Foundation Phase Teachers' Enactment of Curriculum Differentiation in a Full-Service School in the Zululand District

by

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at the

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Declaration

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

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(Signature of supervisor)

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(Signature of co-supervisor)

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

Abbreviation	Description
ATP	Annual Teaching Plan
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
C2005	Curriculum 2005
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements
CNE	Christian National Education
CDE	Centre for Development and Enterprise
DoE	Department of Education
DBE	Department of Basic Education
SASAMS	South African School Administrative Management System
FP	Foundation Phase
GET	General Education and Training
FET	Further Education and Training
HoD	Head of Department
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
OBE	Outcomes-based Education
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SBA	School-based Assessment

SMT	School Management Team
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
SBST	School-based Support Team
DBST	District-based Support Team
SIAS	Screen, Identity, Assess, and Support
FSS	Full-Service School
LTSM	Learning and teaching support material
HL	Home language
FAL	First additional language
ATP	Annual teaching plan
DH	Departmental head
EGRA	Early grade reading assessment
PSRIP	Primary school reading improvement programme
PLCs	Professional learning communities
SNA	Support needs assessment
4IR	Fourth Industrial Revolution

Abstract

The study presents a qualitative action research exploring teachers' enactment of CAPS curriculum differentiation in one of the full-service schools in Paulpietersburg under Zululand District, KwaZulu-Natal. The main objective of the study was to explore foundation phase teachers' enactments of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand District. As such, why do foundation phase teachers enact the curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school in the Zululand District? Also, how do the teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand District? The study employed emancipatory action research to draw on pragmatic philosophy, which led to new practical knowledge, and new abilities that created knowledge within a pragmatic context. Six teachers were purposefully sampled for the research data collection. Data was generated using focus-group meetings, observations, reflective activities, and semi-structured interviews.

The thematic analysis was applied to analyse data using the inductive process to organise data according to the conceptual framework: curriculum content, teacher's use of CAPS, lesson objectives, enactment methods, teaching strategies, teachers' role, learning and teaching support material (LTSM), lesson duration, teaching and learning environment, assessment tasks, as well as reflection and enrichment on activities. Literature explored three types of curriculum enactment influenced by a performance (content-based) curriculum, a competence (social-based) curriculum, and a differentiated (personal-based) curriculum. The research study findings on the teachers' curriculum enactment revealed that teachers' enactment of the curriculum was dominated by performance curriculum principles. As such, teachers and learners were frustrated by the level of underachievement in the prescribed objectives due to a lack of understanding and knowledge of the curriculum differentiation implementation. However, the teacher's enactment of the differentiated curriculum was improved during the second phase of the action research. Additionally, the teachers were able to trust and apply their differentiation strategies to achieve the CAPS-prescribed objectives. Nevertheless, the quality and volume of content achieved within the stipulated time raised concerns. The different enactment methods also postulated doubts in terms of meeting each learner at the point of their educational needs, taking into consideration the size of the classrooms. The study recommends that teachers be more developed in curriculum differentiation enactment to interconnect the performance curriculum with a competence-based curriculum, thereby

designing and applying the differentiated curriculum in class. The study further encouraged teachers to use different strategies to foster the curriculum without tampering with the prescribed content and skills.

CHAPTER 1

The overview, context, and objectives

1.1 Introduction

The South African national curricula are undergoing a transformation from Christian National Education (CNE) which enforced inequality and enabled traditional approaches in teaching and learning, to a democratically inclined education. The educational approaches moved towards a social-centred curriculum after South Africa had experienced freedom from the Apartheid government. This led the education curriculum to adopt a need-centred method that was aimed at redressing the inequalities of the past. Outcomes Based Education (OBE) was then introduced and dominated by socially centred content which sought to satisfy quality education for all. This curriculum was followed by the National Curriculum Statement (National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) curriculum 2005. Due to a lack of measurable quality content, the RNCS was succeeded by the current Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (Ajani, 2021; Grussendorff, Booyse, & Burroughs, 2014). In the process of the curriculum transformation and addressing education for all, the White Paper 6 was introduced, which would be applied by teachers in classes to simplify the current curriculum content and accommodate diverse learning strategies of all learners in one classroom (McKenzie, 2021; Singh & Reed, 2001; Tomlinson, 2000).

The purpose of the curriculum policy is to address learners' learning barriers which include their differing socio-economic, language, cultural, religious, ethnic, racial, gender, sexual orientation, and ability. (Booysen, 2018; De Waal, 2004; Education, 2011). In the attempt to mend the gap between the curricular changes, teachers and learners have been faced with challenges concerning curriculum delivery and curriculum problems threatening the quality of content enacted in full-service classes. This was because the curriculum is influenced by two major types of curricula which are the competence-based curriculum and the performance curriculum. This led to teachers' inadequate professional support in identifying learners with different learning abilities, methods, applying strategies for curriculum differentiation attained goals. This also led to integrating a performance curriculum (CAPS) to balance curriculum knowledge with learning outcomes without compromising the content of the current South African national curriculum (Department of Basic Education, 2011b; Khoza, 2015). Taking this problem as the rationale, this study intended to explore teachers' enactment of curriculum

differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand District. This chapter presents the overview of the study, the title of the study, purpose, rationale, context, and background as outlined. It presents a layout of the chapters that concisely summarises the literature review, research design and data-generation methods, data presentation, analysis and discussions, a discussion summary, study synopsis, and recommendations.

1.2 Title

Foundation Phase Teachers' Enactment of Curriculum Differentiation in a Full-Service School in the Zululand District.

1.3 Focus and Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand District.

1.4 Location of the Study

This study will be conducted in the Zululand District, KwaZulu Natal Province. Paulpietersburg is a rural area, its population being people of low socio-economic status. Most denizens of the area are employed as farm workers, located some 20 kilometers from Paulpietersburg; and most of the youth are unemployed. The teachers at the local schools come mostly from Newcastle, Vryheid, Pongola, and Durban, with some coming from Paulpietersburg, all residing within the community of Paulpietersburg. The main languages spoken in the community are isiZulu, and Afrikaans, with a fraction speaking German. In almost all the schools, mother-tongue instruction in the foundation phase is implemented, with English introduced in Grade 4 as the language of teaching and learning (LOTL). A large percentage of these schools is multi-graded, especially the foundation phase. The majority of learners come from unstable families, with broken family structures. Most of them live with their grandparents and some live in child-headed households due to children being orphans or having parents working in the cities far from home. The children in this community are vulnerable; they are exposed to many sexual activities, early pregnancy, substance abuse, and lack of motivation due to a lack of role models or parenting advice.

1.5 Background to Curriculum Differentiation Enactment

The competence-based curriculum is characterised by subject statements and learning areas, and the same grade content differs between schools and between provinces (Du Plessis &

Marais, 2015; Khoza, 2016b). Educational aims and goals are therefore locally stated. This is the case with the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) responding to the diversity of learner needs in the classroom and ensuring differentiation in the curriculum (Department of Basic Education, 2011b). Teachers are not provided with structured planning or lesson plans; however, they determine what to teach, how to teach, and how to assess and accommodate diversity in the class (Department of Basic Education, 2000, 2002a, 2005,2008, 2011). Norms and values are transmitted within the school. Different knowledge is acquired through pedagogic intervention, and different modes of learning and context management are also entailed (Bernstein, 2006; Rennert-Ariev, 2008). Therefore, curriculum differentiation has taken the competence-based approach. It accommodates the full range of learner educational needs by differentiating, among others, the content, learning environment, assessment, teaching methods, and resources (Department of Basic Education, 2011b; Gough, 2011).

Performance curriculum is characterised by nationally specified aims, skills, and content areas, as well as recommended resources for lessons per grade (Department of Basic Education, 2011a). The principles of this curriculum are the symbolic structures of explicit knowledge, official or institutionalised practices or policies, and the contextualisation distributive principle. Individual social relations and graded performances are those in which evaluation instruments are used to benchmark knowledge and skill taught in all programmes (Bernstein, 2006; Khoza, 2019; Rennert-Ariev, 2008). The CAPS is therefore a performance curriculum as it is principled by explicit and systematically structured, hierarchically organised knowledge (Bernstein, 2006; Willis, Adie, & Klenowski, 2013). Specific aims, skills, and content areas are standardised. Recommended resources for lessons per grade and the distinction between different cognitive levels are strongly emphasised (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015; Department of Basic Education, 2011a). This is why, with this curriculum content teachers are encouraged to teach fast learners, assessing learners on what they should have achieved, thus leaving those who are slower to cope on their own (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015; Khoza, 2016b).

However, in elementary curriculum differentiation enactment, teachers are held accountable for the learners' performance; which is why the curriculum enacted is characterised by both the competence-based and performance-based curriculum for the benefit of the learners with diverse needs. Equality, non-discrimination, as well as the maximum participation of all learners in the education system is encouraged and accommodated under one classroom (Department of Basic Education, 2010, 2011b). This study suggests that there is a need to understand why teachers ought to devise strategies on how to respond to learner diversity in

the classrooms, the content to be taught, and how it will be taught to different learners within the allocated time using different teaching methods, learning resources, assessment, learning environment from foundation phase to further educational training (FET) (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015; Department of Basic Education, 2011b; Tomlinson, 2001).

1.6 Rationale

As a foundation phase teacher and a curriculum departmental head of a full-service school, with no specialised curriculum, and differentiated enactment expertise, I have faced the reality of advising and monitoring teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation. Such accommodates diverse learning strategies of all learners in one classroom as per our national policy White Paper 6 (Education, 2000, 2002a, 2005, 2008, 2011). This policy states that curriculum differentiation enactment would be applied by teachers in classes, to simplify the current curriculum content which is the curriculum assessment policy statement (CAPS) (Department of Basic Education, 2011a). The purpose of the policy is to address learning barriers which include differing socio-economic circumstances of learners. There are also cultural, religious, ethnic, racial, gender, and sexual orientation differences; and groups exist of varied abilities and languages.

I have attended briefings on curriculum monitoring and enactment by subject advisors of the foundation phase in the Zululand district. I have also attended meetings with the school-based support team (SBST) as well as the district-based support team (DBST) on curriculum differentiation for learners with barriers to education. Through policy documents, teachers' files, teachers' engagements, and personal observations, I then discovered that there is inconsistency in enactment methods applied by teachers in curriculum differentiation practised in classrooms. Some of the teachers who have been in the full-service school for years attended various curriculum differentiation workshops. These teachers have had several visits from the district-based support team over the years but cannot properly screen, identity, assess, and support (SIAS) learners experiencing different barriers to learning.

Teachers thus enact the curriculum the same way, using the same teaching and learning material without paying attention to learners' differing learning abilities. It could be that teachers do not understand how serious their enactment methods and strategies are for curriculum differentiation attained goals. Moreover, it could be that teachers do not understand the intended curriculum differentiation, which is why they are not able to interpret the

curriculum to learners and reflect on their curriculum enactment (Khoza, 2016b). The lack of teacher development on the enactment of curriculum differentiation has been alluded to. The DBST is blaming teachers for not fully complying with the policy of a full-service school as prescribed in the inclusive education White Paper 6 (Department of Basic Education, 2010). Teachers, on the other hand, are blaming the SBST together with the DBST for "their lack of professional support and curriculum materials which may lead to their current performance in the enactment of curriculum differentiation". I then decided to pursue studies on the enactment of curriculum differentiation, to enable and assist teachers in enactment methods of the curriculum, also school-based support teams, in facilitating, supporting, and monitoring the enactment of curriculum differentiation in classrooms. The South African national curriculum (CAPS) was introduced in 2011 and is applied at different levels. Moreover, a performance-based curriculum is content driven with a single comprehensive curriculum and assessment policies for each subject (Department of Basic Education, 2011a).

Curriculum differentiation is competence-based and is concerned with the operational curriculum which encompasses subject statements, subject assessment or enacted curriculum, and learner outcomes (Khoza, 2018; Remillard, 2005). The curriculum is influenced by two major types of curricula, which are the competence-based curriculum and the performance-based curriculum (Khoza, 2016a, 2018; Remillard, 2005). The competence-based curriculum (societal curriculum) is represented by subjects' integration which forms a learning area, learning outcomes-driven and cognitive levels not being important, as in the case of the South African post-Apartheid Curriculum 2005, New Curriculum Statement and New Revised Curriculum Statement. Knowledge is generated horizontally from social sources; and assessment is based on what learners have achieved, not on the national standard of assessment (Khoza, 2016b, 2017; Morojele, 2018).

Furthermore, a performance curriculum is represented by formal expectations of what should be taught. Such refers to written statements, including state, provincial, district, and local guidelines or standards, as in the case of (CAPS). Each subject has its own identified content; and learners are expected to learn the same content from the lower, middle, and higher levels of understanding (Khoza, 2016a; Terwel, 2005). However, curriculum differentiation is described as a key strategy for accommodating or responding to the needs of learners with diverse learning styles and different learning abilities (Department of Basic Education, 2010b; Nel, Nel, & Hugo, 2016). The case study conducted by Khoza (2015) suggests that teacher

enactment of differentiated curriculum may apply to the competence-based curriculum. Therefore enactment of curriculum differentiation should be integrated with the performance curriculum (CAPS) to balance curriculum knowledge and learning outcomes without compromising the content of the South African current national curriculum (Department of Basic Education, 2011b; Khoza, 2015).

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study may possibly assist all stakeholders involved in the development and enactment of the curriculum differentiation policy. Teachers and the SBST reflect on their curriculum differentiation enactment process, which are the actual experiences of teaching and learning in practice. The result of the study may further assist subject advisors in monitoring the curriculum, the district-based support team (DBST) in monitoring and supporting teachers of learners with barriers to education. This would also apply to teachers in correctly interpreting and successfully enacting curriculum differentiation in class, which may reduce the number of learners experiencing learning barriers in the early grades. Learners will be encouraged to fully participate in all learning activities without being discriminated against. All curriculum enactors directly and indirectly involved may then fully understand the curriculum; and policymakers may revise or refine the enactment of curriculum differentiation policy.

1.8 Objectives of the Study

1. To explore foundation phase teachers' enactment of a differentiated curriculum in a full-service school in the Zululand district.
2. To understand the reasons for curriculum differentiation enactment from the foundation phase teachers in a full-service school in the Zululand district.

3. To understand how foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district.

1.9 Research Questions

1. What are foundation phase teachers' enactments of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?
2. Why do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school in the Zululand district?

3. How do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?

1.10 The Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study is confined to one full-service school in Paulpietersburg under Zululand District in KwaZulu-Natal. Participants are purposively and conveniently selected. Action research normally faces the challenge of earning trust from the participants so that they do not regard researchers as outsiders but are comfortable in taking ownership of the process, allowing researchers insight into their perceptions and experiences (Maree, 2007). This will also be a challenge in my case when it comes to my supervisors from the district office. Applying action research principles will also imply the potential challenge of ignoring certain social relationships during informal encounters with my colleagues. And time will also play a major role in study limitations, participants being in class during teaching and learning time and being busy with ground duty, sports, and cultural activities after contact times. Moreover, the district participants are more field workers than office based, therefore it will be difficult to contact them. To make a success of the study, I will set up the first cycle of interviews after hours once the July holidays are over, and conduct interviews before the September holidays.

1.11 Summary of Chapters

This study intended to explore teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation in the foundation phase of a full-service school in the Zululand district. Similarly, the study pursuit is to understand the nature of curriculum enactment; why it was differentiated, how it influenced the enactment decisions, and what we can learn from the teachers' enactment, to improve curriculum differentiation. The study has covered Chapters One to Five.

1.11.1. Chapter One

This chapter delineated the general background of the proposed study. Paragraph 1.1 outlined the title (Foundation Phase Teachers' Enactment of Curriculum Differentiation in a Full-Service School in the Zululand District.); Paragraph 2.1 outlines the focus (the purpose of this study is to explore teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand District); and Paragraph 2.2 outlines the rationale for the study, and the literature on the curriculum enactment. Moreover, the rationale considered how useful this action research will be in the field of education. In addition, Paragraph 2.3. examined the literature

review which concentrated on ten conceptual frameworks, outlining the curriculum objectives, research questions, limitations, and overview of research methods in this study.

1.11.2 Chapter Two

Chapter Two presented the literature review on the enactment of curriculum differentiation which took into consideration teachers' reflections on the curriculum to be based on the performance curriculum (written/intended curriculum), the competence curriculum (enacted curriculum), and the blended curriculum (acquired curriculum). These three levels of curriculum enactment reflect the underpinning decisions teachers make in selecting curriculum vision, goal setting, curriculum content interpretation, and employment of all teaching and learning activities. Moreover, this chapter indicated that the teachers' understanding of the context in which the curriculum is enacted provided a pivotal factor for their curriculum.

1.11.3 Chapter Three

Chapter Three indicated the conceptions underpinning the teachers' interaction with conceptual knowledge, construction knowledge, and interactive knowledge, as well as teachers' understanding of the context in which the curriculum is enacted. In light of this, Chapter Three presented four principles that underpin the teachers' curriculum differentiation enactment: programmatic responsiveness (content), organisational responsiveness (educational aims orientation), administrative responsiveness (teaching and learning material), and pedagogical responsiveness (problem-solving and reflection).

1.11.4. Chapter Four

Chapter Four provided details of the methodology adopted by this study as well as the research design within the qualitative approach, locating the study within the pragmatic paradigm. This study entails action research on six foundation phase teachers in a full-service school, who were selected through purposive and convenience sampling. Participants' reflection activity, lesson observation, one-on-one semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions were used to generate data. Lastly, this chapter took into consideration issues of trustworthiness in the study which involve credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Limitations met during the study were also articulated; and bias and generalisation issues were addressed.

1.11.5. Chapter Five

Chapter Five presented data analysis on particular participants' verbatim quotations, and discussed findings under conceptual framework themes concerning the literature. The three

themes were developed in which sub-themes were formed to align the relevant level of foundation phase teachers' reflections on CAPS curriculum differentiation.

1.11.6. Chapter Six

This chapter summarised the findings of the study. A summary of each theme was given, together with recommendations on the what, why, and how of supporting teachers in their curriculum differentiation enactment process. Additionally, conclusions on findings about teachers' curriculum enactment were also presented.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The previous chapter set the outline of this study and its motivation. This study seeks to explore teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation of curriculum and assessment policy statements. This chapter presents an overview of the existing literature related to the enactment of curriculum differentiation; and follows constructs that emerge from the interrogation of teachers' enactment (Bouck, 2008; van der Linden, van der Meij, & McKenney, 2019). The literature review is described as a fundamental process of discovering what has been learned about the interrogated phenomena; and informs readers of the existing contradictions and gaps, synthesising and gaining a new perspective on the topic (Hart, 2018; Webster & Watson, 2002). In this regard, the study discovers and makes sense of teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation of the curriculum and assessment policy statement (CAPS) in terms of existing literature (Khoza, 2015a; Remillard & Heck, 2014). This synopsis explores teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation as a simplifying tool of CAPS for struggling learners, and explores teachers' envisioned curricula. Additionally, based on the literature emerging concepts such as enactment, curriculum content, aims, and objectives, instructional, and attained knowledge through teachers' interpretation of the curriculum, the concepts represent the construct structure used in writing this chapter.

2.2 Theorising Enactment (phenomenon)

According to Weick (1988), the term enactment is used to represent the social process and interaction between learners and teachers in the collection of educational information. In other words, enactment brings the notion that when teachers and learners interact in a teaching and learning environment they bring the curriculum into existence and set teaching and learning in action (McKiernan, 2017; Smircich & Stubbart, 1985). A study conducted by Kirk (2018) further defines enactment as the conscious shift that happens in the classroom between teachers and learners as a result of both the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum. Enactment is therefore the link between envisioning the curriculum and the actual teaching and learning outcomes. This is because preconceptions used by the teacher generate learners' knowledge and experience for further attention and awareness to predetermined stimuli; thus stimulus

takes learners' knowledge and experience to a higher level (Maguire, Braun, & Ball, 2015; Morojele, 2018; Tierney, 1987).

Studies associated with Weick (1988) have categorised enactment into loose coupling, sense-making, and mindfulness. Loose coupling enactment is defined as a situation in which different parts of the educational organisation interact to keep the education system effective while remaining identifiably different. Enactment thus captures the degree of flexibility between the various curriculum developers and the users. Thus enactment is the link between the curriculum developers, teachers, and learners, as curriculum recipients (Bahemia, Sillince, & Vanhaverbeke, 2018; Orton & Weick, 1990). Furthermore, a study conducted by Trein (2017) affirms that, if the teacher as a link between curriculum and learners has no content, the teacher is regarded as being loosely coupled with the learner.

Sense-making enactment is defined by Hawkins and James (2019) as the ability of any organisational member to step into the vacated role to normalise the unpredictable situation, by immediately improvising a needed solution to the situation. Sense-making enactment is therefore a process of the teacher and learners turning environmental circumstances into comprehensible situations, drawing from the teacher's knowledge and understanding of the curriculum (Dervin & Naumer, 2017; Horton & Freire, 1990). Therefore teachers, when making sense of the curriculum policy, step into the educational vacated role, improvising and applying experience to make sense of the content to learners (Trein, 2017; Walls, 2017).

Studies conducted by Bercovitz, Pagnini, Phillips, and Langer (2017) and Deringer (2017) define mindfulness as the enactment that brings change and awareness of current experiences as well as new human behaviour. According to Engemann & Scott (2020), and other studies, mindfulness is the active processing of current information, and the ability to respond to one unpredicted situation while actively engaged in another. Mindfulness enactment describes the teachers' ability and willingness to switch modes of thinking to combine the currently existing expectation and the new or emerging experience (Bercovitz et al., 2017; Nielsen, Bagger, Mitkidis, & Parsons, 2019). Teachers are thus actively analysing and observing their learner's existing knowledge and experience, inserting new understanding and experience to make sense of the unpredicted situation (Deringer, 2017).

More so, Maguire et al. (2015) and Nielsen et al. (2019) affirm that mindfulness enactment assists teachers in teaching decision-making as it relates to teachers' and learners' positive engagement. Mindfulness enactment should dominate the curriculum, allowing teachers the

opportunity as it does to insert new knowledge into learners' existing knowledge. At the same time this enactment affords teachers more opportunities to actively respond to emerging learning needs, while addressing the content expectations (Nielsen et al., 2019; Smircich & Stubbart, 1985). Enactment is therefore not about loose coupling that addresses professional needs, or sense-making which addresses societal needs − mindfulness enactment is dominated by the personal needs of the teachers to teach and research new learners' needs to learn, affording innovations while responding to unexpected teaching and learning situations.

Teachers therefore need to understand all principles underpinning the mindfulness enactment to be able to effectively foster curriculum goals, enhancing teachers' curriculum mastery (Hawkins & James, 2019; Weick, 1988). Additionally, the teacher's application of mindfulness enactment may constructively assist in the effective interpretation of the educational goals. Moreover, mindfulness enactment promotes self-regulatory behaviour among teachers, promoting decision-making abilities, performance, relationships (contextual and conceptual), and positive behaviour between teachers, curriculum, and learners (Bercovitz et al., 2017; Nielsen et al., 2019). However, CAPS is driven by the loose coupling which has the professional need as dominant. As a result, mindfulness enactment may not be successful in South Africa because no principles are reinforcing the use of mindfulness enactment. Teachers are expected to be a link between the curriculum and learners (Green & Hopwood, 2015; Khoza, 2013b, 2019a).

2.2.1. Curriculum enactment

Curriculum enactment is referred to as the application of curricular-based tasks in the classroom, in which knowledge is accumulated through a teacher's experience (Berinderjeet, 2014; Remillard & Heck, 2014). According to Billett (2006), enactment is a set of conceptualised curriculum experiences whose purposes and interactions reflect the teachers' interests, intended curriculum, and social settings. Morojele (2018) defines curriculum enactment as the reflection of the daily experiences of a teacher in responding to the events as they unfold in class through observable behaviours and artefacts. The study further outlines that experiences can be manifested per the set curricular content. Adler (1991) defines curriculum enactment as the teacher's ability to analyse their teaching practices and demonstrate pedagogical content knowledge in the classroom, the teacher showing consideration of past and future teaching activities (Adler, 1991; van der Linden et al., 2019). Curriculum enactment is what happens in the classroom within the domains of the teacher. It

therefore comprises practical, observable, and factual actions that shape a life; knowledge and understanding of a learner based on the teacher's intended curriculum interpretation.

A study conducted by Remillard and Heck (2014) on conceptualising the curriculum enactment process, defines curriculum enactment as the direct connections between a learner and a teacher around a lesson activity in class, influenced by the teacher's interpretation of the intended curriculum, instructional resources, learning contextual factors and ongoing responses to these variables. Moreover, Mpungose (2019) and more scholars define curriculum enactment as the content being delivered during teacher presentation or during instructional activity and how it is deployed in class (McKenney, Nieveen, & van den Akker, 2006). Likewise, Bouck (2008) upholds that curriculum enactment is the reflection of plans and activities prepared by the teacher for the benefit of learners to achieve their specified learning outcomes. A study conducted by Skinner (2016) and Läänemets and Kalamees-Ruubel (2013) on teachers' curriculum design concurs that curriculum enactment is the teaching and learning practice in class, or curriculum in action.

Curriculum enactment thus focuses on the interaction between a teacher and the learner around a lesson presentation of the intended curriculum. Furthermore, the intended curriculum is defined by Khoza and Mpungose (2018) as the use of the curriculum by lecturers as the composite of subject content. Remillard (2005) clarifies that the intended curriculum is a structure and design with national aims and objectives. Curriculum enactment is the operational curriculum that reflects the teachers' decisions during lessons and instruction. Several international and local studies such as Mpungose (2016), Tyler (2013), Wahlström and Sundberg (2015), and many more, articulate that curriculum enactment is the link between the intended curriculum (formal curriculum) and the attained or experienced curriculum which is measured through assessment (learners' learning outcomes).

Moreover, Remillard (2014) and Khoza (2015a; 2018) assert that curriculum enactment involves teachers understanding the visions and goals of the intended curriculum, and teachers' understanding of how the lesson design is practised, and its effects on teaching and learning. According to Maguire et al. (2015), curriculum enactment involves the teachers' creative processes of interpretation and contextualisation of the intended curriculum. For this reason, teachers can translate texts into actions or use their learners' baseline knowledge and the instructional model to enable learners' successful engagement in the lesson activity. This indicates that curriculum enactment is the intersection in which learners interact and construct

the meaning of the intended curriculum (Tan, Koh, Lee, Ponnusamy, & Tan, 2017). Therefore, if curriculum enactment is the connection point of teaching and learning, teachers need to understand the intended curriculum and instructional interactions standards that govern the policy. Teachers must also be aware of pedagogical changes, to be able to enact the curriculum as a layer between the intended and attained curricula (Khoza, 2016b; Mpungose, 2016).

In addition, the curriculum knowledge is acquired based on the enacted lesson activities concerning three different approaches to curriculum enactment, namely: performance curriculum enactment, competence-based curriculum enactment, and personal or pragmatic curriculum enactment. A study conducted by Khoza (2016a) on curriculum understanding, identifies three important categories of enactment. These categories are performance, competence-based and pragmatic curriculum enactments. In support of these categories, Bernstein (2006); Khoza (2018), and other studies argue that while these categories are important, what emerges between the three of them as pragmatic curriculum enactment is more important. This is because it combines the performance curriculum enactment and competence-based curriculum enactment into one action.

2.2.2. Performance curriculum enactment

Green (2018) and Maton (2009) define performance curriculum enactment as a national curriculum plan of study stipulating the goals for education including the instructional process. International and national studies conducted by Remillard and Heck (2014) and Khoza (2015b), however, identify performance curriculum enactment as the application of the intended, official, or formal curriculum, which is a nationally written policy with curriculum educational goals. Khoza (2016a) notes that in this category the intended curriculum outlines the intentions of teaching by the curriculum developers. Moreover, Remillard (2014) ascertains that performance curriculum enactment is an emergent, jointly constructed plan resulting from the teacher's design used to interpret the intended curriculum.

The performance curriculum enactment provides an experiential platform for planning and situating lessons that provide relationships and influences the fundamentals of the curriculum (Shay, Wolff, & Clarence-Fincham, 2016; Willis, Adie, & Klenowski, 2013). As this curriculum is characterised by nationally stated educational goals for all teachers to achieve, knowledge is realised and expressed in what is enacted through cognitive and conceptual understanding. Teachers are therefore expected to fully understand the subject content before

teaching and drilling learners to master the prescribed content (Education, 2011; Green & Hopwood, 2015; Khoza, 2018).

Furthermore, studies conducted by Bernstein (2006) and Tyler (2013) refer to performance curriculum enactment as vertical discourse; hence knowledge is accumulated by increasingly higher-order descriptive and instructive activities. According to Wang (2018), the national curriculum plays the main part in curriculum enactment. Teachers follow the national curriculum within the set number of weekly lessons per term with specific objectives of grade subject knowledge (Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007; Wang, Lavonen, & Tirri, 2018). A study conducted by Mpungose (2016) and Khoza (2015b) concluded that in performance enactment, knowledge of a curriculum subject and learning are hierarchical, cumulative experiences built on previous knowledge. Therefore, each subject has its content, teaching programme guidelines, and subject assessment guidelines covered, to be mastered by each learner (Bernstein, 2006; Khoza, 2017a; Maton, 2009).

Moreover, a study conducted by Green (2018) on curriculum development categorises curriculum enactment into three components. First there is the knowledge-based (subject knowledge) curriculum which centres on theoretical concepts located in the content − abstract cognitive knowledge and understanding that addresses professional needs (Banks, 2015; Bhuttah, Xiaoduan, Ullah, & Javed, 2019). The experience-based (social knowledge) curriculum focuses on the process of the learners' competency in integrating knowledge and skills into self-directed learning which addresses societal needs (Chaiklin, 2003; Jenkins et al., 2017). The inquiry-based (personal knowledge) curriculum applies integrated knowledge to stimulate learners' self-development and authentic learning experience, addressing personal needs (Tadesse, Gillies, & Manathunga, 2020).

Studying the relationship between the subject (content-centred) knowledge, learner-centred curriculum, and inquiry-based curriculum, content-centred knowledge should be a pervasive element of the curriculum enactment. It acknowledges the goal of transferring conceptual knowledge. Moreover, this principle is attributed to teachers fostering hierarchical knowledge that is likely to help each learner to be educated according to their mental abilities (Khoza, 2015c; Morris, 2019). According to Banks and Banks (2019), if the curriculum is dominated by a content-based (knowledge-based) curriculum, it addresses the professional domain (Khoza, 2015a). When teachers are driven by performance curriculum enactment, they are

addressing the objectives of CAPS as an example of a performance curriculum in South Africa (Khoza, 2016a; Tinyiko, 2015; Van den Akker, 2004).

Furthermore, teachers are driven by and focused on the pedagogy of the performance (formal) curriculum enactment, in which the central theme is the written curriculum concepts such as curriculum content, curricular knowledge, curriculum objectives, learning, and cognitivism, hardware resources, instructional and teaching methods, time allocation, and class management (Khoza & Mpungose, 2018; Van den Akker, 2004). Thus intended curriculum content in performance enactment is informed by nationally stated objectives that prescribe what a teacher should teach at that particular time, and the skills required to be achieved by the learner at the end of a lesson (Khoza, 2018; Remillard & Heck, 2014).

2.2.3 Curriculum content in performance enactment

The curriculum content is defined as all teaching experiences planned, structured, and appropriately translated content for learners' conceptual and construction understanding to be taught within a curricular year (Bernstein, 2006; Hoadley, 2017a). Curriculum content is the educational plan which is designed to influence individuals' behaviour and to develop skills and certain values. Such would be through a series of concepts to be taught and experiences to be developed, together with abilities within a specific curriculum year (Khoza, 2016a; Tyler, 2013). This plan is subdivided into topics that make up the subject syllabus, and it is designed by the national Department of Education to be enacted by all schools (Education, 2011; Hoadley, 2017b).

A descriptive case study conducted by Skinner (2016) on teaching technology attests to curriculum content being a nationally designed plan of educational programmes with anticipated behavioural changes to be taught, rules and procedures constituting the inputs of the plan. Moreover, curriculum content is a prescribed educational plan to enable teaching in which teachers transmit the recommended knowledge and skills to a class according to the specific grade requirements (Jenkins et al., 2017; Khoza, 2017b). Moreover, an analysis study on curriculum development conducted by Soto (2015) in one of the universities in Ecuador outlined that the performance curriculum is based on cognitivism and constructivism methodological models. The performance curriculum is based on cognitivism in the sense that teaching describes the attainment of knowledge and its processing as a psychological activity. Constructivism, on the other hand, is the interaction of the individual's generated knowledge from previously learned knowledge to new knowledge.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Remillard (2005) on curriculum content is categorised into firstly, a formal (written) curriculum, which is nationally underpinned policies to be applied with specific goals and prescribed textbooks. Secondly, the intended curriculum which has the teacher's objectives, is then a (lesson plan) curriculum a teacher intends to transmit in class. The enacted curriculum (attained or experienced curriculum), however, is what applies during the lesson presentation according to the teacher's perceptions and understanding of the intended curriculum. For Shulman (1987), content is categorised into content organisation and development, understanding how knowledge may be organised for supporting learning, and lastly, the presentation of the organised content.

The enacted curriculum should be driving the content organisation and activities, teaching being about the teachers' curriculum organisation. Thus, the enacted curriculum recognises the role of the teacher as a researcher and content designer. Teaching is not about the formal written curriculum, the teacher's intended curriculum, but the enacted or presented curriculum (Khoza, 2018; Shulman, 1987). According to Khoza (2017b) and Van den Akker (2004), if the curriculum is dominated by a formal/written curriculum and the intended curriculum, it addresses the professional and social needs. However, if the content is dominated by the enacted (presented) curriculum it addresses the teacher's needs; it is therefore personally dominated (Khoza, 2016a; Mpungose, 2016).

A study by Dewey (1923) on curriculum construction revealed that the performance curriculum is a traditional philosophy of education because of its emphasis on the continuation of teaching patterns, in which rules are compulsory, teaching is conducted for the benefit of the society and teachers are the source of all educational activities, all skills, and knowledge. A study conducted by Du Plessis and Marais (2015) and Läänemets and Kalamees-Ruubel (2013) on curriculum content design affirms that content is driven by the country's economic and educational needs. The South African curriculum is an example, in that, because of the growing awareness of globalisation educational policy and education practices in the twenty-first century, there has been a need for the development of international comparative content. The need for comparative international content was strongly motivated by professionals and parents as a result of the previous curriculum, which was locally based and did not meet the international education framework requirements. The performance curriculum was introduced to be enacted with a body of knowledge. It would thus be transmitted in class by teachers so that South African education can compete internationally.

Likewise, Taba (1962), Khoza (2018), and many more studies on curriculum development have identified three categories of curriculum content. These categories are designed to enact knowledge through a basic understanding of concepts, skills enactment through the application of knowledge, and enactment of values through personal or interpersonal influences. CAPS, as an example of this content, is categorised into subjects with a body of knowledge to be taught through topics to be covered and skills to be developed per term. More studies such as a study conducted by Shay et al. (2016) on curriculum reform, and a study conducted by Morojele (2018) on curriculum enactment, attest to a curriculum structure constituted by the grade subject. These studies further state that knowledge is acquired at a lower cognitive level before moving to a higher cognitive level. Bernstein (2006) refers to the concept of knowledge hierarchy growing.

In addition, the content in CAPS mathematics is divided into hierarchical order from lower cognitive levels − numbers, operations, and relationships, and numeric and geometric patterns which are categorised as basic knowledge. The middle cognitive level is geometric, with numerical patterns, space, and shapes categorised as skills or application of knowledge; and lastly, the higher cognitive level is data handling, interpretation, and measurements which are categorised as principles, skills, and values (Bloom, 1956; Education, 2011). Teaching thus takes place steadily from lower-order levels to higher-order descriptive knowledge. Teachers are required to understand the content and skills to be offered in each grade (Tyler, 2013; Wahlström & Sundberg, 2015).

If curriculum content is organised as is the case of (CAPS) in South Africa, in which cognitive levels are taken into consideration and knowledge is constituted and organised based on national assumptions, this indicates that curriculum content is credible, pertinent, and efficient. The content to be enacted is comparable with those of other countries as a performance curriculum in quality, extensiveness and depth (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015; Khoza, 2016a). Consequently, the teaching methods used in performance curriculum enactment are teacher-centred and content-centred approaches. Teachers, as a result, are faced with the demand and expectations to enact content as transmitters of knowledge, through, amongst others: drilling methods, memorisation, and recall of information. Reproduction of knowledge is encouraged, and the completion of the content syllabus as given is required. Moreover, the teacher has full control of the class and all activities, and can offer rewards and punishment (Green, 2018; Le Grange, 2012; Rennert-Ariev, 2008).

However, Dewey (1923); Taba (1962); and Le Grange (2012), on curriculum design, argue that the content in performance curriculum enactment might not meet the required purposes if teachers are not trained to develop a lesson plan which considers teaching a diverse or a special educational needs class. This is because performance enactment promotes a one-size-fits-all content knowledge. The South African performance curriculum CAPS does not specify any enactment curriculum approaches or theory. Teachers have to assume the principles that support their enacted (experienced) curriculum as they transmit their intended content drawn from the formal curriculum. Therefore, CAPS may fail in South Africa as it is content-centred, and teachers may decide on controversial theories to apply in the enacted curriculum.

Teachers need to be able to develop their annual teaching plan with a clear set of curriculum values and teaching objectives to produce individuals that are physically, and intellectually equipped, and knowledgeable enough to participate meaningfully in society and be sensitive to global imperatives. Consequently, teachers are expected to train and drill learners on the same content and logistics that shapes their teaching experience, and be able to translate and interpret the content into knowledge (Education, 2011; Eris & Kiliçoglu, 2019; Skinner, 2016). Moreover, the teacher's misunderstanding of the set content by curriculum developers could lead to the non-fulfilment of teaching the development of skills and values. As a consequence, the aims and objectives of the intended curriculum will be hindered.

