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**AN ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL STUDIES
TEACHERS' PEDAGOGY IN SELECTED
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN MALAWI**

BY

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ABSTRACT

The thesis analyses the pedagogic practice and choices of four Social Studies teachers' in Malawi secondary schools who are teaching Form Two, which is an equivalent of Grade Ten (10). This study was qualitative, using interpretivist paradigm and Bernstein's notions of classification and framing in analysing teacher's pedagogic practices.

The study's findings show that Social Studies teachers had a similar pattern of pedagogic practice with minor variations depending on the instructional method used. Generally, the pedagogic practices of teachers are characterised by strong framing with regard to selection, sequencing and pacing that suggests that Social Studies teachers' pedagogic practices gave less autonomy to learners. This confirms the general assertion that teachers are struggling to embrace the educational principles of learner-centred education. Further, it was observed that hierarchical rules had both strong and weak classifications and framings that show mixed pedagogic practices.

The study shows there was also a mixed pattern, regarding the evaluation criteria. Although it is characterised by both strong and weak framings depending on what the teacher wants to achieve in a pedagogic relation, it was predominantly weak.

This study also affirms the findings of Brodie et al., (2002) in which they argued that some teachers have the form of the learner-centred education with or without the substance and that teachers take up new ideas differently. It also indicated that pedagogic practices of teachers reflect what they think about the pedagogy. It is the interpretation and beliefs teachers have about pedagogic practices that influence how they teach and make choices of how and what to teach.

The study also shows that the pedagogic choice is influenced by time allocated to each lesson against the instructional activities planned, syllabus coverage and lack of preparation.

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I, Cogitator Wilton Mapala, declare that the research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original work. I further state that:

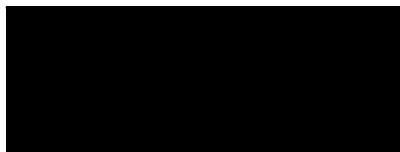
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As the candidate's supervisor, I agree to the submission of this thesis



Professor Carol A. Bertram PhD (Supervisor)

Pietermaritzburg, 26 March 2022

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CDSS	Community Day Secondary School
CSS	Conventional Secondary
DSS	Day Secondary School
DSS ⁺	District Secondary School
LCE	Learner-centred Education
LCP	Learner-centred Pedagogy
MANEB	Malawi National Examination Board
MIE	Malawi Institute of Education
MIITEP	Malawi Integrated In-Service Teacher Education Programme
MoEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
NEP	National Education Policy
NESP	National Education Sector Plan
PIE	Policy and Investment Framework
SS	Social Studies
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study seeks to analyse four Social Studies teachers' pedagogic practices and the reasons why they choose specific pedagogies in Malawi secondary schools. It focuses on Grade 10 (Form 2) secondary school teachers. The study uses Basil Bernstein's concepts of instructional and regulative discourse as lens to understand the question under investigation (Bernstein, 2003). These discourses will be explained in Chapter Two.

This chapter begins by providing the purpose and focus of this study, an overview of this thesis, and highlights core issues that are to be discussed in it. As indicated above, it uses Social Studies teachers who have been teaching for a period of not less seven years, as a case study.

1.2 PURPOSE of the STUDY

The purpose is to analyse selected Social Studies teachers' pedagogic practice and to interrogate the reasons why they make these pedagogic choices. This aim is to analyse the type of pedagogy that a Social Studies teacher engages and the reasons leading her or him to make that choice, and how they contribute to the ongoing debate on pedagogic practice in Africa.

This purpose of the study is substantiated with two specific objectives, as outlined below:

- a) To describe the pedagogical practices that selected Social Studies teachers use in their classroom settings.
- b) To explore the reasons why Social Studies teachers make pedagogical choices that they use in their classroom.

It should also be noted that the focus of this study is not what is documented in government policies, but rather what a teacher does in a classroom. Schweisfurth (2011) holds that an appropriate pedagogy should not be based on what is feasible, but rather on what is desired. It is for this reason why this study seeks to analyse teacher's pedagogic practices and the reasons for how Malawi Social Studies teachers make their pedagogic choices.

The study is interested in classroom realities that a teacher experiences and the reasons that necessitate her/him to make particular pedagogic choices, rather than what is envisaged in policy documents (Mohammed & Harlech-Jones, 2008). Bertram (2012) observes that there is always a difference between what is envisaged, enacted and experienced at classroom level. This is the reason why this study is interested in classroom realities regarding the teacher's pedagogic practice.

1.3 RATIONALE of the STUDY

This section explains the rationale of why it is necessary to investigate the question at hand, and how it would benefit me as a researcher, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST), and other stakeholders in the education sector. It also explains how this study will contribute to the body of knowledge.

There are two primary reasons for the choice of researching Grade 10 Social Studies teachers. The subject of Social Studies is chosen because it is offered in junior section of secondary school as an integrated curriculum in Malawi based on outcome-based education (OBE) since 1998 (Namphande, et al., 2017, Mhango, 2008; Tlou & Kabwila, 2002). I consider an integrated curriculum as important because various disciplines are partnered, and units are planned to focus on overlapping concepts or themes that would enable learners to gain a better understanding of how topics are interrelated within a discipline as well from other disciplines (VanTassel-Baska & Wood, 2010; Malik & Malik, 2011). This is contrary to the old curriculum where subjects had clear boundaries and presented a picture to learners as if concepts or ideas and themes were not related to each other.

The reason for selecting Grade 10 is that students no longer write centralised and standardised national examinations at the end of second year of secondary education¹ which forced teachers to teach for examinations and that contradicts outcome-based education principles and competence-based curriculum, which the Malawi government adopted after 1994 (Mtika, 2009; Gates & Mtika, 2010). In a 2015 Press Statement, the MoEST, among other reasons cited including the relevance of Junior Certificate of Education to employability and financial implications that accompanied the administration of the examinations. It emphasised the “acquisition of knowledge, skills, values and positive attitudes” rather than focusing on examinations. Contrary to the old curriculum on mode of assessment, the Press Statement states:

The Ministry would like to promote the practice of continuous assessment from Form 1 through to Form 4 in order for schools to thoroughly cover the Curriculum as opposed to the current practice which is, to a greater extent, examination oriented as both students and teachers focus much on JCE examination results rather than acquisition of knowledge, skills, values and positive attitudes. In fact, most of Term 3 of Form 2 is spent on preparing for JCE examinations and not learning for understanding (MoEST, 2015)

This shift of phasing out the Junior Certificate of Education examinations was to align the education system to two government policies, that is: Malawi Growth and Development Strategy II and National Education Sector Plan 2008 – 2017 that emphasised the quality of education for all, and principles governing outcome-based education and learner-centred education that Malawi adopted at the inception of multiparty democracy (MoEST, 2019). This shift from emphasising on national centralised examination to learning for understanding is critical in understanding the question being investigated in this study because national examinations are no longer an issue that guide teacher’s pedagogic practice in Malawi secondary school junior section, as observed in other studies (Mtika and Gates, 2010; Mkandawire, et al., 2018).

¹ In Malawi, the responsibility for the administration of national examinations and development of examination Syllabi is entrusted to the Malawi National Examination Board (MANEB) for primary and secondary education and for primary teacher education while the Malawi Institute of Education (MIE) is entrusted with the responsibility of curriculum development and evaluation for both primary and secondary schools (MoEST, 2013)

It was often alleged that national and centralised examinations shaped the teachers' pedagogy because they taught to enable students to pass an examination (Mtika & Gates, 2010; Mdolo & Doidge, 2010; Chalira & Nkhoma, 2003). In this regard, it helped this study to have a fresh look at how the policy direction defines the teacher's pedagogic practice and why they make choices in their pedagogic practices after abolishment of Grade 10 centralised and standardised national examinations. It also contributes towards filling the gaps in the literature, as observed in Chapter Two.

1.4 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Having discussed the purpose and rationale of the study, this section turns to provision of the background to Malawi education in general.

The formal education system in Malawi follows an 8-4-4 structure. A learner spends eight years in primary section (Grade One to Eight), four years doing secondary education (Grade Nine to Twelve)² and four years at higher education (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology [MoEST], 2010; Mgomezulu, Shawa & Wamba, 2014). This study is interested in secondary education with a keen interest in the junior section of it, which is Grade Nine to Ten. As explained above, students used to sit for national examinations at the end of the second year of secondary education: that is in Grade 10 – Malawi Junior Certificate of Education. After passing the examinations, then they could proceed to Grade 11. It was in Grade 12 where learners also used to sit for final secondary school centralised and standardised examination called Malawi School Certificate of Education, which is a university entry qualification (MoEST, 2010; 2013). The Junior Certificate of Education was scrapped in 2016 (MoEST, 2019).

Since the national examination for junior secondary school was scrapped, secondary school learners attend classes for four years and are assessed through formative (continuous) assessment because the emphasis is on competence, rather than on

² Standard 1 – 8 is what other countries call Grade 1 to Grade 8 Primary. Form 1 – 4 is Grade 9 to Grade 12.

performance (MoEST, 2015, Namphande, et. al., 2017). It is in Grade 12 that learners now sit for the national examination at the end of four years of secondary education. This kind of approach is in line with outcome-based education and learner-centred pedagogy, as mentioned above. This is the reason why this study wants to examine secondary school teachers' pedagogical practice and reasons for their choice of the pedagogy, as opposed to the previous studies in which researchers studied the implementation of Learner-centred pedagogy (LCP) and a teacher who was teaching to enable learners pass the national examinations (Mtika 2009; Mtika & Gates, 2010).

Although it is not the focus of this study, it is worth assessing how this shift impacts pedagogic practices at the classroom level. The shift is intended to resolve the outstanding question of why teachers continue using teacher-centred approaches, rather than the prescribed pedagogy, which is a learner-centred approach (MoEST, 2003). So far, research tends to show that teachers continue using teacher-centred pedagogy because it is the best method when one is teaching to enable students to pass examinations, among other reasons (Tabulawa, 1997; Vavrus, Thomas & Bartlett, 2011; Chirwa & Naidoo, 2014; Mtika & Gates, 2010; Hoadley, 2018) . However, there is no study that has been done so far at secondary school level to ascertain how a teacher, after the abolishment of Malawi Junior Certificate of Education, teaches, and how this development impacts on pedagogic practices and choices in a classroom situation.

In order to understand this question asked above, it is worth noting that Malawi public secondary school system is divided into two categories. This categorisation appears to have impact on pedagogy because of the manner learners are selected into secondary school after completion of primary education. It is divided into conventional secondary schools (CSSs) and community day secondary schools (CDSS)³. This is illustrated in the diagram provided below as figure 1.

³ Conventional secondary schools (CSS) are also classified into two categories depending who established the school, namely government (day and boarding schools funded by government through fees) and grant-aided schools. The grant-aided schools are under religious institutions but they are largely funded by the Government. With exception of Government day secondary school, the other categories

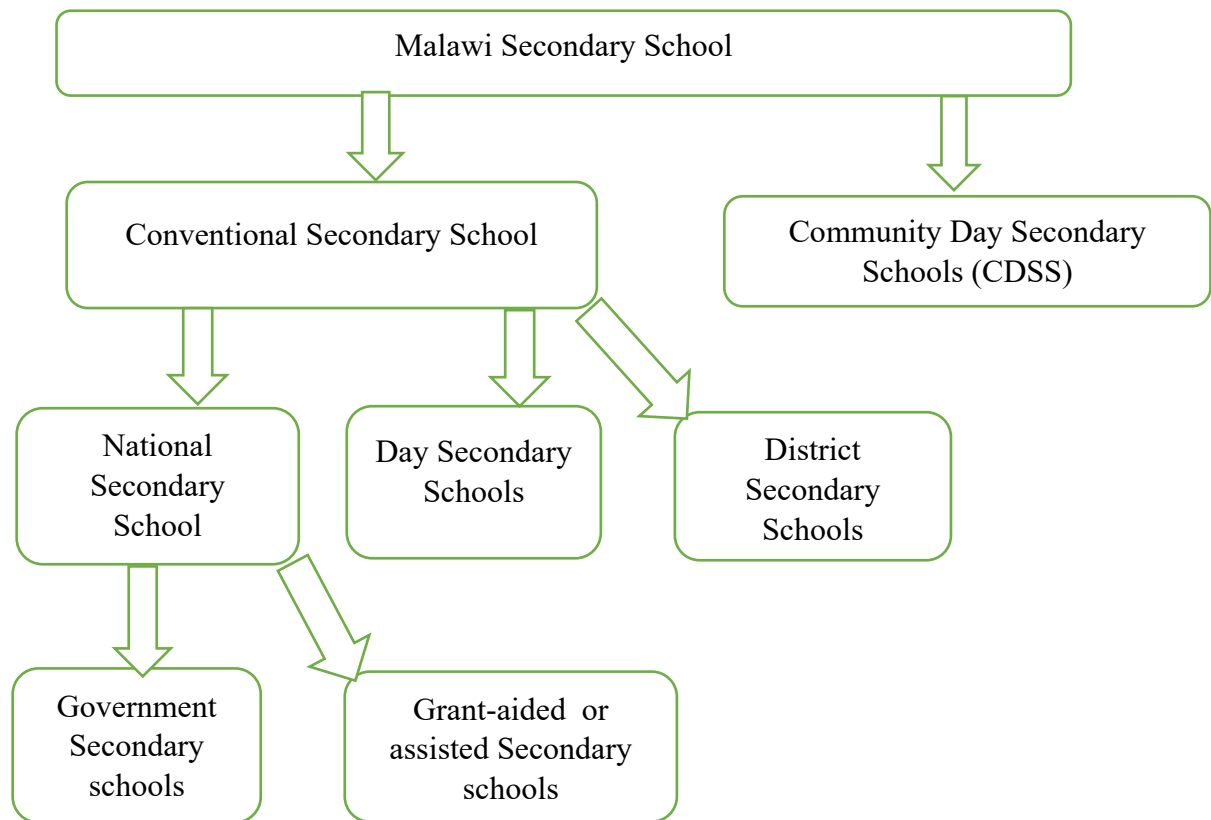


Figure 1 Categorisation of Malawi secondary schools

Conventional secondary schools are also categorised (see also Fig. 1) as National Secondary Schools (NSS), Day Secondary Schools (DSS) and District Secondary Schools (DSS). NSS are also divided into Government Secondary Schools and Grant-aided Secondary Schools depending on ownership. All grant-aided secondary schools are owned by religious institutions. Namphande et. al., (2017) points out that CSS are also hierarchically divided into categories according to students' performance in national examinations and availability of resources. These categories are National Secondary School, District Secondary school and Day Secondary School of which the first two have boarding facilities and adequate funding from government although they are not at the same level because NSS are well resourced followed by district secondary schools and day secondary schools, in that order (Namphande, et. al., 2017). The first

are boarding schools (Mgomezulu, Shawa & Wamba, 2014). CSS have adequate resources for teaching and learning (Kholowa & McJesse-Mbewe, 2010) compare to Community Day Secondary Schools. However, both CSS and CDSS have the same curriculum and learners and their learners write the same standardized examinations at the end of secondary school programme.

category is the national secondary school opened by colonial government and missionaries, which used to train African elites (Lamba, 2010). This approach continues to influence the education system in the country. Since then, Malawi has been following the elitist system of education with emphasis on theory and examination that assess primarily cognitive achievement. As explained above, the scrapping off of JCE examinations was a shift from this emphasis on performance to focus on competence.

The national secondary schools enrol the top achievers of the Primary School Leaving Certificate examinations compared to those who go to District Secondary Schools (DSS⁺) and CDSS. The NSS were established to train African elites by missionaries as the counterhegemonic group to western colonials (Lamba, 2010) while the DSS⁺, which was established in post-colonial era to provide middle level manpower to fill the vacant post occupied by white colonials, enrolls the second tier of students based on their performance in Primary School Leaving Certificate (PSLC) examinations while the CDSS gets the third tier of students yet they have poor facilities for learning and poorly funded (Namphande, et. al., 2017). It is often assumed that learners in CSS grasp concepts much easily during teaching and learning compared to those in CDSS. Based on this notion, it is commonly held that the manner in which a teacher delivers her/his lesson is also influenced by the calibre of students one is teaching (Mlangeni & Chiotha, 2015; Kayuni, 2010). As a result, this categorisation of education reproduces inequalities (Kholowa & McJesse-Mbewe, 2010) and creates discrepancy regarding the job market, because most students from NSS are selected to both public and private universities while only few students from Community Secondary Schools (CDSS) are selected to universities, yet it is the CDSSs that recruit most learners from large section of Malawian population classified as living below a Dollar (Namphande, et. al., 2017; Mambo, et al., 2016; MoEST, 2013). This discrepancy is likely to have an impact on pedagogic practices because CDSSs are generally considered institutions of low quality with regard to students' learning environment and other teaching and learning resources (Kunje et. al., 2003; Akyeampong et al., 2018; Mlangeni & Chiotha, 2015). For instance, the 2016 World Bank report indicated that 52 percent of teachers in CDSS are not qualified (Mambo et al., 2016).

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTION

The research question is: What is the teachers' pedagogy in Social Studies classrooms in Malawi and how do they explain their pedagogic choice? This research question is substantiated with two sub-questions, as outlined below:

- a) What are the pedagogical practices of selected teachers of Social Studies?
- b) Why do teachers make pedagogic choices that they do in a class setting?

1.6 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW and THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section gives an overview of the topic under investigation in order to establish a case. A detailed literature review is provided in Chapter Two. This section examines how the question of pedagogy has been discussed in the academia and identify gaps of knowledge.

Definitions of pedagogy vary significantly in literature, depending on how one defines the role of a teacher in relation to the learner in a classroom setting and the purpose of education in a specific context (Fassbinder, 2007; Murphy, 2003). Taking an inclusive definition, Watkins and Mortimore (1999, p. 3) define pedagogy as “any conscious activity by one person designated to enhance learning in another.” This definition avoids looking at pedagogy as a theory and practice of teaching and learning, which can be more confusing because it provides different meanings to different groups of individuals and leaves other areas constituting the definition of pedagogy (Murphy, 2003; Westbrook, et al., 2013; Breuing, 2011; Watkins & Mortimore, 1999). This leads Alexander (2001, p. 522) to contend that a pedagogy is not only an act of teaching methods, but it is also the “discourse in which the act of teaching is embedded”.

The preliminary literature search shows that research on pedagogy in Malawi is skewed towards primary education (Chirwa & Naidoo, 2014; Chiphiko & Shawa, 2014). Chiphiko and Shawa (2014) concluded that teachers are failing to implement LCP because they fail to prepare at lesson plan level. Generally, research attributes failure

to implement LCP to classroom conditions, such as big class, school culture and teacher education, focus on enabling students to pass national examinations, among others (Mtika & Gates, 2010; Altinyelken & Hoeksma, 2021). These findings resonate with what other studies have found in other countries in sub-Saharan Africa (Tabulawa, 1999; Vavrus 2003). However, it is important at this stage to point out that the abolition of Junior Certificate of Education examinations in 2016, as mentioned above, distinguishes this study from those conducted earlier in which national examination contributed significantly to the pedagogic practice and choice.

It is also important to note that while research is skewed towards primary education in Malawi, there is extensive literature on learner-centred pedagogy (LCP) in Africa, that will be discussed in Chapter Two. As explained above, the debate on pedagogy is centred on how LCP is implemented at classroom level.

The data are analysed using Bernstein's concepts of instructional and regulative discourse. Instructional discourse refers to skills; knowledge and cognitive competence are being taught in a classroom while regulative discourse is the "rules of the social order ... to the forms that hierarchical relations take in the pedagogic relation and to expectations of character, conduct, [and] manner" (Bernstein, 2002, p. 13). This helps me to understand the pacing, sequence and selection of content and methods used in a particular lesson that were observed and the position of a teacher in a classroom regarding his/her pedagogic practice.

It is critical at this point to define the terms: pacing, sequence and selection of content in this study. Bernstein (2003, p. 198) notes that "pacing is the rate of expected acquisition of the sequencing rules, that is, how much you have to learn in a given amount of time." He further points out that "essentially, pacing is the time allowed for achieving the sequencing rules" (Bernstein 2003, p. 198). Sequencing is defined as the progression, which shows what comes before and after (Bernstein, 2003). In a nutshell, sequencing is the order in which knowledge is presented. I am interested to investigate

how the lesson is paced in a lesson plan and during lesson delivery in the classroom, and how pacing reinforces learning.

Parker and Lo (2016, p. 200) defines selection of content as “the act of choosing from a universe of possibilities a sample of subject matter deemed suitable for teaching and learning in the circumstances of a course or subject, and it includes the arguments over what is worthy of inclusion.” Selection of content helps teachers and learners in choosing and organising appropriate learning experiences⁴ in a classroom, which is also in line with the aim and objectives of the school curriculum (Lunenburg, 2011; Parker & Lo, 2016; Morais, Neves & Pires, 2004). It is critical in defining the teacher-learners relationship with regard to framing and classification in instructional and regulative discourse to consider how knowledge is selected (Morais, Neves & Pires, 2004).

1.7 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

Chapter Three discusses in detail about the approach and research methods opted in this study, but this section intends to briefly explain the research methodology used in this study. The approach adopted is qualitative, because of the nature of research question asked and its study objectives.

One of the data collection strategies is videotaped observation of one lesson delivered by four experienced Social Studies’ teachers. It also uses video-stimulated recall interviews as follow up to class observations done in the four sampled schools. Malawi has three administrative regions, Northern, Central and Southern region. The four sampled secondary schools are found in the Northern Division of Education that is in the Northern Region of Malawi, and the Central Eastern Education Division, which is in the Central Region. However, this study concentrated on two administrative regions, as mentioned above. The sampling is influenced by the type of schools and the cultural difference between Northern Region, that is patriarchal and Central Region is matriarchal. The map shows the three political regions of Malawi and the areas where

⁴ Learning experience is defined as the “interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he/she can react” (Lunenburg, 2011, p. 3).

patriarchal and matriarchal systems are predominantly practiced in the country, as indicated in figure 2. The patriarchal system is perceived as being authoritative compared to matriarchal (Dogo, 2014; Phiri, 1997). This aspect of authority within some African cultures defines parent-child relations regarding how the two interact in which the child has the role to listen from the elder. This aspect is translated into teacher-learner relations in pedagogic practice (Altinyelken & Hoeksma, 2021; Tabulawa, 1997). The way authority is expressed in two systems – matriarchal and patriarchal system might have a bearing on teacher’s pedagogic practice in relation to teacher-learner relationship.

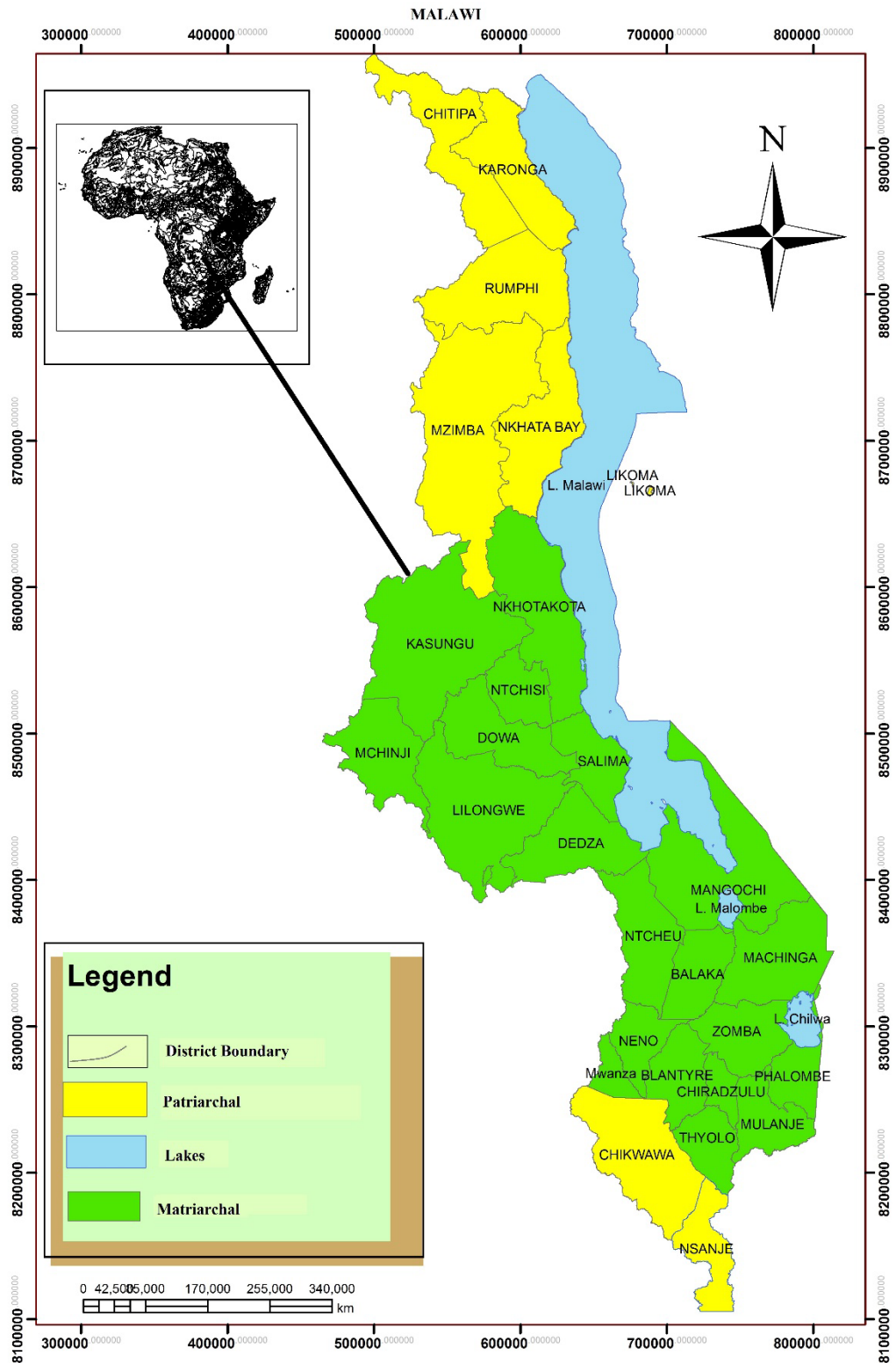


Figure 2 Map showing the geopolitical areas that practice patriarchal and matriarchal systems. The two are in Mzimba District and other two in Kasungu District. Source: C.W. Mapala

1.8 OVERVIEW of the DISSERTATION

This chapter ends by giving an overview of this study. Chapter One gives a synopsis to the study by discussing the introduction to the study, purpose of the study, rationale, research question, preliminary literature and the methodological approach opted for this study. Chapter Two focuses on literature review. Chapter Three discusses the theoretical framework underpinning this study. Chapter Four describes the research design and methodology opted for the study. Chapter Five displays and discuss the data collected for the study as a response to research questions. Chapter Six recapitulates the main conclusions and makes recommendations on the findings and suggest areas of future study.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter began by giving introduction to the study, purpose of the study, rationale, research question, preliminary literature and the methodological approach opted for this study. It ended with an overview to the dissertation and summary to the chapter. The next chapter will focus on the literature review on the topic under investigation and the theoretical framework which undergirds this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature on teachers' pedagogy in the developing world, with specific focus on studies in Malawi. The primary purpose of this chapter is to examine what other scholars have investigated about Social Studies' teacher's pedagogy at classroom level in Malawi. However, in illustrating the point, the chapter briefly discusses relevant educational policies. Therefore, it is the purpose of this chapter to examine the literature on teacher's pedagogy.

The chapter begins by examining how the question of pedagogy has been debated in sub-Saharan Africa and other countries, with keen interest in the debate surrounding learner-centred pedagogy (LCP), as opposed to teacher-centred pedagogy. Then, it examines the literature on pedagogy in Malawi before turning to Social Studies as subject. I begin by defining pedagogy which provides a brief background to the question being investigated.

2.1 UNDERSTANDING PEDAGOGY

It is the purpose of this section to briefly define and discuss the term "pedagogy" to give the background to this chapter.

In Chapter One, it was acknowledged that the definition of pedagogy is contested in the literature. Watkins and Mortimore (1999) define pedagogy as any conscious activity of one person that is intended to promote learning in the other person or persons in the classroom. Hoadley (2018) defines the term pedagogy as the classroom practice and the process of teaching and learning. On the other hand, Bernstein (1996, p. 46 – 7) defines pedagogy as "the principle by which other discourses are appropriated and brought into a special relation with each other, for the purposes of their selective transmission and

acquisition.” Therefore, pedagogy embodies all what goes on in the classroom through the process of teaching and learning.

In pedagogy, there is always criteria for something to be transmitted and acquired because there is no way one can teach something already known to the student (acquirer). This is why the criteria are evaluative (Hoadley, 2018). A pedagogy comprises a social relation of a transmitter and an acquirer of transmitter and acquirer. The rules of evaluation lie with the teacher. This is why both Bernstein (2003) and Hoadley (2018) consider pedagogic relation as being hierarchical and asymmetrical because the transmitter is not equal to the acquirer. Pedagogically, the teacher has a responsibility to manage the learning of students in diverse ways without necessarily having control over the process of learning (Biase, 2019).

Bernstein (1999, p. 259) says that “pedagogy is a sustained process whereby somebody(s) acquires new forms or develops existing forms of conduct, knowledge, practice and criteria, from somebody(s) or something deemed to be an appropriate provider and evaluator.” What he implies is that all forms of pedagogy include social formation and regulation of certain groups or bodies, despite the fact that the emphasis often is put on acquisition and transmission of knowledge and skills (Bourne, 2004; Sikoyo, 2010). His definition of acquisition is different from the assumption of learner-centred education, which assumes that a child already has the conduct, knowledge and practice.

Having defined the term pedagogy, it is important to explore how the word pedagogy is understood in Malawi. The available literature about pedagogy and pedagogic practice in the country focuses on the failure to implement learner-centred pedagogy in the classroom (Chirwa & Naidoo, 2014; Chipshiko & Shaba, 2014; Mizrachi, Padila & Susuwele-Banda, 2010; Kadzamira & Rose, 2003). The reasons for the failure often cited range from classroom conditions, such as teacher-learner ratio, school culture, and teacher education. However, I have been unable to find a study in Malawi that explores the pedagogical reasoning of teachers’ practices and choices. This is why this chapter

examines the literature related to this question under investigation. The next section discusses how LCP was adopted in Africa, including Malawi.

2.2 ADOPTION of LEARNER-CENTRED PEDAGOGY in AFRICA

This section explores the questions: why and how learner-centred pedagogy was adopted and practised in Africa since the mid-1980s and 1990s? It re-examines challenges being faced in the education sector. The pedagogical knowledge and practice as understood and practised in Africa, including Malawi, traces from global policies, such as Education for All and Millennium Development Goals (Mtika & Gates, 2010). Hence, it is important to begin this chapter by examining the literature as debated in Africa from this perspective. This provides a basis on which I will interrogate what Malawi secondary school teachers do in the area of pedagogical practice, and explore reasons why they make pedagogical choices in a classroom situation.

