' responses indicated that they have different goals (objectives, aims and outcomes) regarding the teaching of English Major 420, as can be seen below.

> **P1:** *"I want to see my students studying further in wanting to become English specialists… Obviously each lesson would have its own objectives like if I'm going to teach a literature text like a novel, I know that at the end of the lesson students should be able to analyse it … but my long-term objective is for my students to be able to engage and analyse any other text, not just the one that I've taught in class."*

> **P2:** "*I would like my students to be able to say I go into the class every day and I want to make a difference into someone's' life… but my objective is always to ensure that my students understand what I'm saying and learn it as I always say I can't say I've taught unless they have learnt … what issues are we tackling, we have a big issues of racism or sexism or homophobia, or xenophobia so those are the big issues to be discussed in our classes."*

> **P3:** "*I would like to see my students breaking that mould of the teacher who is so reliant on the text … I make a link about their lives, that curriculum isn't something out there, that's what I want my students to become … my goal is to get my message across to the students to be responsive to their learners and to get them to be responsive also."*

> **P4:** "*I want them to continue distributing the information to the next generation… My short-term goal is for my students to understand what is said in English, to hear, speak and communicate their points of view in English … to read written texts and be able to interpret those in writing in proper and acceptable English … I ensure that when I go to class I want to go out having ensured that our students are able to listen, to speak, to read and write English."*

> **P5:** *"I want to see that teachers that are passionate about English that have love for the language because if you love the language I mean you cross the boundaries… we don't want our students to be book-based, we want our students that can use the*

technology to integrate it into the teaching and learning … I want to do the best that I can do to make them go there and be the best in their classrooms as far as English is concerned."

In terms of goals, P1 stated *"but my long-term goal is for my students to be able to engage and analyse any other text, not just the one that I've taught in class"* (aims). Participants also indicated their objectives; here P1 stated *"obviously each lesson would have its own objectives like if I'm going to teach a literature text (like novel), I know that at the end of the lesson they should be able to analyse it"*. In support of this statement, P2 affirmed that *"but my objective is always to ensure that my students understand what I'm saying and learn, as I always say I can't say I've taught unless they have learnt"*. P3 added that *"my goal is to get my message across to the students to be responsive to their learners and to get them to be responsive also"* (objectives).

Moreover, participants also stated different learning outcomes they expect from the students. P2 affirmed that "*I would like my students to be able to say I go into the class every day and I want to make a difference into someone's life"*. P4 stated as follows: *"… for my students to understand what is said in English, to hear, speak and communicate their points of view in English"*. Furthermore, P5: added *"I want to see teachers that are passionate about English that have love for the language, because if you love the language I mean you cross the boundaries"*. Both P1 and P2 stated that *"I want to see my students studying further in wanting to become English specialists"* (outcomes).

(Berkvens et al., 2014; Kennedy et al., 2009; Khoza, 2016b; Moskowitz & Grant, 2009) indicate that for lecturers clear educational vision ensures effective curriculum implementation. Studies state that goals are looked at through three propositions: objectives, aims and outcomes. Objectives were said to refer to lecturers' short-term goals – what lecturers may want to achieve at the end of every lesson. Objectives cause lecturers to be driven by written strategies because these are formally documented in written policies (lesson plans, course outlines) and are structured in a formal way (Kennedy et al., 2009; Khoza, 2016b). Furthermore, studies indicate that aims are general educational goals that lecturers have for their teaching in the long run. Aims cause English lecturers to be driven by habitual strategies because each lecturer has a unique aim as to what she/he wants to achieve in the long term (Kennedy et al., 2009; Ortiz, 2011). Moreover, studies (Kennedy et al., 2009; Mpungose, 2015; Vedder-Weiss, 2017) revealed that aims and objectives relate to English lecturers' personal intentions.

Contrary to this, outcomes are what students are expected to be or to show after a specific teaching period. Learning outcomes point lecturers to be influenced by verbal strategies because students are prepared to meet the lecturers' aims and objectives (Khoza, 2015b; Misco, 2007). Moreover, studies outlined that lecturers' lack of education goals may limit them in formulating strategies to implement the curriculum effectively (Kennedy et al., 2009; Moskowitz & Grant, 2009). This points to the necessity for lecturers to be clear and specific regarding what they want to achieve in the short and long term so that they will have proper strategies (written, habitual and verbal) to decolonise the curriculum.

Participants partially touched on all of the propositions (objectives, aims and outcomes). P1 and P4 agreed with P2 as she stated that the objective that she always had is to ensure that after each lesson students would have learnt something, to prove that she had taught. Moreover, P1 added that the objective he always had is for students to analyse whatever text is taught, for instance a novel. P3 and P5 were silent regarding the objectives. Participants responded well regarding the learning outcomes, and outlined that they want to send out good English teachers who read widely and who would encourage their learners to read. In addition, participants outlined that they want to produce students who are passionate about the subject and who would become English specialists (P1, P2, P3, P4 and P5).

However, only P1 responded on aims when he stated that when teaching students to analyse a certain text, his aim is that they should be able to analyse any other texts seen now or in the future. However, the English Major 420 course outline (2018) revealed that the module seeks to achieve aims as well as the learning outcomes as indicated in the document. The overall findings indicate that the majority of the participants seemed to equate aims and objectives and treat them as one and the same, hence their lack of clear responses on these aspects of the question.

4.2.3. Theme 3: Content

Almost all of the participants indicated that in the English discipline literature (novels, poetry, short stories, films and plays) makes up the major amount of the content that is taught.

> **P1:** *"Our students have to know about different genres, whether its literature from Africa or out of Africa or from the Wes t… we've had Shakespeare for the longest time and I don't know why, when we have our own African Shakespeares … we teach creative writing but that's not where our focus is … we teach them how do you teach*

vocabulary, how do you teach grammar… I try to see if my students can relate to the themes in the novel, the setting in the novel, and if they don't, I try and help them relate … as much as our teaching should embrace the local, I also believe that it's our responsibility to expose our students to the rest of the world … Whilst we expose them to African literature, we are aware that at some stage we have to move on and introduce them to Western literature."

P2: *"Our basic content is literature; in literature there is poetry, short stories, novels plays, and films ... a lot of students who say we have got to decolonise Shakespeare and I said you are university students but I am Shakespeare, ask me everything you want to ask me and I would answer as Shakespeare, and they did … in language there are language aspects in terms of how to teach in methods … we used to have creative writing years ago as a discipline, it was a separate module … We use a basic principle in English: if you are teaching novels, we must do a South African text, we must do an African text, and then we do a text from out of Africa."*

P3: *"Literature, poetry, short stories… No creative writing or whatsoever, we do teach language … I choose a novel that I feel students are able to identify with, and when I was teaching literature from outside of South Africa I would choose a novel that has something around their profession, something that they are able to relate to … I don't see decolonising the curriculum as getting rid of literature or material that is from outside of Africa, what has to change is the way in which we approach teaching … I get students to discuss issues that are related to them and one of the things that worry them as young adults… you draw their experiences into the novel rather than just putting the novel out there and teaching themes, characters and so on … We are very much guided by our templates, yes we have we stick to our templates, so you can't deviate from what the template says because we are bound by that."*

P4: *"Literature is always there, poetry, novels dramas, comprehension, writing to summarise, how to write essays… I select something that is more South African because they are going to teach South African learners … I do include one or two of the international literature. Remember I said something about critical pedagogy… what are the similarities, what are the differences …"*

> **P5:** *"We exposed our students to international as well as local literature, we strike the balance so that they can be exposed to both … we do it in a 50/50* ... Romeo and Juliet, *it happened there in that context, but we can own it in Africa as well because two young people in love and that happens in Africa too."*

P1, P3, P4 and P5 agreed with what P2 articulated on the content taught in English Major 420 as she asserted that *"Our basic content is literature, in literature there is poetry, short stories, novels, plays, and films".* P1 also agreed with P2 when he stated that *"our students have to know about different genres whether its literature from Africa or out of Africa or from the West".* Moreover, P1 agreed with P2 when she said *"a lot of students who said we have got to decolonise Shakespeare and I said you are university students but I am Shakespeare, ask me everything you want to ask me and I would answer as Shakespeare, and they did."* P2 stated that she did that to ensure that students are familiar with every literature text to equip them for whatever they may find in the field.

P1 puts more emphasis on personal development content by adding that *"I try to see if my students can relate to the themes in the novel, the setting in the novel, and if they don't I try and help them relate".* Moreover, P1, P2 and P5 agreed on the importance of teaching texts from South Africa and the rest of Africa and from Western scholars. To support this P3 asserted that *"I don't see decolonising the curriculum as getting rid of literature or material that is from outside of Africa, what has to change is the way in which we approach our teaching".* In addition to this category of content P4 affirmed that *"I select something that is more South African because students are going to teach South African learners"* (personal development content).

Some of the participants revealed that they do teach language although it is not specific, as their marking scheme includes both the understanding of content and the expression, which relates to language rules. As P3 stated, "*we do teach language"* and P1 added that *"we do teach students how do you teach in vocabulary, how you teach gramma".* Furthermore, participants also believed in using policies in their teaching of English Major 420 for consistency in knowledge content. Thus, P2 supported P3 when she said "*We are very much guided by our templates, yes we have to stick to our templates, so we can't deviate from what the template says because we are bound by that".* P2 added that *"We use a basic principle in English, if you are teaching novels we must do a South African text, we must do an African text and then we do a text from out of Africa".* The module templates relate to the knowledge content because

they are documents formally written by the institution that guides teaching of a certain module (Khoza, 2015c). P1 also asserted that "*Whilst we expose students to African literature, we are aware that at some stage we have to move on and introduce them to Western literature"* (knowledge content).

P2 and P3 affirmed that they no longer teach creative writing although they used to teach it in the past. P2 reported on social preparation content as follows: *"we used to have creative writing years ago as a discipline it was a separate module",* which is in agreement with what P3 said: *"No creative writing or whatsoever"*. On the other hand, P1, P4 and P5 indicated that creative writing is taught in this module, but indirectly through the writing of essays for assessment purposes. P1 asserted that "*yes we teach creative writing but that's not where our focus is",* which is in line with what P4 said *"we teach writing to summaries, how to write essays, creative writing."* P3 affirmed that *"I get students to discuss issues that are related to them and one of the things that worry them as young adults"*. Bridgstock (2016) affirmed that using students' experiences helps the lecturer to know and understand their needs with the aim of satisfying those needs, and this can be achieved through creative writing (social preparation content).

(Berkvens et al., 2014; Cesur & Ertaş, 2018; Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Quan-Baffour & Arko-Achemfuor, 2009) referred to content as a set of selected knowledge to be taught in a particular module, and that in English content can be classified into knowledge content, social preparation content or personal development content. Knowledge content relates to the teaching of language rules (grammar, sentence construction, etc.) in English education, which causes lecturers to be driven by written strategies because they usually refer their practices from written policies (Cesur & Ertaş, 2018; Khoza, 2017; Sawaki, 2017). On the other hand, social preparation content was said to refer to creative writing (writing different texts) in English. This content causes lecturers to be influenced by verbal strategies because English lecturers may give students creative writing activities on different topics to get students' experiences and opinions about social issues they deal with daily (Gul & Rafique, 2017; Ikonnikova, 2016; Uysal & Bardakci, 2014). Moreover, Lin and Martin (2005) further outlined that personal development content refers to different literature texts (novels, short stories, plays, films and poems), which may cause lecturers to be driven by habitual strategies because the choice of a literature text to be studied depends on the individual lecturer's taste and preferences and the goal she/he wants to achieve. Social preparation content (literature) seems to be mostly used by lecturers in selecting module content (different literature texts) to be taught (Khoza, 2016b; Lin & Martin, 2005; Sawaki, 2017).

Regarding the question as to what content they teach, all lecturers (P1, P2, P3, P4 and P5) kept on referring to literature, which includes a combination of poems, novels, plays, films, etc., as the major content that they teach in English Major 420. This is in line with what the literature revealed in chapter two, emphasising that the most popular way to decolonise the curriculum is for lecturers to deliberately choose a certain text, either from Africa, South Africa or from around the world, that would suit their goals in terms of students' contexts (Mpungose, 2015; wa Thiong'o, 2000). These accounts suggest that lecturers were driven by habitual strategies since they chose to dwell on literature, which allowed them to select novels or plays based on their personal taste and preferences. However, few lecturers responded to the use of knowledge content which relates to language in English education. Only P1 and P4 indicated that they do teach language although not directly as it is part of everything that they teach in the module. For instance, P1 indicated that they do teach vocabulary but that is not their focus. In addition, almost no participant responded on the teaching of creative writing in English; only P1 outlined that they do teach creative writing but do not focus on it much because they believe that students would have been taught that in the previous years.

The findings indicate that most English lecturers taught literature which exposed students to different genres, as indicated in the literature that was reviewed in chapter two. The literature core texts that lecturers taught were *The Tempest* by William Shakespeare (play), *Hard Times* by Charles Dickens (novel) and *The Great Gatsby* by Scott Fitzgerald (film). This suggests that English lecturers were influenced by habitual strategies to decolonise the English Major 420 curriculum, which sought them to pick texts that best serve the goals they have for teaching the module. Although not explicitly taught language is inherent in the literary texts studied and thus is indirectly taught. Furthermore, almost no lecturer responded on the use of social preparation content (creative writing). This suggests that English lecturers did not use verbal strategies which seek to address society's (students') needs, values and beliefs to decolonise the curriculum.

