

Mapping the Purposes of Comparative and International Education Research

A comparative study of four leading journals

Stephanie Anne Sell



Master of Philosophy in Comparative and International
Education
Department of Education

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Abstract

In recent years, the field of CIE has experienced an outburst of self-reflective papers wherein comparativists study the nature of the field and map its content. This study contributes to this trend by drawing attention to a previously unstudied aspect of CIE: its purpose. Using theories from Foucault and Bourdieu to understand the formation of a field and its perpetuation, I explain how CIE came to be in its current form. Furthermore, I use this history as a starting point for empirical research, using data from CIE research journals to test whether the pragmatic history of CIE is evident in its current body of research.

Specifically, using Arnone's three purpose dimensions, I create a definitional framework that allows me to map the different purposes of CIE through the study of four journals. Having categorised the purposes of 1,578 research articles from across *Comparative Education (CE)*, *Comparative Education Review (CER)*, *International Journal of Educational Development (IJED)*, and *International Review of Education (IRE)*, I use statistical analysis methods to uncover time series trends, as well as to determine the most prominent research purposes over time. Findings show that the pragmatic aim of CIE dominates, as demonstrated by the high incidence of policy and critical articles. I use the history of CIE to explain this pragmatic trend, as well as to preliminarily predict how the field might look in the near future.

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“This has been a roller coaster” (Sigurd Moskvil Thorsen, CIE graduate 2014).

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List of Acronyms

CE	Comparative Education
CER	Comparative Education Review
CIE	Comparative and International Education
CIES	Comparative and International Education Society
IJED	International Journal of Educational Development
IRE	International Review of Education
IRE_ne	International Review of Education (non-English articles)
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
WCCES	World Council of Comparative Education Societies

1 Introduction

Despite having existed in some form for well over a century, the field of Comparative and International Education (CIE) remains surprisingly difficult to accurately characterise. Considering the number of specialist programmes, publications, and societies representing this education subfield, comparativists have failed as yet to come to any conclusion regarding the nature of the field. There is no commonly agreed upon definition used to answer ‘what is CIE?’ Moreover, it is even more difficult for comparativists to concur about the field’s history. Certain benchmarks are undeniable, but to describe the development of CIE in terms of a linear progression is impossible. Despite these difficulties, the field of CIE manages to survive as a separate subfield of education studies, and, in many parts of the world, even thrives. The reasons for the field’s existence, its power, and its specific shape and nature are the topics of this thesis.

1.1 What is CIE

Disagreements concerning CIE as a field revolve around whether CIE is a discipline, a field, or a method (e.g. Kelly, Altbach, & Arnove, 1982); whether comparative education and international education are two parts of the same whole (e.g. Wilson, 1994); and whether CIE should be defined by its object, purpose, or method (e.g. Arnove, 2007; Cowen, 2009; Manzon, 2011).

I will use the term ‘comparative and international education’ (CIE) instead of ‘comparative education,’ to reflect a personal belief regarding the genetics of the field. Though some scholars view comparative education and international education as separate or “twin” fields (e.g. Bray, 2014; Wilson, 1994), I feel that international education is inherently the starting point for comparative education, especially when viewed for its melioristic or applied purpose, which is also inextricably intertwined with the history of comparative education. I echo Epstein’s (1994) view that the two separate fields of international and comparative education exist in a symbiotic relationship (see also Bray, 2014; Crossley, 1999; Crossley and Watson, 2003). This explanation of CIE is fiercely contested by scholars (e.g. Wilson, 1994). Moreover, ‘comparative education’ and ‘CIE’ are often used interchangeably to refer to the same education subfield, further demonstrating how rare it is for comparativists to agree upon issues relating to their field.

1.1.1 Definitions of CIE

In discussions of CIE's definition as a field, Epstein (1994) made an important designation when he described comparative education as an interdisciplinary field instead of a multidisciplinary one. 'Interdisciplinary' implies the "uniting of several disciplines at a higher level, whereas 'multidisciplinary' refers to the simultaneous but disjointed application of various disciplines/disciplinary approaches" (Jantsch 1972, as cited in Manzon, 2011, p. 180). This specifically introduces both the teleological basis behind comparative education and refers to the idea that the field synthesises the knowledge from various 'extra-educational' disciplines, drawing on their theoretical frameworks and methodologies to address educational issues (Manzon, 2011, p. 172; Kubow and Fossum, 2007). Discourse on the topic of definition has traditionally included all three methods of defining CIE (by object, method, and purpose). Scholars have variously used one, two, or all three methods in an effort to back claims for CIE's status as a distinct science.

Defining CIE by Object

One of the most common means of describing the field of CIE is by its object – education – citing it as a field "devoted broadly to the study of education in other countries" (Kelly, Altbach, and Arnove, 1982, p. 505; Manzon, 2011). This definition is, however, rather vague for an education subfield. Therefore many of the prominent scholars have broken it down further into concrete particulars, allowing for a more substantial characterization of the field's focus point. Generally, comparativists point to the defining objects of CIE as educational systems, policies, processes, and problems (Manzon, 2011). Beyond this, they tend to concentrate on different features of the CIE object: they highlight either the comparativist or the societal relations aspects of the field (Manzon, 2011).

Most recently, Cowen's (2009) 'unit ideas' of education suggest that CIE can be framed by the study of core ideas of education, used to contextualize it throughout its "variegated and apparently discontinuous histories" (Manzon, 2011, p. 164). Cowen's seminal 'unit ideas' are: space; time; the state; educational system; educated identity; social context; transfer; and praxis (2009). Through the use of these 'unit ideas' Cowen contends that comparativists are able to contribute to the study of education in a unique way (2009). Though other definitions of the 'object' of CIE exist, Cowen's has emerged as the most comprehensive analysis, and is therefore the most pertinent. It is difficult, however, to support claims for defining CIE as a

distinct science based solely on its object, even where that object has been systematically characterized; subsequently, most comparativists maintain that true CIE must also entail some sort of comparative element (e.g. Epstein, 1983; Cowen, 2006).

Defining CIE by Method

Having generally agreed upon a common object, many comparativist scholars further argue that CIE must also be defined by its comparative methodology (e.g. Bereday, 1964; Mason, 2008; both as cited in Manzon, 2011). The general thrust of their argument is that, while the defined object of CIE falls “within the scope of education studies as a whole... its unique treatment of this object is through the application of the comparative method” (Manzon, 2011, p. 167).

Though there are many debates within the field regarding whether or not there is any true comparative methodology, the salient parts of defining CIE by its method point to the importance of emphasis on comparison as a differentiating factor between general education studies and CIE (Cowen, 1982, as cited in Manzon, 2011). Where education studies examine educational realities in their abstract, entire form, CIE allows for scholars to understand the impact of time, space, and context on education through the use of comparison (Bray, 2014; Manzon, 2011). Therefore, CIE can be considered distinct both in terms of purpose and in terms of its particular object. Furthermore, through the application of CIE’s method on its specific object, the field contributes unique knowledge to wider education studies, giving it an interdisciplinary higher pursuit (Manzon, 2011).

Defining CIE by Purpose

Though it may be relatively simple to identify a common object and method in the field of CIE, the most significant definitions of the field have all been united by teleology – the doctrine that the existence of a phenomenon may be explained with reference to the purpose it serves (Manzon, 2011). From the very beginning of CIE, scholars have made some reference to the field’s purpose in their definitions (e.g. Jullien, 1817; Sadler, 1900; King, 1965; all as cited in Manzon, 2011). Kandel, for example, explained that the value of using a comparative approach to education is to “discover the differences in the forces and causes that produce differences in educational systems” (1936, p. 406, as cited in Manzon, 2011, p. 173). This

alludes to the most commonly emphasised purpose of CIE – the instrumental – in suggesting that the field’s higher purpose is to contribute useful information about education.

More recently, scholars have attempted to tease out the other principal dimensions that compose the field’s purpose, most notably Arnove (2007). Reviewing their efforts, it is clear that comparativists are able to agree on the existence of at least two main purposes of CIE: one synoptic; and one instrumental (e.g. Arnove, 2007; Crossley, 2008; Klees, 2008; Manzon, 2011). The theoretical or synoptic purpose, though commonly identified as an independent purpose, has been also repeatedly viewed as existing at the service of the instrumental or pragmatic in the case of CIE (e.g. Arnove, 2007; Bereday, 1964, as cited in Manzon, 2011). It is this intersection – that of the theoretical and pragmatic purposes of our field – which is the particular concern of this thesis.

In recognising that a significant portion of the field’s definition is related to its purpose, I intend to explore the relative importance of purpose on the field’s composition both historically and contemporaneously. I hope to point out how the purpose of CIE has been, if not more important than, then at least as important as both object and method in the development and maintenance of the field. I further intend to study how the contemporary research reflects the history of CIE, investigating the ratio between research purposes in journal articles to create a map of the field. First, however, an examination of the current substance of the field is undertaken in order to understand its genetic makeup.

1.2 Empirical Substance of the Field

There are two dimensions constituting the composition of CIE: the intellectual; and the institutional. The current field of CIE is institutionalised in universities and societies, and its intellectual mass is distributed and discussed through the publication of various specialist books and journals (Manzon, 2011). A huge number of CIE histories, both on its intellectual and institutional development, have already been written, which provide an excellent background from which to draw (e.g. Arnove, 2007; Bray, 2014; Crossley and Watson, 2003; Epstein, 1983, Halls, 1990; Kubow and Fossum, 2007; Manzon, 2011). Though this study neither seeks to replicate nor to reiterate these histories, it is important to briefly review how the field’s intellectual mass relates to its empirical substance through a description of its current structure in order to understand the intersection between the two.

The following sections will therefore explore the universities, institutions, societies, journals, and other publications that provide “important indicators of the ‘definition, demand, and supply of comparative education on a world basis’” (Cowen, 1990, p. 322).

1.2.1 Universities and Institutions

The institutional face of CIE is most traditionally linked with that of academic institutions, where coursework and programmes in the CIE field have taken a variety of forms. CIE is either taught as a core or as a serving course, as optional or as compulsory; it can be offered within a specialist programme in CIE, or located within other general or specialist fields (e.g. General Education, Adult Education) (Manzon, 2011). Furthermore, several CIE ‘centres’ exist across the world, which have at least one full-time equivalent faculty member focusing on CIE and at least four graduate level courses relating to the field (Altbach and Tan, 1995). Owing to the diverse history of institutional development internationally, the current status of CIE programmes also widely varies and will be discussed in further detail in Chapter Three.

Several international surveys studying the current course and programme status of CIE within universities have been undertaken at both the international and regional level (e.g. Altbach and Tan, 1995; Halls, 1990; Wolhuter, Popov, Manzon, and Leutwyler, 2008). However, despite these initiatives, scholars appear to be at odds regarding the field’s institutional prospects. Arnove (2007) and Crossley (2000), for example, both suggest that the field is undergoing a resurgence in popularity, whilst Manzon (2011, p. 63) concludes that “the institutional foothold of CIE is generally marginal at universities”. This difference of opinion regarding the current state of the field points to a dearth of sufficient empirical evidence on either side. There is therefore a need for empirically based studies which map CIE (either institutionally or intellectually) to help scholars confirm or deny their views regarding the field’s future.

1.2.2 Societies

Outside of university institutions, academic societies are particularly crucial to the success and stability of scholarly fields, as they “give shape and substance to the links between knowledge formation and knowledge communities (Becher and Trowler, 2001, p. 104, as cited in Manzon, 2011, p. 74). The existence of these societies provides professional recognition, which is especially important for interdisciplinary fields. Both Epstein and

Cowen note the importance of individuals to the continued existence of CIE, as the willingness to advance and talk about the field, as well as to nominally identify with it, is what keeps the subfield alive (Cowen, 1990; Epstein, 2004, as cited in Manzon, 2011).

Luckily, for comparativists and for the field, there exists no shortage of professional societies with which to identify. As of 2014, there are 40 Comparative and International Education Societies comprising the World Council of Comparative Education Societies (WCCES) and several other societies also exist outside this umbrella organisation. The first CIE society, the Comparative and International Education Society (CIES), was established in 1956 in the USA; it continues to have the largest membership of any of the societies (Manzon, 2011). Later organisations have distinguished themselves through either national, regional, or language groupings (Manzon, 2011). However, despite the existence of so many CIE societies, there is a huge disparity between the membership numbers, participation, and intellectual outputs of the groups. Furthermore, it is not necessarily clear whether all members of these societies consider themselves comparativists, or whether they necessarily have any clear notion of the history and nature of the field (Epstein, 2004, as cited in Manzon, 2011). Therefore the existence of professional societies alone cannot guarantee intellectual legitimacy. Instead, this legitimacy relies on the intersection of academic institutions, social networks, and specialist publications to thrive.

1.2.3 Publications

Research and specialist publications represent a significant part of our field's empirical substance. In the case of CIE, specialist publications actually emerged before formal academic programmes, allowing for scholars to begin creating a sense of identity and spurring discursive construction of the field (Manzon, 2011, p. 65). As Epstein significantly observed, "[P]ublications are the lifeblood of all academic fields. Books in comparative education have played an important part in setting the ground for scholarship... Yearbooks and journals have been the principal vehicles for keeping comparativists current on developments in their field" (2008, p. 10, as cited in Manzon, 2011, pp. 64-65).

The field of CIE is home to a large number of these specialist publications. While there may be some question about the current status of academic university CIE, there is no such concern about the expansion of comparativist research. There is a "continuous stream of new publications", in the form of both introductory textbooks and new journals throughout the

world, many of which are being published in local languages (Manzon, 2011, p. 68). Indicative of the interdisciplinary nature of CIE, journals within the field reflect many different specific sub-interests, concentrating on specific educational issues (such as development), or delineating based on geographic unit or a particular methodology. Furthermore, a wide variety of journal sources exist in CIE scholarship. Some are sponsored by professional societies, some are produced by international organisations such as UNESCO, and others are published independently by other bodies.

Where textbooks and encyclopaedias are the backbone of teaching CIE, helping to convey an overview of the field's history and providing new comparativists with a sense of common methodology and nature, journals and yearbooks, in contrast, allow scholars to create and transmit new knowledge (Manzon, 2011). The articles printed in such publications are more focused on topic choice and are more heavily influenced by current events and discursive trends. Therefore, in a sense, the study of journal articles allows scholars to take a 'snapshot' of the beliefs, concerns, and interests of comparativist researchers at a particular moment. Comparing these over time produces a sense of the trends and patterns in CIE discourse.

1.3 The Present Research

My research intends to address how historically contingent power relations have contributed to the development and current form of CIE. Through both a historical discussion and an empirical data analysis, I hope to shed light on issues regarding the field's nature that have not yet been studied. Specifically, I aim to explore the nature of the field's pragmatic aim: how and why CIE developed with this particular purpose, and whether or not the same purpose is reflected in CIE research. This research will hopefully reveal important concepts regarding the field's definition and its empirical substance. In order to do so, I draw on the suggestions of Bourdieu, a French sociologist, for studying a field (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, pp. 104-105):

First, one must analyse the position of the field vis-à-vis the field of power. Second, one must map out the objective structure of the relations between the positions occupied by the agents or institutions who compete for the legitimate form of specific authority of... this field in th(is) site. And, third, one must analyse the habitus of agents, the different

systems of dispositions they have acquired by internalizing a determinate type of social and economic condition, and which find in a definite trajectory within the field under consideration a more or less favourable opportunity to become actualized.

1.3.1 The Research Strategy

Using Bourdieu's guidelines for the study of a field as background, this thesis seeks to address two aspects of CIE: its historical development; and its current body of research. First, it will examine how the historical development of CIE has been influenced by various forces, leading to its present shape and form and addressing Bourdieu's first suggestion (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). These forces, described with help from Foucault, a renowned French philosopher, and Bourdieu, are used to explain what the purpose(s) of CIE have been over time and why. In particular, my discussion of the field's history seeks to explain why one particular aim – the instrumental or pragmatic - has been more prominent than others. I will also include information regarding the current structure of the field, both the intellectual and institutional structures composing it, in order to address Bourdieu's second criteria.

I will then use original empirical research data to explore whether the field's current publications reflect the conclusions from my historical discussion. Specifically, using four of the most prominent CIE specialist journals, I will empirically analyse the field's purpose(s), linking my results to the field's historical development. This is a preliminary and basic attempt to address Bourdieu's final criteria: that of individual agency within the field. I will explain the results of my empirical data in light of the context of CIE history and development. I hypothesise, therefore, that the pragmatic aim of CIE will be most prominent in research, due to reasons explained throughout my historical discussion.

Part One: History and development of CIE

While many previous sources have discussed the history and development of CIE through various lenses, this thesis seeks to interpret the field's history for a unique purpose (see, e.g. Altbach, 1991; Arnove, 2007; Epstein, 2008; Kubow and Fossum, 2007; Manzon, 2011). Through a discussion of Foucault's theory of discourse formation and Bourdieu's field theory, I demonstrate how and why the current field of CIE appears so inclined towards the pragmatic. This discussion is also pertinent for understanding how the field's specialist

publications both reflect and refract discursive trends. An empirical study of CIE research, therefore, allows me to determine whether the purpose(s) of published articles mirror that of the overall field.

Part Two: The empirical meta-research

Where previous research has mainly been dedicated to understanding the epistemological nature of CIE, this study will explore the teleological nature of the field by mapping the purposes of the research. Earlier studies have all been concerned with mapping the content of the field; in contrast, here I use the content of each article to determine its purpose. The articles from four CIE research journals were examined and categorised according to purpose as designated by my research framework which will be discussed in detail in Chapter Two.

Having categorised all articles, I determine what the relative weight of each purpose is over time and journal. In creating a teleological map of the CIE research, I uncover if and how the field's purpose has been changing over time. Due to the nature of the data collection and the statistical analysis, I cannot definitively state why certain changes might have occurred. Instead, I focus on connecting the nature of the field's history with its current body of research in an attempt to link the two and create a better understanding of the field's purpose.

In essence, the empirical research tests the theories about the field's nature as established through my historical discussion. Though specialist publications are, of course, only one aspect of the field's empirical substance, they are a useful tool for discourse analysis and will allow for some basic conclusions relating the research data to the field's historical context. Particularly, I concentrate on the pragmatic history of the field and whether this history is reflected in current research.

Research Questions

The study is guided by the following questions:

Part One – Historical Context:

- What dynamics influencing the field of CIE have contributed to its current shape and form?

Part Two – Empirical Analysis:

- Which CIE purpose is most prominent in the published research of four major comparative and international education journals?
- How has the number of publications by purpose category converged or diverged (or neither) over time?

1.3.2 Outline of the Thesis

Having introduced the field of Comparative and International Education, its definitions, empirical substance, and mass, Chapter Two will introduce a conceptual framework synthesising theories from Bourdieu and Foucault to help explain the influential forces which have created the field, as well as the framework used for the empirical data study. The conceptual framework and analytical framework are discussed in terms of their inter-relation: the theories from Foucault and Bourdieu used to describe the forces influencing the field's history have also helped to frame its various purposes. Chapter Two finishes with a discussion of my own analytical framework which is derived from Arnove (2007) and Manzon's (2011) CIE purpose dimensions, explaining its benefits for my own research.

An analysis of the field's historical development will take place in Chapter Three, helping to establish the different aims of CIE and why one particular purpose has been so predominant. Chapter Four introduces a number of previous meta-research surveys focusing on their strengths and weaknesses, and explaining how my own analysis will fill existing gaps. I then present the research methodology, including data coding and analysis methods and limitations of the research. Chapter Five presents the data derived from the analysis of the four selected journals, while Chapter Six concludes the thesis with discussion and analysis of the findings in light of the research questions and pointing to future areas of research.

2 Constructing the Frameworks for Analysis of the Study

Teleology, the doctrine that design or purpose can explain natural phenomena, has historically been the most prominent approach towards defining CIE. The field's purpose is repeatedly used to explain the uniqueness of CIE (Manzon, 2011). As such, discussing how CIE's main aims have developed over time, as well as what forces have influenced the weight of each purpose, can help to shed light on an explanation or definition of the field itself. It was therefore important to first understand the historical development of the field, as well as defining its purpose, before exploring either topic. In the following sections, the conceptual framework used to explore CIE's history is introduced before discussing the analytical framework used for the empirical data analysis. The chapter also explores how the two frameworks relate and their importance for subsequent analysis.

2.1 Foucault and Bourdieu – A Framework

The purpose and significance of this study is understood based on a framework to contextualise the position of published research within a field. Specifically, Foucault's concept of discourse formation and Bourdieu's field theory are relevant to addressing the creation of knowledge within an academic field (Manzon, 2011). Manzon (2011) draws on both of these theories to address the emergence of the field of CIE and the factors at play in its current development. Her historical account will help us to broadly frame the interaction between forces contributing to the legitimisation of the field. I also utilise the original texts in order to get a clearer understanding of each individual theory.

2.1.1 Discourse Formation

Foucault's view of academic fields, and the knowledge-truth that they embody as discursive formations contingent upon a set of historically-specific power relations, is particularly pertinent to the discussion of the field of CIE (Foucault, 1972; Foucault, 1980). The term discourse, in the Foucauldian sense, applies to "the strategic apparatus which permits of separating out from among all the statements which are possible those that will be acceptable within ... [the] field of scientificity, and, which it is possible to say are true or false"

(Foucault, 1980, p. 197). The veracity or fallacy of these statements is contingent on the power relations at that specific time, and so we see that “truth” in a scientific field is, by Foucault’s definition, reflective of the time during which it is created. Analysing the history of a field helps to demonstrate “how... one particular (discursive) statement appeared rather than another”; it determines conditions under which the discourse exists and fixes its limits (Foucault, 1972, p. 30).

Therefore, broadly speaking, a discursive formation refers to the organisation of such knowledge into a “historically conditioned system of regularity,” namely, into academic fields or disciplines (Foucault, 1972, p. 42). Though the content of such a field may change constantly (through new discoveries, recognition of errors, etc.), the system itself remains stable (Foucault, 1972). This is because the relationship which creates discourse (a set of power/knowledge rules) is a constant (Foucault, 1972). Academic disciplines are thus reflective of and inseparable from the historically-contingent power relations within which they were created, especially within the social sciences where the proximity to social power relations is intrinsic (Foucault, 1972; Manzon, 2011). However, discursive formations are also a ‘power-enabling knowledge,’ and not simply a form of ‘power-enabled knowledge,’ implying that “disciplinary knowledge is... an enabling force for exercising power” (Manzon, 2011, p. 7). Foucault’s description of the power-knowledge dialectic is of key importance to CIE’s development, as it allows us to demonstrate how the field’s discourse at a given time reflects surrounding power relations.

2.1.2 Field Theory

Bourdieu similarly addresses the issue of knowledge creation and its relation to power (1969; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). Specifically, Bourdieu’s field theory (1969) is especially useful for addressing the influence of the individual’s interaction with wider forces of power in an intellectual field. He theorises that every field’s boundaries are dynamic, due to the constant struggle taking place within the field itself, and that there is a ‘critical mediation’ taking place between the individuals within the field and the conditions surrounding it (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992).

The individuals and institutions (agents) within a field are thus defined by their position within it, and subsequently all authority in a field is defined by this relationship (Bourdieu, 1969). Bourdieu posits that these agents must therefore compete for power (capital)

distributed unequally throughout various social positions in order to gain authority and position in their field (Bourdieu, 1969). These individuals struggle for access to specific resources tied to various forms of capital, and the field is thus determined “by the dynamic law of the quest for distinction” (Bourdieu 1977/1972 in Manzon, 2011, p. 29). Each of the various types of capital functions interdependently within the university setting, but contributes unequally to the overall field structure of the intellectual field and is therefore distinguished by different relative ‘functional weight’ (Bourdieu, 1969, p. 105). Positions in the field, also inherently unequal, determine the ability of an individual to gain intellectual legitimacy and are determined by his or her ability to accumulate valued capital, which can then be exercised within the same field (Bourdieu, 1969).

Bourdieu distinguishes between three types of capital within the university: academic power, scientific power, and intellectual power (Delanty, 2001). Academic power refers to the ability to control administrative or academic resources and thus career influence (Delanty, 2001). Capital based in research and scholarly publications is referred to as scientific power. The capability to influence public opinion is defined as intellectual power or renown (Delanty, 2001). These three types of capital are meant to coexist within the university setting, and are necessarily unequal and valued differently. The value of scientific capital is considered to be growing in strength (Crossley, 2000; Cowen 2006). Intellectuals exist only because the value of the intellectual is recognised (in the form of capital) through the existence of a specific intellectual field (Manzon, 2011).

2.1.3 Synthesis of Bourdieu and Foucault

Bourdieu’s description of the interaction between various levels of power, most specifically the “objective macro-structures of power and subjective micro-agency habitus,” is particularly useful in addressing gaps in Foucault’s view of field formation (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 105). Bourdieu’s addition of individual agency allows for a more autonomous intellectual field, as he sees external power structures as being refracted, instead of directly reflected, in the associated field (Bourdieu, 1969). Due to the mediating influence of an individual or institution’s (agent’s) habitus, the field is re-structured, and thus transforms the meaning and value of the external force (Bourdieu, 1969, p. 119).