2.2.1 DEFINING LEARNER-CENTRED PEDAGOGY EDUCATION

The two concepts – teacher-centred education and learner-centred education are premised on two different philosophical assumptions about learning and how cognitive skills develop. Learner-centred education is embedded in the belief that cognitive abilities of the learner develop spontaneously according to natural developmental stages (Horn, 2009; Mtika & Gates, 2010; Brodie et al., 2002; O’Sullivan, 2004). It assumes that human development is automatic and natural, and that education follows the child’s own natural pace of development (Horn, 2009; Biase, 2019). It also asserts that knowledge is constructed as one interacts with his environment. It espouses that learners, when coming in the classroom, have already constructed their own interpretive ideas about what they will learn (Kadzamira & Rose, 2003; Horn, 2009). This is why it is aligned to Constructivism, which is premised on the understanding that meanings are socially constructed when learners are actively creating, interpreting and re-organising knowledge as individuals (Biase, 2019).

2.2.2 INTRODUCTION of LEARNER-CENTRED EDUCATION in AFRICA

As explained above, it is important at this stage to consider why and how learner-centred pedagogy (LCP) was introduced in Africa and what are epistemological and philosophical assumptions that underpin it. Commenting on curriculum reforms in sub-Saharan Africa, Chisholm and Leyendecker (2008, p. 197) point out,

Learner-centred education is one of the most pervasive educational ideas in contemporary sub-Saharan Africa and elsewhere. It is often accompanied by competence-based discourses and official shifts in curriculum and assessment policy designed to lessen the significance of examinations and enhance the importance of continuous assessment as a means of stimulating learner-centred pedagogy. And yet, there is overwhelming evidence from very different kinds of sources, that the idea has not taken root in the classroom.

As Chisholm and Leyendecker (2008) note, learner-centred education did not only accompany official shifts in curriculum but it also faces some challenges at implementation level. It is the challenges faced at implementation level that have drawn the attention of most scholars in the field of education to examine why is it a challenge, and some answers have been provided.

In order to look at these challenges, it is important to begin by discussing how learner-centred pedagogy (LCP) was adopted. The LCP was only adopted in Sub-Saharan Africa between the 1980s and 1990s through the influence of Western aid agencies and governments (Tabulawa, 1997, 2003; Horn, 2009; Kadzamira & Rose, 2003; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). While he acknowledges that curriculum reform in Africa was triggered by the wider social context, Tabulawa (2003) points out that the LCP was the main principle through which education was used by Western donor communities to advance liberal democratisation and competitive capitalism. The aim was to deconstruct the authoritarian structures that dominated political and educational sectors on the continent. He further says that LCP came as a prescription for educational aid and consultations funded by western agencies (ibid, 22). This also might explain why Malawi adopted LCP after the inception of multiparty politics (Chirwa & Naidoo, 2014; Mhango, 2008; Kadzamira & Rose, 2001).

Tabulawa (2003, p. 9) observes that “important to note is that learner-centred pedagogy has social, epistemological and philosophical foundations”. These social, epistemological and philosophical foundations are Western-oriented and, to a certain extent, strange to the African context and worldview. Like Alexander (2001), he further points out that “pedagogy is not value-neutral” because it is socially constructed as it is influenced by the wider social context (Tabulawa, 2003, p. 9). It is not value-free and apolitical (ibid., 1997). Naidoo and Wilmot (2015, p. 189) also point out that “[pedagogic] boundaries are not neutral but privilege or promote the interest of some at the expense of others.” This implies that when Western donor agencies introduced LCP in Africa, they did not do so for educational purposes alone as dictated by the local context, but rather it was accompanied by political undertones that were embedded in Western ideologies, which might not be compatible with the local contexts in which LCP was being implemented (Sikoyo, 2010). Commenting on educational reforms in South Africa, Chisholm and Leyendecker (2008, p. 202) observe that “local cultural and contextual realities and capacities as much as implementation requirements seem to be overlooked.”

This might be the reason why Tabulawa (2003, p. 10) argues that “it reflects the norms of a liberal Western subculture” that intended to promote westernisation and champion up the political status that dominated most African states, rather than pursuing educational goals on the continent. This leads him to argue that “learner-centred pedagogy is a political artefact, an ideology, a world-view about how society should be organised” (ibid, p. 10). The question is: whose political artefacts, ideology and worldview was embedded in LCP that was introduced in sub-Saharan countries, including Malawi? How does this foreignness impact on pedagogic choice and implementation at classroom level? In a study conducted on science teachers in Malawi, Nampota (2015), observed that while the general perception among science teachers was that they use learner-centred methods such as guided inquiry and open discovery, her observations showed that they rarely use them in their lesson presentations. She further pointed out that learners are given very little autonomy in lesson activities, as it

is required by learner-centred education (ibid). However, it is not clear whether this trend applies across all subjects that are taught in Malawian secondary schools, including Social Studies.

From the literature, it is clear that LCP was introduced to advance western political agenda, ideologies and worldview although influenced by the local context (Tabulawa, 2003; Kadzamira and Rose, 2003). No wonder LCP is still considered as a contested site as far as the politics of a curriculum and pedagogic practice and preferences are concerned at implementation level where the practitioners pursue different values and political agenda. If the theory of pedagogy is not well understood by those tasked to implement it, it is unlikely to succeed (Horn, 2009). Hence, it is worth investigating the extent to which this background contributes to the practice, choice and preference of pedagogies at classroom level in Malawi where teachers operate in their own socioeconomic, political and cultural context that are not similar to or the same as western countries.

Further, Tabulawa (2003, p. 10) contends that LCP was “motivated by ideological rather than educational intentions” and that it is a product of “neo-liberalism as the dominant theory of development in the 1980s”. If it was not driven by educational objectives, this could be problematic at the level of implementation of pedagogical practices in the classroom because educational objectives are not universal, or particular to Social Studies. The appropriation of a pedagogy depends on how receptive it is to the local context and its educational objectives (Biase, 2019; Altinyelken, 2010). Alexander (2001, p. 512) is right to say,

Perhaps the most damaging residue of this sort of thinking can still be found in the reports of some development education consultants, who happily commend Western ‘child-centred’ pedagogy to non-western governments without regard for local cultural and educational circumstances, or for recent advances in the psychology of learning and teaching, or for the findings of pedagogical research on the decidedly questionable record of child-centred teaching in Western classrooms, of all of which they seem to be unaware.

Considering the local context in which teachers operate, then the crux of the matter is not to establish why LCP is failing at implementation level, but to establish how the local context influences the Social Studies teacher's choice and preference of his pedagogic practice, and how this is relevant to their experience and practice. This can also be well understood if one considers multiple factors, including history of education and teacher education in a specific country, albeit this will not be the focus of this study. Nevertheless, this chapter will later briefly refer to the history of education in Malawi and to that of teacher education in order to provide a better perspective on wide ranges of factors that are shaping teacher's pedagogy and choice. As noted above, there are multiple factors some of which are influenced by individual teacher's inclination to what they think teaching or pedagogy is about in a particular subject. For example, in a study conducted in Zimbabwe secondary schools on the history of teachers' pedagogic preference, Chimbi and Jita (2020) observe that teachers' preference to pedagogy is more influenced by their personal philosophy of the instruction in a specific subject, rather than what the prescriptions of a curriculum dictates.

At this point, it is worth noting that most African countries, including Malawi, adopted LCP on the assumption that it would be a tool for liberal democracy to create a conducive environment of free market economy (Tabulawa, 2003; Kadzamira and Rose, 2003; Vavrus, Thomas, & Bartlett, 2011). It was engaged to propagate the ideas and practices of a western culture such as individual freedom, open-mindedness and tolerance for different viewpoint (*ibid*). This might be the reason why in Malawi critical and analytical thinking were considered as central to pedagogic and curricular reforms in the 2000s, which were not part of the curricular activities during the one party era (Kaambankadzanja, 2005).

Although LCE was introduced to inculcate skills, attitudes and knowledge perceived as necessary for development, it appears that it assumed a new role of promoting neo-liberal democracy (Tabulawa, 2003), which might be incompatible with national aspirations and expectations of education in African countries. Although some scholars have advised of the need to refrain from overemphasizing the cultural influence on

pedagogic practice (Hoadley, 2018), it would not be appropriate to rule out the place of culture and people's expectations of what education is about when it comes to pedagogic choice and preferences regarding what a specific society think about the purpose of education.

Therefore, it is important to consider how LCP was perceived and mainstreamed in teacher education and education system in Malawi. This cannot be done without considering the role of teacher education on pedagogical practices. Vavrus, Thomas, and Bartlett (2011, p. 21) rightly point out that the “quality of instruction depends to a large extent on the pedagogical training and support provided to teachers before they begin their teaching careers and throughout the years they are in the classroom.” While research shows that teacher education itself is problematic, because there are few practical aspects that trainee teachers learn from their lecturers who often use traditional pedagogies such as lecture method (Schweisfurth, 2011; Mtika & Gates, 2010), it is important to explore the link between teacher education and teachers' experiences at the implementation level. In Malawi, Mtika (2009) has extensively examined the link between teacher education and pedagogic practice in his doctoral thesis. The findings of his studies show that the experiences of trainee teachers during training and lack of teaching resources have influenced the way they teach. This is the reason why this study will not focus on teacher education and pedagogic practice, but rather on affirming that teacher education has a bearing on teacher pedagogic activities.

2.2.3 INTERPLAY between PEDAGOGY and its CONTEXT

Although Learner-centred education was shaped by policy dictates and ideological pressure of international organisations (Chilambo, 1988; Sikoyo, 2010), this subsection examines the interplay between pedagogy and the context in which it is practiced.

There is extensive discussion on how learner-centred pedagogy was introduced and is being implemented in sub-Saharan Africa (Tabulawa, 1999; Vavrus 2003; Chirwa & Naidoo; Chipshiko & Shawa, 2014; Mtika & Gates, 2010; Brodie et. al., 2002; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). The critical question that is often asked is: how are teachers

embracing the reforms and implementing them in the respective countries and contexts? A follow-up question is: How does this impact on teacher's pedagogic practices and choices?

Brodie et. al., (2002, p. 556) categorically state that “teachers take-up the new ideas differently, in relation to their contexts, positioning and knowledge.” This suggests that the way that teachers' take up a pedagogy is influenced by their contexts and shaped by the knowledge of pedagogy that they have during and after pre-service teacher education. To a certain extent, this environment influences the teacher classroom practices. Commenting on indigenising learner-centred pedagogy, Chisholm and Leyendecker (2008, p. 202) observe.

In South Africa, the main reasons for the problems faced in indigenising learner-centred education (and OBE) appear to be comparable to those in Namibia: confusion about the meaning and content of the concepts and intended changes, and the consequences of the intended instructional practices not being of a piece with local classroom cultures and realities.

It is the context, school and classroom realities that matter in how teachers take up the new ideas about pedagogy that continue shaping their pedagogic practices. Therefore, it is important to understand how each teacher does his or her work and explores reasons that make him or her to do so. This kind of understanding of pedagogic discourse goes beyond the question of why teachers are failing to embrace new reforms as suggested in government and international organisation's policy statements (Ministry of Education, 2013; UNESCO, 2000; 2013). Rather, it attempts to understand the reality in which teachers find themselves regarding pedagogic practices and choices influenced by their specific contexts.

As noted above, African education systems have common trends, problems and challenges (Sikoyo, 2010). This research wants to underscore the point that teachers have different experiences in each context that may shape their pedagogic practices and choices (Mtika & Gates, 2010). For example, in a study conducted in Tanzania on LCP and pedagogical content knowledge, Vavrus and Bartlett (2012) found that knowledge

production by the teacher was significantly shaped by culture, economic and social context where he or she works. They further pointed out that there is always a contextual and cultural dimension in the transmission and acquisition of knowledge and skills that indicate that effective pedagogical content knowledge must be derived from local practices to be perceived of as good (Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012). A similar observation was also made in other studies done in sub-Saharan Africa (Sikoyo, 2010; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). In his article commenting on two ethnic groups – Chewa and Tumbuka in Malawi, Mkandawire (2010) points out cultural difference plays a role in creation of educational disparities that happen in the country and that is influenced by how each society defines the purpose of education. This is largely influenced by the fact that human beings have complex physical systems that vary from one context to another, and they are time-bound (Woods & Trexler, 2001). This why it is important to analyse the specific context in which a teacher teaches to ascertain how cultural differences contribute to her/his pedagogic practices and choices.

In her study conducted in Namibia, O’Sullivan (2004, p. 600) argues that it is not always that one model of learner-centred education is appropriate for all situations because “each context needs to determine the most appropriate model for it.” This presupposes that each context defines the appropriation and practice of pedagogy, as well as teachers’ choice of pedagogy. Therefore, it would be appropriate to investigate how teachers practice pedagogy in particular context in order to avoid generalising research findings done elsewhere in Africa because teachers do not operate under the same conditions. This is why teachers choose certain pedagogies in their classroom practice. There are various proposals of adjusting learner-centred pedagogy that have been made such as indigenising (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008), hybridised (Cuban, 1993) or contingent constructivism (Vavrus, 2009). These proposals show how different contexts influence pedagogic practices.

The next subsection will examine challenges of learner-centred pedagogy in sub-Sahara Africa since the 1980s.

2.2.4 CHALLENGES of IMPLEMENTING LEARNER-CENTRED PEDAGOGY

Having examined the interplay between pedagogy and context in which it is practiced, it is the purpose of this subsection to examine the challenges that teachers face when implementing LCP in sub-Saharan Africa between 1980s and 2000s and explore the teacher-learner relationship in a pedagogic practice.

There are numerous challenges that a teacher encounters at implementation level of LCP in Africa and elsewhere (Kennedy, 2004). Firstly, teacher education has a role in shaping teachers' pedagogical practices. It is often cited as a factor in the implementation of LCP (Mtika & Gates, 2010; Vavrus, Thomas & Bartlett, 2011). Research shows that teacher education itself is problematic because there is very little practical knowledge that trainee teachers learn from their lecturers who often use traditional pedagogies, such as lecture method and appear not to understand it themselves (Mtika & Gates, 2010; Schweisfurth, 2011). However, teacher education does not provide a complete explanation on why teachers do things in the way they do.

Secondly, besides teacher education, some studies have also raised questions on the dilemma that exists between teaching-for-examination approach, which is largely influenced by the national curriculum, and offering learner-centred education that espouses that knowledge is constructed by the learner. It is often argued that teaching should focus on a learner (Kunje & Chimombo, 1999; Mtika & Gates, 2010), yet the local context assesses teacher's performance based on how many of her students have passed the centralised national examinations, which are based on content-driven assessment. In the study conducted by Mdolo and Doidge (2010) on the new Biology curriculum in Malawi, they observed that pressure to complete the syllabus before national examinations was one of the factors that contributed to failure to implement a constructivist approach in Malawi secondary schools. Similarly, Chalira and Nkhoma (2003) pointed out that in Malawi, good teaching is equated to helping learners to pass national examinations. This study wants to explore whether this problem still persists in the Malawian education system, following the educational policy change regarding

examinations in Grade 10 (junior secondary education) in 2015, as explained in Chapter One.

A third challenge is what Kennedy (2004) observes in her article titled “Reform Ideals and Teacher Practical Intentions”. She observed that teachers’ interpretation of classroom situation contributes to how they fail to respond to reform ideals (Kennedy, 2004). In her findings, she found that teachers’ interpretation of their practices is in sharp contrast to what reformers think. She further observed that teachers’ interpretations of classroom situation are largely influenced by their beliefs and values, and that these contribute to their failure to embrace reforms. She concluded that teachers interpret classroom situation differently based on their areas of concern and that they depend on their “own prior beliefs, values and accumulated principles of practice to decide how to respond to situations as they do” (Kennedy, 2004, p. 32). It appears that teacher’s pedagogic practice, to a certain extent, is influenced by the interpretation attached to classroom situation and purpose of education. It is important to examine the interpretation that Social Studies teachers attach to classroom situations and purpose of education in the light of the research question being investigated in this study.

Another challenge is concerned with the position of a teacher with regard to authority that she holds in the classroom. While the prescribed curriculum in Malawian education system is centred on the learner, it is worth considering the teacher’s attitude and conception about knowledge and pedagogies and her or his beliefs about the position of authority that she/he holds in the classroom. Commenting on LCE, Freire, whose concern was about adult education, describes the problem-posing education can be achieved:

through dialogue, the teacher – of – students and the student – of – teachers cease to exist, and a new term emerges: teacher – student with students – teachers. The teacher is no longer merely the – one – who – teaches, but one who is himself taught in dialogue with the students, who in turn while being taught also teach. They become jointly responsible for a progress in which all grow (Freire, 2000, p. 80).

According to this reasoning, teaching and learning is considered as a joint exercise between the teacher and learners but the question lies on how the relationship between the two is established. Understanding symbiotic relationship⁵ regarding who controls the learning activities is not only problematic but it is highly debated in scholarly circle (Bourne, 2004; Biase, 2019). For example, Brodie et al. (2002), in examining the implementation of LCP, ask whether it is possible to have a lesson delivered whereby learner cannot commit facts they have learnt to memory.

Using a Bernsteinian perspective, this study will explore this relationship in the context of framing (control) and classification (power) both from regulative and instructional perspectives. The critical issue in this process is to determine who controls the selection, pacing and sequence in classroom, and how this process impacts on teacher's activities in a classroom and his pedagogic choices. Bourne (2004) points out that in the instructional discourse it is the discursive rules of selection, sequence, pacing and evaluation that define teacher-learner relationship through different values of framing. A full discussion of Bernstein's theory will be examined later in this Chapter.

Another factor which influences the teacher-learner relationship is African culture. Commenting on pedagogical classroom practices in Botswana, Tabulawa (1997) argues that African culture demands an authoritarian relationship in the classroom, which is at odds with the LCP assumption of a democratic relationship. While some studies have associated teacher's resistance to adaption of learner-centred education to African culture (Tabulawa, 2003; Vavrus, Thomas, and Bartlett, 2011), this is debatable because LCP research cites a range of reasons why teachers resist to adapt the prescribed pedagogy, as explained above. Then the critical question is not to ascertain why they fail to embrace the curricular reforms, but to re-examine why some teachers, who are born and raised in the same culture as other teachers, adapt to the philosophy and practices (form and substance) of learner-centred education while others do not embrace the curricula reforms (Brodie et al., 2002; Kennedy, 2004).

⁵ In this study, the terms symbiotic relationship refers to an interaction or intimate relationship between teacher and learners, which benefits both of the individuals involved.

The dilemma pedagogically lies with how to establish the dialogue between the teacher and learners where the former is traditionally regarded as a pivot of authority whose responsibility it is to ensure that students pass examinations and acquire appropriate knowledge as prescribed in the centralised curriculum (Vavrus, 2009). As reflected in educational policies cited in Chapter One, such as the National Educational Sector Plan (NESP), and National Educational Policy (NEP), a teacher is also entrusted with responsibility to develop learners into creative and critical thinkers, amidst other challenges such as high ratio of teacher-student, lack of teaching and learning resources, poorly funded and uncondusive working conditions (Mkandawire et. al., 2018; Mizrachi, Padilla & Susuwele-Banda, 2010; Mtika & Gates, 2010; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012; Schweisfurth, 2011). This is the situation that most Malawian teachers find themselves in, particularly those teaching in rural secondary schools (McJesse-Mbewe & Kholowa, 2010). While this study acknowledges these challenges, it will attempt to go beyond these findings with primary focus on analysing why Malawian teachers teach in the manner that they do and make particular pedagogical choices in a classroom situation. Since this chapter has referred to Malawian educational policies, the next section will briefly re-examine these policies in perspective of teachers' pedagogic practices and choices at a classroom in Malawi.

2.3 PEDAGOGIC DEBATE from a POLICY PERSPECTIVE in MALAWI

This section examines pedagogy from a Malawian policy point of view since 1994 when the country adopted multiparty politics, after it had been under the one party and despotic rule of Dr Hastings Kamuzu Banda (Mapala, 2017). It is the purpose of this section to examine the question of pedagogy from a Malawian policy perspective as documented in educational policies.

Soon after Malawi adopted the system of multiparty politics, the country embarked on education reforms to address the perceived challenges of the day, but largely influenced by Western governments and the donor community (Kadzamira and Rose, 2003). Following the adoption of multiparty politics, Malawi Ministry of Education, Science

and Technology (MoEST) opted for learner-centred pedagogy (LCP), as opposed to teacher-centred pedagogical practices that dominated teaching and learning in primary and secondary schools prior to this period. As explained above, LCP was adopted because it was assumed by donor agencies, curricula reformers and government that it was appropriate for liberal democracy and the development of free market economy (Kunje, 2002; Tabulawa, 2003). This is the reason why the National Education Sector Plan (NESP)⁶ envisaged education as a “catalyst for socio-economic development, industrial growth and instrument for empowering the poor, the weak and voiceless” (Malawi MoEST, 2008, p. 3).

It should be noted that it took a long time for the Government of Malawi to officially recognise LCP in 2012. Although LCP was taught to primary teacher trainees who went through the Malawi Integrated In-Service Teacher Education Programme (MIITEP) that started in 2004, no government policy explicitly referred to it (LCP). For example, the Policy and Investment Framework (PIF) that the Malawi Government adopted to guide the education sector from 1995 to 2005 does not directly mention LCP as alternative pedagogy to Teacher-centred pedagogy. The PIF only says, “At all levels of the system, the teaching of basic literacy and numeracy skills as well as critical thinking and analytical skills will be incorporated in the curriculum which will also be more gender sensitive” (MoEST, 2000, p. 1, c.f. Masperi & Hallow, 2008). Neither does the National Education Sector Plan (NESP), which guided the educational sector from 2008 to date, refer to it (Malawi Government, 2008) although it mentions the new curriculum in which teachers were encouraged to focus on learners. In 2013, another education policy was developed and adopted to guide the educational sector and was called National Educational Policy (NEP). This too does not explicitly refer to it (MoEST, 2013). LCP is only explicitly recognised in Education Act, 2012.

⁶ A policy document that Malawi adopted in 2008 to guide education in the country and it still continues until a new policy is put in place.

The learner-centred pedagogies first appeared in donor reports of 2003 and 2004, particularly those of the USAID (Mizrachi, Padilla & Susuwela-Banda, 2010; Hoadley, 2018). The government only announced that it would include LCP in school curriculum in 2003 (Mizrachi, Padilla & Susuwela-Banda, 2010). Although the LCP was introduced in primary teacher education curriculum in 2004, it was implemented in primary school in 2008 beginning with Standard One (Mizrachi, Padilla & Susuwela-Banda, 2010; Chipiko & Shawa, 2014), before it was incorporated into secondary education. LCP is not only the official or prescribed pedagogy of the Malawi education system at all levels but it also has a legal basis. The Education Act, 2012 in Section 76, which explains the nature of national curriculum to be offered in the country puts emphasis on LCP. Section 76 (2) (a) states that the national curriculum shall “be student-centred and non-authoritarian, and encourage active participation of students in the learning process.” Commenting on Free Primary Education policy adopted at the inception of multipartyism before the adoption of PIF, Kadzamira and Rose (2003, p. 21) point out that:

In theory, the curriculum is supposed to be child-centred, including active participation of pupils through group work, debates and problem-solving activities. However, teachers do not appear to be well trained in the methodology, and it does not always appear to be appropriate for or adapted to us with the large class sizes.

This observation presupposes that the adoption of LCP was problematic as far as classroom activities are concerned because teachers were not well equipped with the skills and knowledge about LCP. They did not understand both what Brodie et al., (2002) call “forms” and “substance” of LCP when describing teachers’ pedagogic practice in South Africa. It appears that MoEST rushed to adopt learner-centred education without attending to critical areas that were essential in the implementation of the newly introduced pedagogy. This raises the serious question of how these critical areas were dealt with and how they continue influencing classroom activities and pedagogic practice.

2.4 RESEARCH on PEDAGOGY in MALAWI

This subsection assesses the extent of research on pedagogy in Malawian Secondary education, with a focus on Social Studies teachers.

Mizrachi, Padilla and Susuwele-Bnada (2010) observed that at classroom level primary teachers rarely use the LCP as envisaged in the mid-1990s, but rather they continue preferring traditional pedagogies. In their research on Malawi secondary schools, Mtika and Gates (2010, p. 398) asked two key questions, namely: (1) “what factors influence the appropriation and application of Learner-centred education among student-teachers? (2) how structures and systems within teacher education settings mediate student teachers’ thinking about learner-centred education?” In their findings, they pointed out that the appropriation and application of learner-centred education was somehow problematic, citing teacher education system, trainee teachers’ personal disposition, school’s culture and national curriculum as main factors that influenced the appropriation and application of learner-centred education (ibid). Their findings are largely influenced by teacher education because their focus was teacher-trainees, without considering the wider context in which a teacher operates and how that context shapes his/her pedagogic practice and preferences. Secondly, their interest was not what a teacher does in a classroom and why he or she chooses a particular pedagogy but they focused on LCP regarding the factors that influence the appropriation and application of it. Like other studies, they concluded that Malawian teachers rarely employ LCP in a class situation (Mtika & Gates, 2010, c.f. Mtika, 2009; Mizrachi, Padilla & Susuwela-Banda, 2010). However, their findings do not provide a wider perspective about the pedagogy because it is influenced by factors beyond the classroom activities. Alexander (2001, p. 511) might be right in arguing that:

pedagogy does not begin and end in the classroom. It can be comprehended only once one locates practice within the concentric circles of local and national, and of classroom, school, system and state, and only if one steers constantly back and forth between these, exploring the way that what teachers and students do in classrooms both reflects and enacts the values of the wider society.

In responding to the research question of this study, then it is important to consider how the specific culture where the school is located shapes the Social Studies teacher's pedagogic practice and choice at a classroom level.

Most research is centred on why and how teachers implement the pedagogies prescribed in government educational policies as compared to didactic pedagogy that has dominated teaching in Africa, including Malawi. This study shifts away from asking why and how teachers fail to implement prescribed pedagogies in government policies to ask why they do things in the manner that they do and choose certain pedagogies in their classroom practices.

The next section will examine the teaching of Social Studies (SS) in Malawi because this study is intended to assess the pedagogical practice and choices of selected SS secondary teachers.

2.5 HISTORY of TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES and PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE

This section briefly documents how Social Studies as a subject was introduced in the Malawian education system before examining Social Studies and its pedagogic practice in general and in Malawi. However, this study will not give a detailed account of how Social Studies education was introduced in Malawi because this has already been covered in other studies (Chilambo, 1988; Merryfield, 1989; Tlou & Kabwila, 2000; Mhango, 2008).

2.5.1 A BRIEF HISTORY of SOCIAL STUDIES in MALAWIAN SECONDARY SCHOOL

At the inception of multiparty politics, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) embarked on educational reforms to align the curricula to the needs and aspiration of the new era. One of the subjects introduced in primary and secondary curricula in Malawi to inculcate the knowledge, values, attitude and skills

required for the new dispensation was Social Studies (MoEST, 2013; Tlou & Kabwila, 2002). Although Social Studies (SS) was introduced to respond to the needs and aspirations of the multiparty dispensation, it is traced back to the 1968 African Social Studies Conference held in Mombasa, Kenya (Adeyemi, 1998; Mhango, 2008; Tlou and Kabwila, 2000; Salia-Bao, 1990). Again, this is not to say that SS, as a subject of school curricular, only came to Malawi in that year because it has been offered in the country since 1900 under different names (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000).

In the mid-1990, it took its current name as Social Studies. Although the Social Studies syllabus for Junior Secondary School was completed in 1998 under its current name, it was only introduced in the classroom as part of the school curricula for primary and post-primary education in the mid- 2000s (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000; Mhango, 2008). It was introduced as an integrated subject in which thematic approach, or what Salia-Bao (1990) called unit method, was privileged. Social Studies, as an academic discipline, is based on a spiral curriculum (Tlou and Kabwila, 2000). This is in line with the curricular reforms that happened in Malawi and other countries in Africa (Chilambo, 1988; Mhango, 2008, c.f. Hoadley, 2018; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). Social Studies was only introduced in the secondary school at this period because prior to it, the content was offered in three subjects namely, Geography, History and Civics, with clear boundaries. When Social Studies curriculum for secondary school was developed as a subject it emphasised democracy and active citizens' participation in a society to reinforce citizenry education and democratic culture (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000; Namphande, et al. 2017). This is reflected in the rationale of Social Studies in Junior secondary school syllabus that reads:

Social Studies as citizenship education seeks to provide students with the skills which will enable them to participate actively as citizens of a democracy. The primary purpose of social studies, therefore, is to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as effective citizens of a culturally diverse democratic society and interdependent world (MoEST, 1998, p. xi)

There are two things that need to be noted in this rationale. First is that it is a departure from the previous curriculum that inculcated the aspirations and philosophy of the one-

party despotic rule under Dr Banda to embrace the multiparty democracy. It was designed to inculcate attitudes, values, skills and competencies in learners that would make them to be active participants in a democratic state. The rationale for 2013 reviewed Junior secondary school curriculum for SS maintains the same spirit but it has additional topics, such as people and environment; sustainable development and, global issues and development, which are considered critical for the country (MoEST, 2013).

In 1998, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) started to revise SS curriculum and the production of text books for both primary and secondary curriculum were done by the end of 1999. The new revised curriculum was to be implemented in 2000 (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000), but it was only implemented at classroom level in 2005 (Mhango, 2008). It was at this time that Social Studies was offered as a new subject in the secondary school curriculum (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000).

Social Studies came to Malawi from America via Britain (Chilambo, 1988; Merryfield, 1989; Tlou & Kabwila, 2000), with learner-centred approach as its prescribed pedagogy. Welton (2005) is correct to say that Social Studies education emanated from society's needs and challenges with the aim of teaching children or students to cope with their physical, economic and social environment in order to satisfy their survival needs and be aware of their heritage and social responsibilities to their fellow citizens and those who live beyond their geopolitical borders.

In Malawi like other countries, Social Studies curriculum was designed to respond to specific needs of their societies and to inculcate specific values in its learners (Tlou and Kabwila, 2000; Salia-Bao, 1990). It was designed to offer education in areas of citizenry and patriotism as the knowledge to be taught, which were regarded as crucial for socioeconomic development and democratic process (Merryfield, 1989; Tlou and Kabwila 2000; Mhango, 2008; Salia-Bao, 1990).