The English Major 420 course outline (2018) revealed that the greatest percentage of content is taken from personal development content (one play, one novel and one film). All the course texts that were used in this module relate to work from Western scholars, which suggests that English lecturers used habitual strategies to decolonise the English Major 420 curriculum, in this case by finding ways to make these texts relevant to the South African context. As a result, some participants stated that they do not see decolonisation as shutting out work from Western scholars, but what has to change is the way they teach – for instance, by encouraging students

to talk about the evil deeds of wealthy, powerful people from their communities to make them relate to the themes of the American film *The Great Gatsby*. However, this is contrary to what the participants said about striking the balance by choosing from South African, African and international literature.

The reviewed literature revealed that decolonisation happens in two ways: deliberately choosing a literature text that is from South Africa to ensure students are prepared for the contexts they will work in, or including work from Western scholars with the aim of making students relate to the themes of the texts rather than focusing only on the content. The findings revealed that this module only deals with work from Western scholars; thus each English lecturer had to have ways to connect the content with the students' local context. This was evident from the data generated; for instance, P3 stated that she does not teach any text as it is, but what is important is if students are able to relate to the themes of that text and engage with the text practically.

4.2.4 Theme 4: Resources

Participants' responses show that different resources were used (hardware, ideological-ware and software) when teaching English Major 420.

> **P1:** *"… as long as there's a blackboard and a whiteboard somewhere I could write on with a chalk or whiteboard marker… I am not that reliant on technology… I do use PowerPoint… Communicative Language Teaching as a second language so I have subscribed to the theory."*
>
> **P2:** *"I would use, you know, handouts or whatever, I'm used to having course packs, the pictures in the course packs. I use a laptop sometimes to project the slides … I use on the scanner so that they see and write on that document as it emerges… I use critical pedagogy as my guide, you teach to make a difference, you teach to make students critical thinkers."*
>
> **P3:** "*I use PowerPoint as my resource and I use a lot of visuals… in English we have a lot of texts and text is really content and text becomes the resource … I'm culturally responsive in teaching and constructivism, I am very much a constructivist."*
>
> **P4:** "*I use the books, the chalkboard but at the same time I do try to use the modern ones like technologies, the laptops, PowerPoint, Moodle. I do use cell phones to*

broadcast … my main theory I believe in is the critical pedagogy and social cultural theory… because there is always socio-cultural things that I want to show my students."

P5: "*I use soft copy but I normally scan the pages and then I would upload them on Moodle so that students can read the actual copy… I use my laptop to play the scene and show it on the screen so that they follow it … our theories are informed by Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)."*

P1 indicated that *"as long as there's a blackboard and a whiteboard or somewhere I could write on with a chalk or whiteboard marker"* and in line with this P2 stated *"I would use, you know, handouts or whatever, I'm used to having course packs, the pictures in the course packs. I use alaptop sometimes to project the slides."* P3 affirmed that *"in English we have a lot of texts and text is really content and text becomes the resource"* (hardware resources). On the other hand, P5 mentioned that "*I use soft copy but I normally scan the pages and then I would upload them on Moodle so that they can read the actual copy"* (software resources).

Furthermore, participants indicated different theories that they used when teaching English Major 420. P1 and P5 stated "*Communicative Language Teaching as a second language so I have subscribed to the theory."* In agreement with this, P5 revealed that *"our theories are informed by Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)"*. On the other hand, P2 revealed that *"I use critical pedagogy as my guide, you teach to make a difference, and you teach to make students critical thinkers"*. This is in line with the response from P4, as he stated that *"my main theory I believe in is the critical pedagogy and social cultural theory"*. P3 responded in this way: *"I'm culturally responsive in teaching and constructivism, I am very much a constructivist"* (ideological-ware resources).

Studies (Amory, 2014; Berkvens et al., 2014; Khoza, 2015a, 2016b) outlined that resources can be different materials, texts as well as tools that can be used to assist lecturers in teaching their modules with the aim of fulfilling the educational standards set by the institution (university). They also indicated that resources are divided into three propositions: hardware resources, ideological-ware resources, and software resources) (Amory, 2014; Khoza, 2016a). Furthermore, Amory (2010) outlined that hardware resources are those we can touch, such as overhead projectors, computers, course outlines, markers, etc. Hardware resources cause English lecturers to be driven by written strategies to decolonise the curriculum because there are instructions one has to follow when using a computer and the course texts are prescribed in module templates for students to buy (Bian, 2018; Budden, 2017; Khoza, 2015c).

Ideological-ware resources refer to theories that guide the teaching of any module, such as communicative language teaching (CLT) in English education. As a result, ideological-ware resources cause lead lecturers to be driven by written habitual strategies because each English lecturer selects theories they work with. For instance, one English lecturer might use critical pedagogy and another one might use constructivism (Amory, 2010; Khoza, 2016b; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). On the other hand, software resources were said to be those that can only be displayed, such as displaying a certain scene of a play, or displaying pictures using slides. Moreover, software resources work hand in hand with hardware resources, since laptops are used to access the learning site (Moodle). As a result, software resources cause English lecturers to be driven by verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. because (for instance) if an English lecturer decides to upload notes (pictures, written texts, etc.) on Moodle, it is for students to access such content (McLaughlin & Whatman, 2007; Plonsky, 2011).

Participants' responses revealed that all of the English lecturers used all of these resources (hardware, ideological-ware and soft), and as a result all used similar theories when teaching English Major 420. For instance, P1 and P5 indicated that they used communicative language teaching (CLT), while P2 and P4 added that they used critical pedagogy when teaching English Major 420 while P3 stated that she used constructivism. The findings indicate that all of the lecturers have and believe in certain theories that guide their teaching of English Major 420. This suggests that English lecturers used habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum since they believe in different theories that guide their teaching. Khoza (2015c) concurs with Amory (2010) that for any module to succeed, it should be guided by certain theories.

The findings also showed that some lecturers used hardware and software resources in their teaching, which suggests that English lecturers were also influenced by written and habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum. This is in line with what Amory (2010) stated when h/she argued that hardware and software resources are used to support the ideological-ware resources. The English Major 420 course outline (2018) revealed that all resources propositions (hardware, ideological-ware and software) were used in the teaching thereof.

4.2.5 Theme 5: Lecturer role

Participants' responses show that they play different roles in their teaching, according to different propositions (assessor, instructor and facilitator).

P1: "*The primary role in class is to facilitate learning … I prepare four poems to teach so I walk into a lecture hall with four poems that I have prepared and by the end of the lesson I've only taught two poems."*

P2: *"Absolutely you have to be an instructor, you are a facilitator but you also have to be an instructor in terms of explicit teaching, you can't facilitate if students don't know … The students are going to write a test and an exam on your section, time shouldn't be the driving force but it also has to be considered."*

P3: *"I just see my role as not being somebody who is standing in the front with the knowledge and just filling in empty vessels … then one has to be an instructor… absolutely there is no way around that I pretend I'm not working towards content."*

P4: *"I am there as a facilitator which is why most of the time I favour my students… That is possible, it's always there, you can't as a teacher just be there without giving instructions … I am not driven by the content… students must understand that it's all about getting the content so that they would move to the next level."*

P5: *"We cannot compete, why we are learning, we compete in exam because everybody is writing for the distinctions as well, but in the actual learning I believe in facilitating the groupwork … I ask them to discuss and ask them to present and then I can also add. In that sense I am not the fountain of knowledge."*

P3 asserted that *"absolutely there is no way around that I pretend I'm not working towards content".* This is in line with P2 when she mentioned that *"the students are going to write a test and an exam on your section, time shouldn't be the driving force but it also has to be considered".* In addition to the above, some lecturers are driven by the content, according to their responses and attitude towards teaching time. However, some participants responded contrary to this, as P1 stated that *"I prepare four poems to teach so I walk into a lecture hall with four poems that I have prepared and by the end of the lesson I've only taught two poems"*. In addition to this, P4 asserted that *"I am not driven by the content:"* (assessor role). Moreover, P2 as well as P4 agreed that they also play the role of instructors in their teaching to maintain order and discipline. P2 asserted that *"absolutely you have to be an instructor"* and P4 noted *"that is possible it's always there, you can't as a teacher just be there without giving*

instructions". In addition to this P3 affirmed that *"one has to be an instructor"* **(**instructor role), while P1 stated that *"the primary role in class is to facilitate learning".* This is in line with what P3 stated as she asserted that *"I just see my role as not being somebody who is standing in the front with the knowledge and just filling in empty vessels".* P5 agreed with P4 in that *"I am there as a facilitator, which is why most of the time I favour my students"* (facilitator role).

(Gul & Rafique, 2017; Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Khoza, 2013b; Maharajh et al., 2013; Vikash, 2014a) indicated that lecturers play different roles when teaching their modules, depending on how they view teaching and learning. However, studies indicated that despite themany roles lecturers may play in their classes, the most important role is to transmit knowledge to their students (Balbay et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2013; Maharajh et al., 2013). Furthermore, studies indicated that the lecturer role may be viewed in three propositions: assessor, instructor and facilitator. As a result, when the lecturer plays the role of an assessor, he/she may be driven by content, for example, aiming to cover the content in a stipulated time period regardless of whether students understand or not. The assessor role causes English lecturers to use written strategies to decolonise the curriculum because content covered in the module is specified in the written documents (course outline, templates) (Ayers, 1992; Khoza, 2013a; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). Furthermore, when playing the role of an instructor, English lecturers uses a lecture-centred approach to teaching, which makes lecturers act as the only one who gives information, which points to students then being taken as empty vessels (Alam, 2013; Freire, 2018). The instructor role causes lecturers to use habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum because they teach through their personal beliefs and preferences (Beeman-Cadwallader et al., 2014; Freire, 2018; Ganser, 2002; Khoza, 2014).

Studies revealed that when the lecturer plays the role of the facilitator, he/she uses a student-centred approach to their teaching, which puts students at the centre of teaching and learning (Gul & Rafique, 2017; Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Peterson & Lorimer, 2012). Furthermore, (Ganser, 2002; Maharajh et al., 2013) indicated that lecturers are to facilitate the teaching and learning process rather than giving all the information to students, to ensure that students learn to understand through social interaction with others. The facilitator role causes English lecturers to use verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum since students are given the opportunity to contribute in the teaching and learning process (student-centred teaching) (Grant-Skiba & Orwa, 2018; Kirk & MacCallum, 2017).

Participants' responses show that English lecturers see themselves primarily as facilitators in their lecture venues, which is in line with what was revealed by the literature. As a result, all the participants (P1, P2, P3, P4 and P5) indicated that they do not see themselves as carriers and givers of information to students, but they are there as facilitators. On the other hand, lecturers also affirmed that they automatically have to be instructors to ensure order and discipline, but they allow students to learn for themselves. However, only P2 and P3 asserted that they were definitely driven by content, because it is a fact that students will be tested at the end and they are not to fail their sections. Contrary to this, P1 and P4 indicated that they are not driven by content at all; P1 emphasised that what matters is not how much content he has taught but that the students master the section he has taught, no matter how small it is. In addition, it was also indicated that for him to cover small portion of work does not matter, but what matters is that students have learnt something rather than rushing to finish the syllabus.

Findings revealed that all lecturers believed in playing the role of facilitators in their teaching which encourages students to learn on their own through social and cognitive constructivism (student-centred teaching). This suggests that lecturers used verbal strategies to decolonise the English Major 420 curriculum since strategies were derived from students' opinions and beliefs. In this case students were given a chance to share their ideas about teaching and learning and other social issues. Moreover, the findings also revealed that lecturers also acted as instructors and as educational leaders in the lectures, which sought them to control group discussions, time used as well as activities during teaching process. This suggests that lecturers also used habitual strategies because before coming to class they already had ideas of what they wanted to achieve or to pass across through the lesson. On the other hand, the findings also indicated that two lecturers acted as assessors as they were driven by the content they want to finish in a specified period of time, while another two participants disagreed with this. This suggests that only two lecturers were driven by written strategies to decolonise the English curriculum which sought them to cover the content stipulated in the written documents (templates, course outline) on time. However, the English Major 420 course outline (2018) was silent regarding the role the lecturers are to play when teaching the module.

4.2.6. Theme 6: Assessment

The participants' responses on assessment types that are used to evaluate students focus mainly on formative as well as summative assessment.

P1: *"We use all the types of assessment … we have prescribed test assessments, tests or essays that we give to our students, assignments to write, so we have a fixed way of assessing them and sometimes we make them write tests, they write essays."*

P2: *"… a little task, sometimes a task a week … We used to use peer assessment when our numbers were smaller… I do encourage our students to use peer evaluation."*

P3: *"… it's obviously formative and summative but I also when I walk into class I don't take the register any longer because students are using the paper. They can talk about it in groups with questions for 10 minutes…. In pairs, in groups and even in little groups of 4-5, they just talk to the people around them."*

P4: *"I use all forms of assessments, formative assessment helps me because I know how I am going to give feedback … peer assessment is the students teaching each other as well because they learn from one another."*

P5: *"… a test or assignment or given as essay, we don't have much time to say this is your first draft and exchange it to get feedback from your peer."*

P1 stated that *"we have prescribed test assessments, tests or essays that we give to our students, assignments to write".* P5 stated *"a test or assignment or essay, we don't have much time to say this is your first draft and exchange it to get feedback from your peer"* (summative assessment). In addition to this, P3 stated *"*it's *obviously formative and summative but also when I walk into class I don't take the register any longer because students are using the paper. They can talk about it in groups with questions for 10 minutes".* P2 added *"a little task, sometimes a task a week"*. In line with this, P4 affirmed that *"*I *use all forms of assessments, formative assessment helps me because I know how I am going to give feedback"* (formative assessment). On the other hand, P2 asserted that *"I do encourage our students to use peer evaluation…"* (Peer assessment).