Therefore, performance curriculum enactment is expected to develop teachers to be able to drill learners to amongst other skills: identify and solve problems, make decisions using critical thinking skills, and organise and manage themselves (Education, 2011). A study conducted by Tyler (2013) on basic principles of curriculum indicates that curriculum developers at the national level establish what learners need to achieve within the curriculum year. The study further states that the teachers are then guided by the curriculum purpose when selecting subject objectives. Consequently, teachers are expected to train learners on knowledge and logistics that shape their learning experience (Makumane & Khoza, 2020; Remillard & Heck, 2014). Performance enactment requires teachers to have curriculum content understanding and to be able to translate and interpret the content into knowledge, skills, facts, and understanding, thus achieving the predetermined objectives of the national Department of Education.

2.2.4. Performance curriculum enactment objectives

These objectives are specific teaching intention statements focusing on what the teacher intends to cover, or what the teacher stands to acquire from the presentation of the specific topic. A

case study conducted by Stenhouse (1970) on curriculum objectives, and Krathwohl and Anderson (2009) on the taxonomy of educational objectives defines curriculum objectives as statements of anticipated changes in thoughts, actions, behaviour, or feelings of an individual that a particular subject or educational curriculum should bring about. In other words, objectives are the statements of what a curriculum attempts or intends to reach, through organised teaching. Tyler (1933; 2013) and Khoza (2016b) categorise objectives as a tool teachers use to promote and formulate the focus of instructional activities, and to evaluate teacher-acquired teaching skills. These studies outline that the objectives expected for teachers to achieve are nationally given. Teachers need to draw from the nationally stated aims of the curriculum, and to formulate their curriculum-specific objectives. Objectives are short-term formed statements that address the subject content need of the national intended curriculum (Khoza, 2013b; Mpungose; 2016; Zhang, Voogt, & van den Akker, 2016).

A subsequent revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives by Krathwohl and Anderson (2009) states that performance curriculum enactment should address certain subject objectives. These objectives are cumulative knowledge applied in hierarchical order: remember, understand, apply, analyse, create or synthesise, and evaluate. A study conducted by Eisner (1983b) on educational objectives affirms that educational objectives are stated in behavioural terms, testing situations, and performance criteria (Krajcik, McNeill, & Reiser, 2008; Makumane & Khoza, 2020). When teachers plan curriculum programmes, they put their efforts first into the identification of national educational aims, specifying subject objectives, and then identifying objectives for the planned lesson activity.

This suggests that, as all subjects offered at the school level have stated objectives, teachers should understand them and plan their instructional enactment methods to address the set objectives. Moreover, a critical study conducted by Khoza (2015b) on facilitators' use of curriculum concluded that if teachers use objectives to draw up their lesson plans, they will have a clear step-by-step process of teaching and resources to hand. Therefore, teachers are required to use objectives to draw up authentic formal activities with the correct wording, and trustworthy, appropriate and achievable goals for presentation in class (Green, 2018; Mpungose, 2016; Wang et al., 2018).

Refer to Figure 2.1 below which depicts the Bloom's taxonomy model as a model used in setting out presentations of activities in class.

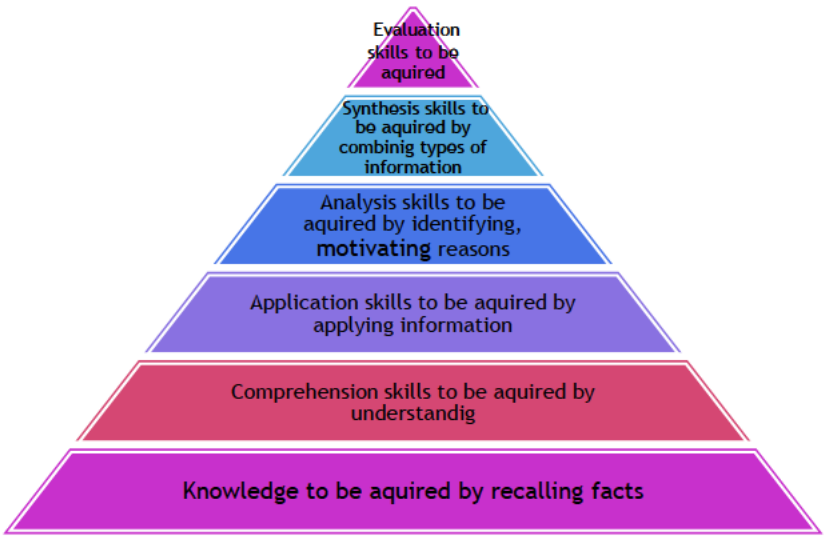

Figure 2.1: Curriculum objectives (Bloom, 1956; Khoza, 2015b; Krathwohl & Anderson, 2009)

According to these studies, teaching and learning objectives are categorised into three: cognitive levels which deal with issues of thinking using the mind; effective levels, which deal with exhibiting personal attitude using emotions; and psychomotor levels which deal with the issues of physical skills using body movement. A study conducted by Freire (2018b) asserts that cognitive levels of objectives are hierarchical, growing from the bottom to the top level of the model. They are categorised into first-level knowledge on which facts recalling skills and basic concepts are demonstrated. The second level is comprehension, on which a combination of basic information and interpretation of information is acquired and demonstrated, through interpretation and comparing terms (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009; Hopkins, 2018; Prahani et al., 2020).

The third cognitive level is the application of information, on which acquired knowledge, understanding, and skills are applied to solve a problem in a new situation. The fourth cognitive level is analysis, on which reasoning and identification skills are acquired for breaking information into parts; and finding new evidence is enforced. On the fifth cognitive level is synthesis, in which a combination of different types of information and the realising of alternative solutions is developed. The sixth cognitive level is evaluation, on which the skill to critique, debate, and defend one's opinion, is acquired (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl & Anderson, 2009; Mpungose, 2019). A study conducted by Tyler (1933) established that teachers must formulate their lesson objectives to understand the purpose of the topic, and use it as a guide to what they (teachers) expect and require to gain from the presentation of the topic (Bhuttah et al., 2019; Tyler-Wood, Cockerham, & Johnson, 2018).

Studying the relationship between cognitive, affective, and psychomotor teaching and learning objectives of a curriculum, cognitive levels seem ideal for supporting teachers and learners in reaching their educational outcomes. Furthermore, in formulating objectives, Bloom's taxonomy model and each objective can be defined in terms of clarifying the kind of skill or behaviour which the lesson is aimed to develop among the learners (Eisner, 1983; Khoza, 2015b; Tyler, 2013). Cognitive levels of objectives address professional needs; teachers must understand all principles underpinning the curriculum objectives before applying them in addressing professional, societal, or personal needs (Cochran, DeRuiter, & King, 1993; Keller, Neumann, & Fischer, 2017; Khoza, 2013a).

Teachers should therefore understand and possess a clear conception of the first to last objectives of their intended curriculum before applying them. Stating objectives allows integration in teaching instructional materials and outcomes; and enables learners to recall important specific facts, remember general lesson principles, formulate an appropriate definition or description of the terms in the lesson, analysing this and predicting the outcome (Webb, Massey, Goggans, & Flajole, 2019). However, a case study conducted by Stenhouse (1970) on curriculum objectives limitations, is arguing that Bloom's (1965) curriculum model based on that of Tyler (1949) has severe limitations as it uses directive and rigid statements, which appear to be reducing content in educational programmes (Bhuttah et al., 2019; Tyler-Wood, Cockerham, & Johnson, 2018).

The study further argues that some subject lesson objectives cannot be specified in advice, and further states that acquired knowledge should be treated as outcomes. Emphasis can then be laid on the specified content; and after acquiring knowledge objectives, can then be developed. The CAPS may not succeed in South Africa, therefore, because there are no learner outcome-based ideologies that guide the teachers in facilitating a learner-centred lesson. Teachers may therefore choose to subvert, misinterpret, and misconceptualise the principles underpinning the enactment in outcomes-based activity (Keller et al., 2017; Stenhouse, 1970). Performance curriculum enactment offers formulating objectives acting as a road map for curriculum development, together with a step-by-step enactment process (Ajani, 2021; De Waal, 2004; Hopkins, 2018).

Therefore, in performance enactment, teachers place more emphasis on curriculum objectives categorised as educational aims and objectives. The CAPS is an example of a performance curriculum driven by predetermined objectives. In the subject of English, the first two

categories of cognitive levels are knowledge and understanding which are low cognitive levels; application and analysis are middle-level; and synthesis and evaluation are high cognitive levels. Such cognitive levels are used in shaping teaching activities as one of the teacher's roles in transmitting the curriculum (Krathwohl & Anderson, 2009; Mpungose, 2016; Zhang et al., 2016).

2.2.5. Teacher's role as a transmitter of the curriculum

A study conducted by Freire (2018a) on transforming education defines a teacher's role as transmitting depth and breadth of knowledge and understanding, which is the invention of the teacher's structure and reconstruction of knowledge. The study further states that the knowledge transmitted is preselected and predigested from the predesigned content. Moreover, Mishra and Koehler (2006), in a study of technological content knowledge, assert that teachers' knowledge and understanding of how particular parts of subject matter are structured, altered, and represented for instructional purposes assist the teacher in transmitting knowledge and understanding. Thus, a teacher competently imparts well-prepared subject knowledge to learners. The teacher as an expert in the intended curriculum is in charge of all teaching resources which accomplish the set objectives within the stipulated time (Bourne, 2003). The teacher as a content transmitter has a need to accomplish the instructional objectives within the stipulated time, through organised content activities which provide insight and skills to learners (Eris & Kiliçoglu, 2019; Hoadley, 2009; Tyler, 2013).

According to Jung and Brady (2016), the role of the teacher in curriculum implementation categorises a teacher's role as either that of a teacher as a knowledge and skills organiser, a teacher as a classroom manager, or a teacher as a knowledge and skills evaluator. Furthermore, a teacher as a knowledge and skill organiser is discussed in a study conducted by Spillane (1999) on assumptions of performance teaching and instructions, as the prospective lesson-plan designer in which all teaching objectives, teaching activities, and instructions are coordinated by the teacher. Moreover, a study conducted by Stenhouse (1975) on curriculum development recommends that the teacher's teaching plan have worthwhile teaching activities with related instructional materials within the expected subject matter. Teachers have to organise content to match the predetermined teaching objectives, teachers being the interpreters of the national design curriculum plan. The teacher's role in the performance curriculum is defined as a transmitter linked to professional teaching, characterised by formal teaching approval. The teacher's objectives are short-term goals of drilling learners with the prescribed content until it has been mastered.

Furthermore, the teacher is a classroom supervisor. This is identified as a class in which the teacher has a hundred per cent control over all class activities. The classroom management theory of Frederic Skinner is mostly applied, in which immediate reinforcement and feedback are applied by the teacher. This encourages good discipline to enhance obedience in the classroom and enforce the active supervision of class discipline through rules reinforcement (Chomsky, 2003; Skinner, 2016). A study conducted by Horton and Freire (1990) on education and social change affirms that teachers in performance enactment have full authority over the class; and all formal activities and time allocations set for the class are managed by the teacher.

Moreover, at the same pace teaching is enforced, memorisation is encouraged through drilling activities. Participation from the participants is passive as attention is easily lost; hence teacher-centred or content-centred activities are applied. Teaching is then using standardised programmes in classroom management; and all participants are engaged simultaneously in the same activities following the teachers' instructional orders (Ball, Thames, & Phelps, 2008; Chamane, 2016; Sturm & Bogner, 2008). Desks are arranged facing the front and the board. Participants are paying attention to the teachers' presentation, as the teacher is the one with knowledge, passing it as a one-way information transmission session.

Therefore, teachers have to master the content to be able to interpret, transfer, and simplify the content, making it easily grasped by adapting instructional materials and setting out clear teaching and assessment objectives. This is to encourage the memorisation of information for assessment purposes. Moreover, teaching activities are designed with accurate facts to transmit understanding through well-structured lesson activities and lesson presentations adapted according to different levels of cognition (Khoza, 2015b; Mpungose, 2019; Shulman, 1987).

The teacher's role as knowledge and skills organiser should drive all teachers' responsibilities on the curriculum because teaching is about interpretation and transferring of content to learners (Khoza, 2019; Remillard & Heck, 2014). The teaching role is not about classroom management or evaluation but about the transmission of knowledge and skills as specified by the policy (Morojele, 2018; Wijnia, Loyens, & Rikers, 2019).

According to Remillard and Heck (2014) and Khoza (2013b), if the curriculum is dominated by the content organiser, it addresses professional needs and refers to how the teacher draws from the curriculum materials. However, if it is dominated by the teacher's role as a classroom manager, and the teacher's role as a curriculum evaluator, it addresses social and personal needs. This further suggests that teachers should understand their central role (professional) in

transmitting the written curricula content, the curriculum depending on the teacher's interaction with the teaching materials (Khoza, 2013a; Tyler, 2013). Teachers ought to understand all the principles that underpin the theoretical ground which constructs the curriculum. All integration between classroom management and evaluation of the lesson comes from the good transmission of the content (Reio, Rocco, Smith, & Chang, 2017).

However, a study conducted by Hansen (2012) on democracy and education, supported by Dewey (1923) argues that progressive educational content depict learners as active participants in the lesson objectives and activities, yielding learners' positive contribution. Moreover, learners become active rather than passive participants in the construction of meaning and understanding during the teaching and learning process. Therefore, as Tyler (2013) concludes, teaching is not limited to a simple transfer of facts, but is, reasonably, the means of developing learners' thinking skills and understanding of the subject matter. Therefore, the CAPS may fail in South Africa because it is dominated by the teacher's role as a transmitter of content knowledge and skills. The CAPS does not recognise the role of a teacher in the interpretation practices and the influence of a teacher to misinterpret, subvert and ignore unfamiliar content or misconceptualise facts of the written content (Chen & Ennis, 1995; Khoza & Biyela, 2019). Furthermore, the teacher's role as knowledge instructor and instructional evaluator in performance enactment is defined in a study conducted by Black and Wiliam (2009) on the teachers' role in education. This point is further discussed below as the role of a teacher as knowledge and skills instructional evaluator, in which the teachers' level of acquired lesson objectives is discussed.

2.2.6. Teacher as the instructional evaluator

Teachers must evaluate or measure their acquired lesson objectives through assessment. A case study conducted by Mann, Gordon, and MacLeod (2009) on reflection practice, and a study by Lew and Schmidt (2011), define evaluation as assessment activities that enable the integration of new teaching into the teaching cognitive structure. The teacher thus has the role of evaluating the instructions and level of desired outcomes attained by learners after the lesson activity. Consequently, studies conducted by Stiggins (2017) and Bergin et al. (2015) on the assessment system have categorised assessments used in performance enactment into formative and summative assessments. Formative assessment is discussed as an evaluation conducted to measure and identify the strengths and weaknesses of the teaching and learning methods, materials, and resources. These studies further discuss formative assessment as a tool used by

teachers to measure the acquisition ability. The assessment, normally conducted after instruction, determines the degree of mastery, which then helps the teacher in planning and improving instructions (Bergin et al., 2015; Chamane, 2016; Scriven, 1967).

Many scholars, such as Lew and Schmidt (2011) and Khoza (2018), share the view that lesson instructional evaluation is a critical analysis of the teachers' knowledge and experiences, which is conducted by the teacher after a lesson programme to achieve deeper meaning and understanding of the subject objectives; and to measure the acquired lesson objectives versus the predetermined enactment objectives. Consequently, Taba (1962) and Taylor and Tyler (2012), in their curriculum development approach, state that teachers are required to conduct an evaluation of their enacted curriculum activities in class; deciding whether their predetermined curriculum enactment objectives have been acquired. These studies further state that evaluation of teaching instructions is conducted to find out whether the subject has covered what it was supposed to cover; to measure the success of enactment approaches used and activities executed during lesson instructions; and to decide whether desired teaching objectives have been achieved.

Moreover, formal assessment enables the identification of teaching needs, and develops the teacher's professional identity (Lew & Schmidt, 2011; Mann et al., 2009; Mpungose, 2016). Furthermore, as teachers enact the curriculum in their classrooms they are influenced by, amongst others, their perception of their learners in class, understanding of the material they use to interpret the content, the intellectual level of the class, curriculum policy, and objectives (Läänemets & Kalamees-Ruubel, 2013; Taylor & Tyler, 2012). Furthermore, summative assessment is discussed in a study by Scriven (1967) on curriculum evaluation as an assessment to measure the effectiveness of the curriculum, which is why it is conducted at the end of the instructions or course.

A study conducted by Stiggins (2017) and Bergin et al. (2015) on summative assessment discusses this type of evaluation as a measurement of knowledge achieved and accomplishment level. Summative assessment thus becomes the determinant of the extent to which instructional objectives have been met, as is the case with the South African curriculum the CAPS, in which summative assessment is used to measure the success and the extent to which achieved teaching goals have fulfilled the fruitfulness of the curriculum (Chamane, 2016; Eisner, 1983; Tyler, Gagne, & Scriven, 1967). Moreover, summative assessment is mainly conducted for grading purposes − it assesses the final success, which helps the teacher to measure the level of

objectives achievement; and to know the level of accomplishment attained (Scriven, 1967; Zerihun, Beishuizen, & Van Os, 2012).

In performance enactment, the summative assessment is conducted after the current year syllabus has been exhausted; and before the end of the year certificates are issued or next grade placement is conducted. Teacher evaluation should be dominated by formative principles in which teachers conduct an assessment to analyse the result of their curriculum instructions. They also learn from their experiences, develop a professional identity, produce a new understanding of their personal beliefs, attitudes, and new practice, and identify teaching needs. Additionally, they (teachers) realise new potentials as they integrate new into existing knowledge, and they are professionally developed (Stiggins, 2005; Straub, Marsh, & Whalen, 2017).

According to Stiggins (2017), if the evaluation is dominated by summative assessment it addresses professional needs. However, if it addresses formative assessment it addresses personal and societal needs (Bergin et al., 2015; Khoza & Manik, 2015). Personal needs address the teacher's support of learners in reaching curriculum objectives and in fostering learners' interest in research-related activities. However, summative assessment, according to CAPS, is mostly conducted through an annual examination of 60 per cent total and 40 per cent of formative assessment, according to different cognitive levels. This process requires the teacher to start with clear teaching objectives for them to be able to reflect on or evaluate their instructional assessment targets (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015; Khoza, 2015a).

Teachers must set clear teaching objectives and complete the set teaching activities to accurately measure the attained objectives. The teachers as assessors also need a balanced assessment system that meets all quality assessment at all levels and has dependable achievement information (Bergin et al., 2015; Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl & Anderson, 2009). A study conducted by Black and Wiliam (2009) argues that summative assessment maximises anxiety. This assessment type is a great intimidator, putting pressure to acquire high examination marks and good instructional indicators. Accordingly, the examination marks can encourage a teacher to strive for excellence and at the same time can pressure the teacher to give up after feelings of hopelessness (Hoadley, 2017b).

Teachers as lesson evaluators must understand all principles that underpin the enactment of formative assessment before engaging in the process. However, the CAPS may not be successful in South Africa because there is no common theory that directs the formative

assessment; therefore, teachers may choose to undermine or misinterpret the enactment of formative assessment as one of the evaluation approaches used in the enactment of the competence-based curriculum.

2.3. Competence-based Curriculum Enactment

Curriculum development, according to Dewey (1923), Piaget, Elkind, and Tenzer (1967) has defined the competence-based curriculum as a constructive approach to learning in which learning is an active process. Moreover, Hansen (2012) has claimed that learning in a competency-based curriculum is a process of exploring through inquiries, with learners constructing their knowledge through experience. A competency-based curriculum leads to asking questions and making discoveries in search of new understanding; and further enables learners to be active participants in their learning (Anderson et al., 2018; Roth & Lee, 2007; Vygotsky, 1978). A competence curriculum incorporates knowledge, skills, and values that enable learners to devise a variety of solutions and to complete an activity (Gibbs, 2019; Killen, 2015; Remillard & Heck, 2014). The curriculum debates associated with Green (2018) refer back to Bernstein's classic essay on vertical and horizontal discourse. Bernstein (2006) asserts that knowledge enacted in the competence-based curriculum is of the horizontal discourse.

Furthermore, Khoza (2016a) convinces that competence-based enactment is linked to social and political influences. This assists learners in acquiring knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes compulsory for a particular assessment standard. Likewise, Maguire et al. (2015) agree that the curriculum is trimmed to maintain the precision of learning by identifying three categories of educational goals in a competency-based curriculum. Firstly, the knowledge-based goal is dominated by conceptual rules, and abstract knowledge components addressing the professional curriculum needs. Secondly, the skills-based goal focuses on procedural competence, skills needed to apply conceptual knowledge in learning attainment through real-life situations or concrete situations.

These competencies are addressing the social needs of the curriculum (de la Piedra, 2019; Rudduck, 1988). Thirdly, affective-based goals emphasise the creation goal to promote performance competence required to assess a problem and find solution approaches (Khoza, 2019a; Morris, 2019). Likewise, in studying the relationship between knowledge-based competence, skills-based competence, and performance-based competence, skills-based competence seems to be a pervasive component of the competitive-based curriculum goal. This acknowledges the goal of determining how knowledge is acquired and placing learners as

active participants in the acquisition of their knowledge construction. This principle contributes to facilitator-fostering practices that are likely to enhance each learner's education according to their abilities (Khoza, 2013b; Tadesse et al., 2020). Such will reduce learners' workload and encourage facilitators to promote critical thinking among learners while schools are encouraged to embark on a school-based curriculum (Tan et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018).

According to Makumane and Ngcobo (2018), skills-based knowledge in competence-based enactment is integrated with everyday knowledge; therefore learners' progress is monitored by experience-based assessments associated with curriculum differentiation which is horizontally unstructured. A study conducted by Khoza (2013b) further argues that competence-based enactment is a process of trial and error curriculum, in which learners are allowed to try learning first, discovering without or with limited instructions, and be corrected afterwards for further developments. The curriculum is seen as the social subject activity among all stakeholders involved in the practices. If curriculum goals are skills-based, facilitators have to adjust the curriculum and guidelines to foster critical thinking among learners; and to broaden the goals of education by engaging learners in critical thinking activities (Milistetd, Trudel, Rynne, Mesquita, & do Nascimento, 2018).

Therefore, South Africa's Curriculum 2005, and Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) are examples of the competence-based curriculum. As more emphasis is placed on learning, knowledge is acquired through experiential learning; and learners are assessed continually on what they have learned and mastered, measuring them against their peers and graded on techniques used, not on success (Chaiklin, 2003; Du Plessis & Marais, 2015; Läänemets & Kalamees-Ruubel, 2013). Teachers' enactment in this curriculum discourse therefore emphasises getting learners to think, getting learners involved in appropriate activities, integrating learning areas, and generating learning materials (Khoza, 2016a; Morojele, 2018; Van den Akker, 1999).

Moreover, Khoza (2013b) challenges teachers to engage learners in different real-life situations in attaining and constructing their knowledge and self-development (Khoza, 2013b, 2015c; Van den Akker, 1999). Therefore, all subjects are integrated, the goal of the competence curriculum being to promote conceptual knowledge through skills and experience, thus developing performance competence. Wahlström and Sundberg (2015) posit that competence-based enactment is subjective and challenging for the national school system to handle, because curriculum knowledge enacted at the point of departure has no specific goals but is used as a

frame for evaluation. However, the main focus of the competence-based curriculum is curriculum content, learning outcomes, learning methods, teacher's role in enactment, and assessment as learning.

2.3.1 Curricular content

A study conducted by Egan and Gillian (2016) on curriculum content asserts that the competency-based curriculum stresses differentiated curricula that provide learners with self-development opportunities, and minds developed from homogeneous to heterogeneous. Moreover, Dewey (1923), in his inquiry-based learning and democratic education, stresses that the curriculum content focuses on integrating multiple subjects so that learners can pursue their interests and construct their meaning as they acquire and apply the knowledge. Dewey's assertion is supported by his philosophy on progressive education, in which he states that learning is a process through experiences and practical activities (Freire, 2018a; Hansen, 2012). Learners are actively involved in the construction of their knowledge; and consequently, knowledge is facilitated to learners, learners thus constructing their meanings. Learners' choice and interests are taken into consideration when teaching and learning decisions are made, as the curriculum content focuses more on learner-centred learning activities and learning outcomes (Makumane & Ngcobo, 2018; Weimer, 2002).

Furthermore, a study conducted by Vygotsky (1978) on social education comments that learners impart knowledge from peer learning and cognitive development which provide independent thinking and practical learning using language through the zone of proximal development. The zone of proximal development is said to be the social learning environment or a classroom, in this case, in which learning is facilitated by the more knowledgeable, who could be the peer learners or an educator. During the lesson facilitation, opportunities to conduct research solve problems, and cooperative work are given through informal activities. More studies such as those of Roth and Lee (2007) and Tan et al. (2017) on curriculum differentiation assert that social development leads to skills development which assists the learner to develop brain ability and be able to process and store information; and further be able to solve problems using critical thinking skills. Learners need to equip themselves with social competitive skills before entering a class.

Studies associated with Dewey (1923), Piaget et al. (1967), and Vygotsky (1978), have placed the categories of content into firstly, content-centred curriculum which is policy-driven, with the teacher as the centre of all teaching and learning activities. Secondly, an inquiry-centred

curriculum is dominated by problem-solving through research activities; and the learner-centred curriculum is based on, among others, learning outcomes, experiential learning, and learners' social development. Curriculum differentiation is infused as independent thinking and experiential learning is facilitated. The competence-based curriculum progress is in the teacher's specific content as prescribed at a national level, which is why learning takes place through unique individual experiences and peer and group learning. The learner-centred content is supposed to dominate the lesson activities as it applies differentiated learning styles and facilitates learner innovations to reach the learning outcomes, allowing all-inclusive assessment.

A competence-based curriculum generates social knowledge, learning outcomes being achieved by learners at the end of the learning process. Knowledge is acquired through the cognitive process driven by the learners' experiential interests and beliefs, while educators inspire the desire for knowledge (Khoza & Biyela, 2019; Levy, 2008). Content is driven by social needs. Such requires the teacher to understand the intended curriculum thus guiding learners into achieving the goals of the planned lesson. However, a study conducted by Läänemets and Kalamees-Ruubel (2013) on principles of curriculum argues that the curriculum content of each subject should have predetermined objectives to measure success against what was supposed to be learned. Therefore, the CAPS may not be successful in South Africa because there is no common theory that directs the learner-centred content. Teachers may choose to undermine and misrepresent the enactment of learner-centred curriculum activities guided by the learning outcomes (Tan et al., 2017; Terwel, 2005).

2.3.2. Learning outcomes

A study conducted by Jacobs et al. (2016) on the effectiveness of a learner-centred curriculum defines learning outcomes in a competency-based curriculum as a curriculum focused on learners' measurable, observable exhibitions of the activity. Learning outcomes integrate prior knowledge, learners' backgrounds, learners' choices, needs, interests, and capabilities into the lesson activity. Studies conducted by Hansen (2012) and Freire (2018a) on the learner-centred curriculum describe learning outcomes as a guide to learning and construction of knowledge from solving the presented problem, learning skills, developing competencies, to applying solutions to real-life situations. These studies further assert that learning outcomes are a road map needed to achieve curriculum goals. Learning outcomes are thus used by the learning facilitators to draw up assessment standards, group discussion, teaching and learning material, and selection of activities (Green, 2018; Mager, 1962; Milistetd et al., 2018). A competence-

based curriculum is the combination of knowledge, skills and values that allows a person to complete a task successfully. Three different types of goals, then, derive from this: knowledge-based goals, skills-based goals, and affective-based goals (Khoza, 2015b; Mpungose, 2019; Shulman, 1987). To exemplify this, one could discuss the desired learning goals in a lesson on the environment should, say, the lesson require students to understand ecosystems.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Khoza (2013b) on learning outcomes states that outcomes are links between the curriculum intention and the results of learning; and they can demonstrate and focus on observable results. Learning outcomes are categorised into those on the knowledge-based level (cognitive), the skills-based (performance criteria), and the effective-based level (values and conditions) (Aggarwal & Goodell, 2016; Krathwohl & Anderson, 2009; Lunenburg, 2011). A study by Harden (2002) and Gibbs (2019) has outlined that skilled-based outcomes used in a competence-based curriculum address societal needs. Therefore, they should drive all lesson activities because they stimulate authentic and self-directed learning among learners and output (outcomes) driven lesson activities from the facilitators.

According to Aggarwal & Goodell (2016) and Harden (2002), learning outcomes can be specified in such a way that covers the range of necessary knowledge, skills, values, and competencies used to integrate learning areas. The content can then be generated from the seven achieved learning outcomes based on skills, knowledge, values, and attitude toward self-development, as indicated by Bourne in Figure 2.2 below.

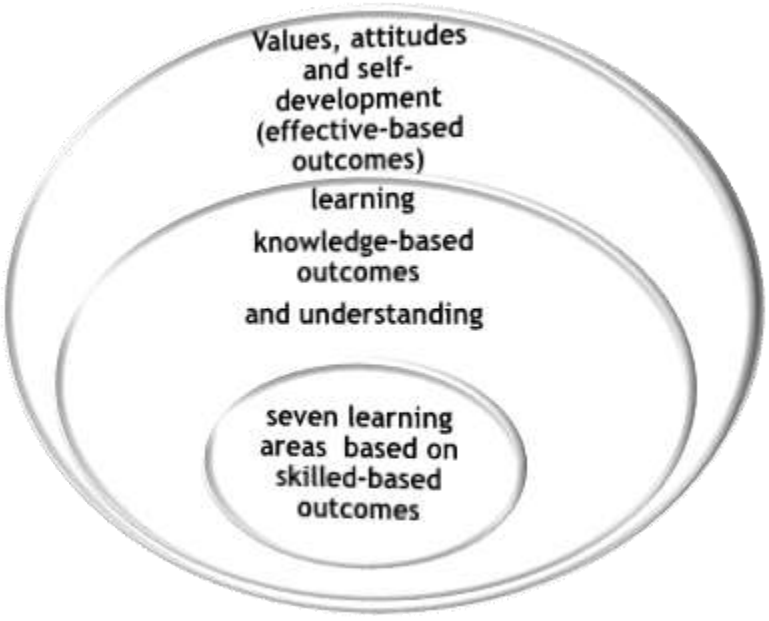

Figure 2.2: Model indicating learning outcomes, adapted from Bourne (2003) and Mager (1962).

The effective-based outcomes that address personal needs as their goals are those which foster creativeness, promote competitiveness, and indicate learners' performance criteria (Freire, 2018b). The knowledge-based outcomes are objectives that address professional needs, the goal being to transmit knowledge and understanding (Bourne, 2003; Chaiklin, 2003). The skills-based outcomes should dominate the curriculum because they start from relevant real-life teaching and learning outcomes. The seven learning areas as depicted by the skills-based are independent of prescribed objectives; and content is generated from the outcomes. Learners therefore have no content to memorise. The curriculum goal is to determine how knowledge is constructed (Jenkins et al., 2017). The skills-based outcomes are more pertinent and more meaningful to competent-based principles. These outcomes provide scope for facilitators to engage learners' self-directive learning and development. The facilitator therefore stimulates learning by providing a variety of relevant experiences.

Moreover, the facilitator should understand all learning outcomes principles underpinning the skills-based performance outcomes (Aggarwal & Goodell, 2016). According to a study conducted by Freire (2018a), societal experience plays a far more important role in learner achievement than knowledge-based and effective-based abilities; among others, self-awareness, motivation, and social skills are enhanced (Makumane & Ngcobo, 2018; Milistetd et al., 2018; Rodgers, 2002). However, a study conducted by Stenhouse (1970) on curriculum development argues that the CAPS may not be successful in South Africa because there is no common theory that directs the skills-based learning outcomes. Facilitators, therefore, may choose to subvert and misinterpret the enactment of a competitive-based curriculum, using instead their personal preferred teaching and learning methods (Krathwohl & Anderson, 2009; Morojele, 2018; Mpungose, 2016).

2.3.3. Teaching and learning methods

A study conducted by Kurtz, Draper, and Silverman (2017) on teaching and learning methods implies that learner-centred teaching methods are inductive. Learning begins with real-life situations for learners in which they observe, experiment, solve problems, and analyse the outcomes. Moreover, a study by Prince and Felder (2006) on inductive learning methods concurs by stating that facilitators give a scenario to learners, learners then attempting to analyse the situation, collect information, and solve the problem. These studies further

categorise inductive teaching methods into problem-solving, discovery-learning, and inquiry-based learning. Problem-solving teaching occurs when the facilitator applies cognitive constructivism, which uses the learner's experiences to enhance learning (Cox, 2018; Piaget et al., 1967). Discovery learning uses social constructivism through the facilitation of real-life situations; and inquiry-based learning uses diagnostic teaching (inquiry-based learning) to facilitate learning through research (D'agnese, 2017; Vygotsky, 1978).

The discovery of learning through the facilitation of real-life experiences is more pertinent and more meaningful to competent-based ideologies, providing scope for facilitators to engage learners' self-directive learning and social construction of knowledge (Banks & Banks, 2019). Thus, the facilitator stimulates learning by proving a variety of relevant experiences. Discovery learning probes learners with difficult questions so that learners can connect their existing knowledge for solutions, improving collaboration learning, and the teacher's deeper understanding. The teaching and learning methods are used to promote the facilitation of a learner-centred curriculum which addresses societal needs (Engelbrecht, 2006; Kakkori & Huttunen, 2017; Kurtz et al., 2017).

According to Hocks (2017), if the curriculum is dominated by learner-centred teaching and learning methods, it addresses societal needs. This supports the facilitator's will to foster self-discovery and experiential learning among learners. Learner-centred teaching encompasses inquiry-based and problem-based learning. Such is characterised by active learning approaches that focus on learners acquiring critical thinking and problem-solving skills, and acquisition of knowledge. Therefore, inductive teaching encourages a high level of communication among learners, a high level of participation, peer teaching, presentations, and researching of facts. Learners have been given more responsibility for their own learning since learning is strongly influenced by their prior knowledge and experience (Mager, 1962; Milistetd et al., 2018; Vygotsky, 1978).

However, a study conducted by Elbaz (2018) on teachers' practical knowledge is in contrast with inductive teaching, and states that learner-centred classes are mostly chaotic, noisy, and with poor activity monitoring by the educator; additionally, some learners prefer to work alone. Therefore the facilitator should know and be aware of all learner-centred ideologies underpinning enactment to keep learners successfully engaged and motivated to complete activities (Eris & Kiliçoglu, 2019). In South Africa, the curriculum does not specify ideologies that guide learner-centred teaching and learning methods in facilitating experiential (discovery)

learning. Teachers may thus choose to subvert, misinterpret, and misconceptualise the principles underpinning the enactment learner-centred curriculum. The CAPS may not be successful in South Africa because there is no common theory that directs discovery learning; therefore, teachers may choose to challenge and misinterpret the enactment of an inquiry-based curriculum in their facilitating and researching role in the curriculum enactment.

2.3.4. The teacher's role in the enactment

A study conducted by Weimer (2002) on learner-centred teaching states that the role of a teacher in competence-based enactment is that of a facilitator who helps guide learners in the assimilation of knowledge and understanding of the concepts in a meaningful way, learners having complex knowledge and understanding when they are engaged in practical or experiential learning activities. Moreover, a study conducted by Wang et al. (2018) affirms that knowledge cannot be simply transmitted to learners, but can be facilitated to develop learners' critical thinking and problem-solving skills. The role of the teacher is thus categorised as, among others, a learning facilitator who models learner's higher-order thinking by probing learner's deeper understanding while developing learners' thinking and reasoning skills, assisting learners to become independent and to manage their learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1990; Tadesse et al., 2020).

Secondly, the teacher's role as a learning mediator is that in which the teacher designs learning activities that encourage the learner's involvement and participation, and sets learning experiences from current skills and knowledge to new development and discoveries (Khoza & Biyela, 2019; Merriam & Baumgartner, 2020). According to Weimer (2002) and Larson (2018), learner-centred learning attests to the role of a teacher in designing learning experiences that draw learners' need to embark upon inventiveness and creativity. Moreover, a study by Brimijoin (2005) on learning facilitation affirms that the teacher's role in learning is to draw up lesson activities that foster group participation and transform learners' knowledge and understanding.

Thirdly, the teachers' role is to assess learners, determining the extent to which the outcomes have been achieved, providing feedback after evaluation, and allowing learners to reflect on their performance (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Heitink, Van der Kleij, Veldkamp, Schildkamp, & Kippers, 2016). Teachers can plan and enact activities that create and maintain a conducive learning environment while enforcing evaluation methods to maximise learners' learning possibilities. Furthermore, a study conducted by Suparsa, Mantra, and Widiastuti (2017)

concluded that a teacher is a facilitator, counsellor, resource provider, and manager of learning in the classroom. A teacher helps learners to set up their own learning objectives, assisting them to select their learning materials, and evaluate their own learning progress, encouraging learners to reflect on their learning process.

According to studies by Skinner (2016), Freire (2018a), and Khoza (2019b), the role of a teacher as a facilitator of the curriculum is more pertinent and more meaningful to learner-centred principles, as it provides scope for teachers to engage learners' prior knowledge, probing learners with difficult questions for reasoning and deeper understanding. The role of lesson facilitator addresses societal needs, while the role of mediation addresses professional needs; and the assessor's role addresses personal needs. Moreover, the teachers' roles as mediator and assessor of learning assist in realising the central importance of the teacher as a facilitator between the curriculum, context, and the assessment activity, as centred on the learning outcomes (Sheehan, 1986).

