Language Programme Evaluation for Meaningful English Language Teaching in Diverse Township Schools: Investigating the Parameters for More Equitable Education

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“May he give you the desire of your heart

and make all your plans succeed.”

Psalm 20:4

Declaration

I, Ndhivhuwo Ndou, declare that the thesis that I herewith submit for the Doctor Philosophiae degree (with specialisation in English) at the University of the Free State is my independent work and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education. I certify that all the assistance received in preparing this thesis has been acknowledged.

Signature **Date**

Abstract

The prescribed national Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) is intended to address the needs of learners at public schools in South Africa on an equitable basis. However, its generic design does not accommodate the diverse learner and teacher profiles. Significant disparities exist in teacher quality, school infrastructure, resources, and the socio-economic contexts of rural, township, and urban schools. Ensuring quality education requires equitable provision of resources and effective teaching practices. Additionally, it requires access to quality English language education since English serves as the medium of instruction for content subjects in most schools and prepares learners for the world of work and higher education. Hence, this study focused on how the English First Additional Language (EFAL) component of CAPS is operationalized in quintile 1 schools located in communities with limited exposure to English.

Drawing on Lynch's (1996) Context Adaptive Model (CAM), which provides a comprehensive multifaceted approach to evaluating language programmes, the researcher evaluated the Grade 10 EFAL school curriculum and its practical implementation through two mini case studies: one at a school in a farm setting and the other at a township art school. This focus stems from the persistent challenges faced by learners and teachers in distinct quintile 1 schools where English proficiency remains an obstacle, despite making academic progress and in some instances attaining good Grade 12 school results.

To determine the alignment of policy and practice in ensuring the effective implementation of CAPS, the researcher adopted a qualitative approach within an interpretivist paradigm. Data were gathered through interviews with stakeholders, classroom observations, analysis of student work and a critical appraisal of policy documents. The findings indicate a clear misalignment between the national curriculum and the English language needs of learners and teachers. The curriculum does not adequately address learners' linguistic and literacy challenges in under-resourced quintile 1 schools. Teachers are also not equipped to implement the curriculum effectively to support language development. Secondly, the study highlights teachers' inadequate pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) to work with multilingual learners. Translanguaging, which allows learners to use their home languages as a bridge to learning English, is not employed strategically in the two schools. This gap in teaching methodology contributes to the difficulties in fostering English proficiency. Thirdly, the low levels of English competency among Grade 10 learners in the two schools can largely be attributed to a restricted code caused by inadequate exposure to English for academic purposes and serious reading literacy constraints. The combination of these factors indicates a need for targeted interventions to improve English language education in these schools to operationalize the democratic ideal of equitable education.

Based on the findings above, this language programme evaluation recommends a revision of the curriculum to accommodate schools in different quintiles and to provide appropriate pedagogies for multilingual language learners. Effective evidence-based reading methodologies should be incorporated to enable reading with understanding across the curriculum. Additionally, robust professional development opportunities for teachers should be made accessible through online learning platforms, enabling them to collaborate with educational experts to increase learners' exposure to English and to implement effective EFAL teaching practices in quintile 1 schools. Furthermore, ongoing monitoring is essential to sustain momentum and ensure continued progress toward equitable English education. This can be done through regular cycles of programme evaluation employing a digitalized learning management system and database.

Keywords: Language programme evaluation, teacher development, equitable education, English language proficiency

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List of abbreviations

ALM	Audio-Lingual Method
ANA	Annual National Assessments
ATP	Annual Teaching Plan
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CAM	Context-Adaptive Model
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CBI	Content-Based Instruction
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
CTL	Communicative Language Teaching
CUT	Central University of Technology
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
DM	Direct method
DTDC	District Teacher Development Centres
FDoE	Free State Department of Education
FET	Further Education and Training
EFA	Education for All
EFAL	English First Additional Language
FSA	English First Additional Language Advisor
ELT	English Language Teaching programs
ELRC	Education Labour Relations Council
ESL	English Second Language
ETDPSETA	Education Training and Development Practices Sector Education and Training Authority
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
HL	Home Language

HOD	Head of Department
IL	Interlanguage
ISPFTEDDSA	Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa
L1	First Language
L2	Second language
LAD	Language Acquisition Device
LASS	Language Acquisition Support system
LiEP	Language in Education Policy
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
MKO	More Knowledgeable Other
MOI	Medium of Instruction
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NDP	National Development Plan 2030
NEEDU	National Education Evaluation and Development Unit
NGO	Non-Government Organisations
NICPD	National Institute for Curriculum and Professional Development
NL	Native language
NSC	National Senior Certificate
NSFAS	National Learner Financial Aid Scheme
OBE	Outcome Based Education
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
P1	Principal 1
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PED	Provincial departments of education
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PLC	Professional Learning Communities
PPS	Professional Practice Schools
PTDI	Provincial Teacher Development Institutes
PTEC	Provincial Teacher Education Committees

RSA	Republic of South Africa
SACE	South African Council for Educators
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SASA	South African Schools Act
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SGB	School Governing Body
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SP	Senior Phase
SSI	Semi-structured interviews
TT1	Teacher Trainee 1
TT2	Teacher Trainee 2
T1	Teacher 1
T2	Teacher 2
TBA	Text-based approach
TBLT	Task based language teaching
TED	Teacher Education and Development
TEI	Teacher Education Institutions
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target Language
TNTP	The New Teacher Project as a guide
TPACK	Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge
TS	Teaching Schools
TUT	Tshwane University of Technology
UDL	Universal Design for Learning
UFS	University of the Free State
UG	Universal Grammar
UN	United Nations
VNR	Voluntary National Review
VP2	Vice Principal 2
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter 1: The need for a programme evaluation of English language teaching in township schools

1.1 Introduction

Since South Africa became a democracy in 1994, government funding has been allocated on a far more equitable basis for the education of all South Africans than was the case under the previous political dispensation. Educational inequality was evident in the way funds were previously distributed. The Bantu Education Act categorized Departments of Education based on race and provided more funds to White schools and less funds to Black schools (Hindle 2007:148). This kind of distribution created disparities between schools (Ocampo 2004:1). It compromised the quality of education in Black schools. With less funding, Black schools could not invest in good infrastructure, teachers and resources.

Although there are still enormous shortages as far as school infrastructure and facilities are concerned, there has also been a dramatic increase in enrolments in higher education, especially the number of Black learners studying at university. This can be ascribed to the increased access to education and the introduction of bursary schemes such as the National Learner Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) and Funza Lushaka which support learners in paying for their undergraduate studies. This is indeed an encouraging sign of progress in one part of the education system and the South African government deserves to be commended for its investment in increasing the number of graduates. The advancements on the education front have resulted in higher numbers of Black graduates from disadvantaged townships and rural areas entering the professional realm as teachers, scientists, engineers, medical doctors etc. This is a good reflection of democracy at work in South Africa and the government's commitment to the global "Education for All (EFA)" initiative that was started in the 1990s (see The World Bank 2014:1). Although the increase in access to education is commendable, the question that remains to be answered relates to the quality of education, as opposed to mere considerations of increased learner numbers. Since the government provides funds to disadvantaged learners, is it pleased with the quality of teacher training provided by universities and other institutions? Do our graduate teachers have the knowledge and skills to manage the curriculum and demands of teaching, particularly in township and rural schools that have not been as well-resourced traditionally as some of the privileged schools in urban areas have been? Based on the variations reported in the annual Grade 12 National Senior Certificate (NSC) results, there are reasons to believe that the quality of teaching and learning is not the same, even in the case of schools that share similar contexts and historical legacies. Moreover, it is uncertain whether teachers can manage the demands of the prescribed school curriculum and how useful their education training has been to prepare them to be competent English language teachers. These uncertainties served as the stimulus for the present study. By investigating the realities of teaching English in township and rural schools, the researcher intended to shed some light on the reasons for the varying education quality and how teachers can be assisted to be more effective in the classroom. One of the core problems identified was the low English proficiency levels of learners from quintile 1 township schools. This is directly related to inadequate exposure to English for academic purposes throughout their schooling years. Language in education policy, the prescribed curriculum, pedagogies and teacher training must be directed at meeting the needs of learners who have limited exposure to English, such as those in quintile one schools.

The current education system appears to be unfair especially when considered from the point of view of the dominant role of English as the main language of learning and teaching (LoLT). At university level, we find that there are too many learners who struggle to master the prescribed content and who are not adequately prepared in terms of the demands of academic English. Learners are placed in the same lecture halls despite their linguistic and educational backgrounds. Those coming from township and rural schools tend to enter university with lower levels of English than in the case of learners from urban schools, and this has the potential to stall their success in academic coursework as they have to spend much time deciphering terminology and understanding basic concepts. Bangeni and Kapp (2007:4-5) reveal in their study that learners are shocked at the dominance of English at university. Even though English foundation courses are offered to strengthen language and literacy skills at many universities, they do not necessarily guarantee English competency in the time allowed. It would be preferable to address problems with mastering English for academic purposes at the school level.

Bangeni and Kapp comment that university students who “have been educated in racially mixed schools are relatively at ease …and can straddle racial and linguistic boundaries. Those who have been educated in working-class, ethnically homogenous schools enter the institution with a strong desire to preserve their home languages (HL) and home identities" (2007:1). These learners seem to struggle with the demands of English as an academic language. It is clear that many learners from township and rural areas do not attain high proficiency in English at school and that they find it hard to acculturate to the academic environment at university. A thorough case study of English language teaching in township and rural schools can shed light on how learners and teachers should be supported further.

Notwithstanding all the admirable progress that the South African government has made on the access side of education, it is now time to move the focus from *education for all* to *equitable and quality education for all*. This first chapter contextualizes the study by discussing the current state of public school education in South Africa and relevant legislation and policy aimed at supporting learning, after which it introduces a number of government stakeholders in education. Thereafter, it presents issues regarding teacher's competencies, the research problem, purpose of the study and questions that have inspired the researcher to conduct a full language programme evaluation in two secondary schools in the Motheo district of the Free State province. The last part of the chapter covers the theoretical frameworks guiding the study, as well as the research methodology and provides an outline of the remaining chapters of the study.

1.2 An overview of public school education in South Africa

South Africa has two broad categories of schools, which are defined in the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996, as public and independent schools (RSA 1996a:4). Private schools established under earlier legislation are considered to be independent schools that may receive some form of government subsidy (Sections 45, 46 and 53); public schools are state owned schools that are funded to different extents by the respective provincial legislatures (Section 12). Notwithstanding these distinctions between public and independent schools, Thobejane (2018:8) describes township schools as "public schools that are built in a ghetto or inner-city area designated for Africans by the former apartheid government of South Africa". Additionally, township schools are predominantly populated with learners whose mother tongue is a Sintu language[1]; for many of these learners English is a second or additional language (Kanyopa 2018:36) but they are not given adequate opportunity to master English and are expected to use it as the language of learning and teaching.

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[1] The "Bantu" languages of Southern Africa. The term *African languages* is also often used in government documentation and publications to refer to this group of indigenous languages, but from a linguistic perspective

When South Africa became a democratic country in 1994, systems and policies that were linked to apartheid were abolished and new ones were introduced. The changes resulted in schools being less segregated. Some Black learners are now able to attend private or former Model C schools in urban areas. Former Model C schools are schools that "were established in the apartheid era to serve the interests of a white community" (Barlett 2016:2). However, the majority of learners who come from disadvantaged backgrounds remain in township schools. Racial segregation within schools may no longer exist, but academic segregation continues in terms of the two schooling systems whereby learners in private or independent schools are generally at an advantage and obtain quality English education. Even though academic segregation exists, the government is trying by all means to ensure that quality education is offered in public schools.

In 2012, South Africa adopted the National Development Plan (NDP) for 2030 with the subtitle "Our future – make it work" to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality (NPC 2012:24). The plan, which is a strategy for economic development, was adopted before the 2015 United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and focuses on improving all facets of the lives of South Africans. It shares a vision for improving education, training and innovation: "By 2030, South Africans should have access to education and training of the highest quality, leading to significantly improved learning outcomes" (NPC 2012:296). The vision statement emphasises providing quality education and producing highly skilled matriculants. More recently, and in response to an evaluation of progress made towards the attainment of the United Nations (UN) 2030 Agenda goals, the Office of the Presidency in South Africa submitted to the UN a Voluntary National Review (VNR) which provides an overview of developments since South Africa became a democracy and sketches a broad picture of school education (RSA 2019). The UN Agenda 2030 contains 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs), with Goal 4 focusing on inclusive and quality education: "Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all" (RSA 2019:45). In line with this goal, Heugh (2021:37) notes that the main prerequisite for an inclusive and

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this is not accurate. See the notes on Sintu in the *Dictionary of South African English.* Available: https://dsae.co.za/entry/Sintu/e06478.

sustainable 21st century is to understand the role of multilingualism in facilitating learning amongst learners of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Heugh (2021:37) further notes that multilingualism plays a role in achieving social cohesion and promoting egalitarian inclusivity. It is because of such principles that Goal 4 is part of the prioritized goals of the South African government.

The progress that South Africa has made is commendable in some respects, as stated earlier. The VNR mentions an increase in general access to education, access to education by more female learners of a young age, and access to literacy (RSA 2019:12). However, it is worth noting that access to education does not guarantee quality education, as the VNR admits: "While access has increased, quality of education remains a challenge" (RSA 2019:46). In the report, the Office of the Presidency admits that there are still challenges, for example "completion rates in the upper secondary grades and enrolment rates in tertiary education are low" (RSA 2019:12). These are issues that contribute to a skills shortage that severely curtails growth: "Bachelor passes are still very low even though they are increasing over time, they are not enough to support the skills needs of the country" (RSA 2019:46).

Apart from what the Office of the Presidency has reported to the UN on progress made in education, the results of the Progress in International Reading and Literacy Study (Mullis *et al.* 2023:65-83) and the Report on the Annual National Assessments (DBE 2014:102) show that public school literacy levels remain low. Maddock and Maroun (2018:193) arrive at a similar conclusion in their study on the state of South African education: learners in public schools generally have low literacy levels. In their phenomenological study, Maddock and Maroun (2018:193) interviewed 17 stakeholders which included educators and parents. The interviewees expressed the shared view that the prescribed government school curriculum, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), has done nothing to remediate the problems in Outcome Based Education (OBE) and that the unsuitability of teachers contributes towards unstable teaching. Based on the findings of their study, Maddock and Maroun (2018: 200) believe that without proper training and teacher development, literacy levels cannot be addressed. On a positive note, the research study shows that teachers who are committed and passionate about education have faith in the curriculum and believe that strong leadership from the Department of Basic Education (DBE) and effective management of schools and universities can end the predicament of inadequate literacy development. Nonetheless, the views of most of the research participants regarding the standard of education remain negative;

adjectives and phrases such as “shoddy”, “massive red flag”, and “sad state”, amongst others, reflect the disappointment and frustration of the participants in the study (Maddock & Maroun 2018:199). Only two of the 17 respondents had positive views about the implementation of CAPS (Maddock & Maroun 2018:201). In addition to the matters raised above, the study reveals further points of criticism. Interviewees feel that CAPS has been abruptly introduced without thorough research. Moreover, progress with the implementation of the new curriculum tends to be assessed on the basis of reviewing teachers’ files about their learners instead of evaluating actual teaching. Maddock and Maroun are of the opinion that the whole education system needs “thorough re-examination” (2018:199). Similar views about the current state of the South African education system are shared by Mouton *et al.* (2013:41), Spaull (2015:21), and Thobejane (2018:114) amongst others. These views are a clear indication that the CAPS curriculum needs to be revised and other changes be made if we are to produce exceptional learners who are well prepared for tertiary education and the workplace.

It is clear from the above discussion that the South African government is committed to addressing literacy challenges and inequalities in education, as evident in the NDP and UN 2030 Agenda voluntary review, but too much emphasis has been placed by the education authorities on access and administrative duties of teachers rather than on the quality of actual teaching. There is also a need to probe other factors that may affect the quality of teaching, including the standard and suitability of teacher training programmes, ongoing curriculum revision and management, socio-economic factors, and the educational and linguistic needs of learners.

Apart from increased access and several curriculum changes to improve education, the government has introduced comprehensive legislation to regulate schooling and protect the rights of learners, further laudable initiatives. The next section discusses legislative and policy documents relevant to the current discussion on township and rural school education in South Africa.