It should also be noted that the Malawi Social Studies curriculum was conceptualised, revised and adopted, because prior to the mid-1990s the subjects that formed Social

Studies were “not articulated for their relationship to national development,” but it focused on British education system and was in service to Dr Banda’s regime (Merryfield, 1989, p. 25). What was intriguing during Dr Banda’s rule was that the education system was under surveillance of the Malawi Censorship Board, which ensured that education was tailored to the political system that Dr Banda pursued and championed (Carver, 1990). The main subjects incorporated in it were history, Geography and Civics, as explained above. However, the recently revised curriculum responds to contemporary issues such as culture and change, Civic participation and development, Sustainable development, and People and environment (MoEST, 2013). The Malawian secondary Social Studies curriculum was developed using thematic approach and the educational theory of expanding horizon (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000). This element is important in this study because it helps me as the researcher to understand whether teachers are aware of the reasons why the curriculum is designed in such way in the course of lesson planning and delivery. Although Social Studies curriculum designated to teach citizenship education and other related topics for the new Malawi, it is important for teachers to not only know what to teach but also how to teach (Adeyemi, Boikhutso & Moffat, 2003).

2.5.2. SOCIAL STUDIES and its PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE

Having explored the history of Social Studies education in Malawi, this subsection turns to examine Social Studies pedagogic practice. As indicated in Chapter One and this chapter, there is scant literature on pedagogic practice in Malawi secondary schools. I have not come across literature on this. As a result, literature consulted is that is available is on other countries in Africa and elsewhere.

Social Studies was introduced in Malawi secondary school curriculum with learner-centredness as its prescribed pedagogy. Thou and Kabwila (2000) noted that participatory methods were integrated into the syllabi of new secondary school curriculum for Social Studies. In the junior secondary school Social Studies syllabus, there is an emphasis on learner-centred teaching and learning approaches such as brainstorming, group work, question and answer, research, role play, teacher and

students' observations, demonstration, peer assessment, family tree and drama (MoEST, 1998, 2013; Tlou & Kabwila, 2000).

In a study conducted by Knight et. al., (1989) in United States, they found that students rarely use the cognitive strategies such as writing down the important elements of the problem to solve critical thinking problems in Social Studies. As a result, they suggest that secondary school learners "may need to learn how to use specific cognitive strategies in order to enhance their critical thinking ability" (Knight et. al., 1989, p. 275). Having made this suggestion, they turned to the teacher's behaviour as a critical tool that influences learners' cognitive strategies. This is the reason why they went on further to say that "this directs attention to the classroom teacher, because he or she must be the first person who is aware of the range of cognitive strategies that students can use to solve problem and then instruct students on how to [do it most] effectively" (Knight et. al., 1989, p. 275). Their observations are quite intriguing because they are very critical in understanding what a teacher does at the classroom level.

In her study on Nigerian junior secondary school teachers, Okobia (2016) finds that very few Social Studies teachers use learner-centred methods in the classroom situation, as prescribed pedagogy. Okobia (2016) attributed teachers' failure to use learner-centred methods to non-availability of qualified teachers and the quality of trained professional teachers among others. She pointed out that "improving the quality of instruction depends to large extent on the pedagogical training and support provided to teachers before they begin their teaching careers and throughout the years they are in the classroom" (Okobia, 2016, p. 37). In their study on Malawi Government Secondary Schools, Beytekin and Chipala (2015) agree with her that there is a connection between teacher's qualification and learners' achievement although their concern was not on pedagogic practice but on the impact of teacher's quality on secondary school performance. While Okobia (2016) calls Social Studies teachers to take the advice of experts to use the prescribed methods, she does not explore the reasons why most Social Studies teachers in junior secondary do not use learner-centred methods as prescribed by the government of Nigeria. However, her observation on the quality of training that

teachers receive prior to their career is critical to this study, which is investigating the experienced teachers who have been teaching Social Studies for not less seven years.

In conclusion, she recommends more opportunities for professional development in order to develop “locally-relevant methods for promoting learner-centred pedagogy” (Okobia, 2016, p. 39). Although her focus is on how learner-centred pedagogy can effectively be implemented, some variables that she employed in her study, such as the experience of Social Studies teachers is not properly addressed as to how it contributes to the improvement in the teaching of Social Studies. This area is critical in understanding what goes on in the classroom, rather than relying only on the advice of the experts without considering how the teacher’s experiences shape her/his pedagogic practice. Kennedy (2004) warns that the thinking of experts or reformers are not always of the teachers in classroom because classroom realities are not the same as what reformers think. However, Okobia’s observation on failure to use the recommended teaching methods for Social Studies stands valid because a similar observation has been made in most studies conducted in the sub-Saharan Africa. For example, Adeyemi, Boikhutso & Moffat (2003) also observed that half of Social Studies teachers interviewed in Botswana Junior Secondary school use inquiry and group work methods in teaching citizenship education.

Another area that requires consideration is the use of classroom-based primary sources in Social Studies, particularly on topics which are historical in nature. When the new Social Studies curriculum was adopted in Malawi, the in-service teachers were trained in a range of teaching methods including text-book research, newspaper articles and audio-visual – radio, cassettes and films (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000). Doing their studies in USA, Hicks and Doolittle (2004) find that secondary school teachers rarely use classroom-based and web-based primary sources in their Social Studies lesson. In an attempt to analyse why teachers do things in the way they do in Malawi secondary schools, this study will investigate the extent to which SS teacher use classroom-based primary sources as part of a pedagogy, and how they use primary sources to enable effective learning to happen.

The next section will explore the theoretical framework that undergirds this study.

2.7 SUMMARY of the CHAPTER

The chapter has shown that Malawi, like other sub-Saharan countries, succumbed to policy dictates and ideological pressure of international organisations without considering local factors when adopting learner-centred pedagogy.

I have shown that pedagogic reforms were initiated by donor agencies and African governments intended to address disparities observed in the education system. It has further noted that research shows that teachers are failing to implement LCP perceived by policy makers, curriculum specialists and education reformer as the best teaching practices.

Research conducted in Malawi secondary schools, particularly in science subjects, tend to show that teachers are failing to implement LCP by not giving autonomy to learners as it is prescribed in government policies and required in learner-centred education.

The chapter further observed that teachers' pedagogic practice, to a certain extent, is influenced by the interpretation attached to classroom situation and to what teachers hold as the purpose of education. It was for this reason that this study wishes to examine the interpretation that a Social Studies teacher attaches to classroom situation and purpose of education in an environment where centralised national examinations are no longer influencing the pedagogic practice.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework underpinning this study as an analytical and methodological tool. This study is guided by Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse using the notions of classification and framing.

3.1 BERNSTEIN'S PEDAGOGIC DISCOURSE as a THEORETICAL and METHODOLOGICAL TOOL of ANALYSIS

The theoretical framework that guides this study is Bernstein's pedagogic discourse, using the concepts of instructional and regulative discourses. It begins by examining literature that explains the theoretical lens through which the study is analysed.

Basil Bernstein, the British Education Sociologist, was primarily concerned with how power and control translate into principles of communication regarding pedagogic discourse and practice, and "how these principles of communication differentially regulate forms of consciousness with respect to their reproduction and the possibilities of their change" (Bernstein, 1993, p. 116). In this sense, the pedagogic discourse and practice could be perceived as message systems that have clear rules and/or procedures describing how knowledge could be translated or converted into classroom organisation and practice.

Bernstein defines a pedagogic discourse as a "principle for the circulation and the reordering of discourses" (Bernstein 1996, p. 49). In his argument, he points out that it is "a relay, a cultural relay: a uniquely human device for both the reproduction and the production of culture" (2003, p. 196). He also regards a pedagogic discourse as a principle of recontextualization that is embedded in instructional and regulative discourses (Bernstein, 1996). Based on this thinking, Morais (2002, p. 559 – 560) argues that pedagogic discourse does not only refer "to the scientific contents and competences to be transmitted, but also to their transmission and evaluation—that is, it

refers to *the what* that is transmitted, *how* it is transmitted, and which student's realisations are considered legitimate." This is possible if the learner has the recognition rule that it enables her/him to be aware of power relations in the classroom. In pedagogic practice, recognition rules and realisation rules work together. At learner level, both recognition and realisation rules help the learner to construct legitimate text, but it is the realisation rule that enables the learner to produce the expected legitimate text, which is produced as feedback on what Bernstein calls "interactive practice" which is defined by the values of classification and framing (Bernstein, 1993). Full details will be explained in next subsection.

3.1.1 RECOGNITION and REALISATION RULES in CLASSIFICATION and FRAMING

This subsection explores the rules of recognition and realisation in the context of classification and framing, as discussed by Bernstein in the light of this study.

Bernstein (2000, p. 18) defines a text as "anything which attracts evaluation." Pereira and Sithole (2020) say that to realise is to produce a text. A text could include what a teacher or a learner does in a classroom or teaching behaviour of a teacher that could be assessed. In this regard, it cannot only be considered from what the teacher teaches but also from how he/she positions himself/herself in a classroom setting in relation to power relations (classification) that exist between a teacher and a learner in a classroom, and control regarding sequencing, pacing and selection of content, and how the context influences his/her pedagogic practice and preferences. In pedagogic practice, this includes teaching behaviour (Pereira & Sithole, 2020).

However, to do this, the researcher needs to understand the relationship that exists between recognition rules and realisation rules, because a recognition rule is a precondition and basic to appropriate communication. This implies that it is not possible to realise a legitimate text without first recognising that text. It does not only make us aware of power relations, but it also speaks about the expected legitimate text

(Bernstein, 1993), because it is realisation rules that do so as explained above. Realisation rules do not only help in producing the legitimate text⁷ but it also helps in determining how meanings are put together. Bernstein (1993, p. 128) summarises that “recognition rules regulate what meanings are relevant and realisation rules regulate how meanings are to be put together to create the legitimate text.” Recognition rules can exist without realisation at implementation level. In other words, learners can recognise the discourse, but they may be unable to produce appropriate realisations of that discourse. It is recognition rules that determine what the context demands (Bernstein, 1993; Pereira & Sithole, 2020). This is the reason why they regulate what meanings are relevant and appropriate. They are the means through which a teacher recognises the sort of behaviour that is appropriate or not in course of teaching and learning process.

Teachers, like learners, are critical players at implementation. Therefore, they must recognise what a pedagogy that they have opted for or employed in teaching and learning context demands for them to produce a particular range of behaviour privileged in that given pedagogy (Pereira & Sithole, 2020). It was my responsibility as a researcher to analyse how a teacher understands recognition rules necessary to the implementation of appropriate pedagogy opted for what Brodie 2010 et al., call ‘substance’ and ‘form’ of a chosen pedagogy in the process of teaching and learning.

3.1.2 UNDERSTANDING REGULATIVE and INSTRUCTIONAL DISCOURSE

To have a better understanding of the link between rules of recognition and realisation on the one hand, and classification and framing on the other hand, this subsection examines Bernstein’s concepts of regulative and instructional discourses. Chapter One briefly explained the two concepts. Therefore, this subsection will not define the two concepts but rather it will examine how they relate to framing.

⁷ In this study, the term legitimate text does not refer to the official pedagogy but what a teacher interprets as the appropriate pedagogy in a classroom setting.

Before re-examining classification and framing, it is important to explore two systems that are regulated by framing, namely rules of regulative discourse and rules of instructional discourse. Bernstein, (1993, p. 124) describes rules of regulative discourse as “forms of the hierarchical relations [that] take [place] in the pedagogic relation and to expectations about conduct, character and manner” On the other hand, rules of instructional discourse refer to selection, sequencing, pacing and criteria for knowledge (Bernstein, 1993; Hoadley, 2018; Morais, 2002; Bertram, 2012; Pereira & Sithole, 2020).

Bernstein considers the instructional discourse as embedded within the regulative discourse, which he described as a dominant discourse (Bernstein, 1996; Singh, 1997). Based on this view, the regulative discourse is concerned with the social order and puts emphasis on hierarchy (Bernstein, 1996; Morais, 2002; Hoadley, 2018). Morais points out that regulative discourse “translates the dominant values of society and regulates the form of *how* knowledge is transmitted” (2002, p. 560). However, this view does not consider that this trend changes with the age of the learner. Hoadley (2018) argues that regulative discourse could be dominant in lower classes of primary education – that is grade one to five but as we go up the ladder of classes, it is the instructional discourse that dominates the regulative discourse⁸ because it is what is taught (instructional message) that shapes the behaviour of the learners.

Although in secondary school, it is the instructional discourse that shapes the regulative, it is important to consider the relationship that exists between the transmitter and acquirer in pedagogic practice. Bernstein (2000) is of the view that it is possible to engage a range of communication to “disguise” the vertical power between teacher and learner. He strongly holds that pedagogically the relationship between a teacher and a learner is “inherently” asymmetrical. Some may view this as being problematic because in learner-centred education (progressive) a teacher is regarded as a guide and facilitator

⁸ This is also likely for the class sampled for this study that is Grade 10 (Form II).

in the process of learning and that the learner is the focus of the learning process (Horn, 2009; Mtika & Gates, 2010). However, this study uses Bernstein's concepts because they allow the researcher to describe a pedagogy without the ideological trappings of LCE and teacher-centred education.

Bernstein's distinction between performance and competence of pedagogic practices will be of great importance in understanding what a teacher does in a classroom situation. In competence model of pedagogic practice, according to Bernstein, a learner has more control over the learning process, leading to weak framing, while in performance model of pedagogic practice it is the teacher who controls the process of learning. Using this model, the researcher is interested to see how a teacher of Social Studies navigates and negotiates boundaries in the course of lesson delivery, and how s/he responds to challenges that emerge during lesson presentation.

In summary, the study employs pedagogic discourses of Bernstein because it is appropriate for analysing teacher's activities at a classroom level (Bernstein, 1993, 1995, 2000; Morais, 2002; Sadovnik, 2001; Hoadley, 2018; Bertram, 2012). It is employed to provide a better understanding to the research question(s) under investigation and illustrate how knowledge is transmitted and acquired in relation to the role and place of a teacher and learners in a classroom (Morais, 2002). At the school level, a pedagogic practice is "an activation of a pedagogic code" (Morais, 2002, p. 560). She points out that this is "the institutionalisation of the school's elaborated orientation through specific values of classification and framing.

3.1.3 CLASSIFICATION of the SUBJECTS in the CASE of SOCIAL STUDIES

After discussing regulative rules and discursive rules, this subsection re-examines classification, before the next subsection that explores framing as a concept in Bernstein theory.

Before defining classification, it is important to spell out how it relates to framing as an analytical tool. “Classification and framing translate into power and control relations between the categories subjects, discourses and spaces” (Morais, 2002, p. 560). The critical questions in Bernsteinian concepts of classification and framing as an analytical tool, which this study uses, are: who decides on what, when and how to do things in the classroom? In light of these questions, this study asks, what teachers consider as legitimate behaviour in the process of teaching and learning?

Classification refers to the relationship or distance between the contents or categories (Bernstein, 1993; Naidoo & Wilmot, 2015; Morais, 2002; Pereira & Sithole, 2020) and maintenance between categories (Hoadley, 2018). Classification refers the organisation of knowledge into curriculum (Hoadley, 2018; Morais, 2002). It is power that preserves insulation or symbolic boundaries between categories (Bernstein, 1993). Suffice to say that it is power relations that classify things. The extent of separation depends on how much power that category or agent has over the other (Pereira and Sithole, 2020). It is the space that separates two categories with clear identity so that it is unique from each other and with distinct voice. Therefore, power creates, legitimises and reproduces symbolic boundaries between various categories.

Bertram (2012, p. 10) says, “Classification is about the strength of the boundaries between objects, and gives researchers a way of describing the extent of integration of knowledge seen in a curriculum document.” Further, classification can be used to describe the strength of the boundaries in teacher-learner relations and between school knowledge and everyday knowledge. It depends on how power is negotiated between the transmitter (teacher) and acquirer (learner) in pedagogic practice.

From the subject point of view, classification can be said to be strong where the contents are insulated from each other, such as Geography which has a unique identity from other subjects taught in school, and as weakly classified where the insulation is reduced between contents for boundaries as it is the case with Social Studies, which is an integrated subject. This means that a subject has a meaning in relations to other subjects.

Where things are strongly classified, they must be kept apart and where they are weakly classified, things are brought together (Bernstein, 1993, 2003; Bourne, 2004). This characteristic is also present in framing (Morais, 2002), as the next subsection will explore.

If there is integration between one subject and others, it can be described as interdisciplinary and when an integration is between different topics or themes within a subject, it can be described as intra-disciplinary. When it is an integration, it occurs between a subject and everyday knowledge, and it can be said to be inter-discursive (Bertram, 2012). In this study, knowledge is interdisciplinary in the Social Studies curriculum because the syllabus integrates Civics, Geography and History. Considering the Malawi Grade 10 SS syllabus, the intra-disciplinary classification is weak because the topics have no clear boundaries or insulators and are integrated. For example, the topics “Family” and “Population and Resources” are taught in Grade 10 Social Studies using expanding horizons⁹. Prior to the introduction of Social Studies in the Malawi school curriculum, they were taught under different subjects, such as Civics and Geography. Considering the manner in which knowledge is structured in SS, we note that what is learnt under the topic “Family” acts as prerequisite knowledge for that is to be taught under “Population and Resources”. For example, the topic “Family” can be taught in the context of gender when it examines how sex preferences relate to family size, which is also covered under the topic “Population and Resources”. In this case, knowledge is weakly classified because subjects do not have clear boundaries.

In summary, in pedagogic practice, classification is realised in the arrangement of learners, the distribution of tasks, and in the organisational features of the context (Bernstein, 2003). In this study, I am investigating how a teacher distributes tasks in a classroom and how he/she navigates the boundaries between students and himself/herself in a pedagogic practice, and separates school knowledge and everyday

⁹ In expansion horizon, the knowledge of a topic being taught is built on the prior knowledge of the previous topic. Secondary school SS curriculum was developed using thematic approach (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000).

knowledge. It ascertains the extent to which a teacher maintains his/her boundaries in the process of teaching and learning in a classroom.

3.1.4 FRAMING in the LEARNING of SOCIAL STUDIES

Having discussed classification, it is time to turn to framing (control). Framing focuses on who controls what in a pedagogic discourse and practice. Framing has to do with local pedagogic relations and its interactions. Bernstein (1993, p. 123) defines framing as “the controls on communication in local, interactional pedagogic relations.” As pointed out above, framing regulates relations within a context. It refers to the extent of control that a teacher (transmitter) or learner (the acquirer) has over the selection of communication, sequencing, pacing and evaluation criteria. Sequencing is about order of occurrence as to what comes first and what follows in a pedagogic practice while pacing is the time expected for acquisition or what time is given to sequenced activities in a pedagogic practice (Bernstein, 1996). At pedagogic practice level, Hoadley (2018, p. 79) quoting Bernstein says that framing refers to the extent of control a teacher and a learner have “over the selection, sequencing, pacing and evaluation of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relationship.” It is concerned with the question, how meanings are put together and the form by which they are supposed to be made public and nature of social relationship that accompany it. This is why it is that it regulates relations within the context (Bernstein, 1993).

In pedagogic relations, the principle of framing relates to the extent of control over the elements of regulative discourse. In an instructional discourse, framing is concerned with the extent to which the learner or the teacher has control over the selection, sequencing and pacing of the content (Bernstein, 1971; Bertram, 2012).

Framing values may keep changing within a lesson depending on a number of factors and framing can be described as strong or weak. It is strong when the teacher is in control of the pacing, selection and sequencing and weak where learners have control over learning activities – pacing, sequencing, selection and evaluation (Morais, 2002; Hoadley, 2018). I am ascertaining as to who has limited or full control over the selection

of knowledge, sequencing, pacing and evaluation, and why things are happening in that way. This will help to identify the teaching and learning methods that a teacher engages in a lesson presentation and, why he prefers those teaching and learning methods.

3.2 CONCLUSION

The chapter discussed Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse with particular interest in regulative and instructional discourse. The two discourses are described in the concepts of classification and framing with the view of understanding the relations of the teacher and learners in pedagogic practice. The theory is employed as an analytical tool to assess the pedagogic practices that selected Social Studies teachers use.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter turns to examine the research methodology adopted for this study. It begins by explaining the paradigm and research approach opted for this study, before it explains the population of the study, the sampling techniques, methods employed in data collection, data analysis, trustworthiness and ethical consideration, in that order.

4.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM

This section briefly discusses the definition and assumptions of the paradigm selected, and explain how it guides this study.

The term paradigm is ambiguous in research, because it is used differently by different scholars (Dean, 2018; Ryan, 2018; Thanh & Thanh, 2015; Woods & Trexler, 2001; Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Morgan, 2007). Some use it to mean ontology or epistemology or research methodology (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). For example, qualitative and quantitative approaches have been referred to as paradigms (Creswell, 2003). Morgan (2007, p. 50) defines the term paradigm as the “shared belief systems that influence the kinds of knowledge researchers seek and how they interpret the evidence [that] they collect.” While this research concurs with Morgan’s definition, it defines paradigm as a set of beliefs that guide a research in defining the nature of reality, knowledge and values that reflect a particular worldview. Bertram and Christiansen say that a “research paradigm represents a particular worldview that informs what is acceptable and how research is done” (2020, p. 24).

For this study, the paradigm chosen is interpretivism. Creswell (2003, p. 6) points out that “stating a *knowledge claim* means that researchers start a project with certain

assumptions about how they will learn and what they will learn during their inquiry.” This is the reason why this section examines the paradigm that informs this study in describing the question under investigation, and explains its assumptions. Interpretive paradigm works well with qualitative methods (Woods & Trexler, 2001).

This section explains the assumption on which interpretivism is built. Interpretivists assume that there is no single reality or truth about the social world, but rather that there are multiple realities or truths that are historical, contextual and non-generalisable (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Dean, 2018; Ryan, 2018; Morgan, 2007; Thanh & Thanh, 2015; Woods & Trexler, 2001). They believe that the world depends on how individuals view and experience it, because people differ in how they look at the world and interpret it (Dean, 2018; Thanh & Thanh, 2015). In this sense, interpretivist paradigm allows the researcher to understand how the participants view their own world as they experienced it (Thanh & Thanh, 2015).

Interpretivists also hold that reality and knowledge are subjective and they are socially or experientially co-constructed and that the researcher is inseparable to the research as the data is also not separable from its context (Dean, 2018; Thanh & Thanh, 2015; Ryan, 2018; Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Morgan, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). They assume that data reflects the participants’ interpretation of the world of phenomenon (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020) and a thorough understanding of the context in which a research is conducted is critical to the interpretation of the data collected (Thanh & Thanh, 2015).

In seeking to answer the research questions, the interpretivist researcher uses the participants’ experiences to construct and interpret her understanding on a phenomenon under investigation (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). In line with the foregoing, the purpose of this exercise is to understand participants’ understanding of the phenomenon or why the participants behave the way they do (Bryan, 2018). Bertram and Christiansen point out that through interpretive paradigm, researchers seek to “describe and understand how people make sense of their worlds, and how they make meaning of their particular

action” (2020, p. 30). Using the interpretive paradigm, this study seeks to describe and analyse how four Social Studies’ teachers in Malawi secondary schools understand their pedagogic practices and make pedagogic choices at the classroom level.

4.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

The research approach is qualitative. It is chosen to describe what participants did and said about their pedagogic practices and choices.

The choice of the approach is largely influenced by the research question and paradigm opted (Marshall, 1996), and that it produces in-depth data (Pope, et al., 2000; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Muijs, 2004). This is the reason why qualitative approach was chosen because it allows the researcher to read the story from the perspective of the research participants (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006).

Qualitative research allows the researcher to be flexible in the course of data collection and analysis (Flick 2014; Denzin, 2009; Marczyk et al., 2005), and uses in-depth interviews and observations to generate credible data through triangulation and asking extra questions besides those on the interview schedule (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). It is the appropriate approach to study people in their natural setting (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This is why it has helped me to study Social Studies teachers in their classrooms, and describe what goes on in the classroom without any form of manipulation (Creswell, 2012; Marczyk, et al., 2005).

Creswell points out that the primary objective of qualitative research “is to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation being studied” (2003, p. 8). It should be underscored that this approach is selected because it allows the researcher to study the subjects in their natural setting without interference and describe what has been observed and what the research participants said. It is also appropriate because this study focuses on four Social Studies teachers, as a case study.

4.3 USE of CASE STUDY in RESEARCH

Zainal (2007, p. 2) uses Yin's definition of case study which says that it is "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence they are used." Yin, like other researchers, uses a constructivist perspective to describe a case study as an investigation of a phenomenon in its real-life situation (Meyer, 2001; Baxter & Jack, 2008). On the other hand, Gerring defines case study as "an intensive study of a single unit with an aim to generalise across a larger set of units" (Gerring, 2004, p. 342). Based on these definitions, it can be argued that a case study is tailored to answer the *why* and the *how* questions about a contemporary set of events (Meyer, 2001; Baxter & Jack, 2008), and to describe and explore a phenomenon (Baxter & Jack, 2008) in order to gain insights that would help to explain why things happen (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). In this sense, a case study can be defined as a research method that explores and describes a phenomenon in a specific context where different aspects of that phenomenon are studied to have a deeper understanding of what is being studied, and enables participants to tell their stories without being manipulated (Yin, 2018; Baxter & Jack, 2008; Meyer, 2001).

Hence, the study of the four Social Studies teachers in the sampled schools provides an in-depth and detailed analysis of the pedagogic practices and choices of selected Malawi secondary school teachers. Using Social Studies teachers as a case study is important because it helps to provide insights and a better understanding of the question being investigated in Malawi by selecting few individuals to participate in the study (Zainal, 2007; Baxter & Jack, 2008). Further, it is important to employ a case study because it is open to the use of the chosen theoretical framework that guides this research (Meyer, 2001).

However, the use of a case study has its own limitations because it depends on how skilful the researcher is in analysing the phenomenon being studied. If boundaries are not put in place when using a case study in any research, it can be problematic and can go beyond the scope of the study. Hence, it is important to limit the study by time and

activity or by time and place or by definition and context (Baxter & Jack, 2008). This is the reason why the study has been limited to four Social Studies teachers as the case, who are teaching in conventional secondary schools in Malawi after the abolishment of Grade Ten national examinations.

4.4 STUDY POPULATION and SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

This section discusses the study population and sampling techniques. The techniques engaged in identifying schools was convenience sampling, and that used in identifying teachers was purposive sampling.

As explained in Chapter Two, research attributes educational discrepancies between the Central and Northern regions to difference in cultural systems. It is often assumed that those who come from patriarchal society are more advantaged than those from matrilineal society because cultural norms provide space with which most students get selected to post-primary public schools. It is said that most patriarchal societies value education as a gateway to the world of opportunities (Mkanadwire, 2010). This is why the study considered this characteristic of cultural difference in sampling. The selection of study site was chosen with the purpose of seeing how the role of teachers' worldview and cultural beliefs and practices play in shaping teachers' pedagogic practices and preferences, as well as epistemological assumptions before and during the lesson presentation. This is where Bernstein's concept of regulative discourse was engaged to help in understanding how the class environment, norms and wide culture inform a teacher in his/her pedagogical choice, preference and practice.

This study used convenience sampling to select four secondary schools in the two education divisions of the six as shown in Figure 3, because of proximity and that it was cost-effective for data collection. Out of the four secondary schools selected, two are in the Central Region, which is predominantly matrilineal and the other two are located in the Northern Region, which is predominantly patriarchal (Phiri, 1997). Among the four conventional secondary schools, one was a national secondary school, two were district secondary schools and the last one was a day secondary school.

Fraenkel and Wallen (2006, p. 92) define sample as the “group on which information is obtained” while study population is the “larger group to which the one hopes to apply the results.” The population can also be defined the group of interest to the researcher (Scheaffer, et al., 2011). The population of this study is the Social Studies secondary school teachers in Malawi. The sample of the study is the four Social Studies teachers, because it is not possible to study all secondary school teachers in the country according to the scope and purpose of this study.

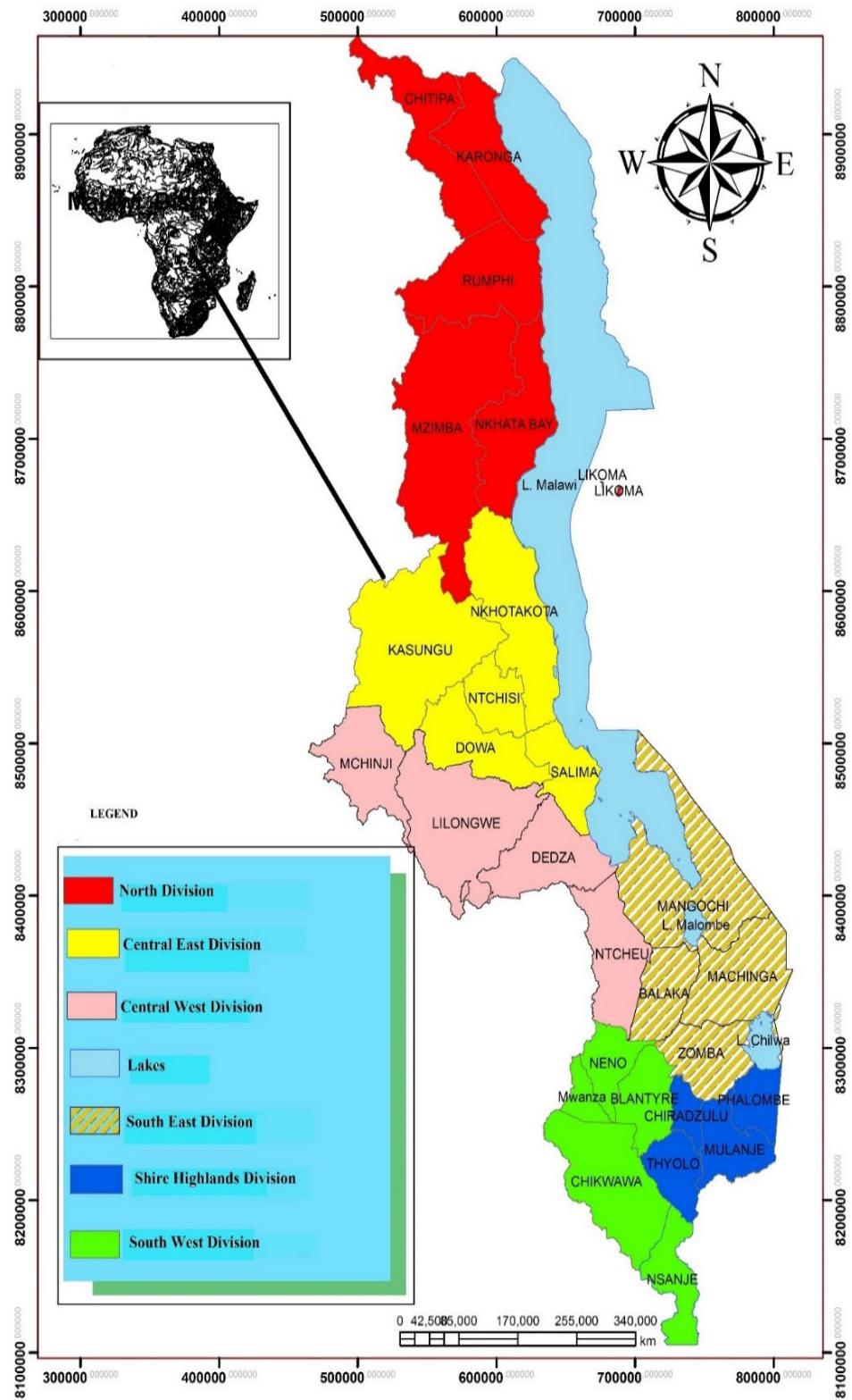


Figure 3 Map showing the six education divisions and regional boundaries (source Mapala, 2020)

In selecting participants, this study employed purposive sampling because of the nature of the research question and that the subjects are teachers in selected secondary schools who are employed according to their academic expertise as subject teachers in line with the school arrangement. This group was the most productive sample to answer the question being interrogated and have specific experience in Social Studies teaching in Malawi secondary schools for not less than seven years (Marshall, 1996; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

The four sampled teachers have a vast experience in the teaching of Social Studies because they had been teaching the subject for a period not less than seven years, as presented in Table 1.