Ahmad (2016) and van der Linden et al. (2019) maintain that the teacher as a facilitator emphasises the learner-centred content and its focus on societal needs; whereas mediating focuses on professional needs, with the assessor addressing personal needs. Studying the relationship between the role of a curriculum facilitator, the mediator of curriculum materials, and the assessor of the curriculum involves understanding the teacher's role in the process of constructing the enacted curriculum. This assumes that facilitation is the central role of curriculum enactment because it involves an interaction between the teacher, learner, and the lesson activity (Nel, Nel, & Hugo, 2016; Van Manen, 1977). Facilitators therefore need to understand all the principles reinforcing the intended curriculum. The facilitating role of teachers seems ideal for supporting learners in reaching their educational outcomes, and fostering learners' interest in the lesson activities, the interactive engagement allowing learner-centred experiences of learners (Larson, 2018; Vincent, Meche, & Ross, 2020).

Teachers must be able to connect learners and resources, and to design activities and assignments that engage learners in critical thinking skills, while helping learners to set up their learning content, select their learning materials, and to evaluate their learning and progress (Barrows & Myers, 1993; Johnson & Johnson, 1990; Mpungose, 2019). In the South African context, facilitating a lesson forms part of the learner-centred curriculum enactment as specified in the competence-based curriculum. In the CAPS there are no learner-centred ideologies that guide the teacher's role in facilitating a lesson. Teachers may choose to subvert,

misinterpret, and misrepresent the principles underpinning the enactment of the learner-centred curriculum; which leads to discussion of assessment as learning.

2.3.5 Assessment as learning

A study conducted by Mpungose (2016) on curriculum evaluation defines assessment as learning as the practice that promotes learning among teachers and learners by adapting teaching to meet learners' academic needs. According to Chen and Shi (2018) and Chamane (2016), assessment is conducted to generate learners' academic information that can be acted upon as teachers recognise, plan, monitor, and accredit learning. Assessment as learning thus assists teachers to gain a comprehensive picture of the learners' abilities, academic level, misconceptions, and learners' prior knowledge. Based on that knowledge teachers plan for future lesson developments to meet learners' learning needs (Khoza, 2017a; Reio et al., 2017). The assessments also provide feedback to learners about their participation level, and motivate learners to improve their level of involvement in their learning (Hoadley, 2017a; Suparsa et al., 2017).

Furthermore, competency-based assessment is based on evidence collected through holistic projects which address challenging goals (Chen & Shi, 2018). A study conducted by Wingate (2007) on assessment categorises assessment into three: baseline assessment, classroom assessment, and evaluation. The baseline assessment is conducted at the beginning of a new lesson activity to make a meaningful interpretation of learners' understanding of different knowledge, which addresses personal needs (Gibbs, 2019; Morris, 2019). Classroom assessments directly illuminate and enhance the practice of learning through self-evaluation and peer or facilitator activities that address societal needs. An evaluation is conducted to measure the congruence of educational goals and the learning process, using the information for making final decisions on the learning outcome success (Tadesse et al., 2020; Vygotsky, 1978).

Studying the relationship between baseline assessment, classroom assessment, and lesson evaluation in formative assessment, classroom assessment seems to be a pervasive feature of informal assessment because it acknowledges the learners' active role in assessments. Moreover, classroom assessment contributes to facilitator-fostering practices that are likely to enhance learners' adoption of learning goals; and develop learning-orientated learners who will be motivated to develop a deeper understanding of the lesson activity (Jenkins et al., 2017; Vincent et al., 2020). According to Heitink et al. (2016), if the formative assessment is

dominated by baseline and lesson evaluation it addresses professional and personal needs. However, if classroom assessment dominates, this assessment type addresses societal needs. Assessment as learning therefore helps guide curriculum future teaching and learning plan, guiding feedback, and supporting continuing professional teacher development.

Moreover, the assessment helps learners to take full responsibility for their learning, in which they can understand learning and become competent in the process of constructing their knowledge (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & Wiliam, 2004; Stiggins, 2017; Willis et al., 2013). Furthermore, assessment assists in providing learners with opportunities to learn as they use their knowledge and skills in interacting with others, which in turn enhances knowledge and ability (Wang et al., 2018). A study conducted by Reio et al. (2017) on learning evaluation deduces that successful assessment has to follow an evaluation process starting with the context in which the assessment needs are established; followed by the selection of assessment methods, then the process by which assessment task is facilitated; and lastly, by feedback in which learning outcomes are given back to learners (Tadesse et al., 2020).

Competence-based enactment assessment is concerned with learners' ability to deepen their learning and skills through assessment that enhances learners' ability to demonstrate their intellectual competence (Khoza, 2018; Stiggins, 2017; Tadesse et al., 2020). However, studies conducted by Koretz et al. (2016), and Stufflebeam and Coryn (2014) on evaluation have concluded that competence-based assessment lacks national learning outcome comparison, this being expensive and time-consuming as requiring to be continuous. Therefore, teachers must be able to direct learners' attention to significant learning activities, assessing them to generate information that can be acted upon as they recognise, plan, monitor, and accredit learning. Therefore, the CAPS may not succeed in South Africa because there are no common principles that give directions to facilitators on the enactment of formative assessment. Teachers may choose to undermine and misinterpret the facilitation of informal assessment enactment, applying principles of pragmatic enactment curriculum (David, 2016; Education, 2011).

2.4. Pragmatic Curriculum Enactment

Studies according to Dewey (1923), Peirce (1931), and James (1979) on pragmatic enactment argue that curriculum enactment is the application of a practical inquiry curriculum. These studies further assert that the curriculum enacted under pragmatism evolves, and is the interpretation of practical consequences. According to Anderson et al. (2018) and Dewey (1923), pragmatic curriculum enactment is the application of the modified curriculum through

a teacher's interpretation of the intended curriculum. The enactment of the curriculum thus depends on the teachers' knowledge, interpretation, and ability to engage learners in experiential and content knowledge through action-orientated activities, using flexible teaching methods. Teachers need to realise that the curriculum is constantly changing; they also need to change their teaching methods in order to assist learners to acquire the best results from the set curriculum (Evans, 2017; Hocks, 2017).

Furthermore, a study conducted by Morojele (2018) on the enactment of curriculum affirms that teachers use their creativity and experience in deciding on content and daily learning experiences to engage learners, taking into consideration the learning circumstances. According to James (2017) and Cook (1993), pragmatic curriculum principles are categorised into three: behaviourism (cognitivism), constructivism (socialism), and pragmatist (interactionist) curriculum principles. Cognitivism is characterised among others by a hierarchal knowledge domain, content-centred principles, instructional objectives, and standardised assessments (Skinner, 2016; Thorndike, 1970; Tyler, 1933). Constructivism is characterised by the process of knowledge construction, learner-centred principles, experiential (active) learning, learning outcomes, and problem-solving (Dewey, 1933; Evans, 2017; Vygotsky, 1978).

Interactionism, by contrast, is characterised by intellectual abilities, application of constructed knowledge, diverse learning, cognitive performance, research, higher-order questions, problem-solving, and self-development (Banks & Banks, 2019; D'agnese, 2017; Green, 2018). Studying the significance between cognitivism principles, constructivism principles, and pragmatism principles, pragmatism seems to be a pervasive theory of inquiry-based curriculum enactment. It acknowledges the acquisition of abstract cognitive knowledge, the procedures and skills needed to apply conceptual competence in concrete situations, and the application of solutions to problem-based learning experiences (Levy, 2008; Tan et al., 2017). The pragmatist curriculum integrates principles of cognitivism and constructivism for the better attainment of knowledge, skills, and values because all learning is an active process of making sense.

Likewise, this principle attributes to facilitator-fostering practices that are likely to enhance each learner to be educated according to their needs and abilities. According to Kilpatrick (1951), if the curriculum is driven by content-centred (cognitivism) principles it addresses the professional needs; but if the curriculum is dominated by the learner-centred (constructivism) curriculum, societal needs are addressed. However, if the curriculum is dominated by problem-

centred (individualism) principles, it addresses personal needs in learning, which helps the facilitator to foster self-discovery and inquiry-based learning (Kundu, 2018). Teachers therefore need to understand all principles underpinning the pragmatic domain before applying and adapting to the curriculum changes for the benefit of teaching and learning which offer the acquisition of real-life experiences (Khoza, 2018).

Additionally, the pragmatically driven curriculum is inquiry-based, connecting learners' interests with the world around them. Therefore, pragmatic teachers engage learners in useful practical activities that allow them to learn by doing, and create their expression and application of the content for their benefit (Prince & Felder, 2006). However, the South African (CAPS) curriculum does not seem to support teachers in reaching their objectives to foster learning in an active curriculum. Such a curriculum should interest learners to engage in research-related activities. The pragmatic curriculum philosophy is based on interactive engagement. It is designed to allow inquiry-based learning for a learning experience which is more democratic, self-development oriented, performance-competence based, and research-oriented for both teachers and learners. The CAPS possesses no common theory which guides the facilitation of inquiry-based curriculum, blended curriculum content, and its educational goals, reflection, researcher role, and learning environment. Therefore teachers may choose to sideline and misinterpret the enactment of the pragmatic curriculum (Khoza, 2013b; Laurillard, 2016; Prince & Felder, 2006).

2.4.1 Blended curriculum content

Studies conducted by Dewey (1923), Cook (1993), and Anderson et al. (2018) define the curriculum as a mapping of how educational goals and skills are acquired. According to Dewey, curriculum content is then a vehicle for personal change. Moreover, a study conducted by Singh & Reed (2001) defines a blended curriculum as a combination of two curriculum approaches a performance curriculum, and a competence-based curriculum. This combination optimises the achievement of teaching objectives by enacting the content-centred curriculum to transmit knowledge; and a learner-centred curriculum that promotes the facilitation of learning (Kundu, 2018; Neumeier, 2005). Likewise, a blended curriculum is an approach designed to engage learners in critical thinking activities using discursive and experiential activities. These activities foster real-world lessons, and practical learning, challenging learners to create their expression and application of the intended content (Neumeier, 2005).

According to a study conducted by Keller et al. (2017), curriculum content is categorised into an intended curriculum designed to meet the challenges of tailored teaching (content-based curriculum), an enacted curriculum (differentiation facilitation to the curriculum) as per the perception of the individual teachers; and a hidden curriculum (blended curriculum) which integrates the performance and competence-based curriculum. The blended curriculum should be that which drives any content in education because teaching is about this division of these educational programmes. Teaching is more concerned with the acquired curriculum than the intended or the differentiated curriculum (Kundu, 2018; Remillard & Heck, 2014; Singh & Reed, 2001).

Teachers must thus plan how to engage learners in critical thinking activities using discursive and experiential activities. These activities foster among others, real-world lessons, and practical learning, and challenge learners to create their expression and application of the intended content (Khoza & Biyela, 2019; Wijnia et al., 2019). A study conducted by Sheehan (1986), Hocks (2017), and Feltovich, Coulson, and Spiro (2013) deduces that pragmatic educational content aims to promote learners' critical thinking and experiences by engaging learners in higher-order topics which will foster synthesis, evaluation objectives and assist learners to reach the highest level of understanding. Teachers are creating opportunities for learners to apply and extend their knowledge by relating their attained knowledge to practical learning, and connecting the prescribed curriculum content to learners' real social lives (Hocks, 2017; James, 2017; Krathwohl & Anderson, 2009).

According to a study by Makumane and Ngcobo (2018), if the educational content is dominated by a blended curriculum, it addresses the combination of content-centred and inquiry-based curriculum, which is appropriately blended to accommodate individual and collective contributions to teaching experiences. This type of curriculum thus combines the performance curriculum, in which the teacher-centred and content-driven curricula are promoted, together with a competitive curriculum that promotes learner-centred and inquiry-based activities. Educational activities offered in this curriculum are experiential, practical, and connected to learners' social life to create social involvement opportunities for learners (Hocks, 2017).

According to Anderson et al. (2018), Wang et al. (2018), and Potter (2018), blended curriculum content is problem-centred; change is constant, and the curriculum is more concerned with results than policies. It is expected that teaching is about allowing and offering learners the opportunity to explore, experience, and discover the truth through social

interaction. Therefore as knowledge evolves, teachers must master their subject concerning their experiences, investigations, and background knowledge, thus extending knowledge to learners through practical activity engagements (Evans, 2017; Reilly, 2018). The blended educational aims or standards are to foster a management plan which offers a practical learning experience, inquiry or experimental educational skills to be attained at the end of a topic (Khoza & Biyela, 2019; Reilly, 2018; Shay et al., 2016).

The content enacted is seen as a factor of the teacher's interpretation of the intended curriculum, depending on the teacher's preferred interpretation with counter effects such as the nature of learners, values, and aims of the society, and the teacher's knowledge of the subject matter (Blumer, 1966; Cook, 1993; Kilpatrick, 1951; Skinner, 2016). Educational practice and guidance require the teacher to be a lifelong learner, therefore able to connect the intended curriculum and learners' social interests through curriculum planning, retrieving of information, information processing, information organising, sharing information, reflection, and evaluation of teaching and learning (Evans, 2017; Hansen, 2012; Rodgers, 2002).

In South Africa, curriculum differentiation in the CAPS does not specify any blending of content and approaches in the theory. Teachers have to assume the principles that support their enactment in optimising achievement of teaching by matching the teaching method to the right learning style of an individual, thus transferring or facilitating the correct knowledge and skills at the right time using the right resources (Khoza, 2017c; Singh & Reed, 2001). Therefore, the CAPS may fail in South Africa, as teachers may decide on controversial theories to enact in the blended curriculum. More so, the CAPS content is driven by performance (vertical discourse), hence there is no specific theory directing the enactment of curriculum differentiation (horizontal discourse) and blended curriculum (inquiry-based curriculum). This is because pragmatic education goals are not mentioned in the curriculum (Kundu, 2018; Terwel, 2005).

2.4.2 Educational goals

A study conducted by Khoza (2016a) on curriculum development defines educational goals as curriculum intentions with aims, objectives, and outcomes, in which objectives represent the short-term curriculum goals, and aims represent the long-term educational goals. A study by Shishov (2016) on educational goals argues that a pragmatic curriculum aims to promote innovative individualism and personal experience development, through the variation of content and integration of teaching processes which stimulates learner initiatives and creativity.

Educational goals aid learners and direct facilitators in the curriculum enactment process (Banks, 2015; Khoza, 2016b).

Studies conducted by Kilpatrick (1951) and Anderson et al. (2018) have categorised educational goals in the pragmatic curriculum as either transformative educational goals, constructive educational goals, or cognitive educational goals. The transformative educational goal is to facilitate and research evolving knowledge, which means that there is no standard knowledge acquisition; however, information is constructed for problem solving and self-development (Jung & Brady, 2016). Conceptual educational goals enforce thinking and reasoning skills through predetermined cognitive knowledge. Constructive educational goals are facilitated through experiential and skilled-based learning (van der Linden et al., 2019).

Studying the significance differences between cognitive (conceptual) educational goals, constructive educational goals, and transformative (progressive) educational goals, transformative educational goals are perceived to be prevalent in the pragmatic curriculum enactment. These goals acknowledge the acquisition of abstract cognitive knowledge, the procedures, and skills needed to apply conceptual competence in concrete situations, and the application of solutions to problem-based learning experiences. A pragmatic curriculum incorporates conceptual educational goals and constructivist educational goals for better lesson activity execution. Moreover, these goals contribute to researchers fostering inquiry-based practices that are likely to improve individual learners' conceptual, procedural, and performance abilities (Khoza & Biyela, 2019; Maguire et al., 2015).

According to Tan et al. (2017), if educational goals are dominated by cognitive and constructive goals, they address professional and societal needs. However, if educational goals are dominated by progressive goals, they address personal or individual needs (James, 2017; Khoza, 2016b; Nel et al., 2016). Studies by Reio et al. (2017) and Tadesse et al. (2020) on educational goals affirm that pragmatic goals are the enactment of values, skills, and competencies, through the experimental approach to problem-solving skills, organised experimental lessons, teamwork, and skills for personal change and interaction with others. The goal of the curriculum approach is to offer teachers the ability to teach learners how to research to develop new ways of thinking and critical engagement (Laurillard, 2008).

Studies according to Thorndike (1906) on laws of learning mention that, as knowledge evolves, it connects past, present, and future experiences. Teachers should thus be able to connect learners' knowledge of the past, present, and future (Evans, 2017; Thorndike, 1970). A study

conducted by Erlinda and Surya (2017) on teaching and learning further suggests that, if teachers' enactment of the curriculum is influenced by intellectual skills, cognitive strategies, and positive attitudes, higher-level objectives can be achieved through synthesis (Stenhouse, 1970). According to Dewey (1923), James (1979), and Cox (2018), pragmatic goals promote experimental evidence, guiding personal and social experiences, creation of new values, and development of moral awareness, invention, and initiatives. Teachers should be able to integrate principles of the conceptual domain and concepts of the constructive domain for better curriculum facilitation and attainment.

However, the CAPS has no problem-centred ideologies which guide the teachers in facilitating inquiry-based educational goals. Teachers may therefore choose to reject, misapprehend, and misconceptualise the principles supporting the pragmatic curriculum enactment (Hoadley, 2017b). Moreover, pragmatic education is largely focused on acquiring knowledge, skills, and competencies for personal development. However, to determine the goals of education, a pragmatic teacher will ask the question: for whom are the educational goals; and what kind of goals, will influence the teachers' choice in drawing lesson objectives? (Khoza, 2016a; Straub et al., 2017). Therefore, pragmatic goals enactment ensures the formation of a teacher personality in which curriculum effectiveness is indistinguishably connected to the teacher`s role, analysing and researching to extend the intended curriculum that supports the completion of the learning process (Sokolova & Sergienko, 2016; Zhang et al., 2016).

2.4.3 The role of the pragmatic teacher in the curriculum enactment

A study conducted by Jung and Brady (2016) on teachers' roles describes teachers as researchers who construct and collaborate on the learning enactment by modelling activities for effective learning. An interpretive study conducted by Khoza (2019a) on curriculum implementation contends that the teacher's role is to model effective teaching and learning by creating a conducive environment that motivates learners to actively interact with educational activities, thus addressing their learning needs. According to a study by Makumane and Ngcobo (2018), teachers have the role and the responsibility to bridge the gap between the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum. Teachers thus design educational goals, providing platforms for learners to interact and simulate real-life situations. Such is achieved by modelling activities to enhance learners' cognitive abilities, developing critical and problem-solving skills (Heitink et al., 2016; Khoza, 2016b; van der Linden et al., 2019).

Furthermore, a study conducted by Cairns (2018) on curriculum enactment asserts that teachers research their decisions about content selection considering contextual factors. This is the reason for teachers needing to have a conceptual and practical understanding of the curriculum so as to interpret, apply, and model the acquisition of various knowledge and skills. A study conducted by Khoza and Biyela (2019) elucidates that teachers, as pragmatic curriculum enactors, must understand the complex and interpretative process of the curriculum to develop a deeper understanding of the practical curriculum in response to learners' differentiated needs. This study assures that teachers are also programme designers, selecting content, skills, and knowledge to be enacted.

Teachers thus set up the collaboration process of performance and competitive curriculum. They design a challenging framework to gain the best from learners' personal and social experiences (Mabuza & Khoza, 2019; Mpungose, 2019). The researchers' framework, according to (Laurillard, 2008), operates on discursive and practical approaches that foster the interchange of ideas, concepts, discussions, and clarity-seeking questions between learners and teachers. These activities lead to reflective exercises for both teachers and learners. Moreover, this framework categorises the teacher's role into that of a researcher who guides the setting of task goals. The teacher is a lesson presenter, setting a positive learning environment, giving meaningful feedback to learners, and helping them with reflection (Laurillard, Kennedy, Charlton, Wild, & Dimakopoulos, 2018).

According to van der Linden et al. (2019) and Hoadley (2009), teachers must be lifelong learners, conducting research to address the diverse educational needs of learners and to keep up with the evolving knowledge in education. Therefore, teachers must be researchers and reflective practitioners, able to respond and contribute to learners' effective learning. This should be achieved by exploring how best to combine the vertical and horizontal discourse for the better attainment of learning outcomes (Khoza, 2019; Laurillard, 2016; Luitel & Taylor, 2005). There is a need for teachers to model real-life situations in their lesson presentations, thus encouraging learners to conduct their research by gaining knowledge and understanding (Maguire et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016).

A study conducted by Cairns (2018) argues that teachers should play a major role in the variation of the content, integration of teaching, and learning activities that stimulate creativity and inventiveness among learners. This indicates that the teacher's role as a researcher should dominate the teaching and learning activities because learning is about acquiring and

experiencing knowledge. Learning is not about the lesson presentation which addresses professional needs, or reflection which address a social need but about inquiry and problem-solving which address personal needs (Cairns, 2018; Milistetd et al., 2018). According to Khoza (2019), if the teacher's role is dominated by modelling and reflection it addresses professional and societal needs; however, if the teacher's role is dominated by research it addresses ideological-ware. Ideological-ware addresses personal needs and is enacted to establish learners as owners of their learning through inquiry learning, and for activating learners to be other learners' resources (Green, 2018; Van Manen, 1977). Curriculum researchers should therefore first understand the entire ideological-ware teaching role that directs the researchers' intended curriculum before enacting the process of modelling a lesson activity or reflection on the lesson activity. However, the integration of all teacher roles in the enactment of inquiry-based education can yield positive attainment (Reio et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2016). The CAPS may not succeed in South Africa because there is no common theory that gives directions to the teacher as a researcher; therefore, teachers may choose to overlook the enactment of an inquiry-based curriculum. Teachers should be able to model learners' innovative ability to react to activity objectives. Teachers must assist learners to conduct their research; results from assessment for learning are used for diagnostic purposes and for all-inclusive examination (Cox, 2018; Rodgers, 2002).

2.4.4 Assessment for learning

A study conducted by Heitink et al. (2016) on learner assessment states that assessment for learning is the process of gathering a learner's information or evidence and deciding on whether or not the skills have been achieved. Studies according to Khoza (2016a) and Stiggins and Chappuis (2005) affirm that assessment for learning is conducted to generate learners' and teachers' teaching and learning information that can be acted upon as teachers recognise, plan, monitor, and accredit learning. This suggests that assessment for learning is a tool used to collect evidence on whether or not competency has been achieved through authentic assessment. Moreover, inquiry-based assessment is based on evidence collected through holistic projects which address challenging goals and enhance learning through teachers' modification of lesson activities and teaching methodologies in which they engage learners (Chen & Shi, 2018; Zhang et al., 2016).

Furthermore, the assessment helps learners to take full responsibility for their learning; they can understand learning and become competent in constructing their knowledge and reflecting on their achievements (Evans, 2017). A study conducted by Black et al. (2004) further states

that assessment for learning assists teachers to gain a comprehensive picture of the learners' abilities, academic level, misconceptions, and learners' prior knowledge. Based on that knowledge they plan for future lesson developments to meet learners' learning needs (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Freire, 2018b). A study conducted by Stiggins (2017) categorises assessment into the assessment of learning (traditional or summative assessment) which is conducted afterwards to measure the success in achieving the stated objections of the lesson. Secondly, assessment for learning (diagnostic assessment) assists teachers to make informed instructional decisions. Such is conducted at the beginning of the lesson or activity. As teachers assess the learners' pre-existing ideas, they can move learning into the zone of proximal development in which prior knowledge can be addressed. Such helps teachers to design lessons that will assist learners to construct their knowledge (Black et al., 2004; Holmes & McLean, 2018; Mpungose, 2016).

Moreover, assessment for learning as a diagnostic assessment of learners' academic needs is identified and lesson activities based on learners' mindset are planned; the classroom climate is then established (Sadler, 1998; Stiggins, 2017). Lastly, assessment as learning is conducted to monitor learners, as they learn from one another. This assessment is conducted through formative methods, which also allow learners to reflect on their acquired knowledge and on what still needs to be learned (Heitink et al., 2016). Formative assessment is defined as that in which continuous assessment is applied to identify learners' specific learning weaknesses; teachers' pacing decisions are then informed (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Khoza, 2017a; Kurtz et al., 2017).

Assessment as learning enactment should be driving all types of assessment. Such informs teachers of learners' understanding, providing feedback and support, and motivating learners to take ownership of their learning. Assessment is not only about measuring achieved curriculum objectives or diagnosing learners' barriers to learning − it is about formative assessment (Bergin et al., 2015; Stiggins, 2005, 2017). According to Straub et al. (2017), if assessment addresses summative and diagnostic assessment, it addresses assessment for learning and assessment of learning. However, if the assessment is dominated by assessment as learning it addresses formative assessment. Formative assessment is about learning how to learn, which directs learners' attention to what needs to be learned (Heitink et al., 2016; Morojele, 2018).

Teachers must therefore understand all concepts of formative assessment and have the ability to interpret information about learners. Teachers must be able to develop assessment activities that accomplish the desired outcomes, fostering the participation of all learners in discussions. Therefore, teachers should have the knowledge and skill to examine, collect, interpret, and generate meaningful and authentic assessment tasks using various types of formative assessment techniques (Black et al., 2004; Heitink et al., 2016; Khoza, 2015c; Larson, 2018). However, in South Africa, the CAPS does not specify any formative assessment approach or theory that supports assessment as learning. In assessment, teachers apply both an informal (assessment for learning) and a formal (assessment of learning) approach, as prescribed by the intended assessment policy (Education, 2011; Hoadley, 2017b).

This gives the impression that the CAPS may not succeed in South Africa: the CAPS does not specify assessment theories that support assessment as learning ought to be applied when administering curriculum differentiation assessment. Teachers may ultimately choose the assessment approaches in conflict with assessment as learning (Chen & Shi, 2018; Sadler, 1998; Willis et al., 2013). Assessment as learning requires teachers daily to monitor learners' progress through observations, discussions, demonstrations, teaching, and learning conferences. For teachers to be able to teach, assess, and collect information on learners' prior knowledge, skills, and competitiveness abilities, a positive learning environment must be set.

2.4.5 Teaching and learning environment

A study conducted by Cleveland and Fisher (2014) on educational facilities describes the teaching and learning environment as a social, psychological, conceptual, and physical teaching and learning space. A study by Kariippanon, Cliff, Lancaster, Okely, and Parrish (2018) on the positive teaching environment categorises the teaching and learning spaces into an environment in which educational activities engage with participants-centred pedagogy, self-regulation, collaboration, allowing an inclusive and interaction educational programme to be fostered. Therefore, as the teacher's pedagogy changes, the enactment of the inquiry-based curriculum is employed. The learning and teaching environment also changes to accommodate a flexible teaching and learning space (Hayat, Kohoulat, Dehghani, Kojuri, & Amini, 2016; Van Kamp, Leidelmeijer, Marsman, & De Hollander, 2003).

For Kariippanon et al. (2018), the learning environment can be conceptualised in terms of teaching and learning settings in which there is an interaction between teachers and learners. Khoza (2013a, 2015a) shares the same view in his interpretive studies, describing the teaching

and learning environment as the space that allows the use of the hardware (physical face-to-face teaching space), software (social interaction or mass presentation teaching and learning), and ideological-ware (blended teaching and learning environment) to enhance the effective completion of the set educational goals. A study by van der Linden et al. (2019) and Krathwohl and Anderson (2009) found that the learning environment is a manifestation of all organised and unorganised educational activities, embracing everything that happens in the teaching and learning space.

In a positive blended environment, therefore, social and intellectual conditions challenge and provoke teaching and learning stimuli. Such is an important factor in teaching and learning experiences as it provides a platform for favourable learning experiences. On this platform practical, theoretical, conversational, and research activities are presented; and the flexible teaching space motivates teaching and learning achievement (Freire, 2018b; Mpungose, 2019). Teaching and learning are not bound to face-to-face prescribed content teaching space or socially interactive (flexible) teaching and learning spaces. The teaching and learning environment should be a blended teaching and learning environment. In a blended teaching and learning environment, face-to-face teaching space and flexible teaching and learning are combined in a single environment to enhance the effective and efficient enactment of curriculum differentiation (Kariippanon et al., 2018; Neumeier, 2005).

According to a study conducted by Khoza and Biyela (2019) on teaching space, if a good teaching and learning environment is dominated by the blended environment, this motivates autonomy. The teacher sets a learning environment that intrinsically motivates the learner to engage with both teacher and peers. Such a situation regulates self-learning among learners. Learners are allowed to take charge of their learning in pursuit of their own learning goals, being able to acquire knowledge, apply skills, and to reflect. Studies conducted by Khoza (2015c) and DiGiacomo and Gutiérrez (2017) uncovered that, as inquiry-based teaching and learning approaches are applied in the blended teaching environment, learners' participation is inspired. Learners use the set learning platforms for peer engagements, personal education development, and practical involvement in the lesson.

Teachers therefore must understand the use of a blended teaching and learning environment to combine a face-to-face teaching environment with a flexible learning environment. The teacher's application of a blended environment will improve the quality of the educational activities by providing a positive learning space for simulation, rehearsals, experiential lab,

presentation, field trips, and engagement between teacher and learners (Kariippanon et al., 2018; Khoza & Manik, 2015; Neumeier, 2005). Moreover, a positive learning environment addresses the teacher's need to infuse conversational, constructivist, and reflective strategies for greater understanding and achievement of the expected outcomes (Khoza, 2019a; Spillane, 1999; Tan et al., 2017). Nevertheless, according to Bernstein (2006) and Tyler (2013), the learning environment is prescribed by the curriculum developers with guidelines on classroom and time management.

Movement is therefore very limited: desks are facing the front as teachers engage learners in face-to-face lessons, prescribing the content. Teachers transmit the knowledge and learners absorb it. The South African CAPS is an example of this content-driven curriculum − the classroom is the learning environment needed for teaching. Learners are expected to master the given content without much movement or peer involvement. No principles of blended teaching and learning theories are specified in the CAPS policy (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015; Hoadley, 2017b). Furthermore, a study conducted by Neumeier (2005) and Bourne (2003) states that the teaching and learning environment in a performance curriculum class is not compromised because there are no interruptions, noise levels, time-mismanagement factors, and challenging behavioural factors that can undermine teaching and learning. Consequently, CAPS may fail in South Africa if teachers apply teaching and learning environment principles that contradict the blended teaching and learning environment. In addition, reflection on teaching and learning is not included in the current curriculum.

2.4.6 Reflection on teaching and learning

Studies according to Schön (1991), Dewey (1933), Khoza (2017a), Mpungose (2016), and many more define reflection as a component of teacher development in which mental processing of information is used by teachers to analyse their teaching, to examine learners' knowledge and experiences, further evaluating and applying critical thinking to their teaching practices. Moreover, a study conducted by Moon (2005) on reflective teaching concurs by stating that reflection is an act of careful consideration of teachers' practices used to achieve lesson objectives, prompting further engagement with the lesson. Reflection therefore allows teachers to recall, interrogate, and reconsider their teaching practices (Khoza, 2018; Mabuza & Khoza, 2019).

According to Boody (2008) and Vogel and Boody (1975), teacher reflection is categorised into retrospection, problem-solving, critical thinking, and reflection-in-action. A study conducted

by Schön (1991) and Edwards (2017) postulates that reflection for teaching practice is divided into three types. The first is the routine teaching behaviour also called reflection-in-action in which the teacher observes the learners' behaviour and makes a decision about knowledge or practical experience to apply on the next activity. Secondly, the assessment of learners' prior knowledge is also called reflection-on-action in which teachers evaluate their lesson after the completion of the activity, planning for the next lesson. Thirdly, reflection-for-action is conducted before the lesson begins.

Reflection for action should drive the teacher's reflection process in the pragmatic curriculum enactment. Teachers must assess learners' knowledge, understanding, and practical skills prior to, during, and after the lesson. Reflection is not about reflection-in-action using (assessment-of-learning) and reflection-on-action using (assessment-for-learning). Greater emphasis is laid on reflection-for-action using (assessment as learning) as researchers reflect on everyday experiences. Moreover, research teachers concern themselves with the inquiry-based curriculum as a way of developing learners' evolving knowledge and skills (Cox, 2018; D'agnese, 2017).

According to Van Manen (1977) and Mpungose (2019), if the teacher`s reflection is dominated by reflection-for-action it addresses pragmatic curriculum enactment and personal needs which help the teacher to carefully consider the consequences of the enacted educational activities. Moreover, the reflective teacher can research and gain a better understanding of complicated teaching ideas, processing them as knowledge and understanding. Critical reflection helps teachers to understand learners' needs and abilities, adjusting their lesson plans, and varying teaching methodologies to meet learners' diverse needs. Therefore to improve their teaching practices, teachers must have an open-minded attitude to alternate views and possibilities, carefully considering the consequences of their teaching actions (Dewey, 1933; Evans, 2017; Khoza & Mpungose, 2018).

Reflective teachers evaluate their teaching skills, resources, and methodologies applied, thus reviewing their effectiveness in the lesson, and exploring various new ideas, and new approaches towards theoretical and practical activities. Teachers who critically reflect on their applied teaching by conducting research and analysing their teaching, enhance self-improvement, identifying their strengths and weaknesses (Galane, 2016; Moon, 2005). Consequently, teachers understand that reflection is driven by the technical, practical, and critical teaching skills. Such increases the teacher's chances of being at the centre of quality

teaching directed by educational goals (Berkvens, van den Akker, & Brugman, 2014; Van Manen, 1977).

A study conducted by Khoza (2017b) on the technical level of reflection is conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of the basic curriculum principles which include social-centred activities and software resources for social reasons. A practical level of reflection is conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching and learning which includes the analysis of summative assessment, clarification, and perception of content, contact time, and instruction objectives; and is conducted for professional reasons (Vincent et al., 2020). The highest level is the critical reflection conducted to evaluate the moral issues of an individual teacher, which includes self-determination, formative assessment, research, and blended teaching (Khoza, 2017c; Khoza & Manik, 2015; Moon, 2005).

However, the South African CAPS does not specify any critical reflection that supports curriculum differentiation enactment approaches (Education, 2011; Hoadley, 2017b). Teachers thus apply their chosen reflective theory because there is no commonly prescribed reflective principle that serves as the critical reflect

ion applied in differentiated CAPS. This gives the impression that CAPS may fail in South African full-service schools. Teachers may apply wrong principles that work contrary to the intended curriculum differentiation. CAPS is driven by a performance curriculum where technical rules apply using reflection-in-action; such misleads teachers (Dewey, 1933; Evans, 2017; Mpungose, 2019).

2.5. Chapter Conclusion

This literature review concludes that the basic useful framework for this study is a blended curriculum that integrates conceptualism and constructivism for better curriculum enactment. Consequently, the chapter has delineated four basic concepts underpinning the blended curriculum which are stated as knowledge, skills, and values, educational goals orientation, nature of teaching and resources, teaching inquiry-based, and reflection. The next chapter intends to explore the conceptual framework that may serve as a framework for blended curriculum enactment in schools.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has provided a critical account of the literature review. Chapter Two has explored enactment as a phenomenon. Curricula were discussed to provide the full background of the literature for this study. The chapter has also provided a background discussion on the curriculum doctrines teachers' use such as the performance curriculum and the competence-based curriculum. These concepts framed the discussion of enactment on the basis of conceptualisation of knowledge, construction of knowledge, and on the discussion of interactive knowledge. This chapter intends to provide a clear perspective of the literature review for further insight into and understanding of teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation in schools. In light of this, the present chapter is framed according to four principles and their underpinning concepts; which are stated as Programme responsiveness (Content ,Content awareness and Curriculum aims,); Organisational responsiveness (Practical learning and instruction structure, Ethics and Value education, Enactment experiences and Enactment environment); Administrative responsiveness (Teacher role, assessment as learning, teaching and learning time allocation and learning materials); Pedagogical responsiveness (Curriculum evaluation and Curriculum reflection).

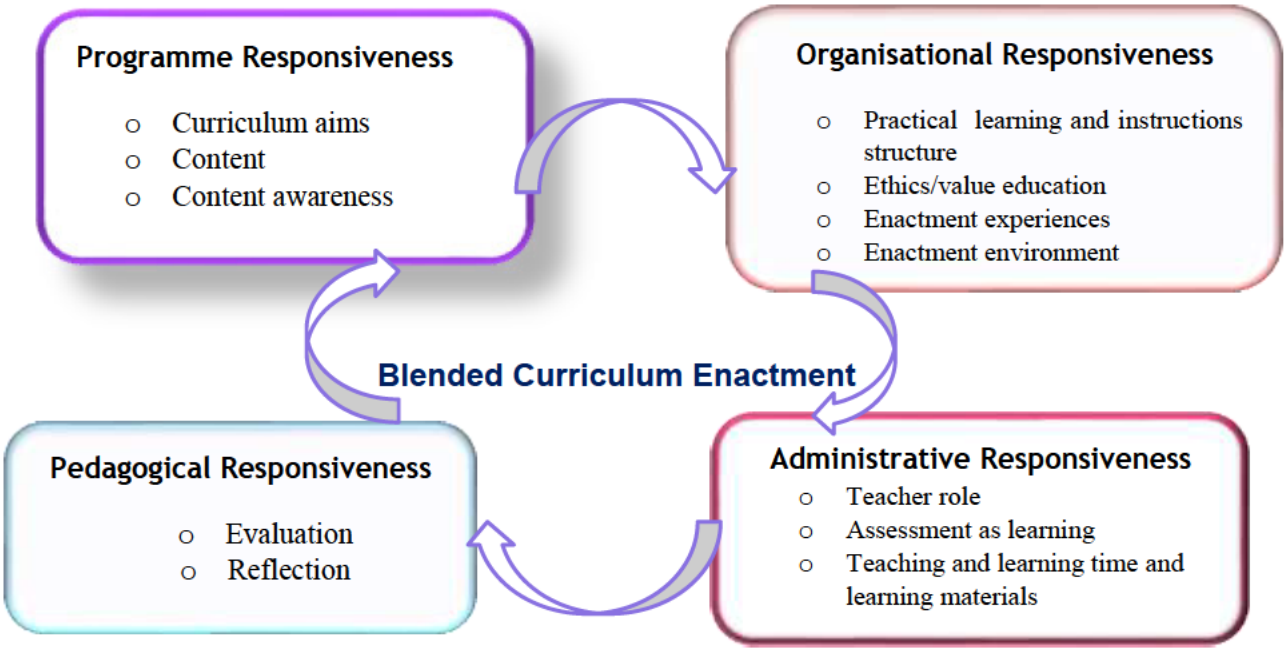

Figure 3.1: Generation of the blended curriculum enactment, adapted from (Evans, 2017)

As it has been inferred, the concept of a blended curriculum was introduced by (Singh & Reed, 2001). The blended curriculum is a pragmatic educational enactment in which more than one curriculum discourse is used to optimise the teaching and learning outcome (Lee & Lee, 2007). This curriculum concept is entrenched in the idea that constructivism, when integrated with

conceptualism, will enhance the pragmatic enactment process as a means of addressing diversity in teaching and learning (Kundu, 2018; Singh & Reed, 2001). This framework is known as the blended curriculum, and comprises four quadrants with underlining concepts interlinked with one another. This affirmation suggests that a blended curriculum highlights the importance of each quadrant in the successful process of differentiated lesson enactment and differentiated curriculum development. All concepts are therefore equally important; should one be emphasised over others; the curriculum becomes seriously compromised. The blended curriculum conceptual framework establishes how alignment of its concepts is indispensable in ensuring accomplishment of a pragmatic curriculum content.