Studies outlined that assessment is the way to evaluate and find out if the goals of teaching and learning have been met during and by the end of the teaching period (Berkvens et al., 2014; Black, 2015; Firmino & Leite, 2014; Khoza, 2016b; Qu & Zhang, 2013). In addition, Black and Wiliam (2009) added that assessment is used to find out if students understood what was taught in a specific period of time. Furthermore, studies also indicated that assessment has three types: summative, formative and peer assessment. Summative assessment was defined as the

one that is for grading (formal) and that usually takes place at the end of a teaching period to determine if students are ready to progress to the next level. Summative assessment causes lecturers to be driven by written strategies, because this type of assessment is done based on certain criteria; for instance, in the English education discipline lecturers use a formal marking scheme that looks at content and expression. Moreover, in summative assessment, Bloom's taxonomy is used to assess students on different levels from a lower to a higher level of questioning (Earl & Giles, 2011; Khoza, 2015c).

Formative assessment was described as assessment that is not for grading and that occurs during the course of teaching to ensure that students are carried along for effective feedback. Formative assessment causes lecturers to use habitual strategies since it's a habit for individual lecturers to keep on asking/posing questions to students. Moreover, English lecturers choose which questions to ask as a way of preparing students for final evaluation (Didicher, 2016; Pratt & Martin, 2017). Peer assessment was defined as allowing students to evaluate each other's work for effective feedback. Peer assessment causes lecturers to use verbal strategies because through students evaluating each other the lecturer can determine their strong and weak points for students' developmental feedback (Bhooth et al., 2015; Bridgstock, 2016; Didicher, 2016). Moreover, studies indicated that summative assessment is the assessment type that is most often used (Didicher, 2016; Firmino & Leite, 2014).

Research findings revealed that English lecturers mostly used formative and summative assessments, more than peer assessment was used. Consequently, all the participants (P1, P2, P3, P4 and P5) responded mostly on the use of these assessment types. This suggests that English lecturers were driven by both written and habitual strategies which sought them to use formal assessment procedures such as Bloom's taxonomy as well as to give certain tasks to test students' knowledge and understanding for feedback purposes. For instance, a lecturer can give students a 10-minute group exercise for them to discuss certain themes in the novel that relate to their everyday life, to bridge the gap between students' context and content for feedback purposes. Furthermore, based on the findings, it was evident that summative assessment was used to evaluate students' understanding for grading and progression, such as tests, assignments and examinations when teaching English Major 420. For instance, an English lecturer can set an examination question based on how students think Shakespearean texts can be decolonised with the aim of making them find ways to relate such information to students' local context, and this can be done following levels of questioning in Bloom's taxonomy.

On the other hand, only P2 responded on how she encourages her students to assess each other's work. This suggests that lecturers hardly used verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. The English Major 420 course outline (2018) indicated that the module uses formative and summative assessment, but it was silent on the use of peer assessment.

4.2.7. Theme 7: Teaching environment

Participants' responses revealed that in this institution English Major 420 is taught in a face-to-face interaction with students, although blended learning is being introduced.

> **P1:** *"No I don't even know what e-learning is, I use Moodle and I only use Moodle for my students to access the notes… So the mixture of me standing in front of them and using Moodle."*
>
> **P2:** "*In various lecture rooms, lecture room that allows students to work in groups … we are using many tasks on Moodle; blended learning to an extent."*
>
> **P3:** *"We use face to face but we also use blended learning … right now it's only face to face."*
>
> **P4:** *"The larger percentage is face-to-face interaction with the students."*
> **P5:** *"With our institution its face-to-face interaction … I have to use face to face in the interactive environment. I am not exposed to blended learning… there is a Moodle platform that is for learning but we don't use it for actual learning."*

P1 stated *"No I don't even know what e-learning is",* and in line with this P3 noted *"right now it's only face to face".* Moreover, P4 stated *"the large percentage is face-to-face interaction".* P5 added *"with our institution its face to face interaction… I have to use face to face in the interactive environment. I am not exposed to blended learning"* (face-to-face interaction). P5 also said *"there is a Moodle platform that is for learning but we don't use it for actual learning".* In addition, P3 stated *"we are using many more tasks on Moodle; blended learning to an extent"* (blended learning). Participants' responses revealed that most English lecturers were not aware of what e-learning entails.

Studies indicates that the teaching environment can be a physical or technical location where teaching and learning can take place (Bhooth et al., 2015; Bozarth, 2012; Budden, 2017; Khoza, 2015b; Poon, 2013; Ravenscroft & Luhanga, 2018). Moreover, the teaching and learning environment can be any place, whether cultural or modernised, where students can learn and

where lecturers can teach. In addition, studies indicated that the teaching and learning environment can be face-to-face interaction, e-learning or blended learning. Furthermore, face-to-face interaction was referred to as the traditional way of teaching and learning, where lecturers and students meet physically to exchange knowledge from one another (Maharajh et al., 2013; Priestley et al., 2012). Face-to-face interaction requires lecturers to use written strategies to decolonise the curriculum because this institution stipulated in its policies that it is mandatory for students to attend lectures in specified lecture halls (Maharajh et al., 2013; UKZN, 2017b).

On the other hand, online teaching is teaching and learning that takes place on the internet for distant teaching and learning. For instance, this can be English lecturers' use of Moodle platform, emails and WhatsApp to communicate knowledge to students. Online teaching causes English lecturers to use habitual strategies because choosing to teach online may be an individual lecturer's choice because of the distance caused by personal or professional issues, or with the aim to reach as many students as possible through the internet (Adebisi & Oyeleke, 2018; Ison, 2014; Vikash, 2014a).

Blended learning was referred to as the combination of e-learning with traditional teaching (face-to-face interaction). Blended learning causes English lecturers to use verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum because since it's a combination of physical interaction and e-learning, it can favour students from anywhere (Aşıkcan et al., 2018; Tsutsui & Takada, 2018; Yuen, 2010). However, studies affirmed that face-to-face interaction is still the most popular environment in which to teach (Almasi & Zhu, 2018; Maharajh et al., 2013; Priestley et al., 2012), especially in South African universities, even though blended learning is being adopted for change and improvement.

All the participants (P1, P2, P3, P4 and P5) agreed that they still use and rely on face-to-face interaction very much at the moment. Consequently they indicated that in their institution face-to-face interaction is mostly used; further to this some lecturers also indicated that they only teach in the face-to-face interaction environment. On the other hand, two participants (P3 and P5) reported that they believe they are kind of exposed to blended learning since they use Moodle to post some information to be accessed by students. Therefore, by using Moodle in combination with face-to-face interaction, they believed that they were using blended learning.

Contrary to this, no participant responded on the use of e-learning. P1 outlined that he does not even know what that is, because he strongly believes in the traditional teaching method (face-to-face interaction). Therefore the findings indicate that participants believe in and mostly depend on face-to-face interaction with the students to facilitate their teaching, which is very much supported by the university they are working for, as it is stipulated in the university policy that students are required to attend lectures and have physical contact with their lecturers (UKZN, 2017b). However, the university has produced a policy on using Moodle which requires all lecturers to use this learning site, since the institution is no longer issuing course packs. This suggests that the university expects English lecturers to adopt online learning for a change, since the institution has gone paperless by not offering module course packs. However, it seems that English lecturers are still trying to adapt to change regarding online teaching and learning.

The above discussion suggests that English lecturers used written strategies to decolonise the curriculum, because while they are present in lecture venues with the students, this is what is actually indicated by the institution. For instance, an English lecturer may use body language and facial expression to emphasise what happens in a novel for students to relate more easily to the themes of the novel. Furthermore, findings also indicated that lecturers used blended learning, since they have recently been introduced to Moodle which allows them to scan and upload pictures, texts, and slides and so on to the platform. This suggests that they use verbal strategies because this type of teaching is open to all kinds of students; those who are technologically advanced (Moodle) and those who believe in face-to-face instruction (physical lectures). On the other hand, findings indicated that English lecturers were not clear what online learning is and what it entails, which led them to give responses that are not specific. For instance, all lecturers use emails to communicate information to students, and since the institution has gone paperless they are compelled to upload information onto the Moodle platform, and some lecturers create WhatsApp groups with their students to pass on important information. This therefore indicates that English lecturers used habitual strategies, for example the individual lecturer who decides how to easily communicate information to students through WhatsApp or other means.

The English Major 420 course outline (2018) revealed that students are mandated to attend at least 75% of lectures to get permission to write the end of semester examination; however, the document was silent regarding blended learning and e-learning.

4.2.8. Theme 8: Teaching activities

Lecturers adopt different activities to consolidate their teaching. Responses showed that they used all of the activities mentioned in the literature reviewed in chapter two (academic writing, tutorials and groupwork).

> **P1:** "*There should be a lot smaller venues for tutorials… I really believe in groupwork. Yes I try, we do a lot of groupwork … Academic writing would be a standard way of doing their work essays."*
>
> **P2:** *"… academic writing so you expect them to submit an essay… the tutorials also are done."*
>
> **P3:** *"…* o*ur tutorials are the same size as our lectures, we no longer have small tutorials … not unless we teach Academic Literacy."*
>
> **P4:** *"Groupworks, collaboration, interaction … there are tutorials … different types of writings, paragraphing, essay writing."*
>
> **P5:** *"*We *do the activities about what is happening in the story*."

P1 asserted that "*academic writing would be a standard way of their work, writing essays".* In line with this, P3 added that **"***different types of writings, paragraphing, essay writing"* were done. P2 added *"academic writing so you expect them to submit an essay"* (academic writing). Furthermore, participants also mentioned that they use tutorials as activities to assess their teaching. P1 stated "*there should be a lot smaller venues for tutorials," while* P2 affirmed that *"the tutorials also are done".* Moreover, P3 further indicated that *"*o*ur tutorials are the same size as our lectures, we no longer have small tutorials"* (tutorials). In addition, some participants mentioned that they believed a great deal in facilitating groupwork when teaching. P1 asserted *"I really believe in group-work"* and P4 affirmed *"group works, collaboration interaction"* (group work).

Different studies indicated that students need effective teaching and learning activities to consolidate what has been taught in class (Andersson, 2007; Bernstein & Class, 1975; Ganser, 2002; Nyoni, 2013). Furthermore, studies revealed that in English activities may be academic writing, tutorials or groupwork. Studies refer to the academic essay as formal writing activities that aim to improve students' writing skills; furthermore, essays follow a formal writing structure (Jiang, 2015; Plonsky, 2011; Sluijsmans & Prins, 2006). As a result, academic writing

(essays) cause lecturers to use written strategies, because essay writing follows formal rules and there is a formal language that is used in academic writing (Andersson, 2007; Priestley et al., 2012). Plonsky (2011) affirmed that tutorials are individual activities to assess students' knowledge based on the previous lecture; they are usually in smaller groups to consolidate the lecturer's teaching. Moreover, tutorials cause lecturers to use habitual strategies because each individual lecturer may set tutorial questions based on the content chosen for examination purposes (Bozarth, 2012; Cai, 2016; Katsara, 2018).

Groupwork is referred to as one of the effective teaching activities used to ensure collaborative learning and support a student-centred teaching approach (Andreevna & Petrovna, 2017; Cai, 2016; Huang, Liu, Wang, Tsai, & Lin, 2017; Loddington, 2008). Furthermore, groupwork activities cause lecturers to use verbal strategies to decolonise the English curriculum, because through these activities students work together to socially construct knowledge that may assist lecturers to learn from students' responses and discussions to improve their teaching (Bridgstock, 2016; Gweon et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2017; Kirk & MacCallum, 2017).

Findings indicated that lecturers used different activities to test students' understanding of the knowledge taught in lectures. Moreover, participants also mentioned challenges that they faced in conducting some of the activities. P1, P2 and P3 stated that they do have tutorials but they are not effective because of the large venues used to conduct these activities. This suggests that lecturers were driven by habitual strategies to decolonise the English curriculum. Moreover, participants also used academic writing as activities to test students' understanding and writing skills, which suggests that lecturers were driven by written strategies. P1, P3 and P4 indicated that they relied a great deal on collaborative work (groupwork) as they believed that this encouraged students' critical skills. This suggests that lecturers used verbal strategies when trying to balance the content with the students' contexts.

The English Major 420 course outline (2018) indicated the use of tutorials conducted every week for six weeks. Moreover, the outline also showed the use of assignments given in the form of academic writing (essays). However, the course outline did not show anything on groupwork as activities given to students.

4.2.9. Theme: 9 Accessibility

Lecturers' responses touched only on physical and cultural accessibility.