The synthesis of Bourdieuan and Foucauldian lenses together addresses the “seeming arbitrariness” and “apparently direct mutual influence” with which Foucault seems to view

the relation between historical power relations and knowledge formation (Manzon, 2011, p. 23). This integration also avoids reduction to both the purely mechanistic externalist approach as well as the ‘inter-textual’ or internalist approach by using both the historical contingencies described by Foucault and the forces of agency through Bourdieu’s lens to explain the formation and perpetuation of a field (Manzon, 2011, p. 23). In understanding the power dynamics within and of CIE, specifically regarding the publication of research (as related to scientific capital), the influencing factors surrounding research trends can be better framed. Our research findings can thus be interpreted as reflective of Bourdieuan and Foucauldian dynamics: CIE as a field is reflective both of responses to international trends as explained by Foucault and attempts by individual agents to maintain power in the Bourdieuan sense (Bourdieu, 1969; Foucault, 1972).

2.2 Connecting Context to Data

While Foucault and Bourdieu’s theories are particularly useful for understanding how the field has developed into its current form, they do not necessarily help to specifically conceptualise the various purposes of the field created by these dynamics. Though a discussion of field theory and discourse formation allow us to see ‘why’, they are not particularly helpful in explaining the ‘what’ of CIE. More specifically, the Foucault and Bourdieu framework demonstrates why CIE developed the way that it did, and explains why the field appears in its current form, but does not explain what that current form actually is. In order to truly characterise the field, it is necessary to employ another framework which can be used to describe the field’s genetic makeup.

As mentioned earlier, one prominent means of defining the field is through teleology. Several frameworks exist clarifying ‘what’ CIE is through this approach. These frameworks can also be connected back to Foucault and Bourdieu. The reason behind the emergence of certain purposes and their relative prominence is heavily influenced by the interaction of Foucault’s discourse formation and Bourdieu’s field theory. In the case of CIE, it can demonstrate how historical forces influenced the emergence of a critical dimension, and why the pragmatic aim of CIE has remained so central to its existence.

In the next section two frameworks for discussing purpose in the field of CIE will be presented. These will be used to create an analytical framework for data analysis, as well as to later test how well research reflects theories based on historical context.

2.3 Framing the Purpose of CIE

Though several authors have created a framework to synthesize the field's main purposes, Arnove's introduction to *Comparative Education: The dialectic of the global and the local* (2007) has probably become the seminal work. His proposition of three principal dimensions – the scientific, the pragmatic, and the international/global – has since been widely adapted and utilized. One such adaptation, namely Manzon (2011), synthesized the works of other prominent authors to create her own framework, addressing the strengths and weaknesses of previous approaches. Arnove and Manzon's two frameworks are discussed in detail as they provide the bases for the meta-analysis of published research attempted in this thesis. Furthermore, my statistical analysis and conclusions will re-frame my findings according to these dimensions. This allows for a clearer link between the history of CIE and its current research.

2.3.1 Arnove's Dimensions – scientific, pragmatic, global

Arnove's three dimensions, the scientific, the pragmatic, and the global, resonate with Habermas's three knowledge interests as discussed in *Knowledge and Human Interests*: the empirical-analytical; historical-hermeneutic; and the emancipator (Arnove, 2007; Habermas, 1971). Habermas, a German philosopher, speculated that there are three cognitive areas from which human interest generates knowledge; these three domains determine what is considered knowledge within a field. In particular, knowledge in the natural sciences is empirical-analytical and aims for control through prediction (Habermas, 1971). Historical-hermeneutic interests typify the humanities, and the social sciences are characterised by emancipatory, self-reflective awareness (Habermas, 1971). Arnove draws from all three types of knowledge to create his own CIE purpose category dimensions, and further suggests that these teleological categories of comparative education are closely related and converging over time (2007).

The major goal of *the scientific dimension* is that it contributes to theory building by creating “generalisable propositions about the workings of school systems and their interactions with their surrounding economies, politics, cultures, and social orders” (Arnove, 2007, p. 4). The contributions from this branch of the field allow comparativists to question common assertions and assumptions about relational studies as well as their generalisability (Arnove, 2007). Cross-national, longitudinal, comparative data studies are most commonly included in this category (Arnove, 2007). Earlier, I described this category as the ‘synoptic’ purpose of CIE, and mentioned that, though it is commonly seen as an independent aim, it is also often difficult to distinguish from the instrumental (or pragmatic) purpose of the field as there is a tendency towards viewing the former purpose as existing in service of the latter.

The *pragmatic dimension* of comparative education, according to Arnove, stems from the field’s ‘borrowing and lending’ history (Arnove, 2007, p. 6). This dimension of comparative education primarily includes studying other education systems in order to improve one’s own system (Arnove, 2007). Traditionally, this category has been more historically oriented than the scientific dimension; where the scientific seeks to generalise and theorise, pragmatic research is contextually grounded (Arnove, 2007). Studies categorised in this dimension may thus be single, smaller-unit studies, and will likely include historical methods.

The *global dimension*, as defined by Arnove (2007), contributes to international understanding and peace. Arnove emphasises its significance and its growing importance in recent years, as well as its under-utilisation (Arnove, 2007). The study of world-systems analysis is particularly pertinent to this dimension, as well as macrostudies of education and the international forces influencing education systems and their interaction with the dynamics of economic development (Arnove, 2007). In short, this dimension emphasises the influence of transnational forces and actors on education, and attempts to contribute to resolving the existing tensions (Arnove, 2007).

2.3.2 Manzon’s Dimensions – theoretical, pragmatic, critical

In Manzon’s 2011 discussion of comparative education’s teleology, she refines Arnove’s framework, synthesising it with views from Martínez (2003, in Manzon 2011), eventually creating three dimensions – the theoretical, pragmatic, and critical/emancipatory – which also “echo the three cognitive interests of Habermas”, albeit with a slightly different interpretation than Arnove (Habermas, 1971; Manzon, 2011, p. 173).

After a brief historical survey of the field's teleological definitions by prominent authors, Manzon concludes by underlining Arnove's first two dimensions, i.e. the scientific and the pragmatic (2011). Though she renames Arnove's scientific dimension 'the theoretical', its characterization remains the same. Furthermore, she similarly notes the interconnected nature of the two purposes (Manzon, 2011).

In place of Arnove's global dimension, Manzon proposes a critical purpose, which offers a critical interpretation of educational issues. In this sense, she suggests that comparative education is meant to be emancipatory, and should offer "checks and balances...which warn against proposed courses of action based on models superficially observed elsewhere" (Phillips and Schweisfurth, 2006, p. 19, as cited in Manzon, 2011, p. 175). This dimension is meant to echo Bourdieu's description of the autonomy of the intellectual field and its ability to refract external social power and "transform its objects of knowledge into objects of critique" (Manzon, 2011, p. 175). This dimension, too, is often linked with the melioristic purpose of comparative education.

2.4 Re-imagining a Framework for Application

It was not possible to apply Manzon or Arnove's three purposes directly to a categorisation of published research articles because of their vague descriptions and interconnected nature, which made it difficult to accurately determine an article's purpose. Rarely did I encounter an article that fit directly into the established definition of 'theoretical, pragmatic, OR critical'. Instead, quite often, articles fit into several categories or could not be readily categorised at all. It is likely that these definitional difficulties are the reason for the current lack of any similar survey of the research. Clearly it is much more straightforward and simple to categorize according to the articles' content (level of analysis, methodology, etc.) as has been done previously. In Chapter Four, earlier meta-research will be presented in order to better understand the lacuna addressed by this thesis. As I discovered, it may be necessary for meta-researchers to develop an alternative framework when researching the purpose and definition of the field.

Along these lines, I developed my own framework for this thesis' meta-research, using Arnove (2007) and Manzon's (2011) principal dimensions as an excellent starting point. Arnove himself describes the role of the scientific dimension as "central to the pragmatic and

ameliorative thrust of the discipline: to improve educational policy and practice” (Arnové, 2007, p. 8). When defined in this way, the two dimensions are intertwined and difficult to separate. Therefore, it was necessary to isolate the salient points of each dimension to allow for easier data categorisation. Though their categorisations proved too vague for direct application, the concepts inherent within the definitions were easily extracted.

In this vein, I attempted to determine the main points underlying the field’s purposes in order to make them applicable to the published research. Next, I describe my purpose categories and demonstrate how these relate to Arnove (2007) and Manzon’s (2011) definitions, in order to better explain the genetic makeup of the field in generalisable, well-recognised terms.

2.4.1 A New Interpretation of the Field’s Dimensions – theory, general knowledge, context, policy, critical

The following dimensions were extracted from the salient points of Manzon (2011) and Arnove’s (2007) definitions, but are more clearly distinguishable from each other and therefore allow for a simpler categorisation process, as well as a more straightforward analysis. The categories are discrete and exhaustive; no categories overlap and together they represent a complete classification of all possible purposes in CIE research.

The first of the new categories was labelled ‘*theory*’, and its intended purpose was to encompass all articles dealing directly with pure theoretical discussion. This included articles on specific educational theories (e.g. learner-centred pedagogy), on theories influencing education (such as world systems theory), and the saliency of these theories either in practice or hypothetically. The creation of this category allowed me to clearly isolate CIE research publications which could be related to Cowen’s suggested ‘pure’ strand of the field (2006). Furthermore, I could more easily identify the historical trends surrounding this strand, and determine its relative strength over time in relation to other categories of purpose.

The second category created was termed ‘*general knowledge*’, (shortened to ‘general’ during coding exercises) and included studies that create generalisable propositions about educational knowledge. Articles in this category might, for example, include studies based on cross-national statistics to create a generalisable conclusion regarding which conditions influence maths scores. This purpose resonates with Arnove and Manzon’s scientific/theoretical category, and retains the same overall definition.

‘*Context*’, the third category, identifies studies that discuss educational concepts within their historical contexts. Articles included in this group contribute to common knowledge on a specific topic, describe the cause of phenomena within their contexts, and provide detailed information on a particular organization, society, people, or system. These articles include studies into gender equality in Pakistani rural primary schools or the transition process from education to employment in Japan, for example.

The general knowledge and context categories have taken the salient overlapping points from Arnove’s third category (global understanding) and first category (scientific/theoretical) and extracted them into either general educational phenomenal knowledge or deep contextual awareness (2007). In some cases, articles use deep contextual knowledge to create generalisable propositions about education; these articles would therefore be classified as both ‘general’ and ‘context’. An example of such an article is a study of youth identities in Palestine to create a generalisable understanding of citizenship identity formation in conflict situations. Research within both the ‘context’ and ‘general’ categories is not prescriptive. These articles are simply intended to inform the readership and improve overall knowledge for its own sake.

As the field of CIE has been widely described as pragmatic and necessarily prescriptive, the fourth category identified for this framework was termed ‘*policy*’ (see, e.g. Kandel, 1936; King, 1965; Holmes, 1971; all as cited in Manzon, 2011; Arnove, 2007). This category provides solutions intended to inform theory and policy: suggestions on ideal paths of education systems, on applications of specific educational assumptions; and on reforms for existing programs and policies. These articles generally draw on lessons learned from specific cases (context), or from cross-national studies (general) to make suggestions for the future. An article that discusses adult education in Malta, showing the potential of implemented policies, how these might be replicated, and why they proved successful, would fall under the “policy” category as well as under “context”. The melioristic purpose in Arnove’s pragmatic dimension is extracted to this category, allowing a clearer distinction between articles that only describe phenomena within their contexts (now only labelled ‘context’) and those that describe (‘context’) in order to prescribe (‘policy’).

The final category in my research framework is termed ‘*critical*’. This category reflects Manzon’s final dimension and similarly warns against specific paths and trends, whilst also representing a slightly different aim of prescriptive (and therefore pragmatic) research (2011).

Articles included in this category caution both against possible futures and advise against repeating mistakes from past occurrences. In some cases, ‘critical’ articles might address existing educational phenomena. In others, they critique the application of educational theory. This might entail a discussion of how a policy has had unintended consequences; for example, how rural education reform efforts are negatively affecting the quality of education in the Tibetan highlands (both ‘context’ and ‘critical’). Research categorized as ‘critical’ thus identifies articles that have a specifically analytical and unfavourably judgmental stance. This research is intended to inform policy, but in the sense that it enables emancipatory and transformative reform. It is therefore still considered pragmatic in the sense that it is prescriptive, but in a different manner than the *policy* category.

In creating the abovementioned categories, I was able to distinguish between types: both general knowledge and context may imply the creation of knowledge for knowledge’s sake (scientific as opposed to pragmatic), but are vastly different in terms of their approach. Furthermore, the discussion of pure educational theory can be readily distinguished from the other purposes of CIE. Lastly, the policy and critical dimensions are not mutually exclusive: articles often describe an ideal case and follow it with a comparison of a case in dire need of assistance or transformation. By utilising these five categories as an extrapolation of the concepts behind previous definitions of the field’s purpose, I was more easily able to demonstrate the true variety of purpose within the published research.

From the examples provided, it can be seen that very few articles fall under only one independent purpose category; in most cases, articles are members of more than one category. However, the approach allowed me to see how often the categories existed independently of each other, as well as which combinations of categories were most common. This in turn allowed me to better address my research questions.

2.4.2 Benefits of the Approach

Utilising the new framework in my research led to several benefits in terms of its application. Firstly, articles were much more easily defined and identified according to the new categories, as they did not overlap. Secondly, this approach allowed me to more clearly label the different, more specific purpose(s) of each article and therefore should allow for a better and clearer understanding of the purpose of the field. Where several different types of articles would have previously fallen under the ‘theoretical’ category, I was now able to differentiate

between purely theoretical and scientifically generalisable studies, allowing for the authors' true purposes to become more evident.

Furthermore, a clearer data analysis method allowed me to better test whether the research is truly reflective of Foucauldian and Bourdieuan trends. By more clearly separating the purposes of CIE research, I was better able to see which purposes are more predominant, which are less strongly represented, and which most often appear independently. For instance, finding an article that represents only the 'theory' purpose of my framework is significant; an author's choice of topic is reflective of an intention to seek or maintain power (capital) in the Bourdieuan sense as well as a relation to the Foucauldian knowledge-power contingencies. The inclusion of such an article in a journal also sheds light on what is considered important knowledge at a specific time and demonstrates what type of knowledge is being given 'capital'. I am thus hypothesising that purely 'theoretical' articles will be least represented, whilst articles relating to the policy and critical dimensions might be most common, as they are prescriptive and thus deeply related to the field's pragmatic history.

Additionally, the discovery that Arnove and Manzon's dimensions were more or less inapplicable to a categorization of research was an important finding in itself. In particular, Arnove's three purposes have been widely used to define the field since they were published in 1999. However, to my knowledge, no one has yet attempted to actually apply these purposes to a cataloguing of the existing research. Through my research I determined that this established definition may not be conducive to application in empirical research and new approaches should be considered.

Having identified a lacuna in the field and creating a suitable framework for both the historical and empirical analysis, the remainder of this thesis is dedicated to addressing the purpose of CIE. Through an examination of its historical context and its current research, as well as the interaction between the two, this thesis provides unique insight into the nature of the field. First, we therefore turn to the development of the CIE field in order to begin exploring how Foucauldian and Bourdieuan forces influenced its creation and progression.

3 Historical Development of CIE Field

In order to truly understand recent changes in the field, and how the field might be different in the future, I first explore why and how CIE developed into its current form. This includes exploring why the field's first scholars utilised a comparative and international approach to education, why it gained prominence, why it continues to be in use today, and what are its strengths, weaknesses and accompanying characteristics. Through a deeper understanding of the field's history and its nature, its future might be better determined, including some of the challenges posed by concerned comparativists. These concerns, including whether or not there might be a 'weakening' or decline in the independence of the field (Manzon, 2011; Tikly and Crossley, 2001), will be discussed at the end of this chapter.

3.1 History of CIE

Although comparativist scholars do not all agree on one account of the field's development, particularly when it comes to epistemological stages or its linearity, certain commonalities exist throughout their accounts (e.g. Epstein, 1983; Paulston, 1994). The first and most significant of these commonalities is that, by its very definition, CIE is international and thus heavily influenced by global trends in scholarship and research (Altbach, 1991; Kubow and Fossum, 2007). For this reason, the boundaries and definitions of the field have been reshaped by worldwide historical forces throughout the past two centuries, most especially by the changes in knowledge conception and educational policy (Nóvoa and Yariv-Mashal, 2003). The research, therefore, reflects trends in other disciplines, whilst also refracting and reshaping them.

The field's canon is reflective of the changing socio-political and economic atmosphere within which comparative education has developed, and can be attributed as well to its very nature as an interdisciplinary field, synthesising information from various disciplines and the agents of varied backgrounds. Though both the intellectual and institutional development of CIE has been equally influenced by these outside forces, they have worked through slightly different means. Despite differences in development, both strands of CIE expansion have been significantly affected by the importance of pragmatism, namely that the function of thought is to guide action. Specifically, in the case of CIE, this has meant that the field has been inextricably linked with a melioristic purpose.

In order to further explore the field, we will next discuss the intellectual history of CIE, concentrating on the agents of authority, their primary intentions, and the epistemological outcomes of these influences.

3.1.1 Intellectual CIE

The main paradigms in today's comparative education were all introduced early into the field by various scholars. The publication of the *Esquisse et vues préliminaires d'un ouvrage sur l'éducation comparée* and the introduction of the positivist science of describing educational systems in other countries by Marc-Antoine Jullien, a French revolutionary and diplomat, in 1817, is often seen as the 'founding' of comparative education (Altbach, 1991; Cowen 2000; Epstein, 2008; Kubow and Fossum, 2007). The objective of this work was to collect data from European states regarding their institutions and methods of education for the purpose of comparison and with the intended support of the state (Manzon, 2011).

Contrastingly, Ushinsky's 1857 essay, *National Character of Public Education*, introduced the relativist strand of thinking into comparative education, as the aim of his paper was "to 'understand in a sympathetic spirit' a foreign system of education in order to understand more deeply our own education" (Epstein, 2008, as cited in Manzon, 2011, p. 130). Despite its relativist character, the underlying emphasis of the comparativist approach remained pragmatic, as the idea behind his work was to help Russia understand and improve its own education system.

Wilhelm Dilthey in Germany laid the foundations for the middle ground in this epistemological debate, with his introduction of what Epstein (2008, p. 377) calls 'historical functionalism'. This blend of positivism and realism was later used by Kandel, one of the first famous proponents of this view, to stress that "cross-national comparisons are possible and potentially valuable," emphasising that the pragmatic purpose of comparative education is possible in every strand of the field (Kandel, 1933/1955, as cited in Epstein, 2008, p. 379).

Based on these three epistemological strands, comparative education as a field mushroomed in the mid-twentieth century, both intellectually and institutionally. It continued to have practical and ideological concerns aimed towards serving national interests and improving one's own education system through the understanding of 'the other' (Bray, 2014; Cowen, 2000; Kubow and Fossum, 2007). Positivism and the related structural-functionalism were,

therefore, particularly dominant in the early years of comparative education, as they were reflective in the Foucauldian sense of the pragmatic use of the field during this time.

The instrumental focus of the field was dominant and firmly established by the late 1960s. It provided aid agencies, amongst others, with the expertise needed to promote education for development in the 'Third World' (Altbach, 1991; Bray, 2014). Comparativists were crucial partners in the implementation of these programs, which also contributed to the institutional development of the field. This pragmatic interest has remained one of the dominant influences throughout the entirety of comparative education's development.

Throughout the 1960s, changing paradigmatic views in outside fields such as sociology, with which comparative education is inextricably linked, brought with them an influx of criticisms to the "orthodoxy" of the 1950s and 1960s, and created instead a "heterodoxy" which allowed for more "radical counterparts" (Paulston, 1994). A number of alternative methods and approaches emerged, albeit with some time lag, in the social sciences and comparative education, including neo-Marxist conflict theory and radical humanism, as well as more qualitative research (Altbach, 1991; Bray, 2014; Manzon, 2011).

This change also marked a broad focus and a widening of accepted methodologies, which contributed to the rather vague boundaries delineating the comparative education field (Altbach, 1991). This heterodoxy did not imply a rejection of the practical or pragmatic view of comparative education in favour of the theoretical or international, but should rather be seen as an expansion of the pragmatic to encompass a more 'transformative' function. In fact, political and economic developments of the 1980s and 1990s brought 'applied comparative education' back into focus, as can be seen in its institutional development (Bray, 2014).

3.1.2 Institutional CIE

The establishment of the intellectual and institutional forms of the field, while interrelated, do not necessarily imply or justify one another's legitimacy (Manzon, 2011). The same socio-political forces which contributed to a dynamic, interdisciplinary, intellectual field also shaped the institutional establishment of comparative education since this was contingent on historical circumstances and power relations, in both the Foucauldian and Bourdieuan senses. Just as comparative education should be comfortable in its own intellectual legitimacy, it

should be equally comfortable in its institutional establishment and legitimacy (Cowen, 2009; Wolhuter et al., 2008).

Manzon suggests that comparative education was initially constructed on weak intellectual legitimacy but strong institutional power (Manzon, 2011). As the field is highly sensitive to epistemic transformations and the interactions between local and international politics and the agents involved, these forces have been especially powerful in the creation of institutional comparative education (Bray, 2014; Cowen, 2009; Manzon, 2011).

The institutional establishment of comparative education is widely viewed to have begun with James Russell, who created the first regular university course in the subject at the Teachers College, Columbia University in 1899 (Wilson, 2003). Almost simultaneously, in 1905, Isaac Kandel began teaching a similar course at Manchester University in England (Manzon, 2011). Additionally, the publication of various journals in comparative education in different parts of the world, beginning with China in 1901 and Germany in 1931 were clear beginnings of the institutional side of the field (Wilson, 2003).

Nevertheless, comparative education cannot be seen to have a distinct institutional identity as a field until the 1950s, when the first formal academic programmes expanded, specialist graduate programmes were put in place, and the CIES was established in the USA in 1956 (Manzon, 2011; Wilson, 2003). This development was heavily dependent on a specific discursive formation existent at the time which allowed it to coalesce, from a Foucauldian perspective, as the interaction of political, economic, and intellectual discourses formed around “specific institutions, disciplines, commentaries of texts and social practices,” allowing CIE discourses to solidify institutionally (Manzon, 2011, p. 6). More specifically, the nature of the power relationships surrounding education at the time defined the limits for CIE discourse; the knowledge and truth embodied in CIE at its conception is reflective of the power structures of the post-World War II era (Foucault, 1972).

The development of international organisations and the discourse of internationalism after World War II formed a frame within which comparative education was most easily able to institutionally establish itself. The foreign policies of industrialised countries (especially the United States, Canada, Germany, the United Kingdom, and Japan) involved considerable foreign aid to the ‘developing world’ as well as domestic educational reform policies which encouraged the cross-national comparison of education systems (Bray, 2014; Manzon, 2011).

The opportunity for political capital in this context was particularly relevant to comparativists, and the pragmatic contribution of the field to education and development within this wider field of power contributed substantially to its growth (Bray, 2014; Manzon, 2011).

During this time, those countries particularly active in international development assistance provided a structural opportunity by creating a “social demand for comparative work and with it, the necessary funding for research and teaching and foreign study visits, and opportunities for international agency work” (Manzon, 2011, p. 114). This provided the opportunity, in the Bourdieuan sense, for individuals to expand the field.

These historical contingencies, especially as related to the Cold War and internationalist and interventionist aims, were particularly influential in both the creation and form of comparative education. Though this alignment of policies did not directly translate into an interference with the ‘programming’ of comparative education per se, which could be understood as evidence of Bourdieu’s ‘refraction’ over ‘reflection’ theory, the theoretical purpose of the field became dominated by its pragmatic, and (in early years) specifically interventionist purpose, as an expression of the discourse within which it was operating (Bray, 2014; Manzon, 2011, p. 124). Thus, the institutional establishment of CIE became inextricably linked with its ‘applied’ purpose, perhaps to the detriment of the theoretical and ideological ones.

3.2 Nature of the Field

Beyond giving the field a ‘higher purpose’, the interdisciplinary nature of comparative education has also shaped it, and contributed to the widely held sense that the field lacks a distinct epistemological centre (Altbach, 1991; Kubow and Fossum, 2007; Manzon, 2011; Manzon and Bray, 2008). The evolution of the field from various disciplinary sources contributes also to the field’s sense of fluidity and flexibility, as it is responsive to trends within multiple political and economic fields (Bray, 2014; Manzon, 2011). Thus, in Bourdieuan terms, the field’s agents are reacting to opportunities and constraints which vary widely within the landscape of the comparative educations, and thus continue to contribute to the field’s somewhat unclear empirical substance.