3.2. Programme Responsiveness

Curriculum responsiveness is categorised into curriculum, whether envisioned, enacted, or acquired content, the curriculum aims, as well as facilitators' and teachers' content awareness.

3.2.1. Blended curriculum content

Curriculum content as a concept has been defined by Ennis (1994) as factual information that curriculum developers within a discipline have agreed on. When curriculum content is defined as a plan or an educational programme of knowledge accumulation in the classroom learning environment, it addresses the written and performance curricula (Beauchamp, 1961; Khoza, 2016b). A study conducted by Mpungose (2016) and Chamane (2016) defines curriculum content as a plan for conceptual knowledge enactment with day-to-day teaching and learning activities. According to studies conducted by Bhuttah et al. (2019), Remillard and Heck (2014), and Khoza (2016a), the curriculum content is a road map a teacher follows to assist learners towards the accumulation of the set standard of knowledge per grade.

This affirmation denotes that curriculum enactment in this category is professionally driven and associated with conceptual knowledge and objectives. Moreover, planning regarding curriculum knowledge conceptualisation and cognitive behaviours of learners, is expected to be attained at the end of the lesson (Hoadley, 2009; Willis, Adie, & Klenowski, 2013). Furthermore, studies conducted by Dewey (1923), Piaget et al. (1967), James (1979), and Vygotsky (1978) uphold that the curriculum is defined as learning through a process of exploring in search of new understanding in which knowledge and understanding are constructed. The curriculum addressed are the competence-based, as a theory that is dictated by questions that present a starting point, and outcomes as the endpoint. According to Khoza

(2016a), if a curriculum is dominated by learner-centred approaches in addressing knowledge, skills, value, and attitudes, it is dominated by social views on education, and as a result, that curriculum addresses societal needs.

However, blended curriculum content is a personal domain curriculum that calls for an integration of both technical knowledge curriculum and practical knowledge curriculum to realise a pragmatic curriculum for differentiation purposes. The blended curriculum calls for a teacher's enactment shift from a theoretical curriculum approach and constructive curriculum to a progressive approach, developing a more pragmatic curriculum enactment approach in seeing to curriculum differentiation needs (Khoza, 2019b; Kundu, 2018; Singh & Reed, 2001). Therefore, blended curriculum content is defined as a deliberate mix of conceptual knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes with constructional knowledge for realising curriculum flexibility.

This form of the educational curriculum is designed to stimulate and uphold mindfulness enactment in support of a personal dominant approach to curriculum content (Jonker, März, & Voogt, 2017; Singh & Reed, 2001). A study by Singh and Reed (2001) and Kundu (2018) maintains that the blended curriculum offers teachers the opportunity of deciding on the degree to which teaching and learning is accessible; thus the degree to which curriculum adaptation is conducted in the quest for diverse learning (Derntl & Motschnig-Pitrik, 2005; Kundu, 2018). A blended curriculum affords teachers the opportunity of designing developmental learning programmes in which learners' needs and capabilities are prioritised (Jonker et al., 2017; Van den Akker, 2004).

A case study conducted by Jonker et al. (2017) in Australia affirms that a blended curriculum provides teachers with more opportunities to control their teaching and learning process, learning programmes revolving around learners' preferences (Jonker et al., 2017; Kolb, Boyatzis, & Mainemelis, 2001). Teachers need to consider learners' knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes when designing or selecting curriculum programmatic responsiveness (content knowledge). In essence, the blended curriculum is driven by teachers' and learners' curriculum enactment, teachers being allowed to facilitate multiple curricula according to their developed knowledge and understanding of content.

Therefore, teachers link the national educational vision, knowledge and the learning experiences learners have to acquire through a differentiated curriculum enactment. Moreover, this blended curriculum discipline lays greater emphasis on teachers' understanding of all principles underpinning the written curriculum policy. Hence, the written curriculum does not

consider how it can benefit learners' societal needs, as it is conceptually and academically driven by the content-centred policy. However, studies by Remillard (2005) and Khoza (2019b) define a competency-based curriculum as a choice of what is to be taught and learned; and as a result, activities give systematic attention to problem-based teaching and learning.

Learners are presented with a problem; as learners define and establish a context to solve the problem, they acquire knowledge. Thus the curriculum includes learning experiences, skills, and abilities to learn. Dewey (1923), Piaget et al. (1967) James (1979), and Vygotsky (1978) define the competency-based curriculum as learning through a process of exploring in search of new understanding. In other words, knowledge and understanding are constructed and evolving: this curriculum theory is dictated by questions that present a starting point, giving outcomes as the endpoint. This curriculum approach is dominated by societal views on education; as a result, the curriculum addresses societal needs.

However, a personal domain curriculum calls for an integration of both a technical knowledge curriculum and a practical knowledge curriculum to realise flexibility for curriculum differentiation purposes. The blended curriculum calls for teachers' enactment shift from a theoretical curriculum approach and a constructive curriculum to a progressive approach in developing a more societal, practical, and occupational enactment approach in addressing curriculum differentiation needs (Khoza, 2019; Kundu, 2018; Singh & Reed, 2001). This form of the educational curriculum is designed to stimulate and support mindfulness enactment (Jonker et al., 2017; Singh & Reed, 2001).

Moreover, the blended curriculum offers teachers the opportunity of deciding on the degree to which teaching and learning is accessible, thus the degree to which curriculum adaptation is conducted in the quest for diverse learning (Kundu, 2018; Morris, Ida, Migliaccio, Tsukada, & Baker, 2020). A blended curriculum therefore affords teachers the opportunity of designing developmental learning programmes in which learners' needs and capabilities are prioritised (Jonker et al., 2017; Van den Akker, 2004). A case study conducted by Karvounaraki et al. (2018), affirms that a blended curriculum provides learners with more opportunities of controlling their learning process, learning programmes revolving around learners' preferences (Jonker et al., 2017; Kolb et al., 2001). Therefore, teachers must consider learners' knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes when designing or selecting curriculum programmatic, organisation, administration, and pedagogical responsiveness.

3.2.2. Curriculum content awareness

Curriculum content awareness is defined by Dewey (1923) as an intellectual exercise and practical guidance plan toward the correct understanding to impart. Moreover, Bloom's objectives for learning categorises content awareness into a central response to educational issues regarding the curriculum questions: what should the content cover (cognitive knowledge), to whom should the knowledge be accessible (effective or operational knowledge), what are the instructional rules and how should the technical and practical teaching and learning approaches be integrated to create differentiated content understanding (valuable knowledge and skill development)? (Blumer, 1966; Cook, 1993). The curriculum content is thus adaptable and accessible to context, knowledge, teacher and learner-related circumstances.

Moreover, the curriculum is enacted according to the teachers' and learners' interpretation (Khoza & Biyela, 2019; Remillard & Heck, 2014). According to Jonker et al. (2017), blended curriculum awareness is primarily successful when used for content enactment which is categorised as pre-analysis activity, and resource design, as well as instructional aims and assessment. Pre-analysis observes and conducts among other aspects, the need analysis in terms of learners' characteristics, prior knowledge, learning styles, teaching, and learning aims, as well as the teaching and learning environment. Pre-analysis is conducted to ascertain whether blended knowledge enactment can be applied.

In sanctioning the degree to which content knowledge can be blended, the use of Bloom's taxonomy as revised by (Krathwohl & Anderson, 2009) is fundamental, and is applied so as to identify the learner's proficiency level (Jonker et al., 2017). A study conducted by Mager (1962) on teaching and learning curriculum awareness identifies this stage of pre-analysis as a testing situation in which the conditions of the learner's capability are evaluated for teaching and learning purposes. Furthermore, the activities and resources design entail all the activity design and resources organised for instructional purposes, including specific activity aims. Thus curriculum awareness focuses on activities and learning material suited to the teaching and learning environment or instructional context (Blumberg & Michael, 1992; Jonker et al., 2017).

The instructional aims and assessments contain the content knowledge or activities goals, and the assessment of the learning process for reflection and clarification of what the activity requires (Van den Akker, 2004; Zhang et al., 2016). Content awareness in a blended curriculum

is therefore enacted according to the aimed curriculum through the demonstration or modelling of activities to be completed (Kundu, 2018; Singh & Reed, 2001). A case study conducted by Chen, Liu, Cheng, and Huang (2017) on designing blended teaching and learning concluded that blended content knowledge should be dominating any lesson activity presentation for curriculum differentiation purposes (Chen, Liu, Cheng, & Huang, 2017; Derntl & Motschnig-Pitrik, 2005; Kundu, 2018).

Content knowledge is not about conceptual factors or experimental factors in education. It is about integrating factual (prior) knowledge, conceptual knowledge, constructed knowledge, and meta-cognitive knowledge (inquiry-based) for better curriculum enactment. Therefore, blended content knowledge focuses on adaptable knowledge, instructions, and learning activities, according to the learner's degree of understanding, accessibility, and context, while making sure that the standard of curriculum aims and objectives is not compromised. Blended curriculum knowledge is the programme through which curriculum goals are accumulated (Bhuttah et al., 2019; D'agnese, 2017; Dewey, 1923). According to a study conducted by Jonker et al. (2017), a blended curriculum is dominated by curriculum aims that are influenced by ideological-ware and driven by personal needs.

3.2.3. Curriculum aims

Curriculum goals are defined as abstract statements of intent. Goals embody aims and objectives. Aims include what the amorphous written curriculum hopes to achieve and principles of the educational direction; whereas objectives are actions to be taken to achieve the established aims (Wang et al., 2018). According to studies associated with Bloom (1956), Krathwohl and Anderson (2009), and Harrow's (1972), taxonomies, curriculum objectives are measurable and observable statements of the knowledge teachers must transfer, model, and enact by the completion of the unit. Aims address the knowledge and skills accomplishment which will be attained by teachers and learners at the end of the course of study; whereas objectives are concerned with how the knowledge will be imparted and why the knowledge is imparted (Bhuttah et al., 2019; Blumberg & Michael, 1992).

A succinct discussion of Bloom's classic objectives taxonomy by Anderson and Krathwohl on how to use objectives effectively conducted by Leslie (Farley, 1968; Wilson, 2016), illuminates that curriculum aims are categorised into three: the cognitive domain, the affective domain, and the psychomotor domain. More studies have ascertained that objectives are hierarchical, assimilating one another (Bowers et al., 2019; Farley, 1968). In 1956, educational psychologist

Benjamin Bloom chaired a committee in charge of developing a classification system that captured intellectual behaviour in learning. This system was developed to identify learners' ways of thinking, feeling, and acting as a result of participating in learning or instructional activities (Bloom, 1956).

According to Bloom (1956) and the committee, the cognitive domain encompasses the use and acquisition of intellectual knowledge ranging from the simplest to the most complex (Armstrong, 2016; Bloom, 1956). Sub-domains of the cognitive teach learners to recall knowledge and be able to reproduce at a later stage the information memorised (Farley, 1968; Groves, 2018). Understanding the acquisition of knowledge shows comprehension of information, an application in which there is ability to apply technical knowledge and to analyse the information both as pieces and as a whole (Krathwohl & Anderson, 2009). Lastly, there is evaluate and create, which teaches the learner to make judgments, recommendations, and to develop new ideas (Armstrong, 2016; Harrow, 1972).

In the cognitive domain teachers engage learners in activities to develop them from the lowest to the highest intellectual level. Learners are required to conceptualise information up to the level of reorganising the information into something new (Groves, 2018; Wilson, 2016). Aims will inform curriculum enactors on the selection of teaching and learning instruction for conceptual knowledge, constructional knowledge, and as a behaviourism guide (Freire, 2018b; Irvine, 2017; Wilson, 2016). Furthermore, the affective domain is subdivided into the first level, receiving: which is the learner's ability and the will to be attentive, to receive knowledge and to attend a class (Bybee et al., 2006; Malik, 2017). Teachers enhance learners' willingness and motivation to enthusiastically receive and impart knowledge through differentiated curriculum enactment (Duran & Duran, 2004; Kundu, 2018).

Responding is the second level on which the learner is motivated and willing to actively respond to instructed knowledge. The learner engages among other aspects in critical thinking, research, and deep thinking while accepting and responding to the collaborative knowledge construction. Teachers thus need to be aware of learners' attitudes and feelings when engaging learners in stimulating activities that will provoke learners' active participation (Dave, 1970; Gillies & Rafter, 2020). The third level of the affective domain is the valuing level on which teachers attach value to the imparted knowledge, demonstrating commitment, and strongly associating themselves with the imparted and attained knowledge (Hocks, 2017; Irvine, 2017). The curriculum aims at this stage to engage teachers in deep-thinking teaching. Here teachers

participate in the interpretation of learning, investigation, and generation of new ideas on the given topic (Dostál, 2015; Zhang et al., 2016).

The fourth level is the organising level on which teachers accommodate and compare or relate the imparted knowledge in solving conflicts and prioritising different values. Teachers thus use this aim to engage learners in real-life situations in which learners must rely on imparted information to make decisions based on their priorities (Johnson & Ferguson, 2018; Shephard, 2008). Lastly, the characterising level is the highest level of the affective domain at which level teachers are expected to be predictable in their behaviour, their value system controlling their behaviour (Heiland, 2018). This suggests that curriculum differentiated aims afford teachers the opportunity of following their beliefs and their values in enhancing learners' ability to construct and form intellectual knowledge. Teachers thereafter use their pedagogy to engage learners in real-life situation learning, abstract learning activities, and creative skills.

Moreover, teachers can engage learners in high-order thinking, generating their teaching and learning concepts, enjoying teaching, collaborative teaching being strongly encouraged (Albano, Iacono, Fiorentino, & Polo, 2018; Wilson, 2016). Teachers and learners should enact the curriculum through their professional understanding of the curriculum thus supporting conceptual and affective domains (Freire, 2018b; Harrow, 1972; Irvine, 2017). According to Bloom (1956), Harrow (1972), and Simpson (1961), teaching and learning aims are strategies related to teachers facilitating and instilling the culture of learning how to learn, how to control thinking, and how to use physical movements to express and interpret information.

Additionally, Blumberg and Michael (1992) argue that teachers use curriculum aims as tools for designing curriculum content and intellectual skills to engage learners. A study conducted by Johnson & Ferguson (2018) on Harrows' taxonomy expresses that educational aims are influenced by the teacher's ideological-ware which skilfully and efficiently executes sequential activities, creative skills, knowledge construction, and higher-order thinking (Harrow, 1972; Johnson & Ferguson, 2018). Therefore, curriculum aims are driven by personal, peer, and collaboration mind development, knowledge interpretation; they focus on higher-order thinking as well as intellectual skills development. Consequently, curriculum differentiation enactment aims to consider learners' values, feelings, motivation, and understanding enthusiasm, which falls into the affective domain and focuses on behavioural skills development, being societally driven (Armstrong, 1970; Stenhouse, 1970).

Likewise, a study conducted by Krathwohl and Anderson (2009) affirms that curriculum aims are multiple-led; they are ideologically dominant which is driven by personal needs (Armstrong, 2016; Farley, 1968; Simpson, 1961). For this reason, teaching and learning aims are illustrated in terms of a blended curriculum that encompasses, among others, inquiry-based learning instructions, adaptable teaching, and a learning environment (Irvine, 2017; Johnson & Johnson, 1990). In addition, teachers must understand the educational goal to make use of their understanding of the written curriculum, the current teaching, and learning context, and their educational aims in enacting the curriculum differentiation for better outcome attainment. Moreover, teachers must understand the curriculum organisation and integration in the classroom using their pedagogical skills to structure curriculum enactment instructions.

3.3 Organisational Responsiveness

The organisation of the curriculum responsiveness is categorised into practical learning and structure of instructions, ethics, and values in the written, enacted, and acquired curriculum as well as teachers' and facilitators' enactment experiences.

3.3.1. Practical learning and structure of instructions

Practical learning is defined as a process in which conceptual knowledge is grasped and transformed into an experience (Kolb et al., 2001; Morris, 2019; Palupi, 2018). A study conducted by Shulman (1998) on Dewey's practical learning theory asserts that practical learning is the process that occurs when intention and design collude with learning without violating the curriculum expectations (Shulman, Lotan, & Whitcomb, 1998). Similarly stated by others, practical learning occurs when teaching and learning aims (content, lesson plan) and the curriculum enactment (instructions, material) collude with learning without violating the learning outcomes (Cox, 2018; D'agnese, 2017).

A study conducted by Duran and Duran (2004) illumines that a practical instructional model for learning involves experimental evidence through inquiry-based teaching and learning activities. Inquiry-based teaching and learning is used to inform activity planning, investigation, and a review of what learners already retain about a certain experiential knowledge (Elbaz, 2018; Van Manen, 1977). According to Dewey, practical learning occurs when cognitive apprenticeship focuses on theoretical knowledge accumulation in an academic setting combined with an effective apprenticeship. Moreover, practical learning focuses on situated intellectual work in a social context of practice combination for a better collection of experience and knowledge growth (Dewey, 1923; Kolb et al., 2001; Shulman et al., 1998).

A carefully guided inquiry process needs to be selected for better outcomes in the incorporation of real-world lesson enactment. According to Duran and Duran (2004), Malik (2017), and Bybee et al. (2006), the 5E learning cycle is used in inquiry-based instructions; this is based on a constructivist approach as it promotes professional knowledge, societal awareness, and personal development (Karaşah & Yaman, 2017; Kolb et al., 2001; Van Manen, 1977). Teachers can use inquiry learning to help learners acquire knowledge and understanding through research-orientated approaches. At the same time, teachers can facilitate the guided inquiry process as an enactment strategy based on teachers' and learners' intelligence development, enhancement of learners' reasoning, helping learners to apply their new knowledge and reflect on their activities (Albano et al., 2018; Malik, 2017).

A study conducted by Karplus (1979) identified three categories of inquiry-based learning: exploration, concept introduction, and concept application (Jenkins et al., 2017; Van Manen, 1977; Yaman & Karaşah, 2018). This inquiry-based learning model was later extended from three to five stages, namely: engagement, exploration, explanation, extension, and evaluation (Malik, 2017; Yaman & Karaşah, 2018). Refer to the learning cycle below.

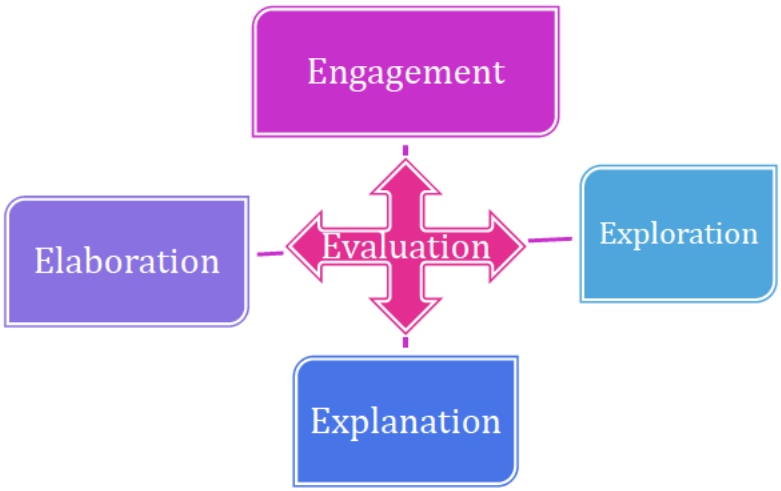

Figure 3.2: 5E inquiry-based learning model adapted from Duran and Duran (2004)

Engagement is the first phase that aims to discover the learner's prior knowledge and to identify the learner's misconceptions on certain topics (Duran & Duran, 2004; Mager, 1962). Teachers present learners with a topical problem; learners emotionally engage their pre-knowledge of the present problem. Teachers use this phase to arouse learners' curiosity and facilitate the learners' interaction on the activity goals, developing a collective understanding (Morris, 2019; Webb et al., 2019). This activity creates a state of curiosity in learners on the topic to be

introduced, making a connection between the known and the unknown experiences (Burch et al., 2016; Bybee et al., 2006).

The second phase of the teaching and learning model is the exploration phase in which learners are given activities based on their misconceptions (Malik, 2017; Wijnia et al., 2019). These activities provide and ignite the use of prior knowledge, the exploration of possibilities, and the generation of new ideas (Gillies & Rafter, 2020; Mager, 1962). Learners are given activities that promote mental skills and concrete learning experiences. These activities presented in this phase incorporate learners' active exploration (Chaiklin, 2003; Taba, 1962). This phase is used to challenge learners to reflect on the topic, building on their contextual knowledge. Teachers guide learners on the appropriate inquiry process, and assist to familiarise learners with the provided resources. During the exploration phase, teachers allow learners to apply their conceptual skills and to recall, analyse, and investigate. Constructive skills are applied when learners test the predictions, working in a cooperative learning environment (Duran & Duran, 2004; Malik, 2017).

The explanation phase is a more teacher-centred stage in which the teacher introduces and models a new topic based on the learner's misconceptions and clarification questions found in the previous phases (engagement and exploration) (Duran & Duran, 2004; Malik, 2017). In other words, in this phase the teacher introduces formal definitions of concepts. At the same time, the teacher guides learners' research process regarding the curriculum aims using different teaching and learning materials to help learners understand and comprehend the conceptual knowledge (Gillies & Rafter, 2020). Elaboration is the fourth phase of the learning cycle. This phase inspires learners to apply their new and deeper understanding of conceptual factors thus strengthening their reconstruction knowledge (Karaşah & Yaman, 2017). Also according to Kolb et al. (2001), during the elaboration phase, learners are encouraged to conduct research and apply their theoretical knowledge to practical solutions. Learners can thus solve practical problems using the acquired conceptual knowledge in new developments or new situations (Kolb et al., 2001; Morris, 2019).

The last phase of the inquiry model is the evaluation phase. In this phase teachers assess learners as they learn, giving feedback to learners as they construct knowledge and compile interesting research ideas, conducting presentations, discussions, and conducting self-reflection activities (assessment for learning). This phase allows learners to be assessed and led to deeper understanding through interpretation of the research that allows the learners'

knowledge to extend and evolve before finally concluding the specific activity. According to Duran and Duran (2004), learners are continuously assessed on conceptual and constructional knowledge and skills. This evaluation offers the opportunity for teachers to assess learners through informal and formal assessment approaches such as examination, self, or peer assessment (Bybee et al., 2006; Karaşah & Yaman, 2017). Inquiry teaching and learning evaluation offers the teacher an opportunity to give adequate feedback to learners and to enforce education ethical values as the blended curriculum knowledge and skills are enacted.

3.3.2. Ethics and values education

A descriptive study conducted by Engemann and Scott (2020) on values education and its role in the school curriculum describes values as appropriate links to human actions, curriculum development, and the world. According to the study, values govern educational understanding, practices, and social interaction (Engemann & Scott, 2020; Raths, Harmin, & Simon, 1966). Values and ethics are core essentials of curriculum development, guiding outcomes expected from the set curriculum (Bhuttah et al., 2019; Palupi, 2018). Furthermore, ethics and values education are principles that direct the pursuit of curriculum and school conduct of both teachers and learners. According to Engemann and Scott (2020), Taylor Luitel and Taylor (2005), value education is categorised into individual values, societal values, and moral values.

Moral values promote professional discourse because they govern traditions of religious and social authority in schools (Anderson et al., 2018; Bernstein, 2006). These values place emphasis on democratic education in which teachers' responsibility is to develop learners holistically, thus in their spiritual, educational, ethical, and physical development (Fraenkel, 1977; Komalasari, 2012). In values education teachers succour learners, preparing learners to be responsible citizens and active participants in their school life, thus meeting the curriculum goal (Makumane & Ngcobo, 2018; Raths et al., 1966). Consequently, societal values are designed to help teachers develop learners' moral behaviour. These values stress social and cultural influences such as resolving moral dilemma inadequacies (Fraenkel, 1977; Khoza, 2019b; Komalasari, 2012). Societal values education helps teachers develop the learner's consciousness concerning national and societal identity, culture, diversity, democracy, love, care, and community responsibility (Komalasari, 2012; Luitel & Taylor, 2005).

Individual educational values are defined as ethics that guide one's behaviour, and personal skills that enable an individual to develop educational principles such as cognitive awareness, tolerance, peace, honesty, cooperation, responsibility, and focus. In other words, individual

values guide the teacher's willingness to teach and the learner's determination to learn. According to Komalasari (2012), individual educational values guide the teacher's decision in curriculum organisation, discipline procedures, and relationship maintenance between teachers and learners. Individual values are conditions accepted by society, and criteria used to meet societal needs as they promote learners' principles and attitudes towards respect for different opinions, for other people's interests and other people's way of life, showing tolerance (Teise & Le Roux, 2016; Tibbits, 2018). Values education contributes to the learners' moral behaviour and the teacher's ethical conduct as teaching and learning are enacted in class (Karadeniz, 2018; Komalasari, 2012).

According to Mark Halstead and Bernstein (2006), moral values are professionally driven; curriculum enactors must understand the learner's societal needs and value system to understand the learner's personal values in education. Tyler (1933) argues that values education aims to clarify the kind of personal behaviour and reaction the curriculum ought to help learners develop. Teachers should understand the community's ethical values (societal needs) to be able to introduce and promote moral values, which are professionally dominant. Teachers must understand the communities they serve to enhance learners' effective learning domain for better understanding and performance in teaching and learning (Khoza, 2016a; Raths et al., 1966). If the curriculum is societally driven, the community can assist and encourage the learners in their educational inadequacies dilemma resolutions; and personal values education is driven by pragmatic curriculum interest that promotes the teacher's ethical values (Fraenkel, 1977; Komalasari, 2012).

Values education assists curriculum developers and curriculum enactors to make comprehensive curriculum aims, and programmes of teaching and learning which enhance an individual's educational principles, such as responsibility, cooperation, tolerance, and honesty (Blumberg & Michael, 1992; Boody, 2008). If the curriculum is dominated by moral values, influenced by national formal contexts and milieus that are determined as a set of frameworks, it is professionally driven and promotes educational curriculum values (Banks, 2015; Blumberg & Michael, 1992; Gibbs, 2019). If the curriculum is dominated by societal values, it is horizontally dominant and is driven by socio-economic and social status, and political influences which address societal needs.

Therefore, teachers must choose and design teaching and learning programmes that promote moral, personal, and societal values education. This approach is a pragmatic strategy that

allows the teacher to personalise the curriculum according to the learners' level of understanding, skills, values, and the teacher's knowledge, understanding, and translation of the curriculum. Moreover, educational values assist teachers to diversify the curricula for the benefit of learners struggling with the written curriculum. This approach balances national values, curriculum values, and individual values (Fraenkel, 1977; Raths et al., 1966). The blended curriculum enactment requires teachers to be conversant with enactment experiences, understanding the value systems that influence the education system. Learning activities can be designed not to look down upon personal and societal values, while taking into consideration professional values (Bhuttah et al., 2019; Fraenkel, 1977; Komalasari, 2012).

3.3.3 Enactment experiences

A study conducted by Shulman (2005) and Tyler-Wood, Cockerham, and Johnson (2018) on teaching and learning experiences defines curriculum experience as the way in which the teacher responds and engages in teaching and learning activities, teaching materials, instructions, policy; and the social as well as the emotional environment in the classroom. A study conducted by Chen and Ennis (1995) defines teachers' experience as the teacher's ability to demonstrate, explain, illustrate and drill learners with the content and contractual knowledge (Bhuttah et al., 2019; Chen & Shi, 2018). Experience in curriculum enactment is the teacher's way of translating the prescribed policy, formulating, researching, and representing the content knowledge to make it comprehensible to the learners (Shulman, 1987).

Teachers thus must use their experience in transforming and assessing the learners' knowledge using differentiated methods of teaching, learning, and assessing (Chen & Ennis, 1995; Chen & Shi, 2018; Shulman et al., 1998). According to a study conducted by Shulman (1987), teaching experiences are categorised into theoretical experience, practical experience, and manifested experience (Shulman, 1987; Van Manen, 1977). Theoretical experience is defined as the interpretation of a written curriculum, and the narrowing of conceptual knowledge for easy comprehension to learners, which is enacted under controlled classrooms in a radical and discrete disciplined environment (Remillard & Heck, 2014).

Additionally, a study by Van den Akker (2004) affirms that theoretical experience is the teacher's ability to innovatively interpret the intended curriculum; as such, the teacher can engage learners in the conception of content knowledge by relating subject concepts and principles in the interpretation of the intended curriculum (Beauchamp, 1961; Zhang et al., 2016). Furthermore, practical enactment experience is defined as field-based teaching

experience, in which the learners' emerging theoretical knowledge is transferred into practised learning through observation, constructive, and inquiry-based teaching and learning. Practical enactment experience comprises the teacher's skill and ability to engage learners in learning by undertaking programmes (Hoadley, 2009; Pigawati & Basuki, 2016).

A study conducted by Shulman (1987) further asserts that practical teaching experience enables teachers to properly demonstrate and direct knowledge acquisition using the designed pedagogies to ensure the fostering and design of the experienced curriculum. The teacher is then expected to actively engage learners in a knowledge construction programme based on the learner's level of understanding, on the learner's learning style, thereby eliminating existing learning barriers for all learners (David, 2016; Education, 2011). In addition, field-manifested enactment experience is jointly created in class as the teacher and learners construct educational experiences and conceptualise knowledge (Hoadley, 2009; Keller et al., 2017). Field-manifested experience is defined as the teacher's ability to transform, adapt, criticise the written curriculum and invent new ideas, incorporating conceptual knowledge and practical knowledge for better curriculum enactment (Mpungose, 2019; Shulman, 1987).

The teacher thus uses various approaches to accommodate curriculum differentiation in realising the intention of the curriculum developers (Education, 2011; Engelbrecht, 2006). A study conducted by Du Plessis and Marais (2015), expressed that, if teaching enactment focuses on conceptualised experiences, it is dominated by the theoretical and written curriculum. Moreover, if the enactment experience is dominated by practical experiences it focuses on a skills-based curriculum that addresses the horizontal discourse (Khoza, 2018; Rudduck, 1988; Taba, 1962). Education practitioners therefore need to understand all enactment experiences that underpin the designed curriculum before engaging with the curriculum in class for the best enactment process (Holmes & McLean, 2018; Penuel et al., 2007). If curriculum practitioners understand the enactment experiences underpinning the intended curriculum, curriculum differentiation and curriculum enactment alignment will be achieved through collaboration for the positive attainment of the intended curriculum (Remillard & Heck, 2014; Tan et al., 2017).

3.3.4. Curriculum enactment environment

An enactment environment is defined as a flexible teaching and learning milieu used to enhance learners' problem-solving and concept development. According to McMullen et al. (2016), and Gabriela from the University of Turku, a blended enactment environment supports differentiated and adaptive teaching and learning strategies; hence curriculum content is

integrated with inquiry and practical experience. A study by Roberts-Lieb (2020) and another by Haniya and Roberts-Lieb (2017) assert that a blended enactment environment provides appropriate diverse opportunities for teaching and learning as teachers use collaboration techniques that correspond to inquiry learning and the class condition.

For Löfstedt et al. (2020), an enactment environment integrates face-to-face learning within the classroom; and a research-based enactment environment which is categorised into a competitive enactment environment, an individualistic enactment environment, and a cooperative enactment environment. A cooperative enactment environment is defined as a strategy that introduces an innovative and creative teaching and learning environment, that encourages learners to work together to maximise their own and other curriculum understanding (Johnson & Johnson, 2013; Tyler-Wood et al., 2018). Moreover, the cooperative teaching approach allows teachers to share ideas and strategies to deal with diverse learner needs; as such, teachers can invent and research new enactment ideas to enhance and meet the curriculum aims (Kövecses-Gősi, 2018; Vygotsky & Cole, 1978).

A cooperative enactment environment assists teachers in grouping learners of diverse academic abilities for better interaction, knowledge construction, and improvement in cognitive achievement (Kearney & Albano, 2018; Morris et al., 2020). This collaboration joins the intellectual effort for better learner results attainment. Likewise, teachers within the school work as a group to enact the intended curriculum and achieve the desired goals. The group of teachers is required to realise the interdependency, which means that all teachers must take full responsibility for the curriculum aims attainment and be committed to helping each other to reach positive outcomes.

Furthermore, in a study conducted by Kasalı and Doğan (2010) at Yaşar University, a collaborative enactment environment allows teachers to actively participate in the drawing up of the curriculum as they exchange ideas and discuss better curriculum enactment within the school. Cooperative enactment organises teachers to work collectively towards common teaching challenges, while independently contributing to the curriculum interpretation and taking responsibility for the goal attainment (Morton, Weinstein, & Weinstein, 1998). Consequently, a competitive enactment environment is defined as a curriculum enactment that involves a learning context in which learners compete against themselves. In other words, learners are encouraged to work hard to be the top achiever, enrich themselves and attain the

highest outcome (Hebles, Yániz-Álvarez-de-Eulate, Alonso-Dos-Santos, & Villardón-Gallego, 2021; Ponomareva et al., 2016).

All learners in the competitive environment have homogeneous academic levels and skills ability to compete. An individualistic enactment environment is a context that encourages learners to independently complete activities to construct, discover, and transform their skills and knowledge (Anderson, Dalsen, Kumar, Berland, & Steinkuehler, 2018; Bouck, Working, & Bone, 2018). Such allows learners to work independently to complete activities to construct, discover, and transform their skills, knowledge, and understanding (Monroe, Plate, Oxarart, Bowers, & Chaves, 2019). An individualistic environment engages learners in self-accomplishment activity goals.

Learners are then independently pursuing their personal educational goals (Monroe, Plate, Oxarart, Bowers, & Chaves, 2019; Thomas, Weywadt, Anderson, Martinez-Papponi, & McDaniel, 2018). Therefore, teachers must set a positive enactment environment that promotes diverse teaching and learning activities to cater to learners' different learning styles. A conducive teaching and learning environment allows positive engagement with curriculum goals. This encourages teachers to set the learning environment according to the learners' needs and curriculum goals (Kearney & Albano, 2018; Morris et al., 2020). Teachers must understand when to use a cooperative, competitive, and individualised enactment environment to cater to all learners' different needs in curriculum engagement and promote a positive attitude towards time on activity (Kundu, 2018; Morris, Ida, Migliaccio, Tsukada, & Baker, 2020).

3.4. Administrative Responsiveness

Administrative responsiveness to differentiated enactment organisation is defined as the classification of knowledge, understanding, and skills the teacher plans for the learner to acquire at the end of a conceptual chapter (Brimijoin, 2005; Morojele, 2018; Terwel, 2005). A study conducted by Brimijoin (2005) asserts that teachers administer differentiated educational aims by using optimal routes for a successful lesson to accommodate all learners and multiple ways of demonstrating knowledge, understanding, and skills. Teachers use learners' prior knowledge, learning styles, preferences, and misconceptions to define and orient learners to the set differentiated educational goals (Brimijoin, 2005; Straub et al., 2017). According to a study conducted by Straub et al. (2017), Administration of differentiated enactment is categorised into principles of content, instructional aims, and assessment aims.

Likewise, principles of the content are the definition and translation of the knowledge, understanding, and skills, according to the level of the learners' understanding using the teacher's content differentiation knowledge pedagogy (Brimijoin, 2005; Straub et al., 2017; Terwel, 2005). A study conducted by Merrotsy (2017) insists that the teacher's differentiated content aim is to help all learners to comprehend and capture new concepts, and to understand at the level of their conceptual readiness (Merrotsy, 2017; Wraga, 2017). The teacher's content goal is to design valuable curriculum content that offers learners the opportunity of developing in-depth knowledge and understanding. This further upholds that teachers provide a differentiated curriculum content in class as a starting point of the educational process, offering learning opportunities to all learners, according to the various learners' learning needs (Siam & Al-Natour, 2016; Smets, 2017).

The teacher's instructional aims are defined as teaching strategies used to design differentiated instructions based on learners' inclusive needs, tailored instructions targeted to adapt to learners' learning styles, exploiting learning outcomes (Luitel & Taylor, 2005; Merrotsy, 2017). In other words, differentiated instructional aims respond to learners' learning profile, readiness, and interest, moreover, aiming at maximising learning (Rennert-Ariev, 2008). According to Chaiklin (2003), learners with barriers to education can develop their capabilities if teachers design meaningful instructions to accommodate diverse learners and to aid all learners' academic achievements (Siam & Al-Natour, 2016). The teacher's instructional aims adapt teaching strategies to match learners' preferred learning styles, learners' existing conceptual knowledge, and construction of understanding, skills, and attitudes (Brimijoin, 2005; Mavidou & Kakana, 2019).