1.3 Legislation governing school education

The preamble to the Constitution (RSA 1996b) clearly states the intention to “improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person”. This can only be achieved through an education system that serves all the citizens of the country and that ensures equity and equality. Section 29 of the Constitution deals specifically with education and the rights of all learners of different races and social backgrounds. Section 29 states that independent educational institutions should “maintain standards that are not inferior to standards at comparable public educational institutions” (RSA 1996b:12). The Constitution was adopted more than twenty years ago, yet the disparity in the quality of education between private and public schools still exists to date. Moreover, and contrary to the wording of Section 29 cited above, the current situation in the country reflects poorly on the standards of public educational institutions rather than those of private or independent institutions.

The discussion below looks at the key elements of the South African Schools Act (SASA) of 1996 as well as the matter of language in education policy. It also includes aspects of how the SASA of 1996 and the language policy influence access and quality of education in South African schools.

1.3.1 The South African Schools Act

As mentioned in Section 1.2 above, the South African Schools Act (SASA), Act No. 84 of 1996 (RSA 1996a), introduced a schooling system which entails two categories of schools, i.e. public and independent schools. Public schools are state owned and governed and independent schools are privately owned and governed. Independent schools are popularly known as private schools. The purpose of the Act is to set uniform norms and standards in the education system and ensure that high quality education is offered to all learners of different racial, social, economic and cultural backgrounds.

Apart from the two distinctions of independent and public schools, South African public schools are ranked according to different quintiles. The South African Schools Act was amended through the publication of the Education Laws Amendment Act (Act No.24 of 2005; see *Government Gazette* notice no. 28426), which made provision for norms and standards for the funding of public schools and authorized the Minister of Basic Education to declare schools in poorer areas to be exempt from school fees (RSA 2005). In terms of the amended legislation, schools that were classified as quintiles 1-3 did not require the payment of school fees. Veriava, *et.al* (2017:65) explain that the quintiles are a representation of the income and wealth of the community that surrounds each school. Schools located in the poorest communities are classified as quintile 1 and those that are in the wealthiest communities are classified as quintile 5 as presented below:

Table 1: The quintile system

Quintiles 1-5	
Quintile one (poorest 20%)	Fee free
Quintile two	Fee free
Quintile three	Fee free
Quintile four	Fee charging
Quintile five (wealthiest 20%)	Fee charging

(Veriava *et al*. 2017:65)

The idea behind the quintile system is to ensure that schools in lower quintiles (poor schools) receive non-personnel funds from the government to improve the quality of their schooling. Township and rural schools belong to quintiles 1-3. Some learners who live in townships attend independent or other schools in the suburban areas. Parents who live in the township and rural areas and are in the middle class often prefer to pay school and transportation fees so that their children can get access to "quality" education. Unfortunately, not all parents can afford private school fees or the fees levied by quintile 4 and 5 schools, as reported in Maddock and Maroun (2018:203). Veriava *et.al.* indicate that the "quintile system therefore ignores the reality that many learners travel from poorer communities to schools that are equipped with better-qualified teachers and facilities" (2017:67). Typically, the understanding of "good education" in South Africa is that learners must have a good foundation in the English language in order to succeed academically and economically (Akoojee & Nkomo 2008:386; Taylor, Sithole & Mayer 2014:41; Gordon & Harvey 2019) and that they should attend schools which are equipped with better-qualified teachers and facilities, as mentioned in the study by Maddock and Maroun (2018:205-200). The reality is that not all township and rural parents can afford to take their children to such schools and the repercussions hereof are severe: "High levels of proficiency in English are key requirements for success in the workplace and further study, and important indicators of learners' future prospects" (Taylor *et al.* 2014:25).

The division of schools according to quintiles makes it clear that the quality of education offered in these schools ranges widely, even though the schools may be teaching the same curriculum, and learners take the same standardized National Senior Certificate (NSC) examinations overseen by Umalusi[2]. Despite the fact that township and rural school learners struggle with English, their examination question papers are set in this language: “Examination question papers must be set in the Languages of Learning and Teaching (LoLT). Unless otherwise directed in the examination question paper, learners must answer all questions in the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) applicable to the learner” (DBE 2012:13). With regard to the quintile school system, Spaull (2015:21) notes that “it is an unspoken truth that no-fee schools are for the poor and ‘good’ schools are for the rich”. According to Spaull, the system implies that the rich get educated and the poor get schooled. Other scholars such as Ognonnaya and Awuah (2019) and Van Dyk and White (2019) share similar views that the quintile system does not favour schools in lower quintiles and the quality of education is compromised.

Ironically, the preamble to the South African Schools Act emphasizes the fact that South Africa has “consigned to history the past system of education which was based on racial inequality and segregation” and that education “of progressively high quality for all *learners*” is to be provided (RSA 1996a). To date, the government has been trying its best, but it seems as if the progress towards meeting this objective is stalling, as the voluntary review related to the UN Agenda 2030 admits: “The educational system continues to suffer from inequities and inequalities in the quality of education …” (RSA 2019:45). Levitan (2015:4) points out an important difference between equality and equity:

> A common understanding of educational equality is that schools should offer all learners the same education. This way all learners will have an equal chance. A common understanding of educational equity is that all children should be given the education they need to achieve certain outcomes (Levitan 2015: 4).

Equality in this regard is synonymous with sameness, irrespective of circumstances or need, whereas equity is associated with fairness. The South African education system expects all learners to achieve the same goal of being competent in English without considering the unfairness of the system. For all learners to attempt to achieve the desired level of English competency, they need to have access to the same opportunities – regardless of their social status, demography or quintile level. “Without an adequate grasp of English, many opportunities to learn are not available to learners. And, since this disproportionately affects poor learners, this is another source of inequality in the South African education system" (Taylor *et.al* 2014:23). Research shows that "children located in the rapidly deracialising middle class, attend schools formerly reserved for minority race groups, which generally produce educational achievement that is closer to the standards achieved in developed countries" *(ibid*:2). The current education system appears to be both unequal and unfair because the methods, approaches and resources used to prepare learners for English competency and further study do not seem to be the same across all quintiles, and township and rural school learners may not be receiving the kind of education that they need. It is clear that in terms of the quintile system, "schools in richer areas have access to additional resources by charging fees" (RSA 2019:49).

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[2] Umalusi is a Nguni term, which means “shepherd or herder”. It is the council that oversees national school-leaving examinations called National Senior Certificate (NSC). Available: https://www.umalusi.org.za/

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) contends that the notion of quality is closely intertwined with equity in discussions concerning a thriving education system. According to the OECD (2012:15), equitable education is characterized by systems that are "fair and inclusive, supporting learners to attain their learning potential without imposing either formal or informal barriers or lowering expectations." This perspective aligns with the views of Du Plessis and Du Plessis (2023:106), who emphasize the interconnectedness of fairness, equity, and quality, asserting that their harmonious integration contributes significantly to the overall success of educational institutions.

Russian revolutionary Sergey Nachayer once said, "The end justifies the means", meaning that if a goal is morally important enough, any method of attaining it should be pursued. The means used to prepare township and rural school learners for English competency and academic success thus needs to be investigated: "It is crucial to evaluate and investigate the implementation of different approaches for English LoLT teaching in township schools" (Thobejane 2018:114).

In addition to the above-mentioned endeavours related to the South African Schools Act, which is aimed at increasing funding and resources for schools in the lower quintiles to promote equality and equity, the government has also tried to work with languages in education in a more just and fair manner through education policy.

1.3.2 Language in education policy

Shortly after South Africa became a democratic country, language in education policy was formulated with the intention to oversee how languages are managed in education contexts. The policy document lists several main aims of the Department of Education (DoE) with regard to their policy for language education, which in summary conveys the idea of promoting multilingualism, developing official languages, establishing additive multilingualism as an approach to language in education that is supportive of conceptual growth amongst learners, and developing programmes that will ameliorate languages that were previously disadvantaged (DoE 1997:2). The policy "reflects the importance that is attached to all the languages of South Africa, especially the historically excluded languages" (Hadebe 2001:27).

In terms of the current study on language teaching in quintile 1 township and rural schools, the policy document states that "From Grade 10 to Grade 12 two languages must be passed, one on first language (L1) level, and the other one at least second language (L2) level. At least one of these languages must be an official language" (DoE 1997:2). According to the policy, official language(s) must be the language(s) of teaching and learning in public schools. Hadebe (2001:46) believes that the implementation of this policy has challenges such as limited resources, lack of incentives, incapacity of teachers, ambiguous goals, lack of coordination and control, and insufficient support of stakeholders. If two or more of these problems exist in a school, success in English instruction may be a challenge (Hadebe 2001:46). Tshotsho (2013:43) also shares similar views about constraints with the implementation of the policy. Another potentially problematic aspect of the policy is the fact that the "right to choose the language of learning and teaching is vested in the individual", although this right needs to be read in conjunction with other policy directives such as the "obligation on the education system to promote multilingualism" (preamble to the policy, point 6; DoE 1997), as well as the South African Schools Act.

Section 6(2) of the South African Schools Act (RSA 1996a) confers on the School Governing Body (SGB) the right to determine the language policy of the school: "The governing body of a public school may determine the language policy of the school subject to the Constitution, this Act and any applicable provincial law" (RSA 1996a). It is unusual to find a school that agrees to use an African language as the LoLT beyond the Foundation Phase (Grades R-3), despite the fact that most learners are multilingual and the policy is aimed at strengthening and encouraging multilingualism through the use of the Sintu languages. As Guzula (2022:34) categorically states, in Grade 4 “children are exposed to, and experience, an Anglonormative ideology as they are expected to become English monolinguals”. According to Guzula, the shift in Grade 4 from monolingual African Language instruction to monolingual English is the reason why learners are regarded as “failures, not proficient, non-readers or non-producers of meaning” (2022:27). CAPS seems to normalize this abrupt shift, which is supported by many parents in townships who believe that learners do not need to first learn their home language in order to preserve their mother tongue and that they should switch to English as soon as possible to succeed academically.

Even though most township schools choose English as the LoLT from Grade 4, teachers and learners tend to integrate vernaculars in their lessons to simplify complex concepts (see Hadebe 2001:39-40; Moyo, Beukes & Van Rensburg 2010:32). As stipulated in the Constitution (RSA 1996b:1257) in Section 29(2), “Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable”. Section 29(2) specifically states that the use of the learners’ choice of language is applicable in public schools, which is a good way to promote diversity and integrate indigenous or Sintu languages in the learning process. This is what usually happens in township and rural schools: learners and teachers tend to code switch. Based on her research in schools, Heugh (2021:37-38) explains that the “languages used in most classroom settings, whether these are in urban, rural or remote locations, always include a complex set of well-researched code-mixing, codeswitching, translation and interpreting practices”, a phenomenon referred to as horizontal multilingualism. The fact that code switching is taking place is not necessarily problematic, especially in the lower grades of teaching where learners are being introduced to a new language. However, when the reason for code switching in the higher grades is related to a lack of proficiency in English, this can obstruct the mastery of the language: “Teachers are known to divert from the LoLT during teaching and resort to other languages where the learner, or both learner and teacher, have a better command” (Taylor *et.al* 2014:41). Although Taylor and other scholars are wary of whether code switching supports or obstructs mastery of English at a high level, Guzula (2022) and Probyn (2019) believe that multilingualism in classroom settings is beneficial and supports learning. Guzula (2022:30-41) conducted a case study on how dynamic bilingualism can be used to challenge the monolingual norm and the English bias to delink the colonial language ideologies in policy and practice, and concluded that translanguaging as a way of teaching demonstrates the child’s multilingual identity and opens "pathways for meaningful learning, self-conception, identity, representation of what exists and what it means to be an African speaking child". Probyn (2019:232) believes that the use of multilingualism and translanguaging in classrooms can play an important role in supporting learners to learn subjects such as science. Such alternative views to English-medium instruction raise questions about the effectiveness of translanguaging in language teaching and learning contexts. This is one of the aspects that the current study scrutinises as part of the full English language programme evaluation, which includes an analysis of the prescribed Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), as well as how teachers engage with the curriculum to support learning in township and rural schools.

1.4 The involvement of stakeholders in supporting schools

The South African government and stakeholders in the education sector are endeavouring to ensure that poor schools improve their performance. As mentioned earlier, more learners from poor communities are being admitted to university than in the past. The government has assigned task teams, set goals and a timeline to ensure that the mission of improving education in poor communities is met. The progress may be gradual, but action is being taken: "…a number of schools serving poor communities are beginning to improve their performance very significantly, although they make up a negligible fraction of the total school population" (Taylor *et al.* 2014:3).

In an effort to improve the quality of teachers and teaching practices in South Africa, stakeholders from the teacher education and development sector held a Teacher Development Summit for the first time in July 2009. Participants included representatives of unions, the South African Council for Educators (SACE), the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) and the Education, Training and Development Practices Sector Education and Training Authority (ETDP SETA), as well as representatives from the DBE and Higher Education South Africa (HESA). At the summit, challenges experienced with both teacher education and classroom teaching practice were addressed. The summit resulted in a declaration that called for the development of a new integrated plan to strengthen teacher development in South Africa. The collaborative work by stakeholders led to the adoption of the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 (DHET & DBE 2011). The plan is not fixed; it is dynamic and ongoing, allowing input from all teacher education and development stakeholders. To achieve the objective of improving the quality of teacher education and teaching practice, the involved stakeholders have specific responsibilities. The Department of Basic Education (DBE), provincial departments of education (PEDs) and Department of Higher Education (DHET) each have set outcomes to achieve and activities to execute in order to ensure that the objectives of the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa are met.

The responsibilities for the assigned departments are stated as follows:

> 12.1 The DBE is considered to be the lead agency responsible for: the establishment of a National Institute for Curriculum and Professional Development (NICPD); the development of processes to assist teachers to identify their development needs and to enable expanded opportunities for access to quality Continuing Professional Development (CPD) activities and Programmes to meet these needs; and the identification of system priorities for targeted teacher development
>
> 12.2 The PEDs are considered to be the lead agencies responsible for the establishment and development of: Provincial Teacher Development Institutes (PTDIs); District Teacher Development Centres (DTDCs); and Professional Learning Communities (PLCs)
>
> 12.3 The DHET is considered to be the lead agency responsible for: ensuring a sufficient supply of new teachers for all teaching specialisations (phases, learning areas and subjects) steered by information on the supply, demand and utilisation of educators in the schooling system; ensuring the development and provision of qualification-based CPD Programmes for all types of teachers working in the schooling system; establishing a network of viable, accessible Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs), Teaching Schools (TSs) and Professional Practice Schools (PPSs); and establishing Provincial Teacher Education Committees (PTECs) that will assist to inform enrolment planning for teacher qualification Programmes.
>
> (DHET & DBE 2011:2)

The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa recognises that all parties involved in education have a role to play in improving the teaching profession, including teachers and teacher unions, not just the above-mentioned departments. The envisaged plan to address failures in education includes the primary outcome of improving the "quality of teacher education and development in order to improve the quality of teachers and teaching" (DHET & DBE 2011:22). Amongst the responsibilities of the respective departments are certain outputs such as how the needs of teachers can be identified and attended to, how top performing school-leavers can be attracted to become teachers, how teacher support can be strengthened at provincial level, and how a formal teacher training system can be expanded (*ibid.* 4-15). Such involvement by education stakeholders and the government indicates the level of seriousness to respond to the challenges faced in the education sector.

1.5 Teachers’ English competencies

Findings from a study conducted by the National Education Evaluation and Development Unit (NEEDU) reveal that over 70% of teachers in the Further Education and Training Phase (EFT) and Senior Phase (SP) are using a LoLT that is not their home language (Taylor *et al.* 2014:41). This could be one of the reasons for the lack of modelling of good English by teachers in classrooms, which in the opinion of Thobejane (2018:3), “perpetuates to [sic] the problem”. Even if there is a move to use Sintu languages as the medium of instruction, teachers still need to be good models of all languages used for teaching and learning.

If teachers are not fluent in a language, it will affect their ability to deliver subject content effectively. It is not a problem that teachers are not first language (L1) speakers of English. Rather, it is the level and kind of English that teachers use in the classroom that may not be appropriate for academic purposes. There is a difference between qualification, knowledge and skill. All teachers should be qualified to teach and have a good knowledge of the subject content. However, they may not all have the necessary skills to teach an assigned subject through the medium of a particular language. Therefore, teachers’ subject and pedagogical content knowledge, qualifications and years of experience are not enough to guarantee effective teaching without addressing the matter of language proficiency. However, the importance of academic language proficiency appears to be overlooked, as the following quotation illustrates:

> …no matter what type of training a teacher has undergone, without the combination of both knowledge and skills, training might still not be effective. Knowing what to teach, how to teach, and what methods to be used for a particular topic, empower a teacher and allow them to personalize their teaching (Deocampo 2020:487).