Table 1 showing Details of Research Participants

Description	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
Sex	Male	Male	Male	Male
Academic qualification	Diploma in Education; Studying Bachelor of Education degree	Diploma in Education; Studying Bachelor of Education degree	Diploma in Education	Bachelor of Theology (B.Th.) degree; University Certificate of Education (UCE)
Experience teaching SS	13 years	18 years	7 years	16 years
Subject major	Diploma: Geography and Social Studies/Life Skills Degree: English and Geography	History and Bible Knowledge (for both Degree and Diploma)	Geography and English	B.Th. Christian Education and Biblical Studies; UCE- English and Geography
Region origin	Northern Region	Northern Region	Central Region	Northern Region
Region of working	Northern Region	Northern Region	Central Region	Central Region
Types of school	National secondary school	District secondary school	Day Secondary school	District secondary school

All teachers who participated in the study were male but with variance in teaching experience. The selection was not by design but this was how subject teachers were

allocated by management of the schools sampled for this study. Three of them have taught Social Studies at Secondary School for more ten years while one has taught for a period of seven years. One of these teachers is a holder of a Bachelor degree while three are diploma holders but two of three were studying for bachelor degree in Education. Further details are provided in Table 1.

The sampled schools were well resourced¹⁰. They have adequate and well-trained teachers with low ratio of teacher to learners. For example, school A has 615 pupils and 38 teachers, representing 1:16 ratio of teacher-learners; school B has 525 students and 22 teachers, representing 1:24; school C has 380 learners and 26 teachers, representing 1:12, and school D has 557 pupils and 29 teachers, representing 1:19.

4.5 METHODS of DATA GENERATION

This section turns to discuss the methods employed in data collection. I collected data through lesson observations and video-stimulated recall interviews (see Appendix A). Besides data collected through class observations and interviews, I also requested the original schemes and records of work¹¹, and lesson plans but this did not happen because all teachers participating in the study conceded that they did not use lesson plans. Instead, they rely on textbooks and, to a lesser extent, some teachers used schemes and records of work. However, the absence of these records did not compromise the objectives of the study because the available sources of qualitative data were adequate to answer the research questions.

¹⁰ The four sampled secondary schools are urban areas. They have good libraries with adequate books, sufficient classrooms, staffrooms, administration offices which are well furnished. They have sport facilities such football, netball and volleyball grounds. They have electricity and running water and toilets. They receive funding as Other Recurrent Transactions (ORT) from Government monthly to cater for the purchase of books, paying for utilities among other expenses. The amount is determined by the needs of each school. Each school is given ceiling of 34 Million Kwacha annually that is equivalent to US\$ 43,589.74 if the exchange rate is at US\$ 1 = MK 780.00.

¹¹ Schemes and Records of Work are school records derived from the syllabus in which a teacher plans what she/he is going to teach in a term and what she/he has taught. It is from this document that a teacher draws the lesson plans.

4.5.1 LESSON OBSERVATIONS

I conducted lesson observations in all the four conventional secondary schools. I participated in the study as a non-participant observer. For non-participant observation, a researcher does not participate in the activities of the group being observed, but rather she/he watches and records whatever is happening as an outsider. She/he is not directly involved in what is being observed. Fraenkel and Wallen (2006, p. 450) point out that “when a researcher chooses the role of non-participant, she identifies herself straight off as a researcher but makes no pretence of actually being a member of the group she is observing.” The last type is what we call naturalistic observation where the researcher chooses to observe research participants in the natural setting without manipulating the variables or control the activities of those being observed (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). The role of the researcher is to observe things as they unfold or happen. In this study, I started by disclosing my identity to all gatekeepers and the participants, including their classes and informed them that my role was to observe what was happening without participating in their activities.

In research, videotaping is used as a tool for research and documentation (Rosenstein, 2002; Jacobs et al., 1999; Nguyen & Thangen, 2017; Radisic & Baucal, 2016). During class observations, I used a video camera to capture what a teacher was doing. The camera faced where the teacher was and I did not capture what learners were doing unless they were given a task do such as group work. Other data were collected in form of fieldnotes to fill the gaps that was not captured by the camera. This data was the documentation of certain teaching and learning practices observed in the classroom, but they were not captured and filmed by video camera. I documented all such kinds of data as field notes.

Quoting Collier, Rosenstein (2002, p. 6) says that video allows the researcher to deal with the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ “of behaviour because it can capture the ‘sparkle and character’ of an event.” She goes on to point out that in the same manner the quality of other forms of traditional observation relies on the skill of the observer, likewise the quality of videotaping also depends on the skill of the one who is filming. She, then,

states that the “advantage of the videotaped observation is that the eye of the camera records all that is within its view” (ibid, p. 6). This is one of the advantages that video observation has over traditional observations because it is not selective and cannot leave out the most important information. This is why Rosenstein (2002, p. 7) points out that “the videotaped record, although selective in the positioning of the camera and the breadth of the lens, still records all that is within its view. Such an inclusive record can then be analysed by multiple viewers.” This process enhances the accuracy of what is recorded because the recorded behaviour is an accurate representative account of what happened and can provide a good feedback on what happened during interviews, data analysis or during writing of the thesis (Rosenstein, 2002; Jacobs et al., 1999).

Other advantages of video recording during class observation is that it can be engaged to illustrate teacher’s patterns of behaviour. The video can capture an illustrative quality of teaching in the classroom. It can also be used to document the record behaviour in the classroom. Most importantly, Rosenstein observes that in a video recording the

focus of attention lies not only in the performance of an individual, but rather in the particular dynamic of the interaction between or among individuals. The important element in interactional assessment is the behaviour of a person vis-a-vis the people around him/her, or the way s/he communicates with those around him (2002, p. 17).

This makes the video recording a critical tool in data collection, analysis and interpretation. It becomes an essential mechanism during video-stimulated recall interviews.

Before each class observation, I also told the teacher that I would not interfere with class activities throughout the 40-minutes lesson as my primary duty is to observe and record what goes on in the classroom and learn from him. In all four sampled schools, I observed two 40-minute lessons. Each teacher chose his own topic to teach according to what was planned. The topics taught during class observations were: (1) National Symbols, (2) World Cooperations, and (3) Sectors of Malawi Economy.

During observations, I was interested to observe instructional pacing, feedback given to students by teacher about the accuracy of a Social Studies task given; instructional material use generated by the teacher or other materials use as primary resource for students' work as opposed to textbooks; cooperative work among learners during lesson and group arrangement, including instructions given to the group before, during and after the task, and how the teacher managed the classroom (particularly to what Bernstein calls as regulative discourse). For group arrangement, I wanted to assess the clarity of the task given. The exercise was aimed at determining what learners do if given the task, and what the role of the teacher is. This was to understand classification, that is whether it was weak or strong.

After recording the lessons, I transcribed the recorded lessons and coded the transcripts. The video recordings helped to have a clear picture of what was happening in the classroom visually. This enhanced trustworthiness that will be discussed later in this chapter.

Like any data collecting method, observation is not without its challenges. One of the challenges is what Fraenkel and Wallen (2006, p. 452) note that "the presence of an observer can have a considerable impact on the behaviour of those being observed and, hence, on the outcome of a study." One possible challenge is that the observational data can reflect biases and viewpoints of the observer. This is why I introduced myself to the teacher and asked him to introduce me to the class before starting the exercise of observation as a means of data collection. Besides introduction, I designed the data collection to have two observations per teacher. This was designed for the class to become familiar with me so that they should be less disturbed with my presence. The second observation was to ensure that the teachers and their classes are familiar with my presence as a researcher and allow them to do things as they do in normal classes.

4.5.2 VIDEO-STIMULATED RECALL INTERVIEWS

Video-stimulated recall interviewing is defined as a "research technique in which participants view video-recordings of themselves participating in a particular event"

(Nguyen & Thangen, 2017, p. 5). In this process, the video-recording is employed as a prompt to help research participants recall their thoughts in relation to their observed actions as they happened during the time of being observed. It stimulates the participants to reflect on the observed actions and provide explanations for their actions (Ngeyen & Thangen, 2017; Radisic & Baucal, 2016; Jacobs, et al., 1999).

As indicated above, I observed and video-recorded their lessons and then asked them why they structured the lessons in that way during video-stimulated recall interviews. This helped me to have a better understanding of the teachers' epistemological assumptions and beliefs about the pedagogy chosen in that lesson. The clip, which we viewed together with the teacher, was jointly selected by the teacher and me as a researcher.

Teachers were asked eleven pre-set questions as follow ups to lesson observations (see Appendix A). All questions intended to provide a better understanding of teachers' pedagogic practices and choices/preferences. I designed a set of questions to focus on how teachers practice and make choices of the pedagogies and about the significance of teaching Social Studies as a subject.

This is the reason why video-stimulated recall interviews were designed as a follow up to class observations. Video-stimulated recalls were intended to investigate how teachers understand the forms and substance of the prescribed pedagogy by the Malawi Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and how their pedagogic beliefs inform their everyday practice in the classroom.

The video-stimulated recall interviews started with the introduction to the participating teachers on the purpose of the study. They were conducted with an individual teacher a day after the lesson video-recording. Each interview session lasted less than 30 minutes and were audiotaped. The video prompts were watched on the laptop screen to stimulate the participants to reflect on their actions observed. As indicated above, I also took

observational field notes that served the purpose of capturing nonverbal signals and any other comments that research participants made after the video-recording had stopped.

While the video-stimulated recall technique provided an opportunity to research participants to view themselves in action as a means of recalling their thoughts of the events as they happened, some teachers when watching what happened were somehow defensive in their explanations and they attributed practices to time factors in such a way that they did not answer the question directly. However, this did not compromise the objectives of the study because the follow up questions helped them to give an explanation of their actions.

Besides the questions asked that are in Appendix A, I asked other questions as follow up in seeking clarity from the four teachers observed. It was during these interviews that I got a clear perspective on teachers' pedagogic practice and perceptions that they have towards the prescribed learner-centred pedagogy in Social Studies in Malawi.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS and its TECHNIQUES

Ensor and Hoadley (2004, p. 83) define data analysis as “an iterative process that brings theory and data into dialogue with each other in order to generate categories and claims.” In this sense, data analysis should be considered as a process beginning from the time when data is being collected.

4.6. 1 LANGUAGE of DESCRIPTION as a TOOL for DATA ANALYSIS

Bernstein distinguishes between an internal language of description and an external language of description. He defines an internal language of description as the “syntax whereby a conceptual language is created” while the external language of description is the “syntax whereby the internal language can describe something other than itself” (Bernstein, 1996, pp. 135 – 136). In this sense, the internal language of description can be considered as the theoretical framework while the external language of description is the language that describes things out of the theory within the given field being investigated (Ensor & Hoadley, 2004; Morais, 2006). It is the internal language of

description that allows the development of the external language of description to direct the empirical research (Morais, 2006). It also provides the platform where the theory dialogues with the empirical world (Bernstein, 2000; Morais, 2006, Ensor & Hoadley, 2004). The empirical data, in this study, refers to classroom life – what goes on in the classroom. The external language of description focuses on the social relations that constitute pedagogic activities in a classroom setting. Morais (2006, p. 5) states that the “social relations of the pedagogic activity refer to pedagogic text and context, and constitute the empirical level of the research methodology.” In this regard, it shows how power and control relations in a classroom work and inform us about the teacher’s pedagogic practices and preference.

Ensor and Hoadley (2004) note that Bernstein puts emphasis on the significance of internal and external languages on how they are loosely articulated to allow the external language developed in dialogue with the data, and to challenge the internal language and promote its change and development. This articulation could allow the research participants to insert their own voices and challenge the claims shaped by the study. In this way, the concept of language description as espoused by Bernstein has both theoretical and ethical imperative (ibid). In this regard, the data analysed was vetted by teachers to ascertain whether what is reported reflects what transpired in the classroom.

The external language of description enables the researcher to describe and analyse the phenomenon in a given field of study. This is possible because the theory dialogues with the data in the empirical world which is the classroom life (Ensor & Hoadley, 2004). It is theory that provides models, which give the means to decide what counts as data and these data are to be analysed (ibid). This is why I engaged Bernstein pedagogic discourse, particularly the notions of regulative and discursive discourses, on the one hand, to engage with empirical data that responds to the research questions, and on the other hand, to describe and analyse the question being investigated.

Table 2. Specific categories of Pedagogic analysis in the Classroom

Instructional (Discursive)Rules using Framing	Specific bases Extent to which a teacher controls selection of the content; Extent to which a teacher controls sequencing of the content; Extent to which a teacher controls pacing of the content Extent to which a teacher makes explicit or implicit rules for evaluation of learner’s performance
Regulative	Extent to which a teacher controls interactions between learners Extent to which a teacher makes formal or informal social relations between learners and herself

In order to analyse this data, I adapted Bertram’s (2008) external language of description for analysing Grade 10 history classrooms as shown in Appendix K, which she adapted from (Hoadley, 2005). The descriptors provided in it is helpful to analyse pedagogic practices of Social Studies teacher, using discursive rules for selection, sequencing, pacing and evaluation, as well as hierarchical rules for framings. It used the criteria to describe what happened in the classrooms during data collection, with particular interest on teacher’s pedagogic activities. The symbols used in each table explains the extent of control. F⁺⁺ or F⁺ is a symbol used to code the pedagogic practices showing the extent to which the teacher controls the process of teaching and learning as per the activity of learning. Where the power of the teacher is explicit, all such instructional activities are coded strongly framed with symbol F⁺⁺ or F⁺. Symbol F⁻ or F⁻ shows the extent to which learners participate in the teaching and learning process. This is where the message shows that the control of instructional practice is in the hands of the learners, and the power of the teacher is implicit. For example, learners could have control over the discussion and presentation of the findings of the class activities without the teacher’s interference. The role of the teacher is that of guiding or facilitating the process of instructional activities, which are coded as weakly framed with the symbol F⁻ or F⁻. Where the value of framing is not clear, I will use symbol F^o.

For regulative rule, I am using symbol C⁺⁺ or C⁺ if the instructional or regulative activity is strongly classified while symbol C^{- -} or C⁻ is used when they are weakly classified.

4.6.2 CONTENT ANALYSIS as a TECHNIQUE of DATA ANALYSIS

Fraenkel and Wallen (2006, p. 483) defines content analysis as a “technique that enables researchers to study human behaviour in an indirect way through an analysis of their communication.” It is considered as the most appropriate technique for analysing data obtained through observations and interviews (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Elo & Zyngas, 2008). This is the reason why it has been selected to analyse data for this study. As explained above, the data was collected through lesson observations, observational field notes and video-stimulated recall interviews to respond to the research questions, as guided by Bernstein’s theory of pedagogic device.

In qualitative research, categories are analysed either inductively or deductively or both depending on how the data is generated (Pope. et al., 2000). If it has been generated using a theoretical framework, it can be deductively analysed. Contrary to inductive analysis, deductive content analysis intends to generate data in order to support or refute a theory or hypothesis (Creswell, 2003).

Informed by analytical and theoretical ideas, the data could be further refined and reduced in number by grouping them together. This is helpful to select key themes for further analysis (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). Pope et al., (2000, p. 116) point out that “although the framework approach reflects the original accounts and observations of the people studied ..., it starts deductively from pre-set aims and objectives.” This is why I relied on research questions and Bernstein’s theory to analyse the data collected because the interpretations of the data are informed by theory (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Dean, 2018).

The data generated through video-stimulated interviews were analysed using the notions of framing and classification. Framing was employed to analyse to ascertain the extent of control in a lesson between the teacher and learners regarding the process of transmission and acquisition. It was used to analyse the selection, sequencing, pacing and evaluation. Similarly, the classification was used to analyse the data to ascertain the degree of power between subjects as well as agents. The classification relations used to code the data were inter-disciplinary, intra-disciplinary and inter-discursive relationships as indicated in rubrics in Appendix K.

The process of analysis started by transcribing the video-recordings of the four Social Studies teachers in which the virtual were converted into data. The data was deductively analysed using Berntein's notions of framing and classification. Then the data was categorised into episodes depending on teaching and learning methods used by individual teachers and tasks given in a lesson. The episode can be defined as the chunk of time in the classroom when a particular activity is happening (Bertram, 2008). Each episode was coded the value of framing and classification using the categories indicated in Table 2.

After this step, the data was categorised into episode using the notions of framing and classification. In order to operationalise the concepts of framing and classification, the rubric indicators in Appendix K were used to assign the value to each episode. The rubric indicators were employed to speak to data collected in Grade Ten (10) classroom for Social Studies. The tables in Chapter Five are product of this analysis.

During data analysis, after the field work, some gaps were noted. I made a follow up with the teachers interviewed through phone calls and conducted interviews through phone conversations in seeking clarity and have a clear perspective on certain areas regarding what was observed. For example, during data collection it was not clear what Teacher D meant that syllabus coverage is a challenge to pedagogic practice. It is through telephone conversation he was able to clarify what he meant. It is also through

telephone call that I came to know the funding conventional secondary schools receive from the Government.

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This section examines the ethical questions regarding this study before, during and after data collection and analysis and in writing of the dissertation.

The consent of the research participants is critical to any research because they do not associate the study with gatekeepers but themselves (Kelly, 2006). Hence, it was imperative for all gatekeepers and participants to grant permission or consent before allowing me to conduct the research. I started by seeking permission from Malawi Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (see Appendix B) and the University of KwaZulu-Natal ethical committee, which were granted respectively (Appendexes C & E, in that order). This is why the permission to conduct research in sampled schools were sought from participating teachers in the study through the headteachers (Appendix A). Participants voluntarily consented to participate in the study.

As per policy, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology is the main gatekeeper which is mandated to grant permission to any person who wants to conduct research in any of its schools. When the permission was sought, it granted, as indicated in its letter (see Appendix C). Then I contacted the Education Division managers and then the head teachers of the sampled schools, who also granted permission based on the letter from the headquarters of the Ministry of Education. The participating teachers were also contacted through their head teachers, who voluntarily consented to participate in the study.

This was followed by a preconference with each class teacher with the purpose of briefing him on ethical considerations during data collection and reporting. The purpose was to brief the teacher about the exercise and the purpose of the study. I also briefed them about my role as a researcher regarding data collection. The teachers were briefed

on the use of the video that it would focus on them because they are the subjects of the study.

Because the study targeted secondary school teachers, the interview questions and procedures fell well within the boundaries of normal schooling practices and the language of communication was English. Permission that the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and head teachers (school principals) provided was adequate. During data collection and writing of the thesis, I ensured that the integrity, respect and confidentiality of research participants were observed and attained. In seeking informed consent, the research participants were informed that they are free to decline to participate or withdraw at any point. They were also told that their names would remain anonymous throughout the process of the research (Newkirk, 1996). They were also informed that the data collected was purely for research purposes and will not be used against them at any point.

All the participating teachers introduced me as the researcher to the class and that I was there to learn what was being taught. This made learners to be at ease (Nelly, 2006). This helped me to study teachers and learners' activities in their natural setting and describe what was observed. Newkirk (1996, p. 45) notes that "the researcher has ethical obligations to the reader to honestly represent the data he or she gathers." My duty in this study is to describe what exactly was observed in classrooms and quoting what participants said because the credibility of the research findings deals with how well the categories are formulated through Bernstein's theory (Elo & Zyngas, 2008).

4.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Ensor and Hoadley (2004, p. 102) note that "trustworthiness ultimately is a matter of rigour, and the establishment of clear criteria of worth, rather than taking up epistemological positions and asserting that particular data collecting strategies or modes of analysis necessarily fall into line behind them." This is why this section describes how rigour was ensured, and how a clear criterion of worth was established in this study. This is critical if the findings of the research were to be accepted, and that

the data collected and analysed were credible. It also describes the process of analysis. The findings of this study were detailed in order to enable readers to have a clear understanding of how the analysis was conducted, its strengths and limitations. This is critical to trustworthiness of any qualitative study (Elo & Zyngas, 2008).

To ensure that trustworthiness of the study is attained, lesson observations were properly recorded using the video camera and later transcribed. Video-stimulated recall interviews were recorded using audiotape. The video camera and audiotape were engaged to ensure that an accurate account of the lesson observed and interviews conducted are well captured. A thorough discussion on trustworthiness will be discussed in the subsections below.

4.8.1 CREDIBILITY

Credibility refers to the extent the research findings reflect participants' lived experiences or realities. Agee argues that "researcher's work is characterised by the degree to which he is able to clarify what goes on in such places, to reduce the puzzlement – what manner of men are these. Qualitative inquires involve asking the kinds of questions that focus on the why and how of human interactions" (2009, p. 431 – 432). Following this pattern of thought, it is important to describe what Social Studies teachers taught and what was observed.

To achieve this, Bernstein's concepts of classification and framing were used to analyse data recorded during classroom observations. The filmed lesson observation was replayed during post-observational period when I asked the teacher to explain his pedagogic practice based on the observed lesson. This gave "an opportunity for participants to directly share their reality" (Creswell, 2009, p. 180) and clarify certain areas that I might not have grasped during lesson observations. The filmed lesson observations enhanced the accuracy of the observations and helped the researcher to ask practical questions as a follow-up to class-observations. This provided a better perspective about pedagogical choice, preference and practice in Malawi secondary schools. In this exercise, my role was to describe what was observed and said by the

research participants about their classroom experience. To construct the reality from the participants' perspective, I focused on understanding why and how teachers do things in that way in their natural settings. I participated in this study as a nonparticipant observer (McMillan 2004; Creswell, 2009).

Credibility was also strengthened by how records of the data collected were maintained. The data collected was transcribed, coded and interpreted in line with the research questions and guided by Bernstein's theory. The filmed lesson observations were digitised and kept in the laptop for reference during the writing of the thesis. Similarly, the data gathered through field notes and telephone interviews, after analysing, were kept in my laptop for a given period until the goals of the study are accomplished. To ensure credibility in this study, triangulation was done by engaging several strategies for data collection and analysis, as explained above.

4.8.2 POSITION of the RESEARCHER in the STUDY

Recognising that I am a Principal of a College where teacher education is offered and that some of the teachers teaching at the sampled secondary schools might have been its products, I occupied the position of a nonparticipant observer throughout the exercise. However, those interviewed were not graduates of my university. My role was to observe, record and describe what the research participants said and did. To avoid observer's bias, I engaged video-recording during class observations and video-stimulated recall interviews to enhance accuracy of what research participants said and did in reporting.

4.9 CONCLUSION

The chapter has highlighted the research design and methodology engaged in this study. It examined the paradigm selected to guide the study in data collection and analysis, as well as the writing of the thesis. The paradigm selected is interpretivism and I employed a qualitative approach.

Because the study uses Social Studies teachers as a case to explain how Malawi secondary school teachers understand pedagogy and pedagogic practices and make choices, this chapter has examined the term ‘case study’ and explored how it could be useful to explain the question being investigated and provide insights for the study. The methods employed to generate data were: video-recorded class observations, and video-stimulated recall interviews. The sampling techniques used were purposive and convenience sampling.

The chapter has also examined how the data collected was analysed using content analysis. It has discussed ethical issues regarding the research. It has also examined trustworthiness of the research.

CHAPTER FIVE

Presentation of Data and Findings of the Study

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents data analysis and findings of the study. The data were collected using lesson observations and video-stimulated recall interviews. The data gathered was analysed using Bernstein's notions of classification and framing, and using interpretivist paradigm, as explained in Chapter Three. As explained in the last chapter, the analysis focused on the 'what' and the 'how' of any transmission with regard to the relationship between the transmitter and the acquirer.

I collected qualitative data to answer the following questions:

- 1) What are the pedagogical practices of selected teachers of Social Studies ?
- 2) Why do teachers make the pedagogic choices that they do in a class setting?

The data generated and analysed respond to these two questions, and will be presented in the next section.

5.1 PRESENTATION of the DATA

This section displays the data as coded and categorised following Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse using the notions of classification and framing. As explained in Chapter Three, the biographical descriptions of teachers and names of their schools will remain anonymous. This is why I have used alphabetical letters such A, B, C and D to represent the names of the participating teachers in this study. Teachers A and B are those teaching in a patriarchal society while Teachers C and D teach in matriarchal society but teacher D comes from the patriarchal society.

5.2 TEACHER A

Teacher A has a Diploma in Education. At the time of interviews, he was pursuing studies towards the award of a Bachelor of Education degree. He was teaching a class of 50 learners. The topic observed was National Symbols. He has been teaching Social Studies for a period of nine years. He was from a patriarchal society and teaching in the same society.

5.2.1 CLASS OBSERVATIONS

I observed two lessons but the discussion presented in this chapter is that of the second lesson. The first lesson was not different from the second one in the way they were structured. The lesson taught was transcribed and coded. The lesson taught was for 40 minutes. The lesson of Teacher A can be categorised into three episodes, namely, pair discussion, and explanation punctuated with Question and Answer (Q & A). His lesson came from unit 11 of the prescribed Textbook 1 authored by Mkomba and Majamanda (2013) and the extract used is in Appendix H . It was only the teacher that had a textbook as it was the case with other teachers who participated in this study.

5.2.2 DESCRIPTION of LESSON (INSTRUCTIONAL DISCOURSE)

The first Episode was characterised by explanation on previous topic, as part of the introduction of the lesson followed by pair discussion. The lesson began with a revision of the previous lesson where Teacher A explained about the importance of civil society. The selection, sequencing and pacing were very strongly framed because it was the teacher who always determined the knowledge to be transmitted and the order of transmission. Learners were just listening. The pace was strictly controlled by the teacher. The evaluation was coded but it was very weakly framed because the teacher did not make any attempt to make the requirement for the successful production of a text available to learners.

Then he introduced the new topic for the lesson, that is National Symbols as part of the Republic of Malawi (See Appendix H). This is a second episode in which he briefly explained the concept “national symbol” with reference to National Flag of Malawi and

asked questions on the importance of freedom fighters. He then asked learners to discuss the meaning of colours for the national flag in pair discussion for a period of five minutes and another five minutes for presentation of pair discussion for sampled groups. He also distributed the articles discussing debates over the idea concerning the change of national flag from sampled newspapers written between 2010 and 2012 to pairs of learners, and asked learners to read debates regarding the change of colours for the Malawian flag. The teacher got the feedback from learners through teacher-led questions such as:

Teacher: *What do the old Malawian flag colour mean?*

Learner 1: *Black represented indigenous people.*

Learner 2: *Green represented nature.*

Learner 3: *The red colour is for the people who fought for independence as freedom-fighters”*

Teacher: *What new symbol was added on the 2010 flag?*

Learner: *It was the full white sun.*

Teacher A determined the selection of knowledge, task and activities throughout this episode. Learners had only an opportunity to vary the selection of knowledge according to their production during pair discussion. Hence, the selection was coded as strong framing. Teacher A did not provide a detailed feedback on learners’ report or ask further questions on what students answered for students to give reasons for their answers. He just went on teaching using lecture method, as described in the second episode. Thus, the evaluation is coded as weakly framed.

The third episode was characterised by chalk-and-talk with teacher-led question and answer. Teacher A explained that the National Symbols are stated in the Constitution of Malawi and that it reflects what Malawians are. He gave an example of the National Flag as one of the national symbols and explained the history connected to the national flag. The questions-and-answer, which was teacher-led, was punctuated with

explanations. After explaining about the colours of the National Flag of Malawi, he asked students:

Teacher: Why did some people fight for our freedom?

Student: So that we may be freed from colonial captivity.

Teacher: How is it presented in the colours of our flag?

Learner: It is symbolised by red colour that represents blood.

Then Teacher A said “Thanks for your answers “ and continued teaching before he was interrupted by one student, as I will explain later. Teacher A did not evaluate the responses that students gave or requested them to provide reasons for their responses in order for students to produce the legitimate text (Morais & Pires, 2002). He just accepted their responses and moved on. This shows that the evaluative rule was implicit. Bernstein (2003, p. 201) categorically says that the “pedagogy works by making available to the child what is missing in the product.” In this way, the evaluative criteria are made explicit and it makes the learner to be aware of their production, which Teacher A did not do. Thus the evaluation was coded as weak framing.

One student asked: “Sir you have not explained about other colours particularly you did not explain why there is white colour in the new flag.” Teacher A answered that white colour shows that Malawi is a multiracial country where people of different colours are accepted. In conclusion, he summarised the lesson by asking questions on the National Flag of Malawi as he maintained his style of teaching. He asked:

Teacher: In 2010 and 2012 why was the flag of Malawi was changed and what was its relevance?

Student A (girl): The former President Dr Bingu wa Mutharika said that we are no longer at independence to have the rising sun but we have to start developing our country. Therefore, we have to have a full bright sun on our flag.

Student B (boy): so that it should reflect the development the country needs.

Teacher A accepted the answers given by students without asking them to give reasons for their answers. He just gave a summary of the lesson by explaining on national symbols and told the learners that they would continue the lesson on Public Seal in the next class. He then explained that the full white sun symbol was put on the new flag to indicate the economic growth of Malawi as opposed to the half raising sun symbol on the 1964 flag, which shows dawn of independence for the country.