A study conducted by Siam and Al-Natour (2016) affirms that differentiated instructional aims allow teachers to plan and research central teaching and learning concepts at the same time. Learners are then skilfully engaged by different pacing of the same task to integrate knowledge from their learning experience; while teachers set realistic goals and assist learners to achieve the set activity outcomes (Hoadley, 2009; Hoadley, 2017b). Moreover, differentiated assessment aims are defined as pre- and post-evaluation of learners to measure their previous knowledge level and current progress of the learner's conceptual understanding relating to specific concepts (Sadler, 1998; Straub et al., 2017; Terwel, 2005).

Hence the pre-evaluation assessment is conducted to measure the learner's readiness and instructional activities; whereas the post-evaluation is conducted to assess the valid

actualisation of knowledge (Black et al., 2004; Black & Wiliam, 2009; Chen & Shi, 2018). Pre-evaluation of learners' knowledge allows teachers to modify the instructions according to the learner's level of understanding, learning styles, interests, and learning profiles. Moreover, the pre-assessment assists teachers to draw proactive instructional aims and to engage teaching and learning activities according to the learners` level of readiness and learners' expression of learning (Reio et al., 2017; Zerihun et al., 2012). It becomes the teacher's role to understand that pre-assessment aims to address learner variances, thus designing collaborative teaching and learning instructions together with teaching resources that address learners' diverse learning needs (Heitink et al., 2016; Straub et al., 2017).

3.4.1. Teachers' role

The teacher is responsible for setting the tone of the learning environment according to curriculum goals. As such, the teacher organises all academic activities, and prepares learners for knowledge construction and skills development (Jung, 2016; Spillane, 1999). According to a study conducted by Buchs, Filippou, Pulfrey, and Volpé (2017) at the University of Lausanne, Switzerland, the teacher is responsible for, among others, organising constructive curriculum interaction, mediating activity goals, and facilitating learning. In a learner-centred environment, the teacher establishes positive learning that motivates and encourages learners to focus on the learning goals, setting specific behaviour and skills needed to complete the task, and encouraging learners to reflect on ways of improving their evolving understanding (Green, 2018; Edelson, 1999; Hoadley, 2017a). Furthermore, in a teacher-centred learning environment, the teacher is responsible, and controls all learning activities (Hoadley, 2017a; Hopkins, 2018; Khoza, 2018).

The teacher controls the learning environment, the setting of objectives, the knowledge accumulation, and the assessment of learning (Bhuttah, 2019; Taba, 1962; Johnson, 2018). A study conducted by Makumane (2020) found that, if the learning environment is teacher- or subject-centred, teachers are responsible for generating learners' conceptual understanding by transmitting the knowledge using prescribed curriculum objectives, instructions, and tests (Tadesse, 2020; Mpungose, 2020). Consequently, in a blended learning environment, the teacher is responsible for defining, clarifying, and facilitating the deeper conceptual knowledge and performance understanding of the lesson in the enactment process. Moreover, teachers enable learners to focus on the acquisition of facts through multiple-faced activities (Erbil, 2020; Makumane, 2020). Therefore, teachers must understand the curriculum goals before the learners engage in enactment of the class curriculum; and teachers have the professional

responsibility to align the written curriculum, enacted curriculum, and accumulated curriculum (Fomunyam, 2020; Husni, 2020).

3.4.2. Assessment as learning

Assessment is defined as the process of gathering information about learners' academic level, constructed understanding, and acquired knowledge (Engemann, 2020; Khoza, 2019; Stiggins, 2005). Assessment is the collection of learner data on their learning ability. A study conducted by Stiggins (2017) and Willis (2013) has deduced that assessment is the practice in which learners are allowed to display their knowledge and understanding of specific concepts. Assessment purposes are categorised into assessment for learning, assessment of learning, and assessment as learning (Chen, 2018; Chamane, 2016; Straub, 2017). Assessment for learning is enforced by teachers when they determine, among others, the instructional progress, and learning gaps through formative assessment programmes (Heitink, 2016; Black, 2009). In essence, teachers use this assessment to gauge the level of learners' knowledge attainment, the effectiveness of the instruction, and to reflect on understanding and skills development (Black, 2009; Straub, 2017; Chamane, 2016).

Facilitators assess the learners' performance as a whole; learners are holistically assessed on all knowledge acquisition activities; as such, good demonstration skills, discussion, and learners' critical reflection are assessed. Likewise, teachers engage learners in in-depth knowledge construction through active and continuous assessment (Mpungose, 2016; Khoza, 2015c). Furthermore, the assessment of learning is used to measure the learners' factual knowledge, academic level of attainment, and learning outcome achievement (Zerihun, 2012; Stiggins, 2017). Assessment of learning is therefore a summative testing of learners' conceptual knowledge, and is enforced when grading learners through annual examinations.

Additionally, teachers enforce standardised measurable skills and knowledge that are timed and tested through prescribed approaches. Assessment as learning is described as learning about learning, emphasising metacognitive skills (Heitink, 2016; Black, 2004). Assessment as learning allows teachers to engage learners in independent learning; the teacher assesses to guide the learning process as knowledge evolves. When assessment is employed to monitor learners through knowledge acquisition, it enforces formative assessment which informs the instructional approach, assists learners to practise in constructing a deeper understanding of the content, and achieves set outcomes.

Furthermore, when assessment as learning is employed, teachers offer constant progress to learners through the learning enactment process; at the same time learners are not threatened by the assessment process as they are aware of the assessment criteria, learning performances, and learning objectives based on the assessment (Khoza, 2015c; Heitink, 2016; Straub, 2017). Formative assessment enhances learners' critical thinking, problem-solving skills, and reflection which are measured in summative assessment (Stiggins, 2005; Fomunyam, 2020). Summative assessment is enforced to grade the learners and to test learners' conceptual knowledge, skills, and understanding (Mager, 1962; Bhuttah, 2019; Bondie, 2019).

Summative assessment evaluates the effectiveness of content objectives, instructions, and level of achievement commensurate with the time allocation (Freire, 2018b; Chamane, 2016). Assessment as learning is the individualised approach to learner assessment based on personal teaching and learning enactment (Khoza, 2017b, 2019a; Tyler, 1933). Therefore, teachers must understand all forms of assessment using such for better curriculum enactment; formative assessment helps to enhance planning and improve instructional methods in curriculum differentiation. Summative assessment, however, measures the effectiveness of instructions and level of curriculum attainment by both teachers and learners against the learning time allocated and teaching resources (Bowers, 2019, Bondie, 2019; Mabuza, 2019).

3.4.3. Allocation of teaching and learning time and learning material

Allocation of teaching and learning is defined as the provision of teaching and learning enactment time dedicated to constructive and conceptual learning (Mazzoni, Cornoldi, & Marchitelli, 1990). The allocation of teaching and learning time covers all the various times allocated for the school activity engagements. Time allocation for teaching and learning enactment is categorised into subjective and objective experience, level of material understanding, and structure of instructions (Mazzoni, Cornoldi, & Marchitelli, 1990). Subjective and objective experience include the baseline level and increased knowledge and understanding level attained as learners engage in activities on various cognitive levels (Flavell, 1979; Joyner & Kurtz-Costes, 1997; Schneider & Pressley, 1997).

As knowledge evolves, experience assists learners to acquire new knowledge based on prior knowledge, experience, and practice (Johnson & Johnson, 1990; Tadesse et al., 2020; Mpungose, 2019). According to Mazzoni and Cornoldi (1993) and Nurkholida, (2018), learners need more time to practise and assimilate conceptual activities, thereafter recognition activities, which then determine the time allocation for task engagement. Furthermore, the level

of material understanding includes the learners conceptualising and processing the various levels of learning material (Mabuza, 2019; Lee, 2007). Thus, learning material affects the time allocation in teaching and learning, as time is allocated according to the difficulty level of the activity (Shay, 2016; Bondie, 2019).

Learners therefore need more time to complete activities using difficult materials. In addition, the structure of instruction must include sufficient and clear learning instructions for effective activity completion in shorter time allocation (Clarà, 2017; Maharjan, 2019). The use of lesson modelling, a variety of instructional materials, various enactment techniques, and a variety of assessments by teachers enhances the learners' understanding and motivates learners to keep the focus on the learning goal (Nurkholida, 2018; Chu, 2021). Moreover, instruction variability can be used to compensate for time allocation. Therefore, teachers can be flexible in distributing the teaching and learning enactment time. Teachers can compensate for time provision through enhancement of learners' prior knowledge achievement, understanding, skills performance, and clear instructions on time allocation to activity, depending on the level of difficulty, baseline knowledge, and material abstract (Piaget, 1967; Hoadley, 2017a; Suparsa et al., 2017).

3.5. Pedagogical Responsiveness

Pedagogical response to curriculum enactment includes teaching theory which is defined as the art and science of teaching (Chu, Reynolds, Tavares, Notari, & Lee, 2021). According to a study conducted by Shulman (1987), pedagogy contributes to teachers' reflection on the teaching process and content knowledge. Pedagogical response assists teachers to compare and re-evaluate curriculum enactment, teaching outcomes, and ways of improving the facilitation development of learners. For curriculum differentiation purposes teachers use a combination of professional and societal pedagogical responses to yield better pragmatic curriculum reflection. Pragmatic curriculum pedagogy addresses the personal need to reflect on the enacted content, and promotes self-directed curriculum knowledge enactment. Pedagogy is categorised into the surface structure, which involves content enactment, modelling, and learning interaction; the deep structure, which involves instructional methods, and the moral structure, involving teachers' professional values, and attitudes. Teachers apply all the teaching methods and evaluate the outcomes of the process until they find the one that works for their current teaching and learning environment (Shulman, 1987; Thorndike, 1970).

3.5.1. Curriculum evaluation

Curriculum evaluation is defined as the process of examining the result and identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum enactment based on the intended and written curriculum objectives, instructions, and assessment of learning (Reio, 2017; Tyler, 1967). Evaluation determines the effectiveness of the blended curriculum, and measures the level of objectives attainment for grading purposes. According to Moreau, (2017) Kirkpatrick's evaluation determines learners' and teachers' performance within a set period (Reio, 2017; Stufflebeam, 2014). The evaluation model is categorised into four: reaction to curriculum context, content objectives and learning, teaching enactment and performance, and organisational impact. See the diagram below.

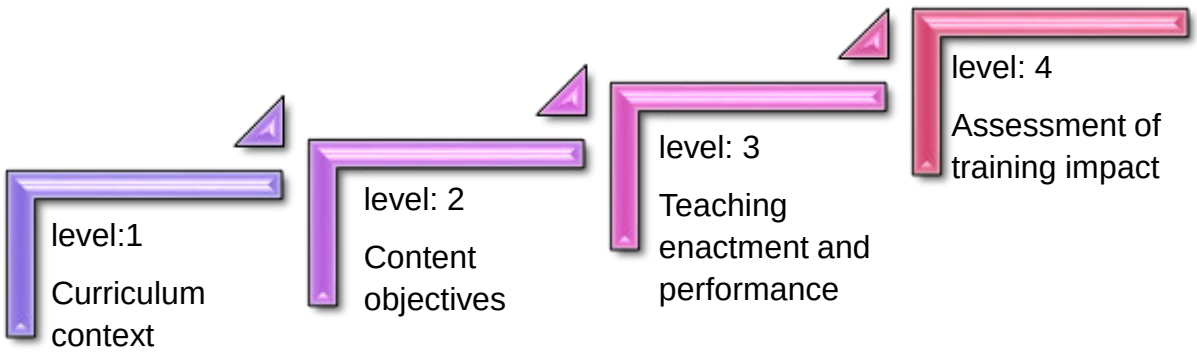

Figure 3.2: The blended curriculum enactment evaluation, adapted from (Reio, 2017; Kirkpatrick, 2006)

Level: 1 is the context evaluation which includes the measurement of teaching resources in which the complexity of the content is evaluated as objectives, and the organisation of the proper resources (Sheehan, 1986, Yaman, 2018). Moreover, instructors are also evaluated in terms of curriculum coverage, a good demonstration of knowledge, and understanding of the content and materials (Scriven, 1967; Taylor, 2012). Teachers are also evaluated on the teaching methods they use as well as the teaching facilities adopted for curriculum enactment (Stufflebeam, 2014; Cleveland, 2014). Level 2 is the content evaluation that takes into consideration the evaluation of the behavioural change, change in attitude, and improved knowledge and skills (Stufflebeam, 2014; Tyler, 1967).

Level 3, the performance evaluation, measures the teacher's performance, the impact of the learned knowledge, and the effect on teaching enactment after the training session. The teacher's performance is evaluated after they have attended an educational course (Taylor,

2012; Zerihun, 2012; Reio, 2017). On Level 4 assessment is conducted, which includes measurement of the effect of the training session through the actual change in teaching, change in the pass rate, and decrease in the rate of failures, dropouts, and repeaters (Black, 2009; Scriven, 1967; Wahlström, 2015). According to Bhuttah (2019), if curriculum evaluation measures teacher-centred content, it is dominated by a performance curriculum that is driven by the professional domain.

3.5.2. Curriculum Reflection

Curriculum reflection is the process of thinking and analysing the teaching enactment and subject matter (Khoza, 2019; Edwards, 2017, Mabuza, 2019). Curriculum enactment reflection assists teachers to conduct a critical analysis of both past and future teaching experiences. According to Rodgers (2002), reflection is the assessment of the planned learning experiences, the constructed knowledge, as well as the intended outcome (Khoza, 2019a; Moon, 2005). Thus, reflection is the teacher's continuous learning experience conducted daily to improve teaching experiences that are categorised into description, feeling, evaluation, analysis, conclusion, and action plan. Refer to the diagram below:

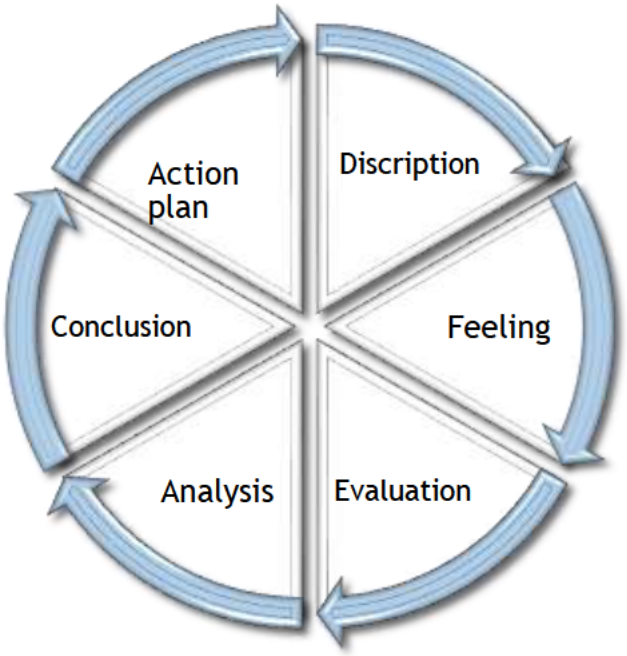

Figure 3.3: Gibbs's reflection cycle, adapted from (Khoza, 2017, 2018)

The description stage is the process of obtaining information about the learning and teaching context, the learner's reaction, and readiness for knowledge construction. The feeling phase includes evaluating the personal feelings of teachers about the enactment process. Evaluation

includes past and future experience which provides what has been done and what still needs to be done. The analysis is the process of examining what went well during the enactment process and what more can be done for better attainment in the future. The conclusion involves deciding on which enactment methods to change in the future for better outcomes. The action plan involves the drawing up of the curriculum enactment plan based on the conclusion (Edwards, 2017; Rodgers, 2002; Khoza, 2019b). Therefore, teachers use the reflection cycle to reflect on their daily curriculum enactment experiences and review what needs to be improved in the future for better curriculum enactment and better outcomes. Teachers' pedagogical response helps them decide on activities that must be evaluated, and activities that must be reflected on, based on the teacher's pedagogical response to the curriculum.

3.6. Chapter Concluding Statement

This chapter delineated the blended curriculum which is a pragmatic curriculum enactment; a combination of a professional and societal curriculum enactment aimed to address curriculum differentiation. The study has further reflected on how the principles of the blended curriculum are used as concepts for accurate curriculum enactment. Thus, the study has engaged in discussing the curriculum concepts taken from curriculum development approaches such as content, educational goals, teaching and learning environment, instructional method, teacher role, enactment experiences, time allocation, assessment, and teachers' reflection. Moreover, the literature review has highlighted four principles of the blended curriculum and its concepts that underpin curriculum differentiation.

The blended curriculum intends to illuminate how teaching and learning should integrate conceptual curriculum and constructional curriculum into the pragmatic curriculum enactment. As it has been outlined in the previous chapter, integrating and finding a balance between the horizontal and vertical discourse will bring an applicable curriculum theory that will respond to curriculum differentiation enactment. The literature review has developed the importance of teachers' curriculum enactment as a way of understanding curriculum differentiation. Therefore, the following chapter presents how the study is set to answer the research questions, the methodology of the study being focused on.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Research Title

Foundation Phase Teachers' Enactment of Curriculum Differentiation in a Full-Service School in the Zululand District.

4.2 Introduction

The previous chapter explored the blended curriculum as a conceptual framework for this study, and outlined the relationship between blended curriculum concepts and teaching and learning enactment. As this study intends to explore and understand teachers' differentiated curriculum enactment, the following section deliberates on the emancipatory research paradigm, action research as an approach to qualitative purposive, and convenient sampling, reflective activity, focus group, and semi-interview as data-generation methods, as well as data analysis, trustworthiness, dependability, confirmability, credibility, transferability, and ethical issues. Hence this chapter intends to provide a narrative plan and procedures devoted to achieving the following objectives:

- To explore foundation phase teachers' enactment of the differentiated curriculum in a full-service school in the Zululand district.
- To understand the reasons for curriculum differentiation enactment from the foundation phase teachers in a full-service school in the Zululand district.
- To understand how foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district.

The findings of the above objectives are set to be established by answering the following questions:

- What are the foundation phase teachers' enactments of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?
- Why do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school in the Zululand district?
- How do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?

4.3 Research Paradigm

The research paradigm has been broadly discussed by academics as a set of beliefs that guides one's actions (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). According to Groenewald (2004), the research paradigm is a thinking pattern of an individual that guides one's actions, according to which research design engagements are taken. The research paradigm is the way of seeing and perceiving features that influence the researcher's thinking and investigation approach. Every researcher thus has knowledge and understanding of the truth, which shapes the researcher's thoughts, values, and beliefs on the research study. A study conducted by Dlamini (2019) upholds that a paradigm reflects the researcher's set of principles apropos of the nature of the truth. Consequently, the paradigm adopted would direct the researcher's methodological procedure in the investigation, collection, and data analysis (Brierley, 2017; Hopkins, 2018; Kaushik & Walsh, 2019).

According to Lincoln and Guba (1986), every research paradigm must connect ontology, epistemology, and methodology according to the various classified sets of beliefs of researchers (Mampane, 2018; Maree, 2020; Ngozwana, 2018). Ontology is concerned with the nature of the truth, and examines the nature of reality, which is categorised into single truth, multiple truths, and negotiated truth. Epistemology is concerned with how the researcher understands, their thinking, and how they understand the knowledge process (Groenewald, 2004). Epistemology is concerned with the question of how one knows reality, which is categorised into the belief that knowledge is measured using reliable tools; knowledge is interpreted to discover the truth; and knowledge is examined using the best available tools to solve the problem (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Tadesse, Gillies, & Manathunga, 2020).

Accordingly, the research paradigm is the combination of the researcher's ontology and epistemology that best explains how one understands knowledge. The research paradigm for social sciences is mostly categorised into positivism, constructivism, and pragmatism. Positivism is the ontological belief that there is a single truth; and the epistemological belief that knowledge can be measured (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Constructivism is a paradigm with the ontological belief that there are multiple truths; and the epistemological stance holds that reality must be interpreted to discover the underlying truth. In constructs, pragmatism believes in the ontology that truth is constantly negotiated and interpreted (Krebs & Denton, 2005; Sipman, Martens, Thölke, & McKenney, 2021). However, the epistemological stance of the

pragmatic paradigm is that knowledge should be examined using the best tools available to solve the problem (Creswell, 2005; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

If the constructivist paradigm believes in multiple truths, then knowledge is subject to personal experiences regarding a specific subject and based on the person's historical background. Knowledge, according to the constructivist, is constructed and influenced by social interaction. Positivism, on the other hand, believes that knowledge can be discovered through observation and measurement. Nevertheless, pragmatism believes in shared meanings and joint actions for intersubjectivity, adaptation, and transferability. For this reason the study has used the pragmatic research approach. Pragmatism is mostly appropriate in studying the teacher's enactment of the curriculum differentiation at hand, as pragmatism allows practical and pluralistic methods in the understanding of actual behaviour of participants (Morgan, 2007; Roca et al., 2021).

The pragmatic approach contends that there is no single truth − all participants have their unique interpretation of the truth; and the pragmatic paradigm deals with the actual users' beliefs, performances, and results that flow from different behaviours (Gage, 1989; Maharjan, 2019). According to a study conducted by Johnson, de Waal, Stefurak, and Hildebrand (2017), the pragmatic paradigm seeks to understand human behaviour and how people make meaning from their experiences. Therefore, the researcher is guided by own beliefs and experiences, together with the participants' beliefs and experiences. Thus pragmatism believes in learning the truth through experience, acquiring knowledge, and through practical actions (Gibson, Haight, Cho, Nashandi, & Yoon, 2019; Haight, Bidwell, Choi, & Cho, 2016). For this reason the study has applied the pragmatic research approach. Curriculum enactment research using the pragmatic paradigm will require that the researcher consider an action-oriented approach to knowledge in pursuit of better curriculum differentiation enactment understanding by applying qualitative methods.

4.4. Research Design

This study has adopted an action research qualitative design as a research style. Action research is defined as a practice process for the systematic development of knowing and knowledge. Action research is concerned with practical knowledge and practical solutions development which bring together action, reflection, theory, and practice in knowledge and solutions pursuit (Bartels, Greenwood, & Wittmayer, 2020; Reason & Bradbury, 2001). As action research is an interactive approach that combines theory and practice, linking thinking and doing, I deemed

this approach fit to use as a research design for collecting data in exploring teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation. According to Cohen et al. (2011a) and Fazey et al. (2020), action research is an experiential, interpretive, and multi-variant approach. Action research is observable and is interventionist, which is an approach that facilitates the development and acquisition of scientific knowledge and understanding.

A characteristic of action research is that participants can experience and be involved in the co-creation of knowledge as they engage in practices that join facts and values into practical understanding (Baskerville & Wood-Harper, 1996; Guertler et al., 2020). Significantly, a study conducted by Shotter (1993) argues the distinction between knowing that and knowing how the knowledge is acquired from society. Knowledge emphasised in the action research approach is practical and discovered; therefore, this study has adopted action research to encourage teacher engagement in collaboration and full participation to improve the enactment of curriculum differentiation (Prahani et al., 2020). This study required collaboration between me and the teachers to explore and develop our enactment of curriculum differentiation.

The study's results and findings were beneficial to the full-service foundation phase teachers as participants. The study encouraged the teachers to reflect on their enactment practices in class and to consider the educational process of personal, societal, and professional engagement (Bartels, Greenwood, & Wittmayer, 2020; Guertler, Kriz, & Sick, 2020). Furthermore, the study emphasised the importance of the practical pragmatic practice that encourages various forms of knowledge and enactment. Lastly, the action research study encouraged the researcher and teachers to reflect on the significance of the research process (Amin, 2020; Prahani et al., 2020), the researcher establishing the conditions for collaborative development through the action research cycle.

The participatory research helped the teachers to plan, organise, and learn through the two-phase process. The process was iterated into diagnosing, action plans, taking action, and reflecting (Lau, 2020; Reason & Bradbury, 2001). The first stage involved the collaborative analysis of the differentiated curriculum enactment in the full-service school; thereafter, hypotheses were formulated concerning the therapeutic stage (Guertler, Kriz, & Sick, 2020; Reason & Bradbury, 2001). The cyclical process was the original formulation of action research. Refer to the diagram below:

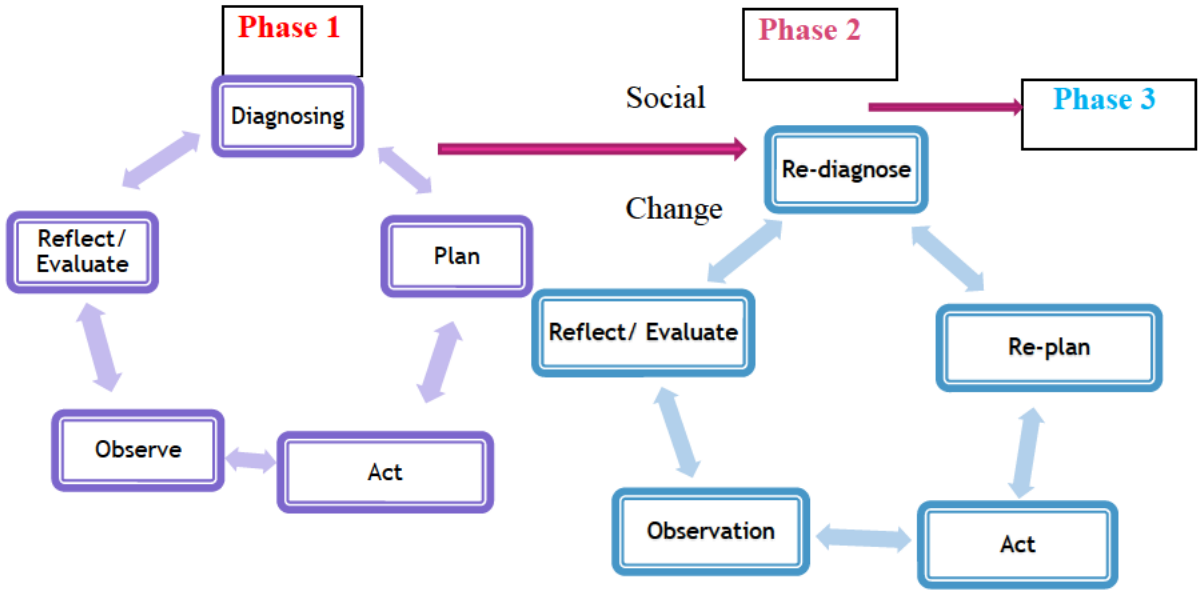

Figure: 4.1: Research cyclical process

The diagnosis is the stage that identified the curriculum enactment problems within the school and the desire to change the curriculum differentiation method. At this stage the working hypothesis was developed, to guide the researcher and the teachers as participants to collaborate and move to an action plan (Guertler et al., 2020; Stringer, 2008; Susman & Evered, 1978). The action plan stage specified the teacher's curriculum differentiation enactment plan to improve the learning and teaching in the foundation phase, guided by the theoretical framework and the desired state of curriculum enactment. The action plan stage occurs when solutions are produced through the collaboration of the researchers' theoretical knowledge and participants' practical knowledge and experience.

Likewise, the focus groups' target point and the approach to the expected change are formulated (Johnson, 2008; Oksiutycz & Azionya, 2017). The action-taking stage is that in which all the planned actions to improve curriculum enactment are implemented. At this stage, active interventions were employed and new strategies were adopted as per the district-based support team's advice. After this stage class observation was conducted which led to the evaluation of the outcomes stage in which reflection is conducted by the focus group. The evaluation process was conducted to determine whether a change in the intervention plan was successful. During the reflection phase, it was established that some changes were successful, some changes were poor, and others unsuccessful; thereafter, an iteration of the research cycle was developed (Avison, Lau, Myers, & Nielsen, 1999; Oksiutycz & Azionya, 2017; Reason & Bradbury, 2001).

Therefore if the planned intervention was unsuccessful during the first phase of the research cycle, the knowledge gained would serve as the base in preparation for the second intervention cycle of the research (Guertler et al., 2020; McNiff, 2006). The research cycle would have continued to the third phase had the intervention not been successful in the second phase. According to Stringer (2008), action research can continue to develop more academic knowledge within the participants and evolve into curriculum enactment. However, the intervention process was successful during the second phase of the research cycle.

4.5. Sampling

Sampling is defined by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011) as the process of selecting a few participants out of a large population in such a way that the whole population is represented in the study. Sampling is the process of deciding which people to observe for a study. A study conducted by VanVoorhis and Morgan (2007) affirms that sampling is the process of choosing a manageable representation of the total population for data generation. This is in line with Podolak, Kisia, Omosa-Manyonyi, and Cosby (2017) who assert that sampling is a vital element of any research study and is conducted for a specific purpose, which is why factors such as settings, time, accessibility, and expenses are taken into consideration as elements affecting the data-generation process.

Furthermore, educational research mostly uses probability and nonprobability sampling as methods of sampling (Altmann, 1974; Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). Probability is characterised by the nonzero chance of all teachers being selected for sampling; this is to say that all teachers have an equal chance of being sampled for the study through the random selecting process (Etikan et al., 2016; Mpungose, 2020). Nonprobability sampling uses subjective methods such as inclusion and exclusion criteria to sample the population for the study. The inclusion criteria specify the attributes of teachers to be sampled, whereas the exclusion criteria specify attributes that disqualify the teachers from being sampled (Altmann, 1974; Nielsen, Haun, Kärtner, & Legare, 2017; Podolak et al., 2017). The sample criteria most frequently used in social studies are categorised into random or convenience sampling and purposive sampling (Nielsen, Haun, Kärtner, & Legare, 2017; Palinkas et al., 2015).

4.5.1 Purposive sampling

Data collection is the most crucial part of research that contributes to a better understanding of the conceptual framework. Such demands that the data acquired be of high quality and be properly collected (Cohen & Arieli, 2011b; Podolak, Kisia, Omosa-Manyonyi, & Cosby,

2017). This study has opted for the purposive sampling method because purposive sampling uses a non-random sampling technique − the researcher decides on the identification and number of participants (Altmann, 1974; Creswell & Poth, 2016). For this purpose, participants were selected based on their great understanding and experience of teaching in the full-service school. The selected teachers have differing academic qualifications; moreover, the sampled teachers are currently attending workshops provided by the district-based support team (DBST).

I targeted the foundation phase teachers to build a satisfactory and practical sample because teachers will learn and improve their curriculum enactment. This selection represents the group, the results not being generalised beyond the targeted sample (Brierley, 2017; Johnson, 2008; Memduhoğlu, Kotluk, & Yayla, 2017). I ensured that the six teachers sampled would be able to give a different and true reflection of their curriculum differentiation enactment. This selection represents the group; the results will not be generalised beyond the targeted sample (Brierley, 2017; Moser & Korstjens, 2018; Podolak, Kisia, Omosa-Manyonyi, & Cosby, 2017). I ensured that the six teachers sampled would be able to give differing and true reflections of their curriculum differentiation enactment activities; moreover, they were able to respond satisfactorily to the interview questions. The six participants are shown in the table below:

Table 4.2. Participant Details

Participants	Age	Years of teaching	Grade	Qualifications	Gender	Race
Nkosi L.C	51	20	1	Junior Teacher Diploma in Education	Female	Black
Mbatha S.M	48	17	1	Junior Teacher Diploma in Education	Female	Black
Mncube C.T	56	24	2	Junior Teacher Diploma in Education	Female	Black
Mkhize Z.P	37	7	2	Degree in Education	Female	Black
Malan T	30	5	3	Degree in Education	Female	White
Mbatha B.I	47	11	3	Junior Teacher Diploma in Education	Female	Black

4.5.2. Convenience sampling

Convenience sampling is the nonprobability sample that captures participants that meet practical criteria, such as willingness to participate, and participants' availability during appointed periods. Issues of accessibility are also considered, as well as locational factors (Etikan et al., 2016; Makumane & Khoza, 2020). Convenience sample is readily available and

affordable. Therefore, I chose eight teachers out of 17 teachers in the full-service foundation phase. These teachers were easily accessible and willing to participate in the research study; working together in with the researcher in the same full-service school. I then sampled four of the most experienced teachers because of the depth of their knowledge; and two of the novice teachers because of their willingness to learn. These teachers are all in category 1 as the level of employment. They are readily available and committed to finding a solution to better enactment of curriculum differentiation in the school's foundation phase. I then opted to use convenience sampling in this study to maximise the available time for research and easy access to the participants and their rich data generation (Hastings, 1970; Mpungose & Khoza, 2020c; Palinkas et al., 2015).

4.6. Data-generation Method

Data generation in qualitative research is the acquiring of facts on how participants learn and make sense of themselves and on the everyday meaning construction of their lives. Data generation in this study is conducted through social interaction with participants, participant observations, and semi-structured interviews (Douzas & Bacao, 2018; Weisrock et al., 2021). Therefore, this study has adopted four techniques of data generation: participant's reflective activity, observation, focus group, and semi-structured interviews.

4.6.1. Participants' reflective activities

A teacher's reflective activity is an ongoing activity that has been performed by teachers in the first and second phases of the action research (Adeani, Febriani, & Syafryadin, 2020; Brookfield, 2017). The reflective activity has helped the participants to integrate their curriculum past experiences in the process of reaching new experiences of curriculum differentiation enactment. Teachers have been provided with opportunities of understanding and experiencing a deeper level of their curriculum differentiation enactment. Moreover, reflective activity has significantly improved teachers' lifelong learning skills, this activity contributing to their curriculum enactment development. As reflective activities have enhanced the teacher's developmental process, they have also facilitated the teacher's curriculum differentiation self-examination through a short multiple-choice activity (Brookfield, 2017; Kayapinar, 2016; Valli, 1992).

According to Avalos (2011), reflection is the endeavour to understand the teachers' academic development; questions trigger the teachers to reflect on their current curriculum enactment. Thus reflection engaged the teachers' involvement and willingness to self-examine, thus

finding appropriate alternatives to curriculum differentiation enactment for instructional improvement or change (Brookfield, 2017; Sekarwinahyu, Rustaman, Widodo, & Riandi, 2019). Therefore, this study provided teachers with the opportunity to engage in reflective activity for curriculum enactment growth and improvement. The reflective activity required the teacher to answer a set of questions based on their practical curriculum enactment, as presented in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3. Data presentation, Analysis, and Interpretation

1. What would you say is your perception of enacting curriculum differentiation of CAPS?

- I enact differentiation to translate and enforce CAPS in simpler and more manageable content for learners.
- I enact curriculum differentiation to make teaching and learning more practical and understandable to learners, at the same time convey what is related to them so that they can attain good curriculum outcomes.
- I enact curriculum differentiation to meet learners' personal differentiated educational needs.

2. Towards which goals do you enact curriculum differentiation?

- For curriculum coverage and better content mastery, if my learners master the content I would have achieved my goal as a teacher.
- For Learners better knowledge, and skills to achieve practical outcomes.
- For learners' independence and creativity, which allow learners to come up with their ways of solving educational problems knowledge.

3. What content knowledge are you enacting through curriculum differentiation?

- Conceptual knowledge is content-centred and laid in order of hierarchy and contains different levels of cognition.
- Practical knowledge is generated as learners engage in practical learning.
- Inquiry-based knowledge is discovery centred through research and personal knowledge inquiry.

4. What would you say is your enactment methods used during teaching and learning?

- Instructional and drilling methods
- Practical methods where they learn skills from each other
- Inquiry-based methods where learners observe and conduct their own research

5. What is your role in the curriculum differentiation enactment?

- I am the curriculum knowledge transmitter and instructor
- I am the lesson facilitator and moderator of learning as learners learn from each other through practical activities.
- I am a researcher and lifelong learner enforcing modeling methods where learners observe and conduct their own research. *(Continued)*

(*continued)*

6. With what are you enacting (tools/ resources) the curriculum differentiation?

- Written curriculum/ prescribed textbooks.
- Practical teaching and learning materials help to communicate the intended curriculum.
- Research-based materials to help discover the acquired curriculum.

7. When do you enact the curriculum differentiation?

- During the departmental set teaching and learning time in class.
- During set teaching and learning time in class groups or outside.
- When there is a need, it could be in class or at home depending on the learners' personal needs.

8. Where are you enacting (environment) when applying curriculum differentiation?

- Class environment/ indirect, all desks are facing the front.
- Group work/ study work/ fieldwork.
- Individual choice of research platform.

9. How do you assess your curriculum differentiation enactment?

- Assessment of learning.
- Assessment for learning.
- Assessment as learning.

10. How would you evaluate most of your curriculum enactment lesson experience?

- I would say the lessons are mostly good in terms of conceptual attainment.
- I mostly focused on a positive classroom environment and focused on learners' positive attitudes and positive behavioural change in learners.
- My evaluation focuses more on the attainment of positive outcomes, if not I repeat the lesson until I am satisfied that learners understand the lesson concept.

I aimed to understand teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation. The reflective activity was the most suitable activity for enabling each teacher to self-examine and replicate how they approach curriculum differentiation in class. The participants were given two weeks to complete the reflective activity, which allowed them to refer to their curriculum understanding, knowledge, enactment of curriculum differentiation, and assessment. I have designed this activity as discussed in the conceptual framework found in Chapter Three. Teachers were asked to reflect on their approach to curriculum differentiation enactment based on the above questions which were used again for the one-on-one semi-structured interviews.

The first question was aimed at exploring teachers' perceptions of the curriculum differentiation enactment. The question was intended to generate teachers' understanding of the curriculum content and the reason for the curriculum being differentiated. A professionally driven teacher would say that he or she was enacting the content as outlined in the policy document. If a teacher is technically driven he or she would enact CAPS as outlined by the Department of Education, following the content-centred approach. A societally driven teacher would claim to be differentiating the curriculum for the societal need. A societally driven teacher aims to satisfy the needs of the learners rather than follow the prescribed CAPS, which means that such a teacher responds to the needs and expectations of society. Conversely, a pragmatic teacher would be enacting the curriculum differentiation to meet the learner's

personal education needs. Therefore, a pragmatic teacher differentiates the curriculum as the need arises and according to their personal perceptions.