Coupland, Garton and Burns (2014) identify a number of challenges in teaching English to young learners against the backdrop of the global rise of English. Their study reveals that a shortage of teachers with adequate training in teaching young learners leads to poor teaching practice. Such teachers tend to focus on teaching knowledge instead of developing English language skills. The neglect of English language skills may be attributed to the teachers’ own limitations in terms of mastering the English language. Finally, large class sizes make it difficult for teachers to maintain motivation, especially in rural areas where children may struggle to understand the significance of learning English as they have little contact with highly fluent English speakers, as Disalva and Vijayakumar (2019:3-4) and Ganaprakasam and Karunaharan (2020:180) have found. Although these studies were conducted in other countries, the findings are relevant to the South African context as well.

Most teachers in government schools are products of the same education system and come from disadvantaged backgrounds, educationally and socially. Therefore, the possibility exists that they will provide a similar quality of education as that which they obtained when they were learners. Teachers’ prior knowledge about teaching and teaching experiences is also related to their historical and sociocultural contexts. Teachers tend to teach as they were taught, a phenomenon referred to as the “apprenticeship of observation” (Lorie 1975:160). Even though some of the learners matriculate with good grades, they may find it difficult to perform well at university during their teacher training due to a lack of support from their lecturers, content mastery challenges and the demands of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). Learner educators are expected to do most of their learning independently in higher levels of English and this often compromises their ability to perform the same way as they would in Grade 12.

When training pre-service teachers to teach English, it is important to note that theoretical knowledge and language mastery alone are not enough. Teachers need to know how to deliver content using appropriate methods and techniques. In other words, they need to be equipped with pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) in order for them to facilitate effectively. Shulman (1987) coined this term in order to foreground the type of knowledge that teachers need as one of the crucial factors for effective teaching. Shulman states that PCK “represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction” (1987:8). Therefore, in the context of foreign or additional language teaching, such as in the instance of Grade 10 EFAL, PCK focuses on how to teach the language in a way that enables learners to communicate effectively in the second or additional language.

1.6 Purpose of the study and research questions

The purpose of this study is to evaluate from different angles the English language programme offered to Grade 10 learners at two particular schools in the Motheo district. Of particular interest is the matter of teacher's readiness to deliver equitable education of a high quality. Learning is a two-way process that involves both the learner and teacher. However, numerous research studies in South Africa have focused on difficulties faced by English Second Language (ESL) learners (Moyo 2010 *et al*., Cheng, Yunus & Mohamad 2016*, &* Thobejane 2018) More research needs to be conducted on the unique context of teachers working in local township and rural schools, their teaching experiences and the methods that they use as additional English language speakers to help prepare learners for high levels of English competency and performance – especially in disadvantaged communities. Most research seems to cover the challenges of ESL learners instead of challenges of ESL teachers. The performance of learners indirectly reflects the performance and quality of the teaching; hence, it is also important to examine other factors that indirectly influence the quality of education, such as support from the Department of Basic Education, the prescribed curriculum, and language and education policy issues. If language policy and teaching practice are not aligned with the needs of the learners and teachers, for example, this can be detrimental to the quality of education provided.

When learners perform poorly, they are usually assisted to improve, but teachers' performance is not always assessed. Therefore, there is little opportunity for them to receive tailored support and improve their teaching practice in line with their individual challenges and circumstances. The study will therefore use an established model in applied linguistics programme evaluation to appraise the Grade 10 English First Additional (EFAL) language programme prescribed in CAPS, as well as how teachers engage with the curriculum in township schools, with a view to identifying the pedagogical content knowledge needs of teachers as well as curriculum and other constraints. As Deocampo (2020:486) states: "To be a competent teacher in the field of English language teaching, a teacher needs a growing body of knowledge to help learners achieve lifelong learning. Effective teachers require re-examining their basic principles, methodologies and trainings, such as, through a teaching reflection."

As mentioned earlier, the ineffective use of vernacular in classrooms through code switching may be one of the reasons that learners do not successfully master English. For learners who wish to transition smoothly to university and the workplace after matriculating, it is thus important to investigate what is happening in English language classrooms to support fluency and accuracy in the language, especially in township schools with a historical disadvantage and where abundant resources and good infrastructure may not be available.

Aim and Objectives

The aim and objectives of the study are to:

- Determine the alignment of curriculum and language in education policy with the needs of learners and teachers;
- Determine what pedagogies and resources teachers are using to support learning and whether they are relevant for learners with diverse needs;
- Determine the extent to which teachers are familiar with the curriculum and managing to cover all the prescribed components;
- Analyse outcomes of the language programme evaluation and make recommendations where necessary.

Research questions

The following questions were used to guide the language programme evaluation:

- Does the prescribed curriculum and language in education policy align with the needs of learners and teachers?
- What pedagogies and resources do teachers use to support learning, and are they relevant and effective for diverse and multilingual classrooms?
- How do teachers draw on the curriculum to introduce subject content and develop learners' competencies in EFAL classrooms, and are they able to manage the demands of the curriculum?
- What do the language programme evaluation outcomes mean for policy and curriculum revitalisation, teacher support, and the creation of enabling and meaningful learning environments?

The nature of the above questions helped to determine the design for this research study which calls for a qualitative empirical approach in which data are collected primarily through observation, engagement with teachers, analysis of learners' samples of work and appraisal of the CAPS document and other education-related policies. According to Gaskell, empirical research methods “derive from the application of observation and experience to a research question rather than being grounded in theory alone” (2000:349).

1.7 Conceptual and theoretical framework

The study is mainly guided by Lynch’s (1996) context adaptive model (CAM) for programme evaluation which makes provision for investigating phenomena from multiple angles. The emphasis falls on teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge (TPCK) and needs. Also relevant to the study are Halliday’s notion of language functions (2007), the work of Vygotsky (1978) pertaining to a constructivist approach to language learning, second language acquisition (SLA) theory, and Bernstein’s (1971) restricted and elaborated code theory. Below is a brief discussion of the concepts and frameworks guiding the study, which will be explained in detail in the literature review chapter.

1.7.1 Language programme evaluation

The Grade 10 EFAL programme evaluation was conducted using the *context-adaptive model* that was formulated by Lynch (1996:1-2). Because the model was designed to evaluate language programmes, Lynch situates programme evaluation within the discipline of *applied linguistics* “to refer to research and practice concerned with the application of knowledge and methods from a variety of disciplines… to the range of issues concerning the development and use of language” (Lynch 1996:1). The different disciplines include linguistics, education, sociology and psychology, amongst others. Lynch (1996:2) defines *program* as an “instructional sequence” and makes provision in his CAM for different phases and steps. Lastly, Lynch acknowledges that the term *evaluation* is often used ambiguously in relation to terms such as *assessment* and *testing*. He views evaluation as “the systematic attempt to gather information in order to make judgements or decisions” (Lynch 1996:2). This means that an evaluation can make use of assessments and research information gathering instruments that can yield both quantitative and qualitative data. In essence, programme evaluation is “a systematic method for collecting, analyzing, and using information to answer basic questions about a program” (Allison 2007:1). Therefore, language programme evaluation is an accountable way to determine how a programme is being implemented in real contexts by using tools such as document analysis, evaluation of assessment artefacts, interviews and observations. This provides theoretical justification for continuing or revising the programme and making recommendations that support language learning. It takes place when stakeholders involved in a certain programme need to establish its viability and feasibility with the aim to launch a new programme or revise the existing version (Rossi, Lipsey & Freeman 2004:14). This aligns with the objectives of the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025, referred to in Section 1.4.

Rossi *et al.* (2004:14) suggest the following questions, amongst others, that can be used in order to conduct an evaluation:

- What are the nature and scope of the problem?
- What feasible interventions are likely to significantly ameliorate the problem?
- Is the intervention being successfully implemented?
- Is the intervention reaching the target population?

The current study adopted Lynch's (1990) context-adaptive model (CAM) for language programme evaluation because it is "…flexible, adaptable heuristic – a starting point for inquiry into language education programs that will constantly reshape and redefine itself, depending on the context of the program and evaluation" (Lynch 1996:3). The researcher has the luxury to tailor it in a way that suits the study. In this study, Lynch's CAM (1990) was a useful model to view the Grade 10 English language programme holistically. CAM has seven steps that are explained briefly in the research design section below and in detail in further chapters.

1.7.2 Language learning theories

It is because of and through language that humans are able to communicate, build relationships and become educated. Numerous theories about language learning and teaching approaches have been developed over more than a century of research to help teachers in the language disciplines to overcome some of the challenges of teaching a second or additional language. Amongst the theories that are discussed in the literature review are those of a generative, mentalist and linguistic nature, as well as those deriving from psychological aspects of language learning and socio-cultural theories. The work of Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1983) are relevant to some aspects of the language programme evaluation as language is a social concept that is developed through social interaction and learning from others who are more knowledgeable.

Closely related to the notion of knowledge being constructed through social interactions is Bernstein's (1971) notion of the restricted and the elaborated code. According to this theory, working-class speakers have access only to the former, but middle-class members to both. Middle-class speakers use longer words, complex sentences, and detailed descriptions (elaborated code). On the other hand, working-class speakers speak in simple terms, use slang and colloquialisms and language is often specific to small groups of communication (restricted code). The theory is based on how these speech codes influence children's ability to learn in the education system. The different types of learners in the South African education system can be distinguished by these codes. In the educational setting, the learners who come from the middle class have an advantage over those of the working class. Since the two schools selected for the current study are quintile 1 schools, Bernstein's theory is relevant to probing the kind of language being used in the township school classrooms that formed part of the study.

English is a complex language that takes considerable time and effort to learn and teach especially to learners who are not first speakers of the English language. Therefore, both learners and teachers cannot solely depend on in-class learning and teaching hours to ensure mastery of English. With this in mind, the concept of autonomy as an important notion in language learning is important for teachers and learners to understand in order to complement the language curriculum: "Teacher autonomy and learner autonomy are closely linked and without sufficient knowledge and guidance, teachers are unlikely to develop the skills to be able to foster learner autonomy in their own classrooms" (Reinders & Balcikanli 2011:21). Autonomy is defined as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (Reinders & White 2016:144). Affective factors such as motivation influence autonomy. With the COVID-19 pandemic of 2020-2021, learners had to take charge of their own learning and teachers were expected to learn new forms of teaching. However, township and rural school teachers were limited to providing instructions to learners as there were no contact sessions or opportunities to facilitate classes due to limited resources such as laptops, data and phone technology. Learners were required to take on much more responsibility for the learning process. However, it is uncertain to what extent learners actually did this. The data for the current study were collected during the course of 2022, shortly after learners returned to contact teaching in schools. Autonomy in language learning was thus also probed as part of the study.

1.8 Research design and methodology

The study adopted a qualitative approach to present data and findings. Classroom observations, interviews and document appraisals were used as tools and instruments for obtaining data from primary sources. According to Cropley (2021:5) the core property of qualitative research is "that it examines the way people make sense out of their own concrete, real-life experiences *in their own minds* and *in their own words*". The participants in the study were able to respond to interview questions and share comments more naturally. Cropley (2021:26) emphasises that qualitative research mainly involves interaction with people and drawing conclusions about them, which is something that happens all the time. Hyde (2000:84) believes that one of the advantages of qualitative research is that it "allows the researcher to study issues in depth; data collection is not limited to predetermined categories". The results that are obtained in qualitative research are referred to as "narratives" and include statements in written text, video recordings, audio recordings, observations, and even works of art (Cropley 2021:5).

The researcher identified the qualitative research method as an appropriate approach since it is a humanistic study that values the personal experiences of teachers within an interpretivist paradigm, which can also be called a constructivist paradigm (Creswell 2007). Qualitative methods are attractive because they seem to allow an escape from intricate scientific or mathematical concepts, experiments, extensive calculations, coding and the likes, but the harsh reality is that they too require hard work, courage, determination and a high level of knowledge. Moreover, high levels of emotional intelligence, perseverance, communication and people skills are needed. Without these, the researcher may face challenges in obtaining data since the study does not deal with physical objects but human beings with unique individual characteristics.

This study is fully dependent on primary sources of information, specifically the provincial education department EFAL advisor (FSA), school principals, heads of departments and teachers. It is not experimental research and does not require the use of a laboratory. It is field based and descriptive in nature with a view to ensuring the validity of findings.

In order to collect the relevant data to evaluate the English language programme in the two township secondary schools selected for the study, the researcher employed Lynch's context-adaptive model (CAM). The model is not rigid and does not need to be tested for validity using experimental research design and statistical techniques. The following figure indicates the steps used in Lynch's CAM.

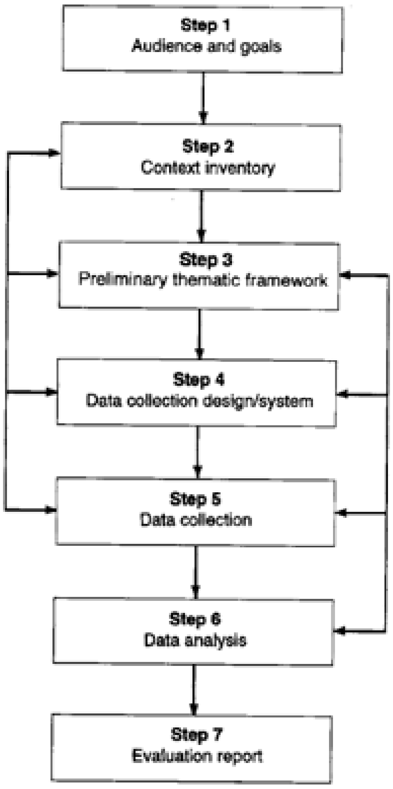

Step 1
Audience and goals
Step 2
Context inventory
Step 3
Preliminary thematic framework
Step 4
Data collection design/system
Step 5
Data collection
Step 6
Data analysis
Step 7
Evaluation report

Figure 1: Lynch's CAM steps (Lynch 1996:4)

Although different programme evaluation models exist, the most useful model of evaluation for the study was Lynch's context-adaptive model because of its comprehensive, yet adaptive and flexible nature. This model allowed the researcher to tailor the steps according to the different contexts of the two schools. In this way, the researcher could evaluate the various aspects of the language programme and triangulate and compare data. The programme evaluation covered the following aspects in particular:

- document analysis and appraisal of the prescribed CAPS curriculum
- teachers' responses to the curriculum, their needs for further support and development
- knowledge and adherence to the curriculum guidelines
- competences of teachers and training needs
- support provided by provincial education departments

- support provided by schools

The first three steps of CAM were used to obtain contextual and background information and to identify preliminary themes that would guide the study and inform the design of the data collection instruments.

1.8.1 Participants in the study

Two township schools in the Bloemfontein district were selected on the basis of their subsidy quintile and performance in the National Senior Certificate (NSC) school-leaving examination over the past five years: one school with a record of good results, the other with a record of low performance. Furthermore, the schools had to be in township or rural areas. After identifying the schools that met these requirements, two schools were selected randomly. These schools were used as mini case studies to investigate how the English language programme was being implemented and whether the strategies that teachers used supported academic performance. Grade 10 was identified as a suitable grade for the evaluation as this is the first year of the Further Education and Training Phase (FET) and it plays an important part in preparing learners for further study after matriculation. It is also the grade with the highest number of repeating learners (DBE 2019:6), which suggests that there may be additional challenges for teachers of this grade. The findings of the study, however, are believed to be relevant for the entire primary and secondary phase and not only with regard to Grade 10. It would have been impossible to include more grades in the time allowed for data collection. In addition to interviewing and observing one Grade 10 teacher from each of the two selected schools, the school principals and subject advisors for EFAL were consulted and interviewed in the study.

1.8.2 Data collection tools and instruments

In order to collect substantial and reliable data to answer the research questions, the researcher used a number of tools and instruments at different phases of the study. These are discussed in detail in the subsequent chapters but are summarized below.