Table 3. Pedagogic Analysis using Framing Teacher A

Teacher A's Pedagogic Practice for a 40-minutes Lesson							
Episode	Time	Type of activity	Content	Framing			
				Selection	Sequence	Pacing	Evaluating
1	5 min.	Explanation	Revision on previous topic: Civil Society	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺⁺	F ^{- -}
2	10 min.	Pair discussions	Discussing meaning of the colours of the Malawi National flag. Reading and discussing articles from one of Daily newspapers	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻
3	25 min.	Teacher-led questions and answers punctured with explanation	Asking questions and assessing students' answers on the importance of freedom fighters. Explanation on colours of the National Flag of Malawi. Asking questions and assessing answers. Summarised the lesson on National Symbols.	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻

In Table 3, I have coded the selection of knowledge as very strongly framed with symbol F⁺⁺, for episode 2, because it was Teacher A who always selected knowledge for discussion and instructional activities. There were rare occasions where the selection varied according to learners' intervention. For example, there was one instance when he was explaining about why the Malawi flag has a red colour. He said that red colour symbolises the role that freedom fighters took to liberate the country from colonial

powers but he did not explain about other colours until a student asked. He did not ignore or dismissed the answer outright as did previously, but rather he accepted it and elaborated the answer that the white colour was included on the new flag to symbolise that Malawi is a multiracial country. Sequencing and pacing have been coded strongly framed because it was Teacher A who determined the order in which learning should happen, and he accepted few students' questions while answering few of them due to lack of time.

For episode 2, although learners had an opportunity to choose what was knowledge in pair discussion, it was the teacher who had control over which task, knowledge, order of learning, learners. The teacher only came in at the time when he asked them questions as a means of getting feedback from learners. This is why selection, sequencing and pacing are strongly framed. It was also the teacher who often mentioned time when learners were completing the pair discussion tasks and was in charge of the order of learning.

5.2.3 TEACHER A's REASONING and REFLECTION on his PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE

This section analyses between what teacher envisaged and what is enacted in pedagogic practices in classroom. Bertram (2012) observed that there is a difference between what a teacher envisages, enacts and experiences in a classroom. In an attempt to define reflective teaching, Reed et al., (2002, p. 257) define reflection-in-action as "insights teachers gain in the classroom, while they are at work", and they also defined reflection-on-action as "recalling, explaining and evaluating after a lesson and includes thinking about the reflections-in-action that were part of the lesson." They also point out that in research there is a "possibility of finding differences between what teachers 'said' and what they 'did'" (Reed et al., 2002, p. 257). In this regard, I wanted to understand the teacher's view on the lesson taught against his observed classroom behaviour.

I wanted to know whether the teacher had a clear understanding of the lesson taught. I asked him: Would you say that this lesson is typical of the lessons that you usually

teach? In what ways? He answered: “I might say “Yes” or “No”. I am saying No because I was not fully prepared for the lesson. I did not bring the required teaching and learning resources. On the other hand, I may say “Yes” because some of the teaching and learning methods such as Question and Answer and Pair group that I used in this lesson are my common methods, but cannot be compared to other previous lessons that I considered as the best in terms of how I used them today.”

From the responses of the teacher, it appears that the teacher’s pedagogic practices was influenced by lack of preparation and instructional resources yet he had time to prepare for the lesson and that school has adequate resources, such as textbooks in the library. I further asked him What was not in this lesson that was in the previous lessons that would necessitate you to describe them as the best? He replied: “In this lesson, there was no group work because I did not have enough time. This lesson also lacked teaching and learning resources such as pictures that could be used instead of the textbook that I had. This made students to have difficulties to see some of the features on the flag and Government logo, such as the eagle that I wanted them to see and have a clear picture of what I was teaching.”

When Teacher A identified some shortfalls of his lesson, I followed up with another question of how he thought he could improve his lesson. He answered: “One thing I will ensure is that the lesson is learner-centred. For this lesson, I was at the centre of the lesson. Next time, I want to bring learners at the centre of learning. I think that I could have done more than what I did. For example, I could have used other teaching and learning methods such group discussion in which students would have engaged in a meaningful way and present their group findings themselves on what they have discussed.” Teacher A assessed his pedagogic practices based on the prescribed pedagogy which is learner-centred. He seemed to believe that particular strategies for teaching (like group work) were the key aspects of learner-centredness, but he did not mention the substantive principles that underpin learner-centredness such as meaning-making (Brodie et al., 2002). In the way Teacher A compared group discussion method to other teaching and learning methods such as question-and-answer resonates with

what Brodie et al., (2002) describe that some teachers know the form of a pedagogy but without knowing the substance of it. The form refers to the outward appearance of that instructional method. Teacher A seems to focus on form without embracing or understanding the educational principles underpinning that instructional method, which is the substance. He cited lack of preparation and teaching and learning resources and time as the main factors that made him to teach in the way he did.

Although in responding to Question 2 of the interviews schedule , Teacher A answered that students were curious to know what was in the Constitution, he did not use that opportunity to engage them by asking questions to identify what was missing in their textual production during pair discussions or leading them to synthesize what they discussed in light of school knowledge in order to produce the legitimate text (Hoadley, 2006, 2018; Morais & Pires, 2002).

5.2.4 ANALYSIS of REGULATIVE DISCOURSE for TEACHER A's PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

Regarding the hierarchical rules, I now analyse the manner in which Teacher A positioned himself in his pedagogic practice. The hierarchical rule deals with the extent to which the teacher and learners have control over the order, character and manner of the conduct of students in relation to teacher and learner, and between learners with regard to framing (Hoadley, 2006). It can also refer to the strength between categories such as inter-discursive and intra-disciplinary relations, regarding classification (Bernstein, 2003; Morais, 2002).

With regard to movement between teacher and learners' space, Teacher A monitored what students were doing when he gave them a task to do during pair discussion and provided assistance. This activity was coded as strongly framed, because the pair discussions were regulated by the teacher. At intra-disciplinary relation level, Teacher A made reference to other contents of Social Studies particularly in the introduction although it was just at one occasion during revision work. For example, he explained the previous topic on the Civil Society related to the new topic, which was about the

main features and symbols of Malawi Constitution. He said that the civil society has a role in matters concerning the constitution, including how symbols were altered on the national flag. However, he did not make any attempt to make reference to everyday knowledge as all tasks require to work with topic “National Symbols” only. This is the reason why I coded this activity strongly classified for inter-discursive knowledge.

In the teacher’s reflection, he only referred to everyday knowledge in order to explain the meaning of the colour “red” in relation to the blood shed by freedom fighters and those who are killed during political demonstrations. For example, when explaining about the relationship of freedom fighters to the red colour on the national flag, he asked learners: “Can we say that those who were killed during 20 July 2012 demonstration died as freedom fighters?” Learners answered in chorus: No. He wanted to relate the topic to the recent knowledge learners had, but he did not engage learners further. He attributed failure to engage learners on what they know about the topic to lack of preparation and time on the part of Teacher A. Although time was alluded to as a contributing factor, Teacher A did not bring adequate teaching and learning resources such as textbooks. He was only one who had a prescribed textbook, which made learners to rely on what he was teaching. This was coded very strong classification (C⁺⁺).

In the video-stimulated interviews, he said that lack of preparation to bring teaching and learnings materials contributed to the limited success of lesson. He gave an example of learners not having the opportunity to see the picture of the eagle on the National Coat of Arms as it appears in the textbook excerpt below (Figure 4). Yet, in the textbook, there was a picture of the National Coat of Arms which he could have shown to the learners if he brought extra copies of textbooks instead of bringing the chart with the picture of Coat of Arms as he wanted. Failure to do this can largely be attributed to the teacher’s lack of preparedness, rather than limited time. The school had enough copies of textbooks that learners could have used within a period of 40 minutes.

In the 2010-2012 flag, the full bright sun reflected the development that has taken place in the country since the attainment of independence. However, in 2012 the full bright sun was again replaced by the original rising sun when a new government ushered into power.

2. National Coat of Arms

It is a design on a shield used as an emblem (symbol) by the nation. It has an insignia, crown, helmet and helmet cover. It has also a motto

(a short sentence or phrase used as a guide or rule of behaviour or as an expression of aims or ideals). The coat of arms has the rising sun at the top and bottom of the shield. The fish eagle and wavy bands on the shield symbolize Lake Malawi while the Lion and the Leopard guard the crest as a whole. The land at the base is the rugged Mount Mulanje. The crest bears the motto 'Unity and Freedom'. The Coat of arms for Malawi is used on government official papers.



Fig 11.2, The National Coat of Arms

3. The Public Seal

This is the official stamp of the office of the president. It is stamped on very important documents such as parliament bills and passports. The seal is also used to certify legal documents such as birth and death certificates issued by the Registrar General. The public seal depicts the coat of arms with the words, "Republic of Malawi" around it.

4. The National Anthem

This is a national hymn and prayer. It is actually a patriotic song used on official occasions such as public meetings like the school assembly and international sporting events. It was composed by the late Michael Fredrick Lawrence Sauka who died in 1989.

5.2.5 ANALYSIS of TEACHER A's PRACTICE and CHOICE of PEDAGOGY

It appears that Teacher A's pedagogic practice and choice is influenced by availability of teaching and learning resources, and how prepared he is to teach. The teacher described pair discussion as learner-centred in the way it was conducted in the lesson observed. Although the instructional activity appears to be learner-centred, the time allocated was not sufficient for students to engage in the task given. In general, the lesson was strongly framed with regard to selection, sequencing and pacing from the instructional discourse.

In this lesson, the knowledge transmitted was strongly classified because there was no link made to everyday knowledge. It was Teacher A who had control over sequencing, selection and pacing. Learners were chorusing of correct answers and individual responses to questions that required recall. Therefore, it appears that there was no expectation for learners to explain or provide reasons for their answers or respond to high level cognitive questions.

5.3 TEACHER B

Teacher B is a holder of Diploma in Education. At the time of data collection, he was studying towards the award of a Bachelor of Education degree. He has been teaching Social Studies at secondary school level for a period of 18 years. On the day of class observation, he was teaching a class of 53 students.

5.3.1 CLASS OBSERVATIONS

The two classes that I observed were not different in the way it was structured. In analysing this class observation, I also used one lesson of the two observed for the sake of consistency. It was a 40-minute class. The way Teacher B taught the class could be categorised in three episodes. The first episode comprises what is often called chalk-and-talk and the second episode is question-answer method that brainstormed about the economy. The third episode is group work where learners discussed the task that the teacher gave them in which the teacher was only a guide or facilitator. The lesson discussed four sectors of the economy. Like Teacher A, he was also the only one who

had a textbook despite that the school has some textbooks in stock at its library. His lesson came from Unit 13 of the prescribed Textbook 2 written by Mkomba and Majamanda (2013) (see the the extract in Appendix D and F).

5.3.2 DESCRIPTION of LESSON (INSTRUCTIONAL DISCOURSE)

The topic of the lesson was sectors of the Malawi economy (See Appendix D). In Episode 1, Teacher B explained what ‘investment’ is and highlighted its types, and how it is connected to the new topic about sectors of the economy in Malawi. Teacher B revised what was learnt in the previous class on the topic “Investment”. He then asked the students to define the term ‘investment’ and one student answered that “it is the way people keep money”. Another student answered that “it is the capital that people keep to generate more money”. Although some students’ answers were not correct, Teacher B failed to provide corrective feedback. This is the reason why evaluation was coded weakly framed. The selection, sequencing and pacing were coded strong framing because it was the teacher who often determined what is knowledge to be transmitted including the transmission, as well as the pace at transmission happened. He only allowed learners’ participation through teacher-led questions and answers. For example, Teacher B continued to ask learners about the types of investment as follows:

Teacher: What are two types of investment?

Student A: It is physical investment.

Student B: It is financial investment.

Although the questions and answers required recalling rather than engaging learners on the topic under discussion, Teacher B accepted the learners’ answers and linked the previous lesson to the topic of the day, that is Sectors of Economy in Malawi by asking learners to ‘Define the term “economy”.’

Teacher B asked learners to brainstorm on the term “economy” in pairs for three (3) minutes. This was Episode 2 and lasted for five (5) minutes. Then he asked learners to give the feedback of their discussion through teacher-led question. He just sampled few students from pairs. Students answered:

Student Y: This is how people keep money for their future use.

Student X: It is a proper way of food consumption in the country.

Student Z: It is an activity that refers to the production and management of goods and services at local, regional and international levels.

Teacher B consolidated the answers of the students by defining “economy” as the way how people earn a living or money. The evaluation was coded very weak because the teacher accepted correct answers from learners’ feedback without elaborating on them. The selection was coded as strongly framed because it is the teacher who decided what knowledge to be transmitted although on rare occasions the selection varied according to learners’ production as they responded to questions asked by the teacher. Similarly, the sequencing and pacing were coded strong framing because it was the teacher who had control over the order of knowledge to be transmitted and the pace at which sequence was happening.

Episode 3 was characterised with questions and answers. Teacher B started this episode by pasting a chart on the chalkboard with drawings and captions that illustrate Malawi’s sectors of economy. The chart was taken from the textbook (see Appendix D). He asked learners: “What do you see in the picture?” The first student answered, “People catching fish”; the second student said, “I see the Lake” and the last said, “fishing net”. Teacher B summarised that fishing is one of the sectors of economy in Malawi. He then asked learners to mention other sectors of the economy and students mentioned business, farming, selling of snacks, mining, and tourism. Teacher B summarised the sectors of the economy in Malawi into four categories, namely: farming, fishing, forestry and tourism. He removed mining because it occurs at small scale in Malawi, compared to the four aforementioned sectors of the economy. This selection was strongly framed because it was the teacher who selected knowledge to be transmitted through teacher-led questions and sequencing because it was the teacher who also determined the order in which learning must happen.

Evaluation was coded strongly framed because learners are given an opportunity to provide their reasoning for their answers. For example, Teacher B asked these questions:

Teacher: What is the backbone of Malawi economy?

Student: It is farming.

Teacher: Who can explain why farming is considered as the backbone of Malawi economy?

Student: In Malawi, farmers plant tobacco, tea, coffee and other crops to be used in industries to raise money.

Teacher: What she is trying to say is that all products manufactured in the factories are from farm produce, such as cooking oil comes from sunflower. This is the reason why farming, compared to mining which occurs at small scale, is regarded the main backbone of Malawi economy.

In this case, Teacher B defined and explained concepts through questioning. In this way, he makes specific comments of what constitutes an appropriate production, and it enables learners to learn the legitimate text and give correct answers in future (Morais, 2002).

Teacher B asked questions to elicit everyday knowledge from students by asking questions. For example, he asked the students: “Explain how people earn a living at home?” This was intended to elicit learners’ everyday knowledge on the topic being taught. The knowledge was weakly classified because there was some connection between school knowledge and local knowledge. However, this question came from the lower level of the Bloom’s taxonomy which did not encourage learners to engage with issues or go beyond the level of memorisation. Although his questioning style did not promote cognitive development in learners, he managed to provide space for them to give reasoning for their answers. For example, after group presentations, he asked learners to mention other sectors of the economy. One student answered that it is taxes paid by civil servants and another student added Value-Added Tax (VAT). The teacher further asked, “Is this type of tax (VAT) paid by civil servants?” Students responded,

“No!” Then he asked, “Explain how different is VAT from other taxes and how government collects it?” One student answered that it is the tax collected from all goods sold and Government collected tax from the owners of businesses that sell those goods. Such questions were not higher order to promote learning among students in the classroom but the teacher asked learners to provide reasons for their answers. Here, evaluation was coded strongly framed.

After Teacher B summarised the definition of “economy”, he asked the class to get into four groups according to the four sectors of the economy written on the chart that he pasted on the chalkboard. This is Episode 4. He gave clear instructions that each group should choose a leader to guide the discussion and the secretary to record the discussion. Each group was assigned to discuss how the Government earns money through farming, forestry, fishing and tourism. The discussion was for ten (10) minutes. He said that it was the duty of the secretary to make a presentation. When students broke into groups, I observed that Teacher B was visiting each group to monitor what was going on and encourage students to participate in the discussion. When the time was over for group discussion, he dissolved the groups. I observed that some groups were too big for effective engagement of group members. One group had 13 members for which some members did not take part in the discussion either by choice or because of time¹². The teacher then asked the secretaries to come in front of the class and make presentations on the topics they were given as mentioned above.

During discussion, learners had an opportunity to vary the selection of knowledge and when making presentations, some of their suggestions were accepted although the teacher added information. For example, the group presenting on forestry mentioned that the government can earn money through the selling of timber. Other group added that timber can earn the country forex. Then the teacher accepted learners’ answers and added that some of the timbers have been used to roof buildings, including the

¹² I did not interview students about why they were not taking part because it was outside the scope of this study. The view given is that of the researcher.

classroom which they were learning in. This selection of the knowledge to be transmitted was coded as strongly framed.

After presentations, it was when the teacher consolidated what students presented. This episode's selection and pacing could be described as strongly framed because the tasks were selected by the teacher and it was the teacher who was controlling the time for discussion but to some extent, sequencing could be described as weakly framed because learners had an opportunity to vary the sequence of transmission during group discussions. Although the teacher exercised some control over pace, he remained open to variation. For instance, he asked whether all groups had finished the tasks given. When he was told that two groups were yet to complete, he extended the time by two minutes to enable them conclude the discussion. In this episode, the pacing could be described as mixed.

Table 4. Pedagogic Analysis using Framing

Teacher B's Pedagogic Practice for a 40-minute Lesson							
Episode	Time	Type of Activity	Content	Framing			
				Selection	Sequence	Pacing	Evaluating
1	5 min.	Teacher explanation	Revised the previous topic about investment Explanation about Sectors of the Economy, Summarising lesson by asking questions	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻
2	7 min.	Pair Discussion,	Students brainstorming the meaning of sectors of the economy and making presentation	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻
3	8 min.	Teacher-led question and answer	Asking learners to explain how they earn a living at family level. Asking students on the economy and sectors of the economy. Summarising the lesson by asking questions	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁺⁺
4	20 min.	Group Discussion	Discussion on how the Government of Malawi earns money through Farming, Fishing, Forestry and Tourism. Secretaries making presentations	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ^o	F ⁺

In this episode (4), I have coded evaluative rules as strongly framed because evaluative rules were explicit and clear. Teacher B always made the evaluative rules available through exposition and explication as he did in the example given when he was clarifying why farming is considered as the backbone of Malawi's economy. He was able to define and explain the meaning of concepts, as explained in the section describing the pedagogic practice. He also managed to address key aspects of knowledge through questioning and explication on why farming, fishing, tourism and forestry are regarded as sectors of Malawi's economy. He made it clearly how a task given will be completed by specifying time for instructional activity and who shall do what.

5.3.3 TEACHER B's REASONING and REFLECTION on the PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE

As explained above, the purpose of this section is to analyse the reflection on the relationship between teacher's envisaged and enacted pedagogic practices in the classroom.

Like Teacher A, his pedagogic practices appear to have been influenced by the government's policy, rather than what his environment demands. For example, when I asked Teacher B during video-stimulated interviews: "Would you say that this lesson is typical of the lessons that you usually teach? In what ways?" He answered, "Yes, because it is based on the policy of participatory approach". This response is largely influenced by policy, as explained in Chapter Two and partly because the Grade 10 Social Studies syllabus states, "This curriculum puts emphasis on student-centred teaching and learning approaches, including continuous assessment" (Malawi Institute of Education, 2013, p. vii).

I also observed that Teacher B drew all of his questions from lower order of the Blooms Taxonomy. It was intriguing to note that even when Teacher B wanted to make follow up on what the learners had learnt through questioning, he resorted to asking questions

low order. I asked, “I observed you asking follow-up questions, why did you ask such questions?” He responded that:

as a teacher, I asked such questions to know who is able to answer what they have learnt so that I can help those who cannot answer the questions properly. It is an assessment tool for the class, and that the feedback is important in teaching because it helps the teacher to assess whether the lesson was successful. This will help me to revise the lesson if it was not successful, or to help students who are struggling.

While the motive of asking questions was good, it is the nature of questions that was problematic. It appears that Teacher B uses the question and answer approach to identify learners’ understanding, motivate students to participate in the process of teaching and learning, and for assessment. Nevertheless, his questions do not promote critical thinking among learners because they focus on recalling rather than on reasoning. This approach of pedagogic practice fosters rote learning that does not engage learners with cognitive process, which could help them to carry the learned skills, competences and knowledge outside the classroom (Hoadley, 2018). His response indicates a strong framing of the selection of the knowledge to be transmitted. This means that the teacher did not tell learners what is expected of them or tell them what is missing from their textual production.

Teacher B’s assessment of his lesson is interesting. I asked him: “What would you need to improve if anything in your lesson delivery?” He answered,

In this lesson, I did not have adequate teaching and learning materials to make the lesson more effective as I wished. Therefore, additional teaching and learning resources were required. I used different teaching methods, such as Q & A, Group Discussion and pair. From my point of view, the way I used Q & A method was teacher-centred because it was me who dominated in asking the questions, but I considered the Group Discussion and Pair Work discussion as learner-centred because the whole work was done by students themselves where my role was to facilitate learning and encourage them to participate in the discussion.

Reading through the answers, it shows that Teacher B, just like Teacher A, focuses on what Brodie et al., (2002) describe the form of Learner-centred pedagogy without embracing the substance of the task, that is, the principles of the learning although to some extent, he attempted to use elements of it in group discussion.

5.3.4 ANALYSIS of REGULATIVE DISCOURSE for TEACHER B's PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

Regarding learners doing routine activities in the classroom, it was observed that when learners were involved in group discussion, they were self-regulating. Learners made a choice to belong to a group and seating arrangement were altered by learners themselves. This is coded as weakly framed.

There were some didactic instructions from the teacher concerning learning and discipline. For example, if students wanted to contribute to the learning process, they could raise a hand and it was the teacher who would regulate her/his class activities. Teacher B was listening to learners' presentations on the instructional tasks given. He monitored the movement of learners who come and go out of the classroom. I coded this as strongly framed. He allowed interaction between learners and himself and encouraged learners' relations to develop in class through group work in which he asked questions or give clarity to issues learners were discussing. For example, he found students discussing on forestry without referring to the school woodlot and asked them: "What lessons do you draw from school's woodlot from your discussion?" In this case, the hierarchical rules were coded weakly framed.

With regard to intra-disciplinary relations, Teacher B very often made reference to other content of Social Studies (SS). For example, in the introduction he made links between investment and sectors of the economy. This is thus weakened classification intra-disciplinary relations. In a task that requires an engagement with Social Studies' topic, he makes some reference to everyday knowledge through deployment of concepts. For example, he asked learners how their families earned a living. Students responded as follows:

Student W: through doing piecework

Student X: through farming

Student Y: through tailoring

Student Z: through deceased estate

Students Z had difficulty in pronouncing the word “deceased”. The teacher intervened by asking Student Z: “We are not getting you well, what you are saying, particularly how you pronounce the middle word”? When the student was failing, Teacher B helped the student how to pronounce it. Teacher B, then, linked everyday knowledge about how families earned their living to sectors of the economy for Malawi but did not become the focus of the task. In this sense, inter-discursive relation was coded weakly classified. On the other hand, the boundaries between the teacher’s activities to that of the learners in instructional activities were explicit. This shows strong classification.

5.3.5 ANALYSIS of TEACHER B’s PRACTICE and CHOICE of PEDAGOGY

In the introduction and conclusion of the lesson, although students had limited degree of control over the selection, sequencing and pacing of the knowledge transmitted, this was evident with strong framings. Teacher B always made the evaluative rules available through exposition and explication. They were explicit and clear. This is why evaluation was strongly framed. Such kind of pedagogic approach could make learners to correct their answers in future.

When the teacher employed group discussion and pair discussion, it was learners that had some control over selection of knowledge during group discussion while sequencing and pacing were under the control of the teacher. Throughout the lesson, Teacher B was so confident and understood the subject matter of the topic that he was teaching. According to the reasoning of Teacher B, it shows that the pedagogic practice and choices of the teacher were not influenced by teacher’s understanding of pedagogy. Like Teacher A, he had knowledge of the form of the Learner-centred pedagogy, but he did not have substance, that the principles of learning. This was indicated by strong

framings in the areas of selection, sequencing and pacing in instructional methods that were not involving group work.

He engaged a variety of teaching and learning methods. The framing varied depending on the type of instructional activities. However, his questioning skills did not promote cognitive processes among learners because most of his questions were drawn from the lower order of the Bloom's taxonomy. The pedagogy was strongly classified regarding class discipline (class management).

5. 4 TEACHER C

Teacher C is a holder of a Diploma in Education and has the experience of seven (7) years for teaching Social Studies at secondary school level. During the day of observation, he was teaching a class of 10 students (4 girls and 6 boys). The topic of the lesson was World Co-operation.

5.4.1 CLASS OBSERVATIONS

For consistency's sake, I chose to use data for the second lesson of the two that I observed because their structure was not different. The first lesson lasted a 40-minutes and started with a revision of the previous lesson, before introducing the new topic. It was characterised by exposition and question-and-answer, which were teacher-led. Like other lessons discussed above, this lesson was also transcribed and the data was analysed using notions of classification and framing in order to provide a description of the pedagogic discourse in the classroom taught by Teacher C as is shown in Table 5. Teacher C taught his lesson from Unit 19 of Book 2 written by Mkomba and Majamanda (2013). The extract used is in Appendix G.

The teacher relied on two teaching and learning methods throughout the 40-minute lesson, in which he used lecture method (talk-and-chalk) and Question and Answer (Q & A) method, as displayed in Table 5.

5.4.2 DESCRIPTION of LESSON (INSTRUCTIONAL DISCOURSE)

In Episode 1, Teacher C started his lesson by explaining the topic “World Cooperation, with particular interest to international intervention in promoting world cooperation”. To illustrate his point, he explained how the League of Nations and United Nations were formed and their functions in promotion of world cooperation for a period of 23 minutes. The teaching and learning method employed was what is often called talk-and-chalk or lecture method. This episode was very strongly framed in the areas of selection, sequencing and pacing because it was the teacher who always determined the order of transmission of knowledge in the lesson. Any interjections potentially disturbing learning were ignored. The teacher dominated the talking and writing on the chalkboard. The teacher allowed learners’ participation whenever he asked a question. For example, after explaining how world cooperation functions, Teacher C asked: Are there any questions?

Student: You told us that United Nations (UN) is one of the institutions that promotes peace as part of world cooperation. Where is the headquarters of the United Nations? Teacher did not answer the question but rather he asked other students: Can someone answer where the Headquarters of the UN is?

Other students (choral answer) answered: It is New York City.

Then the teacher said: That is correct.

The selection of knowledge to be transmitted was coded strongly framed. The pace at which learners answered questions was always strictly controlled by the teacher. Learners did not have the opportunity to disrupt the pace set by the teacher until the end of the lesson. Regarding evaluation criteria, the teacher made some points either to the whole class or to individual learners so as to clarify what was expected of them in the course of teaching. For example, one student in response to the question: “what is the role of Organisation of African Union (OAU)?” She answered that “OAU has the role to stop global crisis such as drug trafficking and terrorism” Teacher C intervened by

asking a follow-up question: “Can you elaborate on your example, particularly terrorism?”

The student failed to elaborate the answer. It took two minutes for Teacher C to come in and suggest to the class what could be the possible answer as he was still waiting to hear from students. Then, he asked: “Can you please link terrorism to socioeconomic development in the context of world cooperation?” One student responded, “Where people are not living in peace, it is possible that development cannot happen” Teacher C accepted the answer and summarised by saying that “Yes, where there is terrorism, socioeconomic development cannot happen. Therefore, organisations such as OAU are there to promote peace to enable development to happen”. In this case, the evaluation is coded weakly framing.

In episode 2, he engaged question and answer method in which he was asking questions and learners were answering. Most the questions asked were recall-level such as:

Teacher: Why do you think the League of Nations was formed?

Learner: To promote peace and justice.

The teacher briefly explained the reasons that lead to the formation of the League of Nations that it was to promote unity and peace among warring countries after the First World War. He also explained how the United Nations (UN) was established to replace the League of Nations. The explanation was punctuated with questions. Soon after the explanation about the League of Nations and United Nations, he asked question, such as:

Teacher: What are the objectives of the United Nations?

Learner: To protect human rights of people; to promote world peace.

Teacher: Apart of the UN, which other institutions promote justice?

Learner: International Court of Justice.

In this case, the evaluation criteria were coded as weakly framed because the teacher did not provide any feedback on the learners' answers and did not ask them to explain their answers. The teacher continued explaining how the International Court of Justice was established and its function, especially that it was established to deal with issues of injustice within a country or between countries. Then he briefly explained how the Organisation of African Unity was formed and how later it changed its name to African Union. Then he asked students: Why did the Organisation of African Unity changed its name to the African Union? The teacher nominated one student to answer. The student answered that it was that it was to reinforce the unity of African countries and promote peace. He taught this episode for a period of fifteen (15) minutes. The instructional practice was strongly framed regarding selection, sequencing and pacing, as explained in episode 1. The teaching and learning activities were centred on the teacher. Students only participated in answering questions, which were also teacher-led.

In this Episode, he maintained the same approach of teaching to Episode 1 with slight variation. This time he was using lecture and Q & A methods interchangeably. At times, he could ask a question in form of assessing students as to whether they were following what he was teaching. Learners were participating in answering questions but without elaborating. It was the teacher who was often answering or suggesting answers to the learners. He did not encourage learners to generate their own knowledge or ideas. Hence, the rules for evaluation of learners' performance were implicit. Evaluation was coded weakly framed.

Table 5. Pedagogic Analysis using Framing

Teacher C's Pedagogic Practice for a 40-minutes Lesson							
Episode	Time	Type of activity	Content	Framing			
				Selection	sequence	Pacing	Evaluative
1	23 min.	Chalk-and-talk	Explanation about world cooperation, such as the League of Nations and the United Nations, African Union and how they were formed and their functions	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺⁺	F ⁻
2	17 min.	Teacher-led questions and answers	Asking questions on the League of Nations and the United Nations, the African Union, as assessment, and students were answering Summarised the lesson by asking questions	F ⁺	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻

In Table 5, selection has been coded strongly framed because it was the teacher who chose the knowledge and instructional activities. I also coded pacing and sequencing as strongly framed because it was the teacher who set time of the instructional activities and guided the order of learning in both episodes. In the Episode 1, the evaluative criteria were coded weakly framed because the teacher did not provide feedback on learners' answers as discussed above. The requirements for the successful completion of the instructional activities were not generally clear. For example, the teacher continued to nominate the same four students to answer questions throughout the lesson in a class of ten learners where question distribution would have been evenly done.

5.4.3 TEACHER C's REASONING and REFLECTION on the PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

This section analyses the reflective and mismatches between teacher's envisaged and enacted pedagogic practices in classroom.

Teacher C pedagogic practices indicated strong framings of selection, sequencing and pacing with evaluative criteria being weakly framed. Based on this understanding, I wanted to understand how Teacher C rated his pedagogy. For example, I asked him, "Do you think that the lesson met its intended purpose?" He replied, "Yes, because some students were giving their views on the topic when answering questions." Yet, it was only the same four students who were answering questions in a period of 40 minutes and questions remained teacher-led. Teacher C did not make deliberate effort to encourage the passive students to take part in learning by involving them in the instructional activities. When I looked the unit 19 where he drew his lesson (see Fig.5 and Appendix G), the activities suggested were tailored towards learners, in line with the Government policy. The suggested teaching and learning methods for activities were group and pair discussions as shown in the figure below. However, Teacher C did not involve the learners by weakening the framing of hierarchical rules where learners would have questioned, discussed and shared ideas on the topic being taught. At the same time, it could have strengthened the framing of the evaluation criteria and would enabled learners to produce their legitimate texts.