Considering the lack of clear boundaries around the field, it is not surprising that academics continue to ask ‘what is comparative education?’ (e.g. Carnoy, 2006; Bray, 2007; Klees 2008;

Kubow and Fossum, 2007). This confusion underlies the continuing doubt regarding the field's legitimacy. The uncertainty concerning the field's academic boundaries is reflective of CIE's nature as an interdisciplinary field (Bourdieu, 1969). This sentiment is a common feature of comparative fields, especially when their identities are being contested by other neighbouring fields (Manzon, 2011). Despite this, there is a recognisable corpus or canon within CIE which defines its issues, theoretical frameworks, praxis, and methodologies (Manzon, 2011; Tikly and Crossley, 2001).

Being closely related to globalisation, CIE has been shaped, in Foucault's discursive sense, by its major trends. Intellectually, the discourse utilised by comparativists in education has widened considerably as studies on globalisation and the nation-state have been added (e.g. Dale, 1999, as cited in Crossley, 2000; Green, 1997) to those already firmly established within the field. Theoretical developments in sociology and other fields, such as feminist thinking, philosophical theology, etc., were incorporated into the interdisciplinary field of CIE, leading to what Paulston termed an era of 'heterogeneity' (Cowen 2006; Paulston 1994, p. 923). This widening of the discursive part of the field has continued CIE's legacy of dynamism and perceived instability, as it has become increasingly difficult to trace the field's linear development (Bray, 2014; Crossley, 2000; Cowen 2006; Kubow and Fossum, 2007). However, despite this 'widening', certain discursive tendencies are visible in comparative education, reflective of knowledge-power relations, which give comparative education its current form and cause challenges to its future from within.

The epistemological core of CIE has been thoroughly examined through meta-research, in which comparativists 'research the research' to determine which methodologies, themes, paradigms, etc. are most common in specific CIE journals (e.g. Foster, Addy, and Samoff, 2012; Koehl, 1977; Wolhuter, 2008). Through this type of research, scholars have been able to come to similar conclusions about the nature of the field and its genetic makeup over time: its boundaries are dynamic, influenced by an increasing number of fields and disciplines, and reflective of a unique flexibility. This specific type of research will be further discussed in Chapter Four as it is relevant to this thesis. Its existence and more importantly its recent increase points to a self-reflective trend in CIE, wherein comparativists discuss the nature of the field, and, especially since the onset of the new millennium, its future.

3.3 Future of the Field

In recent years, several authors have published papers discussing their views on the future of CIE (e.g. Cowen, 2006; Crossley and Watson, 2003; Dale, 2005). Their work has tended to be either hopeful (Dale, 2005) or concerned (Cowen, 2006). In general, comparativists have been increasingly interested in how the growth of technology, globalisation, and marketisation will influence the field. Owing to its interdisciplinary, international nature, scholars either fear for the absorption of CIE into other education subfields (Tikly and Crossley, 2001) or tout its increased potential (Dale, 2005). The next sections discuss these hopes and fears in order to set the stage for my thesis research.

3.3.1 The Potential of Comparison

The increasing emphasis within the globalised world system on measurements, indicators, and standardisation allows for the introduction of ‘comparison’ as a politically legitimate part of international educational discourse. The call for an internationalisation of curricula and the increasingly diverse student population implies a need for international comparison and contextual understanding, all of which lies within the field of comparative education (Altbach, 1991; Bray, 2007; Bray, 2014; Kubow and Fossum, 2007; Nóvoa and Yariv-Mashal, 2003; Tikly and Crossley, 2001). Watson, quoting Heyneman, a former World Bank economist, asserts that the comparison between nations with an eye towards educational competitiveness and improvement has led to “a new era in which all countries are borrowers and all are donors”, and that this is the best argument in favour of comparative education studies (1999, p. 236). It also serves to emphasise the pragmatic function of CIE, and demonstrates how this particular aim of the field might possess the most potential - in the Bourdieuan capital sense - for its researchers, academics, and scholars.

Another strength of comparative education within a globalising world system is its history of connection with national governments, especially as regards the field’s study of national education systems. Historically, CIE has promoted as well as assumed the nation-state as its main unit of analysis, and thus of prescription (Dale, 2005). Despite the increased emphasis on the ‘transnational’ and ‘international’, its focus remains largely on the relationships between and across nations (Dale, 2005, p. 125; Kubow and Fossum, 2007). Though criticisms can be made about the nature of this focus, many scholars believe that nation-states are and will remain the main unit of measurement, as they are still the most active agents in promoting and setting the goals of transnational organisations (Dale, 2005; Green, 1997;

Meyer, Boli, Thomas, and Ramirez, 1997). They also believe that, despite an institutionalisation of particular trends, nation-states will continue to be the main bodies to make decisions about educational reforms, though their decisions are heavily influenced by a dynamic discourse between the global and the local (Arnové, 2007; Dale, 2005; Green, 1997; Meyer et al., 1997). CIE research, with its emphasis on comparison, is consequently a useful tool for addressing cross-national educational concerns.

Educational researchers in CIE are therefore uniquely situated to addressing the changing needs of the education community, as the field's methodologies and interests have always been attuned to the international. Kubow and Fossum (2007) also advocate the marketing of CIE towards teachers, as well as the already established agents – scholars and policymakers – in order to expand the field both institutionally and intellectually. This emphasises how the pragmatic aim of CIE should be seen as its main strength: CIE research and knowledge is valuable to the marketised, internationally comparative world in which we currently live.

However, despite the opportunity for CIE to provide research for educational change, the term 'comparison' remains largely a "flag of convenience, intended to attract international interest and money", resulting in "a 'soft comparison' lacking any solid theoretical or methodological grounds" (Bray, 2014; Nóvoa and Yariv-Mashal, 2003, p. 425). A global trend seems to have emerged, in which comparative approaches are politicised and legitimised by their ability to find 'evidence' for political action. These comparative approaches largely take place outside of the established CIE field (Bray, 2014; Cowen, 2006; Crossley and Watson, 2003; Nóvoa and Yariv-Mashal, 2003). In spite of this challenge, CIE remains uniquely posed to offer insight into important political and economic issues in education – assuming it asserts its ability to lay claim to these highly valued forms of capital.

3.3.2 Potential Concerns

Assuming that pragmatic CIE represents the part of the field with more potential for capital (as economic capital is more valued in today's society than academic and social capital), Manzon argues that the survival of the academic field rests on the institutions' ability to "demonstrat(e) their usefulness" (Manzon, 2011, p. 63). Educational policy, influenced as always by the shifts in economic and social policy, is now heavily influenced by the "shift of interest to marketable skills...mak(ing) interdisciplinary fields such as comparative education less attractive to students" (e.g. Dey-Gupta, 2004; Ocheng Kagoire, 2008; Raivola, 2008;

Sutherland, 2007; all as cited in Manzon, 2011, p. 51). The value of certain education fields has shifted from having political and intellectual value to an economic value. Establishing the logic of CIE in Bourdieuan terms has perhaps become more difficult when it does not emphasise its pragmatic purpose (Manzon, 2011).

All three types of capital within the university setting are influenced by this trend. Scientific capital, gained from the publishing of research papers, is deeply intertwined with funding, and therefore connected to the trends in international and aid organisations which are most likely to fund large-scale, statistics-based research (Samoff, 2007). Intellectual capital is gained from influencing public opinion, which is also aligned towards the same pragmatic trends. Academic capital in most cases is also extremely connected to scientific capital: most universities require their academics to publish in order to maintain their positions. It is therefore in this sense that scientific capital has become the most highly valued. When scientific capital is driven by economic outputs and marketisation, the intellectual and academic forms will be as well. In this sense, the pragmatic aim of CIE has greatly influenced the power dynamics within university settings and research.

Tikly and Crossley (2001) have raised concerns about a blurring of boundaries in respect to institutional CIE. They discuss the dichotomous possibilities of two futures for CIE – specialisation or integration – and contend that it is crucial for comparativists to seriously reconsider a transformational reconceptualisation of CIE teaching. Though their prescription pertains mostly to the transformation of university management and the creation of a ‘learning organisation’ rather than to a reconceptualisation of the CIE field itself, it points to a feeling of necessary change and a need to be more effective in order to survive (Tikly and Crossley, 2001). They also point to an increasing tendency to internationalise education studies curricula in general due to market pressures, which in turn causes increased funding competition for CIE programs (Tikly and Crossley, 2001).

In this light, Cowen (2006, p. 570) specifically suggests that CIE should adopt a separate subfield of study, ‘applied comparative education’, in the same way that pure mathematics and applied mathematics relate to each other. This, he asserts, would allow one strand of researchers to concentrate upon investigating policy knowledge and ‘action upon the world’ whilst the other strand could dedicate itself to ‘theoretical comparative thinking’ (Cowen, 2006, p. 570). In this way, theoretical CIE would be free of the constraints imposed by

seeking funding, as well as from the influences of international policy organisations and their aims.

I would argue, however, that the field's main strength lies in its pragmatic application and the power derived from it in a societal system that values economics first and foremost (Bray, 2014; Manzon, 2011). While the goal of retaining both the strand of CIE that deals with theoretical thinking as well as the "tradition of 'comparative education' as a social movement, as a set of possibilities for action-on-the world" is admirable and to be strived for, it ignores the Bourdieuan aspect of the field's institutional establishment and stability. The success of CIE as a separate field in future institutions depends on the existing institutional culture and its relation to the dominant world culture. Thus, we will next turn to the connection between research and institutional and intellectual CIE to consider the field's future, and how CIE research is meeting these challenges.

3.3.3 Funding and Research

The revitalisation of CIE at present appears to have a research orientation, reflective of the existence of a major international educational industry (Crossley, 2000; Cowen, 2006). This requires the establishment of institutions and related training initiatives to supply the international reports and data needed to promote the associated discourse, necessitating an equally large number of consultants in the related field (Crossley, 2000; Cowen, 2006). These consultancies are not only associated with 'independent' comparativists, but are also increasingly important for academics, as universities increasingly expect and often require consultancy work both for an individual's income generation and promotion in rank (Cowen, 2006; Samoff, 2007). The growth of comparative and international education in the South, and particularly Africa, is inextricably intertwined with development agency initiatives in these nations and their research-based involvement (Crossley, 2000).

There is, therefore, no obvious separation between education, politics, and power, especially when research requires funding for its existence. Power shapes development and practice of knowledge (Marginson and Mollis, 2001). Citing research support is essential for the entirety of education and development assertions (Samoff, 2007). Conversely, any policy proposals or critiques that are unable to or do not cite research for support quickly lose credibility and are thus ignored (Samoff, 2007). Presently, a large percentage of research in education is large-scale, funded by governments and international agencies, with a focus on cross-country data

collection. A pertinent example of cross-national research, which has been increasing in prominence since its first survey in 2000, is the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Such large-scale research is often considered the most relevant method for assessing learners' performance, and thus has direct consequences for how education policies are conceived and enacted. As a result, education researchers must provide information that is similarly 'robust and relevant' for policy-makers in order to secure funding (Ozga et al., 2006, as cited in Cowen 2006, p. 562; Marginson and Mollis, 2001; Samoff, 2007). This naturally leads towards the dominance of a specific type of comparative research (pragmatic), which, in turn, is part of the discursive formation of the field from which it emerged.

Recognising the influence of funding and the quest for legitimacy in power as described by Bourdieu, it is not particularly surprising that independent research outside of policy requirements is now much less common (Marginson and Mollis 2001; Samoff, 2007). The implication of this is significant, especially when the organisations funding the education research are mostly grounded in the neo-liberal and Western social models, which include an English-language background and educational practises heavily influenced by the United States (Marginson and Mollis, 2001). Within the world system where these organisations, and also Western bilateral aid agencies, hold considerable weight, the research emerging will reflect the knowledge inherent in that system and perpetuate it (Kubow and Fossum, 2007; Samoff, 2007). Meyer et al. (1997) discuss this concept in detail through their development of world systems theory positing that there has been an institutionalisation of a specific world culture (predominately based in Western ideology) which is impacting the organisation of nation-states, non-governmental organisations, and other actors through certain processes of diffusion. It is this process that has caused such significant consequences for diversity within academic research.

Comparative education is therefore at risk of adapting to the mainstream and its associated "abuses' of overly simplistic analyses" (Crossley, 2000, p. 324). Most specifically, the influence of research in defining the field's methodologies and theories as transferred directly from the agendas of international agencies or other institutional powers poses a real threat to the ability of comparative education to reflect a wider cross-cultural discourse (Crossley, 2000; Kubow and Fossum, 2007). It is for this reason that so much of the introspective CIE

discourse today focuses not on the question of “what is comparative education?” but rather “what *should* it be?” (e.g. Cowen, 2000; Paulston, 2009; Watson, 1999).

3.3.4 The Future of Research

In recognition of both the increasingly ‘fat’ field of comparative education, as well as its increasing use for ‘application,’ Cowen (2006, p. 568), calls for an ‘intellectual tidy-up’ in which the ‘application’ side of comparative education is separated, at least intellectually and nominatively, from its ‘academic’ side. While this could help clarify some of the intellectual debate on the definition of comparative education, it downplays the strength and importance of the ‘application’ (pragmatic) side of the field as it stands. The research orientation, and ‘application’, part of the field is “clearly evident in this revitalisation of comparative and international education” and should not be underestimated, especially as it reflects the global Foucauldian power-knowledge trends (Crossley, 2000, p. 320; Kubow and Fossum, 2007). The stability of comparative education rests on the ability of the field to respond to international trends as explained by Foucault and to maintain power in the Bourdieuan sense. Sub-dividing the fields of comparative education, leaving the application function to reflect the economic power currently most valued in society, would threaten the future of the field as a whole and further weaken the academic and theoretical purposes of comparative education.

For this reason, the increased self-awareness and reflexive attitude of the field is crucial to the continued existence of the theoretical side of comparative education. Many scholars (mostly associated with universities) have called for the re-establishment of a “greater sense of history within and about the field” (Crossley, 2000, p. 327; Cowen, 2006, 2009; Watson, 1999).

Cowen especially points to the pragmatic teleology which lies at one end of comparative education as its ideal future form (Cowen, 2006, 2009). He proposes that the aim of the field lies in “reveal(ing) the compressions of social and economic and cultural power in education forms... Understanding those processes would permit us to speak truth unto the State; and a few other people as well” (Cowen, 2009, p. 1291).

The existence of multiple comparative educations in history and current practice prove that globalisation is not necessarily unstoppable or universal; the ability of comparative education to survive as a fragmented, plural field exists (Marginson and Mollis, 2001). However, this possibility is dependent on the self-determination of the individuals within it as described by the interaction of Foucault and Bourdieu’s power and knowledge. When individuals value

academic or social capital over economic capital, and when the situational contingencies exist, then the theoretical and teleological aspects of comparative education will find strength. Otherwise, in a world where economic value is insinuating itself into all aspects of society, including education, it seems likely that the pragmatic aspects of comparative education will continue to grow.

While one can doubt that comparative education has the institutional strength to withstand a true split between the 'applied' and 'pure' forms of comparative education, as Cowen (2006) suggests, a continued emphasis on the applied does not necessarily imply a complete disavowal of the theoretical. In the Foucauldian sense, the field will continue to respond to the wider trends; at present, this includes a heavy emphasis intellectually on the neo-liberal/economic and Western. The comparative education field is inextricably linked with the concept of purpose-of-schooling, and as such will reflect trends in that arena. Since the purpose of schooling is mainly viewed in economic terms, so, too, will be the value of comparative education.

Furthermore, in Bourdieuan terms, while most value is placed on economic and political capital over the academic and social ones, the former will and should take precedence if the field intends to maintain strength. Undoubtedly, certain comparativists will continue to place value on academic capital over the economic one, especially in the university setting, and this will allow for the continued existence of the theoretical and critical aims of comparative education. Bourdieu's assertion that fields 'refract' power relations is crucial, as agency of individuals will allow for the continued autonomy of intellectual comparative education and thus the continued coexistence of paradigms.

In light of these challenges and assertions by prominent comparativists, it seems crucial for CIE researchers to undertake empirical research on the relative importance of the different purposes of the field. Considering the Bourdieuan and Foucauldian forces at play, this type of research would help comparativists to understand the current status of the field's purpose, and perhaps allow them to posit more empirically-based visions of its possible future paths. Meta-research of major CIE publications could help to determine the relative weights of the theoretical and applied strands of the field over time. If there is a change in their respective weights (say, for instance, that the applied strand of CIE is becoming more prominent), then comparativists will have an empirical basis for future claims. Furthermore, by testing what the most prominent purposes of CIE research are, it can be demonstrated what the current trends

in research actually are and whether or not they are reflective of the Foucauldian and Bourdieuan dynamics just discussed. This leads us to the rationale behind the research undertaken in this thesis.

4 Research Design and Methods in View of Previous Surveys

In light of the development of CIE as a field and as a body of research, this thesis explores that research empirically through an original study of four leading journals. This is done in light of previous meta-research studies undertaken in the field of CIE. These studies are introduced in the following with particular emphasis on their predominant methods, goals, and justifications. The review also identifies weaknesses in earlier approaches which might be resolved, as well as strengths which could be replicated. In presenting the earlier reviews, a lacuna is identified, and it is this gap which will be addressed in the thesis.

4.1.1 Previous Meta-Research in the Field

Several attempts have been made to understand the field of comparative and international education through a survey of its prominent journals. These surveys have primarily analysed one or more of the following journals: *Comparative Education Review (CER)*, *Comparative Education (CE)*, *the International Journal of Educational Development (IJED)*, *the International Review of Education (IRE)*, and *Compare*. The surveys have either attempted to assess the extent to which published research is comparative, or to analyse how journal content has changed over time (Foster et al., 2012). Some particularly pertinent examples of these two approaches are discussed below, followed by a few illustrations of studies that attempted to map the field through other methods.¹

Journal Content Analyses

The largest and most inclusive study of a single CIE journal is Wolhuter's 2008 mapping of *CER*. In this survey, Wolhuter reviewed the content of all *CER* articles from the journal's establishment in 1957 through 2006. Wolhuter catalogued the articles according to content, presumably utilising the entire article text (though this was not explicit), to gather information on authors, research methods, paradigmatic affiliations, phase and mode of education, and the themes/topics covered (2008). Though his survey relied on trends from a single journal, its intent was to complement Rosalind Raby's *CER* bibliography review (2007, discussed below)

¹ For an exhaustive list of comparative and international education journal surveys completed before 2009, see Manzon, 2011, pp. 246-248.

in order to create a broad picture of the CIE field. He created a framework of nine rubrics for categorisation, and though individual thematic percentages were not provided, he did present detailed percentage information on the three main thematic groupings: shaping forces; facets of the educational system; and effects of education (Wolhuter, 2008). From these findings, he determined that those forces shaping and influencing education were more often studied than themes taking place within educational institutions per se (Wolhuter, 2008). His most significant conclusion was that the field is experiencing “two equally strong trends - a remarkable resilience/constancy amid a broadening” (Wolhuter, 2008, p. 340).

In 2002, in a comparable survey, Schwippert reviewed *IRE* from its first publication in 1955 through to 2000. Though his data collection analysed only the abstract and title of each article, it was the first of its kind to gather journal content information from *IRE*. He also utilised a unique Computer Assisted Content Analysis to allow a combination of both quantitative and qualitative analysis of text (Schwippert, 2002). The catalogue of keywords was developed manually and allowed for an enhanced coding system which assisted researchers in classifying the 1,153 articles (Schwippert, 2002). Data analysis concentrated mainly on author information, including gender and country of residence, and research methodologies (Schwippert, 2002). Through this information, Schwippert intended to identify ways in which the articles reflect the political and social changes over this period (Schwippert, 2002).

Though Schwippert encountered difficulties identifying certain author characteristics, he was able to identify a growing number of female authors, an increase in the number of authors per article, and an increase in material from and within developing countries (2002). Furthermore, he identified a growing trend towards the use of historical and empirical-analytical approaches, demonstrating the field’s interest in historical context and ‘empirical, testable findings’ (Schwippert, 2002). Lastly, he determined that there is a broadening of influential disciplines impacting the field, a finding in line with other surveys that have noticed a ‘widening’ of the base (e.g. Rust et al., 1999; Wolhuter, 2008).

4.1.2 New Seminal Survey Work

The most recent survey of comparative and international education research was published by Foster, Addy, and Samoff in 2012. This paper sought to address many of the issues encountered in previous works, while also contributing to ongoing discussions regarding the

overall content of the field (Foster et al., 2012). The researchers reviewed 605 articles from *CE*, *CER*, *Compare*, and *IJED* over the years 2004 to 2008 (Foster et al., 2012). They analysed the entire article text to gather information on thematic and geographic focus, the level and type of education studied, research method, and funding source (Foster et al., 2012). These categories were chosen based on “the most transparent information identified within the article itself... (to) provide a multi-layered view of the research terrain” (Foster et al., 2012). The coding scheme was measured for inter-rater reliability to evaluate consistency (Foster et al., 2012).

Foster et al. (2012) identified two major weaknesses in earlier approaches that they addressed in their own 2012 research. In earlier works, the main unit of analysis was the article: authors utilised exclusive categories for classification, thus assigning an article to only one categorisation (Foster et al., 2012). In contrast, Foster et al. created non-exclusive categories and counted the frequency of themes mentioned (2012). So, for example, where earlier reviews might have examined an article for its theme and coded it “teaching and learning” alone, Foster et al.’s approach allowed for the article to be coded under several themes at once: “teaching and learning” and “societal factors”, for instance. Categories were therefore not mutually exclusive and this allowed for a more accurate mapping of studied content. This approach is further discussed in the strengths and weaknesses section below, as well as in Chapter Four, as it proved to be a useful starting point for my own research method.

Secondly, Foster et al. (2012) analysed the thirty most cited and most downloaded articles in *CE*, *CER*, and *IJED* in order to address the demand side of comparative and international education research. Previous reviews, they contend, addressed only the supply side (what is being published) rather than the research most in demand (i.e. most cited) (Foster et al., 2012). Having recognised that the demand of all research consumers is not being measured, they attempted to determine whether an analysis of the demand side would generate a similar thematic map as the supply side (Foster et al., 2012). Utilising the first four of their original dimensions (thematic and geographic focus, level/type of education studied, and research design/method), they analysed the 90 most cited articles across the three journals. Findings were relatively consistent with those from the supply side, especially as regards the top three research methods. The only significant difference was that quantitative analyses and survey studies were cited more frequently than case studies, whereas this is reversed when analysing the supply side (Foster et al., 2012).

Their findings were also compared against Raby's (2007) CER bibliography review in order to determine whether the findings from the study of these four specific comparative and international education journals accurately reflect the interests and priorities of the field's wider body of research (Foster et al., 2012). They found that their research findings were consistent with Raby's, and as such determined that "relying on the four most visible comparative and international education journals does not generate a significantly different map" (Foster et al., 2012). This finding is significant for my own research, as I will similarly attempt to extrapolate generalisations about the field of CIE research through a study of only four journals.

Overall, Foster et al.'s 2012 study reinforced the findings of earlier studies: comparative and international education research is increasingly more concerned with educational context (namely, forces shaping education) than educational content (teaching and learning, for example). They similarly conclude that the research encompasses a very broad range of topics, with very few restrictions on themes or interests (Foster et al., 2012). Furthermore, they note that there appears to be no clear connection between current events and educational research, though they also point out that this is not meant to imply that there is no connection, but perhaps rather that it cannot be measured (Foster et al., 2012). Lastly, Foster et al.'s main criticism of the field's research is that "there seems to be very little critical self-reflection on the objectives and practices of research on education and development.... other than the periodic surveys of publications and a few commentaries" (2012, p. 723). This challenge for further introspection is the main starting point of this thesis.

4.1.3 Comparison Surveys

A second approach to mapping the field of CIE research is to analyse the extent of comparison. The earliest and most seminal assessment of this was Koehl's 1977 survey of the field's leading journals. In it, he reviewed both the articles and book reviews in *CE*, *CER*, and *IRE* to identify the extent to which the research can be considered "comparative" (Koehl, 1977). Koehl also attempted to classify various types of comparison, as well as the topics and themes of comparative articles. He concluded that it was too complex to determine the actual levels of comparison in *CER*, although he did show that less than a third of the articles were cross-national comparisons (1977). He further concluded that articles fall primarily into one of two categories: those dealing directly with "school", and those he termed "ecological", i.e.

school and society related studies (Koehl, 1977). Moreover, Koehl determined that ‘literative prescription’ in the field’s published research remained steady over the studied period (Koehl, 1977). In essence, this demonstrates a historically consistent tendency towards ‘pragmatic’ research, though Koehl did not directly make the connection between the instrumental aim of CIE, its history, and its research, the way I intend to do.