P1: *"The majority is obviously African … I try to draw examples from the students, so the students try to talk about something and use that as an example… I stay not very far from the campus, I use my personal car to be here on time every day."*

P2: *"I use my personal vehicle to come to campus whenever I feel like, even at night because my place is about 15 minutes' drive from here … The majority are African and then Indian and coloured, there are no whites… I try to draw examples from the students, so the students try to talk about something and use that as an example."*

P3: "*Well I don't stay on campus, however, any time I want to be on campus I just drive… if there are 70% Africans and 30% Indian I would certainly use examples that are coming from their backgrounds."*

P4: "*Most of the students do not come from a stable financial background … The majority are black Africans … sometimes on weekends and if I need to be accessed I may drive to campus."*

P5: "*… almost 95% of them they use NSFAS to fund their studies… they are like its payday today, you have to accommodate such situations …"*

Regarding the students, P1 stated that *"The majority is obviously African and we have a bigger percentage of Indian as compared to coloureds and whites"*. P3 added *"if there are 70% Africans and 30% Indian I would certainly use examples that are coming from their backgrounds"*. P4 added that *"the majority are black Africans"*. P2 said *"I try to draw examples from the students, so the students try to talk about something and use that as an example" (*cultural accessibility). In addition, P1 noted "*I stay not very far from the campus, I use my personal car to be here on time every day",* while P2 indicated that *"I use my personal vehicle to come to campus whenever I feel like, even at night because my place is about 15 minutes' drive from here"*. P3 asserted that *"well I don't stay on campus, however, any time I want to be on campus I just drive",* and P4 that *"sometimes on weekends and if I need to be accessed I may drive to campus".* Only P5 was silent on physical accessibility (physical accessibility).

Studies indicate that the lecturers' understanding of whom they teach and their availability play a major role in effective teaching (Bozarth, 2012; Del Carpio & Del Carpio, 2015; Erasmus, 2013; Frey et al., 2017; Sosibo & Katiya, 2015a). Moreover, studies revealed that accessibility has three components: financial, physical and cultural. Horsthemke, Siyakwazi, Walton, and

Wolhuter (2013) affirmed that cultural accessibility was defined as the cultural backgrounds of the students, which may influence lecturers' teaching strategies. Cultural accessibility causes English lecturers to be driven by verbal strategy, because the lecturer might use students' different cultures and languages to explain the incidents in a play or novel with the aim of connecting the content with the context of the students. (For instance, asking students to explain the process of bride-taking from Zulu culture to make students relate to the Shakespearean play *Romeo and Juliet*.) Physical accessibility refers to the contact time lecturers spend with students in a teaching and learning environment and the availability of lecturers to the students for consultation (Erasmus, 2013; Perrault & Clark, 2017; Sosibo & Katiya, 2015a). Physical accessibility causes English lecturers to be influenced by habitual strategies, because for them to be accessed or available to students they use different means of transportation. Moreover, in physical contact with the students English lecturers may use the different physical environments to allow for different methods to convey the content to the student. For instance, after getting to the lecture venue the lecturer may use some physical gestures to teach a certain text. In addition, Hill-Zuganelli et al. (2017) concur with Perrault and Clark (2017) that financial accessibility is referred to students' financial state in terms of financial aid schemes, bursaries, scholarships and so on. Financial accessibility was not a major focus for lecturers as they are not directly involved with students' funding.

The findings revealed that participants responded on physical accessibility as well as cultural accessibility. P1, P2, P3 and P4 revealed various issues on the basis of cultural accessibility, such as that the majority of their students are black Africans compared to Indians, coloureds and whites. This suggests that decolonisation of the English curriculum causes lecturers to be aware of students' religion, race, language and culture, so that they teach using relevant examples that students can relate to. By so doing lecturers used verbal strategies and indicated that students' experiences drove the lessons as the lecturers' examples came from these. Moreover, P1, P2, P3 and P4 responded on physical accessibility, indicating that they avail themselves to students using their own personal transportation. This suggests that lecturers also used habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum by listening to individual students' issues to improve their teaching. However, the findings showed that cultural and physical accessibility were used equally, which suggests that most lecturers use habitual and verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. The English Major 420 course outline (2018) was silent on accessibility.

4.2.10. Theme 10: Time

Lecturers' comments showed that they used their time doing different things to improve their practice and also on their research, apart from contact time that they have with students in classes.

> **P1:** "*Before you go to class you research what you are going to teach … a lot of reading, we do a lot of writing … I'm with my family, I forget about books… We have double periods and that's about an hour and a half."*
>
> **P2:** *"Various things I have to prepare for my lectures, I have to check that everything is fine … I set aside for that holiday or the things with students' marking and postgrad master's and PhD … 90 minutes, absolutely so I have a time in mind and I have activities in mind, the explicit teaching …"*
>
> **P3:** "*… in my office I spend a lot of time because of my open doors obviously to students … During leave, I always take my laptop with me, I work on weekends, I would never go anywhere without my laptop…it's an hour and a half…"*
>
> **P4:** "*Firstly I use it for my studies, I decided that whatever study I am doing must align with English … It's about 90 minutes … most of the time I find myself more attached to improving my teaching … I don't spend my time with friends or relatives."*
>
> **P5:** "*Normally we have 90 minute lectures, our lectures are double periods… we have consultation times for those students who like to come and consult … during my holiday time I attend conferences."*

P1 asserted *"before you go to class you research what you are going to teach, a lot of reading, we do a lot of writing"*. P2 added *"various things, one I have to prepare my lectures, I have to check that everything is fine"*. In support to these responses P3 added *"in my office I spend a lot of time because of my open doors obviously to students"* (spare time). Furthermore, participants mentioned that except the formal time they have with the students in lectures, they also create time for one-on-one consultation time with students to clarify things. Issues on leave time were revealed, for instance P3 affirmed that *"during leave I always take my laptop with me, I work on weekends, I would never go anywhere without my laptop"*. In addition to the above, P4 mentioned that *"most of the time I find myself more attached to improving my teaching"*. P5 also added that *"during my holiday time I attend conferences"* (leave time) and "*normally we have 90 minute lectures, we have consultation*

times for those students who like to come and consult". P3 noted "…*my open doors obviously with student … one and a half hours"* (contact time).

Studies state that time is the existence of events in the past, present or future, while in HEIs lecturers' time may be contact time, spare time or leave time (Cunningham & Yamasaki, 2018; Ganser, 2002; Letizia, 2017; Liberatore et al., 2017). Contact time was referred to as the period of teaching and learning between lecturer and students. Cunningham and Yamasaki (2018) and Cupita and Andrea (2016) affirm that contact time leads English lecturers to be driven by written strategies, because the university policies (handbooks, course packs) indicate time allocation for each lesson. For instance, 90 minutes is the time allocation for all modules at this university each day, and P3 and P5 supported this.

Lowenthal et al. (2016) and Letizia (2017) indicate that spare time is where lecturers are in their offices but not teaching. Spare time leads English lecturers to be driven by habitual strategies; for instance, a lecturer may choose to read more and prepare adequately for subsequent lectures in order to bring the content to students' context. Furthermore, English lecturers may use their spare time to learn new teaching strategies to improve their teaching, or encourage students to use this time to consult for more clarity on the content.

On the other hand, Cunningham and Yamasaki (2018) and Mulvaney (2014) affirm that leave time may be the period where lecturers take a break from work to relax and do personal activities. Leave time caused English lecturers to use verbal strategies, because during this period they can network with colleagues from different places at conferences to learn their teaching pedagogies with the aim of finding effective strategies to decolonise the curriculum.

Participants responded differently on how they used their time, and they also touched on all propositions (contact time, spare time and leave time). P1, P2 and P3 indicated that they use their spare time to do research in preparation for the lectures; they further stated that they use this time (spare time) to have their doors open to hear from students who want consultation time. This suggests that lecturers were influenced by habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum. P3, P4 and P5 also responded on how they used their leave time, indicating that they attend conferences to gain new knowledge and learn to improve their teaching. This suggests that lectures were also influenced by verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Only two lecturers (P3 and P5) responded on contact time, as they indicated that they had a maximum of an hour and a half a day for each lecture; however, participants indicated that besides this time they encouraged students to come during consultation times. This suggests

that formal contact time in lectures may not be enough for them to explain everything to the students, and hence spare time was effectively utilised.

The findings revealed that spare time and leave time were mostly used by lecturers to enhance effective teaching of English Major 420. This suggests that many lecturers were mostly driven by habitual as well as verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. The English Major 420 course outline was silent on spare time and leave time but showed that lecturers' contact time with students in lecture venues is one and a half hours per lecture.

4.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter four has outlined the data presentation, analysis and discussion. This chapter began with a table showing all of the themes taken from the curricular spiderweb; the levels of strategies (written, habitual and verbal); and the categories that appeared from these themes. The data generated were discussed and analysed following the themes and categories for each level. Guided analysis (combination of inductive and deductive reasoning) was used to make sense of the data generated. The findings outlined that the lecturers used different strategies (written, habitual and verbal) to decolonise the English Major 420 curriculum. However, different themes revealed that some strategies were not used effectively, which may be because lecturers are not aware of those strategies. The next chapter will outline a summary of the study, the recommendations that emerged from the data and the conclusion.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, MAJOR FINDINGS RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This study set out to explore English lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. The study also sought to understand the strategies that lecturers used, explain how those strategies are used, and also to understand the lessons that could be learnt by English lecturers in HEIs. Furthermore, the study sought to answer two research questions: 'What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?', and 'How do lecturers' use these strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?' The previous chapter presented, analysed and discussed the data generated. This chapter presents the summary, recommendations and conclusion derived from the data analysis and discussions. It begins with a summary of each of the previous chapters, then discusses the major findings of my study, followed by suggestions for further research and the recommendations made by this study, ending with the conclusion.

5.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS

This study focused on exploring lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. Furthermore, it aimed to understand the nature of these strategies and how they are used by lecturers to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. This study has covered the chapters from one to four, with chapter two (literature review) and chapter four (research findings and discussions) being used for drawing up the summary, recommendations and conclusion of the study.

5.2.1 Chapter one

The first chapter provided the general background to the study, outlining the title (Lecturers' strategies to decolonise English curriculum at a South African university) of the study (section 1.2) after the introduction. I stated the focus of the study in section 1.3, exploring lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. The location of the study was also mentioned, being one campus of UKZN. The rationale of the study in section 1.5 outlined my personal reasons for conducting the study, and what the literature states about the study's phenomenon (lecturers' strategies) and study focus (teaching of English education). The rationale also looked at how useful this interpretive case study may be in the field of

education. Furthermore, section 1.6 outlined the literature review where the ten concepts of the curriculum spiderweb were unpacked (Van den Akker et al., 2009).

The study objectives were outlined in section 1.7 as follows:

- To explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university.
- To understand how lecturers implement strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university.

Followed by the following research questions:

- What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?
- How do lecturers use these strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?

Research design and methodology were indicated (sections 1.9 to 1.14) by outlining the research paradigm (interpretive paradigm), research style (case study), sampling (convenience and purposive), research methods (reflective activity, one-on one semi-structured interview and document analysis), data analysis, limitations, ethical clearance issues and trustworthiness**.**

5.2.2 Chapter two

This chapter reviewed the literature on the different areas related to the study: lecturers' reflections; the origin of higher education; decolonisation in higher education (decolonisation of the mind, physical structures and decolonisation of knowledge); curriculum presentation (intended, implemented and achieved curriculum); curriculum design approaches (instrumental approach, communicative approach, pragmatic approach and artistic approach); curriculum development process (analysis, design, develop, implement and evaluate); and curricular spiderweb concepts (conceptual framework). The chapter started by looking at strategies through three levels: written strategy, habitual strategy and verbal strategy (Barrot, 2016; Letizia, 2017), and the lecturers' strategies were categorised according to these levels in the findings and discussion chapter (chapter four). Furthermore, this chapter defined and presented the curriculum and indicated that the curricular spiderweb was adopted as the conceptual framework in this interpretive case study. The chapter established that the curricular spider-web was made up of ten concepts that were used to organise the literature reviewed. These concepts are: rationale, content, goals, resources, assessment, lecturer role, teaching

environment, teaching activities, accessibility and time (Van den Akker, 2013). A summary of all concepts with propositions, authors and gaps is provided in Table 2.1. The literature outlined that for English lecturers to design effective strategies (action) to decolonise the curriculum, knowledge of all curriculum concepts is needed (Berkvens et al., 2014; Khoza, 2016b).

5.2.3 Chapter three

Chapter three outlined the details of the methodology adopted by this study, which was a qualitative research design approach under an interpretive paradigm. The study aimed to understand from each individual English lecturers' experiences, perceptions and views how they actually strategise to decolonise the curriculum (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Cohen et al., 2007a). The study used three data generation methods: lecturer reflective activity, one-on-one semi-structured interviews and document analysis. This chapter also described the sampling, which included convenience sampling, and purposive sampling (Cohen et al., 2011). In addition, this chapter paid special attention to the following aspects to ensure the trustworthiness of the study: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. This chapter also outlined how this study adopted guided analysis which included both inductive and deductive reasoning to analyse the generated data. Ethical issues were carefully adhered to, which included seeking permission to conduct the study from UKZN, seeking informed consent from the participants and ensuring the participants' confidentiality and anonymity. This chapter also articulated issues relating to possible problems (limitations) that could be met during the course of the study.