1.8.2.1 Semi-structured interviews (SSI) with primary stakeholders

Although public school teachers may be teaching according to the approaches suggested by the DBE in the prescribed curriculum, they may have different styles of teaching. No two teachers are the same. The same content can be delivered in different ways depending on the teachers' skills, experience, and personality, etc. Therefore, the researcher believed that conducting individual semi-structured interviews with the Grade 10 FAL English teachers, the primary stakeholders and audience most closely involved in the language programme, would yield substantial data and enable the teachers to discuss the language teaching programme in depth in a non-threatening and conversational way, as proposed by Newcomer, Hatry and Wholey (2015):

> Conducted conversationally with one respondent at a time, the SSI employs a blend of closed- and open-ended questions, often accompanied by follow-up why or how questions. The dialogue can meander around the topics on the agenda—rather than adhering slavishly to verbatim questions as in a standardized survey—and may delve into totally unforeseen issues (Newcomer *et al.* 2015:493).

This type of interview allowed the teachers to be relaxed and engaged instead of feeling intimidated. The researcher designed a blend of closed- and open-ended questions as well as follow-up questions to ensure that the teachers did not feel as though they were being interrogated. The SSIs served as an opportunity to ease possible frustration, elaborate on topics and expound on responses. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with other primary stakeholders such as the EFAL subject advisor from the provincial education department, school principals and heads of departments (HODs).

1.8.2.2 Observations

Classroom observations provided a chance for the researcher to see first-hand how teachers are using the curriculum content and teaching approaches suggested by the DBE in actual classrooms. It was envisaged that three-weeks of classroom observations per selected school would be needed. The researcher attended the same EFAL class taught by a particular teacher or teacher trainees over a period of three weeks, i.e. the same classes were observed as they participated in the various aspects of the prescribed curriculum. Observations were made using an observation card that was designed according to the expectations of the national curriculum. The researcher used the observation card to determine if teaching processes were aligned with those suggested in the CAPS document as suggested by the DBE. The researcher also monitored how learners responded to the content and teaching approaches. Parents and teachers were informed of the purpose of the research study that observations would not interfere with teaching in any way.

1.8.2.3 Document analysis and appraisal

Documents such as the CAPS document, government action plans to support teachers, as well as examples of learners' work were analysed. This helped the researcher draw inferences and assess the extent to which teachers are familiar with the curriculum and departmental support available, as well as gauge their own confidence and fluency in using English with a view to assist them to better their practice. Bowen (2009:27) defines document analysis as a "systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents—both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) material". Some of the advantages of analysing documents include easy access and cost effectiveness (Bowen 2009:31). The main focus of document analysis in this study was to determine the kind of expectations that the DBE has regarding Grade 10 teachers by analysing learners' samples, studying curriculum documents and departmental policies and plans, and the extent to which teachers are familiar with the curriculum content of CAPS, as well as their own command of English and mastery of teaching and assessment principles as evidenced in assessment artefacts and materials.

1.9 Ethical considerations

To obtain permission from the FSDoE, the researcher first contacted the department telephonically to acquire the relevant contacts in the research division. An email outlining the study's purpose was then sent to the appropriate official, who responded with a formal permission letter. Following this, arrangements were made with the schools for an introductory visit, during which the study's objectives were explained to the principals, HODs, and participating teachers. Ethical considerations were emphasized, and participants received copies of the participation invitation letter, consent forms, the UFS ethical clearance certificate, and the FSDoE permission letter for perusal. They were assured of confidentiality and anonymity in sharing their opinions or views. The introductory visit also provided an opportunity for participants to ask questions, which were addressed accordingly.

Permission to make audio recordings of classes was obtained prior to commencing with the data collection. The recordings and transcriptions are securely stored with the researcher. All data were electronically uploaded and stored by means of encryption. To protect the participants' anonymity, any personally identifiable information will not be made public. This study was approved by both the Free State Department of Education (FSDoE) and the University of the Free State and received ethical clearance (UFS-HSD2022/0232/22).

1.10 Value of the research

The proposed evaluation of the language programme in two Free State schools provided valuable insights into measures needed to enhance meaningful English teaching approaches in diverse contexts and promote greater equity in the English component. Through various evaluation steps, the researcher aimed to identify developmental needs and support systems that stakeholders in the education sector should implement. A comparison of the two schools, both offering the same curriculum, highlighted key factors for optimising English language programme outcomes while also revealing the need for curriculum refinement and continuous teacher development. These refinements and interventions could have significant long-term impacts on national education policies, particularly within the EFAL component. By addressing existing inequalities in EFAL facilitation, such efforts could ultimately establish a more unified and equitable approach to language teaching across schools, regardless of their quintile level.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter contextualized the study by providing an overview of public school education in South Africa and the legislation that governs schools and language policy in education. In addition, the involvement of stakeholders in supporting schools was discussed and the conceptual and theoretical framework specified. Because the study focuses on language teaching, the chapter has also provided brief insight into aspects regarding teaching processes, CAPS and the evaluation methodology employed in this study to collect and present data. The upcoming Chapters 1-7 critically discuss literature in line with the study, provide clarification of the programme evaluation audiences and their goals, present the research design, and discuss findings based on the data collection tools used. Chapter 2 critically reviews literature related to the topic of study. This includes second language acquisition theories, language teaching methods and affective factors in language teaching. The language programme evaluation model selected for the study is also discussed in detail.

Chapter 2: Literature study

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to the teaching and learning of an additional language with the intention to gain an understanding of current research issues in South African language education and to determine effective teaching practices. The first part of the chapter examines philosophical beliefs about language learning and how they influence language teaching methodology and also considers different views about language and communicative competence and how these might relate to the teaching of EFAL. The role of affective factors in keeping learners and teachers motivated and engaged in the language classroom is also explored. Of particular relevance in this chapter is the matter of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), which can be considered a key part of any successful language and teacher development programme. The second part of the chapter reviews studies conducted in South African schools related to EFAL teaching before providing a detailed discussion of the role of language programme evaluation and its usefulness for identifying shortcomings and strengths in a systematic manner. The chapter concludes with an in-depth discussion of Lynch's (1990) context adaptive model (CAM) that was used to guide the full Grade 10 language programme evaluation in the two selected quintile 1 schools.

2.2 Theories about language learning

Since the purpose of the current study is to probe the teaching of English as an additional language, only theories relating to second language acquisition (SLA) and affective factors will be discussed in this section. Saville-Troike (2006:2) explains that SLA refers "both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language". An alternative explanation comes from Spada and Lightbown (2020:111) who view SLA as research that "focuses on the developing knowledge and use of a language by children and adults who already know at least one other language". They recognize that the language acquisition field of research is of both theoretical and practical importance. Theoretical importance has to do with the representation and processing of language in the mind, whereas practical importance has to do with the belief that understanding how languages are learned can lead to the development of effective teaching practices. Both aspects will be covered in the discussion that follows.

Since the second half of the 1900s, numerous language learning views have been expressed and theories developed to explain aspects of speech development and how teaching a second language should be approached. Similarly, learning theories have been advanced to "describe how learners process, absorb and retain knowledge in the teaching/learning process" (Akpan *et al.* 2020:49). Both learning and SLA theories are aimed at explaining how the human mind processes language and information and uses "metaphors to represent this invisible reality" (Spada & Lightbown 2020: 117). Language acquisition research is influenced by linguistic and psychological factors and theories, as well as sociocultural perspectives on learning. The theoretical framework of this thesis is centred mainly on the interactionist and sociocultural perspectives of Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1983), and Bernstein's (1971) restricted and elaborate codes. The discussion that follows examines linguistic, psychological and sociocultural influences and perspectives in SLA.

2.2.1 Linguistic influences and perspectives

Linguists have expressed their perspectives and influenced ways in which we understand different language phenomena, including the way language is formed in the brain and the way we acquire language in social settings. Some linguists argue that language is innate and something we are born with, whereas others believe that language is acquired through social interactions. The discussion below presents perspectives of various linguists and their influence in the field of linguistics.

2.2.1.1 Chomsky's Universal Grammar

Chomsky (1968), amongst other innativists, believes that children are born with an innate ability to learn a language. He claims that in addition to language exposure, children acquire the first language quickly, easily and naturally due to the innate language faculty, which he describes as the Universal Grammar (UG) or Language Acquisition Device (LAD), "a specialized module of the brain, pre-programmed to process language" (Spada & Lightbown 2020:112). Chomsky's UG is seen as more applicable in first language acquisition than second language acquisition. The weakness of UG lies in the fact that its viability in the language acquisition process is temporal as it seems to apply to younger children and not to older learners. In trying to understand UG, Dąbrowska (2015:12) calls it a suspect concept, stating that it has no clear definition and that it lacks substantial empirical data. It also dismisses aspects such as cognition, working memory, attention in language learning and ignores social interaction and language exposure. Because of such, UG has been criticized for causing controversy in the explanation of SLA.

2.2.1.2 Krashen's Monitor Theory

Krashen (1982) developed the Monitor Theory, also referred to as the Monitor Model (see Saville-Troike 2006: 45), in the 1970s. This theory has some common assumptions with Chomsky's UG but focuses mainly on Second Language Acquisition (SLA). He presented his understanding of SLA in terms of five hypotheses (Krashen 2009:9). The first is the fundamental hypothesis that distinguishes between language acquisition and learning. In terms hereof, language acquisition occurs in a similar natural fashion to L1 acquisition, whereas learning involves a conscious and deliberate process. The distinction between language learning and acquisition lies in the fact that acquisition takes place spontaneously with a focus on the exchange and communication of messages and their meanings, whereas learning is more structured and focuses on learning contexts in which the attention is on "rules and forms of the language" (Spada & Lightbown 2020:113).

The relationship between language acquisition and learning is evident in the way that the spontaneous speech acquired may be used as a monitor to learn a second language as the language learner edits the speech to ensure accuracy of the message (Spada & Lightbown 2020:113), hence the formulation of the second "monitor hypothesis". The monitor hypothesis suggests that acquisition and learning are used in specific ways: "… acquisition 'initiates' our utterances in a second language and is responsible for our fluency. Learning has only one function, and that is as a Monitor, or editor" (Krashen 2009:15). This implies that conscious learning plays a limited role in second language performance, whereas the acquired system initiates normal, fluent utterances. Krashen (2009:16) believes that acquisition is the main player in fluency and that a monitor or an internal editor that corrects language learning may not necessarily help learners speak well or clearly. He states three necessary conditions for the monitor, namely time, focus on form and knowledge of the rule (Krashen 2009:16). Using a monitor effectively requires time; the learner may have to stop and think about the rules and forms and then apply them, which may stop the flow of communication. "In order to think about and use conscious rules effectively, a second language performer needs to have sufficient time" (Krashen 2009:16). Time alone is not enough, however, and the learner must focus on the form and think about the correctness. This requires the learner to focus not only on communicative achievement but on how certain things were said. Lastly, knowledge of rules also requires the learner to stop and think about applicable language or grammatical rules, which may also break the flow of the communication process.

The order of first and second language acquisition is not the same but has some similarities. Krashen's third hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, claims that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a predictable "natural order" and that some are acquired earlier than others (Krashen 2009:12). According to Krashen, "English is perhaps the most studied language as far as the natural order hypothesis is concerned, and of all structures of English, morphology is the most studied" (2009:12). For example, learners of English as a second language generally acquire the grammatical structure of 'yes/no' questions before the grammatical structure of 'wh' questions. In some cases, they learn the present tense form of verbs before learning the progressive form of verbs. Second language learners seem to acquire the less complex grammatical structures before the more complex ones. There appears to be support for the natural order hypothesis as far as the learning of grammar is concerned (Saville-Troike 2006: 43; Abukhattala 2013:129; Sell 1989:1). The researcher probed this aspect as part of the analysis of prescribed curriculum content and materials, as well as during actual teaching practice observed in the language classroom.

With his fourth hypothesis, the input hypothesis, Krashen (2009:20) shows his belief that SLA is possible through comprehensible input, which refers to messages that language learners understand. To improve the learner's competence, the input must be slightly above the learner's current level, i.e. *I +1* (input +1), meaning that the language must be somewhat more complex than that which the learner has already acquired. This can be done through differentiated instruction to accommodate the various levels of learners. Comprehensible input can be aided using supplementary materials such as pictures, gestures and repetition, and contextual information, amongst others. The exposure to varied and meaningful linguistic input can be effective in developing the learner's competence in a second language.

The affective filter hypothesis indicates that affective variables such as motivation and self-confidence contribute towards a successful language acquisition experience (Krashen

2009:31). This hypothesis deals with the role that a conducive learning environment plays in supporting second language learners to become competent. Motivated, confident learners and those with low anxiety tend to do better in acquiring a second language. These attitudinal factors may be more closely linked to acquisition rather than learning.

Although Krashen's Monitor Theory was very influential by the end of the twentieth century, it has since been criticized due to its hypotheses being vague and difficult to investigate empirically (Saville-Troike 2006:45; Lai & Wei 2019:1463). Moreover, the avoidance of explicit grammar teaching, which was one outcome of Krashen's Monitor Theory, has come under review as researchers find that some learners can benefit from grammar instruction (Saville-Troike 2006: 45). Liu (2015:145) states: "It cannot be denied that Krashen's Input Hypothesis, along with his Monitor Model as a whole, is flawed, but it still offers some inspiring insights that both researchers and teachers can draw on." Recently, Lichtman and Van Patten (2021:19) revisited the acquisition/learning distinction, natural order hypothesis and input hypothesis and made minor modifications based on evidence gathered forty years later after the introduction of Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis. Their modification does not mean that Krashen was wrong but is based on the fact that these hypotheses have evolved and still persist even today as implicit vs explicit learning, ordered development and communicatively embedded input.

2.2.1.3 Interlanguage Theory (Selinker 1972)

The term interlanguage (IL) was coined by Selinker (1972:214) who views it as a separate linguistic system or form of evidence of the language learner's attempted production of a target language (TL). According to Saville-Troike (2006:40-41), Selinker introduced the concept of interlanguage to "refer to the intermediate states (or interim grammars) of a learner's language as it moves toward the target L2". This definition can be loosely translated as language that occurs on a continuum between the first and second language acquired. This implies that second language learning is not only a concept, but a process. Therefore, in this process, second language learners grapple with the transition from their first language systems to the second language systems. They find themselves substituting, developing strategies and inverting words, which then appear to be errors during this transition. These should not be seen as an indication of failure in target language learning, but as a positive indication during the process of learning a language. However, such errors may lead to a phenomenon called fossilization in the instance of second language learners, depending on their age: "… older learners are more likely to fossilize than younger ones…" (Seville-Troike 2006:42). Selinker defines fossilizable linguistic phenomena as "items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction" received in the target language (Selinker 1972:215). This theory seems to be an attempt to account for errors made by second language learners and makes provision for the fact that the transition from first language to second language needs to be considered. The evidence of such a transition seems to be more acceptable in spoken English than in written English. Assessment of written English mostly focuses on accuracy and marking of such assessments tends to be strict.

2.2.2 Psychological perspectives

In psychology, learning theories are used to explain how people behave during a learning process. Miltenberger (2001:2) provides a general definition for the term behaviour as what people say and do. In contrast to the views of some linguists about the existence of a special faculty of the mind that explains the innate ability of human beings to know and use language, psychologists posit that cognitive and affective factors make possible the learning of languages and processing of information. Some believe that learning is the result of habit formation. The field of education psychology includes three main schemas of learning theories, namely behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism.

2.2.2.1 Behaviourism

Behaviourism played a major role in psychology and education during the first part of the twentieth century. Behaviourists believe that all theories should focus on visible processes such as actions since inner or mental states cannot be measured objectively: "Behavioral psychologists were sceptical about mentalism and rejected any explanation of human behaviour in terms of emotive feelings or mental processes" (Kumaravadivelu 2006:100). Pavlov and Skinner are some of the biggest names in the field of psychology who contributed hugely to the development of the theory of behaviourism in education (Budiman 2017). The premise of behaviouristic psychology is that all behaviour is established by means of stimulus-response associations through conditioning (De Jager 2012). For behaviourists, "human behaviour can be reduced to a series of stimuli that trigger a series of corresponding responses" (Kumaravadivelu 2006:100). It is evident that behaviourism focuses on the role that a comfortable and conducive learning environment plays as a source of the linguistic stimuli learners need in order to acquire a language (Spada & Lightbown 2020:114). The importance of creating conducive learning environments is acknowledged by educators and linguists who believe that the environment can affect motivation to learn a language. However, Chomsky and others have opposed the notion of behaviourism as they believe that children are capable of producing novel and creative utterances they have never heard from their surroundings (Saville-Troike 2006:21; Spada & Lightbown 2020:114). Although behaviourism has been criticized, some principles have emerged under the connectionism framework: "These approaches are like the behaviourist approach in the sense that they hypothesize the development of strong associations between items that are frequently encountered together" (Spada & Lightbown 2020:115). Connectionism and processability theory are discussed in the section that follows.