Later similar studies, which drew from Koehl’s excellent starting point, generally opted to explore one journal in depth over time. Halls’ 1990 work utilised an opportunity sample of 60 papers from *IRE* to study the extent to which articles were comparative (cross-national). Halls’ review found that 43% of papers dealt with two or more countries and were thus considered comparative (1990). In 2000, Little undertook a similar study of *CE*, analysing the titles of 472 articles between 1977 and 1998. Though this study suffered from limitations relating to its data collection method, as extrapolating definitive information from a title alone can be unreliable, Little found that an even smaller percentage of the articles were directly or explicitly comparative (2000).

Though most surveys of the field have studied either the content of journals or the extent to which the research is comparative, other studies have taken a different approach. Rust, Soumaré, Pescador, and Shibuya analysed all articles in *CER*, *CE*, and *IJED* from the journals’ inceptions through 1995 (1999). They also compared this data with information gathered only from the original research studies. In particular, they assessed the methodology and research strategies of the papers, and compared the data collection methods of comparative versus single unit studies. They found huge diversity of research strategies and concluded that this is indicative of the expansion of the field. They also noted that less than a third of studies relied on direct comparison as a strategy (Rust et al., 1999).

4.1.4 Other Approaches to Surveying the Field

Other authors have used entirely different approaches to mapping the field than in the familiar journal content analyses. First, in 2004, Cook, Hite, and Epstein attempted a survey of the members of the CIES, the largest and oldest constituent organization of the WCCES. Though a few similar studies had been completed in earlier years, none were yet as comprehensive or extensive (see, e.g. Epstein, 1981; Ross, To, Cave and Blair, 1992). Cook et al (2004). reported on membership demographics and illuminated how perceptions of the field converged. They discovered that there was little consensus on content knowledge, though

there appears to be a discernible trend in comparativists' conceptualisation of their field (Cook et al., 2004).

Raby began conducting thematic surveys of the *CER* bibliographies in 2004. The *CER* bibliography is intended to collect articles referenced in *CER* that might be of particular interest to readers (Foster et al., 2012). Articles included in the bibliography had to be related to education and study a region other than the United States (Foster et al., 2012). By surveying the *CER* bibliographies, Raby attempted to glean information about a much wider range of journals and use this information to understand comparative and international education research (2007).

Her 2007 paper systematically reviewed all *CER* bibliographies from 1959 to 2006 and analysed the changes in representation of geographic region and theme, as well as the relative importance placed on theoretical/methodological articles throughout that period (Raby, 2007). She found that the number of articles on theory and method decreased over time, and that there was a notable expansion of disciplinary voices contributing to the CIE discourse (Raby, 2007). Though Raby did not explicitly compare the ratio between theoretical and pragmatic articles (nor did she characterise them as such), her survey is one of the only existing data analyses describing how the 'theoretical' purpose of CIE research might be in decline. It is clear, therefore, that further research on this topic can help create a more accurate view of the field.

4.1.5 Conclusion

The findings of these survey approaches reflect similar conclusions from other journal content analyses, namely that the field is rapidly growing and is comprised of a vast array of disparate themes, ideas, and methods. Its boundaries are found to be flexible and pliant, as is its corresponding identity, since it is reflective of a multidisciplinary and dynamic content. It is also clear that there are specific trends in the approaches to journal content analyses, as well as their results.

Though many studies have mapped the content of CIE research, none to my knowledge have yet attempted to map the purpose of the research through a survey approach. Raby (2007) mentions the theoretical purpose, but the intention of her review is not to comparatively map research purposes. Similarly, Koehl (1977) describes 'literative prescription' in CIE history,

but his objective was not to explore the interplay between various research purposes over time. As purpose is inextricably linked with content, and is derived from it, this appears to me to be the next logical step for researchers.

4.1.6 Strengths and Weaknesses of Previous Approaches

Many of the issues encountered in earlier surveys of CIE journals were addressed in the most recent mapping of the field by Foster et al. (2012). Some of these weaknesses included the data collection method, the unit of analysis, and the limited content analyses (Foster et al., 2012). Specifically, many earlier reviews limited data collection to either title (Little, 2000), to an opportunity sample (Halls, 1990), or to the article's abstract and title (Schwippert, 2002). The most complete and comprehensive reviews of the published research have all analysed the entire article text, an approach which is seen as the most advantageous (Koehl, 1977; Rust et al., 1999; Wolhuter, 2008; Foster et al., 2012). This comprehensive and, perhaps, ideal method goes beyond the research that can be conducted in this thesis, which is instead limited to analysing the abstract, title, introduction, and conclusion of the articles selected from the four journals. This is further discussed below.

Foster et al. (2012) identified a previously disregarded limitation in approaches to unit of analysis. Earlier studies used articles as the unit of analysis, organising them into unique and exclusive categories. Foster et al. determined that this approach can be misleading, as articles often address multiple categories. Requiring that an article be assigned to a single category "may obscure the extent of overlap between themes that different articles address" (Foster et al., 2012). Furthermore, each journal has a varying number of articles published in each volume, each article varies in length, and the number of themes addressed per article varies (Foster et al., 2012). Frequency counts are therefore an unreliable measurement which can misrepresent the differences across and within journals (Foster et al., 2012).

In order to accurately represent the authors' intention, Foster et al. utilised non-exclusive categories, permitting a single article to be classified under more than one theme, method, or dimension (2012). This approach will be replicated in this thesis, and is discussed in more detail below.

A significant number of previous reviews have either concentrated on one particular journal, exploring its history in depth (see, e.g. Schwippert, 2002; Wolhuter, 2008), or have collected

data from several journals, opting instead to limit the time period from which the information is gathered (Foster et al., 2012). Koehl (1997), and Rust et al.'s (1999) studies remain the only two surveys which reviewed multiple journals over their entire histories. Though it is clear that an extensive evaluation of all prominent journals over their entire published history would be the most reliable and informative contribution to the research, this goes beyond what is feasible in this thesis.

4.2 Research Design

As mentioned, this study builds on previous mappings of the CIE field by surveying a commonly studied group of journals applying a quantitative data collection method. The journals are introduced in the following together with considerations on their choice, the time period covered, and which articles were included. In addition, the data collection, and the coding and analysis methods are presented.

4.2.1 Selection Criteria of Journals

This thesis focuses on the purposes of research in four major CIE journals over the period 2000-2012. Previous mappings in the field of comparative education through journal review have all included one journal: *CER*, the journal of the CIES (Foster et al., 2012; Koehl, 1977; Rust et al., 1999; Wolhuter, 2008). A further four journals were considered in the reviews, though their representation varied between studies: *Comparative CE*, *CER*, *IRE*, *Compare*, and *IJED* (Foster et al., 2012; Koehl, 1977; Rust et al., 1999; Wolhuter, 2008). This thesis will be concerned with four of these five journals: *CE*, *CER*, *IRE*, and *IJED*.

The inclusion of *CER* was essential to this study because it has been part of all previous mappings of the field. *CER*, first published in 1957, is considered to be the “first source for theory, research, method, analysis, and criticism in comparative and international education” (Comparative Education Review, n.d.). It publishes four issues a year, and is based in the United States, though it predominately focuses on analysing educational issues outside this nation. It is the official publication of the US CIES, which is the largest and oldest CIE society in the world. It is published by The University of Chicago.

CE and *IJED* have both historically been linked with the University of London, where comparative education and educational development were originally separated (Rust et al.,

1999). They are published by large commercial publishers (Taylor, and Frances and Elsevier, respectively). *CE* was first published in 1964, and is particularly concerned with exploring the methodological, conceptual and theoretical issues of CIE (Comparative Education, n.d.). The journal publishes four issues yearly, and concentrates on in-depth studies which focus on the interactions between international and domestic forces influencing educational systems, ideologies, and patterns of teaching and learning.

IJED, by its very nature, is more traditionally concerned with international education and development than either *CE* or *CER*, as it stresses the interaction between education and development issues and seeks to foster critical debate about the role education plays in development through providing new theoretical insights into the relationship. *IJED* publishes six issues annually and focuses on lower and middle income settings in particular. Its inclusion, along with *IRE*, therefore helps to broaden the perspectives of CIE research.

IRE is included both due to its status as the longest-standing peer-review journal of comparative education, being founded in 1955, as well as its connection with UNESCO's Institute for Lifelong Learning and that organisation's aims. The number of issues published in *IRE* varies per volume. The journal has historically contained more policy-oriented content, and has been aimed more towards educational organisation readership (e.g. Ministries of Education) than towards the field's scholarly community (International Review of Education, n.d.). Including *IRE* therefore allows for a more rounded view of the research field. *IRE* is published by a commercial publisher (Springer) but produced by UNESCO's Institute of Lifelong Learning.

Other journals might have been considered as well, in particular *Compare* and *Prospects*. *Compare* was excluded, despite its prominence in the field and its connection with the British Association for International and Comparative Education, primarily because a third British journal might bias the study excessively towards that country. Furthermore, its aims and scope generally overlap with those of the selected journals, as it concentrates on educational development and change with an international or comparative perspective, with articles on educational discourse and policy and practice (Compare, n.d.). *Prospects* is another specialist journal on comparative and international education. It was excluded because, like *IRE*, it is a UNESCO board journal.

A number of articles in *IRE* between 2000 and 2012 are published in languages other than English. According to my own calculation, approximately 12% of all the articles were published in French, German, or Russian with an English abstract and title. This information was included for categorization purposes in order to maintain standardization across the *IRE* journal.

4.2.2 Selected Time Period

The four journals were systematically surveyed over the period 2000-2012. The time period was chosen pragmatically, as the millennium mark is a natural starting point since it has been used as an impetus for self-reflection within the field and for discussions of its future (see, e.g. *Comparative Education*, 2000, 36(3)). The year 2012 is the latest year data could be collected in view of the start of the work on the thesis. The analysis of the four chosen journals during 2000-2012 both provides more recent data and extends the information beyond previous mappings. Wolhuter's (2008) in-depth review of *CER* and Schwippert's (2002) survey of *IRE* covered the periods from each journal's inception to 2008 and 2000, respectively. Foster et al's (2012) survey of *CE*, *CER*, *Compare*, and *IJED*, included only the years 2004-2008.

4.2.3 Selection of Articles

All research articles in the four journals were included in the current survey. These are labelled 'original research article' in *IJED*, 'original paper' in *IRE*, 'articles' in *CER*, and alternately 'articles' or 'original articles' in *CE*. All book reviews, bibliographies, review essays, and notes were excluded from analysis in order to have a clearer standardisation across all journals. Special editions hold a particular place in each of the four journals and are included in the overall data collection and analysis since they serve the same purpose as the general journal issues.

4.3 Methods of Analysis

According to Wolhuter, "journal analyses have proved to be an effective way to reveal the identity and trends constituting an area of study (2008, p. 2). My purpose was to examine the 'identity' of comparative education in regards to its teleology. As mentioned previously, an

analysis of the entire article text is the most reliable (see, e.g., Wolhuter, 2008; Foster et al., 2012) but also the most time-consuming.

In order to determine my final method, I undertook a small sample experiment to determine the most efficient approach to data collection. I compared a categorization of six articles from across three of the journals using first only the abstract, introduction, and title, and secondly utilising the entire text. It became clear that it was possible to extrapolate enough information from the first method, though it proved more time consuming than originally estimated.

Adding data collection from the conclusion allowed for a clearer and more in-depth understanding of the article, and I decided that this was both time efficient and reliable.

Having determined that data collection would include information from abstract, title, introduction, and conclusion, it later became clear that not all articles contained an abstract, not all introductions were of similar length, and not all articles had an easily identifiable conclusion. In cases where no abstract existed, categorization was based solely on title, introduction, and conclusion. No attempt was made to standardize in regard to length of introduction, conclusion, or abstract: these texts were read to completion regardless of length. All efforts were made to identify some sort of concluding or summary paragraph in every article.

4.3.1 Categorisation of Articles

Each article was read and examined for its ‘purpose’ of CIE, using the framework discussed in Chapter 2, and indicating multiple categories where necessary. Each article could be coded as a member in any or all of the five nominal purpose categories: theory; general knowledge; context; policy; and critical. So, for example, an article which examines international cooperation in creating skills development policies in Peru might be categorised as “context”, “policy” and/or “critical” (depending on what type of prescriptive stance the paper takes on these policies). My specific intention in using non-exclusive categories and comparing memberships in each group was to see how often research is related to its pragmatic purpose (i.e. the policy and critical categories), as well as how often it is ‘purely’ theoretical or ‘purely’ another category. I also explored how closely the categories converge, and how this might reflect or belie the assumptions regarding the future of the field and its purpose (see, e.g. Cowen, 2006; Crossley, 2000; Wilson, 1994).

4.3.2 Coding of Data

Having examined the title, abstract, introduction, and conclusion of each article, I marked each article's membership in a category (or categories) in a series of Excel spreadsheets, one spreadsheet per journal and one worksheet per volume (see Appendix 1). Articles were therefore classified according to their melioristic significance, as guided by the particular framework.

The data was converted from its raw form several times in order for it to be accurately analysed. In its original form, spreadsheets contained an identifier with the article's number and issue, as well as a description of the text, its title and author. In order to be analysed for descriptive frequencies, the data was later edited into a simpler, more numeric form, wherein each article's categorisations were denoted as a membership in any of five categories. Each category was given its own column to allow membership information to be more clearly visible (see Appendix 1). After creating a more comprehensible data set, the information from the four journals' articles could more easily be analysed.

Though previous maps of CIE research through journal analysis have most often used the article as the unit of comparison, the most recent comprehensive survey by Foster et al. (2012) pointed out the problems associated with such an approach. Frequency counts used in this method often belie the complex terrain of research articles, where most articles deal with more than one theme and approach, and where journals have different definitions as to what constitutes an article (Foster et al., 2012). Foster et al. therefore analysed the data based on frequency of 'mentions,' where 'mentions' refers to a specific topic or category being addressed in the text (2012). This allows for one article to be coded under more than one category, and also permits the number of 'mentions' to become the primary unit of analysis (Foster et al., 2012). I will refer to these 'mentions' as 'memberships' to denote the fact that they convey information regarding the membership of one article to a specific category. An article can, by this measure, have membership in more than one category, and through a comparison of memberships we can determine the categories' relative weights.

Table 4.1 is a representative example of the final coding scheme for one journal volume. Each article is given an identifier along the X axis (issue.article), and the five categories are listed along the Y axis. An article's membership is denoted by a number (1-5) underneath the

appropriate category column heading. For example, article 3.4 (Issue 3; Number 4) was coded as general, context, policy, and critical.

Table 4.1 Example of Coding System for One Journal Volume Demonstrating Membership

Article No.	Theory	General	Context	Policy	Critical
1.1			3		5
1.2		2			
1.3			3		
2.1			3	4	
2.2			3		5
2.3		2	3		
3.1		2	3	4	5
3.2			3		
3.3			3	4	
3.4		2	3	4	5
4.1			3		5
4.2			3		5
4.3		2			5

Using this method, data was analysed based on the percent of responses (memberships), not the percent of cases (articles). Frequency counts were used to gain information regarding how often one category was represented in relation to overall number of category memberships. This approach was used instead of counting the number of articles belonging to category 1 and then calculating the percentage of articles with membership in that category (percent of cases).

Table 4.2 shows the relative percentage of memberships by independent category during one year. The ‘count’ column represents the number of memberships in that category. Percent of responses (memberships) is calculated by dividing the number of memberships (count) in that category by the total number of memberships.

Table 4.2 Example of Membership Percentage Calculations from One Journal Volume

Categories	Responses		Percent of Cases
	Count	Percent	
Theory	6	4.5	9.4
General	24	18.0	37.5
Context	55	41.4	85.9
Policy	20	15.0	31.2
Critical	28	21.1	43.8
Total	133	100.0	207.8

The number of overall memberships in category 1 was compared to overall memberships in categories 1-5, (e.g. membership in theory was compared to membership in all categories combined) allowing for the total number of calculated percentages to add up to 100. This method was applied to all journals for each volume, wherein one volume represented a calendar year. Individual issues were not addressed separately.

The benefits to this approach, as opposed to that of previous studies which have utilised the percent of cases, were demonstrated by Foster et al. (2012). Chiefly, it standardises the information over the thirteen year period and across journals, as total memberships always add up to 100%. Calculating percentage of cases (percentage of articles which have a membership in category 1) creates five categories whose percentages total over 100, as articles are frequently members in more than one category. If, for instance, one year included an unusually large number of articles, wherein most articles contained several memberships, comparing this volume to a smaller, less complex group of articles would belie the true percentages. This difference can be seen in Table 4.2. The percentages presented for analysis in Chapter Five are therefore based on the relative frequencies of category memberships to overall membership counts.

4.3.3 Analysis of Data

Having acquired enough information from each journal to create an overall picture of category memberships over time, the data was analysed. The purpose of the data analysis was to address the research questions presented in Chapter 1: namely, to discover which purpose category is most prominent in each journal, as well as to see how the categories might have

converged over time. The units of comparison were therefore both time and journal, as I studied the differences in category membership over time. Separate data analysis by journal was primarily maintained in order to show how each journal's aim might have affected the membership percentages, and to account for the differences in data collection in *IRE*.

Combined categories were later examined cumulatively for all journals in order to explore the bigger picture of category prominence in the research as a whole. In this case, the level of comparison is only the purpose category, as time and journal information has been aggregated. The main purpose, however, is to address changes in purpose over time within each journal, and as such most data is presented separately by journal, year, and category.

In order to easily present the data for comparison, the membership percentages for each category were compiled by year and by journal (see Appendix 2). They were also aggregated into a composite (overall membership percentage means for each category, separated by journal) in order to analyse significance of the changes over time. This mean percentage of each category was used to test for drift, autocorrelations, and variance in the data as will be further discussed in the following section. The mean percentages are presented in Appendix 2.

Non-English articles in *IRE* were necessarily analysed in a separate category, as the information was gathered from only the abstract (as opposed to the abstract, introduction, and conclusion for English *IRE* articles). As they were most frequently members of only one category, non-English articles are separated out from other *IRE* articles in order to clearly show how they differ from one another. In the coding spreadsheets, all non-English articles are highlighted in blue to denote the difference. The non-English articles are presented and analysed independently and are labelled IRE_ne (*IRE*, non-English) in Chapter 5. This grouping is later compared to the other *IRE* data, as well as to the other three journals. Due to the difference in data collection methods, there are some limitations to these comparisons which will be discussed at the end of this chapter.

In addition to comparing data from the five separate categories, I explore the existing membership combinations. A possible 120 (5 factorial) category combinations exist, though not all of these combinations appeared in the actual data. In order to study the convergence of category memberships, categories were aggregated into composites. The original intention of presenting this data was to determine whether the studied categories were converging over time; however, this proved too difficult to determine given the limited data and time period. Instead, composites are presented in two ways: frequencies by journal (all thirteen years

cumulatively); and frequencies over all four journals collectively. This allows us to demonstrate the relative frequencies of each category combination, though we cannot show changes over time.

An identical approach was taken in presenting the frequencies of the combined categories to that of presenting the separate categories (as discussed above). Percentages relate membership in a specific category combination relative to the number of memberships in all category combinations. This allows for easy comparison between converged and independent categories. An example of this approach is presented in Table 4.3 to demonstrate the frequency of dependent versus independent categories in one journal. All data is presented in Appendix 3.

Table 4.3 demonstrates sample data for cumulative categories in one journal (*CE*). The independent category ‘*context*’ represented only 15% of overall memberships (54 out of 348 in total), whereas the combination ‘*context, critical*’ represented almost 23%. All findings will be presented and discussed in Chapter Five.

Table 4.3 Example of Frequency Counts and Percentages for Combined Categories

Journal	Category	Count	Percent
CE	context critical	79	22.7
CE	context	54	15.5
CE	general context critical	30	8.6
CE	general critical	24	6.9
CE	context policy critical	22	6.3
CE	general context	22	6.3
CE	theory general critical	21	6.0
CE	general context policy critical	20	5.8
CE	context policy	15	4.3
CE	theory general	14	4.0
CE	general	9	2.6
CE	general policy critical	8	2.3

Aggregated category findings will be presented in Chapter 5, though few conclusions can be drawn due to the limited nature of the data set. Emphasis will instead be placed on studying the independent purpose categories which have permitted more detailed statistical analysis particularly as regards which research purpose was most prominent in each journal.

4.4 Statistical Methods Applied

In order to properly analyse the data collected and decide on the best methods for analysis, I first determined that the data collected here was nominal and not ordinal, although it is categorised. While ordinal data can be ranked, the categories in this study cannot be sorted this way. An article's membership in two categories does not indicate that either category is more important than the other. An article is both 'theory' and 'critical' in equal parts, for instance.

Three statistical tests were chosen to determine whether there was any significance in the changes of membership percentage over time. In determining the ideal method for this thesis, I concentrated on those which would answer my particular research questions. My main interest was to determine whether there is any significance in how category memberships have changed over time; specifically, whether there are any statistically significant trends in the time series. Furthermore, I was interested in understanding the nature of these changes if they did exist. It was therefore important to first determine whether or not there was any statistically significant trend in the data over the time period before I could assess the nature of such a change. I utilised a thirteen point (thirteen year) data set to demonstrate how the category memberships have changed over time, using graphs as well as the statistical analysis methods described in the following sections.

My final research question addresses the nature of the purpose categories' convergence or divergence. Addressing this question in a time series analysis proved difficult, for reasons that will be discussed in Chapter Five. The main purpose was to show which combinations of categories were most common and, therefore, draw conclusions regarding the frequency of independent versus combined categories. This was possible using simple frequency counts and percentages.

The time series analysis performed here therefore includes three tests in order to provide conclusions regarding statistical significance over the thirteen year period. One analysed drift, a second analysed autocorrelation, and a third analysed variance. The combination of the three tested the data to determine whether the data was changing in a significant trend, or, alternately, whether the changes were random and insignificant, and therefore represent white noise. White noise demonstrates no autocorrelation, has no statistically significant drift, and also increases proportionally in variance during the analysed time period. All three tests in

combination are therefore necessary to make this determination – failure at one level does not indicate significance.

The data was tested for significant drift using the Student's t-test. The data first needed to be normalised, changing the null hypothesis and original starting point for analysis to the first data point in the time series. This allows us to determine whether or not the mean has drifted over time from its starting value. White noise at this stage would not demonstrate any statistically significant drift, and would therefore reject the null hypothesis. Statistically significant data at this level fails to reject the null hypothesis at 5%. These data points are highlighted in green in Table 5.12 presented in Chapter 5. However, the Student's t-test also requires data in a time series to be normally distributed in order to provide reliable results. As I have not been able to determine whether the data presented here represents a normal distribution, this test is unreliable, especially on its own.

In order to test for autocorrelation, the data was subjected to a Ljung-Box test, one of two non-parametric tests used here to help analyse trends in the time series. Data was jointly tested for autocorrelation in lags 2 and 3. Both lags must reject the null hypothesis at 5% simultaneously in order to be statistically significant; white noise in this test would be equal to zero and therefore accept the null hypothesis. Data highlighted in green in Table 5.13 represents those which reject the null hypothesis at 5%. However, in order for data to be determined statistically significant, it needs not only to be significant in both lags of the Ljung-Box test as well as in the Student's t-test, but also to demonstrate significance in variance.

The data was finally subjected to a Variance Ratio test, the second non-parametric test, in order to explore mean-reversion. As I only have thirteen data points, the Variance Ratio test was performed only in the 2, 4, and 8 lags (2, 4, and 8 years back in the time series). Again, significance is determined by alignment in all three lags. In this test, data rejecting the null hypothesis at 5% represents statistical significance: less than one in the variance ratio statistic shows a mean-reverting process (constant variance), and greater than one is an explosive root (exponentially increasing variance). Data accepting the null hypothesis is considered white noise. Data considered to be significant in some way is highlighted in Table 5.14 in Chapter 5.

4.5 Reliability, Validity, and Generalisability of the Research

While the research presented here sheds light on several previously unstudied aspects of CIE research and history, it must also be acknowledged that there are limitations which prevent definite conclusions. These limitations were all addressed in the research but are discussed below to help clarify the validity and reliability of the findings.

First, the thesis is subjective since only one researcher (myself) was involved in categorising articles; previous studies have had multiple researchers doing this and have used triangulation to ensure inter-coder reliability. Though attempts were made to make the categories as objective as possible, they, like Arnove and Manzon's purposes, can be somewhat subjectively interpreted. Similarly, definitions used to interpret findings are based on a subjective classification system: my mapping of the field's purposes is based on my own definitions of purpose.

Second, due to the different length and nature of the published works, each article required a varying amount of time and effort to categorize. Using my own framework (as opposed to those of Arnove or Manzon) helped to reduce both time and effort, though differences remained. Concerns could be raised about whether my approach to categorisation changed over time due to an increasing level of comfort with the classification process. A spot-check was therefore employed to determine the consistency of the coding scheme over time and ensure intra-coder reliability.