The second question explored the teacher's aims and goals for enacting curriculum differentiation. Some outlined that they aimed to help learners master the set curriculum for better results attainment in the examination. Some teachers said they were enacting the differentiated curriculum to benefit societal needs; thus, learners will gain from educational concepts that are more relevant to their social needs. This will enhance the level of outcome and number of learners to be accepted by society. However, some participants pointed out that their intention for curriculum enactment was to help learners understand, instilling their individual values into education such that learners understand and can solve educational problems by different methods.

The third question established the content knowledge taught when differentiating the curriculum. The question focused on how knowledge was being distributed and, on the knowledge, -enacting approaches used. A technical teacher may use conceptual knowledge which is content-centred and laid out in hierarchical form on various cognitive levels. Furthermore, a societal teacher would consider learner-centred practical knowledge that engages learners in skills knowledge, whereas the pragmatic teacher would focus on inquiry-based knowledge.

Question Four focused on the enactment method used in activities the teacher enforced in class. These methods would be instructional, instilling drilling of conceptual knowledge, facilitation methods that are inspired by skills and acquired constructed content; and modelling methods in which learners observe as the lesson is presented, acquiring skills and methods of attaining new knowledge and new meanings through research.

Question Five focused on the teacher's role in the curriculum differentiation enactment. Participants were expected to deliberate on their roles as knowledge transmitters and instructors, in which they convey curriculum knowledge to learners, unpacking the set curriculum and written content for a better conception of content knowledge. The role of a facilitator would be as a teacher who guides and monitors learners as learning takes place, whether in groups, pairs, or individually. The teacher's role of a researcher and lifelong learner would involve modelling: the teacher models learning patterns and learning routines to learners while conducting their research for inquiry learning.

Question Six was exploring the resources teachers use, and the time allocation to enact curriculum differentiation. Some teachers deliberated on prescribed textbooks that are provided to schools and in line with the written curriculum giving time allocation. Some teachers focused on practical teaching and learning material which yielded to the intended curriculum, time allocation not being important. Some teachers focused on acquired curriculum − individually acquired and research-based knowledge. Their material is mostly found in various books, on the internet, and on several learning platforms, not bound to be conducted within the specific time allocated.

Question Seven was based on the teaching and learning environment. Teachers were expected to deliberate on class teaching and learning in which learning is structured and the teacher is the centre of all knowledge. Teaching and learning was in groups in which learners learn from one another whether in class or outside during specified allocated time; research inquiry could be groups or individuals researching to solve a problem.

Question Eight deliberated on the teacher's reasons for the assessment. Some focused on the assessment of learning in which learners are given tests and examinations to check their level of conceptual understanding according to the hierarchy of knowledge, testing the level of learner's attainment against set objectives. Some teachers believe that they assess as learning, testing the learners' academic abilities, misconceptions, and prior knowledge as a basis for new knowledge development. Some teachers deliberated on assessment for learning, which is a diagnostic assessment as it identifies gaps in learning. Assessment for learning identifies what was not grasped by the learners, and helps the teacher to re-plan and repeat the identified concept.

Question Nine was focused on ethics and the value of curriculum differentiation. These ethical values would be moral values in which the teacher enacting curriculum differentiation is responsible for the holistic development of the learner, which in turn teaches learners to be professional, to meet their curriculum goals, and take responsibility for their learning. Societal values as discussed in Chapter Two focused on teaching learners to be responsible citizens who care, love, and take full responsibility for their community development, including society and national identity. Some focused on personal values which suggest individual behaviour and give guidance on teachers' educational principles, such as tolerance, honesty, and cooperation.

The last question required teachers to deliberate on their curriculum lesson evaluation and reflection. Some teachers indicated that they evaluated the curriculum context and examined

the attainment of objectives as well as the knowledge demonstration. Some of the participants focused on the learners' behavioural change, attitude, and positive learning environment; whereas others focused their evaluation on the effectiveness of the enactment experiences, constructed knowledge, and intended outcomes.

The reflective activities were administered in two phases, encouraging participants to be sure to give honest responses (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011a; Khoza, 2017). The reflective activity also persuaded the participants to critically reflect on their everyday engagement with the curriculum and enactment activities. During the first phase of the reflection activities, I wanted the participants to reflect on diverse aspects of their enactment practice. In the second phase, I wanted the participants to reflect on their professional, social and personal development, such as lesson enactment, attitude, and individual identity. Since reflective activities are challenging and demanding tasks for teachers, time-consuming, and personally exposing, I have provided short description questions and optional choices of answers for teachers to choose from. Teachers were given two weeks to respond to the questions; and on the second week, I sent them a message to remind them to submit the reflective activity. This I did before the semi-structured interviews so that I could familiarise myself with their responses from the reflective activity.

4.6.2. Lesson observation

Lesson observation was used in this research study to answer the question of how curriculum differentiation is enacted in the classrooms. The class observation examined the teacher's enthusiasm and confidence in curriculum differentiation enactment, particularly during class interactive participation, as well as in the whole class setting. This study has explored how teachers understand and apply their pedagogical skills in CAPS curriculum differentiation for the benefit of the learners. Moreover, class observation was conducted to attain knowledge of the classroom practice of how teachers interact with learners, and how learning is enacted. The classroom practice was observed to gather a greater understanding of the nature of support and motivation teachers offer, and the need to enhance teaching and learning enactment in the classroom (Altmann, 1974; Eradze, Rodriguez Triana, & Laanpere, 2017). The second interval of the lesson observation was intended to gather information on how teachers harness the functionality of this study to support their enactment of curriculum differentiation. Lesson observation was conducted in two intervals, persuading teachers to critically match the planned lesson, time allocation, and lesson outcomes.

4.6.3. Semi-structured interview

A research interview is defined as the researcher's attempts to understand the participant's views and to unfold the participant's experience in connection with the subject being studied. An interview in this study refers to the participant's experience and point of view (DeJonckheere & Vaughn, 2019; Roulston & Choi, 2018). Interviews are categorised into structured, semi-structured, and unstructured, with structured interviews having a list of predetermined questions, no question variant, and allowing no or limited clarity-seeking questions; thus, participants' responses are limited. Semi-structured interviews, on the other hand, consist of dialogue between the participants and the researcher. Semi-structured interviews allow open-ended questions which explore the participant's feelings, beliefs, and thoughts about a specific topic. Moreover, they require the participant's focus and practical skills.

However, unstructured interviews examine the participant's experiences using little organisation and no predetermined questions. Unstructured interviews seek depth of knowledge about the topic, which is why they are time-consuming and difficult to manage (DeJonckheere & Vaughn, 2019; Evans & Lewis, 2018). This study has adopted semi-structured interviews as one of the data-generation methods in which the researcher elicits information from the study participants by asking flexibly organised predetermined questions (Gill, Stewart, Treasure, & Chadwick, 2008; Robinson, 2014; Roulston & Choi, 2018). As the interview conversation unfolded, the participants were able to explore important issues in the differentiation enactment. Gill, Stewart, Treasure, and Chadwick (2008) deduce that the semi-structured interviews provided guidelines for participants' responses, as they allowed follow-up clarity-seeking questions that probed interesting answers, which is the reason that this study selected semi-structured interviews.

The participants offered important elaborative information which may have not been thought of by the researcher; and at the same time, some data could not have emerged in the same way had questions been predetermined. Consequently, the semi-structured interviews provide guidelines to participants' responses. Such allows follow-up clarity-seeking questions that probe interesting answers, which is the reason for this study selecting semi-structured interviews. The one-on-one interview allows participants to provide important elaborative information which may have not been thought of by the researcher. Some could not have emerged in the same way had answers been predetermined.

I therefore used semi-structured interviews, and generated information that contributed to the research body of knowledge. Through the dialogue, I also collected conceptual and theoretical knowledge about the participant's personal experience with curriculum differentiation enactment. I also learned about the participant's attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs related to the enactment of CAPS curriculum differentiation. I collected new, discovery, and developmental data related to the enactment of curriculum differentiation. Furthermore, the interview was based on exploring teachers' perspectives of what, how, and why they enact curriculum differentiation. Questions were open-ended, and the dialogue started with context-setting questions related to the teacher's enactment experience, which is the content of the study, and which initiated the conversation and encouraged the participants to talk about their experiences.

The next questions were core questions of the interview that were directly aligned with the in-depth information the study wanted to achieve. Because the questions allowed participants to talk openly about their curriculum enactment, I obtained a great deal of information. Moreover, from the participants' responses, I could ask both planned and unplanned follow-up questions for more clarifying responses. The interviews were conducted at school during the last hour of the school day, which is allocated for foundation phase teachers' meetings, planning, and marking. This time and location were convenient for both me as a researcher and the participants. We could privately speak without any interruptions (Gill et al., 2008; McGrath, Palmgren, & Liljedahl, 2019). I started the interviews with a brief explanation of the research study and the background clarifying why I am interested in the particular topic.

I conducted individual interviews with all six participants. I explained without leading and without being biased the concepts which the participants did not understand. However, DeJonckheere and Vaughn (2019) and Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011a) are of the view that interviews can be negatively impacted by issues of power, which influence participants' responses. This suggests that the social interaction between me (the researcher) and the participants may impose power deception and pose deceptive information on the participant's enactment of curriculum differentiation. This concern was addressed by ensuring that the participants were of my rank as a teacher, not as a researcher. I continually emphasised the aim of the study, so that participants felt calmer and responded well to the interview questions. The interview was conducted in each participant's classroom. Within a week after the interviews were conducted, a focus-group discussion that included all participants was administered.

4.6.4. Focus group

A focus-group discussion was conducted as one of the qualitative research methods that discuss a specific topic of interest by a group of people with a common problem, with a similar background, and sharing the same experiences. In other words, focus groups are used to generate participants' collective views, perceptions, and beliefs on common issues (DeJonckheere & Vaughn, 2019; Gill et al., 2008). A focus group is an efficient method of collecting data, as it encourages group participation and brings together homogeneous people. The researcher can thus gain an in-depth understanding of the research question (Longhurst, 2003; McGrath et al., 2019). In creating the focus group, I ensured that I selected only foundation phase Level One teachers, so that all would feel free to express their views and to cooperate with one another.

I carefully selected six teachers to conduct the focus-group discussion in a non-intimidating environment for the two phases of the study. My role was to ensure that an effective private space was organised, and to eliminate all disturbances. I facilitated the meetings with the participants in the full-service centre room. This environment created a positive atmosphere for my participants who could actively engage with one another to express their views and interact without being overwhelmed. I was able to encourage and lead the discussion by using direct questions that yielded an exploration of all research topics; and I generated much information over a short period. The course of the group discussion was planned ahead of time. I relied on the set questions as a guideline to ensure that all research topics were covered (Gill et al., 2008; Vogl, 2019).

The discussion enhanced the participants' curriculum enactment development, as views, opinions, and experiences were shared among the participants. The teachers were able to share their understanding of the curriculum differentiation enactment, and were able to influence one another to share their everyday understanding and experiences of the differentiated enactment. As I facilitated the focus group, I was able to bring order during the discussion which resulted in free and open discussion among the participants, leading to new useful ideas being generated by the group (Kidd & Parshall, 2000; Nyumba, Wilson, Derrick, & Mukherjee, 2018). Vogl (2019) argues that a focus group may be biased and that the facilitator may control the discussion, perhaps being controlled by dominant members of the group, leading to some participants being reluctant to share sensitive issues. To avoid these drawbacks, I ensured that the group set-up was composed of only Level One teachers in a non-intimidating environment, so that participants acted naturally and were not influenced when expressing their views,

opinions, and feelings. The participants were encouraged to express themselves in their own language, or any other language they felt comfortable with, to avoid translation.

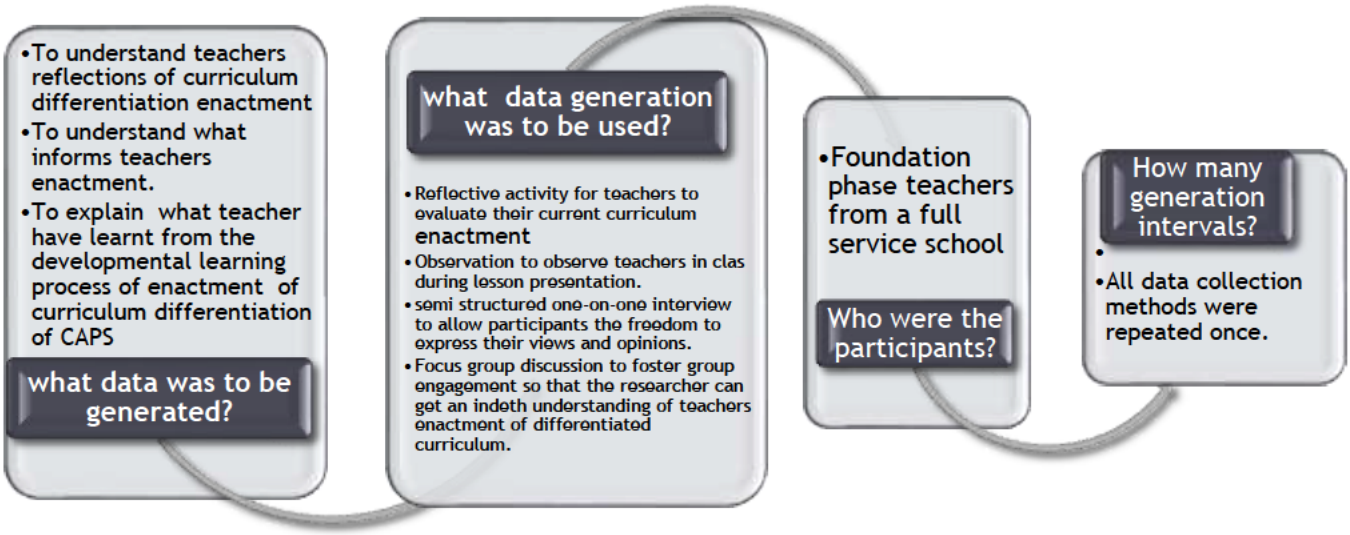

Figure 4.4: Data-generation plan

The data-generation plan assisted me in the collection of appropriate and in-depth data in each phase of the data-generation methods. I conducted data analysis that yielded the study research data.

4.7. Data Analysis

Data analysis is defined as an inductive or deductive process of organising data generated from participants into categories (Doryab et al., 2019; Flick, 2013). The research is about meaning, and making meaning of the generated information, thus the data collected from participants of this study was carefully analysed using thematic analysis. The thematic data analysis is described as a systematic method of identifying and organising data into patterns and themes within the qualitative data (Blanche, Durrheim, & Kelly, 2006; Moser & Korstjens, 2018; Sapsford & Jupp, 1996).

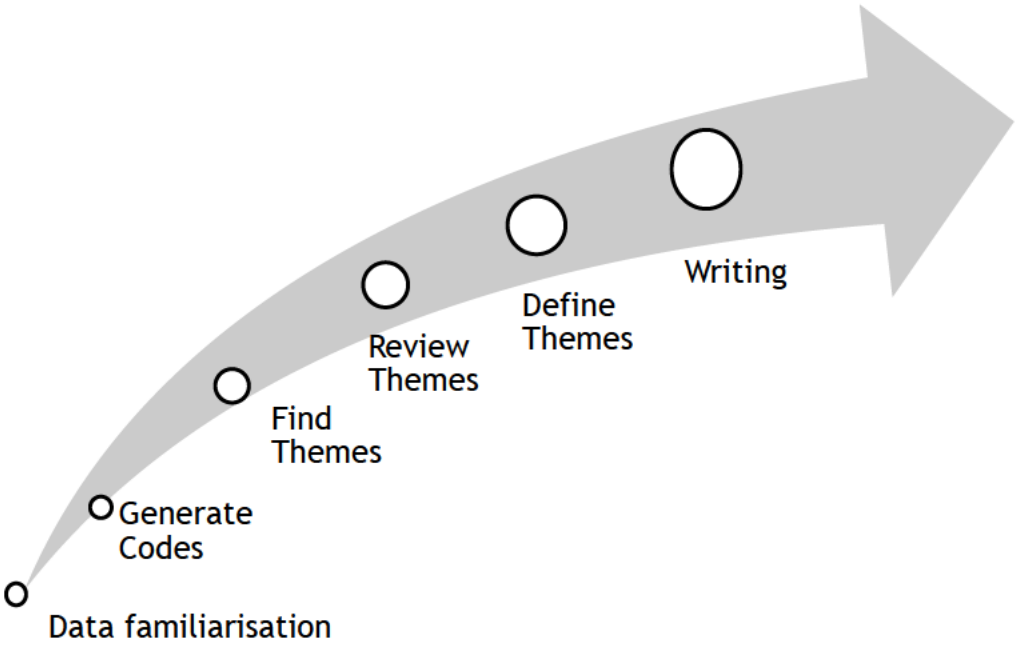

Figure 4.5: Data analysis

Data familiarisation is the first step I undertook in analysing the data I collected per all three data-generation methods (reflection activities, focus groups, and interviews). I started reading the transcripts and listening to the audio notes I took during the data-collection phase, to familiarise myself with the participants' responses; and I jotted down and made notes of the participants' early impressions. I then organised the data into codes to reduce the corpus of information into small and relevant data addressing the specific research questions (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017).

I segmented the transcripts and coded them, while generating new codes and modifying the existing codes (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011a). I worked through the transcripts on hard copies using pen and highlighters. I also used Google forms to assist me, particularly with the reflective activity. While it was useful to work with the forms it was not essential to use them with the interviews and focus groups. I wanted to select vital data from the original transcripts and not distort the data (Doryab et al., 2019; Vogl, 2019). The third phase of the data analysis was the finding of themes. As Doryab et al. (2019) explain, a theme is a pattern that captures significant information or interesting recurrence about the data. In this case, I had several codes that related to teachers' perceptions of good curriculum differentiation enactment. I then moved to review the themes, modifying the initial themes and gathering all the data that was useful and relevant to each theme to make the themes coherent and distinct from one another (Blanche et al., 2006; Ridder, 2014).

The next step was to define the themes in which I identify the essence of each theme, the meaning of each theme, and the connection with one another. I have included the narrative on what teachers understand about curriculum differentiation enactment from their feedback below. See Figure 4.6

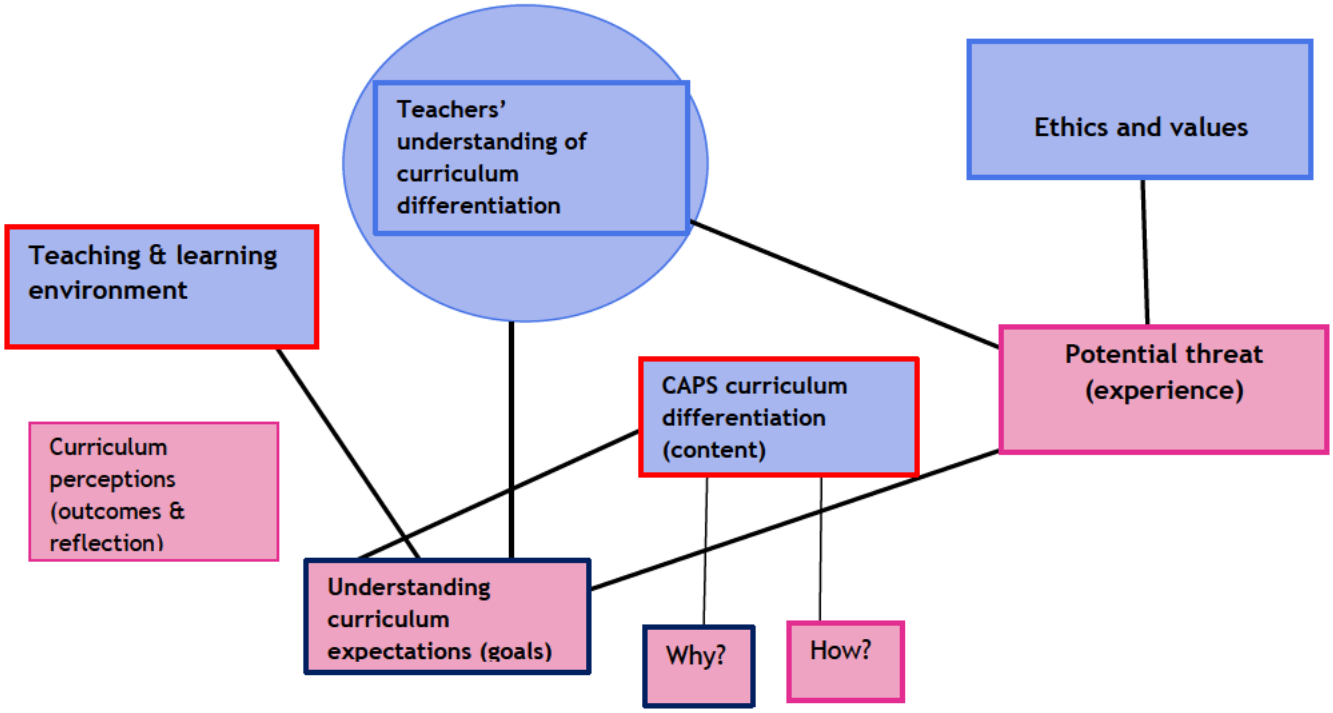

Figure 4.6: Thematic map (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017)

The data was analysed after each interview using the inductive process to organise data into categories. However, Maguire and Delahunt (2017) suggest that the analysis steps are not rigid; therefore I used the analysis steps as guidelines to reduce the data into manageable themes. I then wrote up the final narrative in line with the study phenomenon and study questions, while considering all ethical clearance issues.

4.8. Ethical Issues

Ethics in action research are defined by Jackling, Cooper, Leung, and Dellaportas (2007) and Briggs (2019) as issues related to human dignity sensitivity that is distinguished by voluntary participation and informed consent from participants. In other words, ethics in this action research was applied to protect the participant's right to be involved in the study and the alternative right not to participate in the study. Action research relates to the ideas of critical self-reflective practice, exploring the teachers' teaching context and deliberate intervention in the problematic enactment situation to bring about change and an improvement in practice. I applied for ethical clearance from the university. I had to request permission in writing to

conduct this study from the Department of Basic Education, which then granted me the approval to conduct the study within my school. I selected six teachers: refer to annexures B and D.

I then asked my principal in writing for permission to conduct the study. After this was granted, I asked six teachers at the school to participate in the research study. I further explained the content of the research study to each participant. I sent letters to the participants which ensured them of their protected ethical rights such as autonomy, confidentiality, and anonymity. After consent was sought, I asked the participants, together with the principal, to sign the consent form (refer to Annexure C). I then explained the study procedure to the participants, outlining that the study yielded no financial benefits; and as such, participants were free to withdraw their consent or discontinue participation at any time. I made participants aware that the information shared and collected would be used for this study and would remain confidential.

4.9. Trustworthiness

Lincoln and Guba (1986) and Nowell, Norris, White, and Moules (2017) have argued that trustworthiness in qualitative research is concerned with the trust value of the generated data, interpretation, and analysis. Trustworthiness is concerned with the researcher presenting the findings of the study as of high quality, truthful, and worth paying attention to by the audience. According to Nowell et al. (2017), the researcher must ensure that the study conveys consistency, and authenticity. The study must display the characteristics of a good study, to be judged genuine by taking into consideration issues of confirmability, dependability, credibility, transferability, and authenticity. I have therefore ensured that this research study has depicted the true intention by the use of triangulation to express trustworthiness through the deployment of multiple data-generation methods (Barney & Hansen, 1994; Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Nowell et al., 2017).

4.9.1. Credibility

One of the key criteria addressed by this research study in ensuring trustworthiness was answering the question of how consistent the findings were with reality. Lincoln and Guba (1986) argue that credibility is one of the most important principles in establishing trustworthiness in a qualitative research study. Credibility promotes confidence in the accuracy of the findings. I therefore established consistency through the incorporation of reflective activities, interviews, lesson observation, and group discussions. Furthermore, the case study

gave me a better opportunity of developing an understanding, and familiarising myself with the school and the participants, before I started with the generation of data.

This prolonged engagement assisted me to gain an understanding of the full-service school, establishing relationships and trust among the staff. Moreover, the use of random sampling helped to eliminate bias, while triangulation was one of the major tactics used to ensure honesty in the data generated from participants. According to Krefting (1991), triangulation involves the use of various methods in inquiring about the same information from the same participant. My participants were informed in writing that they could refuse to take part in this study, ensuring honesty and genuine data generation. Thus, the credibility of the study is measured by the quality and integrity of the data and the data interpretation.

4.9.2. Dependability

Dependability refers to the stability of the collected data over time. I collected the data from the participants through reflective activities, lesson observations, semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions to ensure that what was practised in class and said in the interviews was the truth. I then further conducted multiple readings of the transcripts so as not to misinterpret the generated data. Nowell, Norris, White, and Moules (2017) affirm that dependability allows readers to develop an understanding of the research methods and their effectiveness; and as such, give direct information and assurance that future research would gain the same results were the study repeated within the same context with the same participants.

Therefore, I have cited some direct comments from the participants to allow readers to assess the findings first hand. The two phases of data-generation techniques have ensured that all gaps identified during the first phase and reflective activity were addressed. Moreover, the literature review, written curriculum documents, and case study assisted to provide concrete conclusions that allow informed decisions on the enactment of curriculum differentiation by the foundation phase teachers. To ensure consistency of the findings I used a voice recorder, thus enabling accurate transcription. I later gave a copy to the participants who were asked to confirm the accuracy and validity of the transcription.

4.9.3. Confirmability

Guba and Lincoln (1981) view confirmability as the authenticity of the data captured and the analysis in which the researcher's objectivity is established. According to Lincoln and Guba (1986), confirmability is the degree to which the research findings can be established as a true

and unbiased interpretation derived from the participants' data. Several strategies can be used to establish confirmability. In this case, I have used raw data from my case study reflective journal, triangulation with the same set of questions, and assessment of the research integrity findings to ensure confirmability (Anney, 2014; Krefting, 1991; Nowell et al., 2017). Integrity findings were conducted to authenticate the data and eliminate misinformation given by the participants. Consequently, I have prolonged the engagement of the triangulation process while building trust with the participants. Thereafter, I sent a copy of the analysed data to the participants for confirmation of non-bias and validity of the findings as a true reflection of their responses.

4.9.4. Transferability

Anney (2014) describes transferability as the degree to which the study findings can be transferred to other contexts. This description is in line with Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011a), who state that transferability refers to the extent to which the researcher uses profuse descriptions of the participants and the research process to enable readers to transfer the study findings into their own settings. Consequently, in the aforementioned study on curriculum differentiation enactment, I have provided thick information about the context in which research was carried out, the school setting, sample, sample size, and sample strategy as well as social-economic, demographic, and interview procedures. The study further ensured that findings are accurately transferred, beneficial and applicable. As a result, the findings from the focus group and teachers' reflections can be transferred and applied by other teachers within the school and by teachers from other similar contexts. Thus, the participants' reflections were based on the study's conceptual framework of the teacher's curriculum differentiation enactment, their curriculum reflection of the CAPS document, and work schedules (annual teaching plans). Such ensured transferability and comparable findings with other full-service schools and same learning and teaching environments.

4.9.5. Limitations

As much as the study has warranted an in-depth understanding of a differentiated curriculum enactment and has explored several comprehensive questions in the quest for data generation, limitations and problems were constraints beyond my control that affected the study outcome. Flick (2017) notes that the limitations of the research study are weaknesses and deficiencies that are out of the researcher's control. I acknowledge that the aim to generate a deep and richer understanding of teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation through qualitative research

has made it impossible for me to cover more than 80 per cent of the wider population. Moreover, each different methodology I used had particular limitations.

Firstly, the focus-group discussions were difficult to control; some participants dominated the conversations, while others did not fully participate in the group engagements. Secondly, the observation method required me to generate data simultaneously with the occurrence of the class events. Unfortunately, one of the participants gained a promotional post and had to relocate before the second class-lesson observation and second semi-structured interview. Thirdly, the lesson observation required much preparation on my part, such as organising someone to take my class or arranging the observation lesson during my free period. Unfortunately, some of the lesson observations were cancelled due to Covid-19 cases within the school. Furthermore, limitations with semi-structured interviews include that findings are not generalised; as with all qualitative studies, the study is small-scale. Therefore, results are personal, subjective, and contextual. However, the findings could be used for transferability purposes.

4.10. Chapter Summary

This chapter expounded on the research design and methodology of this study. The teacher's enactment of curriculum differentiation was explored via the research paradigm, research approach, sampling, data-generation methods, data-generation plan, data analysis, ethical issues, trustworthiness, and the study limitations. All these methods demonstrated and provided direction on how this study should be carried out to answer the questions. The study aims to explore foundation phase teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation in one of the full-service schools in the Zululand district. The main focus of the chapter is to present and unpack discussions framed by the data analysis as described in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1. Introduction

Chapter 4 presented the research design and methodology used in this study and sought to establish how foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service context. As already noted, a qualitative approach was adopted to ensure data generation from participants. This chapter reveals the results of the action research study used showing the research design, as well as the data generated through reflective activity, observation, one-on-one semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions. Data were obtained and presented using the curriculum conceptual framework chosen for this study, as mentioned in Chapter Three. Both inductive and deductive approaches were employed to link the participants' views with the conceptual components and literature review as a frame of reference to arrange codes and themes. As the previous chapter mentions, data were generated from six teachers' curriculum differentiation rationale in one full-service school in the Zululand district.

All six teachers were targeted to be interviewed, thus promoting generalizability by the use of triangulation, enhancing the validity of the findings. However, only five teachers were interviewed for the second phase of the data-generation process after one teacher assumed duty in a higher position post at another school. The newly appointed teacher had no experience and was not willing to participate in the study, experience mattering in curriculum differentiation enactment. The transcription of the data is presented using the letter P followed by a number for participants (P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, and P6. The data presentation includes verbatim quotations to ensure participants' verbal expressions, views, and understanding. Accordingly, the thematic approach was used to analyse the data as coherent themes emerged.

The teacher's rationale of curriculum differentiation enactment guides the teacher in selecting educational purposes and defining their philosophical discipline. Thus, the goals and core of any curriculum outline the boundaries for the content to be enacted. In the enactment of curriculum differentiation, teachers apply their personal goals, social-oriented goals and professionally (document) orientated goals of the content and curriculum enactment. Therefore goals become a benchmark of any content enactment (Fomunyam & Khoza, 2020; Gichuru et al., 2021; Khoza & Mpungose, 2020). This chapter presents findings and discussions using a

thematic approach in analysing teachers' reflections, observation, and interviews on enactment rationale, educational goals, curriculum content, instructional methods, and evaluation which address the research questions:

- What are the foundation phase teachers' enactments of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?
- Why do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school in the Zululand district?
- How do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?

5.2. Data Presentation, Findings, and Discussions

The findings presented were extracted from the teachers' two phases of reflection activities, semi-structured interviews, observation, and focus-group discussion. According to Doryab et al. (2019), good writing in qualitative inquiry starts with seeking understanding and exploring the phenomenon. The data generated provide relevant explanations and findings of the phenomenon through identifying relationships that were coded and categorised into three themes, ten sub-themes, and three categories. The themes explored the curriculum enacted by teachers in the full-service school, and how and why the curriculum is enacted in particular ways (See table below). The action research Phase One is the delineation of the teacher's understanding and reasons for CAPS differentiation.

Table 5.2. Curriculum Differentiation Enactment Data Presentation

Themes	Sub-themes	Categories
• What are the foundation phase teachers' enactments of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?	○ Teachers' content enactment in curriculum differentiation enactment. ○ Lesson objectives enacted in curriculum differentiation. ○ Teachers' duties in curriculum differentiation. ○ Curriculum assessment enforced in curriculum differentiation?	Performance (content-based) curriculum

• How do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?	○ The use of curriculum differentiation enactment. ○ The use of particular enactment methods in curriculum differentiation. ○ Teachers' use of the notional time allocated for teaching and learning.	Competence-based (social-based) curriculum
• Why do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school in the Zululand district?	○ Teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation in particular ways in different settings? ○ The use of teaching and learning support material (LTSM). ○ Teachers' use of reflection and enrichment activities.	Differentiated (personal-based) curriculum

Table 5.2 displays how data analysis is structured in this study by indicating concepts, themes, and categories as performance (content-centred), social (outcome-based centred), and differentiated (individual-centred) curricula. The analysis presented the following as the study themes: teacher's use of the CAPS, lesson objectives, enactment methods, teaching strategies, teachers' role, learning and teaching support material (LTSM), lesson duration, teaching and learning environment, assessment tasks, as well as reflection and enrichment on activities.

The themes showing the teachers' practical enactment of the CAPS:

5.2.1 Theme 1: What are the foundation phase teachers' enactments of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?

In the attempt to answer this question, the following sub-themes were identified as presented by the data generated from participants through action research. Sub-theme 1: What content do teachers enact in curriculum differentiation enactment? Sub-theme 2: What lesson objectives do teachers enact in curriculum differentiation? Sub-theme 3: What are teachers' duties in curriculum differentiation? Sub-theme 4: What curriculum assessment is enforced in curriculum differentiation?

Curriculum differentiation enactment data is presented in Table 5.2.

Sub-theme: 1 Content on curriculum differentiation enactment

Studies conducted by Neuman and Danielson (2021), and Khoza and Biyela (2020), among many scholars, have acknowledged content as all the knowledge, skills, and values planned to be taught, developed, and experienced within a set period. Furthermore, Krajcik, McNeill, and Reiser (2008) and Makumane and Khoza (2020) ascertain that curriculum content is a learning plan and a plan for learning which is subdivided into concepts and topics that makes up a subject syllabus. As such, teachers reflected on curriculum differentiation content as a pedagogical signal and the centre of their proficiency, which greatly influenced teaching and learning. Curriculum differentiation content knowledge enactment is subject to the teachers' presenting the same content information in a variety of ways to learners with different learning styles (Dixon-Krauss, 1996; Erbil, 2020).

During the first phase of the action research, the teachers reflected on curriculum content enactment as the descriptive knowledge which is dominated by both the social and the professional. This is evident as P1 reflects: "*The content is laid out and divided into the home language (HL), first additional language (FAL), Mathematics and Life skills in the foundation phase. However, I don't always get to complete all the prescribed content on time, mostly I don't finish all the given content in each subject*." P2: "*The home language is a basis of all learning, so I take more time teaching reading, writing, rhyming, and phonemic recognition. The other subjects' conception depends on bases on the home language concepts*." P3 agreed with P1: "*...all foundation phase content is listed in the teachers' annual teaching plan (ATP) and the work schedules*."

These iterations indicate that teachers are aware that the curriculum content is structured according to the subject's knowledge and is interrelated to the home language as the basis of all learning (Gichuru et al., 2021; McKenzie, 2021; Wheeler, 1969). Therefore P4: "*When we attend subject workshops, we are guided on what and how to use the content given to schools. I, therefore, use the directive from my subjects' advisors when it comes to content enactment. I, however, fall behind with the work scheduled because of learners' conceptual ability*." Likewise, P5: "*The policy document (CAPS) has laid out all content to be covered in the foundation phase including the number of class activities per term. I therefore, use the directive from the policy document as a reference to what the term schedule has and then plan my lessons accordingly*." P6 stated "*I like how the ATP has laid out all knowledge to be covered in each*

grade. I therefore, push myself into covering the syllabi and my teaching mission is accomplished."

All participants' observations, interviews, and reflections indicated that the content on curriculum differentiation enactment was dominated by performance (the CAPS), teachers' representational repertoire consisting of prescribed content. Furthermore, the content-centred curriculum prioritises knowledge and understanding, as well as the structural organisation of the subject content in which all learners are treated the same, and knowledge is categorised according to the hierarchical level of understanding (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009; Neuman & Danielson, 2021). This indicates that during the first phase of the action research, content enacted in class was the elaboration of the teacher's content knowledge and understanding; such reshapes the subject concepts into teachable and comprehensible knowledge to maximize learning (Eun, 2019; Veraksa & Sheridan, 2018).

- Phase 2

During the second phase of the action research, the teachers' reflections showed some degree of transformation in the content enactment of curriculum differentiation. Therefore P1: "*After the cause of the action research I have realised that I can integrate the subjects to simplify the content according to the learners' learning ability, for the struggling learners I broke the content into simple low conceptual levels which do not need complex and abstract content*." P2: "*I plan to learn outcomes according to the prescribed curriculum content, but I break it down according to my learners' learning styles and their pace of learning as I have diverse learners in class. I plan what learners need to understand according to the curriculum work schedule and if learners are not able to conceive the information, I then plan for intervention. For the fast and gifted learners, I give them more work of the same concept for reinforcement*." The above accounts suggest that teachers have transformed from translating the intended knowledge as written, using the content to the differentiated curriculum which is dominated by personal needs. This is evident as P1 and P2 state that their content enactment is determined by learners' needs for education as well as the degree of learners' understanding and state of readiness (Kesson & Henderson, 2010; Ledwaba, 2017; Neuman & Danielson, 2021).

Therefore P3: "*I teach the prescribed CAPS content and give all learners a fair chance to try their best, in all prescribed content as some of the concepts especially in mathematics (numbers operation and relations) are practical and demand learners' practical and problem-solving skills. I, therefore, plan different learning activities of the same content to enhance learning*

and understanding for all diverse learners, for instance, some learners are good at conceptual understanding, some learners learn best in constructive activities and some learners learn best in inquiry activities." P4: "*I have realised that CAPS was introduced to redress the imbalances of the past where learners passed to the next grade without the necessary content. I have recognised that struggling learners have been neglected in my lessons. Therefore, I have learned to cover all content areas as set out in the CAPS document to give equal access to all learners. However, I teach two sets of learners in one class. I, therefore, have two sets of content to teach. Struggling learners are mostly behind and learn the previous grade content and the other set of learners learn the current grade knowledge. I am, however, worried about the struggling learner's content knowledge and understanding because as soon as they are in the senior and intermediate phase teachers find it difficult to cope and blame the foundation phase teachers for passing learners with no content*."