2.2.2.2 Other influences from psychology

Cognitive psychologists believe that language acquisition "requires the learner's attention and effort" more than it requires specific brain structures used specifically for language acquisition (Spada & Lightbown 2020:114). Psychological approaches such as connectionism and processibility theory contribute towards describing mental aspects of language and speech. *Connectionism* describes the connection between words which occur at the same time: "they focus on the increasing strength of associations between stimuli and responses rather than on the inferred abstraction of 'rules' or on restructuring" (Saville-Troike 2006:80). High frequency exposure to words or structures that co-occur strengthen the learner's understanding of sentence structures (Spada & Lightbown 2020:115). *Processability* theory, which was developed to answer the question of why L1 and L2 learners undergo predictable stages during the acquisition of grammatical features, explains that "learners can only be taught what they are psychologically ready to learn" (Spada & Lightbown 2020:116). This means that *Connectionism* and *Processability* theories play a role in supporting language learners to develop competency in the target language by ensuring that they gain great exposure to the language to help them psychologically process grammatical features of the target language.

2.2.3 Sociocultural theories

In addition to linguistic and psychological theories about language learning, sociocultural aspects also play a role in enhancing language development. Socioculturalists such as Vygotsky

(1978) and Bernstein (1971) believe that the mental functioning of human beings is related to cultural and social interactions. Their theories explain the role social interactions play in learning and the development of language. According to Spada and Lightbown (2020:117), “Theorists working within a sociocultural perspective of L2 learning operate from the assumption that there is an intimate relationship between culture and mind, and that all learning is first social then individual”. This implies that engagement in activities allows language learners to directly encounter culture, shaping their perceptions and influencing their thought processes.

2.2.3.1 Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

Vygotsky (1978) studied the role social interaction plays in the development of cognition and language development. His theory is based on the notion that we learn language from more knowledgeable others (MKOs) through scaffolding in the zone of proximal development. Teachers, parents, technology, and peers assume the role of helping to develop the learner’s knowledge to a higher level by intervening in the zone of proximal development.

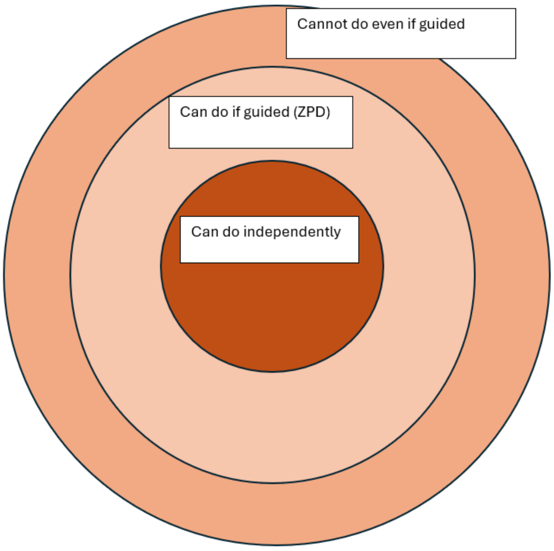


Figure 2: The Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky 1978: 86))

The zone of proximal development falls between the space in which learners are able to work independently and the area that represents tasks beyond their cognitive level (Vygotsky 1978). The learning process is supported through a system of scaffolding provided by MKOs, as elucidated by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976:90): “…it is the process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts". Once the learning process is complete, the scaffold is then removed allowing the children to accomplish learning independently. In the context of an EFAL classroom, for example, teachers provide learners with support to help them get to the next level of learning. The learners then practise the skills in the social environment to imitate the teacher and eventually use them in their own learning. In support of this sociocultural approach to learning, Bruner (1983) refers to the importance of a Language Acquisition Support System (LASS), provided by caregivers in the early years and teachers and other learning facilitators later, to assist both with learning language and socialisation skills. In this sense, parental support plays a pivotal role in assisting children to develop language through providing scaffolds. Bruner does not dismiss Chomsky's (1968) view of language as an innate phenomenon aided through the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) but believes that the language learning process is complemented by the LASS, emphasising the importance of social interaction in language learning. As it is, township and rural learners mostly socialize in vernacular unless they are in the English class, where there is minimal opportunity for them to use the language.

Matusov and Hayes (2000:215) criticized Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD and argued that it fails to recognize the unity between cognition and social context by focusing mainly on the social aspect. Another criticism is that ZPD is not a property of a learning environment but of interaction between two interlocutors (Shabani, Khatib & Ebadi 2010:245). These criticisms reveal a gap in Vygotsky's ZPD (1978) that the learning of a language does not entirely depend on the MKO as children are able to independently use their innate linguistic abilities together with what they learn in social interactions to become competent speakers of any language.

2.2.3.2 Bernstein's Language Codes Theory

As part of the scaffolding process, caregivers or MKOs use different types of linguistic codes to enhance the language learning process of a child or learner. The linguistic codes seem to be influenced by the environment and social class to which they belong. Bernstein (2003:18) discusses the difference between the "middle-class" and the "working class" and highlights that the linguistic codes used by each are different. Bernstein (2003:18) states that parents from the 'middle-class and associative levels' families often have received some form of further education and training for a skill and occupy superior roles which are also economically rewarding. On the other hand, ‘working class’ refers to members of the semi-skilled and unskilled groups (Bernstein 2003:18) In a sense, the difference between the two social classes is that children inherit different language structures based on the environment in which they find themselves, once again foregrounding the important role played by social interaction. Children from the middle class are conditioned to be sensitive to elaborate language codes, whereas those who are from the working class are conditioned to be sensitive to restrictive language code. Bernstein (2003:19) presents an example where a mother from a middle class may say to her child, “I’d rather you make less noise”, and her child would obey through understanding the operative words, ‘rather’ and ‘less’. In this case, the child has learnt to become sensitive to this kind of distinction. However, a child from the working class may not have the same understanding of the imperative cues. Instead, the phrase “Shut up!” may contain more appropriate cues (Bernstein 2003:20). In relation to the educational context in South African public-schools, it is mostly children from the middle class who attend suburban public schools, and children from the working class who attend township and rural public schools. This would predispose the learners to adopting elaborate or restricted codes because of the socio-economic environment within which they live and learn. Bernstein (2003:58) defines these codes on a linguistic level in which elaborated code allows the speaker to select from a relatively extensive range of alternatives, whereas speakers with restricted code have a limited alternative.

Most learners in public schools are those coming from working class families and not the middle-class families which by default places them in situations where their English is restricted. They typically have less exposure to the English language and its speakers and therefore they do not use it as often. This study looks at why the English competency levels of quintile 1 learners do not match the levels of those learners who come from middle-class backgrounds or private schools. We cannot deny that though the curriculum is the same across all quintiles, some public-school learners are at a definite disadvantage when learning English.

The above theories and perspectives are relevant in this study as they provide insight into how children learn and acquire a language psychologically and through social interaction before formally learning the language. To support these theories, researchers and linguists have developed various language teaching methods to help teachers cope with the high demands of teaching languages whether as first or second language. The EFAL and English Home Language CAPS documents are similar, making it difficult to see a distinction between the two components. This oversight suggests that the EFAL curriculum does not adequately address the linguistic challenges faced by learners in these schools. The impact of this gap is evident in the low English proficiency levels among quintile 1 learners. While teachers may follow the prescribed curriculum, its effectiveness remains limited if the language teaching approaches are not specifically designed to meet the needs of quintile 1 learners. Without such adaptations, the curriculum is unlikely to yield the intended learning outcomes. Apart from acquisition theories, there are affective factors that play a role during the learning process. The section below discusses these affective factors and how they contribute to the learning process.

2.2.4 Affective factors in language learning

There are several emotional factors such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety that influence the teaching and learning of an additional language such as English (Ni 2012: 1509). Of these factors, motivation appears to be the most widely researched aspect (Gardner 1985, Arnold 2000, Brown 2001, Ni 2012, My 2021). Ni (2012:1509) considers the motivation factor to be imperative as it affects the "learner's language input and intake", in other words how receptive the learner is to processing and absorbing language information at a particular moment. Much research focuses on the motivation of the learners. However, motivation is not only important for the language learner but also for the language teacher. The following section discusses different kinds of motivation encountered in the language classroom. Of particular interest for the current study is the extent to which the Grade 10 teachers appear motivated to teach English and whether the way they engage with their learners contributes towards a positive learning environment.

The concept of motivation seems to be complex and abstract in the educational context. Filgona, Sakiyo and Okoronka (2020:19-20) define motivation as something that "causes a person to know, act, understand, believe or gain particular skills". They expand their definition and state that motivation is "the drive to satisfy the individual's needs" and provide an example of a learner who wants to learn how to read and count to avoid being cheated at the shops. In terms of language learning, Gardner (1985:10) provides a specific definition in which he states that motivation to learn a language refers to the extent to which a person is ready to strive for the mastery of the language due to a strong desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in the process. Learning and teaching a language may be driven by two sources of motivation, internal or external. These are generally conceptualized as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

2.2.4.1 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Theory

Hayamizu (1997:98) states that “intrinsically motivated behaviours have been viewed as those that are engaged in primarily for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from performing them”. This definition is closely related to that of Legault (2016:1) who views intrinsic motivation as an engagement behaviour that is inherently satisfying and enjoyable. It is motivation based on pleasure rather than reward. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is driven by external factors and not from a strong inner desire. Fen Ng and Kiat Ng (2015:98) argue that “learners are extrinsically motivated when learning is done for the sake of rewards such as grades or praise that are not inherently associated with the learning itself”. Serin (2018:192) sees extrinsic motivation as a type of reinforcement that can improve learners’ performance in the learning process, even in the instance of learners with low levels of motivation. This type of motivation can facilitate developing appropriate behaviour in language classrooms; instead of being disruptive, motivated learners may choose to be productive in the classroom as they receive reward and public recognition. As far as the motivation of teachers is concerned, incentives to study further and improve teaching skills could provide extrinsic motivation, in addition to support from colleagues at the school and education authorities.

The main difference between the two types of motivation is that extrinsic motivation seeks a reward upon completion of an activity and intrinsic motivation seeks enjoyment of the activity (Ryan & Deci 2000a). Motivation plays a crucial part in the learning process and these definitions should not be limited to learners. Both teachers and learners need to show a good level of motivation in the classroom. As much as there are learners who are passionate and enjoy their studies, there are teachers who are passionate about their work and enjoy teaching.

In order to support learners who are learning English, it is important for teachers to understand the concept of motivation and to be able to identify learners who appear to be unmotivated to devise action plans accordingly. To identify a motivated learner, there are two observations that can be made: “first, the individual displays some goal-directed activity, and second, that person expends some effort” (Gardner 1985:50). In addition to these observations, the teacher can “question the learner as this would show a desire or ‘want’ for the goal in question and favourable attitudes towards the activity of learning the language” (Gardner 1985:50). To gauge the level of motivation in language learning, learners’ responses as to why they are learning a particular language should reflect some goal associated with language learning as many reasons could be listed. For example, one learner may respond by saying that English is a compulsory subject, whereas another may say that learning English is necessary to study at university. Once the reasons for language learning have been clarified, they can be classified into orientations. Gardner and Lambert (1959) introduced the terms integrative and instrumental motivation to refer to two types of orientations or kinds of motivation to learn a second language (Gardner 1985:52).

2.2.4.2 Integrative and instrumental motivation

Integrative motivation can be defined as the desire to learn a second or foreign language not only to communicate with the members of that language society, but also to assimilate in their culture (Chalak and Kassaian 2010:39). This kind of integrative motivation, according to Gardner (2000) and Saranraj and Zafar (2016:9), plays an essential role in successful language learning. Although instrumental motivation is also important for supporting language learning, it is related to the meeting of learners' practical needs, i.e. "learners' interest in learning a language for getting essential qualifications and improving career prospects" (Al-Ta'ani 2018:91). From the definitions above, we can conclude that integrative motivation seems to be closely related to the notion of intrinsic motivation, discussed in the previous section, although the desire to assimilate signals a much stronger orientation. Pleasure gained from language learning does not imply a desire to assimilate. Instrumental motivation appears to be connected to extrinsic motivation that is based on receiving rewards and qualifications. Learners' motives for learning a language can thus differ considerably.

Research on integrative motivation among different language learner groups is expanding. Dörnyei (1990), Nikolov (1999) and Coetzee-Van Rooy (2006) have suggested that integrative motivation may be more important in settings where learners have access to L1 speakers than in other EFL contexts around the world in which learners have limited contact with L1 speakers. In the case of South African township schools, learners have limited contact with L1 speakers in school and in their communities. This may be one of the factors that influence their level of motivation in learning English. Also, integrative motivation may not necessarily play a role in multilingual contexts such as South Africa where learners may not have the desire to assimilate with the L2 group and have no interest in adopting a new identity or culture (Coetzee-Van Rooy 2006:439).

2.2.4.3 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Another perspective on motivation comes from Ryan and Deci (2000a:68) who use the concept of Self-Determination Theory. This theory attempts to explain human motivation from the perspective of needs fulfilment. Meeting the following kinds of needs can facilitate motivation and play a role in learning (Ryan & Deci 2000a:68):

- Autonomy: the need for some level of control over content choice in the learning process. learners are provided with an opportunity to choose activities and content
- Competence: the need to demonstrate a level of mastery in a subject and be recognized for achievements
- Relatedness: a social need to have caring relationships with others and a sense of belonging to the community.

When learners are provided with an opportunity to choose learning content and activities, motivation is increased. The social need for relatedness and belonging ties up with the notion of integrative motivation discussed above. However, the community being referred to will not be that of an L1 English community such as in the case of a country like Canada or Australia, but a multicultural community.

In relation to learning English in township schools, meeting the above needs is considered essential for personal success. For example, in the context of the current study, self-determination theory advocates that Grade 10 learners should be given a chance to influence the subject content and activities and receive recognition for progress made in mastering English. For this reason, motivation is one of the aspects that is investigated in the case studies at the two schools.

The discussion about affective factors in language teaching remains relevant. Even if South African learners do not wish to assimilate into a different cultural group, they still have a need to master English for professional and communicative purposes. Furthermore, the motivation of teachers is just as important. Wilson and Gardner (2009:33-34) found that teachers' use of motivation strategies helped to motivate learners and encourage success in English learning. In a sense, learners reciprocate the level of their teacher's motivation in the process of learning a language.

Even though motivation can increase the chances of successful language learning, it is not a guarantee of proficiency. In a study conducted at a South African university, Mhlongo (2018) investigated the possible relationship between pre-service teachers' language learning beliefs (LLBs), motivation and language proficiency. The findings of the investigation indicate that "motivation and constructive LLBs are not sufficient to improve the proficiency of learners in English" (Mhlongo 2018: 137). Despite the high motivation of the learners, they still struggled to master the language. It is possible that other factors impeded their language learning progress at university. A separate language programme evaluation is needed to probe the reasons for this. With his findings, Mhlongo (2018:138) recommends that the definition of integrative motivation by scholars such as Gardner (1985) be re-examined. The same would apply to the notion of relatedness in the self-determination theory of Ryan and Deci (2000b).

Darvin and Norton (2021:2) note that motivation and investment in the language learning and teaching process are complementary constructs that ensure a more comprehensive understanding of the process. Their difference lies in the fact that motivation is a psychological construct, and investment is a social construct: "… motivation focuses on conscious and unconscious factors, investment is primarily sociological and focuses on how histories, lived experiences and social practices shape language learning" (Darvin & Norton 2021: 1).

Although there is a great body of research on how to motivate language learners, there seems to be a gap in research that focuses on affective factors that may impede the teaching of languages, especially English in the case of South Africa. This area may be under-researched, and it is possible that teachers working in township schools may encounter demotivation as a result of teaching circumstances, a lack of confidence or even anxiety related to expectations on the part of stakeholders such as the Department of Basic Education. The section below discusses language teaching methods and how they can be used to support both teachers and learners during the language learning process.

2.3 Language teaching methods

The challenges related to learning and teaching English have brought about conflicting opinions on which methods work better than others. According to Weideman (2002:9) "methods find their roots in beliefs about language learning". This implies that it is important to reflect on our views of what language is and how the learning of an additional language may differ from that of a first language, since it is through philosophical beliefs and theories that teaching methods are developed. The following section discusses the dominant methods used to teach English. The first group has come to be referred to as traditional methods (grammar translation, direct and audio-lingual methods) since they were classical teaching methods widely used in Western contexts in the previous century; the second group concerns what is called communicative language teaching, still the prevailing approach used in classrooms today and the approach advocated in the prescribed Grade 10 government school curriculum that forms part of this study. There are also newer methods such as content-based instruction (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL), but it is uncertain whether these approaches can be used in South African classrooms if non-language subject teachers are not adequately equipped and trained to cover both language learning and subject content in their classes.