IRE presented the most extensive limitations for data analysis. As I was only able to categorize the non-English articles by abstract and title (as opposed to abstract, title, introduction, and conclusion, as with all other original papers), these articles were classified only according to reasonable certainty. This caused a higher incidence of independent categorisations than in other journals, which likely skewed the results of the cumulative category data and thus influences the validity of the results from this journal.

Furthermore, in order to illuminate possible differences between non-English and English research while representing the journal more accurately, it was necessary to separate the two parts for data presentation. *IRE* results are therefore an incomplete mapping of that journal; findings from the two components of the overall journal are imperfect due to the lack of

standardisation between English and non-English articles. *IRE* can consequently not be directly compared with *IJED*, *CE*, or *CER*, which affects the generalisability of this research.

Fourth, certain limitations must also be acknowledged in connection with my approach to data analysis. First, the small data set used here (thirteen points) is too narrow to allow for valid, generalisable results, which would require large data sets for complete accuracy. However, the statistical methods used here are applicable for analysing trends in a time series, which was the main aim of this research.

While the chosen thirteen year period does not necessarily represent overall trends in the field or trends in the research expressed in other publications than the four journals selected for this thesis, it is believed that the research findings that are now presented and discussed in Chapter Five are of the highest quality possible considering the limitations mentioned above.

5 Purposes of CIE Journal Research, 2000-2012

In the following, the findings from each journal are first presented separately and then cumulatively upon which they are compared and contrasted. All data are also presented in table form in Appendices 2-3.

5.1 Membership Percentages by Year, Journal, and Category

Figures 5.1 - 5.5 present the percentages of each category by year for each journal, separately. They demonstrate the changes in category membership over time and allow us to easily see which categories have been the most prominent in each journal.

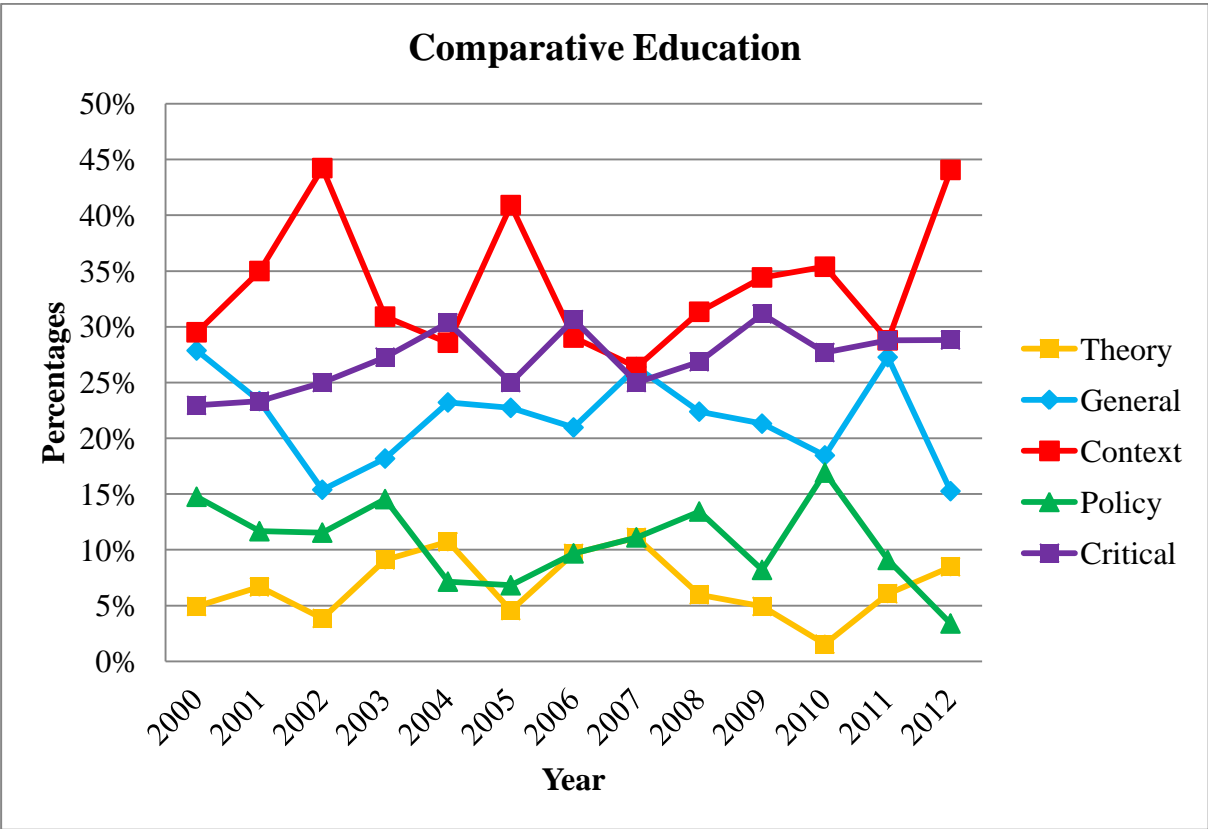


Figure 5.1 Category Percentages by Year: Comparative Education

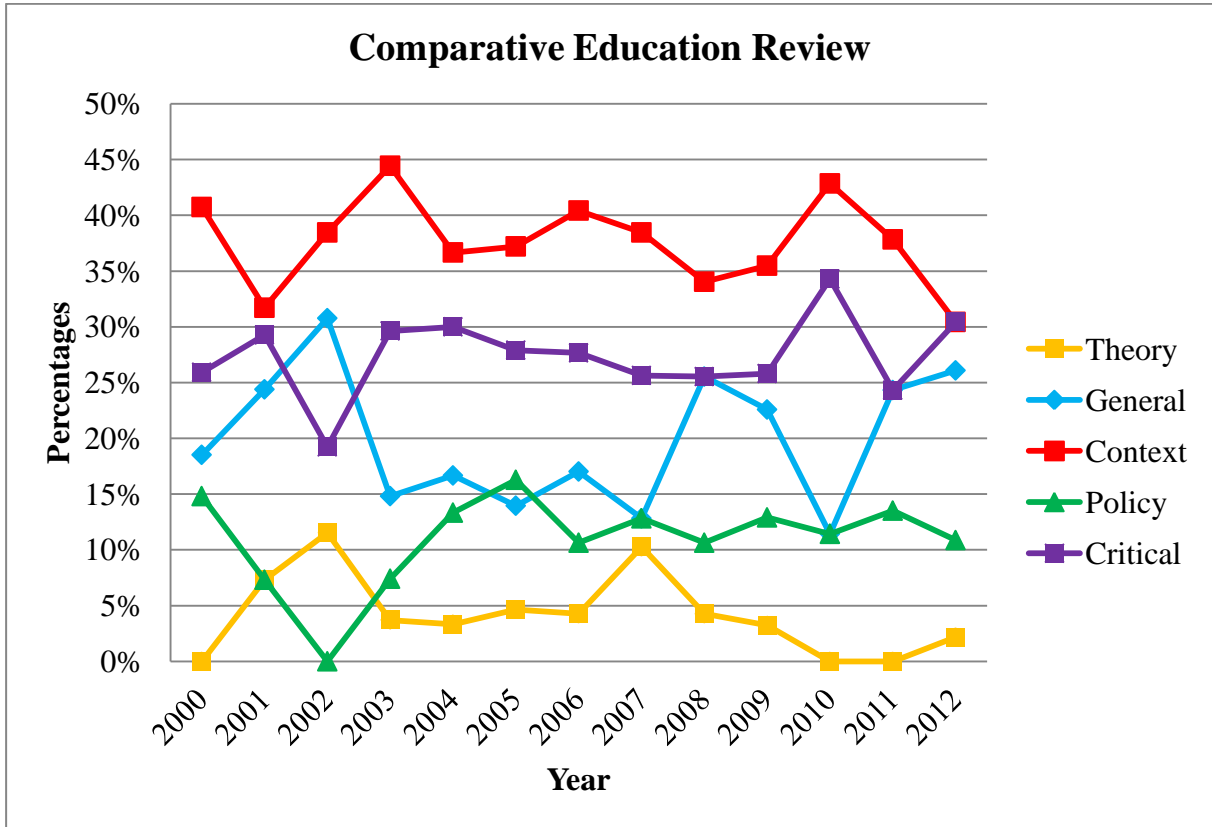


Figure 5.2 Category Percentages by Year: Comparative Education Review

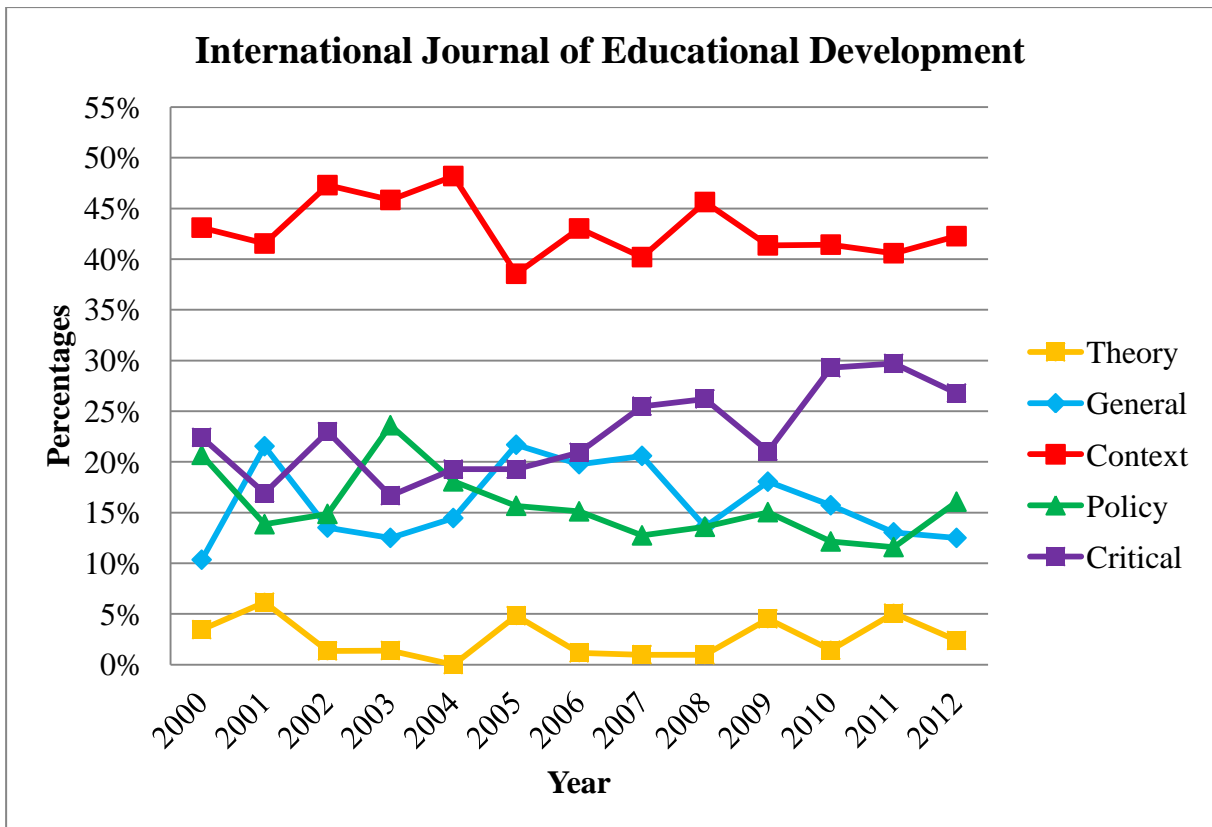


Figure 5.3 Category Percentages by Year: International Journal of Educational Development

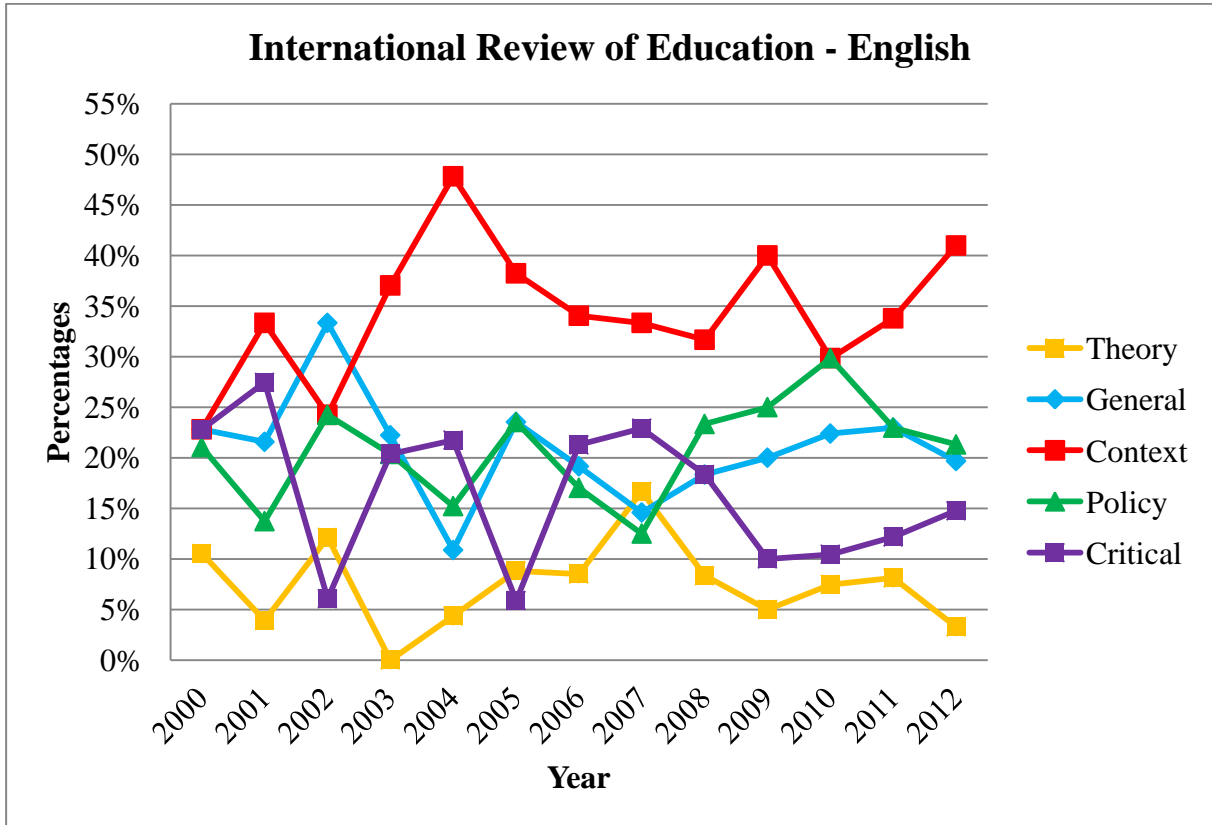


Figure 5.4 Category Percentages by Year: International Review of Education, English

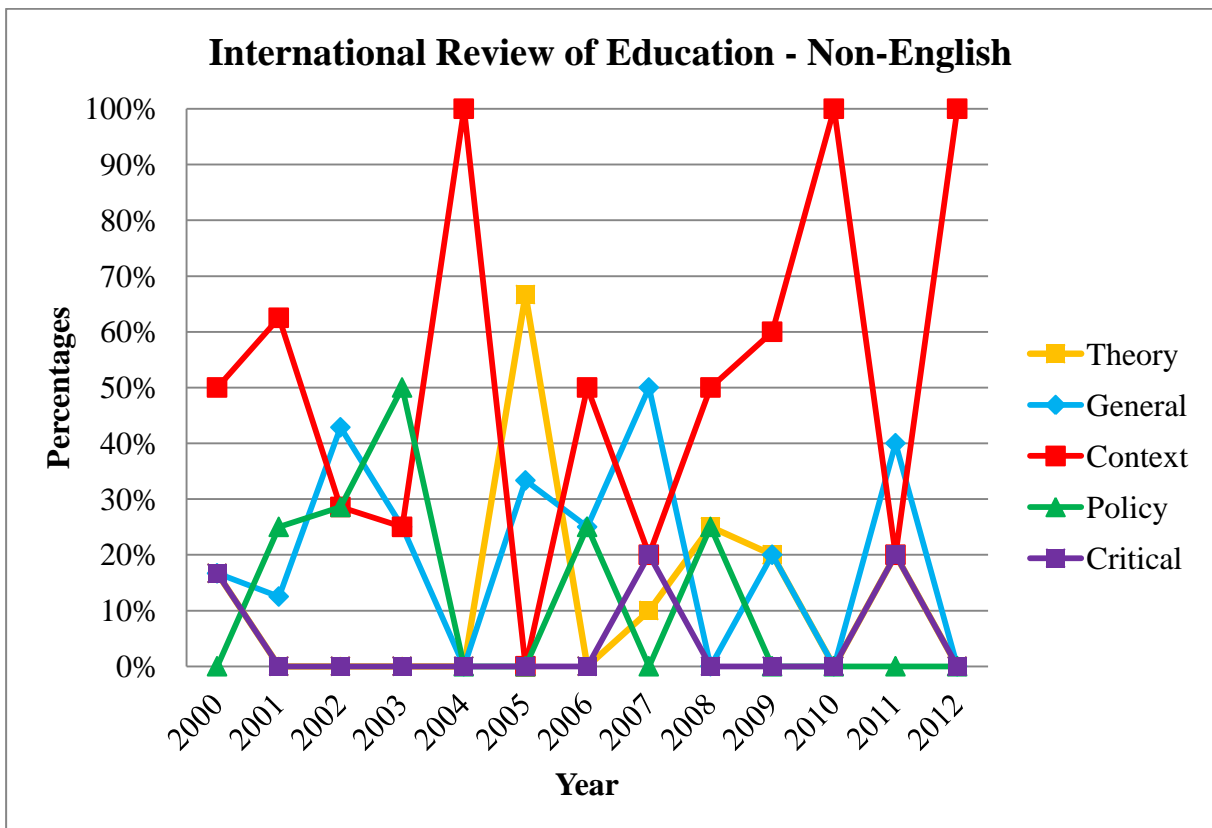


Figure 5.5 Category Percentages by Year: International Review of Education, non-English

Figures 5.1-5.5 demonstrate how membership in each category has changed during the thirteen years. There is some consistency between the journals regarding which categories were most prominent over time: context appears to remain the most prominent, followed by critical, general, policy, and lastly, theory, though the ratios in membership percentages vary across journals. Generally speaking, context category memberships represent anywhere from 30%-50% of overall memberships (*IRE* and *IRE_ne* notwithstanding, as these are less uniform by nature). Membership in the theory category hovers between 0 and 10% through the thirteen year period. *IJED* appears to have the most stable membership percentages over time in relative ratios. The differences between *IRE_ne* and the other journals can also be easily detected, as the drastic changes in membership percentages are reflective of fewer and more frequently single-category articles.

There appears to be no consistency between journals in membership changes: changes in critical category membership per year do not correspond across journals, for instance. Some journals have more drastic changes over time than others which is further pursued in Section 5.2. The individual journal data by year, as presented in Figures 5.1-5.5, demonstrates how memberships have changed over time and thus addresses the longitudinal aspect of my research questions. Conversely, the average memberships by journal in Figures 5.6-5.11 help to provide a starting point for the time series analysis and demonstrate the most predominant purpose categories.

5.1.1 Cumulative Journal Data

From a cursory glance at the data, it appears that the mean percentages for each category are more representative in some cases than others. *IJED*, which is the most consistent in membership percentages, is the best represented by averages. Other journals have a wider distribution of data over time (most particularly both subsets of *IRE*), and are therefore less perfectly represented by the mean percentages. Despite this, averages can provide a better understand of a category's relative prominence, as well as the relative distribution of the mean percentages.

The mean percentages of *IRE* and *IRE_ne* are the least accurate measures due to the nature of their membership distribution over time, and because they are representations of separate parts of the same journal. Figure 5.7 shows that the representation of general category

memberships is fairly consistent between journals, while there are distinct differences in the average representation of other categories, particularly that of theory.

Figures 5.6 – 5.10 demonstrate the mean percentages by each category and journal. This allows us to easily compare the category membership averages across journals. *IRE*, for instance, has a higher percentage of theoretical and policy membership than other journals, whilst *IJED* has the lowest incidence of theoretical articles on average.

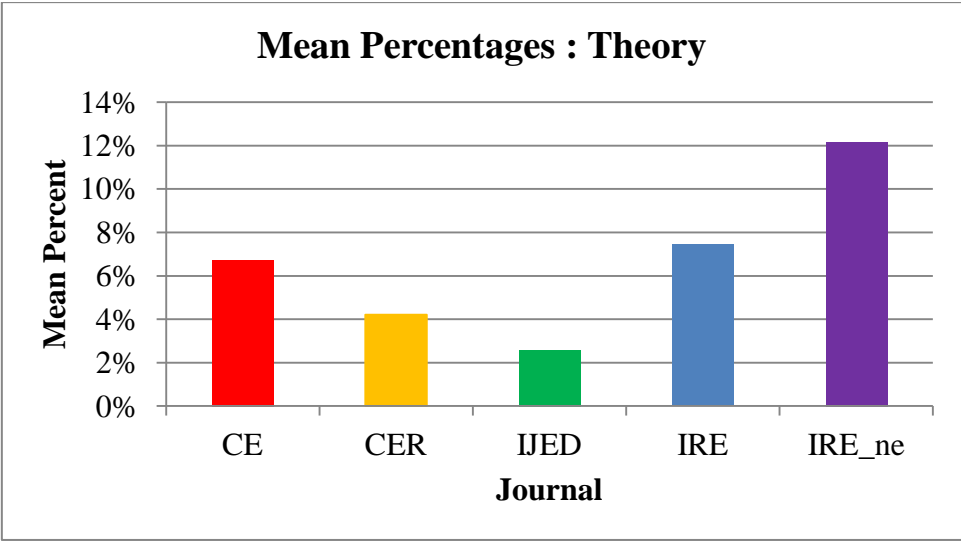


Figure 5.6 Mean Percentages for Theory Purpose Category, by Journal

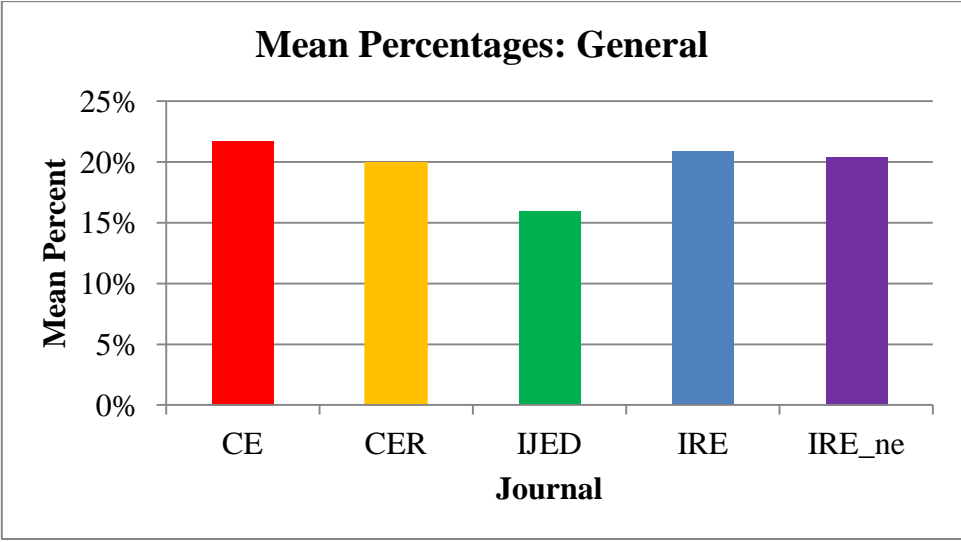


Figure 5.7 Mean Percentages for General Knowledge Purpose Category, by Journal

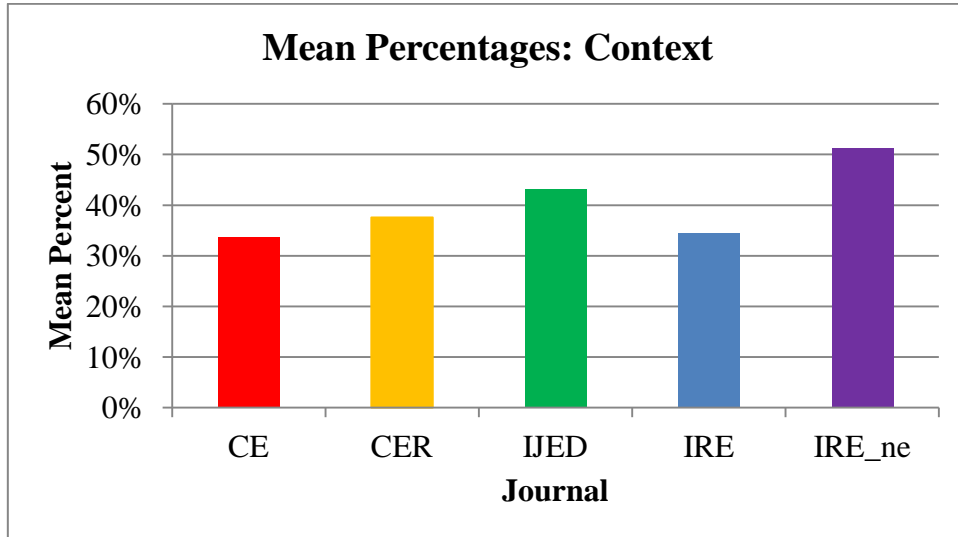


Figure 5.8 Mean Percentages for Contextual Knowledge Purpose Category, by Journal