Libya in the north to Zimbabwe in the south. Its other responsibilities and functions include; improving transport and communications; supporting a Court of justice to settle disputes. COMESA has its headquarters in Lusaka Zambia.

Activity 1 ▶ Identifying organizations that promote international cooperation

1. In groups:
 - (a) Identify any three regional organizations to which Malawi belongs.
 - (b) Conduct a library research on any one regional organization identified above.
 - (c) Write a brief report of the organization. You should focus on; area of influence, its objectives and activities.
 - (d) State how Malawi as a country would benefit from the organisations' activities.
2. Present your findings in plenary.

Activity 2 ▶ Identifying membership and responsibilities of COMESA

1. In groups
 - (a) Identify other members of COMESA apart from Malawi and Zambia.
 - (b) Locate COMESA member countries on a Map of Africa.
 - (c) Discuss how Malawi would benefit for being a member of COMESA.
 - (d) Four countries; Mozambique, Lesotho, Namibia and Tanzania have left COMESA. Suggest reasons why these nations have left COMESA.
2. Present your findings in plenary.

Southern African Development Community (SADC)

SADC is an organization of southern African countries. It was originally formed as the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC). The first SADC conference took place in Arusha, Tanzania, and it was attended by Angola, Botswana, Mozambique, Tanzania and Zambia. These were called the "Frontline States". In attendance were also representatives from donor governments and international aid agencies. Lesotho, Swaziland, Malawi and Zimbabwe joined the organization in the following year. Namibia joined in 1990 and South Africa joined in 1994. In

Figure 5 showing an extract of Unit 19 of Book 2 Social Studies, sourced from Mkomba & Majamanda

I asked him whether he would say that this lesson was typical of the lessons that he usually taught and in what ways? He responded,

It is not the same because it lacked some of the items, such as teaching and learning resources - charts where drawings and captions are written, and that the way students were responding to questions was not the same like what happened in other previous lessons because in this lesson students' participation was only in form of answering question and limited to few students.

Although Teacher C described that the lesson was successful, one of the challenges was lack of teaching and learning resources as it was the case with Teachers A and B. He relied much on the textbook. I also asked the teacher why he did not allow students to do group work so that they could discuss some of the issues, such as the functions of AU or UN, and why he went straight to lecture. He answered, "I planned to allow students to participate in the lesson as individuals and later as a group but because the time was not enough, I changed to individual approach." Although Teacher C cited time as the contributing factor to his lesson delivery, it appears that he did not plan it well because other teachers observed in this study managed to use a variety of teaching and learning methods within a 40-minute lesson, such as Teachers B and D.

With regard to hierarchical rules, the teacher and learners generally remained in their own spaces. The teacher mostly remained at the chalkboard and learners remained in their seats. There were clear and explicit boundaries between teacher and learners. For example, the teacher confirmed this during video recall interviews when I asked, "Why were you standing in the front of the classroom throughout the lesson while teaching?" He responded, "So that students' concentration should be at the teacher in order that they should follow what I was teaching, and that is why I did not give them any task in groups to discuss." The classification was strong and that lesson was strongly framed in areas of selection, sequencing, pacing. The teacher had control over the teaching and learning process. However, this did not provide enough space for teacher and learners' interaction.

5.4.4 ANALYSIS of REGULATIVE DISCOURSE for TEACHER C's PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

At the inter-discursive level, the lesson was strongly classified. Learners were only nominated by the teacher to answer questions. The lesson was on World Cooperation in which the teacher could have used geographical knowledge (the maps) to show learners the countries belonging to one political block in Africa. However, he continued teaching on how countries could cooperate on assumption that learners know the countries belong the Africa Union (AU), Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) and Southern African Development Community (SADC).

Throughout the lesson, Teacher C focused on what is written in the prescribed textbook of Social Studies without making reference to everyday knowledge. The topic was not completely new to the learners as the Malawi Social Studies curriculum is spiral, as explained in Chapter Two. In Grade 9, learners learnt about interdependence among nations, which would have been their prerequisite knowledge to generate ideas with reference to their context. Yet, the teacher did not take this opportunity to ask learners what they understood about world cooperation. In this case, classification of knowledge was strongly framed at intra-disciplinary and inter-disciplinary levels. Teacher C did not link the topic to any other topics in the Social Studies, nor across to any other subjects, such as geography and history.

The teacher did not promote learners' interactions because of the approach that he took and that his questions were teacher-led. Besides, he did not motivate students to participate in the lesson. Furthermore, he did not establish the relations between students and himself in either formal or informal way. The class was regulated by the teacher. It was coded strong framing.

5.4.5 ANALYSIS of TEACHER C's PRACTICE and CHOICE of PEDAGOGY

Teacher C said that his pedagogic practice and choice was largely influenced by time because what he planned to teach did not match a 40- minute lesson. At planning level, it appears that he did not invest much time to allow learners' involvement in the

instructional activities. His lesson was both strongly framed in the areas of selection, sequencing, and pacing, and strongly classified regarding teacher and learners' space. In Episodes 1 and 2, as explained above, the evaluations were weakly framed because the teachers failed to provide feedback to learners' answers and in Episode 2, the teacher did not ask learners to explain their answers, but rather he continued teaching. This implies that evaluation criteria were implicit to the learners.

With regard to hierarchical rules, both the teacher and learners remained in their spaces. There were clear and explicit boundaries between the teacher and the students. In this sense, the teacher-learners' relations were classified as strong.

5.5 TEACHER D

Teacher D holds a Bachelor of Art in Theology and University Certificate in Education. He has been teaching Social Studies at secondary school level for a period of 16 years. He was teaching a class of 36 students. The topic was Sectors of the Economy. Like other participating teachers in this study, Teacher D also used the prescribed textbook authored by Mkomba and Majamanda (2013). His lesson was taken from Unit 13 of Book 2 and extract used is in Appendix F.

5.5.1 CLASS OBSERVATIONS

I observed two lessons taught by Teacher D as explained in Chapter Three. However, I analysed one lesson because the structure of the second lesson was not different from the first lesson as the same teaching and learning methods such as pair discussion, group discussion and question-answer were used. Besides, the teaching style, the number of students and the period for the lesson were the same. A standard single period in Malawi secondary schools is 40 minutes. The data analysed are presented in Table 6 below. I have categorised the lesson observed into four episodes because Teacher D used explanation and teacher-led questions and answer, group discussion and pair discussion.

5.5.2 DESCRIPTION of LESSON (INSTRUCTIONAL DISCOURSE)

In Episode 1, Teacher D started the lesson by revising the previous lesson on “Investment”. This episode was characterised by explanation, punctuated with question-and-answer method throughout of the explanation. For instance, Teacher D, after explaining what was learnt about investment, asked the following questions and learners were answering as follows:

Teacher: Explain what do the term investment means.

Student A: Investment means putting money into business.

Teacher: Can someone elaborate the answer given by our friend?

Student B: It is doing any form of business to make profit.

Teacher: Both answers are correct. Investment means using money in the hope of making more money in future with the purpose of increasing the value. You can invest money in any form of business.

When he used explanation, the selection, sequencing and pacing were strongly framed because Teacher D determined the selection of the knowledge to be transmitted, the order of transmission and pace at which the transmission happened. The teacher sometimes asked learners to clarify or modify their answers. Therefore, the evaluation is coded as strongly framed because Teacher D was able to show learners why their responses were not correct.

After revision of the previous lesson, the second episode was characterised by question and answer. Teacher D briefly explained the link between the previous lesson and this one that there is no way one can talk of investment without referring to Sectors of the Economy in Malawi. He wrote the new topic on the chalkboard. Then he asked: “What comes in your mind when people mention about the word ‘economy’?” One student answered that it is about money. Another student answered that it is different ways families or communities earn income, and the last student responded that it is about finances. Then Teacher D summarised the definitions by saying that “if we look at the

three definitions, they revolve around money. Hence, economy is the way how the country generates funds”.

He continued asking students: If you hear that a country has weak or strong economy, what is your understanding of this description? One student answered that if a country is described as having a weak economy, it means that it has weak ways of earning money. The teacher while acknowledging the student’s answer went on to say that “having a weak economy means that the country does not have adequate resources to provide for essential services to its people and at the same time, it fails to improve their living standards.” Then he defined sectors of an economy as referring to “way in which a country earns money”. However, the teacher did not elaborate on the correct answer of weak economy. Instead, he went on to define sectors of an economy. This is why evaluation was coded weakly framed while selection, sequencing and pacing were coded strong framing because it was the teacher who determined what knowledge to be transmitted and controlled the order of transmission.

In Episode 3, Teacher D asked learners to list sectors of the economy in Malawi in pair discussion. Learners discussed and gave feedback. For example, one student answered that it is taxes. Teacher D asked the class to explain whether taxes could be categorised as sectors of the economy, and the class in choral answer said, No! The teacher accepted the class answer and explained that “if you remember in the previous class, we said that taxes are compulsory contributions to the government”. The learners responded in choral answer because they were not expected to explain their answers or provide its reasoning. Then students mentioned the following, agriculture, fishing, tourism, transport and industry. Another student answered that loans are sectors of the economy. Teacher D reminded the class of the fact that loans cannot be one of the sectors of the economy because in the previous class it was said that it is one of the non-taxable income that individuals or institutions get from lending institutions. Close to the end of pair discussion, one student mentioned forestry. The evaluation was coded as strongly framed because Teacher D clarified what was expected of the learners.

This instructional activity shows that learners sometimes had an opportunity to vary the selection of knowledge. The selection of knowledge is strongly framed. With regard to sequencing, Teacher D determined the order of transmission of knowledge in the lesson and the sequence in which learning happened. In this sense, sequencing is strongly framed. The teacher accepted some learners' interventions and questions. He briefly paused the lesson to make sure that all learners were ready to move on before doing so. For example, in the course of pair discussion, Teacher D asked if all pairs have discussed and listed at least four sectors of the economy. Some pairs said that they were through but other reported that they were not. He gave additional two minutes. At the end of two minutes, he asked how many groups had listed five sectors of the economy. Some said not yet, he gave additional two minutes. It was then that he asked groups to give the feedback of the discussions, as mentioned above. The teacher exercised some control over pace but remained open to its variation. For pair discussion, the pacing was weakly framed.

In Episode 4, students were asked to be in six groups. Each group was given a topic to discuss from the following topics: Agriculture, fishing, tourism, transport, industry and forestry. The question was: Explain how agriculture or fishing or tourism or transport or industry or forestry is regarded as a sector of Malawi's economy. The group was given ten (10) minutes to discuss the given topic. Teacher D monitored the groups by moving from one group to another. Students had more control over how the lesson was proceeding during this exercise. During group discussion, Teacher D asked if all groups had completed the task they were given. One group asked for extra time and the teacher gave them two minutes. The pacing was coded weak framing because the teacher had some control over the rate at which the lesson was progressing but he remained open to variation when learners asked for extra time.

At the end of group discussions, Teacher D asked each group to present its findings. After each presentation, the teacher asked questions or commented on the group's feedback. When he asked a question as a follow-up to each presentation, Teacher D would briefly give an explanation after learners' feedback. For example, Teacher D,

commenting on agriculture as one of the sectors of Malawi's economy, asked learners to show the connection between industry as a sector of economy, and agriculture:

Teacher: What is the link between agriculture and industry?

Student: In agriculture, farmers grow tobacco which they sell to industries to manufacture products.

Teacher: I agree with you, but the use of the word tobacco is not suitable to your answer. Can you find a suitable word to replace the word tobacco? (Teacher paused waiting for response from class).

Students (choral answer): it is raw material.

Teacher: Correct, explain why the word "raw material" is a suitable replacement for tobacco.

Student: It is because it is the raw material that farmers sell to industries to produce finished products.

Teacher: You are right. The word tobacco can be confusing because it can either mean raw material or the finished products. Therefore, the suitable word is raw material because it is what farmers get from nature.

In this case, evaluation was coded strong framing because the teacher helped learners to produce a legitimate text by asking them to give reasons for their answers in order to bring clarity and modification in the answer provided by learners. In this episode, the selection and sequence were coded strongly framed whereas pacing were strongly framed because it was the teacher who controlled the rate at which learning was happening. Therefore, the determination of what counts or valued as knowledge and sequencing were within the control of the learner rather than the teacher.

Table 6. Pedagogic Analysis using Framing as espoused by Basil Bernstein

Teacher D's Pedagogic Practice for a 40-minutes Lesson							
Episode	Time	Type of activity	Content	Framing			
				Selection	Sequence	Pacing	Evaluative
Episode 1	5 min.	Explanation,	Revised the previous lesson on investment Explanation about the link between investment and sectors of the economy Summarised the presentation	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁺
Episode 2	6 min.	Teacher-led question and answer	Asking questions on the lesson taught.	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻
Episode 3	12 min.	Pair discussion		F ⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁺
Episode 4	17 min.	Group Discussion and Debate	Discussion about sectors of the economy and giving examples of sectors of the economy, and giving feedback on discussions	F ⁺⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻	F ⁺⁺

5.5.3 TEACHER D's REASONING and REFLECTION on the PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE

This section analyses the reflection regarding the relationship between teacher's envisaged and enacted pedagogic practices in the classroom.

Considering the lesson has both strong framings for selection of knowledge to be transmitted and order of transmission with weak and strong framings for pacing and evaluation, I wanted to know the teacher's understanding of his pedagogic practice. In the video-stimulated interviews, I asked Teacher D, "Do you think that the lesson met its intended purpose? Why or why not?" He responded,

Yes, because from the group discussion and individuals I did not get the wrong answers. It shows that they understood the question and content of the lesson. There were few instances where some learners gave wrong answers but I managed to correct them.

From his assessment, Teacher D appears to be concerned with learners' performance through the number of learners answering questions, rather than explaining how he assisted learners to produce the legitimate text. In practice, he managed to tell students how to produce a legitimate text as explained above. This shows that he was interested in performance of the learners in the manner he assesses his lesson, which Bernstein (2003) calls visible pedagogy.

In response to the question "Would you say that this lesson is typical of the lessons that you usually teach? In what ways?", he answered, "Yes, because I used learner-centred pedagogy, which I often use." But like other participating teachers in this study, Teacher D focused on the form of learner-centred education (LCE) without a proper understanding of the substance (Brodie et. al., 2002).

While during pair and group discussions learners were given opportunity to participate in the instructional activities, the lesson cannot be described as learner-centred, because overall the teacher had control over selection, sequence and pacing, particularly where chalk-and-talk and question-and-answer were used.

5.5.4 ANALYSIS of REGULATIVE DISCOURSE for TEACHER D's PEDAGOGIC DISCOURSE

In terms of the hierarchical rule, learners sat in seats or groups which had been negotiated between the teacher and learners. During interviews, Teacher D said that they had permanent groups which he formed together with the students according to their abilities and choices. Learners were at liberty to request a change to the seating plan. This could be described as weakly framed.

With regard to intra-disciplinary relations, Teacher D at times made reference to other content of Social Studies. For example, in the introduction he started by explaining the previous topic - investment and then he connected to a new topic – sectors of the economy. When students wrongly answered that loans and taxes are sectors of the economy, the teacher corrected by referring them to what was covered in the previous lesson. This could be described as weakly classified for intra-disciplinary relations.

Regarding the movement between teacher and learners' space, it was coded as strong classified, particularly where Teacher D's role in the pedagogy was clearly different from that of the learners. For example, during group discussion, there is clear distinction of what students were doing and what the teacher was doing, as described above. But during question-and-answer section, the role of the teacher and learner was not clear, because both teacher and learners were either answering or asking questions. The boundary was blurred. This could be described as weak classification because of the interaction that was between students and teacher.

5.5.5 ANALYSIS of TEACHER D's PEDAGOGY and CHOICE of PEDAGOGY

Teacher D employed a range of methods such as lecture method to explain certain concepts and pair discussion and group discussion to allow students engage with issues. Although Teacher D helped learners in the production of the legitimate text by asking them to give reasons for their answers in order to bring clarity and modification in the answers. However, he did not distribute questions evenly to allow learners to fully participate in answering questions. He concentrated on few learners which he

acknowledged during interviews when I asked: “I observed that it was only those who made presentation on behalf of their groups that continued answering questions, why was it so? He answered, “It depends on the composition of the group. In every group I have put clever students to assist other students; these are the ones who are fond of answering questions”. I also asked him: “What would you like to develop from the lesson taught?” He answered:

It is to learn how to take students on board. I concentrated on students whom I consider as clever, which made other students to be left out or behind or not being taken on board so that they participate in the lesson. I was dictated by the pace of few students, rather than involving everyone.

The inclusive approach suggested by the teacher would enable all learners to actively participate in lesson. Nevertheless, the approach taken by Teacher D in the class observed is a clear indication of teacher’s emphasis on the form of LCE without much considering its substance.

Another challenge that determines the teacher’s pedagogic choice is the syllabus coverage. Teacher D said, “One of the challenges with Social Studies teaching is syllabus coverage. The syllabus has more work to cover in comparison to the other subjects. It is this work that also affect classroom work when I am teaching because I also aim at covering the whole syllabus.” He pointed out that the content of Social Studies syllabus, as manifested by the content of prescribed textbooks such as that written by Mkomba and Majamanda (2013), is heavily congested to be covered within the prescribed school calendar (see appendix E). In his view, the coverage of the content does not provide enough time for learners’ activities. Mtika and Gates (2010) made a similar observation and observed that the national curriculum that is examination-oriented and content congested is a challenge to the implementation of LCE. While the examinations are no longer a challenge following the abolition of national centralised examination for Grade 10, content congestion is still an obstacle as teachers were forced to cover the whole syllabus.

In summary, Teacher D like B, although he emphasised on the form of LCE, managed to include some elements of LCE by involving students to work with some semi-autonomy in group work by giving learners tasks to perform and opportunity to ask questions and ask reasons for their answers. However, overall, he did not consider where to work with learners as individual who have their individual needs and challenges. He did not give them enough space to construct meanings.

5.6 SUMMARY of the CHAPTER

The chapter discussed data collected from class observations of the four Social Studies teaching teaching Grade Ten (10) in Malawi selected conventional secondary schools.

The data presented shows that the pedagogic practices for Teachers A, B and D were similar. For all participating teachers, the selection, sequencing and pacing were coded strongly framed because it was the teacher who determined what knowledge to be transmitted and the order of transmission with exception for the selection and sequencing of group discussions. However, there were slight variations in their pedagogic practice, particularly where they used different teaching and learning methods. For example, unlike Teacher for A, Teachers' B and D the selection and sequencing for group discussion were coded weakly framed because learners had an opportunity to vary the selection of the knowledge to be transmitted and the order of transmission. Hence, the pedagogic practices varied slightly from teacher to teacher, despite teachers being subjected to the same or similar conditions. For example, all participating teachers taught a 40-minute lesson and they were teaching at conventional secondary school with adequate resources.

The variations also occurred in evaluation. This again depended on style and method of teaching which an individual teacher engaged. For all participating teachers in this research, the evaluation was similar because it was weakly framed although Teacher D's evaluation changed depending on the teaching and learning method used. For example, the evaluations were coded weakly framed for all teachers where they either did not give the feedback or requested reasoning for answers provided by the learners

or elaborated the answers. Although Teacher D's evaluation was also coded weak framing on one teaching and learning method, it was predominantly coded strongly framed because the teacher clarified what was expected of the learners and that he specified the requirements for the learners to produce the legitimate text. This shows that the extent to which teachers or learners have control over the evaluative rules of the instructional knowledge regarding the meaning of concepts in Social Studies and their appropriate realisation varied according to the method of teaching and learning used.

As explained above, the study shows that all teachers participating seem to have an understanding of the form of the learner-centred education without a clear understanding of its substance. Their reflections on their pedagogic practice and what was observed shows this gap of understanding between the form and substance.

CHAPTER SIX

Discussion and Conclusion

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter seeks to recapitulate the main conclusions of the study and make recommendations for future consideration. It begins by discussing the summary of the findings and then its limitations. The summary of the findings of this study is based on the four Social Studies teachers teaching Grade Ten (10) in sampled conventional secondary schools in the two educational divisions in Malawi. This chapter will also link the findings to other scholarly literature. The findings will be discussed in the order of the research questions.

6.2 DISCUSSION and FINDINGS of the STUDY

These are the two research questions which informed this study:

1. What are the pedagogical practices of selected teachers of Social Studies?
2. Why do teachers make pedagogic choices that they do in a class setting?

This section begins to respond to question one and then it will discuss question two, in that order.

6.2.1 TEACHERS' PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

This section discusses question one where it analyses four Grade 10 Social Studies teachers' pedagogic practices in Malawi secondary schools. It will look at the extent to which the teacher controls over the process of learning and teaching by analysing learners' autonomy. Then it will analyse the questioning style.

6.2.2 TEACHER CONTROL in PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE

The study shows that teachers give limited control or autonomy to learners in the process of learning and teaching in classroom. In Chapter Four, the data presented showed that the pedagogic practices for Teacher A, B and D, compared to Teacher C showed similar pattern. For example, all the three teachers had strong framings in areas of selection, sequencing and pacing. Generally, it was the teacher who determined the selection of knowledge to be transmitted, the order of transmission and acquisition, and the pace at which the transmission occurred, with exceptions where group discussion was used. There were certain times the boundaries between teachers' activities and those of the learners were clear, and there were other times they were not clear, particularly during question-and-answer sessions when both teacher and learners could ask and answer questions. In this sense, the degree of autonomy for learners kept changing in the process of learning in the classroom depending on the teacher's style of teaching. Morais (2002) attributes this to how teachers change their pedagogic principles.

Learners were given minimal autonomy in the process of learning and teaching in the classroom. Commenting on Science Teacher's pedagogy in Malawi secondary schools, Nampota (2015) observed that teachers often give learners less autonomy in the process of teaching and learning despite the fact that they use inquiry and open discovery methods. As explained above, most of the participating teachers gave less autonomy to learners. This also varied from teacher to teacher. This is evident in the case of Teachers B and D. Both of them used group work in the classroom of 40 minutes. Teacher B gave more control of learning process to the learners than Teacher D because he would ask extra questions as learners presented their group feedback and the questions focused on those who presented. In this sense, the autonomy that Teacher D gave to learners was very limited because he did not involve all students to respond by interrupting their presentation with question-and-answer technique and construct their own meanings.

Similarly, the evaluation was similar for all participating teachers particularly on instructional methods where group work was not involved. To a large extent,

evaluations for all teachers were coded weakly framed because the teacher either did not give the feedback or request reasoning for answers of the learners or elaborate the answers that would have helped the learner to produce her own legitimate text. Although Teacher D's evaluation was also coded weak framing on one teaching and learning method, it was predominantly coded strongly framed because the teacher clarified what was expected of the learners and that he specified the requirements for the learners to produce the legitimate text. Comparing all four participating teachers, it is clear that in all episodes for Teachers A and C, the evaluation criteria were weakly framed. While Teacher B in episodes 3 and 4 of the four were strongly framed, the remaining two have weak framings. Out of the four episodes for Teacher D, the three had strong evaluation criteria. Morais (2002) categorically says that strong framing may lead learners to acquire the recognition and realisation rules. She further argues that for this to be successful the explicit criteria of evaluation requires time and weak framing for pacing (Morais, 2002). In episodes 3 and 4 of the lesson for Teacher D, the pacing was weakly framed and the evaluation criteria were explicit. This may imply that learning was successful, as Bernstein often argues, because such conditions enable learners to have some control over the time of acquisition (Bernstein, 2003; Morais, 2002).

Interestingly, analysis of the hierarchical rules for participating teachers shows different ways of pedagogic practices. At inter-discursive and intra-disciplinary as well as between spaces, the classification was strong for Teachers A and C. For example, pair discussions for Teacher A were regulated by the teacher. Like Teacher C, he did not make any reference to everyday knowledge in the lesson but relied on the textbooks. For Teachers B and D, the classifications and framings were predominantly weak except where teacher's activity was different from that of the learners for classification and where the teacher regulated learners' movement in the classroom. In a pedagogic practice where the framing is weak, according to Morais (2002), allows learners to ask questions, discuss and share ideas. However, this opportunity was not provided to learners in most of the lessons observed. This affirms the general observation made by most scholars that in sub-Saharan Africa most teachers have difficulties to embrace the

spirit of learner-centred education (Hoadley, 2018; Tabulawa, 1999; Vavrus 2003; Chirwa & Naidoo; Chiphiko & Shawa, 2014; Gate & Mtika, 2010; Brodie et. al., 2002; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Kennedy, 2004). The teachers' pedagogic practices are characterised by features that could be described as teacher-centred with few that focus on learners as required by LCE.

Commenting on why the implementation of learner-centred pedagogy is a challenge in Malawi, Mtika and Gates (2010) found that overcrowding classes pose challenge to implementation (also see Altinyelken & Hoeksma, 2021). They further said that "Student teachers noted that large class sizes inhibited formation of small groups which might promote active learning by all pupils" (Mtika & Gates, 2010, 402). In their studies on Botswana Junior Secondary School Social Studies, Adeyemi, Boikhutso and Moffat (2003, p. 40) point out that "research evidence suggests that the fewer the students in class, the higher the rate of interaction and ultimately the achievement level." The results of this study show to the contrary.

In first place, classes observed did not exceed the recommended size of class in the SADC region with regard to a teacher-student ratio, which is 1.60 (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2012). Teachers B and D have 53 and 36 students in that order, yet they employed a range of instructional methods. Learners were given some autonomy over instructional process particularly in group discussion where the teacher's role was to facilitate the learning. In classes observed, learners' interaction was not determined by the size of the class. For example, Teacher A had ten (10) students but he relied heavily on lecture and Question and Answer methods, which give learners limited control over instructional activities.

6.2.2.1 TAKE-UP of their PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

This subsection analyses how a teacher takes up the form with or without the substance of a prescribed pedagogy – Learner-centred pedagogy (LCP). The form refers to the outward appearance of the instructional method. The substance are the educational principles underpinning a particular pedagogy, and in this case, I refer to LCP.

In the lessons observed, it was evident that teachers, to a certain extent, have embraced the form of the prescribed pedagogy for Malawi secondary schools, rather than the substance or principles of teaching which inform it, (Brodie et. al., 2002). This also varied from teacher to teacher. For instance, Teacher A assumed that group work is inherently a learner-centred method even though he kept control over the instructional activities without allowing students to engage with the problem or task given. Teacher B and D had the form of learner-centred education but understanding of substance was problematic as evidenced by strong framings and learning that focus on rote learning. Strong framing shows that learners are less autonomous to generate their own knowledge and develop critical thinking. They managed to engage learners in group work but there were simple tasks that required recall. There was no expectation of problem-solving or making meaning as it is stated in the rationale of Grade 10 Social Studies where teachers are required “to provide students with the knowledge, skills, competences, positive attitudes and values which will enable the students to participate actively, intelligibly and responsibly in daily life activities as citizens of a democratic world” (MoEST, 2013, p. v). This cannot be achieved if learners are given tasks that promote memorisation rather than understanding, critical thinking and problem-solving. For example, Teacher B asks: “Discuss how the Government earns money through farming, forestry, fishing and tourism” or what Teacher D asks: “What is the link between agriculture and industry?” Such kind of questions do not encourage learners to develop the necessary skills such as problem-solving and critical thinking, and generate their own knowledge, which they can apply in their daily life. If we are to analyse teachers’ understanding of their pedagogic practices using Bernstein’s concepts of recognition and realisation, we can say that they recognise LCP, but they do not realise it. Bernstein (1993, p. 128) says that “recognition rules regulate what meanings are relevant and realisation rules regulate how meanings are to be put together to the legitimate text.”

Another area to consider with regard to pedagogic practice is the way the questions were framed and distributed by participating teachers. They appear to contradict the

fundamental philosophical principles that underpin learner-centred education (LCE). In LCE, it is often assumed that cognitive abilities of a learner develop spontaneously according to her/his natural development and it is automatic (Horn, 2009; Gates & Mtika, 2010, Vavrus, 2009; O’Sullivan, 2004; Brodie et. al., 2002; Hoadley, 2018). It also asserts that education follows the learners’ own natural pace (Brodie, et. al. 2002; Vavrus, 2003; Kennedy, 2004; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). Yet, all teachers treated students as homogenous class without considering the needs and challenges of individual learners. For example, as explained in the previous subsection, Teacher C had only ten (10) students in his classroom so the possibility of involving all learners in instructional activities and attending to their needs and challenges was high but he did not do so.

In Chapter Four, it was noted that Teacher A and C did not allow learners to link local (everyday) knowledge to school (specialised) knowledge. LCE assumes that a learner when coming to the classroom has already constructed her own interpretative ideas about what she will learn (Rose & Kadamira, 2003; Horn, 2009; Baise, 2019). Hence, it is critical for the teacher to recognise this element of LCE. This is why I argue that to a certain extent teachers appear to have embraced the form of LCE without understanding the substance.

6.2.2.2 QUESTIONING and COGNITIVE DEMAND

Most questions asked by all teachers were of low order on the Blooms taxonomy scale. For example, Teacher A often asked: What is the use of timber? Where do we get timber in Malawi? Such kind of questions did not promote learners’ cognitive thinking, but rather they encouraged rote learning, which contradicts the principles governing the teaching of Social Studies in Malawi (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000; MoEST, 1998, 2013). Hammond and Manfra (2009, p. 168) are right to say, “Teachers who prompt students through thoughtful questioning help their students develop analytical skills and deeper conceptual understanding.” This kind of element was missing in the pedagogic practices of these teachers. The nature of questioning did not allow teachers to have

access to learners' reasoning, and did not require learners to explore the connections between key ideas and construct meanings. As explained in Chapter Four, the questions asked did not promote cognitive abilities in the learners because they were constructed from the lower order of Bloom's taxonomy.

Commenting on curriculum and pedagogy for primary school teachers in developing country with focus on South Africa during the transition from apartheid to democracy, Hoadley notes that "while elements of learner-centeredness do appear, the teacher's usual business was predominantly what some scholars call 'chalk and talk' (Hoadley, 2018, p 13). She points out that such "pedagogy places students in a passive role and limits their activity to memorizing facts and reciting them back to the teacher" (Hoadley 2018, p. 13). This kind of teaching dominated most teachers who participated in this study as explained above. Such type of teaching contradicts the purpose of Social Studies in Malawi, which states that:

the primary purpose of social studies is to help the youth of Malawi have a good understanding about important contemporary issues. This would enable the youths to make informed and rational decisions for the public good and their own good so that they spearhead the development of Malawi as citizens of a culturally diverse and democratic society in an interdependent world (MoEST, 2013, p. v).