2.3.1 Traditional language teaching methods

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM), Direct method (DM), and Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) are methods that have been used in language education for a considerable period of time (Natsir & Sanjaya 2014:61). Some of these traditional methods have resurfaced in language teaching. The newer methods have not replaced them but complemented them. This discussion focuses mainly on recent studies in which these methods have been used.

GTM, also known as the Classical Method or Traditional Method, became prevalent in foreign language teaching in the mid-19th century when it was introduced as a method for teaching classical languages (Karakaş 2019:10). This method is not about teaching grammar but focuses on grammatical accuracy rather than communicative fluency in the target language. The learners are taught in their first language (L1) but asked to translate to and from a target language. Grammar rules are taught deductively, and learners are asked to memorise them and apply them in other examples. The focus on grammar of the target language is believed to enable learners to better understand the grammar of their first language with a view to improving their reading and writing abilities (Natsir & Sanjaya 2014:58). Natsir and Sanjaya do not dismiss the fact that although GTM has its advantages, it is monotonous and includes one-way transmission (2014:61). Even though new methods have emerged, scholars such as Mart (2013:104), Milawati (2019:194) and Chang (2011:21) believe that this method is effective and feasible as it makes learning clearer and enables learners to successfully achieve the language learning goal. Though this method may sound useful to other scholars, it does not make a clear argument in terms of how learners are able to learn and improve in the target language when they are being taught in their mother tongue, which seems to be the case in most township schools.

After learners failed to communicate effectively using GTM, the direct method was introduced. This method is "…characterized, above all, by the use of the target language as a means of instruction and communication in the language classroom, and by the avoidance of the use of the first language" and translation as a technique (Naeini & Shahrokhi 2016:61)." This means that there is no room for the language teacher to use any other language apart from the target language. Such a method seems to be easy to apply when the language teacher is a monolingual speaker as it would make it difficult for them to code switch. On the other hand, it makes it hard to promote inclusivity. The method allows the teacher to use visual aids and elicit vocabulary from the learners. It also gives learners a platform to use sentences to describe items they see in the visual using the target language. In this method, not only are learners learning vocabulary, but they also have a platform to construct sentences, which gives the teacher the opportunity to correct learners' errors. Grammar in this method is taught indirectly, unlike in the case of the GTM. The focus of the DM is on improving learners' conversational and speaking skills and encouraging two-way interaction between the teacher and learners (Weideman 2002:16). Naz, Rasheed and Rasheed (2021:640) recognize this method as beneficial for lower-level learners as it gives them more opportunity to interact socially using English as the target language. This method seems to require monolingual teachers who strictly speak English as they would not experience any temptation to use another language. It puts learners in a position where they realise that they have no choice but to prioritize the target language for their educational needs to be met: "So if teachers involve English for teaching and learners involve English for learning, interruption from mother tongue will be reduced to certain degree, thus cultivating learners' habit of English thinking" (Mei 2018:49).

Research found limitations of the GTM and DM and scholars developed the Audio-Lingual Method (Naz *et al.* 2021:640) in response. ALM does not focus much on developing vocabulary, but drills learners in the use of grammatical sentence patterns: "Its obsession is therefore with language structure, and specifically with structural units at and below the level of the sentence" (Weideman 2002:20). Learners are encouraged to use the target language communicatively. The teacher provides models of sentences for learners to imitate in helping them form new habits in the target language. According to Shaikh, the target language is taught directly using four different elements: "Repetition, Inflation, Replacement and Restatement" (2013:980). This implies that the method is teacher dominated as learners depend on the teacher's instructions and models of language use. In essence, the philosophical principle on which this method rests is that the natural way for learning a language is through imitation of utterances we hear. A child first hears utterances and then imitates them before learning to read and write. Hanchey summarizes the method in this way: "Hearing before speaking, speaking before reading, and reading before writing" (1974:16).

Weideman criticizes this method since its overemphasis of linguistic structuralism and repetition is based on a behaviourist view of language as a "set of habits" (2017: 23) in need of reinforcement. Thus, in order to learn an additional language, a learner has to be given a sequence of stimulus, response, and reinforcement. Furthermore, the emphasis on structuralism means that sentences consist of arranging grammatical parts in sequence (Norwanto 2008:119). A further problem is that this approach does not bear any relationship to the sociocultural theories of learning discussed in Section 2.2.3. It is not surprising that learners are unable to transfer the habits they master in the classroom to real contexts outside the classroom. It is teacher centred, which reduces learners to passive recipients, and it also neglects the cultivation of reading and writing proficiency in authentic ways (Shaikh 2013:980; Mei 2018:49-51).

The communicative approach to language teaching was hailed as the antidote to the shortcomings of the GMT, DM and ALM and gained ground in the 1980s as a result of criticism levelled against the traditional methods (Weideman 2002: 28). The communicative approach is what is proposed in the prescribed South African curriculum, commonly referred to as CAPS (DBE 2011a:16-17).

2.3.2 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Informed by cognitive psychology, communicative language teaching grew in popularity when linguists realized that knowledge about linguistic usage may not mean that learners know how to use the language (Shaikh 2013:982). According to Gustiani, CLT is "an approach of teaching a second or a foreign language that focuses on learners' interaction whether as the means or the ultimate goal of learning a target language" (2013:17). This approach brought to light the difference between linguistic competence and communicative competence that enables language learners to use language appropriately according to the given context, which is the focus of CLT (Maryslessor, Barasa & Omulando 2014:83). In this approach learners should be presented with tasks that are applicable in real life situations. This gives learners the opportunity to develop language and communicative skills needed for different social purposes, which also increases confidence. Through authentic communicative tasks learners learn how to use vocabulary according to different contexts and they improve speaking and comprehension skills. The role of the teacher in this approach is mainly to facilitate. This means that the approach is learner centred as it opens room for learners to vastly use the target language.

Communication is broad and should not only be limited to spoken language. However, because of the emphasis on communicative ability, it is not clear how learners are prepared to speak and write with increased grammatical accuracy. The matter of error correction is another area of debate. If errors are corrected immediately, communication may not flow naturally. For this method to be effective, learners' comprehension should be prioritized (Wu 2008:52). Amongst the major challenges identified in using CLT in Kenya, are time constraints, teaching large classes and too broad syllabi (Maryslessor *et al.* 2014:91). Such challenges compromise meaningful participatory activities. As a result, teachers turn the focus to preparing learners for examinations rather than devoting time to actual language learning. This may be the case in South African quintile 1 schools which struggle to assist learners to become proficient in English.

2.3.3 Task Based Language Teaching

Over the years, classical teacher-centred methods have been replaced or supplemented by newer ones that put more emphasis on learners and learning. Task-based approaches to teaching literature are amongst the teaching methods that have been adapted to suit learners' needs and to meet the ultimate goal of graduating learners who are confident in English. These methods seem to be more learner centred and encourage learners to apply linguistic skills they learn in meaningful communication.

Long (2016:5) is of the opinion that the concept *task* and the method referred to as task-based language teaching have different meanings. Task-based language teaching "is a teaching approach employing tasks as its main pedagogical tools to structure language teaching"

(Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu 2011:49). It uses authentic language through meaningful and real-life tasks in order to enhance learning and develop learners' language. It is a learner-centred approach that encourages meaningful communication, promotes problem solving skills, and develops creativity and spontaneity. It requires the learner to improve oral communication skills using the target language (Celik 2017:105). East (2021:44) states that with this method, "…*task* is the central construct through which interaction is facilitated and the central focus of TBLT's learner-centred and experiential orientation." Oxford (2006:97:) defines task as "…an outcome-oriented instructional segment or … a behavioural framework for research or classroom learning."

According to Nunan from a pedagogical perspective, task-based language teaching has strengthened the following principles and practices:

> - A needs-based approach to content selection
> - An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language
> - The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation
> - The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself
> - An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning
> - The linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom.
>
> (Nunan 2006:14)

With this explanation, Nunan (2006:14) shows that the task-based language teaching method is mainly learner centred and promotes autodidactic skills. It enables learners to be challenged by using various tasks to strengthen their language learning skills. It also shows that in addition to learning about a language, learners learn the language through tasks. Oxford (2006:107-109) states that during the learning process teachers are responsible to select tasks, prepare tasks, pre-teach relevant aspects, monitor and support. On the other hand, learners are responsible for taking control of their learning through completing tasks, individually or in group work.

Celik (2017:107) sees this method as good but expresses concern about the learners' level of confidence. The approach may challenge learners who lack confidence, and this may require the teacher to motivate and encourage such learners through helping them expand their existing language level competency. Such a challenge may exist in lower quintile schools where learners are not confident enough to express themselves in English and in other cases where learners have low proficiency English levels to express themselves. They may need constant monitoring, which can easily take place in small classes but not crowded classrooms.

Adendorff (2014) experimented with the task-based approach using university students learning Afrikaans as an additional language. The study found that task-based activities significantly improved the communicative skills of students learning Afrikaans as an additional language. Students reported enhanced vocabulary and confidence, leading to more active class participation. The activities were engaging and motivated students, fostering a supportive and collaborative learning environment where peers helped each other. Most students enjoyed the tasks, which were relevant to real-life situations, making the learning process practical and meaningful. Overall, the study concluded that task-based activities effectively enhanced students' communicative skills in Afrikaans (Adendorff 2014:14).

Nhlengethwa (2016:87) suggests the need for continuous in-service programmes for English language teachers to enhance their competence in using task-based language teaching (TBLT). Additionally, he recommends the availability of a “skills manual” for teachers, well-resourced libraries with internet access, and the introduction of an English language budget in schools to purchase visual aids and other materials. Team-teaching strategies within departments can also facilitate the effective use of TBLT.

The discussion above reveals that TBLT is a highly effective approach to second language acquisition, emphasising meaningful communication and real-world application over rote memorisation of grammar rules. By engaging learners in authentic tasks that mirror real-life language use, TBLT fosters fluency, problem-solving skills, and learner autonomy. Research suggests that interaction-driven, goal-oriented tasks enhance both linguistic competence and motivation, making language learning more engaging and practical.

2.3.4 Using literature to teach language

Literature is one part of language that is generally embraced by language educators and commended for its ability to help people improve their linguistic skills. Incorporating literature in the teaching of languages has always been a traditional practice, but over time the approaches to teaching literature have been adapted. Literature can be used to enhance learners’ language proficiency and ability through reading fiction (Rashid, Vethhamani & Rahman 2010:88). It creates an enjoyable learning environment in which learners are encouraged to discuss real-life problems related to the social, cultural and personal aspects of their lives, amongst others. This approach can be an effective tool to develop intensive reading skills, while at the same time teaching the interpretation of literary devices, developing creative writing skills and supporting critical thinking (Altun 2023:198). It can also foster a positive attitude toward a language curriculum (Jabeen & Sarifa 2022:2). Daskalovska and Dimova agree that teaching literature is motivational and useful as it exposes learners to extensive reading and the target language:

> Using literary texts in the language classroom can make the learners more aware of the language they are learning, help them develop skills and strategies they can apply in many different situations and contexts, increase their interest and motivation, and make the learning of the language a more enjoyable and worthwhile experience (2012:1185-1186).

In order for the integration of literature in language teaching to be effective, teachers need to employ suitable techniques. Literature lessons become meaningless if the teacher spends much time explaining the text as this may lead to low participation from the learners. Instead of the explanatory approach, Adhikari proposes the "learner-centred, exploratory, collaborative and integrated approach" (2019:6-7). Below is a summary of the suggested approaches:

- Exploration: Teachers provide minimal explanation of the text and allow learners to explore the text themselves. This exposes learners to a greater degree of mental processing, helping them to process language in a way that makes it easily memorable as opposed to when the teacher lectures them.
- Collaboration: Learners can collaborate with the teacher or amongst themselves to unpack various aspects of the literary text. This interactive approach maximizes learning opportunities.
- Integration: Although reading proficiency is foregrounded, for balanced language development this must be integrated with writing, listening and speaking, as well as include a focus on grammar and vocabulary.

Adhikari (2019) believes that learning opportunities can be maximized through the study and reading of literary texts. The summary above implies that this approach is demanding and seems to require a strong foundation of the English language as learners need to use their imagination, have a good understanding of literary devices and figures of speech which many public-school learners struggle with. Additionally, literature can be time consuming (Altun 2023:196).

Seerig and Nicolaides (2021) investigated the use of literature in English classes in Brazil and found that learners were motivated, enjoyed the literature component, saw it as a good scaffold to acquiring English and loved the authenticity and the different types of literature that they were exposed to. Although literature can be rewarding and interesting, it can be challenging for learners with low English language proficiency, which also can make it difficult for teachers to manage: "Literary texts often use sophisticated vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, and complex sentence structures, which can be difficult for language learners to understand (Altun 2023:196)." Rashid *et al.* (2010:90-91) suggest approaches that can be employed by teachers to support less proficient learners and promote effective learning and teaching:

- Language-based approach: literary texts are seen as tools to help learners improve their language proficiency. This approach exposes learners to the target language, creates language awareness in learners and uses literary texts to stimulate language activities.
- Paraphrastic approach: allows the teacher to paraphrase, translate into other languages and simplify words and sentence structures to support less proficient learners.
- Information-based approach: requires learners to have a sound knowledge of literary concepts, metalanguage, and critical concepts for them to be able to analyse and discuss literary pieces.
- Personal-response approach: fosters learners' personal development through eliciting personal responses. It focuses on how learners are able to analyse, interpret and show understanding of the texts through making connections between the texts and real-life experiences.
- Moral philosophical approach: incorporates the teaching of moral values learners need to discover as they read literary texts. Learners are expected to understand the moral of the story and relate it to their lives.

Based on the level of proficiency learners possess, teachers can select or combine approaches. In the case of public schools in South Africa, the paraphrastic approach may be helpful as learners can respond in their mother tongue to demonstrate their understanding of the text. Approaches suggested by Adhikari (2019) seem to place the learning responsibility mainly on the learners and those suggested by Rashid *et al.* (2010:90-91) seem to place more responsibility on the teacher as they are aimed at helping teachers support learners.

2.3.5 Translanguaging in language teaching and learning

South Africa is a multilingual country with its schools comprising learners from different linguistic backgrounds. However, not all learners are educated in their first or home languages and many do not have the chance to receive the same exposure to languages such as English, the dominant language of teaching and learning in South Africa. In township schools the language of teaching and learning is not often the mother tongue of the learners or the teachers. As a result, teachers may inevitably need to translate content into other languages and code switch in order to enhance their learners' understanding. Catalano and Hamann (2016) note that this has always been the case in South Africa:

> Learners have always been engaged in natural translanguaging in order to survive in school systems that long ignored most indigenous languages in the curriculum, it is only recently that this type of learning has been explicitly discussed, encouraged, and taught to pre-service/in-service teachers (Catalano and Hamann 2016:269).

Translanguaging is not to be confused with the phenomenon of interlanguage discussed earlier. Recently, there has been a call for the adoption of multilingual pedagogies for inclusive education, as advocated by scholars such as García (2014), Makalela (2014) and Childs (2016), amongst others. Multilingual pedagogies are believed to promote inclusivity, embrace diversity and enhance learners' understanding of subject content. A recurring theme in the discourse around adopting translanguaging is "to empower the unfairly treated individuals for a more equitable and inclusive education, and further promote a decolonising pedagogy (Fang *et al.* 2022:308)." Pedagogy that incorporates translanguaging thus formed part of the focus of this study since the research was conducted in multilingual classrooms. Translanguaging has been defined as:

> a process by which learners and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that include all the language practices of learners in order to develop new language practices and sustain old ones, communicate and appropriate knowledge, and give voice to new sociopolitical realities by interrogating linguistic inequality (García 2014:3).

Translanguaging emphasizes the active and empowered linguistic behaviours of multilingual individuals, utilizing their complete range of language and multimodal skills (García 2020: 557). The phenomenon of translanguaging is not to be confused with the use of two separate languages or code switching, even though these are components of translanguaging. Translanguaging as a pedagogy allows teachers and learners to use their linguistic repertoires to ensure effective learning. It is a pedagogical tool in multilingual settings that can be used to bridge communication in various ways to provide a humanising experience for both the learner and teacher (Childs 2016:23).