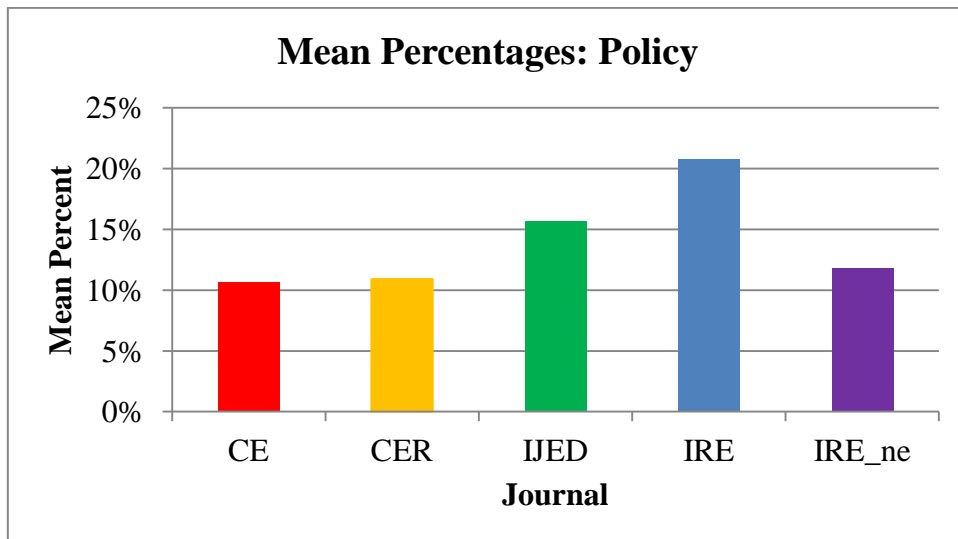


Figure 5.9 Mean Percentages for Policy Purpose Category, by Journal

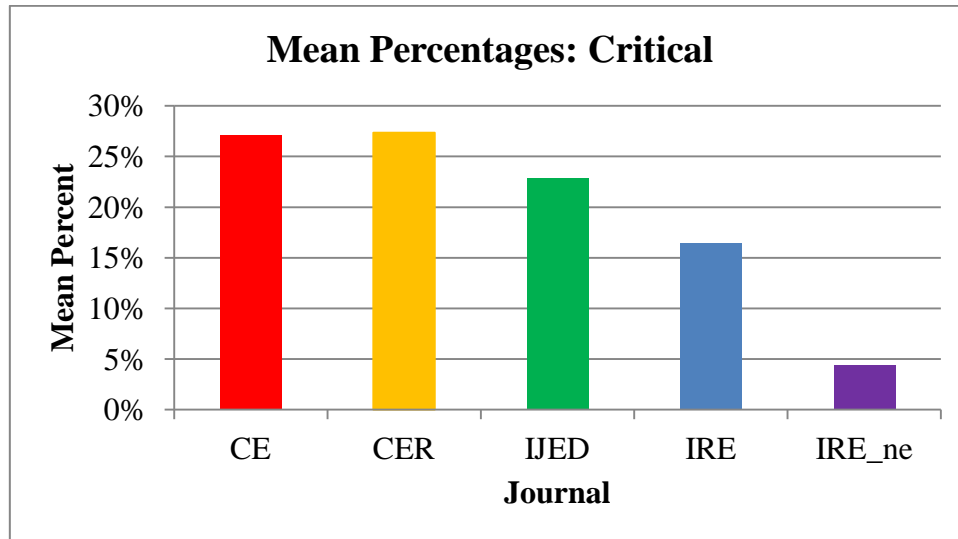


Figure 5.10 Mean Percentages for Critical Purpose Category, by Journal

Figure 5.11 shows the mean percentages by both category and journal. This demonstrates the distribution of category means, showing how each category's membership is distributed on average by journal. Here we clearly see that theory is the least represented category by average membership, whilst context is by far the most prominent overall.

Excluding the average membership results from *IRE* and *IRE_ne*, all three remaining journals (*CE*, *CER*, *IJED*) are consistent in average category membership prominence: context is the most prominent, followed by critical, general, policy, and finally theory. Examining *IRE* (English-language) and *IRE_ne* (non-English), shows significant differences in average membership prominence at most levels. However, both *IRE* and *IRE_ne* memberships are predominantly context-based, as in the other three journals. Following this, in descending order, *IRE* memberships in the general, policy, and critical categories show dissimilarity from the first three journals in ranking, though here they are also much more closely aligned in average membership percentages. Similar to these journals, *IRE* has a smaller relative percentage of memberships in the theory category on average. Nevertheless, *IRE* and *IRE_ne* demonstrate the two highest average percentages in this category of all four journals.

Therefore it is reasonable to conclude that the *IRE* journal as a whole would contain the highest percentage of theory memberships across journals. It is also reasonable to conclude that *IRE* (as a whole) is likely to contain the highest average number of policy memberships.

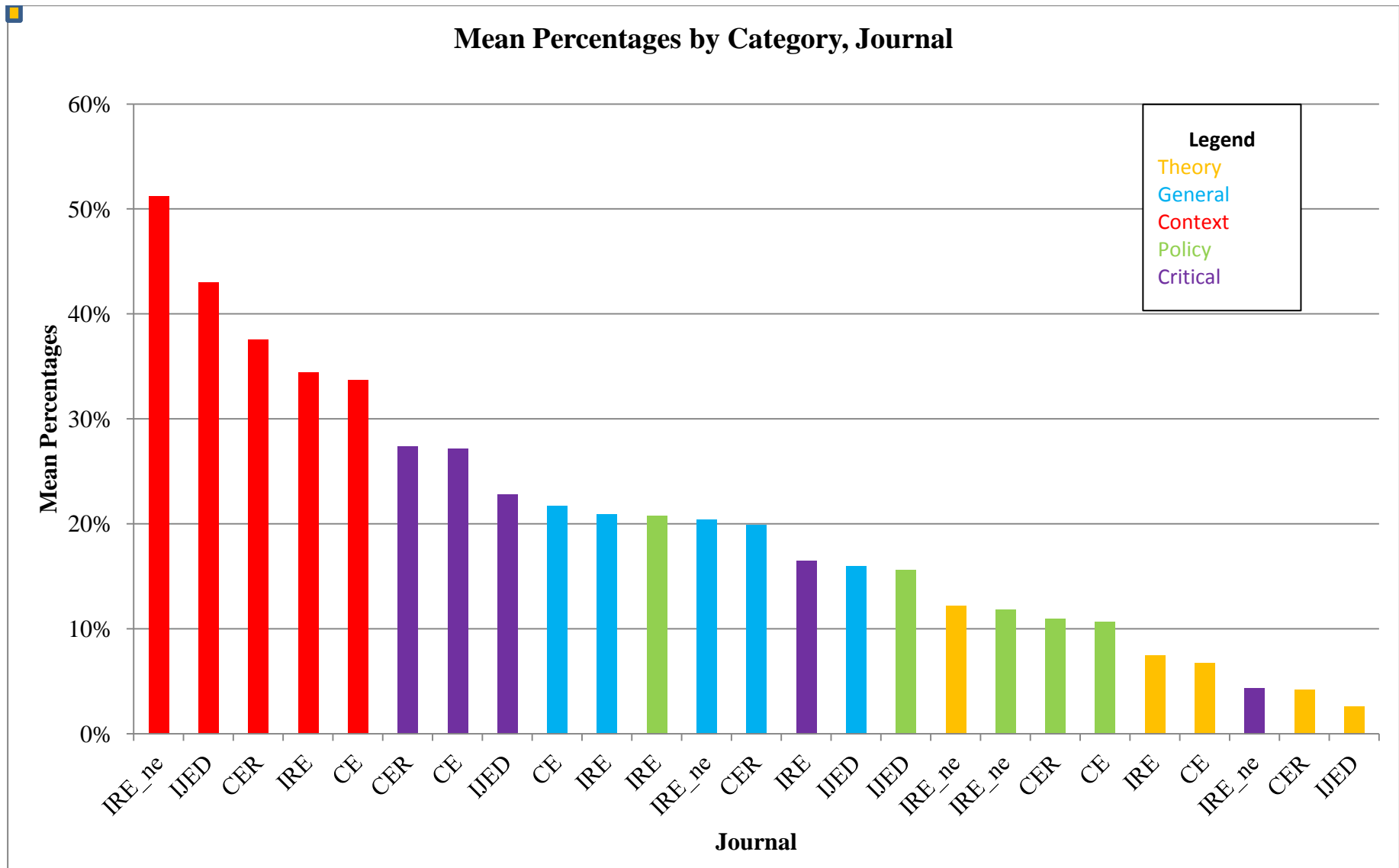


Figure 5.11 Mean Percentages by Category and Journal

Discussion

The analysis shows that the frequency of memberships is highest for the context category across all journals, though the ratios of the other categories in relation to it change somewhat over time. This implies that a significant percentage of research in these four journals is context-based, though articles may simultaneously belong to other categories as well. In-depth contextual knowledge appears to be of primary importance: on average, as over one-third of memberships were context-based. Without yet exploring the combinations of categories, which will be discussed in later sections, it is safe to say that research in CIE places significant value on providing in-depth, historically-contextualised knowledge of a specific topic, more so than other purpose categories.

Comparatively speaking, critical research seems to be more predominant than policy-related research. The high percentage of membership in the critical category implies that research currently places strong emphasis on critiquing existing norms and on transformational and emancipatory approaches. Critical membership does imply a pragmatic purpose since critical articles are, by nature, prescriptive, but the intention of such articles is generally to warn against certain paths. Policy articles, in contrast, prescribe by suggesting the adoption of a specifically described course. Policy articles suggest an ideal, whereas critical articles warn against the uncritical adoption of a prescribed approach. Therefore, though a significant percentage of overall memberships were pragmatic in the true sense of the word, they were more likely representative of Manzon's (2011) critical or Arnove's (2007) global dimension than either author's pragmatic dimension.

By the framework used here, theoretical category membership appears to be the least represented. My approach to this category, however, was different from that of previous authors. The low percentages here do not necessarily reflect a low 'theoretical dimension' membership by Arnove (2007) or Manzon's (2011) definitions, but rather a low incidence of purely theoretical discussion. As described in earlier chapters, Arnove and Manzon's theoretical dimensions contained elements of both the 'context' and 'general knowledge' categories, which made categorisation of articles difficult. In exploring the prominence of theory articles in this thesis, I separated the purely theoretical category from other categories. The low percentage of theory membership demonstrated in Figures 5.6 and 5.11 is reflective of how few articles directly address theory application and salience. Further discussion

regarding the incidence of combined theory and other category membership will be undertaken later in this chapter.

IJED demonstrates the lowest incidence of theoretical membership on average. This is unsurprising considering the aims of the journal, which are overt with the intention to focus on the interaction between education and development (International Journal of Educational Development, n.d.). Similarly, the journal's aims explicitly state a focus on "fostering critical debate" (International Journal of Educational Development, n.d.). Its low incidence of general membership, relative to other journals, and higher incidence of policy membership reflects this intention. This journal also has the highest incidence of contextual membership, reflective of the journal's focus area; educational development is necessarily based in historically-contextualised knowledge. Membership percentages are highest in the context and critical categories due to the journal's aims, though average membership percentage in the critical category is actually low relative to that of the other journals. This may be due to a higher incidence of policy-related membership than is seen in *CE* or *CER*, though the two categories are not mutually exclusive.

CE and *CER* reflect very similar average category memberships, remaining within 4% of each other's averages across all categories. Considering their similar aims, this resemblance is perhaps unsurprising. However, *CER* has both a lower average of theory membership, as well as a visibly less consistent frequency of this category. Therefore, despite the similarities in other categories overall, *CER* appears to have a lower incidence of theoretical articles than *CE*. (A more accurate exploration of purpose category by article case, instead of by membership frequencies, is undertaken in section 5.3.) Both journals demonstrate significant variance in membership percentages over time, which will be further analysed in the next section to determine any possible significance in the changes.

Owing to the difference in data collection method, non-English *IRE* articles have higher incidence of theoretical memberships and lower incidence of critical membership than other journals. An inability to gain as much information from an abstract as from the abstract, introduction, and conclusion, has skewed the results towards specific independent categories. The low incidence of critical membership could be reflective either of a genuinely low membership trend, or it could be due to my own difficulties with categorisation of an abstract. Abstracts may be less likely to contain information regarding an article's emancipatory

stance, for instance, and more likely to be clear about the intention to discuss a theory. This might similarly explain the high incidence of theoretical membership.

IRE English-language articles appear to be slightly more in line with *CE*, *CER*, and *IJED* memberships than *IRE_ne*. The significant difference here lies in the much higher incidence of policy membership, and much lower incidence of critical membership in comparison. This is in line with the journal's aims which focus on more policy-relevant research than the other journals. Considering that pragmatic objective, it is perhaps surprising that *IRE* has the highest incidence of theoretical membership of any journal studied here. It also appears to have a slightly lower frequency of contextual category membership which may reflect the journal's tendencies towards more generalised, applicable research.

5.2 Statistical Analysis of the Time Series

In order to evaluate whether there is any significance as to how the membership percentages changed over time, three statistical tests were performed on the data. The first, a Student's t-test, tested for drift. The second, the Ljung-Box test, analysed autocorrelation. The final test, a Variance Ratio test, evaluated the data for variance which allows us to examine any mean reversion. Together, these three tests determine whether the collected data exhibits statistical significance (a trend) in the time series or whether it is insignificant white noise. The test results are presented in Tables 5.12-5.14. All significant data in each test is highlighted in green.

Examining Table 5.12, several data points appear to be statistically significant, as marked in green. However, as discussed in Chapter Four, this test is unreliable due to the very limited nature of provided data, and the unlikelihood that it represents a normal distribution. Although fifteen of the data points appear to reject the null hypothesis at 5%, and some even reject the null at 1%, all others are considered white noise.

Table 5.12 Drift Analysis of Journals, by Category

Journal	Category	Mean %	Standard Error	T-stat	Tp-value
CE	context	0.337354	0.016641	2.643974	0.022831
CE	critical	0.271436	0.007612	5.732995	0.000132
CE	general	0.217504	0.011394	-5.58901	0.000163
CE	policy	0.106375	0.010446	-4.10162	0.001755
CE	theory	0.067332	0.008007	2.359625	0.037839
CER	context	0.375979	0.011269	-2.90285	0.014372
CER	critical	0.273573	0.010116	1.472788	0.168836
CER	general	0.199159	0.016772	0.867223	0.404341
CER	policy	0.109203	0.011574	-3.50232	0.00495
CER	theory	0.042085	0.010109	4.332977	0.001189
IJED	context	0.429995	0.008076	-0.13397	0.895844
IJED	critical	0.228461	0.012097	0.371951	0.716995
IJED	general	0.159456	0.010803	5.396029	0.000218
IJED	policy	0.15619	0.009499	-5.55607	0.000171
IJED	theory	0.025899	0.005465	-1.63483	0.130351
IRE	context	0.343955	0.018694	6.452275	4.73E-05
IRE	critical	0.16477	0.019479	-3.38229	0.006118
IRE	general	0.208792	0.014463	-1.38739	0.192788
IRE	policy	0.20779	0.013749	-0.20712	0.839701
IRE	theory	0.074693	0.011914	-2.67071	0.021766
IRE_ne	context	0.512363	0.091709	0.140307	0.890954
IRE_ne	critical	0.04359	0.023077	-5.55111	0.000173
IRE_ne	general	0.204121	0.048802	0.798808	0.441308
IRE_ne	policy	0.118132	0.046528	2.64262	0.022886
IRE_ne	theory	0.121795	0.052616	-0.88764	0.393731

The data was normalised, meaning that the null hypothesis was set to the first value in the time series in order to test whether the data drifts in a significant manner away from its starting point. Standard error represents the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of the mean. This is used to calculate the t-statistic, which is the sample mean less the null hypothesis (the first value in the time series) divided by the standard error. This is then used to calculate the p-value, which demonstrates the probability of obtaining the t-statistic, assuming the null hypothesis is true. Under normal circumstances, the lower the tp-value, the more statistically significant the data, since it demonstrates a higher level of statistically significant drift from the starting value. However, this test cannot truly be shown to demonstrate any significance on its own, especially considering the size of the data.

Table 5.13 Autocorrelation Analysis of Journals, by Category

Results from Lags 2, 4					
Journal	Category	q2	q2pval	q3	q3pval
CE	context	3.411222	0.181661	6.279111	0.098793
CE	critical	1.395773	0.497636	1.829975	0.608434
CE	general	1.997948	0.368257	2.751655	0.43152
CE	policy	1.197123	0.549602	1.501624	0.681896
CE	theory	1.234286	0.539484	1.31413	0.725781
CER	context	11.15214	0.003787	14.9197	0.001887
CER	critical	2.965454	0.227018	3.478105	0.323613
CER	general	1.587882	0.45206	1.707425	0.635284
CER	policy	3.391986	0.183417	13.96082	0.002959
CER	theory	1.91657	0.38355	2.862234	0.413357
IJED	context	1.142513	0.564815	8.387088	0.038654
IJED	critical	7.7881	0.020363	11.85051	0.007913
IJED	general	0.059186	0.970841	1.157132	0.763303
IJED	policy	0.941147	0.624644	4.259034	0.234818
IJED	theory	0.697179	0.705683	5.100301	0.164598
IRE	context	0.339571	0.843846	1.00945	0.798965
IRE	critical	2.16826	0.338196	5.466645	0.140647
IRE	general	1.516156	0.468566	3.413584	0.332144
IRE	policy	0.303926	0.85902	0.55506	0.906639
IRE	theory	0.295088	0.862825	0.822288	0.844129
IRE_ne	context	5.636909	0.059698	5.737601	0.125098
IRE_ne	critical	1.940095	0.379065	3.146384	0.369602
IRE_ne	general	3.845908	0.146175	8.739318	0.032965
IRE_ne	policy	0.061356	0.969788	0.265687	0.966347
IRE_ne	theory	1.415297	0.492802	1.468874	0.689473

In Table 5.13, statistically significant data is marked in green. These data points reject the null hypothesis at 5%. The p-values are shown for both lags 2 and 3 (q2val and q3val). As before, the lower the p-values are, the higher the statistical significance, theoretically. However, data must simultaneously reject the null in both lags in order to be considered truly significant in terms of autocorrelation. Only two data points, CER-context, and IJED-critical, have rejected the null in both lags at once. All other data has accepted the null hypothesis, and can thus be considered white noise. In examining the two significant data points, and comparing them to the results from the Student's t-test, we see that the findings from CER-context were considered significant. Therefore CER-context is currently significant in both of the performed tests. But since the combination of these two tests alone is unreliable, the results from the Variance Ratio Test must also be used determine any true overall significance.

Table 5.14 Variance Analysis of Journals, by Category

Results from Lags 2, 4, 8							
Journal	Category	vr2	vr2pval	vr4	vr4pval	vr8	vr8pval
CE	context	0.662406	0.098974	0.33898	0.077913	0.454374	0.212306
CE	critical	0.423124	0.050801	0.415429	0.179471	0.226548	0.195406
CE	general	0.58444	0.090737	0.336027	0.087315	0.744742	0.349632
CE	policy	0.698649	0.181322	0.473531	0.175762	0.496454	0.256455
CE	theory	0.826422	0.242737	0.543219	0.177311	0.317295	0.188377
CER	context	0.828841	0.267103	0.169621	0.049054	0.367707	0.183529
CER	critical	0.377973	0.035207	0.18586	0.064342	0.403658	0.181281
CER	general	0.73231	0.130585	0.36163	0.070907	0.526294	0.231069
CER	policy	1.113392	0.373099	0.494183	0.209158	0.808166	0.412959
CER	theory	0.88669	0.330041	0.528913	0.16389	0.687486	0.329215
IJED	context	0.400437	0.014515	0.216347	0.057312	0.270661	0.17656
IJED	critical	0.450885	0.027829	0.322731	0.085167	0.399395	0.18721
IJED	general	0.526676	0.055701	0.27651	0.063636	0.07642	0.090693
IJED	policy	0.759933	0.177763	0.290162	0.084482	0.394479	0.201653
IJED	theory	0.372929	0.008582	0.1376	0.025868	0.191905	0.120719
IRE	context	0.728832	0.183084	0.599912	0.227404	0.480453	0.248348
IRE	critical	0.602444	0.111329	0.302759	0.104353	0.132039	0.146444
IRE	general	0.783741	0.283559	0.371551	0.174959	0.218463	0.197372
IRE	policy	0.651023	0.081698	0.479084	0.131706	0.243306	0.151118
IRE	theory	0.511112	0.061181	0.476452	0.167152	0.284339	0.179401
IRE_ne	context	0.278145	0.012583	0.202597	0.063691	0.108515	0.102429
IRE_ne	critical	0.499291	0.050282	0.221636	0.049348	0.445814	0.214893
IRE_ne	general	0.331574	0.005754	0.102966	0.028461	0.138262	0.122237
IRE_ne	policy	0.582256	0.047731	0.356276	0.093711	0.48682	0.254268
IRE_ne	theory	0.517919	0.128304	0.357651	0.162704	0.145083	0.147734

In the final statistical test, the data was analysed for mean-reversion. This tests whether or not the data trends back towards its mean at certain lags in time; which could only be tested for a 2, 4, and 8 year time lag. Statistically significant data is highlighted in green; it has rejected null hypothesis at 5% (shown by the p-value at each lag), and again, the lower the number, the higher the significance. The data in columns vr2, vr4, and vr8 provides information regarding the nature of any existing reversion. Where the number is greater than 1, it is an explosive root; where it is less than 1, the data tends towards mean-reversion. All significant data in Table 5.14 is mean-reverting. However, as in the Ljung-Box test, in order for data to be considered significant, it must reject the null hypothesis at all lags; rejection of the null hypothesis at only one lag does not constitute a trend.

While a few data points here rejected the null hypothesis at lags 2 and 4, none rejected at all three lags. Therefore, while no data sets demonstrate a mean-reversion trend for greater than 4 years, it is possible that certain categories in certain journals do tend towards mean-reversion every 4 years. CER-context has shown some tendency towards mean-reversion at the 4 year lag. Taking this in combination with its significance in the two earlier tests, it is possible to preliminarily conclude that the contextual membership percentage in *CER* demonstrates some statistically significant tendencies. Specifically, membership in this category appears likely to revert to some reversionary level, but not necessarily the mean, every four years.

All other data collected appears to be insignificant. The changes in membership percentages over time appear to be highly variable and change rapidly. Though there seems to be some tendency towards certain categorical prominence (namely, context remaining most prominent, and theory remaining least), there is no trend as regards to how the exact membership percentages change over time, at least within the thirteen years of the gathered data.

Discussion

The statistical analysis findings show evidence of some mean-reversion, and the context category of *CER* demonstrates preliminary significance at all three time-series trend significance levels (though not at lag 8 of the Variance Ratio). Most findings, however, point to the reality that the data collected are insignificant.

This means that there is no discernible trend in how the categories change over time, which could either be due to the limited amount of data gathered or the nonexistence of any trends. An examination of the entire history of each journal might provide more conclusive evidence either way. Without such information, there seem to be no trends in how membership in each category changes over time, and each year simply represents happenstance: some years may have a better pool of research in a certain purpose category than other years.

Having determined that the time series do not represent any statistically significant trend, it is not possible to predict how membership in any given category will change in the future. Considering that context membership has remained the most predominant throughout the past thirteen years, it might remain so in the future. However, there is no data to suggest that this is the case. The category memberships here appear to be changing over time at random and any conclusion regarding an increase or decrease in a certain category is thus impossible.

Therefore no conclusions can be made regarding whether or not the theory membership is decreasing over time, for example, based on the data collected here. Neither can conclusions be drawn regarding whether the critical and policy categories (pragmatically-aimed research) are increasing. The data analysed here suggests that there is no significance in the time series and thus no discernible trend in either purpose dimension. It is however possible to conclude that the lack of such trends suggests that neither category is increasing or decreasing at any significant level, and is instead only changing at random.