5.2.4 Chapter Four

This chapter presented, analysed and discussed the findings from lecturers' responses generated through reflective activities, one-on one semi-structured interviews and document analysis. To do this, guided analysis was used following the ten concepts of the curricular spiderweb. These concepts developed themes which then formed categories that were related to the relevant level of strategies (Table 4.1). The categories were discussed in order to explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university. The aim was to know which strategies English lecturers actually used/adopted and how these were used when trying to connect the content taught with the students' local context.

5.3 MAJOR FINDINGS

The conclusions are drawn from the findings (literature reviewed and data analysis) of the study and are discussed following the curricular spiderweb concepts as the themes that structured lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African University. Table 5.1 highlights curriculum concepts versus strategies mostly used in each theme when decolonising the English curriculum. The following discussion will indicate which strategy was mostly used in each curriculum concept. Rationale was described as the set of reasons behind the teaching of a certain module (English Major 420) (Khoza, 2016b; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b), and analysis indicated that a societal rationale was mostly used compared to other rationales (personal and professional) – lecturers were teaching having students/society in mind. This suggests that verbal strategies were mostly adopted by English lecturers to decolonise the curriculum at the South African university. However, this is contrary to what the literature revealed, which was that all three rationales are equally important to decolonise the curriculum.

Table 5. 1: Curriculum concepts (themes) versus strategies most used in each concept

Curriculum concepts	**Strategy mostly used to decolonise curriculum**
Rationale	Verbal strategies
Content	Habitual strategies
Goals	Verbal strategies
Resources	Habitual strategies
Assessment	Written and Habitual strategies
Lecturer role	Verbal strategies
Teaching environment	Written strategies
Teaching and learning activities	Verbal strategies
Accessibility	Verbal strategies
Time	Habitual strategies

Goals are visions that drive lecturers' teaching, which are discussed as objectives, aims and learning outcomes (Kennedy et al., 2009; Khoza, 2016b). Findings from data analysis showed that lecturers were mostly driven by learning outcomes more than aims and objectives when teaching English Major 420. This suggests that lecturers were mostly influenced by verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum, which was the opposite of findings from the literature which suggested that lecturers also consider the professionalism (objectives) and aims.

The literature reviewed revealed that the question 'What do you teach in the module English Major 420' could be answered in three propositions: knowledge content, personal development content and social preparation content (Berkvens et al., 2014; Cesur & Ertaş, 2018). Consequently, findings from the analysis indicated that English lecturers were teaching more literature texts (novels, plays, films), which refer to personal development content, than other types of content. This suggests that English lecturers were mostly using habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum, which allowed them to select novels/plays/films or dramas to be taught and find ways to teach knowledge from Western scholars to make content relevant to the South African context. This is the direct opposite of what the reviewed literature revealed based on the importance of content which prepared competent teachers who were ready for the social and professional world.

Resources for teaching and learning were described as tools to support the teaching process, which were divided into three parts (hardware, ideological-ware and software resources) (Amory, 2014; Bian, 2018). Findings from analysis showed that ideological-ware resources were mostly used by English lecturers rather than software and hardware to teach English Major 420. This suggests that habitual strategies were used more than written and verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. This is in line with the literature reviewed, which stated that lecturers should mostly be driven by theories and use software and hardware resources to support such theories.

Assessment was seen as evaluation and measuring the teaching process in a specific period of time (semester) (Firmino & Leite, 2014; Gouws & Russell, 2013). Out of three assessment types (summative, formative and peer assessment), findings from the analysis revealed that summative and formative assessments were mostly used by lecturers when teaching English Major 420. This suggests that lecturers used written and habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum. However, the literature suggested that all assessment types are to be used to decolonise the curriculum.

Lecturer role was defined as different roles a lecturer chooses to play during curriculum implementation of the curriculum: assessor, instructor and facilitator (Balbay et al., 2018; Beeman-Cadwallader et al., 2014). Findings from data analysis revealed that lecturers acted as facilitators more than as instructors and assessors. This is exactly in line with what the literature revealed, emphasising the importance of lecturers to using a student-centred teaching approach (as facilitators) during curriculum implementation. Consequently, verbal strategies were

mostly used to decolonise the English Major 420 curriculum at the South African university. Moreover, the teaching environment was described as a suitable space to teach a certain module, which can be through face-to-face interaction, online teaching or blended learning (Adebisi & Oyeleke, 2018; Aşıkcan et al., 2018). Findings from analysis revealed that face-to-face interaction was mostly used by lecturers when teaching English Major 420. The literature suggests all platforms be used effectively, although studies indicated that face-to-face interaction is still the most common across the country. This suggests that written strategies were mostly used to decolonise the curriculum.

Teaching activities were said to include academic writing (essays), tutorials and groupwork. Findings from the literature revealed that English lecturers used groupwork more often than tutorials and academic writing. This suggests that verbal strategies were mostly used to decolonise the curriculum. This was contrary to what the literature revealed: that both group work and academic writing should be used equally to equip students with critical and creativity skills. Accessibility was described as way lecturers access students and how they avail themselves to students through financial, physical and cultural accessibility (Del Carpio & Del Carpio, 2015; Sosibo & Katiya, 2015a). Findings from the analysis revealed that cultural accessibility was that most adopted by the lecturers, which suggests that English lecturers mostly adopted verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. This is contrary to what the literature revealed, which was that all propositions can be equally used to decolonise the curriculum. Time was said to reveal the amount of time lecturers teach for and the use of their leave and spare time to find effective strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Findings from the analysis revealed that spare time was mostly used by lecturers to support contact time. This suggests that lecturers mostly used habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum. This is contrary to what the literature revealed, which was that all lecturer times (contact time, spare time and leave time) can be used to decolonise the curriculum.

5.3.1 Rationale

Based on the studies reviewed in chapter two it was revealed that the rationale (reasons) behind the teaching of any module may be based upon professional rationale, personal rationale as well as societal rationale (Berkvens et al., 2014; Khoza, 2015c). Studies also indicated that a rationale behind the teaching of any module is essential as it is at the centre of all the curriculum concepts. Professional rationale seeks lecturers to teach what is intended in the institution's policies such as module outlines and module templates. Du Preez and Reddy (2014) concur with Khoza (2016b) that if lecturers are guided by what the intended curriculum stipulates

(content knowledge), students get professional knowledge that would be useful in their lives and in the societies they come from. Personal rationale as referred to lecturers' personal reasons behind their teaching of English Major 420, and hence is at the centre of the teaching of a specific module (Uysal & Bardakci, 2014; Zhang & Wang, 2016). Regarding social rationale, Zhang and Wang (2016) affirm that the teaching of English as a foreign language should be aligned with society's norms, values and needs. As a result, there is a need for English lecturers to use verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. In the context of this study, the needs of society relate to students' needs as representatives of different communities. Expansion of the teaching of English to the society promotes professional content teaching (curriculum implementation) of the module (English Major 420) as students are taught formal content knowledge by qualified English specialists, the lecturers (Slaughter & Lo Bianco, 2009; Uysal & Bardakci, 2014).

As much as it is important for lecturers to know their personal rationale for teaching their modules, which is in line with taking heed of students as social beings who belong to the communities (Moskowitz & Grant, 2009; Uysal & Bardakci, 2014), the institution's policy documents are there to guide and ensure that lecturers teach the right content that would equip students with knowledge from African scholars as well as Western scholars. However, the English Major 420 course outline (2018) is silent on the rationale that lecturers should follow when teaching this module. This suggests that English lecturers as professionals are supposed to think for themselves, so that they draw from their own personal reasons to choose between societal and professional reasons that can drive the teaching of the module. In other words, the decolonisation of English Major 420 module is mainly grounded on personal strategy before verbal and written strategy follow. Having a clear rationale for their module can assist lecturers to design correct effective strategies to decolonise the curriculum (Berkvens et al., 2014; Khoza, 2016b).

Findings from the analysis indicated the need for English lecturers to be aware of the reasons behind the teaching of their module at all rationale levels (professional, personal and societal) to enhance the teaching of English Major 420 with the aim to decolonise the curriculum. Findings indicate that social rationale was mostly understood and used by English lecturers, followed by personal rationale rather than the professional rationale. This may a result of the fact that they are teaching English as a second language; thus they are trying not to focus too much on formal language rules, but rather focus on social and personal rationale. This can have a negative effect on the student teachers who will be sent into the field, as they are expected to

master all aspects of English. Furthermore, Zhang and Wang (2016) affirmed that English as a foreign language should be taught in relation to the society. Professional rationale was the least used by English lecturers; this may be because lectures had to think critically about what formal content knowledge they teach as well as how the language can assist students on global knowledge without undermining other local languages. Consequently, English lecturers were drawing a great deal on verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. This answers the first question as to what lecturers' strategies are to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university.

5.3.2 Goals

Studies revealed that lack of clear goals can lead to academic failure in the field of education, and that lecturers' goals for teaching their modules fall into objectives, aims and outcomes (Khoza, 2016b; Ortiz, 2011). This suggests that goals are seen as the driving force of teaching and learning, as lecturers' visions of what they intend to achieve in the long/short run. Research indicates that the first goal that lecturers always have is the lesson objectives, which allows them to have expectations after every lesson they teach (short-term goal) (Kennedy et al., 2009; Misco, 2007). In addition, lecturers as professionals are guided by formal written objectives that outline whether the lesson conducted was successful or not. This is followed by lecturers' aims in teaching the module (long-term goals); unlike objectives, aims cannot be measured though both aims and objectives are for lecturers. According to Zhang and Wang (2016) as well as Vedder-Weiss (2017) education cannot be separated from what society needs, and as a result learning outcomes are designed to satisfy the needs of the society (students), for instance producing future English teachers that would impart the culture of reading and writing to learners. Moreover, research findings revealed that the success of teaching depends upon these three visions of objectives, aims and outcomes, which are categorised according to three strategy levels to decolonise the curriculum: objectives – written strategy, aims – habitual strategy, and outcomes – verbal strategy.

Lecturers can decide to depend on personal goals that they design for themselves; however, as professionals they have university policy (course outlines and handbooks) that stipulates what they should follow. I therefore analysed the English Major 420 course outline (2018) to see if goals are stipulated. The module outline shows the aims as well as learning outcomes that the module aims to accomplish in the long-term period, but nothing is written about the objectives. This suggests that lecturers only have to work towards achieving the long-term goals (aims) since they are provided in the course outline; however, this does not stop them from adding

their own personal aims. This suggests that English lecturers seek to be driven by habitual strategies when teaching English Major 420. Furthermore, findings outlined that learning outcomes are indicated in the course outline, which means lecturers are to work collaboratively with students to accomplish these learning outcomes. In other words, the module outline also seeks lecturers to be influenced by verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Nevertheless, the fact that the module outline does not give lecturers objectives may suggest that they have to design lesson objectives for themselves, which may be because each lesson has its own objectives which lie on the lecturer teaching the module.

Findings from the analysis revealed that lecturers are clear on the use of objectives and learning outcomes in the teaching of English Major 420; however, they seemed to take objectives and aims as one and the same thing. This is contrary to what the literature outlined when it emphasised the importance of lecturers' use of goals (aims, objectives and outcomes) to cater for the professional world while carrying society along in the educational goals (Kennedy et al., 2009; Ortiz, 2011). This means English lecturers may be teaching for the present without aiming to achieve a lot in future, and this may affect the overall purpose of the module since it is an exit module in the Bachelor of Education degree. Furthermore, these findings suggest that English lecturers taught only on the basis of written formal objectives that go with each lesson's written strategies as well as learning outcomes as verbal strategies. This can have a negative impact on the teaching of this module since individual lecturer's aims may be helpful, especially because the module seemed to cover only knowledge from Western scholars (*The Tempest* by Shakespeare, *Hard Times* by Charles Dickens and *The Great Gatsby* by Scott Fitzgerald); therefore, as much as university policy and society can suggest what needs to be done, English lecturers as professionals can support such with unique personal aims and creativity, which can make the module interesting and make sense to students with the aim of connecting content with students' local context. This suggests that the first critical research question was answered.

5.3.3. Content

According to studies reviewed in the literature, content in the English modules is based on knowledge content (language), personal development content (literature) and social preparation content (creative writing) (Berkvens et al., 2014; Sawaki, 2017; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009b). Before teaching can take place lecturers have to understand the different topics that are covered in English Major 420 (Berkvens et al., 2014; Cesur & Ertaş, 2018). The literature suggests that the first level of content covered in English is knowledge content. This

knowledge deals with formal language rules and what English entails as a foreign language, which may be aligned with written strategy to decolonise the curriculum (Cesur & Ertaş, 2018; Sawaki, 2017). This is followed by personal development content which involves different readings (plays, novels, poems, dramas and films) in English from different contexts (international, rest of Africa and South Africa). This type of content develops students' critical skills as individuals tend to look at written or visual texts from different perspectives; this goes with a habitual strategy to decolonise the curriculum. In addition, Uysal and Bardakci (2014) assert that English as a module has to instil some skills into students, such as creative writing skills, which might be essential in their lives. This suggests that for lecturers to be on top of all of this content at different levels they must be professionally trained in this particular module (English Major 420).