García (2014) is of the view that one language can be used as a tool to teach and learn another. This implies that a mother tongue other than English can be used to teach English. This approach is believed to be efficient especially in the TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) field as it responds to the varied linguistic needs of bilingual learners. García (2014:3) further expounds on the definition of translanguaging as "…the flexible use of linguistic resources by bilinguals in order to make sense of their worlds, while applying it mostly to classrooms because of its potential in liberating the voices of language-minoritized learners". Translanguaging in TESOL means that English is not the central language that it has been in the past. Learners have the power to control their schooling language in a way that enables them to critically think, engage and invest in their learning. García (2014:8) encourages TESOL professionals to accept translanguaging as practice in order to foreground the learning of subject matter and not only the language. This means that teachers should focus less on linguistic structures and more on exposing learners to important topics. Adopting translanguaging is not without problems. For example, when assessment criteria focus on linguistic structures in one language, learners may not have been prepared adequately to respond through the medium of that language if they have become accustomed to relying on translanguaging in the classroom. Implementing translanguaging in an English class may be a disservice to the learners as they may struggle to produce answers using the most appropriate English linguistic structures (Mashiyi 2011:175).

In his language programme study involving pre-service teachers at the Wits School of Education, Makalela (2014) examined the effects of translanguaging strategies in multilingual classrooms. The prerequisite for the programme was that pre-service teachers take an additional language as a way to prepare them for multilingual classrooms. This does not necessarily mean that they will use the language to teach; the objective is to assist them to cope in multilingual classrooms. Makalela (2014:215) found that the use of translanguaging in preparing pre-service teachers has both cognitive and social advantages which differ from those in single-medium classroom interactions. Exposing pre-service teachers to translanguaging as part of their training helped them to find commonalities amongst themselves and to embrace each other's linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

Charamba and Zano (2019) investigated the effects of translanguaging as an intervention strategy in a Grade 10 chemistry classroom in the Free State. In a case where English is used as the medium of instruction to teach scientific subjects to learners whose mother tongue is not

English, comprehension of the content may be limited: “In the science classroom, English language learners are faced with the double challenge of acquiring subject matter and skills through a language that they have not yet fully mastered” (Charamba & Zano 2019:5). Learners whose mother tongue is that used for teaching and learning seem to be at an advantage in such a case. To support bilingual learners, Charamba and Zano (2019:5) believe that translanguaging is a beneficial tool. In their study, Charamba and Zano gave learners an English test amongst other assessments and the results showed that learners had low proficiency in the language of teaching and learning (2019:5). In investigating the effects of translanguaging, Charamba and Zano found that the majority of learners preferred the use of their home language to enhance their understanding and at the same time this helped to preserve and promote multilingualism as a way of maintaining their culture (2019:12-15). One complication of translanguaging in science classrooms with learners of diverse linguistic backgrounds is that some scientific terms cannot be translated directly. Also, some learners may feel left out. For example, if the teacher limits the use of language to English and Tshivenda, learners of other languages may not benefit.

Charamba (2023:43) investigated the role of translanguaging within a multilingual Grade 5 classroom in a Free State school. The study revealed that translanguaging practices significantly influenced learners' capacity to learn science and it was perceived that it also enhanced their English reading and writing skills. Furthermore, Charamba (2023:43-44) noted that the teacher recognized translanguaging as an authentic form of communication, improving the confidence of reserved learners and providing them with opportunities to actively engage in class discussions by leveraging their linguistic abilities to fully express their ideas. The teacher emphasized that the monolingual pedagogy stifled linguistic diversity and undermined learners’ academic performance. These insights emerged from observations conducted in a science classroom, where the primary emphasis was on comprehending scientific phenomena rather than on language proficiency, particularly English proficiency. Though the class teacher noted improvement in the English language, the two cases cannot be compared as the quality of English in a scientific subject differs from that of the actual English subject.

Ayob (2020) conducted a study to explore how teachers navigate translanguaging in multilingual primary school Grade 5 and 6 classrooms, and how learners leverage their home languages in the learning process. According to Ayob (2020: 142-143), the use of L1 as a resource in translanguaging-supported classrooms facilitates comprehension among multilingual learners, serves as a scaffold, promotes inclusivity, and fosters a positive learning environment. Despite both teachers and learners recognizing translanguaging as an effective learning tool, indicating positive sentiments, it is crucial to acknowledge that such positivity might stem from its contribution to content comprehension, potentially overlooking its impact on English language acquisition, particularly evident in instances of mother tongue interference in contexts where translanguaging is not encouraged, such as in exams and written tasks as evident in the analysis of Grade 5 work samples (Ayob 2020:182-184). Written samples revealed challenges in spelling accuracy and constructing grammatically sound sentences indicating the potential negative effects of the translanguaging approach.

Mabena (2023) evaluated how senior phase learners (Grades 7-9) received translanguaging pedagogy as a method for improving English text comprehension. The assessment involved observing five reading comprehension sessions and conducting interviews with both the teacher and selected learners. Learners' reception of the approach was gauged through various indicators such as their engagement in class activities, their response to explanations delivered via translanguaging, their ability to answer content-related questions, their willingness to complete assigned tasks, and their overall preference for the approach. The effectiveness of translanguaging was evaluated based on how it was employed by both the teacher and the learners (Mabena 2023:10). A key finding of the study was that translanguaging facilitated comprehension of reading texts, particularly when learners repeated English utterances in their mother tongue, serving as a measure for the teacher to assess understanding (Mabena 2023:10). Furthermore, the study highlighted how translanguaging mirrored learners' lived experiences, indigenous languages, and daily cultural contexts, underscoring its relevance and effectiveness in the learning process (Mabena 2023:17).

Mbrimi-Hungwe (2023) explored how multilingual learners utilize language practices to grasp academic concepts, using a group discussion task where learner groups engaged in reading an English text, explaining, and discussing it in their chosen language. Learners were also allowed to respond to questions in their preferred language as needed (Mbrimi-Hungwe 2023:8). Subsequently, learners completed a questionnaire to articulate their experiences, with the initial part focusing on their encounters with translanguaging, specifically discussing the text in their mother tongue (Mbrimi-Hungwe 2023: 9). The prevalent theme arising from these responses underscored that translanguaging embraces the multilingual reality within classrooms (Mbrimi-Hungwe 2023:14). Overall, the findings demonstrated that translanguaging fostered collaboration and nurtured a supportive atmosphere, with learners ensuring the utilisation of all languages during their discussions (Mbrimi-Hungwe 2023:15). Furthermore, it enabled them to express themselves as multilingual individuals defined not only by language but also by various cultural and traditional elements that shape their identities (Mbrimi-Hungwe 2023:17).

In alignment with the views of scholars and research discussed above, translanguaging appears to garner support from various academic circles, serving as a tool for preserving official languages, fostering inclusivity and equality, and facilitating collaboration, among other benefits. However, it is important to acknowledge that not all learners and educators in South Africa are multilingual; some are monolingual. This raises concerns about how the translanguaging approach would function in a university setting with monolingual and international learners and lecturers. Additionally, it prompts considerations about how products of translanguaging-focused educational environments would fare in universities that have not adopted this approach. Essentially, the approach may not cater to monolingual individuals and could pose challenges for learners transitioning to university where language policies do not support the approach. A learner accustomed to translanguaging may struggle to adjust to a monolingual university environment, where concepts are typically clarified in a single language. Conversely, a monolingual learner might feel overwhelmed in a translanguaging university setting due to the extensive use of multiple languages. Furthermore, this brings into question how monolingual teachers would be supported in implementing such an approach. Though Makalela (2014) suggests that pre-service teachers take an additional language to prepare for multilingual classrooms, they may find it difficult to reach adequate levels of mastery of the additional language or acquire all the necessary vocabulary to teach a certain subject, which may challenge them in the implementation of the approach. In other cases, they may end up in schools which do not use either their mother tongue or additional language. Further research is needed to determine whether translanguaging will help learners to transition smoothly to higher education environments in which English remains the dominant language of academia. Another important area of study is whether translanguaging can be used to support fluency and accuracy in English academic writing without the interference of the mother tongue. Addressing these complexities and exploring effects of translanguaging is essential for ensuring equitable educational experiences for all learners (Qureshi & Aljanadbah 2022:255).

2.4 Teacher's Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK)

Teaching is a dynamic process which challenges teachers to adopt new strategies as the world evolves and as they deal with learners from different backgrounds. Teachers often find themselves in situations where they have to come up with contingency plans and be creative and innovative in order for them to grow in their disciplines. Not everything they learn at university is guaranteed to sustain their teaching: "There is consensus, across national, provincial and district levels, that many teachers exhibit poor levels of subject content knowledge and that this is a major contributor to poor learner performance" (DPME & DBE2017:76). Though there may be those teachers who possess good knowledge of the content, the uncertainty lies with their ability to deliver the content in a manner that instils learning. Knowledge of content is thus only one side of the coin. The concept of teacher pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is multidimensional and complex as one part of knowledge relies on another to build a strong teacher. Dadvand and Behzadpoor state that "pedagogical knowledge is complex, context-responsive and evolves over time" (2020:108).

Shulman (1986; 1987) refers to different knowledge types such as content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). He explains their relationship by pointing out that *Content Knowledge* refers to "the amount and organization of knowledge per se in the mind of the teacher", whereas *Pedagogical Content Knowledge* "goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter *knowledge for teaching"* (Shulman 1986:6). In essence, this means that PCK refers to the connection between *knowing and teaching.* Prospective ESL teachers need to develop components such as knowledge of English (subject matter knowledge or content knowledge) and knowledge of teaching English (pedagogical knowledge) in order for them to possess pedagogical content knowledge (Liu 2013:129). Liu (2013:135) notes that pedagogical knowledge is the most active component in PCK and is less controllable and teachable.

Atay, Kaslioglua & Kurta (2010) conducted an experimental study in which they investigated the link between prospective teachers' knowledge and their teaching approach when they prepared and delivered lessons. They found that prospective teachers were concerned about the difficulties of designing lessons and activities (2010:1424). Atay *et al.* (2010:1425) recommend that educators create environments that encourage implementation of the content pre-service teachers learn and that feedback should be provided on an ongoing basis about the progress they are making towards becoming teachers who possess both content and ability to use the appropriate pedagogy. Prospective teachers need to "understand the content they want to teach but they also need to understand how to unpack and present the content so that learners can learn with understanding" (Atay *et al.* 2010:1425).

With the world shifting to hybrid teaching due to the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, universities also need to develop programmes that are aimed at training pre-service teachers to teach languages using technology. The Department of Basic Education should investigate online development opportunities to ensure in-service teachers are familiar with different teaching methods that employ technology. The use of technology requires teachers to develop new forms of knowledge for them to succeed in their teaching. Koehler *et al.* (2013:101) indicate that research on the use of technology in US schools reveals that teachers do not have enough technological knowledge to help them effectively facilitate lessons. Due to this, a framework called technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) was introduced in 2006. It describes the different kinds of knowledge the teacher is expected to have to effectively integrate technology in teaching practice (Koehler *et al.* 2013:101). It requires an understanding of how technology can be used to support teaching.

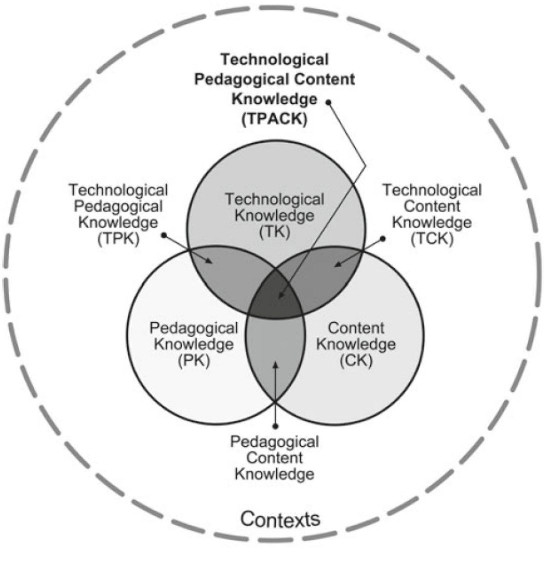

Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK)
Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK)
Technological Knowledge (TK)
Technological Content Knowledge (TCK)
Pedagogical Knowledge (PK)
Content Knowledge (CK)
Pedagogical Content Knowledge
Contexts

Figure 3: The technological pedagogical content knowledge framework (Koehler *et al.* 2013:103)

Figure 3 shows that technology serves as a realm of knowledge that should interact with other bodies of knowledge to form new types of knowledge. For teachers to be effective in the technological era they need to possess content, technological and pedagogical knowledge: "The

TPACK framework argues that programmes that emphasize the development of knowledge and skills in these three areas in an isolated manner are doomed to fail" (Koehler *et al.* 2013:109). These types of knowledge depend on one another and cannot be separated. TPACK is an effective approach, but it may not be ideal in schools where there are no technological tools, as was the case in the two schools visited in this study.

It is an undeniable fact that no two teachers are the same and neither are learners. One method of teaching may be too restricting for learners from some backgrounds. Teachers' identities play a role in the way they facilitate lessons. The ability to teach based on one's identity opens room for creativity and innovation and gives one a voice in the teaching and learning process. Romylos (2018:1-2) studied the relationship between professional identities and PCK and noted that personal and professional identity are inseparable. Romylos (2018:232) found that for teachers to be effective in the classroom, they need to be aware of both identities as it places them in "… a position to be more sympathetic and understanding to learners' needs and problems, to build one's strengths, and to improve on one's weaknesses."

To enhance pedagogical knowledge learnt through formal education, teachers need classroom experience in which they are observed, monitored and given feedback on how to integrate different teaching approaches for the various skills taught in the ESL course. Hence it is advised that English Language Teaching programmes (ELT) are structured in a way that narrows the gap between teaching practices and pedagogy (Bigelow & Ranney 2005:199). Cesur and Ertaş (2018:134) agree that "EFL teacher education programmes need to provide further opportunities for EFL teacher candidates to develop their content knowledge: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on" because the combination of theory and application is what builds the teacher's PCK. Stadler-Heer states that "foreign language teachers need to be competent in (explaining the) structuring (of) foreign language learning processes, have narrative and explanatory skills, and know how to initiate social interaction in the classroom through adequate classroom phrases" (2021:74). Though the skills need to be integrated, Romylos (2018:249) argues that the integration of adequate knowledge and pedagogy is not an easy task and requires considerable professional judgement.

In addition to the development of teacher's PCK and TPACK, Head and Taylor indicate that teacher development "is centred on *personal awareness* of the possibilities for change, and of what influences the change process" (1997:1). They mention that the concept builds on the past and the present and that it is also a self-reflective process (1997:1). Being able to recognize how past experiences have or have not been successfully developed helps identify opportunities for change in the present and future. As a self-reflective process, through questioning old habits one is able to improve one's practice as a teacher. The definition for teacher development is quite straightforward and is guided by two main concepts, namely process and change. This means that teacher development is not a fixed idea, and the process is aimed at bringing about change. In their research project on teacher development in New Zealand, Bell and Gilbert (1994) do not explicitly define the concept of teacher development but point out that teacher development should include professional, personal and social aspects.

Knowledge of content and pedagogy may help teachers understand the different perspectives that can help them focus their lessons according to the linguistic needs of their learners. It can further enlighten them on the kinds of competence learners need to develop as well as the pedagogies suitable for the different kinds of competence. Teachers themselves also need to have the appropriate competence.