This cannot be realised if the type of instructional questions do not promote critical thinking and development of inquiry and analytical skills in learners.

In the lessons taught by Teachers B and D, the hierarchical rules were weakly framed and evaluation criteria were strongly framed to create a conducive environment for learners to ask questions, discuss and share ideas but teachers did not use this opportunity. For example, Teacher A brought articles from newspapers so that learners could read the debates about the change of national flag between 2010 and 2012, that was historical in nature. After pair discussion, he asked questions which all emphasised recall. If they were engaged with questions from higher order of Bloom's taxonomy, it could have helped learners to critically engage with concepts as part of the process of

historical inquiry to generate their own meanings and interpretations regarding national symbols (Hick et. al., 2004). Yet, Teacher A simply asked questions for recall answers using lower order of Bloom's Taxonomy that would only encourage memorisation. Learners were not engaged in a meaningful way such as asking them to identify issues from the articles of the newspapers related to the topic of the lesson. Hick et. al., (2004, p. 214), quoting Levstik, say that teaching students to engage in doing historical inquiry involves a "shift from an emphasis on a 'story well told' (or the story as told in text books), to an emphasis on 'sources well scrutinised' ... [Students] pose questions, collect and analyse sources, struggle with issues of significance, and ultimately build their own historical interpretations." This would have stimulated learners' interest in the lesson and subject, not only memorised concepts and facts but also understanding and application of those ideas in their everyday life. In this sense, the questioning technique employed did not promote cognitive abilities nor encourage learners to construct their own meanings in a lesson.

6.2.3 FINDINGS of RESEARCH QUESTION TWO: PEDAGOGIC CHOICES

The second question is centred on why Social Studies teachers chose those pedagogies in their classrooms. In this study, some of the reasons that teachers said affect their pedagogic choices are time management, syllabus coverage, and lack of teaching and learning resources. It should be restated that the standard period for secondary school in Malawi is 40 minutes.

6.2.3. 1 TIME MANAGEMENT and SYLLABUS COVERAGE influence PEDAGOGIC CHOICE

One of the factors that contributed to pedagogic choice in this study was time management. For example, Teachers A and C said lack of time was the reason why they changed what they planned. I asked Teacher C why he used lecture and question-and-answer in his lesson presentation and he answered, "I planned to allow students to answer questions as individuals and later as group, but because of time I changed to individual approach." In a study that Altinyelken and Hoeksma (2021) conducted in Malawi secondary schools, teachers also were of the view that the 40-minute period

time was not sufficient for LCE. They cited big classes as a challenge to LCE. While 40 minutes might be seen as not sufficient, why then did teachers with small classes cite the same reason? For example, Teacher C had only ten students in a class. Why did he fail to engage learners in a meaningful way? This suggests that class size is not the only reason for the choice of teaching strategies.

Another factor related to time that contributes to pedagogic choice is syllabus coverage. For example, Teacher D pointed out that the content of Social Studies syllabus, as manifested by the content of prescribed textbooks¹³ such as that written by Mkomba and Majamanda (2013), is heavily congested to be covered within the prescribed school calendar (see appendix I and J). In his view, the coverage of the content does not provide enough time for learners' activities. Mtika and Gates (2010) also observed that content congestion of syllabus and national curriculum that is examination-oriented are challenges to the implementation of LCE. Therefore, it forces teachers to skip some work or not to teach in the way they want (Altinyelken & Hoeksma, 2021). In a study conducted by Mdolo and Doidge (2010) on the new Biology curriculum in Malawi, they also observed that pressure to complete the syllabus before national examinations was one of the factors that contributed to failure to implement Constructivist Approach in Malawian secondary schools. The pressure to cover the whole syllabus is not only connected to teaching students to pass national examinations but it also shows the progress the teacher is making. This is like this because teachers are also supervised by the inspectorate division of the Ministry of Education in which syllabus coverage is assessed as an indicator of teacher's progress (MoEST, 2019).

¹³ The table contents for Book 1 and 2 of Social Studies Grade 9 and 10 have in total 41 units (see Appendix I and J). In a week, Social Studies teacher for Grade 9 and 10 has 3 periods for each classroom totalling to 162 periods for years of junior secondary school academic circle because a term has nine (9) weeks for teaching. Each unit could be divided into four lessons on average. For example, Unit 11 has the following subtopics: 1) Features of the Constitution of the Republic of Malawi; 2) Basic Principles of the Constitution of the Republic of Malawi; 3) Principal Organs of the Government, and 4) Major changes of the Malawi Constitution since 1961. For the whole academic circle, the themes total to 124 lessons. Yet not all teachers can teach a subtopic in a 40-minute lesson. For example, Teacher A failed to complete a lesson on a subtopic and shifted part of it to next period.

6.2.3.2 MALAWI and CLASSROOM CONDITIONS' EFFECT on PEDAGOGIC CHOICE

One of the most cited reason has having a bearing on active learning or LCE is class size (Mtika & Gates, 2010; Altinyelken & Hoeksma, 2021; Brodie, et. al. 2002; Vavrus, 2003; Kennedy, 2004; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). In this study, no participating teacher alluded to class size as a challenging factor to pedagogic practices. Rather, they cited time and lack of teaching and learning resources, and the requirement to cover the whole syllabus, as explained above.

Teachers C and D taught in a matriarchal society while A and B in a patriarchal society. As explained in Chapters Two, it is assumed students from patriarchal society perform well in national examinations and get selected into post-primary public schools than those coming from matriarchal society. It is also held that the authority exercised between parent and child in patriarchal society is more conservative than in matriarchal society that may have an influence on pedagogic relations in classroom. However, there was no reference to cultural difference as having influence on pedagogic practices and choices, although a study conducted by Altinyelken and Hoeksma (2021) indicated that there are some Malawi cultural elements, which contradict core tenets of LCE. They cited adult-child relationships, as it was the case in the study done by Tabulawa (1997) in Botswana, and also gender roles, particularly where instructional activities require masculine tasks, it was boys who took charge (Altinyelken & Hoeksma, 2021). However, this was not case in the sampled schools for this study because no teacher referred to culture or to gender roles as having a bearing on pedagogic choice because girls and boys worked and interacted well without any challenge attributed to culture. Teachers selection of instructional method did not seem to be influenced by their cultural elements or backgrounds.

Teachers A and C also pointed out that lack of preparation shapes the teacher's pedagogic practice. These two teachers were free to change what they planned to teach because of other factors, such as lack of preparation, coupled with lack of teaching and learning resources.

6.2.2.3 PERSONAL BELIEFS and PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

One of the notable differences amongst the four Social Studies teachers is their understanding of their pedagogic practices. Despite that all participating teachers were subjected to the same teaching conditions, they did not only vary in use of their teaching and learning methods, but they also differed on how they understood and interpreted pedagogic practices. For example, Teacher D and B had the belief that learners' feedback was important in teaching according to their responses during video-stimulated interviews. They were of the view that it helped the teacher to assess whether the lesson was successful or not. During interviews, they pointed out that feedback helped the teacher to revise the lesson or help students who were struggling. On the other hand, Teacher A believed that flexibility in pedagogic practice was critical. During interviews, he said that "as a teacher, I have to accept what is happening in the class rather than sticking to what I planned." Yet, he did not assess students as individuals. He assumed as if the class of 50 students was homogenous.

Kennedy (2004) is also of the view that teachers' interpretation of classroom practices is one that shapes their pedagogic practices. She concluded that teachers interpret classroom situations differently based on their areas of concern and that they depend on their "own prior beliefs, values and accumulated principles of practice to decide how to respond to situations as they do" (Kennedy, 2004, p. 32). The participating teachers' reflections did not contradict their class experience. For example, Teacher B and D, who have been teaching Social Studies for longer than Teacher A and C, showed that they employed a variety of teaching and learning methods with mixed features for teacher-centredness and learner-centredness based on how they understand an effective Social Studies pedagogy. Schweisfurth (2014, p. 81) notes:

The evidence regarding different pedagogical strategies and better test results is mixed and depends a great deal on how the pedagogy is implemented, ... and how motivated the learners are to succeed on them, but choice of classroom strategies by individual teachers is likely to be based on beliefs as logic.

This was evident in all four teachers. It was an individual teacher's understanding of pedagogy that influenced how one chose an instructional method and shaped what she/he did in the classroom.

6.3 SUMMARY of the FINDINGS

The study shows that the four Social Studies teachers had a similar pattern of pedagogic practices with minor variations in areas of selection, sequencing, pacing and evaluation. Generally, the pedagogic practices of teachers participating in this study were characterised by strong framing with regard to selection, sequencing and pacing. Bernstein (1993) states that when the framing is strong, the learner (acquirer) remains attentive and listen passively and when it is weak, the learner is creative, interactive and attempts to make his or her own meanings. This is why he has often argued that successful pedagogy depends to a larger extent on the weak framing of pacing (Bernstein, 1993, 2003).

Further, it observed that hierarchical rules had both strong and weak classifications and framings that shows mixed pedagogic practices. There were strong classifications for Teachers A and C at intra-disciplinary and inter-discursive level but framing was weak where he did not promote interaction. With regard to Teachers B and D, the classifications were predominantly weak at intra-disciplinary, inter-disciplinary and inter-discursive levels. The framings for Teachers B and D were weak except where Teacher B was regulating the learners' movement in classroom, and coded strong framing.

With regard to evaluation, the study shows there was also a mixed pattern. However, it was predominantly weakly framed except for Teacher D, which was strongly framed, and again was influenced by what an individual teacher wants to achieve in a pedagogic relation. For Teachers A and C, the evaluation criteria were implicit whereas Teachers' B and D evaluation had mixed values. For instance, the two first episodes for Teacher B, the evaluation criteria were weak framings while the other two were explicit. For Teacher D in episode two, the evaluation criteria were implicit while the rest were

explicit. When evaluation criteria were explicit, the transmitter (teacher) helped the learners (acquirer) to produce their legitimate text or clarified what is expected of the learners

Although the pedagogic practices, predominantly could be labelled what Hoadley calls a “rite of rote” to a certain extent, Teachers B and D ensured that learners were involved in the learning, particularly through group work. I call this pedagogic as mixed or what other call hybrid (Vavrus, 2009).

This study also affirms the findings of Brodie et al., (2002) in which they argued that some teachers have the form of the learner-centred education without the substance and that teachers take up new ideas differently. It also indicated that pedagogic practices of teachers reflect what they think about the pedagogy.

The study also shows that the pedagogic choice is influenced by time allocated to each lesson against the instructional activities planned, the pressure for syllabus coverage and lack of preparation. It further indicated that the size of the class does not always contribute to the pedagogic choice and practice, and that the culture of the teacher does not have a bearing on pedagogic practice and choice.

6.4 LIMITATIONS of the STUDY

Considering the scope and nature of study objectives, it was not possible to study all teachers teaching Grade 10 Social Studies in Malawi. This is the reason why I sampled few selected teachers and lessons to observe and generate data to answer research questions.

The second challenge was the abrupt closure of the schools between 23rd March 2020 and 9th September 2020 because the COVID-19 that delayed the data collection exercise. As soon as the Government lifted the ban, I was able to meet the remaining participating teachers to complete data collection and analysis.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

I wish to make the following recommendations based on the findings of this study:

The Ministry of Education and its stakeholders should not emphasise one pedagogy whose underpinnings are not properly grasped by practitioners at implementation because it makes the teachers to assume that the prescribed pedagogy is a yardstick to judge their pedagogic practices. It limits teachers to explore better practices that can apply to their contexts. Rather, Ministry of Education should encourage teachers to explore better pedagogic practices that could serve their context and improve understanding at classroom level.

The Ministry of Education and Schools should continue in-service training that would allow teachers to improve their pedagogic practices appealing to their contexts. Curricula specialists, educators and other stakeholders in education should consider reviewing the Social Studies syllabus and its prescribed textbook so that they should match with the length of school calendar to avoid teachers putting emphasis on syllabus coverage.

6.6 CONCLUSION

This study shows that Social Studies teachers provide less autonomy to learners in pedagogic relation, which confirms the findings of other studies on learner-centred education. This is largely influenced by teacher's personal interpretation of pedagogic practices among other factors, as explained above. It also confirmed the findings of Brodie et. al., (2002) that state that some teachers have the form or what Mtika and Gates (2010) call as surface elements of the learner-centred pedagogy with or without the educational principles of LCE, such as the construction of meanings by learners in a lesson. This is partly influenced the prescribed by pedagogy the Government has put in place through donor influence to respond to perceived challenges at the dawn of multiparty politics.

It also shows that pedagogic choices of Social Studies teachers are influenced by time allocated to a particular lesson, lack of instructional resources, such charts and textbook to aid the learning, and syllabus coverage.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Informed consent letter to research participants and video-stimulated interviews

i) Informed Consent letter to research participants

School of Education,

College of Humanities,
University of KwaZulu-Natal,
P/Bag X01, Scottsville 3209,
Pietermaritzburg Campus,

Dear Participant

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

My name is Cogitator Wilton Mapala, I am a MEd candidate studying at the School of Education at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus, South Africa.

I am interested in analysing the teachers' pedagogy in Social Studies class in Malawi, with reference to its practice and choice.

To gather the information, I am interested in asking you some questions. Prior to this, I will videotape your lessons in readiness for video stimulated recall interviews. The purpose of video-stimulated recall interviews is to have a better perspective on the question under investigation.

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 1 hour and may be split depending on your preference.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only.
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after five (5) years.
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalized for taking such an action.
- The research aims at analysing Social Studies teachers' pedagogic practice and to interrogate the reasons why they make these pedagogic choices in Malawi.

- 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: cogmapala@gmail.com

Cell:072 502 8858.

My supervisor is Prof. Carol Bertram who is located at the School of Education, Pietermaritzburg campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Contact details: email: bertramC@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: 033 260 5349

You may also contact the UKZN Research Office through:

Mr Prem Mohun, HSSREC Research Office,

Tel: 031 260 4557 E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

CONSENT

I (Name) _____ have been informed about the study entitled “An Analysis of Social Studies Teachers’ Pedagogy in Selected Secondary Schools in Malawi” by Cogitator W. Mapala. I understand the purpose and procedures of the study. I have been given an opportunity to answer questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction. I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to. I have been informed about any available compensation or medical treatment if injury occurs to me as a result of study-related procedures.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researcher cogmapala@gmail.com or Prof Carol Bertram at (033) 260 5349 or bertramC@ukzn.ac.za.

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact:

**HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS
ADMINISTRATION**

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557 - Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

I hereby provide consent to:

Video-record my interview / focus group discussion YES / NO

_____	_____
Signature of Participant	Date
_____	_____
Signature of Witness	Date
(Where applicable)	
_____	_____
Signature of Translator	Date
(Where applicable)	

Semi-structured Interview schedule

Instructions: These interviews are a follow-up to the lesson that you taught. I will ask some questions. I, therefore, request you to feel free to answer these questions. All answers you will be correct.

1. What was your main purpose in teaching this lesson?
2. Do you think that the lesson met this intended purpose? Why or why not?
3. What do you think the students learned in this lesson?
4. Would you say that this lesson is typical of the lessons that you usually teach? In what ways?
5. What do you think is the purpose of students learning Social Studies?
6. Tell me what was happening in this class that is most important for you?
7. I see you doing X in your lesson presentation so that Y happened from the front for 30 minutes. What led you to do this?
8. I see students responded by doing X.
 - a) What was going on there?
 - b) How do you understand this situation?
9. What are you most happy with about your lesson presentation?
10. What would you like to develop from the lesson(s) taught?
11. What would you need to improve if anything in your lesson delivery?

Appendix B

Letter seeking permission from Ministry of Education, Science and Technology

TO: The Principal Secretary,
 Ministry of Education, Science and Technology,
 Private Bag 238, Capital City, Lilongwe.

7th September 2018.

From: Rev. Dr Cogitator Wilton Mapala
 University of KwaZulu-Natal, School of Education,
 Pietermaritzburg Campus, Private Bag, Scottsville 3209,
 Pietermaritzburg, South Africa.

Through: The Dean of School of Education,
 University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus, Private
 Bag XO], Scottsville 3209, South Africa.

Dear Sir or Madam,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN MALAWI

I am the University Registrar of University of Livingstonia and a former lecturer in the Faculty of Education. I am currently pursuing master's degree in education at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, School of Education, Pietermaritzburg Campus.

My research is on Social Studies Teachers' Pedagogy in Selected Secondary Schools in Malawi. The aim of the study is to analyse Social Studies teachers' pedagogic practice and to interrogate the reasons why they make these pedagogic choices.

I want to conducted research in four selected secondary schools of the two education divisions, namely North Education Division (NED) and Central East Division (CED). The fieldwork will be conducted between September and December 2018. I, therefore, request your good office for permission to conduct research in selected secondary schools, as mentioned above.

I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,



Cogitator W. y. Mapala PhD

Appendix C

Letter of Permission from the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology

1 October, 2018.

From: The Secretary for Education, Science and Technology
Private Bag 328
Lilongwe 3.


To: The Division Managers;
Northern Education Division
Central East Education Division

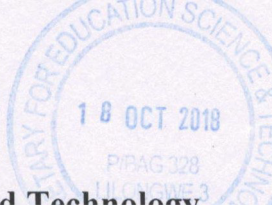
RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT AN ANALYSIS ON SOCIAL STUDIES
TEACHERS' PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE AND REASONS
FOR MAKING PEDAGOGIC CHOICES

Reference is made to the above subject, in which you requested for permission to conduct an analysis on Social Studies Teachers' Pedagogic Practice and find reasons why they make such choices. You requested to conduct a research in Northern and Central East Education Divisions' secondary schools.

Ministerial approval has been granted for you, Dr. Cogitator W.Y. Mapala, to conduct the exercise in secondary schools in Northern and Central East Education Division.

By copy of this letter, all Education Division Managers are advised to take note.


Melayi Bridget Banda
Secretary for Education, Science and Technology



For: The Secretary for Education, Science and Technology

Appendix D

Extract for Sectors of Economy in Malawi sourced Mkomba & Majamanda, 2013, used by Teacher B.

Activity 1 Brainstorming meaning of “economy” and “economic development”.

1. In pairs,
 - (a) Using your knowledge gained from the previous topics such as on Employment and on Investment, explain the meanings of economy and economic development.
 - (b) Explain how members of your family or people in your village or location earn a living.
 - (c) Find out the total amount in the current National Budget (passed by national assembly/parliament) and suggest how the government earns its money (income) and explain some of the uses of the money that the government acquires.
2. Present your findings in plenary.

Sectors of the economy

The sectors of the economy are ways in which people or a country earns money. People and countries earn income differently. The economy of Malawi can be divided into various sectors that define the proportion of the population engaged in the activities.

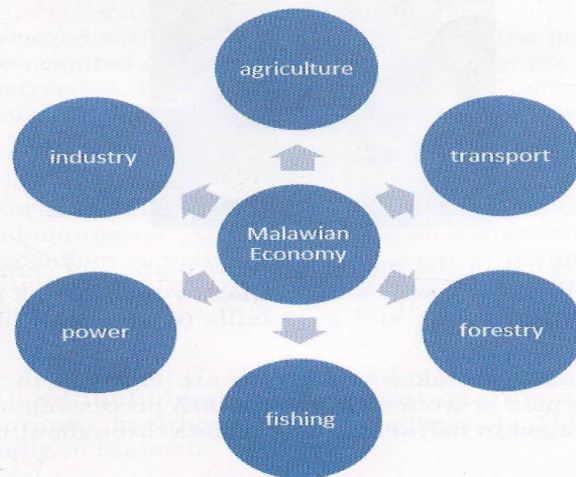


Fig.13.1: Sectors that define the proportion of the population engaged in activities.

Appendix E:



Appendix F:

Extracts used by Teacher D and Teacher B from Textbooks 2 authored by Mkomba & Majamanda, 2013. It is Unit 13

Activity 1 Brainstorming meaning of “economy” and “economic development”.

1. In pairs,
 - (a) Using your knowledge gained from the previous topics such as on Employment and on Investment, explain the meanings of economy and economic development.
 - (b) Explain how members of your family or people in your village or location earn a living.
 - (c) Find out the total amount in the current National Budget (passed by national assembly/parliament) and suggest how the government earns its money (income) and explain some of the uses of the money that the government acquires.
2. Present your findings in plenary.

Sectors of the economy

The sectors of the economy are ways in which people or a country earns money. People and countries earn income differently. The economy of Malawi can be divided into various sectors that define the proportion of the population engaged in the activities.

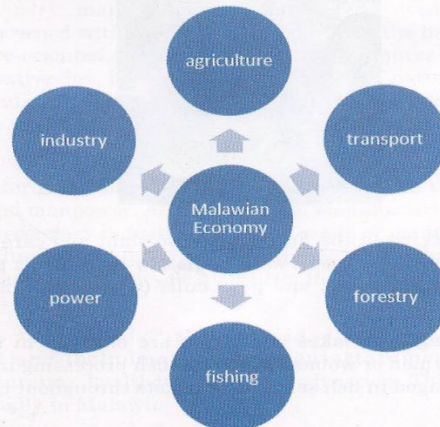


Fig.13.1: 5 sectors that define the proportion of the population engaged in activities.

Agriculture: This is the biggest sector of the economy in Malawi. Most people work in this sector to grow crops for food and to produce cash crops for sale. Agricultural goods are Malawi's most important exports. Some cash crops are grown by smallholder farmers (individual families own small plots of land on which they grow crops) in Malawi such as tobacco, coffee, Soy beans and groundnut. Some cash crops are grown on estates such as tea and sugarcane. People work on estates (extensive/ large pieces of land) to produce cash crops or work to process the crops such as tea and sugar.

Transport: All crops and animal products or manufactured (made in factories) goods for sale have to be transported to customers whether in Malawi or abroad. The common transport for Malawi is road transport, which is supplemented (other forms are) by rail, water and air transport. People work in transport to provide services such carrying passengers where they want to go by taxi and bus as well as goods to their destination.

Power: This is the industry, which provides electricity to homes and factories. Electricity is produced using fast flowing water (hydroelectric station) such as Nkula and Tedzani, and by other burning coal or oil in power stations.



Fig.13.2: Nkula Hydroelectric Station

Forestry: People working in the Forestry sector plant and care for the trees for timber production. Other people work in the saw-mills (plank production) for building and furniture making, and pulp mills (where wood is turned into paper).

Fishing: People living near lakes and rivers are engaged in fishing. Here people work as fishermen or women or work in fish processing industries and other people are engaged in fish selling in markets throughout the country.

Activity 2 → Identifying different sectors of the economy

1. In groups:
 - (a) Identify the different ways in which people and government earn money in Malawi.
 - (b) Research on the major ways of earning money in Malawi and find out how big each sector is in terms of people employed and contribution to development.
 - (c) Why is it important to have different ways of earning money rather than depending on only 1 or 2 ways?
 - (d) Suggest how we can improve the economy for rapid economic development.
2. Present your findings in plenary.

Exercise

1. Define the following terms:
 - (a) Economy
 - (b) Economic development
2. Why is it difficult for a weak economy like Malawi to provide social services?
3. Suggest ways to improve emerging sectors of mining and tourism.
4. Which is the biggest sector of Malawian economy and why?

Contribution of different sectors to the economic development in Malawi

Every sector is important to the economic development of Malawi. They include:-

- Agriculture sector

Agriculture is the backbone of the economic system of Malawi. Agriculture accounts for about 37% of Gross Domestic Products (GDP) and 85 % of export revenues mainly through its major export items such as sugar, tea, tobacco and coffee. It supplies peoples' food and fodder for domestic animals. It is also a source of raw materials to major industries such as cotton, sugar and tobacco. In addition to providing food and raw materials, agricultural activities also provide employment opportunities to over 80 % of the population. As a result the national income levels as well as people's standard of living are improved.

- Industry sector

The manufacturing sector accounts for 11% of GDP and is mainly made up of Agro-processing activities while distribution and services represent about 22% of GDP. Many people are also employed in these sub-sectors.

- Transport sector

Malawi is striving to improve its transport system so that it is efficient. Transport in Malawi provides economic and social opportunities and other benefits which result in positive multiplier effects such as linking more locations and better accessibility to larger markets and stimulating trade. It results in increased employment, saves time and reduces costs for passengers, freight and information movement. It also leads to the development of other sectors such as the industry, mining and agriculture.

- Power sector

The energy sector brings in government revenue from domestic electricity consumers and from electricity exports. It also creates jobs in electricity generation and distribution activities and during installation of solar photovoltaic panels. It provides one of the most important inputs for other sectors such as industry, fishery and transport.

Review questions

1. Define the following terms:
(a) Economy (b) Economic development
2. Distinguish between weak and strong economy.
3. Why should we consider Malawi a weak economy?
4. Identify main sector of the Malawian economy and suggest sectors to invest on because they are likely to grow in Malawi apart from agriculture.
5. Which category of industries is very important? Give reasons for your answer.
6. Explain how economic sectors contribute to economic development of Malawi.
7. Suggest how the economy of Malawi is different from those of developed countries like USA, UK or Japan.
8. Suggest ways to improve the Malawian economy. Outline 5 ways in an essay form.

Glossary

Economy: all the different ways a family or a community earns money.

Economic development: A strong economy (economic growth) which improves the living standards of the people.

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Unit summary

An economy refers to the different ways of earning money by a family, community or a country. Sectors of the economy of Malawi include agriculture, industry, transport, forestry, power and fishing. But the main sector of Malawian economy is agriculture. Every sector of the economy is important to the economic development of the country through production of goods and services which are consumed locally or exported for foreign exchange. Other sectors such as power and transport enable other sectors to operate effectively. People are also employed across the sectors which lead to the improvement of their living standards.

APPENDIX G:

Extract is from Unit 19 used by Teacher C from Textbook 2 written by Mkomba and Majamanda, 2013.

Unit 19 Interdependence of nations

In book 1 you learnt that countries of the world depend on each other for various reasons such as trade, transport, communication, cultural exchange, health, security and education. This interdependence helps countries to solve common problems amongst themselves and promote cooperation. In this unit you will learn about organizations that promote cooperation amongst nations. These organizations either operate regionally or globally in terms of area of influence. Malawi as a country is a member of various regional and international organizations. It is through these organizations that Malawi is able to work together with other nations on various issues.

In this unit you will be able to identify organizations that promote international cooperation, and explain how they promote international cooperation. This knowledge will enable you appreciate how countries of the world deal with global issues through cooperation. It will also help you to understand your relationship as a Malawian to the regional, continental and global community.

Organizations that promote cooperation among nations

There are many organizations that promote cooperation among nations whether regionally or globally. There are many reasons why groups of countries decide to cooperate. These organizations have various aims and objectives ranging from promoting international trade, world peace, human rights, good governance, development and poverty eradication. For instance, one small country finds it difficult to negotiate fair terms of trade with more powerful countries. So countries including those of Africa have set up organizations so that they can have a powerful voice as a group.

Regional organizations

Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)

COMESA started in 1994 with its main aim of forming a free trade area. This meant that individual countries would remove the tariffs (duties or taxes) on goods. COMESA is made up of 19 countries in Central and Eastern Africa including Malawi. It stretches from

Libya in the north to Zimbabwe in the south. Its other responsibilities and functions include; improving transport and communications; supporting a Court of justice to settle disputes. COMESA has its headquarters in Lusaka Zambia.

Activity 1 ▶ Identifying organizations that promote international cooperation

1. In groups:
 - (a) Identify any three regional organizations to which Malawi belongs.
 - (b) Conduct a library research on any one regional organization identified above.
 - (c) Write a brief report of the organization. You should focus on; area of influence, its objectives and activities.
 - (d) State how Malawi as a country would benefit from the organisations' activities.
2. Present your findings in plenary.

Activity 2 ▶ Identifying membership and responsibilities of COMESA

1. In groups
 - (a) Identify other members of COMESA apart from Malawi and Zambia.
 - (b) Locate COMESA member countries on a Map of Africa.
 - (c) Discuss how Malawi would benefit for being a member of COMESA.
 - (d) Four countries; Mozambique, Lesotho, Namibia and Tanzania have left COMESA. Suggest reasons why these nations have left COMESA.
2. Present your findings in plenary.

Southern African Development Community (SADC)

SADC is an organization of southern African countries. It was originally formed as the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC). The first SADC conference took place in Arusha, Tanzania, and it was attended by Angola, Botswana, Mozambique, Tanzania and Zambia. These were called the "Frontline States". In attendance were also representatives from donor governments and international aid agencies. Lesotho, Swaziland, Malawi and Zimbabwe joined the organization in the following year. Namibia joined in 1990 and South Africa joined in 1994. In

RMCs which are unable to borrow on the non-concessional terms of the AfDB. In harmony with its lending strategy, poverty reduction is the main aim of ADF activities. Twenty-four non-African countries along with the AfDB constitute its current membership. The largest ADF shareholder is the United States with approximately 6.5 percent of the total voting shares, followed by Japan with approximately 5.4 percent. The Federal Reserve Bank of New York was designated as the depositor bank for the fund according to telegraphs sent from the U.S. Embassy in Abidjan in 1976.

The Nigeria Trust Fund (NTF) was established in 1976 by the Nigerian government with an initial capital of \$80 million. The NTF is aimed at assisting in the development efforts of the poorest AfDB members. The NTF uses its resources to provide financing for projects of national or regional importance which further the economic and social development of the low-income RMCs whose economic and social conditions require financing on non-conventional terms. In 1996, the NTF had a total resource base of \$432 million. It lends at a 4% interest rate with a 25-year repayment period, including a five-year grace period. [5]The AfDB is controlled by a Board of Executive Directors, made up of representatives of its member countries. The voting power on the Board is split according to the size of each member's share, currently 60%-40% between African (or "regional") countries and "non-regional" member countries ("donors"). The largest African Development Bank shareholder is Nigeria with nearly 9 percent of the vote. All member countries of the AfDB are represented on the AfDB Board of Executive Directors. All countries in the African Union including Mauritania but excluding the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic (SADR) are eligible for NTF benefits. Morocco is also eligible though not a part of the African Union.

International organizations

There are also international organizations which try to solve some of the world's problems and promote cooperation. The most important of these is the group of organizations which belong to the United Nations.

The United Nations (UN)

The United Nations was founded in 1945 after World War II to replace the League of Nations to maintain world peace (stop war between countries) and provide a platform for dialogue. The UN has broadened its aims. It believes that the world community should also solve problems such as poverty, violations of human rights, corruption and arms sales, all of which may lead to conflict. So the UN works to;

- Protect the environment
- Promote development

- Promote respect of human rights and democracy
- Reduce poverty

The United Nations Headquarters is in New York, USA and other main offices are in Geneva, Nairobi and Vienna. At its founding, the UN had 51 member states; there are now 193. This means almost every country in the world is a member of the UN today. The UN has six main parts or organs;

General Assembly: This is where representatives of all the member states meet in yearly sessions under a president elected from among the member states. Every member country has one vote despite its size, population or wealth. When the General assembly votes on important questions such as election of members to organs and budgetary matters, a two-third majority is required. All other questions are decided by majority votes.