Studies indicated that all content levels (knowledge, personal development and social preparation content) are important as they serve different functions (creativity, critical thinking and academic writing skills) in the student's life. The English Major 420 module outline (2018) and reflective activities revealed that the content that is covered only refers to personal development content (literature) and a small portion of language (Teaching Shakespeare). I asked for course texts that lecturers used and I discovered that in a semester three literature texts from Western scholars are covered. This knowledge (literature texts: novel, play and film) prepares students to be critical thinkers. The language part of this module (English Major 420) tends to prepare students to be efficient and competent in Shakespearean language; however, the module outline is silent on social preparation content (creative writing).

The findings from the analysis indicate that literature as differentiated (one novel, one play and one film) is taught by different lecturers who teach different sections. For instance, one lecturer introduces the module and Shakespearean language aspect, followed by another lecturer who takes students through the play while another one comes to teach the novel. This is in line with what was indicated by the reviewed literature and the module outline. English lecturers revealed that they find teaching the module very easy because they deal with sections they are comfortable teaching. One of the lecturers outlined that he can never teach the novel *Hard Times* and also that he also hates teaching Shakespeare – thus he does not teach it. Moreover, different literature texts serve different assessment purposes, where students write assignments on the play taught while they write a test on the film. The findings indicate that English Major 420 only covers content from Western scholars, as indicated above. This is in line with what was indicated by some lecturers – that they do not see decolonisation as excluding international

knowledge, but what has to change is the way the approach teaching. The findings also revealed that English lecturers used different habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum, depending on what they were teaching at that moment. Most participants indicated that they mainly focus on students' experiences and whether they relate to the text or not and take it from there, rather than focusing much on the content. For instance, with the American film *The Great Gatsby* students can list rich South Africans who live similar lives. In addition, one participant indicated that she teaches Shakespeare's play *The Tempest* in such a way that students relate to the main themes such as colonialism. For example, the play reveals that the main character Prospero colonised Caliban's land, which made Caliban feel less human; thus students can relate this colonisation theme to South Africa's apartheid era. This suggests that English lecturers used habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum. This answered both of the critical research questions (What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?; How do lecturers use these strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?) because participants explained how they used certain habitual strategies to teach knowledge from Western scholars to connect the content with students' local context.

5.3.4. Resources

According to the findings from the literature ideological-ware resources should be used frequently by lecturers in their teaching, which enhances the use of habitual strategies, while software and hardware resources are said to be used to support different theories behind the teaching of English Major 420 (Amory, 2014; Khoza, 2017). Although effective teaching of English Major 420 depends on the availability of all resource propositions (hardware, ideological-ware and software resources), studies revealed that if lecturers are well aware of theories (ideological-ware resources) that guide their modules, effective teaching should take place (Berkvens et al., 2014; Bian, 2018). Consequently, lecturers should see themselves as the best resources ever during curriculum implementation, so that if modern resources (software and hardware) are not available they can still provide quality teaching to their students. Amory (2014) as well as Khoza (2015c) affirm that any module that does not specify the theories used is likely to fail; thus literature reviewed revealed that English education had different theories that guide its teaching. These findings suggests that if lecturers use such theories effectively when implementing the curriculum, such a module is likely to succeed greatly in the future.

The policy that guides the teaching of English Major 420 (English Major 420 course outline 2018) touches on the use of software and hardware resources in addition to the use of

ideological-ware resources. Thus, all these forms of resources should complement one another. These findings suggest that the university has the responsibility to provide venues that are conducive to the use of software (displaying texts on the slides) and hardware (the use of overhead projectors), which may require every lecturer to use personal laptops. This suggests that lecturers must use the combinations of written and verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Moreover, findings from the module outline and careful analysis of core texts revealed that a lot of text was used in the teaching of English Major 420 (plays, novels, etc.), which may demand that each student buy books so as to get knowledge that will support the teaching of the module. Furthermore, for the use of software resources students also need to buy personal laptops to access information that English lecturers post on Moodle or through their mails.

Analysis of findings revealed that all English lecturers used different theories that guide the teaching of English Major 420 as they indicated how they used such theories during curriculum implementation. This is in line with what the literature indicated, emphasising the importance of lecturers' use of different theories (Amory, 2014; Bian, 2018). This suggests that English lecturers are well equipped in implementation of the curriculum, especially in using these theories to decolonise the curriculum (habitual strategy). The findings reveal that English lecturers used theories such as critical pedagogy and communicative language teaching (CLT) to allow students to think critically and share their experiences in relation to what was happening in the text (play or novel); this assisted English lecturers to link content with students' local contexts. This suggests that theories are good resources that can be used to stir students' interest in any text since they are given a chance to critically analyse it in the light of their own lives.

Furthermore, findings indicated that English lecturers also used hardware and software resources during curriculum implementation, but text was the most used since there is so much reading done in the module. This is supports what was revealed by the literature reviewed: that text has become the most used hardware resource during the implementation of English modules (written strategy). Through this discussion both critical research questions were answered, and English lecturers indicated that they used ideological-ware resources most, which relates to habitual strategies, and also mentioned how they used these theories to connect content taught with students' local context.

5.3.5 Assessment

Findings from the literature revealed that achieved curriculum (assessment) is crucial as it indicates whether the curriculum implementation followed what was intended by curriculum planners, which results in lecturers achieving their goals (Didicher, 2016; Firmino & Leite, 2014). Studies outlined three types of assessment (summative, formative and peer assessment), and of these summative and formative assessment were referred to as the most used assessment types, while peer assessment was regarded as the least used (Black, 2015; Zondi, 2015). Formative assessment is regarded as most prominent because it occurs automatically during curriculum implementation as an informal way to carry students along during the teaching process. Formative assessment also assists the lecturer to quickly see whether to change the teaching method or not for more effectiveness, which suggests that through this form of assessment lecturers use habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Formative assessment, which follows formal rules, prepares students for formal assessment (summative assessment), which happens at the end of academic period (semester). For instance, in the English education discipline lecturers use summative assessment criteria to assess students on content understanding and expression (language rules). This suggests that lecturers' use of summative assessment means they adopt written strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Peer assessment comes last as it relates to the times that students assess one another's work; if used effectively this type of assessment may allow students to express their beliefs and thoughts through critical evaluation of one another's work; thus verbal strategies are used to decolonise the curriculum.

The findings from the policy document of the module (English Major 420 course outline 2018) and lecturers' lesson plans indicate the use of both formative and summative assessment equally. Furthermore, lecturers also set examination papers based on assessment criteria (summative assessment) such as Bloom's taxonomy. This suggests that habitual and written strategies are used by lecturers as far as assessment is concerned to decolonise the curriculum. However, the module outline was silent regarding peer assessment. This may be because classes are overcrowded, which makes it difficult for English lecturers to enforce this type of assessment. On the other hand, this may point to the fact that lecturers believe in teaching in the way they were taught, not believing in students' capabilities to critically assess their peers.

Findings from the analysis indicate that formative and summative assessment were used equally compared to peer assessment. This is contrary to what was revealed by the literature, that summative assessment is that most used in higher institutions. This suggests that English

lecturers believe in written and habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum, where they individually design informal questions to make students link the content with the local context and set formal examinations using Bloom's taxonomy. However, findings revealed that there are few/no lecturers who used peer assessment, which suggests that verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum were not used. This may be because English lecturers think they teach what students need without properly analysing what they actually think (values, beliefs), which can be discovered through feedback from peer assessment. This may have a negative impact on the students, as Ingman et al. (2017) outlined that during curriculum development there is a need for proper analysis of student' needs to avoid teaching what students do not need as future teachers – such as a play from England in 1916, while there are recent ones in the African context that can make sense to students. As revealed in chapter two, analysis of students' needs is the first step in the curriculum development process. The discussion provided answers to both of the critical research questions.

5.3.6 Lecturer role

Literature reviewed revealed that an effective lecturer plays different roles (assessor, instructor and facilitator) during the implementation of the curriculum, depending on the nature of the content taught (Balbay et al., 2018; Maharajh et al., 2013). Moreover, studies emphasise the need for lecturers to facilitate teaching when implementing the intended curriculum rather than only acting as experts (Beeman-Cadwallader et al., 2014). This can help lecturers to understand what students already know and what they think concerning their education, and indicates that lecturers should use verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Furthermore, Peterson and Lorimer (2012) and Ganser (2002) affirmed that lecturers can also play the role of an instructor when teaching, especially when teaching completely new knowledge or introducing a new section, meaning the focus is on the lecturer's creativity and beliefs. As a result, this role assists lecturers to use habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum during curriculum implementation. The role of an assessor is where lecturers are driven by the content that is intended to be covered within a semester period (Balbay et al., 2018; Gul & Rafique, 2017). Consequently lecturers work towards ensuring that good performance is attained by students in terms of the achieved curriculum; thus by playing the role of an assessor, lecturers are driven by written strategies to decolonise the curriculum since they focus on covering the prescribed curriculum.

Findings from the data analysis indicated that English lecturers mostly played the role of facilitators when teaching the module, because they believed that they are adding to what

students already know with the aim of getting their ideas and experiences on certain issues to enrich the curriculum implementation process (Balbay et al., 2018; Beeman-Cadwallader et al., 2014). This is in line with what was indicated by the literature, as studies outlined that students' involvement in teaching ensures effective curriculum implementation. Thijs and Van den Akker (2009b) indicated that before the curriculum is revised there is a need for a proper analysis of what students really need. Through a student-centred teaching approach (facilitation of teaching process) English lecturers can actually identify what exactly students need. Consequently, by allowing such interactions in their lectures English lecturers were mostly using verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum.

On the other hand, findings outlined that English lecturers also acted as instructors and assessors in their teaching, as they indicated that they have to cover the content in a specified time so as to maintain good performance. As a result English lecturers used written strategies to decolonise the curriculum since content that is intended to be covered from the course outline is taught in its entirety in a stipulated time. Moreover, findings also revealed that English lecturers used personal teaching approaches to achieve goals of teaching, and thus a habitual strategy to decolonise the curriculum is adopted. The first research question was answered, as was the second, as English lecturers explained how facilitation of the teaching process helped them to work with students' experiences, beliefs and needs to connect content to the local context.

However, the module course outline for English Major 420 is silent regarding the role the lecturer is to play when implementing the curriculum. This suggests that lecturers have to decide how to teach certain sections of the module as trained professionals in this field. Moreover, this calls for lecturers to be creative thinkers and concerned about the quality of English teachers they produce. This can have a negative impact on the students because some lecturers can keep on using a lecture-centred approach even when students want to express themselves; however, in this case lecturers only give information to students. Furthermore, if lecturers choose to act as assessors who relate to a performance curriculum they may teach to finish the work and not for students to understand the content. This is contrary to what Liu et al. (2013) call for, which is for consideration of different learning abilities, as some students learn through participation and sharing experience rather than only listening to lecturers. The above discussion on lecturer role provided answers to both of the study's critical research questions.

5.3.7 Teaching environment

Studies outlined that a higher level of student engagement can result in good learning outcomes and higher knowledge acquisition (Aşıkcan et al., 2018; Ravenscroft & Luhanga, 2018). Face-to-face interaction is still recommended as the best environment, especially in the teaching of language (English), to enhance effective social engagement between students and lecturers. Adebisi and Oyeleke (2018) and Aşıkcan et al. (2018) affirm that effective teaching can be said to be an interaction between instructors and students with the aim to produce knowledge. This suggests that the effective teaching of English can take place in traditional lecture halls, which can ensure student satisfaction in knowledge production. Through face-to-face interaction lecturers use written strategies to decolonise the curriculum, since most South Africans still emphasise physical meetings between lecturers and students (UKZN, 2017b).

Adebisi and Oyeleke (2018) concur with Ison (2014) that the online teaching and learning (e-learning) environment gives access to all forms of education that had been restricted by issues such as socio-cultural factors, distance and time. This suggests that English lecturers may use online learning environment which seeks to solve the limitations of the traditional face-to-face teaching environment. By using this kind of learning environment (online learning), lecturers tend to adopt habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum since they individually decide to use this platform.

Blended learning is described as the teaching environment that includes both physical interaction of students and lecturers while using technology to support teaching through face-to-face interaction (Aşıkcan et al., 2018; Ravenscroft & Luhanga, 2018). Almasi and Zhu (2018) and Tsutsui and Takada (2018) concur that social presence improves learning and influences communication through interaction, which leads to student motivation and fosters high student performance. On the other hand, Vikash (2014a) asserts that one of the constraints of the face-to-face teaching environment is that some people, including working adults, cannot access learning venues, which makes it necessary to adopt blended learning to accommodate all students. Thus through blended learning lecturers use verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum since this favours both local and international students.

The English Major 420 course outline (2018) indicates that attending lectures is compulsory and that students must attend at least 75% of their lectures to get permission to write examinations. This suggests that the institution depends on physical teaching of lecturers to ensure effective curriculum implementation. This is in line with what is revealed in the

literature, that teaching English requires social interaction in a physical environment (Almasi & Zhu, 2018; Aşıkcan et al., 2018). This suggests that English lecturers used written strategies to decolonise the curriculum. However, the module outline was silent regarding the use of online teaching and blended learning; this may suggest that individual lecturers decide to upload content onto the Moodle site if there is a need to do so. This may negatively impact technologically advanced students, as some may prefer to view content on the learning site while coming for lectures (blended learning). This suggests that the course outline does not suggest that lecturers use habitual and verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum.