In order to examine how categories might be converging or diverging over time and address my second research question, it would have been necessary to perform more sophisticated statistical analysis than was possible for this thesis. Furthermore, despite having five categories and thus a total of 120 possible category combinations, the data still covered only 13 years. Therefore the findings and data analysis would suffer the same failings as that of the independent category memberships discussed earlier: too few data points to allow for an accurate analysis of trends. For this reason, only the frequency findings from the category combinations are presented next. Though presented cumulatively from all thirteen years, this information allows us to examine which category combinations are most frequent by journal. It also permits preliminary conclusions regarding the most predominant research purposes in each journal by considering the prevalence of certain category combination, as well as addresses the relative importance of independent categories.

5.3 Cumulative Categories

Table 5.15 and Figure 5.13 present findings from all journals showing the frequency of specific category convergence. They are presented separately for each journal, and then together across all journals. The data is a cumulative representation of all thirteen years. Annual data proved to be quite widely spread - each combination might have only 1 membership, for example. This made the data from individual years difficult to present or analyse with simple statistical methods, as had been done with the category memberships in Figures 5.1-5.5, because combining the categories led to significantly more category possibilities (specifically, a potential 120) but lower case frequencies. Percentages per year were therefore also of much less significance and have not been utilised for time series analysis or presented here. Despite this, the overall category combinations presented do provide interesting information regarding the genetic makeup of each journal, and shed some

light on how often each research purpose remains independent on average, thus addressing the second research question of this thesis.

Data in Table 5.15 represents a case frequency. Since the categories have been combined to accurately represent how each article was individually coded, each count represents one article. For example, where an article is coded *context*, *policy*, and *critical*, it would earlier have been represented as having membership in each of these categories. These memberships were used in sections 5.1 and 5.2 for comparison and statistical analysis. In combining the categories, we can count the frequency of articles which were coded according to one whole combination possibility; for example, counting the frequency of articles which were categorised as *context*, *policy*, and *critical* at once. We can therefore see the most common combinations of categories in order of their case frequency.

IRE and *IRE_ne* represent slightly different data. As the data collected from *IRE_ne* is more likely to be singular (membership in only one category) this inevitably skews the final cumulative data when journals are combined. Furthermore, each journal contains a varied number of total articles, which causes the cumulative journal counts to be slightly misrepresentative. This is most clear when examining the tables presented in Appendix 3, as well as Table 5.15. However, it is also noticeable in Figure 5.13, which shows that *IRE_ne* has a much higher incidence of independent category membership than the other journals. It is for these reasons that context appears to be more common than context-critical in Figure 5.13; the relatively high percentage of independent categories in *IRE_ne*, as well as the relative non-existence of critical article membership (see Figure 5.10), and the relative article counts of each journal, belie the true frequencies. When examining the findings from a combined total of all frequency counts from all journals, as well as separately per journal, the context-critical category is actually far more common. Table 5.15 is therefore presented to underline this comparison.

Table 5.15 presents the combined category frequencies from all journals and all years combined. There were a total of 1,578 articles, and the percentages represent the ratio of one category to the total number of articles.

Table 5.15 Frequency of Combined Memberships over All Journals

Category	Count	Percent
context critical	351	22.24
context	263	16.67
context policy	178	11.28
general context critical	124	7.86
context policy critical	92	5.83
general critical	86	5.45
general context	85	5.39
general context policy	76	4.82
general policy	57	3.61
general	51	3.23
theory general critical	34	2.15
general context policy critical	33	2.09
theory general	31	1.96
general policy critical	18	1.14
theory	16	1.01
theory context	14	0.89
theory context critical	11	0.70
theory critical	10	0.63
theory general context	10	0.63
theory policy	10	0.63
theory general context critical	7	0.44
theory general policy	7	0.44
theory general context policy	6	0.38
theory context policy	3	0.19
theory general policy critical	3	0.19
critical	1	0.06
theory policy critical	1	0.06

Figure 5.13 shows the distribution of combined category memberships by journal. This shows which combination of categories is most prominent in each journal to allow for easy comparison. Data from all thirteen years is presented cumulatively.

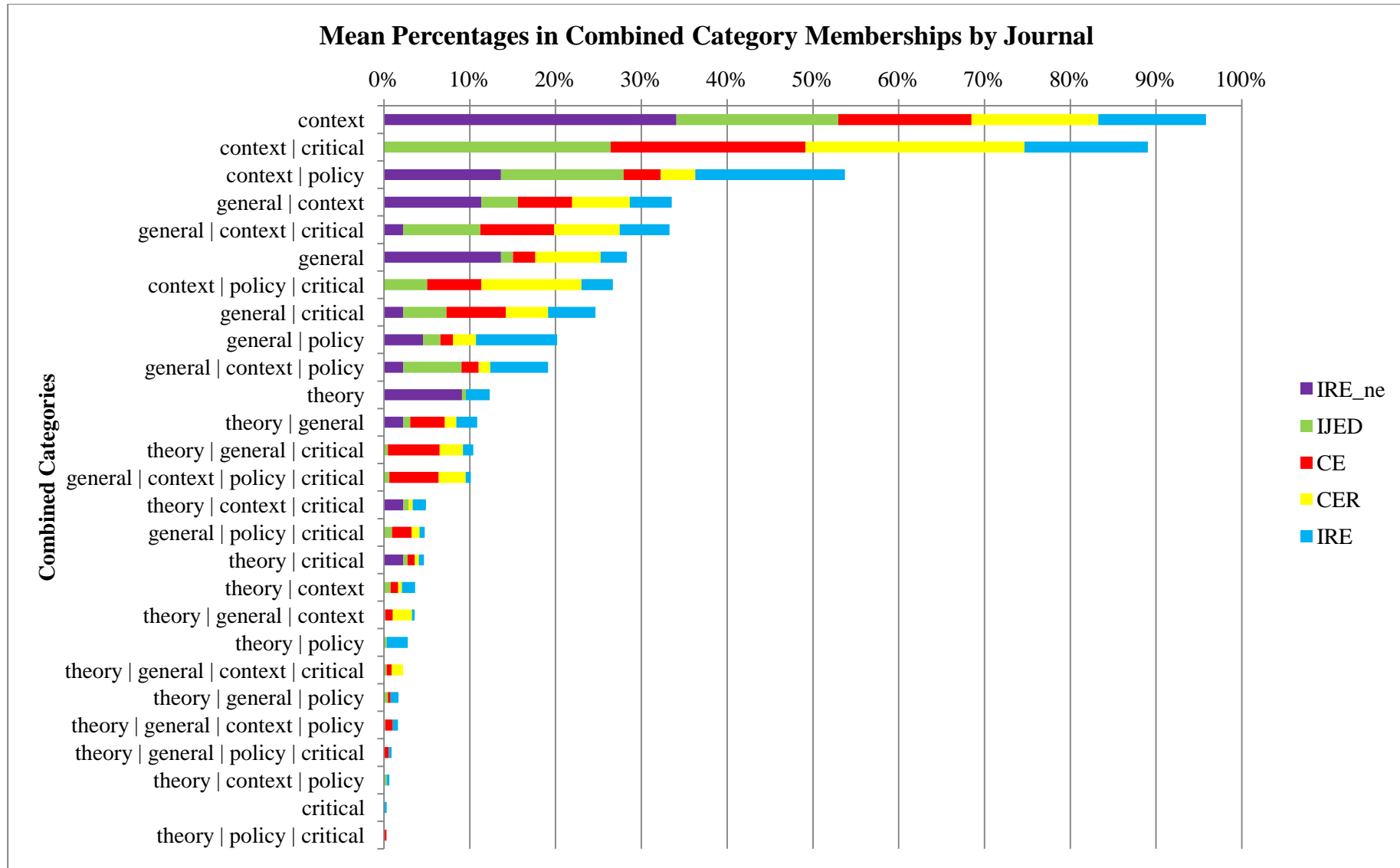


Figure 5.13 Mean Percentages in Combined Category Memberships by Journal, Category

As we can see, the combination of the context and critical categories is by far the most common, both cumulatively and by most journals (specifically, *IJED*, *CE*, and *CER*). In *IRE*, this combination is second most common, behind context-policy. It follows, then, that a combined membership is most likely to contain either the context or critical categories. Combinations including either of these are highest in percentage of representation across the board. This is reflected in the membership percentages by category reviewed earlier.

As discussed previously, results from *IRE* and *IRE_ne* are special cases, and therefore not necessarily easily compared with findings from *IJED*, *CE*, and *CER*. This can be clearly seen in the findings from *IRE_ne*, which show far fewer category combinations, and demonstrate a higher likelihood of category independence than dependence. This independence is quite different from the other journals, which generally show a higher percentage of combined categories than independent ones. The exception to this is the context category, which is fairly often independent from other categories in all journals. However, the independent category still lags on average about 10% behind the context-critical combination overall. In the case of *CER*, general knowledge articles are more likely to be independent than combined with another category.

Overall, theory articles appear more likely to exist in combination with other categories than to exist independently. Even when combining the percentages of theory, theory-general, theory-general-context, and theory-context articles, there is still a greater number of articles in combination with policy or critical: 4.5% and 6.7%, respectively. Furthermore, these percentages were taken from the combined information from all journals, including *IRE_ne*, which is far more likely to include independent theory articles than other journals. These percentages are therefore optimistic, and likely belie a far greater disparity between independent theory articles and theory-combination articles than shown here.

Discussion

In examining the existing combinations of theory articles, it appears that they are far less likely to be ‘purely’ theory than theory in combination with another category. Pure theory is, therefore, the least common category in research. However, when examining the frequency of theory-context, theory-general, and theory-general-context, more useful information is gained.

Assuming that policy and critical article membership represents an article with a pragmatic purpose, we can conclude that articles without such membership are not pragmatic in aim. Therefore, examining the difference in frequency between pure theory, theory-context, theory-general, and theory-general-context in comparison with all other theory combinations, allows us to see how often theory is used towards a pragmatic end. Using the cumulative information from all journals, it is clear that theory articles are approximately 50% more likely to be pragmatic than non-pragmatic. This then implies that theory is found less often in its non-pragmatic form in CIE research.

It is important to note that this is true when analysing the data cumulatively from all thirteen years and all journals, which combines journals of varying article counts and thus suffers from the limitations discussed in Section 4.3.2. Examining each journal separately, it is also true of *CE*, *CER*, and *IJED*, though in varying relative percentages. In *CE*, pure theory represents 5.75%, pragmatic theory 9.48%; in *CER* it is 4.04% and 4.93%, respectively; in *IJED* 2.2% and 3.14%, respectively. As the data collection from these three journals was the most standardised and therefore the most reliable, pragmatic theory articles are more common in CIE research. From this data it is possible to conclude that theory articles in *CER* are almost equally often pragmatic as they are non-pragmatic. *CE* has the highest overall percentage of theory-containing articles, though they are more often pragmatically-aimed. It also has the highest percentage of non-pragmatic theory articles, comparatively, of the three journals, as well as the highest percentage of pragmatic theory articles. Of all the journals, *IJED* has the fewest theory-related articles, which is unsurprising given its explicit connection to the pragmatic (specifically, development-related) aim of CIE.

In contrast, while *IRE* demonstrates the same pragmatic trend patterns as other journals (7.03% non-pragmatic and 7.95% pragmatic), *IRE_ne* has a much higher percentage of non-pragmatic theory articles (11.36% versus 4.55%). This is most likely only reflective of the difference in data collection method, and is not significant in terms of demonstrating a higher incidence of pure theory. It is possible, however, that analysis of the whole *IRE* journal, both English and non-English articles, using a standardised data collection method, would reveal either a more equal ratio of pure theory to pragmatic-theory articles than seen in other journals, or even a higher incidence of pure theory, given the data collected here. It is also reasonable to conclude that *IRE* would demonstrate the highest incidence of theory articles (both pragmatic and non-pragmatic) of all four journals. Again, given the journal's

historically policy-based scope, it is surprising to find that it has such a high incidence of theory articles, especially in comparison with *CE* and *CER*.

5.4 Discussion of Overall Findings

It is important, finally, to relate the findings from data collection and statistical analysis back to the original research questions and to the historical discussion of the field. Our first question can now be definitively answered: providing deep contextual knowledge of a specific topic is the most common research purpose across the four studied CIE journals. This is followed by emancipatory and transformative research, wherein the purpose is to provide critique and provoke a reconceptualisation of topics within the field. The critical purpose, though emancipatory, can be considered pragmatic in the sense that it is prescriptive, even if it does not directly reflect Manzon (2011) and Arnove's (2007) original definitions of the pragmatic purpose of the field. In order to relate the data analysed here to the field's history, articles falling under both the critical and policy categories will be considered 'pragmatic'. Manzon (2011) and Arnove's (2007) final two dimension were therefore combined into one category, reflecting the fact that both categories maintain a prescriptive aim.

Having examined all existing membership combinations from the last thirteen years, it is clear that the combination of context and critical purposes is the most common. This implies that, in terms of frequency of cases, research articles in the four journals are most often contextual and critical, and that research with a pragmatic aim is most common over the past thirteen years. This is unsurprising given the history of the field and its tendency towards pragmatism.

Second most common are purely contextual articles. These do not exhibit a pragmatic aim, but are intended to provide historically-based contextual knowledge on an educational issue. Using Manzon (2011) or Arnove's (2007) definitions, these articles would be considered part of the *theoretical* or *scientific* dimension. Using their definitions, then, the *scientific* purpose of CIE is far more common than originally expected, given the history of the field. This categorisation (*scientific*) will be used in the following to reflect Arnove's first dimension, and is defined using my own categorisations of *theory*, *context*, *general*, or any combination of the three. Discussion of 'pure' theory hereafter refers to articles which were only coded 'theory' in Figure 5.13 and Table 5.15.

Purely policy-aimed articles are far less common than might have been expected, although this is not reflective of a lower frequency of pragmatic articles. Instead, it demonstrates that CIE research is far more likely to be prescriptive in an emancipatory and transformative sense than it is to praise existing policies or suggest an ideal path.

General knowledge articles, which create generalisable working propositions about existing phenomena, are not as common as historical, context-based articles. This may be indicative of a recognition within the field of CIE that most education phenomena cannot be taken out of their contexts. Overall, articles are more likely to demonstrate a combination of general knowledge and contextual knowledge than they are to be only general. This indicates that even those articles which do make generalisable propositions about education are also more likely to ground them in some sort of historically-based context.

The low percentage of (pure) theory articles is unsurprising given the history of the field which has been primarily aimed towards pragmatism. Theory articles are far less likely to exist independently than they are to exist in combination with a pragmatic aim, which supports the hypothesis regarding the field's pragmatic purpose. Purely theoretical articles – those that exist only with the aim of discussing theory (coded only *theory*) – are far less likely to exist in the studied CIE research than articles with either a pragmatic aim, or those which also include a contextual or general discussion on application of a specific education matter. Having noticed no significance in the time series analysis, however, it is not possible to predict how theory membership will change in the future.

Convergence and/or Divergence

Addressing our second research question - how the categories converged or diverged over time - was impossible without further and more advanced statistical analysis, and was therefore not attempted. However, the fact that the findings from all of the categories analysed individually were insignificant does not preclude them from demonstrating a stable linear combination over time (a law of cointegration). A combination of these categories may exist that does give rise to a signal-based and therefore stable time series. It is therefore possible that there might be significance to the change in category combinations during this period.

Several possible tests could be used to test for this comovement. Cointegration tests are possible in theory, but might be difficult given the summative nature of the data. As there is

no dependent variable, the sum vector would remain 1 for all categories. Therefore one suggestion for testing the convergence or divergence of the variables over the thirteen years would be to utilise linear regression. In this approach, it would be necessary to perform a linear regression of each category against every other category and by journal. A positive number would indicate divergence and a negative one convergence. However, there are limitations to using even this test.

First, the data would need to be free of covariance to autocorrelation. Second, it is possible that statistically significant results would be found using this test, but then it would be necessary to test the residuals for autocorrelation and other significance factors in order to determine if the nature of the convergence or divergence is significant or random. It is therefore possible that findings could demonstrate some convergence or divergence over time, but that the processes themselves are random and without a discernible pattern. They would therefore exhibit no actual trend and simply represent random and insignificant processes.

Furthermore, any time series analysis for convergence or divergence would be subject to the same data limitation as earlier tests: it would still be representative of only thirteen data points, and is therefore too small a data set to be considered reliable or generalisable.

Despite the lack of time series analysis for the cumulative data, the findings presented in Table 5.15 and Figure 5.13 still revealed the most common combinations of categories, and was therefore useful for addressing other aspects of the research question. While it was not possible to determine the changes of the category combinations over time, it was possible to show the nature of convergence: namely, that context-critical is the most common combination, and to demonstrate the prevalence of combined categories over independent ones.

Some Final Considerations

Given the nature of the statistical analysis, it is impossible to explain why the findings demonstrate certain conclusions. It is not possible to imply causality, but it seems that certain findings are likely given the historical analysis first discussed. Having demonstrated that the pragmatic aim of the field is historically significant, and that it is likely to remain so considering how agents in the field attempt to gain capital and how discourse within CIE is formed, it was assumed that the pragmatic purpose of CIE would therefore be the most

prominent aim in the research. This is indeed so. However, it cannot be conclusively stated that the existence of one implies causality of the other. There is no definitive evidence to prove that the field's history has manifested itself in the research, only that both do point to a primarily pragmatic purpose.

Furthermore, it is important to note that the method of defining the field contributes to describing its genetic makeup. Here I have both created my own definitions of different research purposes and attempted to relate them to existing and well-known classifications (specifically Arnove, 2007). However, every author discussing the future of CIE has his or her own definition of the field, which makes a conclusive mapping impossible.

Using my own definitions, and through a connection with Arnove (2007) and Manzon (2011), I have demonstrated how the field's research purposes reflect its overall aims. While I can make certain conclusive statements about the research (e.g., context-critical is the most common research purpose), these statements are all based on my own purpose definitions and caution must be observed in generalising them. I would hesitate, for instance, to say that the most common purpose of the field's research is pragmatic without also specifying that it is the most common purpose of the field's research as defined by data from four journals over thirteen years, and using my own definition of pragmatism, not that of Arnove. Having taken this definitional concern into consideration, however, it is still possible to draw some final connections between the history of the field and its current research.

6 Conclusion

This thesis has emphasised the pragmatic aim of CIE in discussing its history and current body of research. I have explored what forces have contributed to the formation of CIE and its perpetuation, as well as to the research produced. Using frameworks from Arnove and Manzon to help define the purposes of the field, as well as theories from Foucault and Bourdieu to explain the field's nature, I have presented data in a manner which has not previously been attempted. Instead of focusing on the content of each journal article, I used this content to draw conclusions about the purpose of the articles in order to map the purpose of the research and relate this to the purpose of the field overall. In order to conclude this study, the findings presented above are discussed in conjunction with the historical context of the field. This contextualisation allows for a more nuanced interpretation of the data and presents some preliminary explanations.

6.1 Summary of Findings

Despite the limitations involved in this study, the findings from Chapter 5 have indicated that certain conclusions can be drawn regarding the research purposes of CIE. First, CIE does appear to have a primarily pragmatic aim, as evidenced by the frequency of critical and policy articles. Using the cumulative data from all four journals shows that articles which include a critical or policy purpose are far more common on average than those which do not (approximately 70% and 30%, respectively, though percentages vary slightly by individual journal). Research in the field of CIE is therefore primarily prescriptive, defined here as pragmatic. Purely theoretical research, represented by an independent classification of 'theory' in Table 5.15 and Figure 5.13, represents only 1% of the total research studied here. Using Arnove's definition of the field's purposes, the scientific dimension represents almost 30% of the overall research.

Considering the nature of the data analysis, it is impossible to predict how the representation of each research purpose will change over time. However, given the collected data regarding the history of the field as well as its current research, it is possible to suggest that the categories are likely to remain in a somewhat steady ratio: theory, for instance, is likely to remain the least well-represented, but also shows no signs of disappearing entirely. Due to the nature of descriptive statistics, it is not possible to conclusively state why the findings

presented above are true, only that they are true of the data studied here. Instead, using the history of CIE presented in earlier chapters, connections can be drawn between the existing body of research and its historical context.

6.2 The Current Field of CIE

It is now evident that pragmatic research is the most common across the four chosen research journals throughout the past thirteen years. Considering the history of CIE, its interdisciplinary nature, and the power dynamics at work in maintaining it, this is not surprising. According to Foucault's theory of discourse formation, the field of CIE reflects the current power relations within which it operates (Foucault, 1972). Throughout the past years, the discursive trends in education have all had primarily pragmatic ends, as evident by the expansion of PISA for example, and an increasing emphasis on measurement, indicators, and standardisation. Discourse formation in CIE is therefore reflective of an economically-driven world where globalisation and internationalisation have created a demand for more statistical, evidence-based change. Its tendency towards the pragmatic aim is reflective, then, of international trends.

Additionally, Bourdieu's field theory plays a significant role in shaping the genetic makeup of the field. Bourdieu's three types of capital within the university setting (academic, scientific, and intellectual) all represent different modes of attaining power. Academic capital implies the ability to control administrative or academic resources, and thus career influence; scientific power is based on research and scholarly publications; the ability to influence public opinion is defined as intellectual capital (Delanty, 2001). Considering the current emphasis on marketable skills, output-based evidence, and other economics-related measurements, it is unsurprising that all three forms of capital are currently related to scholars' ability to prove their worth. Scientific capital is gained through publishing research, which is in turn made possible by funding, and this in turn is currently determined by the research topic's applicability. As things stand, research is applicable when it demonstrates a pragmatic aim and can prove itself useful to the world of education. Scientific capital within CIE is therefore inextricably linked with the pragmatic aim of the field, as is clearly evident in the studied research journals.

Academic and intellectual capital are also heavily influenced by the emphasis on pragmatic CIE. Though all types of capital in an intellectual field are interdependent, not all depend on each other to the same extent or have the same functional weight; currently, intellectual and academic capital are far more dependent on scientific capital than vice versa (Bourdieu, 1969; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). Public opinion is currently heavily influenced by the neo-liberal agenda, marketisation, and other global trends (Meyer et al., 1997). In this sense, influencing public opinion (and thereby gaining intellectual capital) would require an agent (individual or institution) to provide certain evidence-based claims in line with the emphasis on economic outputs. These types of claims are currently the most highly respected, and therefore gaining intellectual capital requires adherence to pragmatism in the same manner that scientific capital does. Additionally, academic capital in most nations is now heavily dependent on the gaining of scientific capital; academics in universities are increasingly expected and often required to publish scientific papers in order to maintain their positions or for promotion (Cowen, 2006; Samoff, 2007). Therefore academic capital in CIE is also deeply intertwined with the pragmatic aim of the field. This is evidenced by the high incidence of critical and policy articles in the findings of this thesis.

However, the emphasis on ‘applied’ or pragmatic CIE has not corresponded with a complete disavowal of the theoretical aim, though theoretical articles appear far more likely to support a pragmatic end than they are to remain in their ‘pure’ form. This is evidence of the ‘refraction’ aspect of field theory as described by Bourdieu, and helps us to reject the pure ‘reflection’ described by Foucault’s discourse formation theory (Bourdieu, 1969; Foucault, 1972). Specifically, it demonstrates Bourdieu’s theory regarding the strategies of an agent within the field: as possessors of several different types of capital within the university setting, academics have the ability to “orient themselves either toward the preservation of the distribution of capital or towards the subversion of this distribution” (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 109). All individuals maintain different volumes and structures of capital; some may have accumulated a large amount of scientific capital over time, but less intellectual capital, for instance, whereas some individuals may have accumulated larger amounts of academic and intellectual capital than scientific (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). In this way, depending on the relative weight of an individual’s overall endowment of capital, he/she can make decisions (e.g. “more or less risky or cautious, subversive or conservative”) regarding his/her strategic orientation to the intellectual field (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 99).

Through this method of capital accumulation and consequent decision-making, the theoretical aim of the field has survived. Though there is less capital to be gained through the publication of theoretical articles at this particular time in history, where pragmatism seems to reign supreme in the international stage of education, academics operating within the intellectual field can continue to exercise the power they have acquired in ways that either perpetuate or subvert the existing system. This in turn helps to shape the discourse and structure of the field itself. Therefore, considering the likelihood that individual agents will continue to act independently, it is safe to assume that theoretical CIE research is unlikely to disappear entirely.

Moreover, pragmatic research in CIE does not necessarily appear to be perpetuating the neo-liberal system uncritically. Having demonstrated here that research with a critical aim is far more common than research which supports existing policies, it is possible to dispel some of the fears about adapting to mainstream and its associated “‘abuses’ of overly simplistic analyses” (Crossley, 2000, p. 324; Kubow and Fossum, 2007; Samoff, 2007). Specifically, certain researchers worried about the ability of CIE to reflect a wider cross-cultural discourse, considering the influence of international agencies and other institutional powers on research through funding (Crossley, 2000; Kubow and Fossum, 2007). As far as my survey shows, research in the four studied journals appears to have a much higher incidence of a critical, transformative, and emancipatory aim than it is to directly reflect the dominant international system by uncritically promoting existing policies. Cowen has noted that the ideal form of CIE would “reveal the compressions of social and economic and cultural power in education forms... Understanding those processes would permit us to speak truth unto the State; and a few other people as well” (Cowen, 2009, p.1291). It appears that CIE research is, in fact, attempting to fit this ideal mould.