Security Council: This is the most powerful organ of the UN which tries to prevent conflicts between member countries. If this fails, it may send peace keeping forces to the area of conflict or use trade embargos (instruct members to avoid trade with a country concerned). It has 15 members; five permanent members (USA, Russia, China, France, and United Kingdom) with veto power and ten temporary (elected) members for two- year terms.

Secretariat: It is the administrative organ of the UN chaired by the UN Secretary General. It looks at administrative work such as organizing conferences, writing minutes and reports, and preparation of budget-plans, information and translation.

International court of justice (ICJ): This is a universal court that settles disputes between states. It is made up of 15 judges who are elected by the General assembly.

Economic and social council (ECOSOC): This is concerned with global economic and social cooperation and development. It is responsible for raising the general standards of living; solve economic, social and health problems, promotion of human rights, culture and education as well as humanitarian aid. It has 54 members all of which are elected by the General Assembly for a three-year term. ECOSOC meets once a year in July for a four-week session.

Trusteeship Council: This was responsible for administering trust territories. Currently, it is not active since 1994 when the last trust territory, Palau attained independence.

Specialized organizations and agencies of the United Nations

There are many organizations or agencies in the UN linked to it. Many of these organizations and agencies exist to work on particular issues. It is through these agencies that the UN also performs most of its humanitarian work. Some of these include;

World Food Programme (WFP): This is the food assistance branch of the United Nations and it is the world's largest humanitarian organization addressing hunger. WFP provides food, and works to help people who are unable to produce or obtain enough food for themselves and their families. It also strives to eradicate hunger and malnutrition, with the ultimate goal in mind of eliminating the need for food aid itself.

World Health Organization (WHO): This is a specialized agency of the United Nations (UN) that is concerned with international public health. It has been playing a leading role in the eradication of smallpox. Its current priorities include, HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis; sexual and reproductive health; food security and healthy eating; occupational health; substance abuse; and drives the development of reporting, publications, and networking.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO): it is a specialized agency of the United Nations (UN). Its purpose is to contribute to peace and security by promoting international collaboration through education, science, and culture.

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF): It is a United Nations Programme that provides long-term humanitarian and developmental assistance to children and mothers in developing countries. UNICEF was created to initially provide emergency food and healthcare to children in countries that had been devastated by World War II.

Activity 8 Researching and discussing functions of UN

1. In groups:
 - (a) Research on the following agencies of the UN and find out their responsibilities.
 - FAO
 - UNHCR
 - IMF
 - World Bank
 - ILO

The Federation International de Football Association (FIFA)

FIFA is the international governing body football, futsal and beach soccer. Its membership comprises 209 national associations. Its headquarters are in Zurich, Switzerland. FIFA is responsible for the organization of football's major international tournaments, notably the World Cup. FIFA was founded in Paris on 21st May, 1904. The founding members were the national associations of Belgium, Denmark, France, The Netherlands, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland. The increasing popularity of international fixtures necessitated the formation of FIFA. FIFA's supreme body is the FIFA congress, an assembly made up of representatives from each affiliated member associations. The FIFA congress can pass changes to FIFA's statutes, approve the annual report, and decide on acceptance of new national associations and hold elections. The congress elects the president of FIFA, its General Secretary and members of the executive committee on the year following the FIFA World Cup. Each nation's football association has one vote, regardless of its size or footballing strength. Besides its worldwide institutions (presidency, executive committee, congress), there are six confederations recognized by FIFA which oversees the game in the different continents and regions of the world including Confederation of African Football (CAF). In total, FIFA recognizes 209 national associations and their associated men's national teams and 129 women's national teams. The FIFA world Rankings are updated monthly and rank each team based on their performance in international competitions, qualifiers and friendly matches. The laws that govern football are known as Laws of the Game.

Activity 9 Discussing the roles of FIFA

1. In pairs:
 - (a) Name the national football association in Malawi.
 - (b) FIFA oversees world football. Explain the importance of the role of FIFA.
 - (c) Find out FIFA current ranking and find out the position of Malawi and countries in first 5 positions.
 - (d) How has Malawi benefitted from being a member of FIFA.
2. Present your findings in plenary.

Ways in which international organizations promote international cooperation

The regional and international organizations promote cooperation in various ways;

- They strengthen trade such as SADC, COMESA, EU, the Commonwealth, WCO, and ECOWAS.
- They remove tariffs through agreements to create free trade or customs union such as SADC, COMESA, EU, and ECOWAS.
- Through military assistance such as ECOWAS, UN and AU
- Through economic assistance such as ADB, EU, World Bank, IMF, and Commonwealth.
- Organizing sporting activities; COSAFA, FIFA, COMMONWEALTH, and ECOWAS.
- Dealing with environmental and health problems such as HIV/AIDS, environmental degradation and climate change.

Activity 10 Discussing how international organizations promote international cooperation

1. In groups:
 - (a) Having studied various international organizations, outline ways in which these organizations promote international cooperation.
 - (b) Describe how Malawi benefits from the regional and international organizations.
2. Present your findings in plenary.
3. As a class role play the UN assembly in session discussing important issues such as; illiteracy, climate change, poverty, conflicts, HIV/Aids, arms sale etc.

Unit summary

Countries in the world establish organizations mainly to deal with common problems amongst themselves. Malawi is a member of some organizations both regional and international such as SADC, COMESA, FIFA, UN and the Commonwealth. These organizations tend to promote cooperation among nations when dealing with global challenges. Cooperation is promoted in various ways, for example by promoting trade, cultural exchange and sporting among them or by dealing with economic and health problems commonly faced by the countries concerned.

APPENDIX H:

Extract from Unit 11 of Textbook 1 written by Mkomba and Majamanda, 2013, which Teacher A used in a lesson

Unit

11

Constitution of the Republic of Malawi

In unit 10 you looked at constitutions. In this unit, you will identify and discuss main features and symbols of the constitution of the Republic of Malawi. Then, you will identify fundamental principles of the Constitution of Malawi. Finally, the unit will assist you outline the major changes of the constitution of the Republic of Malawi since 1961 and factors responsible for these changes. It is important that you learn about the constitution of Malawi because it is the rule of life for the Malawian society. You will also appreciate the changes that have been taking place in the constitution and how these changes have affected your life.

Main Features of the Constitution of the Republic of Malawi

The constitution of Malawi has several features which include;

- It is a supreme law of the land. This means that any other laws which do not agree with it must be changed so that they say the same thing as the constitution.
- It describes the powers, limits, duties and responsibilities and code of conduct of the president, cabinet ministers, members of parliament and all public officers of the various government institutions.
- It determines the sovereign status of the state of Malawi.
- It describes the national territory of the Republic of Malawi.
- It safeguards the rights and freedom of the people of Malawi through a Bill of Rights. A Bill of Rights is a list of basic freedoms and rights of all citizens of the country set out in the constitution. The enactment of human rights is necessary to serve as a reminder that these basic rights should not be violated.
- It states the source of its authority. That is the people of Malawi.
- Legal protection: - it is legally protected by the courts of law which operate independently of government. This means that if there is a dispute about the constitution, the judges can make a fair decision about it.

Activity 1 Brainstorming and discussing the main features of the constitution of the republic of Malawi

1. In groups;
 - a) State features which are common to all constitution you covered in Unit 10. Suggest which features can apply to the constitution of the Republic of Malawi.
 - b) Go through the contents page in the constitution of Malawi. Which features can you identify about the constitution?
 - c) Suppose there was no bill of rights in the constitution of Republic of Malawi. What would be the consequence?
 - d) Explain why the constitution of Malawi;
 - i. Should be the supreme law?
 - ii. Is based on people's authority?
 - iii. Should be legally protected?
2. Present your findings in the plenary.

National Symbols of the Republic of Malawi

A symbol is something that stands for or represents an idea, quality or a condition. Malawi's national symbols therefore include all ideas, qualities or conditions that represent or belong to the whole nation.

These symbols are a sign of the sovereignty (independence) of the nation and symbols of national identity which give its citizens a feeling of belonging to a nation with common values (patriotism). They also promote unity within the cultural diversity. The national symbols of Malawi include:-

1. National Flag

Historically, the national flag of the Republic of Malawi had three horizontal bands of colours; black, red and green with the rising sun super-imposed on the black stripe or belt. However, between 2010 and 2012 the national flag was replaced by a similar flag with a full bright sun in white super-imposed on it. It had the same horizontal bands of colours; red, black, and green arranged in that order.

The black colour stands for people of Africa, the rising sun represents the dawn of freedom, the red colour represents the blood Malawians and other Africans lost in the struggle for freedom and independence and the green colour stands for the evergreen nature (vegetation) of Malawi.



Fig.11 .1 Malawi National Flag

In the 2010-2012 flag, the full bright sun reflected the development that has taken place in the country since the attainment of independence. However, in 2012 the full bright sun was again replaced by the original rising sun when a new government ushered into power.

2. National Coat of Arms

It is a design on a shield used as an emblem (symbol) by the nation. It has an insignia, crown, helmet and helmet cover. It has also a motto (a short sentence or phrase used as a guide or rule of behaviour or as an expression of aims or ideals). The coat of arms has the rising sun at the top and bottom of the shield. The fish eagle and wavy bands on the shield symbolize Lake Malawi while the Lion and the Leopard guard the crest as a whole. The land at the base is the rugged Mount Mulanje. The crest bears the motto 'Unity and Freedom'. The Coat of arms for Malawi is used on government official papers.



Fig 11.2. The National Coat of Arms

3. The Public Seal

This is the official stamp of the office of the president. It is stamped on very important documents such as parliament bills and passports. The seal is also used to certify legal documents such as birth and death certificates issued by the Registrar General. The public seal depicts the coat of arms with the words, "Republic of Malawi" around it.

4. The National Anthem

This is a national hymn and prayer. It is actually a patriotic song used on official occasions such as public meetings like the school assembly and international sporting events. It was composed by the late Michael Fredrick Lawrence Sauka who died in 1989.

APPENDIX I

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APPENDIX J:

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Unit 22: Interdependence among Nations

Appendix K Rubric for Data Analysis adapted from Bertram, 2008 Discursive rule **SELECTION** (F⁺)

The extent to which teacher and learner have control over the selection of instructional knowledge

1. In the introduction / discussion to a task	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Learners have very little or no control	Learners have a little control	Learners have some control	Learners have substantial control
	The selection of knowledge in discussion is almost always determined by the teacher. Learners are rarely able to disrupt the selection to suit their own needs. Their interjections are generally dismissed or ignored or they are not seen to make any interjections.	The selection of knowledge in the discussion is determined by the teacher most of the time. On very few occasions is selection varied according to learner intervention or production	Learners have the opportunity to vary the selection of knowledge some of the time. Some learner suggestions are accepted, or the teacher alters selection, the course of discussion according to learners' productions.	Learners often make decisions around the selection of focus and discussion in the classroom. They are usually given the opportunity to determine the discussion and activity of the lesson.

2. In doing an activity	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Learners have very little control	Learners have a little control	Learners have some control	Learners have substantial control

	The selection of tasks, activities and knowledge in the classroom is always or almost always determined by the teacher. Learners are rarely able to disrupt the selection to suit their own needs. Their interjections are generally dismissed or ignored or they are not seen to make any interjections.	The selection of tasks, activities and knowledge in the classroom is determined by the teacher most of the time. On very few occasions is selection varied according to learner intervention or production.	Learners have the opportunity to vary the selection of tasks, activities, knowledge some of the time. Some learner suggestions are accepted, or the teacher alters selection according to learners' productions.	Learners often make decisions around the selection of tasks and activities in the classroom. They are given opportunities to determine the knowledge content of the lessons.
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3. When learners have concluded an activity	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Learners have very little control	Learners have a little control	Learners have some control	Learners have substantial control
	Learners rarely or never make decisions around the selection of tasks and activities once they have concluded set work. Choices on how to continue are generally dictated by the teacher.	Learners seldom make decisions around the selection of tasks and activities once they have concluded set work. They have a narrow range of choices on how to continue, and the teacher makes most of the decisions on what should be done.	Learners sometimes make decisions around the selection of tasks and activities once they have concluded set work. They have a wide range of choices on how to continue, however the teacher makes quite a few suggestions on what they should do.	Learners often make decisions around the selection of tasks and activities once they have concluded set work. They have a wide range of choices on how to continue, and the teacher makes few if any suggestions on what they should do.

Discursive rule **SEQUENCING** (F⁺)

The extent to which teacher and learner have control over the sequencing of instructional knowledge

4. In the course of the lesson	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Learners have very little control	Learners have a little control	Learners have some control	Learners have substantial control
	The teacher always or almost always determines the sequence of transmission of knowledge in the lesson. Any interjections potentially disturbing the order of learning are dismissed or ignored.	The teacher more than half of the time determines the sequence of transmission of knowledge in the lesson. She mostly determines the order in which learning should take place.	Learners have the opportunity to vary the sequence of the transmission some of the time. The teacher sometimes responds to learners' interventions by varying the sequence of the learning.	Learners often make decisions around the sequence of tasks and activities in the lesson. They are regularly given options regarding the order in which to do things

Discursive rule **PACE** (F⁺)

The extent to which teacher and learner have control over the pacing of instructional knowledge

5. In the introduction / discussion / question and answer	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Learners have very little control over the pace	Learners have a little control over the pace	Learners have some control over the pace	Learners have substantial control over the pace
	The teacher always or mostly defers or ignores learners' questions and interjections, or learners make no interjections. Exposition, debate and discussion is not changed or disrupted by the learners.	The teacher accepts few learner interventions and questions. She answers questions briefly and moves on. Time is mentioned quite often	The teacher accepts some learner interventions and questions. She pauses the lesson briefly to make sure that all learners are ready to move on before doing so.	The teacher accepts most or all learner interventions and questions. She makes sure that all learners are ready to move on before doing so. The discussion may be extended or deviate due to learners' interjections.

6. In the learners doing activities / tasks	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Learners have very little control over the pace	Learners have a little control over the pace	Learners have some control over the pace	Learners have substantial control over the pace
	The pace at which learners work through tasks is almost always strictly controlled by the teacher. Injunctions to ‘hurry up’ or ‘work slowly’ and mention of time are frequent. Learners are not able to disrupt the pace set by the teacher. There is extremely strict adherence to time frames.	The pace at which learners work through tasks is mostly determined by the teacher. Time is mentioned quite often and on occasion the length of an activity is stipulated beforehand.	Learners work at their own pace. The teacher exercises some control over pace, but remains open to its variation.	Learners work at their own pace. The teacher places no pressure on them to finish in a stipulated period, but generally waits until they have all finished, or gives them further opportunities to catch up.

Discursive rule **EVALUATION CRITERIA (F⁺⁻)**

The extent to which teacher and learner have control over the evaluative rules of the instructional knowledge pertaining to the meaning of concepts and principles and their appropriate realisation

7. In the introduction / explanation / exposition to a topic / task	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Evaluative rules very clear and explicit	Evaluative rules quite clear and explicit	Evaluative rules quite unclear and implicit	Evaluative rules very unclear and implicit

	Teacher always or almost always makes the evaluative rules available through exposition. Explicitly defines and explains the meaning of concepts, addresses key aspects of the knowledge or operation under discussion through questioning and explication. She makes it clear exactly how a task should be completed.	Most of the time the teacher makes the evaluative rules available in an explicit and clear manner through explication and discussion. The requirements for the successful completion of a task are generally clear, although there may be some aspects that remain implicit.	The concepts and principles being addressed in the exposition are sometimes unclear. Attempts are made to make the requirements for the successful production of a text available to learners, but these are often unclear or not articulated. Some ambiguity as to what should be done and how it should be done exists.	Generally the teacher does not draw out the knowledge principles in her exposition. Very little or no attempt is made to make the requirements for the successful production of a text available to learners. Learners are unclear as to how to proceed, or proceed in any manner they choose.
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8. In the course of learners conducting an activity or task	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Evaluative rules very clear and explicit	Evaluative rules quite clear and explicit	Evaluative rules quite unclear and implicit	Evaluative rules very unclear and implicit
	The teacher constantly moves around and monitors what learners are doing and making comments. To the whole class and to individuals she repeatedly goes over what constitutes an appropriate performance.	The teacher makes some points either to the whole class or to individual learners so as to clarify what is expected of them in the task.	The teacher makes a few comments during the course of the task and looks at some of the learners work, or listens to them read, however this is not sustained and the criteria for a successful production are not made explicit to all.	The teacher looks at a few learners' work when it is brought to her attention. She rarely or never listens to them read. Rarely she makes a comment to the learner. These are not extended to the whole class.

9. In the kinds of verbal answers required of learners	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻
	Evaluative rules very clear and explicit	Evaluative rules quite clear and explicit	Evaluative rules quite unclear and implicit	Evaluative rules very unclear and implicit
	Learners are always or almost always required to give reasons for their answers. They may be asked to draw out a more general principle to support, clarify or modify their answer. In incorrect responses the teacher shows why the answer is incorrect. The teacher usually elaborates on a correct answer.	Learners are often required to give reasons for their answers. They are sometimes asked to clarify or modify their answer. In incorrect responses the teacher often shows why the answer is incorrect. The teacher often elaborates on a correct answer.	Learners are on a few occasions required to give reasons for their answers. In incorrect responses the teacher sometimes shows why the answer is incorrect. The teacher does not elaborate on a correct answer.	The teacher looks only for yes / no answers, or for learners to repeat what she has just said. Incorrect answers are generally ignored, or the reasons for them are not sought. Correct answers are accepted and may be praised, but are not elaborated on.

10. At the conclusion of the task / activity	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻
	Evaluative rules very clear and explicit	Evaluative rules quite clear and explicit	Evaluative rules quite unclear and implicit	Evaluative rules very unclear and implicit

	<p>The teacher makes specific comments around what constitutes an appropriate production. There is rigorous evaluation of learners' productions. She gives examples of both success and failure in the task and may point to individual performances. Marking of the work with comments on individual items in the activity may occur.</p>	<p>The teacher makes some comment on what constitutes a successful production, but this is directed more at the class as a whole and on general points.</p>	<p>Learners work is ticked and signed or corrections are written up on the board but with little or no comment as to what constitutes an appropriate production.</p>	<p>The teacher looks at, ticks, and or signs the learners work making little or no comments on it. Students are not given access to the criteria for success or failure in their productions.</p>
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Hierarchical rule **TEACHER – LEARNER (F⁺)**

The extent to which teacher and learner have control over the order, character and manner of the conduct of learners in the relation between teacher and learner

11. When learners do routine activities in the classroom	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Learners are never / very rarely self-regulating	Learners are seldom self-regulating	Learners are often self-regulating	Learners are predominantly self-regulating
	Almost all routine activities are as a result of explicit instruction from the teacher. Learner reception is passive, and discipline is controlled by the teacher. When the teacher is absent from the class activity mostly ceases	The learners largely do things in the classroom in response to instructions from the teacher. They seldom indicate the habitualising of certain routines and discipline.	The learners are sometimes self-regulating. There is some didactic instruction from the teacher regarding learning and disciplinary routines.	The learners to a large extent are self-regulating and active with respect to learning. They manage their own books, and have internalized certain routines and disciplinary norms.

12. When the teacher disciplines a learner or learners	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Positional or imperative	Mostly positional	Personal or positional	Mostly personal
	The teacher becomes angry and admonishes the learner based on positional control and threatens further action (physical or non). Rationales for actions are not provided by the teacher.	The teacher admonishes the learner using positional control. Rules and control are generally based on formal status relation teacher-pupil, or on sex or age attributes of child.	The teacher listens to learners' reasons for their actions and reproves them based on personal or positional control.	The teacher mostly listens to learners' reasons for their actions and provides a counter argument using personal control. Teacher provides a personalised rationale for her actions.

13. When the teacher asks the learner to do a task unrelated to the instruction	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Positional or imperative	Mostly positional	Personal or positional	Mostly personal
	The teacher provides no rationale as to why the task should be done. The task is unrelated to the class or to school activities in general (e.g. making the teacher tea).	The teacher provides little or no rationale as to why the task should be done. The task is generally related to the class or to school activities in general (e.g. opening the windows).	The teacher often provides a rationale as to why the task should be done. The task is always related to the class or school activities in general. Learners may conduct duties that are routinised.	The teacher always provides a rationale as to why the task should be done. The task is always related to the class or school activities in general. Learners may conduct duties that are routinised, on a rotational basis.

Hierarchical rule **LEARNER – LEARNER** (F⁺)

The extent to which teacher and learner have control over the order, character and manner of the conduct of learners in the relation between learners

14. In the way in which learners are seated and change seating in the classroom	F ⁺⁺	F ⁺	F ⁻	F ⁻⁻
	Regulated by teacher	Mostly regulated by teacher	Sometimes regulated by the learner	Regulated by the learner
	Learners sit in seats or groups assigned by the teacher. Learners may not change the composition of their groups or change their seating place.	Learners sit in seats or groups which have been negotiated between teacher and learners. Learners may request to change the composition of their groups or their seating place at times.	Learners sit in seats chosen by themselves. The seating arrangement is at times altered by the teacher, or at the request of a learner.	Learners sit in seats chosen by themselves. The seating arrangement may be altered by the learners.

Discursive relations **INTER-DISCIPLINARY RELATIONS (Between subject areas) (C⁺)**

The extent to which reference is made to knowledge from other subjects in the teaching of a particular content/s

15. In the introduction / explanation / exposition to a topic / task	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	Seldom references other contents	Sometimes references other contents	Often references other contents	Very often references other contents
	There is very little or no referencing of content from other subject areas within a particular Social Studies lesson.	Contents from other subject areas are sometimes referred to.	There is substantial referencing of contents from other subject areas to explain the topic under discussion or to revise or remind learners.	Contents from other subjects are constantly referred to, to the extent that it difficult at times to determine what the focus subject is.
16. In the tasks that are set for learners	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	Seldom references other contents	Sometimes references other contents	Often references other contents	Very often references other contents
	Tasks rarely or never relate knowledge from other subject areas.	On a few occasions tasks reference contents of other subject areas. Tasks may reference other subjects through the use of a particular theme framing the task, however, this does not constitute the focus.	There is substantial referencing of contents from other subject areas in the tasks that are set.	Contents from other subjects are very often referenced in tasks. Often knowledge of the Social Studies topic is obscured.

Inter-discursive relations **INTER-DISCURSIVE RELATIONS (Between school and everyday knowledges) (C⁺)**

The relation in the instructional knowledge between everyday knowledge and Social Studies knowledge.

17. In the discussion of the topic or task	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	The relation is always explicit and concept directed	The relation is often explicit and concept directed	The relation is often implicit and theme directed	The relation is always / almost always implicit and theme directed
	Everyday knowledge is referenced only in order to explicate the Social Studies knowledge (content, operations, procedures) introduced. The relation between the knowledges is made explicit. Other references to everyday knowledge are dismissed.	Everyday knowledge is mostly referenced in order to explicate the Social Studies knowledge (content, operations, procedures) introduced. The relation between the knowledges is generally made explicit. Most other references to everyday knowledge are dismissed.	Everyday knowledge is often referenced; the connection between the everyday knowledge and the Social Studies topic or task is less explicit. This may occur through the deployment of a theme.	Everyday knowledge is constantly referenced; the distinction between the Social Studies topic or task and everyday knowledge is not explicit. Everyday knowledge in order to elaborate the theme (as opposed to the concept) is often deployed or accepted.

18. In the responses and questions of the learners	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	Everyday knowledge is rejected	Sometimes everyday knowledge is accepted and integrated	Often everyday knowledge is accepted and less integrated	All / most everyday knowledge is accepted and rarely / never integrated.
	Learners' responses and questions that refer to the everyday are dismissed or ignored. Only references to everyday knowledge that relate explicitly to the Social Studies topic or task are accepted.	Learners' responses and questions that refer to the everyday are sometimes addressed and the connections between these and the Social Studies topic or task are at times made explicit.	Learners' responses and questions that refer to the everyday are often accepted. The connections between these and the Social Studies topic or task are often implicit or do not exist.	Learners' responses and questions that refer to the everyday are always or almost always accepted. The connections between these and the Social Studies topic or task are usually not made explicit, although they relate to the theme being utilised.

19. In the tasks that are given to learners	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	The focus is always on the Social Studies concept/s	The focus is mostly on the Social Studies concept/s	The focus is seldom on the Social Studies concept/s	The focus is rarely / never on the Social Studies concept
	The tasks require an engagement with the Social Studies topic or task only. No reference to the everyday is seen or made. Tasks require solely the working with the Social Studies task or topic at hand.	The tasks require an engagement with the Social Studies topic or task, however some reference is made to everyday knowledge through the deployment of themes, through pictures or titles. These however do not constitute the focus of the task.	The tasks require an engagement with some of the Social Studies topic or task, however everyday knowledge is included in such activities as colouring in, singing, verses or drawing.	The tasks require very little or no engagement with the Social Studies topic or task. Everyday knowledge predominates in such activities as colouring in, singing, verses or drawing. Very little or no specialised Social Studies concepts or operations are contained in the activities.

Discursive relations **INTRA-DISCIPLINARY RELATIONS (C⁺)**

The extent to which reference is made to other contents in the subject area in the teaching of a particular content/s, reference to similar past or future topics, or the statement of more general principles, axioms or rules

20. In the introduction / explanation / exposition to a topic / task	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	Very often refers to other contents	Often refers to other contents	Sometimes refers to other contents	Rarely refers to other contents
	The teacher very often or in a significant and explicit way makes reference to other content of Social Studies.	The teacher at times makes reference to other content of Social Studies.	The teacher on a few occasions makes reference to other content of Social Studies.	The teacher rarely or never makes reference to other content of Social Studies.

21. In the response to questions from learners	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	Very often refers to other contents	Often refers to other contents	Sometimes refers to other contents	Rarely refers to other contents
	The teacher very often or in a significant and explicit way makes reference to other content.	The teacher at times makes reference to other content of Social Studies.	The teacher on a few occasions makes reference to other content of Social Studies.	The teacher rarely or never makes reference to other content of Social Studies.

22. At the conclusion of the task / activity	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	Very often refers to other contents	Often refers to other contents	Sometimes refers to other contents	Rarely refers to other contents
	The teacher very often or in a significant and explicit way makes reference to other content.	The teacher at times makes reference to other content of Social Studies.	The teacher on a few occasions makes reference to other content of Social Studies.	The teacher rarely or never makes reference to other content of Social Studies.

Relations between **SPACES (specialisation of space for teaching and learning)** (C⁺⁻)

The extent to which space/s in the classroom are marked off and specialised for teaching and learning, and the strength of insulation between the classroom and the outside.

	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	Very bounded	Quite bounded	Quite unbounded	Very unbounded

23. Between inside and outside the classroom	The teacher rarely or never leaves the classroom. Learners' movement out of the classroom is strictly monitored and curtailed. There are few interruptions and these are generally formal (via intercom). The surrounding classrooms are generally quiet.	The teacher on a few occasions leaves the class, and learners generally remain in class or ask specific permission to leave the classroom. The surrounding classrooms are quiet.	The teacher generally remains in the classroom, but there are often disruptions from the outside (incl cell phone) and children at times move in and out of the classroom. There are a few noise interruptions from outside.	Teacher and learners often move in and out of the classroom. There are often disruptions from other teachers, parents, students. The surrounding classrooms are noisy.
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Relations between **SPACES (insulation between teacher's space and learners' space) (C⁺)**

The extent to which space/s in the classroom are marked off for teacher and learners, and the strength of insulation between teacher and learners' spaces.

24. In movement between teacher and learner space	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻
	Very bounded	Quite bounded	Quite unbounded	Very unbounded
	The teacher and learners generally remain in their own spaces. The teacher mostly remains in her desk or at the blackboard and learners remain in their seats. Sometimes a learner may approach the teacher for help with permission, or the teacher on a few occasions may approach a pupil in their space.	The teacher and learners generally remain in their own spaces but quite often move into each others' spaces particularly to facilitate the marking of tasks.	The teacher often enters the learners' spaces to monitor what they are doing and give assistance. Learners also regularly approach the teacher.	The teacher spends the majority of the time in the same space as the learners, checking work, marking, assisting. She rarely sits at her desks. Learners approach her frequently wherever she is.

Relations between **SUBJECTS** (teacher and learner) (C⁺)

The extent to which the teacher and the learners' roles are specialised with respect to the classroom and its practices

25. In the kinds of activities engaged in by the teacher	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻
	Very bounded	Quite bounded	Quite unbounded	Very unbounded
	The teacher is always mostly engaged in activities related to teaching and learning. A very small portion of her time involves attending to administrative issues.	The teacher is generally engaged in activities related to teaching and learning. A small portion of her time involves attending to administrative issues.	The teacher spends about half the time engaged in teaching and learning and the other half in dealing with administrative issues. On a few occasions she attends to personal issues.	The teacher spends the majority of time attending to issues unrelated to teaching and learning. These issues may also not concern administrative functions pertaining to the classroom.

26. In the kinds of activities engaged in by the learners	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻
	Very bounded	Quite bounded	Quite unbounded	Very unbounded
	Almost all of the time learners are engaged in school work. They do have some tasks like opening windows which they do at the beginning of the day.	Learners mostly do school work but some of the time is spent sitting and waiting. Small tasks unrelated to learning are at times evident.	Learners often are engaged in activities that do not have anything to do with learning. Much of the time is taken up by sitting and waiting, prayers, eating, cleaning.	Learners mostly are engaged in activities that do not have anything to do with learning. Much of the time is taken up by sitting and waiting, prayers, eating, cleaning.

	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻
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27. In the behaviour of the learners	Very bounded	Quite bounded	Quite unbounded	Very unbounded
	Learners work consistently, the teacher rarely or never disciplines them or tells them to keep quiet	Learners generally work consistently. At times the teacher has to ask the learners to keep quiet or sit down.	Often the teacher battles to get learners to work quietly and consistently. Especially towards the end of a task she has to often tell learners to sit down or be quiet.	The teacher constantly tells learners to sit down or to keep quiet. All learners do not work consistently and are frequently playing, talking or out of their seats.

28. In the dress of the learners	C ⁺⁺	C ⁺	C ⁻	C ⁻⁻
	Very bounded	Quite bounded	Quite unbounded	Very unbounded
	Learners are generally formally dressed in school uniform. Some may at times wear sports clothes.	Learners all have school uniform. Learners are generally neat, although some learners do wear slightly different variations of the uniform.	Most of the learners wear school uniform but several do not. A few are untidy or without parts of the required uniform.	Many of the learners don't have school uniform. Some are inappropriately dressed, others are untidy.