Overall findings from the analysis indicate that English lecturers still believed in face-to-face interaction when teaching the module English Major 420. This is in line with what the literature revealed concerning the effectiveness of social interaction to ensure effective teaching of the module. This suggests that English lecturers used written strategies to decolonise the curriculum. For example, in a lecture hall lecturers can facilitate groupwork for students to discuss factors that relate to the South African local context which relate to what is seen in a novel. Moreover, the findings revealed that English lecturers believed in creating knowledge with the students rather than acting as experts in lectures; thus this method is likely to yield good results if class discussions are conducted effectively to reveal students' experiences. The findings also indicate that a small percentage of lecturers used blended learning when teaching English Major 420, since they have been exposed to the Moodle platform, which they use to post slides, texts and so on, on top of face-to-face teaching (blended learning). However, findings also revealed that English lecturers do not know what online learning although they use it through emails and Moodle. The university has developed a policy that requires all lecturers to use the Moodle platform in order for the university to go paperless. This suggests that a written strategy is used most (face-to-face interaction), followed by a verbal strategy (blended learning) and habitual strategy (online learning) to decolonise the curriculum. Both critical research questions were thus answered.

5.3.8 Teaching activities

Studies indicate that the most popular activities used in the teaching of English are academic writing essays, tutorials and groupwork activities (Gweon et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2017; Jiang, 2015; Katsara, 2018). Academic writing is the first activity used to assess students' vocabulary and writing competencies through essay writing in English as a foreign language. Jiang (2015) as well as Andreevna and Petrovna (2017) affirmed that writing is regarded as an

important skill to communicate in English. This proves lecturers' use of written strategies to decolonise the curriculum because students' essays are marked based on written evidence.

The second activity used is groupwork, where students work together to brainstorm on issues during curriculum implementation. Gweon et al. (2017) as well as Arslantas and Kotel (2018) affirm that working collaboratively helps students to learn from each other as they construct knowledge on their own for the completion of the task through a student-centred teaching approach. The use of groupwork activities allows English lecturers to use verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum since students' interpersonal skills are developed.

Studies revealed that tutorials are held with smaller numbers to allow student engagement based on the previous lecture attended for better clarity. Katsara (2018) and (Park, 2015) assert that tutorials help students to demonstrate their critical skills individually based on issues tackled in lectures. Thus lecturers' use of tutorials refers to them adopting habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum because they develop questions based on the message they want to send to students through teaching a particular section.

The English Major 420 course outline (2018) reveals that tutorials are conducted every Friday based on the lecture held on Tuesday in order to clarify issues taught during lectures, and this is done for every section of the module (novel, play and film). This suggests that during tutorials lecturers use habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum. However, contrary to what studies indicated regarding the use of smaller venues for tutorial effectiveness, the module outline reveals that tutorials take place in the same lecture venue, which may suggest ineffectiveness. The module outline also reflects the use of assignments, which refers to academic writing (essays); moreover, the marking grid is attached which shows that essays are marked based on content and expression. This suggests that lecturers use written strategies to decolonise the curriculum. However, the course outline is silent on the use of groupwork as one of the activities. This suggests that lecturers decide individually – based on what they want to achieve – to adopt groupwork; however, based on the number of students groupwork might not be possible since lecture halls are used for tutorials.

Findings revealed that groupwork activities are most used by the English lecturers for students to show their understanding of the content taught. This is in line with what the literature revealed regarding the importance of students' engagement and discussions through groupwork. This suggests that English lecturers effectively used verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Moreover, findings revealed that the second most used activities are tutorials,

but lecturers indicated that as much as they believe in tutorials, the venues hinder effectiveness; tutorials are held in the lecture venues, which constrains them from effectively facilitating these activities. This may suggest that the institution has a duty to build smaller venues for tutorials so as to allow the purpose of holding tutorials to be fulfilled.

Overall findings revealed that academic writing is the least used type of activity because essays are written once in a while, mostly for assessment purposes. This may have a negative impact on the students because academic writing (essays) is used as a summative assessment in examinations. Therefore English lecturers should be using informal activities so that students can get used to academic essay writing as a way of preparing for the final examinations at the end of the semester. This suggests that habitual and written strategies are under-used while verbal strategies are used successfully by lecturers to decolonise the curriculum. This discussion answered both of the study's critical research questions: What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at South African university?; and How do lecturers use these strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university?

5.3.9 Accessibility

Studies refer to accessibility comprising financial, physical and cultural accessibility (Del Carpio & Del Carpio, 2015; Horsthemke et al., 2013; Sosibo & Katiya, 2015a). Del Carpio and Del Carpio (2015) and Finnis et al. (2014) assert that quality and bilingualism must be about honouring and respecting our own languages and cultures while on the other hand enriching ourselves through the learning of other languages and cultures. This suggests that there is a need for English lecturers to embrace and keep in mind that their students represent different languages and cultures which play an important role in how they were socially constructed. For instance, lecturers could access students' ideas in terms of cultural experiences with the aim of involving them in the teaching process. Moreover, lecturers' use of cultural accessibility means they adopt verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum because students come from different cultural backgrounds; hence their participation enhances social constructivism as they learn from each other.

Perrault and Clark (2017) and Hill-Zuganelli et al. (2017) assert that students' poor financial background points to their dependence on government financial services for tuition fee payments. This suggests that if the majority of students come from unstable financial backgrounds, financial aid and loans might be highly used. Lecturers' use of this information

can help them to use written strategies to decolonise the curriculum, because students' registration records indicate issues such as each student's financial source. For instance, based on the play/novel taught in class a lecturer can help students relate to financial issues in their local context. Furthermore, studies emphasise the importance of lecturers' physical accessibility to students in lecture venues (Erasmus, 2013; Finnis et al., 2014). Moreover, studies revealed that it is the lecturer's choice whether to stay on campus for easy accessibility or to use their personal car to come to campus; this relates to a habitual strategy to decolonise the curriculum because each individual lecturer chooses how to make themselves available through different means of transportation.

Findings from the analysis revealed that English lecturers are very aware that their students are culturally contracted as they mentioned that the majority of them are black Africans and Indians. As a result they allow students to use their cultural backgrounds to relate to different texts taught in class; they are not the ones who give examples, rather the students do so. This suggests that English lecturers used verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum as they allowed students' cultural experiences to be shared. Furthermore, findings also indicated that the majority of English lecturers stay outside campus and that they used their personal vehicles to come to campus for physical accessibility in the lecture venues. This means habitual strategies were adopted by the English lecturers to decolonise the curriculum.

The overall findings on accessibility show that lecturers use all strategies (habitual, verbal) to decolonise the curriculum. Financial accessibility was not a major focus for lecturers as they are not directly involved with students' funding. However, the English Major 420 course outline (2018) was silent concerning accessibility, which suggests that this depends on individual lecturers as to how they deal with such issues during curriculum implementation. Discussion on accessibility gave answers to the two critical research questions, with the English lecturers indicating their consideration of students' cultures and how they use such information to allow students to share experiences based on their cultural backgrounds.

5.3.10 Time

Studies revealed that the use of time is an important concept when it comes to implementing the intended curriculum; moreover they indicated that lecturers' time can be divided into contact time, spare time and leave time (Cunningham & Yamasaki, 2018; Cupita & Andrea, 2016). Contact time is the first and most popular time allocation for each lecturer in the teaching of any module; this is the institution's formal time stipulation for lectures, for example, one

and a half hours for a double period and 45 minutes for a single period. Lecturers' effective use of the contact time they have with students refers to the adoption of written strategies to decolonise the curriculum, because lecture times are stipulated in university handbooks and module outlines (Liberatore et al., 2017; UKZN, 2017b). However, contact time may not be enough for lecturers to do justice to all students, and as a result spare time also plays an important role in effective teaching.

Lowenthal et al. (2016) and Letizia (2017) affirmed that spare time is lecturers' time out of the classroom, such as when they are in the office preparing for subsequent lectures, consultations with the students, reading, etc. However, lecturers may use this time in the way they choose, depending on the goals they want to achieve. Furthermore, lecturers' use of spare time refers to habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum. For lecturers to be well equipped and refreshed, leave time is taken. Mulvaney (2014) and Lowenthal et al. (2016) indicate that leave time is a period away from work, when lecturers may go on holidays, or attend conferences or be with their families. Lecturers as academics mostly attend conferences and focus on their research during leave time. Lecturers' leave time refers to verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum because networking happens during this period, where lecturers meet with academics from other institutions and share how they decolonise the curriculum when teaching, and they learn from one another.

The English Major 420 course outline (2018) revealed the time allocation for each lecture, but is silent on lecturers' spare time and leave time. This suggests that each individual lecturer is driven by passion and vision to create time to improve their teaching approaches for effectiveness in the lectures. I think this might have a negative impact on lecturers' academic growth, as they might decide to use their leave time for families and holidays without attending academic conferences.

Findings from the analysis indicate that English lecturers used spare time in their offices to read more in preparation for the next lectures and consulting with the students. Moreover, lecturers indicated that they spent most of the time in their offices to see how they can approach new teaching techniques in order to be effective in their practices. This is in line with what the literature revealed regarding effective use of lecturers' spare time so as to complement the limited contact time. This suggests that English lecturers used habitual strategies because they chose to spend this time (spare time) differently, but with the aim of being their best during curriculum implementation. Furthermore, findings revealed that English lecturers used their

leave time mostly for attending conferences with the aim of networking with colleagues from other institutions to share experiences and ideas which may be on curriculum decolonisation. This suggests that English lecturers used verbal strategies because they go the extra mile to learn more about new strategies they can use to effectively connect the local context to the content taught in class. English lecturers also indicated that they tried as much as possible to use the space in lecture halls during contact time to effectively teach students the content. The findings indicate that time as one of the curriculum concepts is used effectively and all strategies (written, habitual and verbal) were adopted to decolonise the curriculum. This discussion answered the two critical research questions.

5.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following recommendations are suggested for further research:

- The literature that was reviewed revealed that few studies have been done on strategies used to decolonise the English education curriculum. In order to close this gap other researchers can consider looking at this issue at other HEIs in this country or other African countries.
- Further studies must be done on strategies that are used to decolonise the English curriculum, especially in the education field. I suggest the use of the curricular spiderweb framework as it guides the teaching of all modules.
- It would be valuable to research the importance of English lecturers having personal strategies to decolonise the English curriculum in a post-colonial Southern African country.
- Another potential study based on this study's findings could be on how physical environment plays an important role in decolonising the university curriculum which links to verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum compared to habitual and written strategies.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.5.1 Establish explicit policies on teaching English as a second language to African students

Findings indicated that of the three rationale types (professional, personal and societal), professional rationale was the least used. This suggests that English lecturers lacked written strategies which are influenced by policy documents to decolonise the curriculum. Thus, I suggest that the English Major 420 course outline should be more specific regarding the importance of explicit policies on teaching English as a second language to African students.

This is because English as a global language can help students to access work abroad and if the professional part is ignored, students might not teach it as well as they should. Decolonisation in this study refers to the balance of local and international knowledge to equip students with knowledge that is recognised globally, and that can only be done in effective teaching of English as a foreign language.

5.5.2. Use creative writing to access students' thoughts on what can be done to improve the quality of teaching

Findings revealed that social development content, which refers to creative writing, is not used by most of lecturers. This is the English section that can allow students to write based on issues they feel should be known and attended to by the discipline. I suggest that the discipline leaders should think of a way that can help them to get to know students' needs and thoughts regarding their curriculum. For instance, for each English module students should be given a at least one chance to write a reflection based on what can be done to improve the quality of teaching, especially to students as future teachers. This can help student's writing skills and also provide the chance for them to communicate their thoughts, which would make them feel part of the curriculum. This can also assist English lecturers to identify areas where they need improvement in their teaching and attending to the needs of students. Berkvens et al. (2014) outlined that a communicative approach allows all education stakeholders to participate in the curriculum – which includes the students themselves, thus employing verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum.

5.5.3. Training on the importance of aims and objectives

The findings revealed that English lecturers see objectives and aims as the same thing. I therefore suggest that the English discipline should organise training to make the importance of having separate aims and objectives clear to the staff. With that knowledge, relevant and effective strategies can be designed to decolonise the curriculum. English lecturers did not have personal aims regarding the teaching of the module, which resulted in them not using habitual strategies to decolonise the curriculum. Berkvens et al. (2014) and Khoza (2016b) concur that lecturers' lack of clear, broad educational goals can lead to unsuccessful curriculum implementation. Furthermore, studies outlined that lecturers are different individuals who interpret and implement the curriculum differently – and thus personal aims can drive them to go the extra mile in finding relevant strategies to decolonise the curriculum.

5.5.4. Training in the use of Moodle and WhatsApp for communication with students

Findings revealed that ideological-ware resources were those that were mostly used while software and hardware were used to support these. This is in line with what the literature revealed about the importance of aligning teaching with relevant theories. However, based on the interaction I had with English lecturers, they are not well equipped on using the Moodle platform, and so some of them ignore its use. I therefore suggest that they receive proper training in the use of this learning site and be encouraged to adopt WhatsApp to communicate easily with students. While the institution has developed a policy for all lecturers to use Moodle, the English lecturers seem to be under-informed about it. Such training may help English lecturers to become well equipped and to design verbal strategies to decolonise the curriculum.