In addressing Cowen’s suggested method of reconceptualising CIE and separating its ‘pure’ and ‘applied’ sides (Cowen, 2006, p. 570), the research studied here shows that this would be an almost impossible task. Research purposes appear far too intertwined; separating only the ‘pure’ theory articles from their pragmatically-aimed counterparts would lead to an incredible imbalance; ‘pure’ theory articles represent far too small a percentage of overall research to sustain an entirely separate field. It is possible, however, that separating the two strands would allow for ‘pure’ theory articles to gain their own audience, perhaps in the form of an entirely theory-based CIE journal. The existence of such a journal would perhaps provide

enough opportunity for scientific capital that the separated theory-CIE field would survive. This seems unlikely, however, given the current state of research funding, where most research appears to be large-scale, funded by governments and international agencies and focusing on pragmatic data collection (Manzon, 2011). In order to gain funding for research in the current system, researchers must investigate information that will prove ‘robust and relevant’ for policy-makers (Ozga et al., 2006, as cited in Cowen 2006, p. 562; Marginson and Mollis, 2001; Samoff, 2007). The pragmatic aim of CIE research thus dominates, perpetuating and contributing to the discourse which currently values economics first and foremost (Manzon, 2011). The prominence of pragmatic research articles in the four CIE journals is therefore unsurprising.

Having studied four prominent CIE journals, I can conclude that the pragmatic aim of CIE (including both the emancipatory and policy-supporting dimensions) has remained the most common purpose throughout the past thirteen years. Though theoretical CIE shows no evidence of disappearing, it is also inextricably linked with a prescriptive aim. Considering the Foucauldian and Bourdieuan forces which interact to influence the formation and perpetuation of the field of CIE, it is therefore possible to predict that CIE will remain primarily pragmatic as long as power remains linked with economic value.

6.3 Future Research

While this paper has allowed me to study the purpose of CIE in light of its history, it is only a first step in understanding how the field refracts external power dynamics and how this in turn influences the corresponding body of research. It would be interesting to expand this study in a variety of ways.

First, a more longitudinal study would provide more reliable information from which to analyse trends in the field. It would be beneficial to include all existing volumes of each journal in such a study. Second, inclusion of other journals, as well as journals published in languages other than English, would provide a wider view of the field’s research, and thus would more accurately reflect the field itself. It would be crucial in further studies to utilise the skills of more than one researcher, to ensure triangulation and thus increased reliability of the study.

Furthermore, it might be worthwhile to research funding sources and link these with the purpose or content of each article in order to examine the relationship between funding sources and specific research purposes. Similarly, it would be interesting to explore the differences between research produced by academic sources (or authors employed by universities) in comparison with research emerging directly from non-governmental and international organisations (or individuals associated with these groups), though this might be difficult in practice. Beyond the study of research journals, it might be particularly useful to explore the purpose of various CIE manuals and textbooks. Considering the inherent purpose connected with such texts, as they are used for teaching and disseminating certain ideals and values of the CIE field, a discourse analysis of textbooks and manuals might reveal more information regarding how the purpose of CIE is viewed in that particular sphere.

As regards to the statistical analysis, several other options could be considered by future researchers. While my choice of statistical methods for time series analysis was appropriate considering my research purpose, future researchers might well consider alternate methods in order to gain a different perspective on the data. Tests analysing the convergence or divergence of the categories over time, through the use of a linear regression method for example, would allow us to see whether the categories are becoming more or less independent with time. Non-parametric rank tests (such as the Kruskal-Wallis or Friedman tests) would determine probability of membership in any category in any one journal. Specifically, these test for stochastic dominance, which is relevant because its statistically significant presence would infer the probability that any article in a given journal belongs to one category over all others. For example, this might allow us to say with some significance that for a certain journal, all articles have a predisposition to have membership in one category (e.g. context) over all other categories. Though these tests would help more concretely explain the probability of belonging to a particular purpose category, and would therefore give a deeper analysis of category prominence, they would not give more information about the direction of any existing trends in the time series.

Having begun a line of questioning on the purpose of the field, it would also be beneficial to go more in depth, studying the history of intellectual and institutional CIE more closely and explaining the emergence and perpetuation of both using that particular lens. Lastly, it could be valuable to start developing a more detailed framework for the field's purpose. Having noticed how difficult Arnove's dimensions were to apply to the research, the creation of a

more concrete and applicable definition of CIE purposes would allow more people to explore this line of research. Through further study of the purpose of CIE, we might be able to gain more perspective on its relation to education and the social sciences in general, as well some insight into the interactions and forces at play within and around it. Considering the heavy incidence of self-reflection currently at hand in CIE, it is my hope that this thesis contributes to some deeper understanding of the field, and thus to more appreciation of what it has to offer.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Coding Worksheets by Journal

Comparative Education

Year	Issue. Article	Theory	General	Context	Policy	Critical
2000	1.1		2		4	
2000	1.2		2	3		5
2000	1.3		2			
2000	1.4		2	3		5
2000	1.5			3		
2000	1.6			3		5
2000	2.1			3		
2000	2.2	1	2			
2000	2.3		2	3		
2000	2.4			3		
2000	2.5			3		
2000	2.6			3		5
2000	2.7			3	4	
2000	2.8		2	3	4	
2000	2.9			3		
2000	2.10		2			5
2000	2.11	1	2			
2000	3.1		2			
2000	3.2			3	4	
2000	3.3		2		4	5
2000	3.4		2		4	5
2000	3.5		2			5
2000	3.6	1	2			
2000	3.7		2			5
2000	4.1		2	3		5
2000	4.2			3	4	5
2000	4.3			3		5
2000	4.4		2	3	4	5
2000	4.5			3	4	5
2001	1.1	1	2			5
2001	1.2			3		
2001	1.3			3		
2001	1.4			3	4	5
2001	1.5			3	4	
2001	1.6			3		5

2001	2.1	1	2			5
2001	2.2			3		
2001	2.3			3		
2001	2.4			3	4	
2001	2.5		2	3		5
2001	3.1		2	3		
2001	3.2		2	3		5
2001	3.3			3		5
2001	3.4		2	3		5
2001	3.5	1	2	3		
2001	3.6			3		
2001	3.7			3	4	5
2001	4.1		2			5
2001	4.2			3	4	
2001	4.3		2	3		5
2001	4.4		2	3		
2001	4.5	1	2			5
2001	4.6		2	3	4	5
2001	4.7		2	3	4	
2001	4.8		2			5
2002	1.1	1		3		
2002	1.2			3	4	
2002	1.3			3		5
2002	1.4			3		
2002	1.5			3		
2002	1.6			3		5
2002	2.1			3		5
2002	2.2			3		
2002	2.3			3		5
2002	2.4			3		5
2002	2.5			3		
2002	2.6			3	4	5
2002	3.1		2			
2002	3.2		2			5
2002	3.3			3		
2002	3.4			3	4	5
2002	3.5			3	4	
2002	3.6			3		5
2002	3.7			3		5
2002	3.8			3	4	5
2002	4.1	1	2			
2002	4.2		2	3	4	5
2002	4.3			3		
2002	4.4		2			

2002	4.5		2	3		5
2002	4.6		2	3		
2002	4.7		2	3		
2003	1.1		2			5
2003	1.2			3	4	
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International Review of Education

Blue articles in the table below represent non-English articles.

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2003	6.3			3	4	
2003	6.4			3		5
2004	1.1	1				
2004	1.2			3		
2004	1.3			3	4	
2004	1.4			3		
2004	2.1			3		
2004	2.2			3	4	
2004	2.3			3		5
2004	2.4			3	4	
2004	3.4.1		2	3		5
2004	3.4.2			3		5
2004	3.4.3			3		5
2004	3.4.4			3	4	
2004	3.4.5		2	3		5
2004	3.4.6			3		
2004	3.4.7	1		3		5
2004	3.4.8		2	3		
2004	3.4.9		2	3	4	
2004	3.4.10			3		5
2004	5.6.1			3		5
2004	5.6.2			3		5
2004	5.6.3			3		
2004	5.6.4			3	4	
2004	5.6.5		2	3		
2004	5.6.6			3	4	
2004	5.6.7			3		5

2005	1.1			3	4	
2005	1.2			3		
2005	1.3		2	3		
2005	1.4			3		
2005	2.3.1		2		4	
2005	2.3.2		2	3	4	
2005	2.3.3			3		5
2005	2.3.4	1		3		
2005	2.3.5	1	2			
2005	2.3.6		2	3	4	
2005	4.1	1	2			
2005	4.2		2			
2005	4.3	1				
2005	4.4			3	4	
2005	5.6.1	1				
2005	5.6.2		2			
2005	5.6.3			3	4	
2005	5.6.4			3		
2005	5.6.5		2		4	
2005	5.6.6			3	4	
2005	5.6.7			3		5
2006	1.2.1	1				
2006	1.2.2		2			5
2006	1.2.3		2	3		
2006	1.2.4			3		5
2006	1.2.5			3		5
2006	1.2.6			3	4	
2006	1.2.7			3	4	
2006	1.2.8	1	2			5
2006	3.4.1		2			5
2006	3.4.2		2	3		5
2006	3.4.3			3	4	
2006	3.4.4		2	3	4	
2006	3.4.5		2		4	
2006	3.4.6			3		5
2006	3.4.7			3		5
2006	3.4.8			3	4	
2006	3.4.9	1		3		5
2006	5.1			3		
2006	5.2		2	3		
2006	5.3		2			
2006	5.4		2		4	
2006	5.5			3	4	
2006	6.1	1	2	3		

2006	6.2			3		5
2006	6.3			3		
2006	6.4			3	4	
2006	6.5			3	4	
2007	1.1	1	2			
2007	1.2		2	3		
2007	1.3			3		5
2007	1.4	1		3		
2007	1.5	1				5
2007	2.1			3		
2007	2.2			3		
2007	2.3	1				5
2007	2.4	1		3		5
2007	2.5		2	3	4	
2007	3.1	1			4	
2007	3.2			3		5
2007	3.3			3		
2007	3.4			3		5
2007	4.1			3		5
2007	4.2		2	3		5
2007	4.3			3	4	
2007	4.4		2			
2007	4.5	1		3		5
2007	5.6.1		2			5
2007	5.6.2		2	3		5
2007	5.6.3		2		4	
2007	5.6.4		2	3		5
2007	5.6.5	1		3		
2007	5.6.6		2		4	
2007	5.6.7		2			
2007	5.6.8	1			4	
2007	5.6.9		2			
2007	5.6.10			3		5
2008	1.1			3		5
2008	1.2			3		5
2008	1.3		2		4	
2008	1.4			3		5
2008	1.5	1				
2008	2.1		2		4	
2008	2.2			3		
2008	2.3			3		5
2008	2.4	1				
2008	2.5			3	4	
2008	2.6			3		5

2008	3.4.1			3		
2008	3.4.2	1		-	4	
2008	3.4.3		2			5
2008	3.4.4			3		5
2008	3.4.5			3	4	
2008	3.4.6			3		
2008	3.4.7		2			5
2008	3.4.8		2	3		5
2008	3.4.9	1		3		
2008	3.4.10			3	4	
2008	3.4.11			3		
2008	3.4.12			3	4	5
2008	5.6.1	1	2			
2008	5.6.2		2	3		5
2008	5.6.3	1			4	
2008	5.6.4		2		4	
2008	5.6.5			3	4	
2008	5.6.6		2		4	
2008	5.6.7		2		4	
2008	5.6.8			3	4	
2008	5.6.9		2	3	4	
2008	5.6.10			3	4	
2009	1.1		2		4	
2009	1.2			3		5
2009	1.3		2	3	4	
2009	1.4			3	4	
2009	1.5			3		
2009	1.6			3		
2009	2.3.1	1				
2009	2.3.2		2		4	
2009	2.3.3		2			
2009	2.3.4		2		4	
2009	2.3.5			3		
2009	2.3.6			3	4	
2009	2.3.7		2	3		
2009	2.3.8		2	3		5
2009	4.1		2		4	
2009	4.2			3		5
2009	4.3			3		
2009	4.4			3	4	
2009	4.5	1				
2009	5.6.1			3	4	
2009	5.6.2			3		
2009	5.6.3		2	3		

2009	5.6.4			3		
2009	5.6.5	1				
2009	5.6.6			3		
2009	5.6.7			3	4	5
2009	5.6.8			3		
2010	1.1		2			5
2010	1.2		2		4	
2010	1.3			3	4	
2010	1.4		2		4	
2010	1.5		2		4	
2010	1.6			3		5
2010	1.7			3	4	
2010	2.3.1	1	2			
2010	2.3.2	1			4	
2010	2.3.3	1	2		4	5
2010	2.3.4		2		4	
2010	2.3.5		2	3	4	
2010	2.3.6			3	4	
2010	2.3.7			3	4	5
2010	2.3.8		2	3	4	
2010	2.3.9			3	4	
2010	2.3.10			3	4	
2010	2.3.11		2	3		
2010	4.1			3		
2010	4.2			3		5
2010	4.3			3		
2010	4.4			3		
2010	4.5			3	4	
2010	5.6.1	1				
2010	5.6.2	1	2		4	
2010	5.6.3		2			
2010	5.6.4		2		4	
2010	5.6.5		2			
2010	5.6.6			3	4	
2010	5.6.7			3	4	
2010	5.6.8		2	3		
2010	5.6.9			3	4	5
2010	5.6.10			3		
2010	5.6.11			3		5
2011	1.2.1	1		3	4	
2011	1.2.2	1	2			
2011	1.2.3		2	3		5
2011	1.2.4		2			5
2011	1.2.5		2	3	4	

2011	1.2.6		2		4	5
2011	1.2.7		2		4	
2011	1.2.8		3			5
2011	1.2.9		2			5
2011	1.2.10		2	3		
2011	1.2.11	1	2	3	4	
2011	1.2.12		2	3	4	
2011	3.4.1	1				
2011	3.4.2	1	2			
2011	3.4.3			3		
2011	3.4.4	1				
2011	3.4.5			3		5
2011	3.4.6			3	4	
2011	3.4.7			3	4	5
2011	3.4.8		2	3		
2011	3.4.9			3		
2011	3.4.10	1				5
2011	3.4.11		2	3		5
2011	3.4.12		2	3		
2011	5.6.1		2		4	
2011	5.6.2			3	4	
2011	5.6.3			3	4	
2011	5.6.4			3	4	
2011	5.6.5		2	3	4	
2011	5.6.6			3		5
2011	5.6.7			3	4	
2011	5.6.8			3	4	
2011	5.6.9		2	3		
2011	5.6.10			3		
2011	5.6.11			3	4	
2011	5.6.12		2	3	4	
2011	5.6.13			3		
2012	1.1			3		
2012	1.2			3	4	
2012	1.3			3	4	
2012	1.4			3		
2012	1.5			3		
2012	1.6		2	3		
2012	2.1		2	3	4	
2012	2.2		2	3		
2012	2.3		2			
2012	2.4			3	4	5
2012	2.5			3		5
2012	2.6			3		5

2012	3.1			3	4	5
2012	3.2			3		
2012	3.3		2	3	4	
2012	3.4			3		
2012	3.5			3	4	
2012	3.6			3		5
2012	4.1		2	3		
2012	4.2	1	2	3	4	
2012	4.3		2	3		5
2012	4.4			3		
2012	4.5		2		4	
2012	4.6	1			4	
2012	5.1			3	4	
2012	5.2		2	3		5
2012	5.3			3		
2012	5.4			3	4	
2012	6.1			3		
2012	6.2			3	4	
2012	6.3		2	3		5
2012	6.4		2			5

Appendix 2a: Membership Percentages by Journal, Year, Independent Category

Journal	Year	Theory	General	Context	Policy	Critical	Count
CE	2000	4.92	27.87	29.51	14.75	22.95	61
CE	2001	6.67	23.33	35.00	11.67	23.33	60
CE	2002	3.85	15.38	44.23	11.54	25.00	52
CE	2003	9.09	18.18	30.91	14.55	27.27	55
CE	2004	10.71	23.21	28.57	7.14	30.36	56
CE	2005	4.55	22.73	40.91	6.82	25.00	44
CE	2006	9.68	20.97	29.03	9.68	30.65	62
CE	2007	11.11	26.39	26.39	11.11	25.00	72
CE	2008	5.97	22.39	31.34	13.43	26.87	67
CE	2009	4.92	21.31	34.43	8.20	31.15	61
CE	2010	1.54	18.46	35.38	16.92	27.69	65
CE	2011	6.06	27.27	28.79	9.09	28.79	66
CE	2012	8.47	15.25	44.07	3.39	28.81	59
CER	2000	0.00	18.52	40.74	14.81	25.93	27
CER	2001	7.32	24.39	31.71	7.32	29.27	41
CER	2002	11.54	30.77	38.46	0.00	19.23	26
CER	2003	3.70	14.81	44.44	7.41	29.63	27
CER	2004	3.33	16.67	36.67	13.33	30.00	30
CER	2005	4.65	13.95	37.21	16.28	27.91	43
CER	2006	4.26	17.02	40.43	10.64	27.66	47
CER	2007	10.26	12.82	38.46	12.82	25.64	39
CER	2008	4.26	25.53	34.04	10.64	25.53	47
CER	2009	3.23	22.58	35.48	12.90	25.81	31
CER	2010	0.00	11.43	42.86	11.43	34.29	35
CER	2011	0.00	24.32	37.84	13.51	24.32	37
CER	2012	2.17	26.09	30.43	10.87	30.43	46
IJED	2000	3.45	10.34	43.10	20.69	22.41	58
IJED	2001	6.15	21.54	41.54	13.85	16.92	65
IJED	2002	1.35	13.51	47.30	14.86	22.97	74
IJED	2003	1.39	12.50	45.83	23.61	16.67	72
IJED	2004	0.00	14.46	48.19	18.07	19.28	83
IJED	2005	4.82	21.69	38.55	15.66	19.28	83
IJED	2006	1.16	19.77	43.02	15.12	20.93	86
IJED	2007	0.98	20.59	40.20	12.75	25.49	102
IJED	2008	0.97	13.59	45.63	13.59	26.21	103
IJED	2009	4.51	18.05	41.35	15.04	21.05	133
IJED	2010	1.43	15.71	41.43	12.14	29.29	140
IJED	2011	5.07	13.04	40.58	11.59	29.71	138
IJED	2012	2.38	12.50	42.26	16.07	26.79	168
IRE	2000	10.53	22.81	22.81	21.05	22.81	57
IRE	2001	3.92	21.57	33.33	13.73	27.45	51
IRE	2002	12.12	33.33	24.24	24.24	6.06	33
IRE	2003	0.00	22.22	37.04	20.37	20.37	54
IRE	2004	4.35	10.87	47.83	15.22	21.74	46
IRE	2005	8.82	23.53	38.24	23.53	5.88	34
IRE	2006	8.51	19.15	34.04	17.02	21.28	47

IRE	2007	16.67	14.58	33.33	12.50	22.92	48
IRE	2008	8.33	18.33	31.67	23.33	18.33	60
IRE	2009	5.00	20.00	40.00	25.00	10.00	40
IRE	2010	7.46	22.39	29.85	29.85	10.45	67
IRE	2011	8.11	22.97	33.78	22.97	12.16	74
IRE	2012	3.28	19.67	40.98	21.31	14.75	61
IRE_ne	2000	16.67	16.67	50.00	0.00	16.67	6
IRE_ne	2001	0.00	12.50	62.50	25.00	0.00	8
IRE_ne	2002	0.00	42.86	28.57	28.57	0.00	7
IRE_ne	2003	0.00	25.00	25.00	50.00	0.00	4
IRE_ne	2004	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	2
IRE_ne	2005	66.67	33.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	3
IRE_ne	2006	0.00	25.00	50.00	25.00	0.00	8
IRE_ne	2007	10.00	50.00	20.00	0.00	20.00	10
IRE_ne	2008	25.00	0.00	50.00	25.00	0.00	4
IRE_ne	2009	20.00	20.00	60.00	0.00	0.00	5
IRE_ne	2010	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	1
IRE_ne	2011	20.00	40.00	20.00	0.00	20.00	5
IRE_ne	2012	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	3

Appendix 2b: Mean Percentages by Journal, Category

Journal	Category	Mean %
CE	context	33.735
CE	critical	27.144
CE	general	21.750
CE	policy	10.638
CE	theory	6.733
CER	context	37.598
CER	critical	27.357
CER	general	19.916
CER	policy	10.920
CER	theory	4.209
IJED	context	43.000
IJED	critical	22.846
IJED	general	15.946
IJED	policy	15.619
IJED	theory	2.590
IRE	context	34.396
IRE	critical	16.477
IRE	general	20.879
IRE	policy	20.779
IRE	theory	7.469
IRE_ne	context	51.236
IRE_ne	critical	4.359
IRE_ne	general	20.412
IRE_ne	policy	11.813
IRE_ne	theory	12.179

Appendix 3: Membership Percentages and Frequencies of Combined Categories by Journal

Journal	Category	Count	%
CE	context critical	79	22.70
CE	context	54	15.52
CE	general context critical	30	8.62
CE	general critical	24	6.90
CE	context policy critical	22	6.32
CE	general context	22	6.32
CE	theory general critical	21	6.03
CE	general context policy critical	20	5.75
CE	context policy	15	4.31
CE	theory general	14	4.02
CE	general	9	2.59
CE	general policy critical	8	2.30
CE	general context policy	7	2.01
CE	general policy	5	1.44
CE	theory context	3	0.86
CE	theory critical	3	0.86
CE	theory general context	3	0.86
CE	theory general context policy	3	0.86
CE	theory general context critical	2	0.57
CE	theory general policy critical	2	0.57
CE	theory general policy	1	0.29
CE	theory policy critical	1	0.29
CER	context critical	57	25.56
CER	context	33	14.80
CER	context policy critical	26	11.66
CER	general	17	7.62
CER	general context critical	17	7.62
CER	general context	15	6.73
CER	general critical	11	4.93
CER	context policy	9	4.04
CER	general context policy critical	7	3.14
CER	general policy	6	2.69
CER	theory general critical	6	2.69
CER	theory general context	5	2.24
CER	general context policy	3	1.35
CER	theory general	3	1.35
CER	theory general context critical	3	1.35
CER	general policy critical	2	0.90
CER	theory context	1	0.45
CER	theory context critical	1	0.45
CER	theory critical	1	0.45
IJED	context critical	168	26.42
IJED	context	120	18.87
IJED	context policy	91	14.31
IJED	general context critical	57	8.96
IJED	general context policy	43	6.76
IJED	context policy critical	32	5.03

IJED	general critical	32	5.03
IJED	general context	27	4.25
IJED	general policy	13	2.04
IJED	general	9	1.42
IJED	general policy critical	6	0.94
IJED	theory context	5	0.79
IJED	theory general	5	0.79
IJED	general context policy critical	4	0.63
IJED	theory context critical	4	0.63
IJED	theory	3	0.47
IJED	theory critical	3	0.47
IJED	theory general critical	3	0.47
IJED	theory general policy	3	0.47
IJED	theory context policy	2	0.31
IJED	theory general context critical	2	0.31
IJED	theory policy	2	0.31
IJED	theory general context	1	0.16
IJED	theory general context policy	1	0.16
IRE	context policy	57	17.43
IRE	context critical	47	14.37
IRE	context	41	12.54
IRE	general policy	31	9.48
IRE	general context policy	22	6.73
IRE	general context critical	19	5.81
IRE	general critical	18	5.50
IRE	general context	16	4.89
IRE	context policy critical	12	3.67
IRE	general	10	3.06
IRE	theory	9	2.75
IRE	theory general	8	2.45
IRE	theory policy	8	2.45
IRE	theory context	5	1.53
IRE	theory context critical	5	1.53
IRE	theory general critical	4	1.22
IRE	theory general policy	3	0.92
IRE	general context policy critical	2	0.61
IRE	general policy critical	2	0.61
IRE	theory critical	2	0.61
IRE	theory general context policy	2	0.61
IRE	critical	1	0.31
IRE	theory context policy	1	0.31
IRE	theory general context	1	0.31
IRE	theory general policy critical	1	0.31
IRE_ne	context	15	34.09
IRE_ne	context policy	6	13.64
IRE_ne	general	6	13.64
IRE_ne	general context	5	11.36
IRE_ne	theory	4	9.09
IRE_ne	general policy	2	4.55
IRE_ne	general context critical	1	2.27
IRE_ne	general context policy	1	2.27
IRE_ne	general critical	1	2.27

IRE_ne	theory context critical	1	2.27
IRE_ne	theory critical	1	2.27
IRE_ne	theory general	1	2.27