Participants 3 and 4 have thus fostered curriculum differentiation guidelines as an approach to translating the intended policy document, which caters both to the struggling and the gifted learners. The curriculum content was thus introduced and enacted according to the learners' level of conceptual understanding (Ajani, 2021; Davis, 2019; Grussendorff, Booyse, & Burroughs, 2014). P5 "*I use different approaches to enhance learner's knowledge and understanding of the prescribed content through different practical strategies to cover all subjects' concepts set out for the grade. I acknowledge that I may not fully comply with the CAPS policy, but I teach what is relevant to the learners. I enforce skills and practical activities that can sustain the learners when they leave school and into the work industry. I am confident that these learners will be able to make a life for themselves one day, and this motivates them to attend school because although they may not be good in conceptual knowledge, they excel in construction knowledge*."

During the second phase of the action research, the teachers indicated that they were considering all forms of useful content enactment which is personally driven. The teachers have identified personal areas of growth during the intervention phase; teachers have realised that the subject interpretation and presentation must be adapted and tailored to learners' effective learning. Therefore, the teachers showed much more interest in adapting and transforming the content knowledge into pedagogical content for effective facilitation of knowledge and skills development (Adeani, Febriani, & Syafryadin, 2020; Dalton, Mckenzie, & Kahonde, 2012). Therefore, it seems that the action research programme assisted teachers in

effectively planning knowledge to be imparted using the prescribed curriculum objectives, thus redressing the imbalances in the curriculum enactment.

Sub-theme: 2 Lesson objectives in curriculum differentiation

During the first phase of the action research teacher's curriculum goals seemed to be influenced by prescribed content objectives, being dominated by professional needs which directed the curriculum enactment through knowledge, skills, and values (Hopkins, 2018; Khoza, 2017; Wheeler, 1969). The teachers' curriculum goals were dominated by short-term goals established by programme inventors. Studies conducted by Mabuza and Khoza (2019) and Makumane and Khoza (2020) have asserted that curriculum goals can be dominated by long-term aims, short-term objectives, and personal learning outcomes. Based on the first phase of this action research, the curriculum lesson objectives were dominated by performance needs (short-term objectives); hence all of the teachers articulated that they wanted to enforce conceptual knowledge, values, and skills, while enhancing learners' cognitive understanding according to low, middle, and higher cognitive levels.

P1:"*My lesson objectives are structured and lay out all activities intended to impart knowledge and understanding to learners. All my lesson objectives are designed and taken from the prescribed curriculum. My intended lesson objectives are planned into the lesson activities according to prescribe several activities and the set time*." P2: "*I push to maximize content comprehension and understanding as given in the prescribed teaching materials, and a as result there is no space for me to innovate the set knowledge because learners need to conceptualise the prescribed content. Therefore as a teacher, I assist learners to understand the content by setting more activities of the same lesson objectives for deeper conceptual understanding for the learners' benefit*."

This affirmation reveals that teachers' lesson objectives and provision standards were determined by the prescribed content objectives. Teachers seemed to be drawing their intended lesson objectives from the CAPS knowledge, skills, and values laid out to be enacted in each subject per grade. Moreover, teachers were imparting the same lesson objectives to learners using various activities to achieve differing levels of learners' conceptual understanding (Ledwaba, 2017; Neuman & Danielson, 2021; Sipman, Martens, Thölke, & McKenney, 2021). According to P3, exposing learners to more repetitive activities will develop learners' higher conceptual ability. P3: "*As much as I can I foster numerous lesson activities of the same topic with different intensity for learners' benefit, which enhances learners' higher cognitive level*

of conception. I believe in exposing learners to more different cognitive level activities. I believe more drills and exposing learners to more activities on the same topic eventually increase learners' chances of mastering the content. I have so many intellectual gaps among my learners, some learners can master the lesson objectives the first time I introduce them to the new concept, and some learners will start comprehending the knowledge from the second or even the third activity engagement of the same lesson objective. This is to say that my lesson objective is to impart set content to learners using different activities until I am satisfied that the learners have grasped the content knowledge."

P4: "*My lesson objectives are based on what content needs to be covered and I then draw my lesson activities based on the learning and teaching resources I have and the set timeline for that specific chapter. Moreover, The SMT monitors work covered per week*." P5: "*The curriculum coverage is a challenge to me and for my different ability class. I feel frustrated at times because I am always behind with the weekly set activities, and I need to account for the missing units of the content. This is to say my lesson objectives are not good enough because they always lead me into trouble with the subject advisors and my departmental head (DH) when monitoring curriculum coverage and several activities". P6: "I use subject content objectives to impart appropriate knowledge to learners as we have learned from different workshops and I know that if I follow the work schedule given to each grade, I will be able to finish the (annual teaching plan) ATP and cover all subjects' concepts as well as revision for maximum knowledge comprehension."*

These expressions and teachers' observations during the first phase of the action research revealed that the teachers' reasons for drawing up lesson objectives were influenced by conceptual knowledge and understanding of the prescribed content, but most importantly in compliance with the policy which is influenced by the content-centred curriculum (Bhuttah, Xiaoduan, Ullah, & Javed, 2019; Neuman & Danielson, 2021). The observation from the teachers as they drew up lesson objectives was the determination to comply with the departmental curriculum policy which determines the kind of knowledge, behaviour, and skills to be developed by the intended lesson. Moreover, the teacher's articulations in the first phase of action research indicated that their lesson objective enactments seek to address prescribed content needs through the use of short-term curriculum objectives. These articulations then suggest that the teachers disregarded the learners' curriculum needs or lacked understanding of the guidelines strategy which responds to curriculum differentiation in a diverse classroom.

However, during Phase 2 of the research teachers seemed to be empowered to transform from the traditional curriculum as interventions were encountered.

- Phase 2

After the second phase of the action research teachers displayed knowledge and improvement in the understanding and use of curriculum aims. Four teachers have shown their curriculum aims to be dominated by learning outcomes which, according to Mpungose and Khoza (2020c), are influenced by personal reflections. P1: "*I foster knowledge and skills as per caps curriculum differentiation guide and assist learners to discover their own learning skills*." This utterance is in line with what Mabuza and Khoza (2019) and Erbil (2020) affirmed to be reflections that supply continuous learning from experience, assisting teachers to improve on their teaching practices. Furthermore, P2, P4, and P5's reflections and observations indicated that they aim to maximise learning by simplifying activities for challenged learners, while giving challenging activities to highly gifted learners. This suggests that teachers develop strategies to best enhance teaching and learning as well as knowledge and understanding.

Therefore, the teacher's lesson objectives are dominated by personal needs which are influenced by learning outcomes. P1: "*My lesson objective is to foster knowledge and skills as per the CAPS curriculum guide, but I foster cooperative learning which assists learners to discover their learning skills according to their conceptual understanding at that given tim*e." P2: "*With CAPS all teaching and learning resources are given. I, therefore, set up my lesson goals based on the learner's ability to learn and their learning styles. In other words, I break down the given curriculum goals into manageable tasks for better knowledge comprehension as well as the teaching and learning enactment process. I also foster an intervention plan for struggling learners, this gives me time to focus on individual assistance. I also try to be innovative with the teaching and learning resources. However, one concept takes a long time and so I try to integrate more concepts into one lesson*."

According to P1, P3, and P5, curriculum goals are accrued when learners' educational needs have been encountered; as practical knowledge is fostered, maximum learning is enacted. Therefore, the teacher's lesson goals are personally dominant, and indicate learner-centredness which directs lesson intentions and expected outcomes. P4: "*My lessons are intended to enhance learners' independent thinking through practical learning and taking into consideration the learner's different learning styles. I aim to develop learners' positive inclination which helps learners to fully engage and take pride in their learning. Therefore, I*

set lesson objectives according to the learner's needs in education, as such I group my learners into same-level ability groups and set lesson objectives accordingly. This is in line with the curriculum differentiation policy document that further asserts that learners' learning styles and learning pace should be taken into consideration when setting out lesson activity outcomes."

Teachers need to fully understand the curriculum goals of curriculum differentiation and be developed in setting lesson objectives (short-term goals) drawing from the broad curriculum aims (long-term goals) so that their enactment of the differentiated curriculum is in line with the CAPS annual teaching plan (ATP). Makumane and Khoza (2020) and Hopkins (2018) believe that teachers are the main source of curriculum goal development, thus teachers set lesson objectives for all teaching and learning activities planned and administered in class. Therefore, teachers need to understand both the prescribed curriculum's long-term and short-term goals to be able to draw up and set out learning outcomes (personal goals) for their differentiated curriculum goals. Consequently, their lesson enactment objectives would be cohesive with the CAPS content goals.

Sub-theme: 3 Teachers' duties in curriculum differentiation

According to the data generated, teachers are the transmitters who translate the prescribed content by setting out lesson plans, while organising lesson activities and all teaching and learning materials according to the teaching style directed by the curriculum approach. Rogers (1983) Neuman and Danielson (2021) and Goddard, Skrla, and Salloum (2017) state that any teacher's role in education should be based on the relationships that support teaching and learning interaction in which lessons enacted involve empathy (instructions), genuineness (facilitation), and unconditional (modelling).The three conditions enhanced teachers' curriculum enactment; thus teachers employed empathy as an emotional cognitive ability, desiring to help learners in their learning endeavours (Swan, Chen, & Bockmier-Sommers, 2020).

Genuineness was employed when teachers were accurate and transparent with learners about the curriculum goals. Unconditional positive response to the curriculum was shown by teachers' acceptance of all learners' circumstances regardless of their abilities. However, during the first phase of the action research, the teachers' roles were observed to be those of transmitters due to the curriculum approach dominating their curriculum differentiation. Consequently, the data under this theme showed that teachers' roles were influenced by

performance standards as teachers assumed their duties as instructors, curriculum translators, and assessors. P1: "*My core duty is to design and organise all learning activities and prepare lesson presentations that enhance the learners' comprehension knowledge, and understanding*." P2: "*I prepare all learning activities and align all teaching and learning activities to the curriculum policy. I also organise the teaching and learning material and do lesson presentations where learners pay attention and take notes of the important facts from the presentation*."

P3: "*I set the positive learning environment, making sure that the environment is conducive enough for learners' knowledge development and guide learners into achieving the set lesson objectives*." P4: "*I am the agent of change in the learners' education as South African curriculum evolves. As a teacher, I introduce new concepts and new knowledge to learners. As I structure my lesson step by step, I use the learner's knowledge and understanding to introduce more intense educational objectives according to the hierarchal order for the benefit of the gifted learners, which motivates learners to achieve the highest cognitive objective*." Furthermore, P5: "*I set the tone of the class and prepare day-to-day learning content for engagement*." P6: "*I prepare the material, and learning activities, develop teaching strategies and assess the learner's level of knowledge, understanding, and comprehension*."

Subsequently, the teachers' roles enforce curriculum objectives and encourage knowledge conception. Such promotes learners' critical understanding, and enhances learners' listening skills and engagement in the teaching activities (Jorge & Peduzz, 2021; Maddux & Rogers, 1983). Teachers' reflective activities and interviews in the first phase of the action research revealed that teachers were aware of their professional educational duty. Thus P1: "*I organise all learning activities, prepare lesson presentation which enhances the learners' conceptual knowledge.*" P2: "I *facilitate all learning activities and align all learning activities to the curriculum policy*." This indicates that the teacher's role is to align the prescribed content using prescribed resources to enforce conceptual understanding according to the pre-determined standards of CAPS. Therefore, the teachers' role in curriculum differentiation during the first phase of the action research was dominated by vertical discourse principles, which seek higher levels of learners' content attainment.

- Phase 2

However, during the second phase of the action research teachers were transformed from employing their professional role to applying personal-dominant curriculum enactment. This

is evident in Participants 4 and 5 attesting to a transformation. P4: "*I mediate learning between prescribed content and align it with learners' readiness to conceive, as well as set teaching approaches according to individual learning styles and assess learning*." Additionally, P5: "*I design activity goals, facilitate learning using different teaching and learning material, assess learners' understanding, and reflect on the learner's achievement. If the lesson activity was not a success I re-plan and find a different approach to modelling the lesson*." Therefore, teachers' role after the intervention provided multiple and flexible presentations, activities, and positive learning support. In addition, a great deal of preparatory time, which includes much research and resource development, is willingly put into the effort of enhancing learners' educational development, as well as holistic development (Hopkins, 2018; Ledwaba, 2017; Roberts-Lieb, 2020).

Teachers without a passion for learners' educational development would be challenged, the teachers' role requiring planning and re-planning of activities. Moreover, teachers need to learn and understand learners' level of conceptual understanding as well as preferred learning styles. This is so that the curriculum enacted meets the learners' level of sense-making and processing of information. Above all, during the focus-group engagement teachers are shown to be designing their activity goals with the desire to help learners learn. Such implies genuineness, and involves being accurate with learning outcomes so that freedom of knowledge creation and learner participation is promoted. Hence teachers can accept all learners regardless of their shortfalls in academic learning (Johnson & Johnson, 2013, 2018; Swan, Chen, & Bockmier-Sommers, 2020). Moreover, the teachers' duties in the curriculum differentiation enactment can be a determining factor in the learners' progression or failure. Hence, the data generated indicate that effective curriculum differentiation stems from the teachers' knowledge and facilitation of various teaching strategies. The data generated infer that teachers should make learning accessible to all learners despite their level of competency and diversity. This further implies that teachers have to assess the learners' curriculum attainment.

Sub-theme: 4 Curriculum assessment on learning

During the first phase of the action research, the participants revealed awareness of the assessment of learning and learning for learning, but were not clear about assessment as learning. The teachers inferred that they were to follow the CAPS assessment guidelines as well as the school management assessment plan, which is dominated by principles of performance curricula (Ajani, 2021; Grussendorff, Booyse, & Burroughs, 2014; Roberts-Lieb, 2020). However, Participant 3 indicated awareness of assessment of learning, assessment as

learning, and assessment for learning. Nevertheless, data generated on the assessment teachers used in curriculum differentiation indicated that assessment of learning, as well as assessment for learning, was mostly enforced as per the departmental guidelines. P1, P2, and P5 stated that they use assessment tasks that inform of the teacher's instruction effectiveness, learners' level of understanding, and attainment level of set curriculum objectives. Teachers therefore use assessment as a measurement instrument for all curriculum enactment in class, including the teachers' instructions.

All participants said: "*We follow the CAPS assessment guidelines and give informal assessments after each class activity to check the learner's understanding of the concept thought and also give homework for informal marks*." Teachers' formal and informal assessment tasks evaluate the acquired level of outcomes as well as the next grade progression of learners. Teachers further stated why they used performance and competence curriculum assessment which is administered both formally and informally. P4: "*We have been given several classwork and homework activities to be conducted a week, which is aligned to lesson plan drawn from the ATP and work scheduled prescribed for each term. We are also presented with a termly management plan with which we ought to comply, which stipulates the number of all tasks to be conducted. Therefore, complying with the management plan ensures that one has reached curriculum coverage*."

This implies that CAPS has a specific number of tasks to be conducted by teachers and written by learners. Even though some of the participants were concerned about some of the learners not being able to read the instructions, some learners who knew the answers were not able to write to meet the pass mark. Moreover, higher-order questions were given to learners who could not understand the activities in class. This is evidenced by P 3: "*When I set a task and all cognitive levels must be adhered to even though some of the learners could not do the higher order activities in class. My concern is that most of my learner's reading and writing comprehension skills are lower than the standard expected and examples set by most foundation phase resource books such as Jika imfundo, PSRIPS, cluster set as well as nationally set papers*." These utterances indicate that teachers' assessment tasks and activities are moderated at different levels. Therefore, the teachers' assessment is dominated by performance assessment standards supported by competence assessment tasks. Furthermore, teachers need to attend district moderation for assessment guideline compliance and an accountability session for learners with low progression levels.

The data generated on how teachers use assessment of curriculum differentiation during the second phase of the action research revealed that, much as teachers were aware of formal assessment (assessment of learning) and informal assessment (assessment for learning), they opted to conduct an assessment as learning (diagnostic assessment). Moreover, the teachers made use of assessment as an informant to identify learners' needs for intervention purposes so that teaching can make provision for multiple abilities, varying intelligence, and different learning styles. P1: "*I assess before I start with my lesson to evaluate the learner's level of understanding on each topic which informs my decisions on the drawing of instructions and preparation of learning environment as well as lesson activities*." P2: "*I conduct an assessment which informs my instructional planning as well as learning activities. Some of the learners are struggling with concentration span and conceptual understanding, if I don't conduct baseline assessment and just teach according to the grade work schedule, I will find myself talking alone and learners left wondering*." P2: "*Most of my learners' conceptual understanding and knowledge are one or two grades behind their current grades. Therefore, I need to know what they know and understand about a specific topic so I use the knowledge they have to introduce a new lesson. I also use self and peer assessment during class activities to evaluate the extent to which the learners understand*."

The assessment administered is pragmatic because the teachers' use of assessment is based on the integral teaching and learning process. The main purpose of their assessment activities is to plan for instructions, plan for lesson presentation, assess learning during the class presentation, and evaluate learners' achievement. Consequently, reflecting on the learners' achievement and the outcomes would inform the next plan for instructions. P5: "*My assessment is based on guiding learners towards reaching the set objectives according to the learners' needs and strengths. Moreover, the assessment conducted guides me on what learners are capable of doing and how I can better support them for better grade progression. My assessment also provides the learners a chance to creatively contribute to the lesson and their learning, for instance when we do listening and speaking in English I use a set of questions to guide the learner's learning process which attracts their undivided attention. Therefore, I use different assessments to cater to multiple intelligences and different learning styles*."

P3 was of the same view as P5. P3: "*I assess learners understanding of the enacted activity and if the lesson was not successful, the assessment assists me to restructure the same topic and represent it. I also use self and peer assessment in-class activities for regular and continues*

feedback, for formal assessment I use the rubric and written tasks of which I assess and mark individually."

P4: "*I use individual, peer, group, and self-assessment depending on the assessment reason. I sometimes use self and peer assessment to develop how I can structure my lesson presentation. I use group assessment for class activities and collaboration amongst learners. I further use group assignments and individual written tasks to assess learners' conceptual, practical and creative ability for grading purposes*." These reflections indicate that teachers were aware of and used all three types of assessment for the benefit of the diverse learner needs in education (DBE, 2012; Ledwaba, 2017; Rens & Louw, 2021). Therefore, teachers' assessment of the enacted curriculum differentiation was dominated by pragmatic assessors who assess teaching and learning progress. Therefore the teachers' assessments are personally dominated (Ajani, 2021; Dixon-Krauss, 1996; Gan, Liu, & Yang, 2017; Wiliam, 2011).

5.2.2 Theme 2: How do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand District?

The themes showing teachers' operational process of curriculum enactment of the CAPS differentiated guidelines after the intervention are found in Table 5.2 Theme 2, which depicts how foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district. In the attempt to answer this question, the following sub-themes were identified as presented by the data generated from participants through action research. Sub-theme 5: How do teachers use curriculum differentiation? Sub-theme 6: How do teachers use particular methods in curriculum differentiation?; and Sub-theme 7: How do teachers use the notional time allocated for teaching and learning activities.

Sub-theme: 1 Teachers' use of curriculum differentiation

This theme was intended to understand the fundamental reason for the teachers' curriculum differentiation. During the first phase of the action research, teachers responded to the question by pursuing their reasons for enacting curriculum differentiation. All teachers responded according to their understanding, guided by the rationale which underpins the teacher's principles of curriculum differentiation enactment. The teacher's rationale for the curriculum differentiation was based on understanding that curriculum differentiation is a learner-centred strategy responding to diverse learning abilities; and the belief that all learners have a right to basic education, and therefore, need to be taught and accommodated in all lesson activities (Ajani, 2021; DBE, 2012; Grussendorff, Booyse, & Burroughs, 2014). Based on this

understanding, teachers had multiple interpretations of the learner-centredness of the CAPS guidelines on curriculum differentiation policy. P1 stated, when observed: "*I use caps as a prescribed content for schools and monitored by senior management of the school. I also teach the content to learners according to what I understand from the given content, even though most of the time my enactment is out of managerial compulsiveness I want to comply*."

This reflection showed similarities with P4: "*I enact CAPS curriculum as the only instrument and content given unto us to teach to enhance South African standard of education, however, I teach the content given to the abled group of learners and the hard to learn learners are not able to complete the prescribed activities. I give the activities for homework with the hope that parents would assist learners to complete the activities not finished in class*." P4: "*The first time we attended a workshop on CAPS curriculum presentation we learned how to plan and present the prescribed content to a homogenous class, however, with the curriculum guidelines to differentiation I can design my activities according to learner needs. Looking at the diversity in my class I divided the learners into groups so that I can cover the curriculum with the abled learners and give practical activities to the hard-to-learn group*."

P2: "*To meet minimum curriculum requirements and support learners' academic growth CAPS was introduced and we are therefore required to facilitate it in schools. However, time allocation for each subject is limited to curriculum delivery practical and skills activities are very limited, I, therefore, interpret the content first and attend to practicals and skills if there is time left*." P3 supports P2: "*I understand and acknowledge that there are learners with special learning needs in my class, I, therefore, use the differentiated curriculum guidelines on instructions presentation, but the departmental officials monitor curriculum coverage according to prescribed content which is laid out according to themes and concepts per week. Therefore, I teach the prescribed content and try to differentiate my presentation after the lesson if there is time left, the difficult point is that we have been allocated learning material for learners to furnish. I therefore, send the workbooks home for homework*."

In addition, P5: "*When I differentiate the curriculum, I do group work with the learners and they all feel involved in their learning, especially oral and practical work is always interesting to see all learners take part in their learning. However, practical activities are very limited to performance art, physical education and listening in Life skills, and English listening and speaking, which is 15 percent of the prescribed content. I am therefore bound to foster curriculum knowledge as stated in the CAPS*." P6 agreed with P5: "*Curriculum differentiation*

requires more time and resources which is difficult for teachers and learners to access, therefore I prefer to stick with the designed lesson plan from the policy with its designed activities."

On the teachers' reflections, and observations on reasons for teachers using the CAPS curriculum differentiation guidelines, it seems that all participants were aware of the CAPS as a prescribed curriculum from the Department of Education, and a compulsory document to be complied with. However, during the first phase of the action research only two participants were aware of the curriculum differentiation as a guideline and a strategy for the prescribed content enactment in the full-service school. Moreover, the shortage of knowledge and understanding of the use of the curriculum strategy as guidelines for diverse learning was a challenge to teachers.

The data revealed that the challenge was the link between the prescribed content and the teachers' understanding of content breakdown using the time allocation to cover the set content thus achieving the specified CAPS objectives. The teachers' reflection during Phase 1 of the action research outlined that the rationale for enacting the CAPS curriculum is predominantly influenced by professional needs (content-centred) rather than societal needs (learner-centred) and personal needs (Gichuru et al., 2021; Neuman & Danielson, 2021). Subsequently, the exploration revealed that the teachers' understanding of CAPS content was that the teacher should impose teaching and learning activities. All teachers indicated that they use the CAPS curriculum content as given, and do not comply with translating what is given in the learning activities.

Furthermore, Participants 1, 2, and 4 indicated that teachers' CAPS curriculum presentation is used to comply with the schools, districts, provinces, and national educational policies. P3 and P5 indicated that they were aware of curriculum differentiation which should be used by teachers to address learners' differing learning needs. However, they were not able to interpret and align the curriculum guidelines as intended by the curriculum differentiation policy. This affirms that teachers were unclear on the use of curriculum differentiation to assist learners to understand and accumulate knowledge of the teachers' perceived content. As a result, teachers were concerned about not meeting all prescribed concepts of the subjects and not meeting desired objectives. Such constantly caused conflicts between teachers, SBST (School-Based Support Team), and the DBST (District-Based Support Team).

- Phase: 2

In the course of the second phase of the action research, teachers displayed great transformation from the initiated intervention. The teachers' rationale had transformed and influenced their personal needs (curriculum differentiation needs). Teachers found a balance in the curriculum enactment of prescribed and practical curricula. It would seem that all of teachers' curriculum differentiation enactment is influenced by either personal, vertical, or horizontal discourse (Makumane & Khoza, 2020; Neuman & Danielson, 2021). Teachers have transformed and are enacting a blended curriculum that is dominated by personal identity, which places the teacher's enactment needs at the heart of all activities in the CAPS document (Mpungose, 2020). See the teachers' responses: P1: "*I enact curriculum differentiation as a way of simplifying the CAPS curriculum content to address learner's diverse learning needs.*" *P2:* "*I enact curriculum differentiation to ensure all learners can experience learning and access knowledge at the level of their understanding. Therefore, break the prescribed curriculum into different segments of manageable content for all learners*." P3: "*The enactment of curriculum differentiation allows me to interpret the content according to my academic understanding, using different approaches based on the learners' level of understanding*."

P4: "*I differentiate the curriculum because it gives the learners a chance to learn from each other, that alone promotes learners' social values and respect toward each other while enhancing skills and knowledge*." P5: "*My use of curriculum differentiation is to simplify CAPS as a current prescribed educational policy. I do this to support learners with special needs in learning because I allow learners to explore a topic and conduct their research about the topic, according to their understanding which in turn enhances their positive learning attitude. The gifted learners get enough time to explore the same topic in different ways while I assist the battling learners. Moreover, my enactment of the differentiated curriculum is out of the full-service school policy compliance, it is a lot of work for me to plan and present different lessons every day for the different learner learning styles in my class. However, some themes I do enjoy in curriculum differentiation. After all, it meets the learner's different learning needs and allows learners to understand content in different levels*."

All teachers have asserted that the intervention has enhanced their understanding and developed positive reasons for curriculum differentiation enactment. This reflection is also affirmed by P1 who stated that curriculum differentiation enactment creates a perfect platform on which teachers can address their personal needs and give personal reasons for enacting the curriculum the way they do. Moreover, the understanding of the practical enactment of the CAPS has resolved the conflict between teachers, the SMT, and subject advisors when

monitoring curriculum coverage. P2 indicated that it has become clear that curriculum differentiation is driven by the CAPS, the prescribed school policy. Teachers should present and enact all prescribed content without compromising the set standards of the CAPS curriculum. P3 stated that learning conception was enhanced to meet curriculum requirements; P5 asserted that the use of curriculum differentiation was driven by the annual teaching plan and government officials' monitoring plan. P5 also cited that teachers' enactment was influenced by the number of activities to be covered and the breaking down of the set curriculum into manageable content.

According to Mpungose and Khoza (2020c), if teachers' reflections on curriculum are dominated by formal prescribed content, they address performance curriculum. The teacher's curriculum enactment is greatly dominated by professional needs, addressing the CAPS curriculum needs in such a way that teachers were expected to master the content. Such will, in turn, enable them to draw up their plan to reach the same curriculum objectives (Gichuru et al., 2021; Hopkins, 2018). Therefore, five of the teachers were able to select relevant activities to address the enactment of a differentiated curriculum and at the same time address the CAPS curriculum policy needs. Teachers' rationale for curriculum differentiation enactment may therefore be due to qualification and experience shortages.

Furthermore, Krajcik, McNeill, and Reiser (2008) and White (1971) assert that CAPS is a performance-based curriculum that is dominated by vertical discourse, and satisfies the content needs before personal needs. During curriculum enactment, teachers should foster the stipulated goals and enhance learners' conceptual knowledge. However, during the first phase of the action research, it was evident that teachers' curriculum differentiation enactment goals were based on their pedagogical understanding which was dominated by performance curriculum needs before personal needs. This indicates that teachers' enactment of the differentiated curriculum was based on social justice values, knowledge construction, and skills.

After the intervention, it was evident that teachers upheld and enforced the prescribed curriculum goals because teachers were able to draw lessons to enforce all curriculum content as stipulated in the CAPS document. Therefore, the content was not demarcated according to learners' perception ability; however, learners were able to experience all learning concepts. The teacher had to reflect on the lesson goals at the end of each lesson, noting what had been achieved by the lesson activity, what had not been achieved, as well as what still needed to be

achieved. Likewise, teachers were able to plan an intervention activity for remedial as well as reinforcement purposes. Furthermore, the findings from the teachers' reflection during the second phase of the action research indicated that transformation had occurred since teachers were able to use the prescribed curriculum goals to set up their personal lesson goals.

Teaching and learning activities were differentiated accordingly, enforcing enactment strategies for the benefit of all diverse learners. Teachers further mentioned in their second-phase reflections that their enactment goal was to provide equal opportunity for all learners to learn. Teachers aim to provide equal access to the prescribed curriculum for the diverse learner needs. In addition, curriculum differentiation enactment depends on the teacher's understanding and consideration of the curriculum goals. Hence, the success of the CAPS differentiation enactment is determined by the teacher's knowledge of curriculum goals, enactment methodologies, and learning environment. However, as teachers became aware of the curriculum differentiation outlined in the CAPS policy, the issues of curriculum coverage became a factor, teachers not able to teach the stipulated content during the allocated time.

As teachers became aware of the guidelines for responding to diversity outlined in the CAPS policy, the issues of curriculum coverage became a factor. Teachers were not able to facilitate the stipulated curriculum goals during the allocated time. According to Krajcik, McNeill, and Reiser (2008) and Kaushik (2017), teachers must be proficient in facilitating the CAPS curriculum goals by using different and modified approaches to problem-solving; as curriculum differentiation requires more practical activities to prepare and train learners for the outside work industry. Lastly, Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Erbil (2020) affirm that curriculum differentiation goals are societally driven and based on multiple intelligences, which contrasts with the CAPS, being affected by the learner's conceptual ability, curriculum objectives, and time allocation factors. The CAPS curriculum goals inception does not fully consider and outline issues of curriculum differentiation sustainability, pragmatism, and reliability.

Sub-theme: 2 Teachers' curriculum differentiation enactment methods

Erbil (2020), and Hall, Meyer, and Rose (2012) assert that any curriculum that exists is defined by its enactment methods, through which its core knowledge, skills, and values are defined. Fomunyam and Khoza (2020) and Hopkins (2018) further affirm that enactment methods can be categorised into professionally driven, or influenced by content-based activities, socially-driven enactment, which is influenced by outcome-based activities, and personally-driven enactment, that is, influenced by goal-orientated, and pragmatically centred enactment.

Teachers were supposed to have reflected on these three categories of enactment methods during their reflection and observation phases. The learner-centred method as teaching method or strategy in the curriculum was wrongly used in the literature review.

P1: "*My teaching is based on knowledge and skills development which I enact through written and creative activities. I use practical activities to foster problem-solving, especially in maths learners need to solve problems using different methods to get to the same answer*." P2: "*I encourage learners to construct their knowledge through cooperative activities and I like to use mostly their general knowledge as a base of all knowledge*." P3: "*I mostly use group work to foster cooperation amongst learners because they learn best from each other*." P4: "*I find practical activities more interesting to the learners and keep them motivated to do more than what was expected from them. More so, I use practical activities such as their social situation and knowledge to motive learners to keep challenging each other constructively*."

P5: "*I find the learner-centred activity more motivating to learners and so I apply problem-based activities to my teaching so that I can address all learners learning styles and all learning abilities*." P6: "*Practical activities encourage flexible learning because learners can decide on their self-directory learning. This was evident during the hard lockdown; learners were able to depend on their self-directory learning and learned on their own*." During the first phase of the action research, it was noted that most teachers reflected on their enactment methods to be socially and professionally dominant. This is evident. P1: "*My teaching is based on knowledge development*." P2: "*I encourage learners to construct their knowledge through cooperative activities*."

This reflection showed that the teachers were driven by social enactment; and social enactment is influenced by learner-centred activities (Eun, 2019; Nurkholida, 2018). P3: "*I use group work to foster cooperation amongst learners because they learn best from each other*." But P4: "*I use practical activities to motive learners to keep challenging each other constructively*." This reflection further demonstrates that teachers apply social teaching methods to enact what is articulated in the policy document, as discussed in the literature. Further to this, P3 and P5 expressed that they enforced practical learning and enforced skills relevant to the CAPS policy objectives. However, P6 indicated the use of self-directory enactment methods that train learners to be dependent on themselves for their learning development. This suggests that P6's enactment methods are personally driven and professionally dominant (Avalos, 2011; Kaushik, 2017; Maharjan, 2019).

- Phase 2

According to the literature on curriculum enactment methods, there are three approaches to curriculum enactment activities: enactment activities that are learner-centred which is socially orientated; the content-centred enactment method which is professionally orientated; and the teacher-centred enactment methods which are personally orientated (Khoza & Biyela, 2020; Neuman & Danielson, 2021). During the second phase of the action research teachers indicated to have been transformed from social-centred and content-centred to personal-orientation enactment. Thus, after the intervention phase, most teachers were applying their personal-orientation enactment in teaching and learning methods. The teachers create a platform for inquiry-based learning on which learners can discuss, share ideas, and find solutions using the prescribed content activities. During the second phase, the teachers reflected as listed below:

P1: "*I enforce practical knowledge using the prescribed curriculum, but I must say I only use applicable concepts because the caps curriculum is so packed with hard-to-comprehend content. I also use invention methods that allow learners to use their initiative strategies in solving complex learning activities, but I can only do so much, especially with so many diverse learners in my class. Moreover, the prescribed content is overly packed for conceptually challenged learners*." P2 agreed with P1: "*I still prefer to use group work because I feel learners can challenge each other and learn at the same time, but I have learned that some of the concepts need me as a teacher to redesign to suit the learner's ability to learn and design activity goals according to the learner's level of understanding*."

P3: "*I keep my learners engaged with fact-finding activities, I understand that learners learn best when they are actively engaged in solving real-world problems, therefore I apply different learning groups which I call workstations. The workstations help learners of different learning abilities to try out different activities of the same concept*." Furthermore, P4: "*I enforce group problem-solving strategies in my lesson because they encourage cooperative learning and promote harmonious development. I also enhance the learner's critical reflection by doing corrections in class and give everyone a chance to fix the mistakes they have done or learn from each other's activity to better their activities*." P5: "*I believe that learners are capable of contracting their knowledge with the correct guidance, learners can do much more than I ask. Therefore, I facilitate active learning activities and learn by doing skills where learners conduct their research to solve complex problems which encourage their evolving knowledge application*."

P1 and P2 stated that, since the classes have diverse learners, they apply enactment methods fit for every situation. P3 and P4 indicated that they apply enactment methods according to the activity goals, learners' learning styles, and learning abilities. P5: "*I facilitate active learning activities and learn by doing skills where learners conduct their research to solve complex problems which encourage their evolving knowledge application*." This suggests that during the second phase of the action research teachers' enactment of the curriculum was based on the teachers' ability to recognise information to be learned, the enactment strategy which enhances the processing of information, and strategies to engage learners in the learning activities. Furthermore, teachers were able to design enactment materials and activities that engage learners with a wide variety of learning abilities without compromising the curriculum (Erbil, 2020; Neuman & Danielson, 2021). Therefore, the teachers' enactment methods were based on the content to be taught, and how best the lesson can be enacted within the stipulated time.

Sub-theme: 3 Notional times allocated for teaching and learning

Teachers reflected on the contact time which represents the period of time used by teachers to complete a lesson activity. According to Davis (2019) and Rens and Louw (2021), the time stipulated for teachers and learners to complete a study concept depends on the learners' understanding. Fisher et al. (1981) and Majoko (2019) argue that the CAPS has specific content to be covered per week and time duration on each subject per day. This supports the significance of planning and facilitation of the differentiated curriculum enactment process. The policy stipulates the hours and the content to be covered every day, as well as time allocation for each concept in each grade. Mathematics, for example has five concepts which must be covered every week; whereas home language has 6 concepts to be covered in a week. Accordingly, the prescribed home language policy stipulates 7 to 8 hours a week which is equivalent to 1 hour 24 minutes a day and 23 hours a week which is allocated for home language engagement (Grussendorff, Booyse, & Burroughs, 2014; Mbatha, 2016).

During the first phase, all teachers reflected that they were using the set contact time for curriculum enactment and coverage which is professionally and socially dominant. Teachers were observed to be following lesson plans and activity time stipulations in the Jika Imfundo teachers' resource pack for mathematics and home language, and by PSRIP for the first additional language, which is the same as the time stipulated in the CAPS and ATP documents. However, during the second phase, it was evident through teachers' reflection that professional and social enactment were no longer dominant. The teachers reflected to be transformed into pragmatic dominant.

As such, P1: "*I work according to the learners learning pace and individual understanding, I also use the concept's weightings to direct my emphases on how I should divide the lesson period*." Whereas, P2: "*I have been a teacher for more than 15 years and I know rushing to cover the curriculum is just a method to comply but not doing justice to the learner. I have been redeemed from this unjust facilitation by reflecting on the lesson activity, if I feel the lesson activity did not go well as I planned, I repeat the lesson. In other words, I no more rush to cover all concepts for administration purposes, but I strive for concept mastering than chase time stipulations. The more important concepts in all foundation phase subjects are given more weighting, I, therefore, divide my time according to the weightings for better learner performance*."

P3: "*I make use of the learners' free time at home, I give them more research activities to do before we tackle the concept, which makes it easier for them when we engage in the concept in class, moreover the stipulated time also guides us in our engagements. I use the time stipulations to align my presentations and activities*." P4: "*I make use of class time and group the learners and if we do not finish the activity during class time, I give it for homework*." P5: "*I Model the activity in class for learners and send a video to parents so that they can also assist their children to learn at home*." P6: "*Learners learn fast from each other; therefore, I do the first presentation on the specific concept and ask learners to build up more knowledge on the same concept and do presentations on their groups. In that way, they can learn from one another without exhausting all the prescribed time allocation per concept*."