5.5.5. Workshops for lecturers on how students may use peer assessment

It is recommended that the English discipline should organise workshops based on the importance of using peer assessment as one of the different forms of assessment. This is because findings revealed that this was the form of assessment that was least used by the English lecturers, and that they did not see it as important form of assessment. This can assist lecturers to start teaching differently, as well as helping them to see the importance of hearing from their students and getting to see their different capabilities. Moreover, this can also assist students as future teachers to adopt this of assessment and use it when teaching their own learners. If this can be revised correctly, verbal strategies can be used effectively to decolonise the curriculum though peer assessment.

5.5.6. Training on blending online and face-to-face interaction

Findings revealed that English lecturers did not know what blended learning is. I suggest that the discipline should organise trainings for their staff so that they can be updated regarding innovative ways of blending online and face-to-face interaction to make teaching and learning easier. Furthermore, findings revealed that English lecturers did not have a clear understanding of what online learning is; they used emails and some used WhatsApp, but they did not know that this is a part of online learning. Therefore adequate training needs to be offered to English lecturers. I suggest that the institution should organise workshops and start teaching all staff members about the importance of changes in teaching pedagogies which can be interesting to students. This can help the institution itself and the students to become advanced in terms of most up-to-date use of technology and to be in line with the world, so as to attract international

students to consider the university. Thus, habitual and verbal strategies can be effectively used to decolonise the curriculum.

5.5.7. Provide smaller venues for tutorials and groupwork

In the teaching and teaching activities theme findings revealed that tutorials were not operating effectively due to the fact that they were held in lecture halls. I recommend that the institution should consider building small tutorial venues and that they should communicate with the staff regarding conducive venues for teaching and learning. One of the English lecturers commented that the university is building larger lecture halls when they need small tutorial venues for effective tutorial sessions. Furthermore, findings revealed that as much as English lecturers believe in grouping students to work together, the classes are too overcrowded in one venue, which makes it difficult for lecturers to facilitate group work activities effectively. I suggest that the institution should hire additional qualified English lecturers, so as to have different lecturers teaching in different groups in flat venues that will be conducive for groupwork. Le Grange (2016) concurs with (Mbembe, 2016) that there is a need to decolonise the institution's physical structures (lecture halls) to make them ready to teach in an African context, to foster effective group discussions among students and lecturers. By doing this, verbal strategies would be enforced to decolonise the curriculum.

5.5.8. Increase the duration of lectures in order to build in more time for queries and clarification

The findings also revealed that English lecturers used their spare time to attend to students through consultations, since contact time was not enough to deal with students' issues. I recommend that the university should increase the number of hours during lectures, so that the last 30 minutes could be used for queries and clarifications. As a result, English lecturers can use their spare time to conduct research to prepare adequately for subsequent lectures. English lecturers can then use their spare time to research more on topics dealt with in class and to find new ways to implement the curriculum effectively.

5.6 CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to understand lecturers' strategies and explain the lessons that can be learned from their strategies to decolonise the curriculum at a South African university. In order to fulfil these objectives, the following research questions were asked: 1. What are lecturers' strategies to decolonise the English curriculum at a South African university? and 2. How do lecturers use these strategies to decolonise the English curriculum

at a South African university? The main answer to the first question, based on the findings from the literature, is that lecturers' strategies used to decolonise the curriculum can be formulated at the professional level (written strategies), personal level (habitual strategies) and societal level (verbal strategies) (Berkvens et al., 2014; Gul & Rafique, 2017; Plonsky, 2011).

Regarding the second question, findings revealed that English lecturers' mainly used students' everyday knowledge in the form of experiences and beliefs with the aim of connecting the content taught in class with the students' local context. For instance, participants indicated that while students must be taught knowledge that is internationally recognised, what has to change is the way in which lecturers approach teaching such knowledge. Hence, findings revealed that English lecturers mainly based their teaching on students' experiences and not purely on the texts' content. Mbembe (2016) and Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2015) concur that knowledge from Western scholars must not be excluded, but lecturers have to find ways to bring it into the local context. This chapter has provided the summary of the entire study, where findings from the literature, English Major 420 course outline (2018) and course texts were compared. Strategies mostly used in each concept were identified in Table 5.1 and the discussion that followed. Recommendations made based on results for the spiderweb curriculum concepts were outlined, and suggestions made for further studies and trainings.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A: GATE KEEPER'S LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI YAKWAZULU-NATALI

17 April 2018

Miss Andile Mbhele (SN 213527952)
School of Education
College of Humanities
Edgewood Campus
UKZN
Email: 213527952@stu.ukzn.ac.za mpungosec@ukzn.ac.za

Dear Miss Mbhele

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Gatekeeper's permission is hereby granted for you to conduct research at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), towards your postgraduate studies, provided Ethical clearance has been obtained. We note the title of your research project is:

"Exploring lecturers strategies to decolonise English curriculum at South African University".

It is noted that you will be constituting your sample by conducting interviews with English Lecturers on the Edgewood campus.

Please ensure that the following appears on your notice/questionnaire:

- Ethical clearance number;
- Research title and details of the research, the researcher and the supervisor;
- Consent form is attached to the notice/questionnaire and to be signed by user before he/she fills in questionnaire;
- gatekeepers approval by the Registrar.

You are not authorized to contact staff and students using 'Microsoft Outlook' address book. Identity numbers and email addresses of individuals are not a matter of public record and are protected according to Section 14 of the South African Constitution, as well as the Protection of Public Information Act. For the release of such information over to yourself for research purposes, the University of KwaZulu-Natal will need express consent from the relevant data subjects. Data collected must be treated with due confidentiality and anonymity.

Yours sincerely

MR SS MOKOENA
REGISTRAR

Office of the Registrar
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban, South Africa
Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 8005/2206 **Facsimile:** +27 (0) 31 260 7824/2204 **Email:** registrar@ukzn.ac.za
Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

APPENDIX B: ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI YAKWAZULU-NATALI

18 June 2018

Ms Andile Mbhele (213527952)
Scool of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Ms Mbhele,

Protocol reference number: HSS/0464/018M
Project Title: Exploring lecturers' strategies to decolonise English curriculum at **a** South African University

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 16 May **2018,** the Humanities & **Soc**ial 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 3 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

.....
Professor Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Dr CB Mpungose
Cc Academic Leader Research: Dr SB Khoza
Cc School Administrator: Ms Tyzer Khumalo

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
Professor Shenuka Singh (Chair)
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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 C: CONSENT LETTER FORM

Curriculum Studies, School of Education,

College of Humanities,
University of KwaZulu-Natal,
Edgewood Campus,

Dear Participant

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

My name is Andile Mbhele. I am a Masters student studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood campus, South Africa. I am interested in exploring lecturers' strategies to decolonise English curriculum at a South African University. Based on various student movements that have been observed calling for the decolonisation (integration of africanised scholars) of university curriculum, I was motivated to conduct this study to explore lecturers' strategies to decolonise English curriculum at a South African University. I am interested in understanding how individual lecturers use the agency in classrooms to design relevant strategies to decolonise the university curriculum in English discipline. Therefore, to gather the information, I am interested in requesting any kind of relevant information seeking strategies used in decolonising the curriculum.

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 may last for about 45 to 60 minutes, relevant documents will be analysed, and the reflective activity will be sent to you via e-mail.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the generated data will be used for purposes of this research only.
- There will be no limit on any benefit that you may receive as part of your 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.
- You are free to withdraw from the research at any time without any negative or undesirable consequences to yourself;

- Real names of the participants will not be used, but symbols such as A, B, C, D, and E will be used to represent your full name;
- 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: 213527952@stu.ukzn.ac.za
Cell: +27604250382

My supervisor is Dr. CB Mpungose who is located at the University of Kwazulu Natal
School of Education Education and Curriculum studies
Contact details: mpungosec@ukzn.ac.za Phone number +2731 260 3671

Discipline Co-ordinator is Dr. Carol Bertram,
Curriculum Studies, School of Education,
Edgewood College, University of KwaZulu-Natal
(Tel) (033) 260 5349, Email: BertramC@ukzn.ac.za

You may also contact the Research Office through:
P. Mohun
HSSREC Research Office,
Tel: 031 260 4557 E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

DECLARATION

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

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

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT **DATE**

…… **……**

APPENDIX D: REFLECTIVE ACTIVITY

Full name: _____
School name: _____

This Reflective Activity is for reflections of your teaching of English Major 420 module in a university. You may use various sources to complete this activity. Presents your reflections by following the curricular spider web themes/questions as follows.

1. Why are you teaching (Rationale/vision) English Major 420?

   _____

   _____

2. Towards which goals are you teaching (Aims/objectives/outcomes) English Major 420?

   _____

   _____

3. What content are you teaching in English Major 420?

   _____

   _____

4. Which activities/tasks are you using to teach English Major 420?

   _____

   _____

5. What resources are you using to teach English Major 420?

   _____

   _____

6. How do you facilitate learning (Teacher role) of English Major 420?

   _____

   _____

7. How do you access (accessibility) the teaching of English Major 420?

   _____

   _____

8. Where and When are you teaching (Location) and (Time allocation) English Major 420?

   _____

   _____

9. How do you assess learning (Assessment) of English Major 420?

   _____

   _____

APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Exploring lecturers' strategies to decolonise English curriculum at a South African University.

Question 1:	*Why do you have an interest in the teaching English Major 420? (reasons)*
Sub-questions	1. What personal rationale/reason that made you to teach English Major 420 2. What social rationale/reason that made you to teach English Major 420? 3. What professional rationale/reason that made you to teach English Major 420?

Question 2:	*What resources do you use when teaching English Major 420? (resources)*
Sub-questions	1. What software resources do you use when teaching English Major 420? 2. What hardware resources do you use when teaching English Major 420? 3. Which learning theories or theories that guides your teaching in English Major 420?

Question 3:	*Who are you teaching English Major 420, in terms of financial, cultural and physical aspects?(accessibility)*
Sub-questions	1. What is the Cultural background of the majority of English Major 420 students? 2. What is the financial state of the majority of English Major 420 students? 3. What is the physical state of the majority of English Major 420 students (physical ability)?

Question 4:	*How do you ensure justice when teaching English Major 420 module? (goals to be achieved)*
Sub-questions	1. What are your aims of teaching English Major 420? 2. What are the objectives of teaching English Major 420? 3. Indicate learning outcomes in the teaching of English Major 420?

Question 5 :	*What content are you teaching in English Major 420? (content)*
Sub-question	What module content do you cover in English Major 420? *(you can provide me with the module outline)*

Question 6 :	*What are teaching activities do you use when teaching your module English Major 420?*
Sub-questions	1. What group work do you use to engage students 2. What academic writing activities do you use in to unpack the content 3. What tutorials activities do you use in to ensure the attendance of students in your lecture?

Question 7 :	*How do you perceive your character when teaching English Major 420? (lecturers' role)*
Sub-question	1. Is your role seem as the instructor, assessor or facilitator when teaching English Major 420?

Question 8 :	*Where do you teach your module, English Major 420? (location/environment)*
Sub-questions	1. Is online platform conducive, substantiate 2. Do you teach English Major Module in the lecture halls, (face to face interaction)? 3. Is blended learning possible in English Major 420 module?

Question 9	*What is the time allocation for each literature in English Major 420? (time)*
Sub-questions	How is time allocation to teach each section in the module? 1. Contact time 2. Spare time 3. Leave time

Question 10	*How do you assess your module English Major 420?(assessment)*
Sub-questions	1. What activities do you use during assessment for learning 2. What activities do you use during assessment as learning 3. What activities do you use during assessment of learning

APPENDIX F: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

Document analysis schedule

1. Rationale- Personal reason
   Professional reason
   Social reason

2. Goals- Aims
   Objective
   Outcomes

3. Content - Content – Knowledge content
   Personal development content
   Social preparation content

4. Assessment- Hardware resources
   Software resources
   Ideological resources

5. Assessment- Summative
   Formative
   Peer

6. Lecturer role- Assessor
   Instructor
   Facilitator

7. Teaching environment- Face to face interaction
   Online learning
   Blended learning

8. Teaching activities- Academic writing
   Tutorials
   Group work

9. Accessibility- Financial
   Cultural
   Physical

10. Time- Contact time
    Spare time
    Leave time

APPENDIX G: LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

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29 November 2018

Declaration of Editing of text of thesis:

Exploring lecturers' strategies to decolonise English curriculum at a South African university.

I hereby declare that I carried out language editing of the text of above thesis on behalf of Andile Mbhele.

I am a professional writer and editor with many years of experience (e.g. 5 years on *SA Medical Journal*, 10 years heading the corporate communication division at the SA Medical Research Council), who specialises in Science and Technology editing - but am adept at editing in many different subject areas. I have previously edited much work for various faculties at universities including US, UCT, UWC and UKZN. I am a full member of the South African Freelancers' Association as well as of the Professional Editors' Guild.

Yours sincerely

LEVERNE GETHING leverne@eject.co.za

APPENDIX H:TURNITIN REPORT