This suggests that during the first phase of the research, teachers followed the school-management stipulated timetables which specify when and how many periods a week a subject ought to be taught. However, during the second phase of the research teachers were transformed into pacing the lesson activities according to the learners' cognitive abilities. Teachers were thus able to extend the time to explain and assist all learners to understand and confidently grasp the concept before moving on to the next concept. This further suggests that teachers were able to take an independent decision on the enactment time based on the learners' level of conceptual knowledge and the understanding individuality of learners and teachers. Moreover, the time stipulated on the policy document was used to determine the content to be taught; how best the lesson can be enacted within the stipulated time, and why different strategies in differentiating the curriculum were applied.

5.2.3 Theme 3: Why do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school in the Zululand District?

The themes showing teachers' metacognitive curriculum enactment of the CAPS differentiated guidelines after the intervention is depicted in Table 5.2 Theme 3, which explains why foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school in the Zululand District. This question was explored in Sub-theme 8: Why do teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in different environments? Sub-theme 9: Why do teachers use teaching and learning support material (LTSM)?; and Sub-theme 10: Why do teachers use reflection and enrichment activities?

Sub-theme: 1 Teachers' different ways of curriculum enactment in particular settings

During the first phase of the research, the teachers reflected on the learning and teaching environment as a physical structure in which all supporting learning activities take place. Most of the teachers' understanding of the learning environment and practices were influenced and dominated by psychosocial factors, which are socially dominant (Dalton, Mckenzie, & Kahonde, 2012; Majoko, 2019). P1: "*I use the classroom for most of my lesson activities so that learners get used to the class routine, and I am also able to pay individual attention to assist during activities*." P2: "*I have a child on a wheelchair, that uses a ramp to get to class and once he settles in class, I don't want to disturb them and I group him with his friends because they are always willing to assist him to move around.*"

P3: "*The floor space in my class makes it difficult to conduct group work, therefore I only conduct face-to-face with all learners seated looking in front to save space, and my class is so full I don't even have a teacher's desk.*" P4: "*I found it easy to work with learners seated in groups because they can assist each other especially if some of the learners did not understand, they explain to each other within the groups. Sometimes when a learner urgently needs to be excused to the toilet, the group will assist him so that he does not fall behind.*" P5: "*I have a learner with albinism and my class environment is not conducive for him because we experience a lot of sun rays which makes it difficult for him to see the board, although he now has glasses. I write the work for him on paper and make a lot of worksheets for him*."

P6: "*As my class is located next to the kitchen, I am aware that it is difficult for learners to concentrate in class on an empty stomach as some of the learners come to school without breakfast. Therefore, we have arranged for those learners to eat first as soon as the food is ready and come back to class for learning*." The remarks reveal that teachers were aware of

the teaching and learning constraints caused by the physical environment. Because the teachers were concerned, a plan was always made for the creation of a positive learning environment. However, during the second phase of the reflection, the data collected reflected that teachers were transformed from creating a physically dominant learning and teaching environment to creating a blended learning environment. P1: "*I use blended learning context for most my teaching activities, that give learners a chance to do more research on what we have done in class. Sometimes I ask them to conduct their research on specific topics and when we discuss in class everyone has something to share. I have found this strategy to be working because it motivates learners to cooperate more on constructive issues and enhances effective communication*."

Furthermore, P2: "*I have realised that I can use different learning environments for different lesson activities and Covid 19 hard lockdown forced us to look into alternative learning environments so that we don't fall behind with teaching and learning. We then made booklets for parents to collect by the school administration office for learners to complete at home with the help of the demonstration and descriptive video we sent on class WhatsApp groups. I still use WhatsApp to send the work home for learners to conduct their research on a topic before we tackle it in class, this creates a positive atmosphere in class and all learners fully engage in the learning process. We also share learning material with parents so that they can assist their children at home*."

P3: "*My class teaching and learning context is now blended and taking into consideration all learners learning interests and learning resources. I make use of face-to-face the most for modelling the activity and give homework on the very same topic for learners to further conduct their research on the topic. The learners use the internet to extend knowledge and I also give links through WhatsApp for more information on the projects, so that parents would assist with the homework*." P4: "*The shift from the 3rd industrial revolution to the 4th industrial revolution seemed impossible before lockdown, but I realised that I was forced to learn and move fast with the times during the hard lockdown. I made booklets for parents to collect and practice with their children at home, I make a video of each activity explaining the work and learners had to also submit their work on the WhatsApp group*."

P5: "*Due to the safe distance learners need to keep, I have adjusted my learning environment according to distancing learners. I have grouped the learners into 5 groups of 4 because they*

alternate and made 5 learning stations with 5 different learning activities on the same topic. I set time for each station and when time has lapsed then the learners move to the next working station so that they can all have access to all different learning styles. These activities are all different in terms of hierarchal levels of understanding."

The second phase reflected that teachers have learned to critically consider all learning environments and pay attention to psychological, social, and physical factors that shape and positively contribute to teaching and learning (Christensen & Knezek, 2017; Hall, Meyer, & Rose, 2012). Moreover, the teachers learned to adapt the learning environment for the curriculum to suit the learners' learning needs. Teachers during the transformation were able to provide a range of learning environments such as scaffolding, providing suitable learning material for each learning environment to learners to meet learners' learning needs (DBE, 2012; Ledwaba, 2017). Likewise, this reflects that teachers were strategic about catering to learners' diverse accessibility needs using different teaching and learning support materials (Damşa & de Lange, 2019; Hebles, Yániz-Álvarez-de-Eulate, Alonso-Dos-Santos, & Villardón-Gallego, 2021; Johnson & Johnson, 2013).

Sub-theme 2: Teachers use teaching and learning support material (LTSM)

Learning and teaching materials refer to all human resources, tools, and documents that equip teachers to foster teaching and learning (Gupta & De Micheli, 1993; Khoza, 2017; Velychko et al., 2018). In other words, curriculum differentiation enactment depends on what the teaching and learning goals are, how best to achieve the desired outcomes, and why teachers use LTSM to better enhance the enactment experience for significant learner performance. During the teachers' interviews, P1 stated: "*I use publishers' textbooks and terms work schedules, ATP (annual teaching plan) and CAPS document as my learning and teaching resources when I facilitate learning because I like to draw my lesson plan suitable for my current learners' cognitive levels. When assessing learners' performance I use departmental guidelines for assessment, moreover, we use one common assessment task as a circuit which we plan together at our (Professional Learning Communities) PLCs' meetings. We also moderate and analyse the learners' performance at a cluster level using a district moderation tool as well as performance analysis tools and diagnostic tools which then assist in drawing a subject improvement plan*."

Likewise, P2 alluded to the Department of Education specifying the content which must be covered in each grade, therefore: "*I use the prescribed workbooks from the department of education because I know that all learning concepts are covered. I also use the chalkboard and learners have to copy down from the board into their books. For reading, listening, and speaking activities we use previous teachers' resource files for activities, grade-level readers, and big books. We also use audio and visual equipment such as cd players and try to enhance learners' listening skills as well as concentration skills*. Likewise, P3: "*I use jika imfundo teacher's planner, tracker and learners' workbooks which work interchangeably with the CAPS policy document. I also use DBE workbooks, PSRIP (Primary School Reading Improvement Program) planners and activity books for English first additional language, EGRA (Early Grade Reading Assessment) for IsiZulu home language reading assessment, and different worksheets for different skills depending on the current needs, for example, visual art activities*." P4: "*I use the prescribed materials and self-made resources; I also download some worksheets from the internet. We also use the computer lab for computer application skills, coding, and robotics which is a new and piloting subject*."

Moreover, P5: "*I mostly use previous planning and worksheets I have collected over the years. I have a couple of learners who cannot read or write in the workbooks due to physical impairments. I, therefore, seek assistance from the district-based support team (DBST) who assess and evaluate learner's intellectual skills and refer the learner to different social service institution for an example social welfare, trauma counselling, and educational therapist*." P6: "*Some learners cannot write or read the recommended material. I, therefore, use an observation book to keep all records of the learners' difficulties which is called SIAS (Screening, Identification, Assessment, and Support) and thereafter file the SNA 1(Support Needs Assessment) form. The file will be needed when I refer the learner to the school-based support team (SBST), which then determines the support needed by the learner as well as require further evaluation from the DBST*."

Phase 2

During the second phase, the teachers reflected on being transformed from using professionally dominant and socially dominant teaching and learning resources to applying personally dominant teaching and learning materials. Teachers used hardware resources as prescribed, and

also used software to develop and arouse learners' interest in learning. After the intervention, teachers learned to make decisions on which activities to use and reasons for their use to facilitate individual learning. In other words, teachers relied more on their pedagogical knowledge (ideological-ware) to meet the learners' academic needs (Khoza, 2017; Krajcik, McNeill, & Reiser, 2008). All teachers were able to cooperate with hardware learning resources, and software learning resources to embrace ideological ware (Gupta & De Micheli, 1993; Husni, 2020; Laprie, Arlat, Beounes, & Kanoun, 1990).

Additionally, teachers were able to use blended teaching and learning resources as tools to facilitate the prescribed content. This was for the benefit of the learners' understanding up to the level of creative creation of knowledge, which is the highest cognitive level. Teachers were transformed into effectively incorporating mobile (technological) teaching, especially during the hard lockdown. This enhanced and stimulated learners' creative development and aroused teachers' facilitating determination. This led to teachers evaluating and reflecting on the success of the enacted lesson activities (Laprie et al., 1990; Velychko, Fedorenko, & Kassim, 2018).

Sub-theme: 3 Teachers' use of reflection and enrichment activities

Reflection on the enacted curriculum refers to the evaluation of the teachers' recontextualisation of the prescribed curriculum without distorting the essence of the prescribed knowledge, values, and skills. In the study conducted by Moreau (2017) and Bates (2004), teachers in the schooling system are to translate what the policymakers have drafted; therefore teachers must be able to impart and enact the written curriculum to learners; and in so doing, no knowledge skills or educational values should be overlooked or omitted. Teachers must be able to translate and represent the intended curriculum content in such a way that it accommodates learners' interests, learning styles, and the different learning abilities.

Therefore, the evaluation of the enacted curriculum is a process conducted by the teachers in analysing the enactment process. During this process teachers and learners learn and evolve in their teaching and learning experience which improves their curriculum enactment (Hall et al., 2012; Khoza, 2019a). During the first phase of the action research, the teachers reflected that they were evaluating the learners' understanding of the lesson activity and the learners' performance evaluation for grading purposes. P1, P5, and P6: "*The CAPS is loaded with content there is hardly time left for reflection on the lesson activities because even if one could realise a gap in the lesson instructions or realise knowledge not grasped by learners there is*

no time to restructure the lesson activity. Every day, there is new work and concepts to be covered, otherwise one will fall short of the school management plan and the departmental work schedule."

P2: "*The evaluation I conduct in class is just to confirm, otherwise there is no time for reflection on the lesson, I, therefore, write corrections on the board for the learners to copy in their books as evidence that I did a follow up on learners understanding of the concept*." P3: "*I evaluate the class activity based on learner's correctness and if the activity is not successful, I give corrections the learners must copy the corrections from the board and we do the same with the formal written assessment, we go through and I give the learners correct answers. I also evaluate each section of the tasks subsection to compile a subject improvement plan which is informed by item analysis*." P4: "*Due to time constraints as I have a diverse class, I do not get to evaluate the learners, however, we conduct peer and self-reflection where learners mark and give themselves marks if they are correct. We work out the answers together on the board and the learners copy the corrections down, for written assessment tasks I copy the memorandum for the learners and we discuss the answers afterward*."

During the second phase of the research, teachers reflected on the evaluation of enacted curriculum as follows: P1: "*I evaluate to examine the effectiveness of the set learning environment as well as the instructions and activities given to learners. If learners do not actively participate after evaluation, I change the initial enactment method. Firstly, I conduct a baseline assessment to evaluate learners' knowledge and understanding about the new theme I want to present and then I prepare for instructions and resources as well as activities suitable for multiple intelligences*." Likewise, P2: "*I conduct a formative assessment which informs all my teaching and learning decisions including instructional methods, learning, and teaching materials as well as assessment in class. I then further conduct a formal assessment which evaluates the learners' level of achievement and readiness for the next grade*."

P3 agreed with P2: "*I use informal activities to evaluate the effectiveness of the lesson presentation. I, therefore, stop and ask questions to evaluate the level of concentration. If the learners do not answer, then I change the instructions and presentation method*." P3: "*for formal assessment, I use the assessment information to analyse and I examine the effectiveness of all teaching and learning enactments during the lesson engagements as well as evaluate the learner's understanding and knowledge*." Furthermore, P4: "*I use assessment to set the tone*

of each lesson instruction plan, and lesson presentation and I also examine the level to which the learners understand the concept."

Moreover, P4: "*I give learners activities and let the learners conduct their inquiry research on the given topic and my assessment is then based on whether the instructions were clear and if learners understand what needs to be done. Thereafter I evaluate the level of goal attainment and if lesson activity was not successful I re-plan instructions and presentation as well as enrichment activities for the learners who understood the concepts*." P5: "*I evaluate to differentiate the class setting, instructions, and lesson presentations. Evaluation of learners before the lesson gives me confidence that I prepare the correct teaching and learning materials that enhance positive outcome attainment*." P5 further stated that evaluating the learners before the lesson set a positive learning context and helps to set realistic teaching goals. "*The reflection after each lesson helps me to understand learners' performance and then plan for intervention if the lesson was not a success*." This just showed how much evaluation assists in the enhancement of any curriculum enactment goals as well as creating a positive learning environment for all diverse needs of learners.

Therefore teachers' reflection during the second phase of the action research revealed that they analyse the teaching and learning enactment process to improve on the setting of realist curriculum goals as well as in analysing past teaching and learning experiences and present experiences, to enhance future teaching and learning experiences (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Reio, Rocco, Smith, & Chang, 2017; White, 1971). Teachers were thus able to apply their pedagogical experience to establish a positive learning environment, as well as to restructure lesson presentations and instructions which enhance positive outcome attainments (Adeani et al., 2020; Mpungose, 2020a). Therefore, according to the participants' reflections during the second phase of research, the teachers' evaluation of enacted curriculum was personally dominant.

5.3. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented data generation on teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation through reflective activities, lesson observations, semi-structured interviews, and focus groups. The data were presented in three themes, ten sub-themes and three categories). Theme one: What are the foundation phase teachers' enactments of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district? Theme two: How do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the

Zululand district? Theme three: Why do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school in the Zululand district?

The sub-themes were teachers' content enactment in curriculum differentiation enactment: lesson objectives enacted in curriculum differentiation; teachers' duties in curriculum differentiation; curriculum assessment enforced in curriculum differentiation; the use of curriculum differentiation enactment; the use of particular enactment methods in curriculum differentiation; teachers' use of the notional time allocated for teaching and learning; teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation in particular ways in different settings; the use of teaching and learning support material (LTSM); and the teachers' use of reflection and enrichment activities. Additionally, categories were performance (content-based) curriculum, competence-based (social-based) curriculum and differentiated (personal-based) curriculum. Moreover, the data presented comprised teacher's verbatim remarks, followed by interpretations, discussions, and analysis based on the literature review as presented in Chapter Two. The findings, summary, and recommendations will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSIONS, SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This study set out to explore teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation in the foundation phase of a full-service school in the Zululand district. This study intends to understand why teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a particular way, what informs teachers' decisions to enact curriculum in a particular way, and the lessons that can be learned from the teachers' reflections on curriculum enactment. Furthermore, the study attempted to answer three research questions: 1). What are foundation phase teachers' enactments of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school? 2). How do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district? 3). Why do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways? The previous chapter has highlighted the significance of the conceptual framework, and presented, analysed, and discussed the data generated. Therefore, this chapter intends to present the summary, categorised into ten themes emanating from the data discussed in the previous chapter; the main conclusions of this study; and recommendations for further studies made based on the findings.

6.2. Summary of the Findings

This study has found that curriculum differentiation enactment implies the teacher's ability to link the envisioned curriculum with the actual learning and the acquired outcomes. Moreover, teachers must be able to use their loose coupling enactment skills to keep the education system operational, while applying the sense-making enactment skills to normalise learning for

learners with various barriers to learning. This study has found that, among others, teachers' rationale, curriculum goals, curriculum content, assessment, and instructional methods contribute immensely to successful teaching and learning. Likewise, contact time, learning environment, as well as teaching and learning resources, are highly significant in the success of any curriculum enactment in a full-service school.

6.2.1 Rationale

Teachers' rationale on curriculum differentiation enactment affirmed to be personally driven. Teachers enacted curriculum differentiation for the benefit of all learners' academic development (Gichuru et al., 2021; Hoadley & Jansen, 2009; Hopkins, 2018). The findings from the literature reveal that a formal curriculum has expectations of what must be taught in each subject, giving guidelines which are nationally developed; however, the teachers' enacted curriculum exists within the domain of the teacher and learners in class. In other words, the curriculum attained and experienced by learners reflects teachers' and learners' ability to respond in the moment applying their teaching and learning experience (Hopkins, 2018; Ledwaba, 2017). The findings from the data analysis reflect that teachers' curriculum rationale was influenced by an enacted curriculum, which is in turn influenced by the interaction between the teacher and learners around learning accumulation and instructional resources.

6.2.2 Goals

The findings under this theme explained that teachers' curriculum goals were dominated by learning outcomes that are influenced by societal needs. The teachers' reflections during the first phase of the action research suggested that most teachers' curriculum goals are short-term dominant; teachers reflected on the use of lesson objectives which informed learner performance, and disregarded the use of outcomes from learners' exploration of the CAPS. However, during the second phase of the action research the teachers' reflections showed that most teachers' curriculum goals were influenced by aims, objectives, and learning outcomes. This highlighted the clear understanding of curriculum goals among the teachers, and improvement in teachers' lesson goal establishment which promotes the use of aims, goals, and learning outcomes. Teachers seem to have a clear understanding of setting out their own curriculum goals emanating from the prescribed curriculum outcomes. Teachers thus consider the teaching and learning context, the learners' learning abilities, as well as the teaching purpose. Makumane and Khoza (2020) assert that teachers' use of aims and objectives in achieving learning outcomes is a clear indication of curriculum goal understanding.

6.2.3. Content

Literature suggests that curriculum content is representing educational goals and skills required to be achieved by the teachers and learners after each lesson activity (Ledwaba, 2017; Tomlinson & McTighe, 2006). The literature further indicated that there are three categories of content: written, enacted, and experienced. The teachers' reflections indicated that teachers are more interested in the enacted content as it expresses the curriculum goals for personal and professional change. The findings revealed that teachers' content knowledge begins when they understand the content to differentiate for any specific learning intelligence. This is influenced by critical analysis of learners' conceptual and practical knowledge, as well as teachers' reflections which will enhance transformation in content differentiation (Khalaf, 2018; Prahani et al., 2020).

For this reason, teachers were concerned that the prescribed content allows no time for multiple intelligence goal presentations. Furthermore, the participants stated that the CAPS content is too lengthy and has no enrichment activities or scaffolding for struggling learners. Moreover, the CAPS does not afford the teacher time for one-on-one content presentations to struggling learners. Teachers must instead be well-versed in written content knowledge to enable better content enactment, thereby enhancing experienced content. Therefore, teachers need to break down the content into manageable knowledge through multi-intelligence awareness and sensitivity to learners' academic needs.

6.2.4. Enactment methods

Enactment method findings from the literature indicated that curriculum differentiation refers to the teachers' pedagogy that shapes the content that is presented and which has influenced the class interaction. Enactment methods in a curriculum differentiation class are therefore dominated by personal-centred approaches and influenced by both performance and social-driven activities. This is because teachers can apply their personal knowledge orientation to structure activities and engagements for positive attainment in teaching and learning (Babinčáková & Bernard, 2020; Morris, Ida, Migliaccio, Tsukada, & Baker, 2020). Findings from the teachers' reflections revealed that teachers create inquiry-based platforms for learners to interact, share ideas, and work collaboratively in finding answers to common learning problems; teachers make use of scaffolding as an enactment method. Teachers must therefore be properly trained and skilfully enabled to enforce the various strategies by answering the questions (see Maharjan, 2019), the what of the CAPS content enactment, the how of the CAPS content enactment, and the why of the CAPS content enactment.

6.2.5. Teachers' role

The literature is of the view that the teacher's role in curriculum enactment is to answer three core academic questions: the what of learning (curriculum descriptive goals), the how of learning (curriculum operation and presentation), and the why of learning (teaching strategies). The teacher's role is then determined by the type of curriculum the teacher adopts during the enactment process. The teachers' reflections indicated that the full-service school had previously adopted the role of an instructor which changed during the course of the study to both instructor and facilitator (Khoza, 2021; Neuman & Danielson, 2021). The performance curriculum CAPS requires the teacher to assume the role of an instructor and to organise all teaching and learning activities. The competency-based curriculum requires teachers to assume their roles as facilitators and mediators between learners and the curriculum. The blended curriculum requires the teachers to align performance, enacted curriculum, and accumulated curriculum using teachers' rationale to complete the lesson concept. However, teachers' literature revealed that the CAPS content, time allocations, and the learning context are the course of the complex situation within the teachers' curriculum-demarcated role.

6.2.6. Enactment tools and resources

The literature signified that teachers applying their pedagogy curriculum knowledge in teaching and learning activities are dominated by ideological-ware; teachers applying prescribed textbooks and the content-centred resources are dominated by hardware. However, teachers using computers, the SMART board, and internet-based worksheets are dominated by software resources (Laprie, Arlat, Beounes, & Kanoun, 1990; Mpungose & Khoza, 2020c). The teachers' findings reflected that the use of hardware dominates, therefore teachers' curriculum enactment is performance-based, and curriculum differentiation is based on the given resources. Therefore, learners' outcome attainment relies on the CAPS resources accessibility and the correct utilisation. However, multiple intelligent classes cannot access the same learning and teaching resources. Such makes it difficult for teachers and learners to effectively utilise the hardware and software resources for positive outcomes. The CAPS workbooks 'Jika imfundo' and PSRIP lesson planners and learner activity books distributed might not be effective in the full-service school.

6.2.7. Notional time allocation

Literature on teaching time indicated that teaching and learning time has been differently allocated for all subjects according to the subjects' weightings and intensities (Davis, 2019; Grussendorff, Booyse, & Burroughs, 2014). The findings from teachers' literature reflected

that teachers used the stipulated time to draw up their timetables and periods of entry per subject. This was conducted per the CAPS-based time allocation which is dominated by the performance-based curriculum. However, curriculum differentiation is dominated by a socially based curriculum, the pace of teaching and learning being determined by learners' cognitive abilities. Teachers thus extend the allocated time to enact differentiated concepts according to the learners' learning abilities; teachers appear to disregard the prescribed time allocation so that they can engage one concept in depth (Davis, 2019; Mabuza & Khoza, 2019; Mazzoni & Cornoldi, 1993). The findings indicated that the time allocation is not sufficient for curriculum-differentiated enactment. Participants therefore expressed their dissatisfaction with the challenges in CAPS content coverage, the effect on outcome attainment and the time management.

6.2.8. Teaching and learning environment

Literature indicated that the teaching and learning environment has a major impact on the quality and positive learning outcome attainments. The learning environment should meet learners' personal and situational characteristics which assist teachers to set curriculum goals according to, amongst others, learners' prior curriculum knowledge, academic abilities, and teaching methods, to enhance positive academic attainments (Bellemare, Naddaf, Veness, & Bowling, 2013; Ledwaba, 2017; MacLeod, Yang, Zhu, & Li, 2018). Literature from the teachers' findings indicated that the CAPS is dominated by the traditional curriculum which is a content-centred learning environment; and activities are homogeneous for all learners. This is in contrast to curriculum differentiation enactment which states that the learning environment must be adapted according to learners' academic needs. Teachers have to strategically adopt approaches from both performance-based (content-centred) and competitive-based (social-centred) curricula to apply inquiry-based activities. Teachers then must be well equipped in activating a learning environment that stimulates learners' active contribution to their teaching and learning while applying the CAPS content.

6.2.9. Assessment

Findings of literature indicate that curriculum outcomes are guided by assessment; hence assessment is the most important part of curriculum differentiation enactment (Dixon-Krauss, 1996; Grussendorff et al., 2014; Parmar & Morris, 2019). The literature has categorised assessment into formative assessment, continuous assessment, and summative assessment. Formative assessment is the evaluation conducted to informally show, among other factors, the learners' academic level, learners' diversity, and learners' personal learning styles. The

formative assessment results inform of the teachers' curriculum goals attainment, the success of instructional methods, success in learning environments decisions, and choice of learning activities. Continuous assessment is the evaluation and reflection conducted after each study unit or theme of study to inform about the effectiveness of enactment, evaluate learner progress throughout the year and identify learner needs and strengths. This assessment is what informs the subject improvement plan as well as the enrichment plan for better outcome achievement during the term of the year. Furthermore, a summative assessment is conducted at the end of the year to measure the level of curriculum attainment against predetermined criteria and grading purposes (Gan, Liu, & Yang, 2017; Wiliam, 2011).

According to the teachers, literature assessments are the key to measuring learners' academic knowledge for lesson instructional purposes, teaching methods, and in setting realistic curriculum goals. Furthermore, the findings reveal that teachers mostly used the formative assessment to set a positive learning environment, to prepare conceptual learning or inquiry-based activities and to prepare learning materials. The findings also indicated that teachers use formal assessments for grading purposes and continuous assessments that inform the strengths and weaknesses of the learning. Teachers could therefore restructure the teaching methods to enhance and enrich learning for better learner knowledge, understanding, and better classroom management. However, according to the participants' literature the CAPS is dominated by a performance curriculum with prescribed content and an allocated time frame, which does not allow time for differentiated assessment methods. Therefore, assessment in curriculum differentiation was not practicalised up to the teachers' level of satisfaction.

6.2.10. Reflection

Findings in the literature indicate that curriculum reflection is a comparison of lesson outcomes attainments, intended content, and enacted content (Dalton, Mckenzie, & Kahonde, 2012; Mpungose, 2020). More literature findings revealed that reflection on the enacted curriculum provides teachers with an opportunity of measuring the effectiveness of instructional methods, lesson activities, and teaching material used (see Adeani, Febriani, and Syafryadin,2020). Furthermore, reflecting teachers can address and contribute to learners' ongoing and evolving knowledge. However, the CAPS as performance-curriculum dominant did not equip teachers with curriculum reflection, the teacher being the centre of all teaching and learning activities. Moreover, knowledge is measured in a hierarchical order of understanding. Literature from the teachers' reflections indicated that the enacted curriculum is developed within the classroom and promotes learners' physical and psychosocial engagement. Therefore, lesson reflection

assists teachers to identify enactment shortfalls, to increase learner intrinsic motivation and promote academic growth by catering to differing learning intelligence. The success of curriculum differentiation enactment is dependent on the teachers' ability to analyse the collected information and take action on what was learned, for the betterment of curriculum enactment.

6.3. Suggestions for Further Research Studies

The following recommendations are suggested for further research:

- Further research must be conducted on the CAPS curriculum differentiation enactment in full-service schools, especially the effectiveness of the content on struggling learners. The enactment approaches, time allocation, and assessment should be considered, so as to transform the level of teachers' differentiation for better curriculum attainment.
- The teachers' findings indicated that the participants had no intense training on curriculum differentiation from their higher level of institution; this was a potential cause of teachers' leniency in applying the differentiation enactment according to the proposed guidelines of curriculum differentiation.
- Another potential study arising from the findings was the influence of the learning environment and the use of a blended learning environment through computer technology, as a positive solution for combatting learners' and teachers' absenteeism.
- The literature review indicated that there are few studies on curriculum differentiation at the high school level and on the level of dropouts of learners from full-service schools.
- Another potential study arising from the teachers' findings was how curriculum assessment is differentiated in the high school exit grade (Grade 12). If the curriculum is differentiated, what is the level of positive outcome attainment at the exit grade?
- Another critical study is the time allocated for curriculum differentiation in multi-intelligence classes against mainstream classes; and the teachers' duty load in a full-service school.

6.4. Responding to the Critical Questions

The response to the questions of what, how, and why teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school is listed below:

6.4.1 What are foundation phase teachers' enactments of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?

The enactment of the curriculum is an active process of content translation and interaction in which the content is transformed into new representational knowledge and understanding. The enactment curriculum can be dominated either by the performance curriculum (vertical discourse) which is the content-centred dominant, or the competence curriculum (horizontal discourse) which is socially-centred dominant, or the differentiated curriculum (ideological discourse) which is personally-centred dominant (Anderson, Dalsen, Kumar, Berland, & Steinkuehler, 2018; Hopkins, 2018; Khoza & Mpungose, 2020b). The content engagement in a full-service school is dependent on the teachers' pedagogy (personal enactment), the CAPS being dominated by performance enactment, and the outcomes-based curriculum being dominated by competence enactment. Teachers rely on their professional understanding of curriculum enactment to craft and establish lesson objectives, and to influence interaction in the class as well as the assessment of learners.

6.4.2. How do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district?

The discussions above have demonstrated that curriculum differentiation enactment has challenged teachers to be fully qualified in translating the prescribed curriculum according to the varying intelligence levels within the class. Moreover, teachers need to integrate the performance and competence curriculum content to afford all learners an opportunity of academic performance development. Therefore, teachers are expected to use multiple enactment strategies, including a qualified assistant teacher for effective curriculum differentiation. Such includes differentiated content goals, a differentiated learning environment, differentiated enactment methods, as well as differentiated assessments according to learners' intellectual abilities. These expectations from the teachers contribute to the ineffective usage of curriculum differentiation enactment.

6.4.3 Why do foundation phase teachers enact curriculum differentiation in particular ways in a full-service school in the Zululand district?

Teachers' enactment of curriculum differentiation in the full-service school is compromised due to challenges in the programmatic, organisational, and administrative responsiveness of the curriculum. The study indicates the challenges causing ineffectiveness in the CAPS curriculum in the full-service school, which explains the reason for poor curriculum coverage. Findings have revealed that inefficient factors of the CAPS differentiation are related to firstly:

programmatic responsiveness, in which teachers experience challenges concerning curriculum aims linked to content reproduction. This is instead of knowledge construction and evolving, as well as time allocation linked to learners' pace and cognitive abilities instead of merely as time stipulated. Moreover, the curriculum has stipulated the amount of content to be covered per week; such enforces more content to learners of varying intellectual levels. Secondly, there is organisational responsiveness, in which teachers were challenged by teaching methodology that linked teachers' interpretation of the performance (written curriculum) and emphasised knowledge transmission, against the reproduction of knowledge (competence curriculum). Thirdly, administrative responsiveness highlighted that teachers were challenged by assessment of learning instead of assessment as learning and assessment for learning (Ajani, 2021; Davis, 2019). Moreover, the teacher's role is seen as a transmitter of knowledge instead of as facilitating learning.

7. Recommendations

This study has revealed the effectiveness of inquiry-based strategies in the enactment of curriculum differentiation in full-service schools. Thus, the following recommendations are hereby presented.

Recommendation 1

The study suggests that the teacher's rationale is the obvious fundamental of curriculum differentiation, the teacher's rationale being dominated by societal and personal content. Moreover, curriculum differentiation is influenced by the teacher's and learners' curriculum enactment in class. Therefore, curriculum differentiation in full-service schools should be dominated by personal rationale. As learning and teaching are influenced by the interaction between the teacher and the learner in class, the study suggests that subject advisors and school management should aid and abet teachers in enacting prescribed curricula based on the learners' conceptual ability. Thus, full-service schools have diverse learners. The study further suggests that teachers be developed on enacting curriculum within the set time without compromising the content.

Recommendation 2

The study recommends that curriculum goals be designed with the learners' diverse needs in mind to aim for a reachable level of outcomes. In other words, teachers should be allowed to set their curriculum goals according to learner diversity and conception abilities. This suggests that curriculum goals should not be standardised. Therefore, the District Based Support Team

(DBST) and the subject advisors should work with the school management to assist teachers in designing curriculum goals that align with the nationally prescribed educational goals. Thus, goals designed by the teachers from the foundation phase (FP) to further education training (FET) may be aligned with one another, leading to a high pass percentage in the exit grade (Grade 12).

Recommendation 3

The study recommends that the Department of Education organise a workshop for full-service school teachers and those at its feeder high schools to capacitate teachers on standard teaching methods from the foundation phase to further educational training. This will assist teachers and learners to similarly engage in depth on relevant curriculum lesson organisations, learning materials, and lesson presentations. Teachers need to have imparted the various skills in curriculum presentation thus addressing diversity in the classrooms. Similarly, the study recommends that the individuality and multiple intelligences of learners be considered in all lesson organisation and presentations. Therefore, teachers must be trained and enabled on inquiry-based lesson organisation and enforcement of various enactment methods with assistance from the subject advisors.

Recommendation 4

For the high performance of learners and better curriculum outcome achievement by teachers and learners, the study recommends that teachers be strategic when enacting differentiated curricula; the teacher's role should be flexible. Within the blended curriculum, the teacher's role can be that of an instructor and where possible, a facilitator. The inquiry-based curriculum gives the teacher freedom to align academic roles based on the lesson activity, allocated time as well as teaching and learning context. The study further recommends that teachers' assistants be offered to teachers in class for class activity enhancement and monitoring.

Recommendation 5

The study recommends user-friendly learning material for easy teaching and demonstration and easy practical and experiential learning. Therefore, teaching and learning support material should be designed and given to each class according to the curriculum enactment needs. The study further recommends the use of technological teaching material to keep teachers abreast of more tailored lesson design and learning enhancement, thus introducing learners to the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) teaching and learning.

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9. Appendices

Appendix A: Ethical clearance letter

UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

27 September 2019

Ms Thandeka Faith Mngomezulu (219095946)
School of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Ms Mngomezulu,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00000400/2019
Project title: Foundation Phase Teachers Enactment of Curriculum Differentiation in a Full Service School in the Zululand District

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application received on 02 September 2019 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**

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

This approval is valid for one year from 27 September 2019.
To ensure uninterrupted approval of this study beyond the approval expiry date, a progress report must be submitted to the Research Office on the appropriate form 2 - 3 months before the expiry date. A close-out report to be submitted when study is finished.

[redacted]

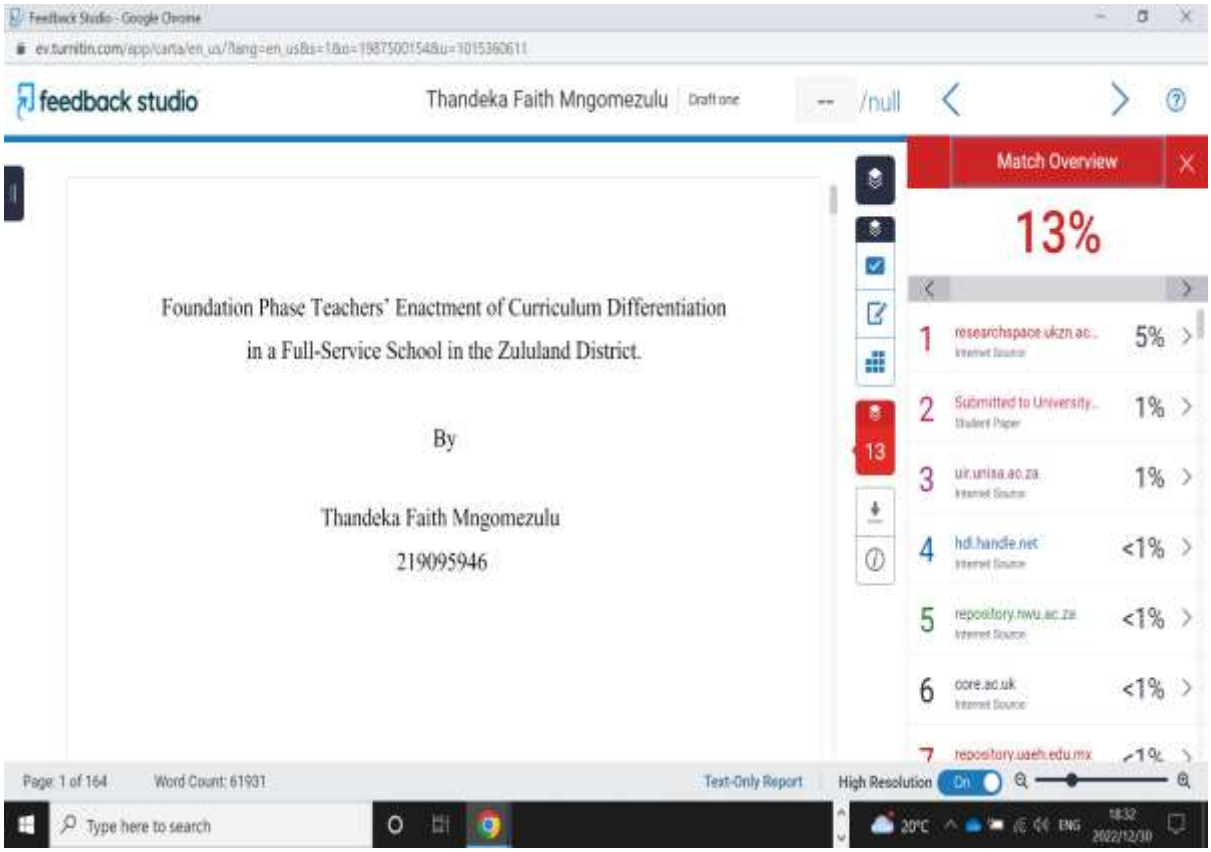
Yours Sincerely

[redacted]

Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)

/ms [redacted]

Appendix B: Turnitin Report



Appendix C: Proofreading Report

Lydia Weight
NTSD English Specialist
SACE No: 11135129

E-mail: lydiaweight@gmail.com

Pinpoint Proofreading Services

40 Ridge Rd
Kloof
Durban
3610
30 January 2023

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I, Lydia Weight, have proofread the document titled: Enactment of curriculum differentiation in a full-service school in the Zululand district, by Thandeka Faith Mngomezulu. I have made all the necessary corrections. The document is therefore ready for presentation to the destined authority.

Yours faithfully

[redacted]

L. Weight