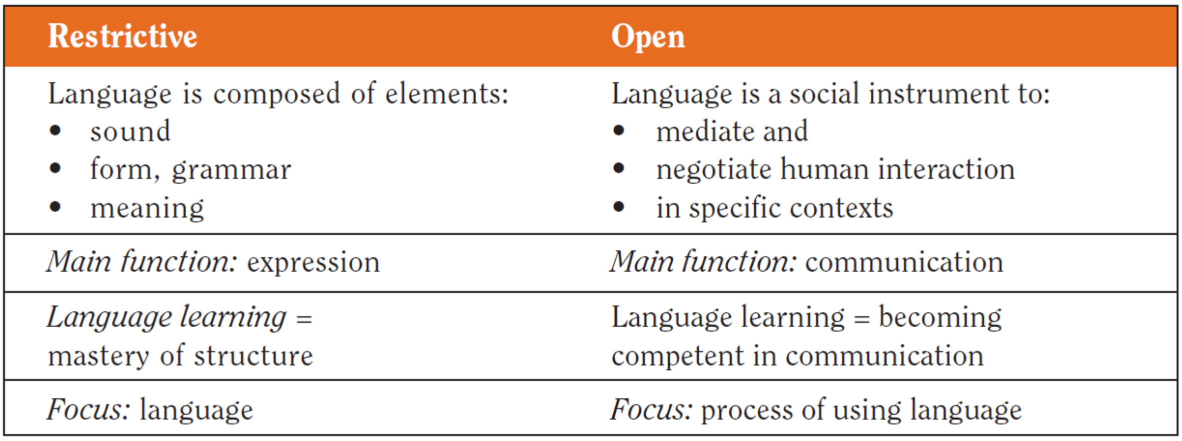
The next part of the discussion investigates different conceptualisations of language and communicative competence as these form an integral part of PCK. Apart from the influence of philosophical beliefs about language learning, teaching methods are also based on different views of language and types of proficiency needed. Varpe (2013:11) defines communicative competence as "the ability to use the language correctly and appropriately to accomplish communication goals". There are different levels of proficiency and diverse kinds of communicative competence. These are discussed in the sections that follow.

2.4.1 Restrictive and open view of language

As stated above, language teaching approaches are influenced by different views of language and whether to address the traditional language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing separately. Weideman and Van Dyk (2004:6) agree that the idea of looking at a language as a composite of skills is not an ideal way of viewing language. Instead, they advocate an open view of language in which the four skills are integrated (Weideman & Van Dyk 2004:6). This allows learners to have a voice and to use language for carrying out various communicative functions such as explaining, interpreting, criticising and evaluating information (Weideman

& Van Dyk 2004:7). Weideman and Van Dyk (2004:5) argue that there are two opposing perspectives of language, namely the restrictive and open view as illustrated below.

Table 2:Views of language



Restrictive	**Open**
Language is composed of elements: • sound • form, grammar • meaning	Language is a social instrument to: • mediate and • negotiate human interaction • in specific contexts
Main function: expression	*Main function:* communication
Language learning = mastery of structure	Language learning = becoming competent in communication
Focus: language	*Focus:* process of using language

(Weideman & Van Dyk 2004:5)

As presented in Table 2 the restrictive view of language reflects a belief that language consists of a number of elements that should be taught and mastered. Teachers who hold to a restrictive view of language are primarily concerned with the teaching of discrete language elements and structures. Correct language use is thus foregrounded. On the other hand, the open view sees language predominantly as a social instrument that mediates human interaction. When this view of language is adopted, teachers endeavour to prepare their learners for communicative competence rather than grammatical accuracy, which reflects the goals of translanguaging mentioned above. The emphasis is on enabling communication to take place in different contexts and modes and not on L1 or native-like proficiency and correctness of language. The matter of different kinds of proficiency for different contexts is discussed next. Thereafter a fuller exposition of communicative competence is provided.

Naturally, we acquire basic language before we learn about grammatical structures and receive formal education. Children from strong English backgrounds start school with a firmer foundation of English which makes it easier for them to learn linguistic features when taught through a restrictive view of English; they already have the foundation and are familiar with the language. On the other hand, children who start school with minimal English skills may not have a strong foundation to comprehend features of language when taught formally. Therefore, teaching according to the restricted view of language may not be effective and the process may be intimidating. The open view seems to be the most viable way of teaching English in multilingual and township schools where learners have lower levels of English proficiency. Even in the secondary school phase, a restricted view of language will not be helpful. Knowing language features and grammar terms and rules does not guarantee proficiency and communicative competence. Learners should first be able to speak the language and then learn its structures. Language structures do not play a role in helping learners generate ideas, but language does. Once the learner is proficient in the target language, a focus on form can be introduced.

2.4.2 Levels of proficiency: CALP and BICS

There are different levels and kinds of language proficiency needed for diverse communicative contexts. Proficiency is usually seen as "the level of competence at which an individual is able to use a language for both basic communication tasks and academic purposes" (DBE 2010:3). In the educational context, South African township learners are known to have low levels of English proficiency, which poses an enormous problem since 80% of South Africa's schools that are dysfunctional are found in township and rural communities (Mlachila & Moeletsi 2019:6). The proficiency levels of township and rural learners is usually limited to Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), whereas those who come from city schools tend to have a higher level of English proficiency as well as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), if they have attended good schools. Cummins (1979) coined the terms BICS and CALP to demonstrate the different English language proficiencies of learners. According to CAPS, when learners "enter Senior Phase, they should be reasonably proficient in their First Additional Language with regard to both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills. However, the reality is that many learners still cannot communicate well in their Additional Language at this stage" (DBE 2011a:8-9).

The two levels of proficiency are explained well by Racca and Lasaten (2016:45-46) who indicate that BICS is the most basic level of English that is used on a daily basis in ordinary social interaction. It is a form of proficiency that is often aided by the context and non-verbal cues that assist meaning making. The language used tends to be devoid of technical jargon and abstract terms that require deep understanding. CALP, on the other hand, is the level of English that is required in academic settings, where cognitive demand is high, terms are abstract, and context is limited. Therefore, BICS alone is not enough for learners to succeed academically.

In too many cases, public school learners rely on basic proficiency in English for studying purposes and do not have the academic literacy needed to engage meaningfully with subject content and to execute tasks that require higher-order thinking. The conversational proficiency also makes it difficult for learners to express themselves in the written mode. To be considered well educated, they need both strong conversational proficiency and academic language ability. No singular definition exists for academic literacy, but academic discourse includes "all lingual activities associated with academia" (Patterson & Weideman 2013:118). Typical of such academic tasks is being able to understand texts at the literal and figurative level and to analyse the information provided logically for the purposes of comparing, contrasting, classifying, categorising and evaluating (Patterson & Weideman 2013: 118). This requires advanced vocabulary and language knowledge, including an understanding of English idiom and metaphor and adequate oral and written proficiency.

If we consider the number of years that learners use English as the medium of instruction in South African public schools, it is surprising that learners in some schools still perform poorly in English, a fact that is acknowledged in CAPS. Their inability to be highly proficient in both BICS and CALP could be due to the fact that these schools are in the townships and rural areas where there is no easy access to libraries and reading materials and where there are few English speakers. There may also be little English teaching support beyond the classroom. Moreover, teachers themselves can contribute to the limited development of CALP: "Many learners have limited exposure to English beyond school and, where teachers cannot model the language correctly because they lack proficiency themselves, opportunities for developing English language skills are severely curtailed" (Taylor *et al*. 2014:41). It may be possible to gain deeper insight into the struggles of English language learners and teachers in township schools by carrying out case studies in such schools. The objective of the present study is to probe how teaching contexts may differ from one school to the next and identify ways in which the teaching and learning of English could be supported. Although there is a common curriculum, the unique circumstances at a school may require a different approach to that prescribed.

2.4.3 Models of communicative competence

According to Canale and Swain (1980:3), "competence refers to knowledge of grammar and of other aspects of language…". They distinguish between four different kinds of competence in their model as illustrated below:

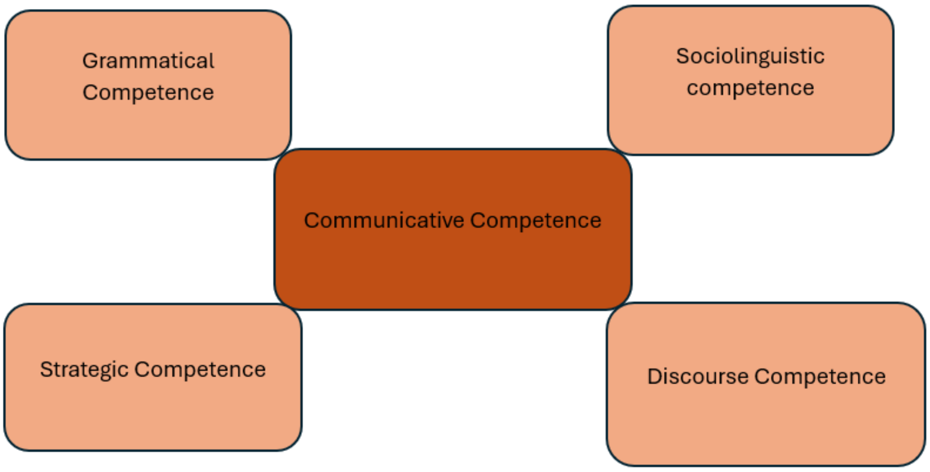


Figure 4: Four kinds of communicative competence (Canale & Swain 1980:3)

The different types of communicative competence are explained as follows:

- Grammatical or linguistic competence refers to the correct use of grammar, syntax, and vocabulary of a language. It asks questions such as: What words do I use and how do I use them to formulate phrases and sentences?
- Sociolinguistic competence is an understanding of how one uses and responds appropriately in society. It asks: Which words and phrases are appropriate for a situation? In what ways can one express a certain attitude, i.e. courtesy, authority, friendliness, respect, etc?
- Strategic competence is "how to recognize and repair communication breakdowns."
- Discourse competence has to do with the interpretation of the larger context. It asks: "How are words, phrases and sentences put together to create conversations, speeches, email, messages, newspaper articles?" (Canale & Swain 1980:29-31).

Littlewood's (2011) model is a revised version of Canale and Swain's. It was developed through adding a fifth component and amending some terminology. Littlewood uses the term *sociocultural competence* instead of *strategic competence.* The additional component is pragmatic competence which is said to allow second language speakers to use their linguistic resources to understand meanings in real-life situations (Littlewood 2011:547).

Bachman (1990:87) provides a fuller model based on that of Canale and Swain (1980) and describes communicative competence as the knowledge of language components and the acquisition of organizational and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence is concerned with grammatical and textual competence. Grammatical competence is when one knows how to control the structure of language, whereas textual competence is when one knows conventions for joining utterances in a way that unifies communication and makes it cohesive. Pragmatic competence, on the other hand, has to do with the ability to control functional features of language (illocutionary competence) and sensitivity to conventions of language use in context (sociolinguistic competence). The figure below illustrates the components of language competence proposed by Bachman (1990:87):

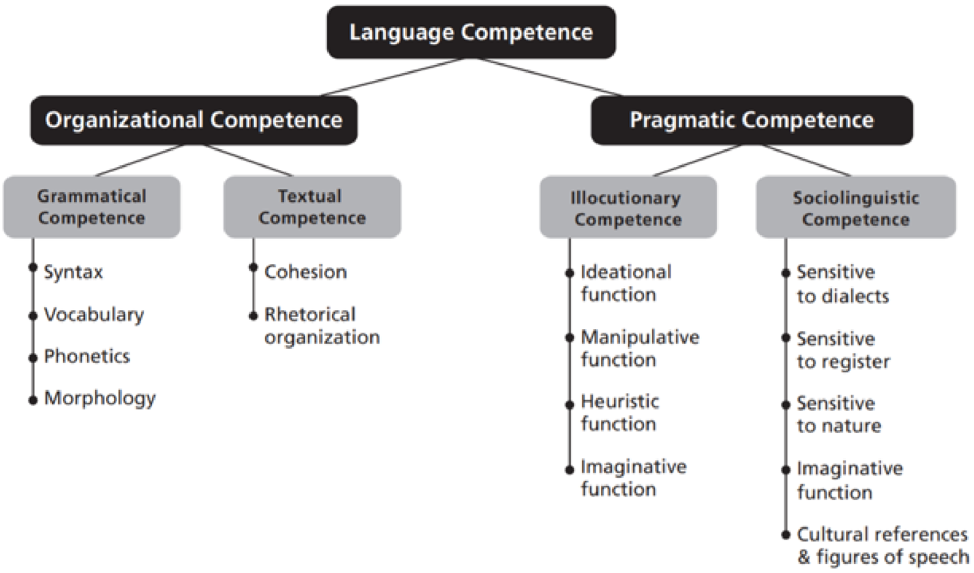

Language Competence
Organizational Competence
Pragmatic Competence
Grammatical Competence
Textual Competence
Illocutionary Competence
Sociolinguistic Competence
Syntax
Vocabulary
Phonetics
Morphology
Cohesion
Rhetorical organization
Ideational function
Manipulative function
Heuristic function
Imaginative function
Sensitive to dialects
Sensitive to register
Sensitive to nature
Imaginative function
Cultural references & figures of speech

Figure 5: Components of language competence (Bachman 1990:87)

Losada, Insuasty and Osorio (2017:90-91) agree that the above competencies should be developed in an integrated way. They all depend on one another to prepare learners to become fully competent in a language. In order for learners to succeed in academia and the workplace, it is important that they demonstrate the above competencies. Communicative competence cannot be limited to mastery of one area, hence learners should be exposed to all levels of competency. Since CAPS advocates a communicative approach that supports accurate and appropriate communication as well as academic learning (DBE 2011a:9), the approaches, beliefs and teaching practices of the Grade 10 English teachers are probed through the mini case studies conducted at the two schools.

2.5 Lynch’s Context-Adaptive Model

Previous models to evaluate educational programmes were concerned with controlled experiments that focused on the analysis of summative product-oriented programmes. The aim was to determine the success of the programme based on the learners’ levels of achievements. Lynch (1990) reviewed language programme evaluations, experiments and projects carried out by various scholars and found a number of limitations. In particular, they worked with small scales, based their judgements mainly on quantitative data and statistical techniques, and furthermore, were rigid and lacked in-depth descriptions of the programmes’ processes. Hence, this led to the development of the CAM, which is less controlled, more interpretive, uses larger scales and analyses the process of the programmes. This method yields in-depth results that can be presented qualitatively and quantitatively thereby providing an insightful and in-depth judgement of the programme. An explanation of the CAM was provided in Chapter 1. Below is a discussion of what each step of the evaluation should entail.

Step 1: Audience and goals

In the first step, the audience and goals are identified. The researcher would need to answer these questions to determine the audience: “Who is requesting the evaluation? Who will be affected by the evaluation?” Lynch (1996:3). Those who have interest in the conduct and findings of the evaluation will therefore be the audience. Stakeholders and clients, as well as learners, can form part of the audience. The audience determines the goals and objectives of the evaluation. Understanding why the evaluation is conducted as well as what information is required helps in formulating the goal. For example, programme funders can request an evaluation with the objective of evaluating the effectiveness of the programme they have invested in.

Step 2: Context inventory

This step involves the formulation of a list of features relating to the setting and conducting of the language programme evaluation. Together with the information about the audience and goals, this step serves as a guide for steps 3-7 in the evaluation as well as an indicator of possible limitations of the evaluation. Lynch (1996:5) provides examples of items to consider in the inventory, which include items such as timing of the evaluation, characteristics of the staff and learners involved in the programme, and classroom sizes, amongst others. The nature of the model is adaptive; therefore, the researcher can add and eliminate items according to the focus of the evaluation.

Step 3: Preliminary thematic framework

Information from the first two steps can be broad and may require the researcher to identify the most important aspects of the programme evaluation, where to start and what to prioritize. This then helps the researcher to establish a focus for the evaluation according to themes: "A thematic framework provides a conceptualization of the programme in terms of the salient issues and themes that have emerged from the determination of audience and goals and the elaboration of the context inventory" (Lynch 1996:6).

Step 4: Data collection design/system

The evaluation audience and goals, context inventory and the preliminary thematic framework determine the research design and suitable methods of collecting data. Depending on the points of inquiry of the research and the nature of questions, the researcher can determine whether to employ a qualitative or quantitative design or both (mixed-method design). If the questions and data collection method require statistical data, then the quantitative design would be appropriate. However, qualitative design would be appropriate if the questions and data collection method include interviews and observations. In cases where the questions and data collection method require the combination of different kinds of data, a mixed method design can be adopted (Lynch 1996:6-7).

Step 5 & 6: Data collection and analysis

The combination of steps five and six addresses issues of data collection procedures and interpretation of data. The choice of the research design determines the types of instruments and methods to use for data collection. Upon completion of data collection, data is then analysed and interpreted according to the choice of the research design Lynch (1996:7).

Step 7: Evaluation report

The final step communicates the importance of communicating results in the most effective manner. The researcher needs to be mindful of the information chosen to include in the report and communicate it in a clear and sensible way. The researcher may need to filter the results and produce separate reports for different audiences.

Mostert (2019:233-234) used this model and found it to be effective for evaluating a university language programme: "CAM was useful and relevant as a theoretical framework and as a practical guide to facilitate utilisation focused language programme evaluation". Other studies that have found this model to be effective include that of Carstens (2009) and Zohrabi (2012). In this study, the researcher used this model and managed to tailor the steps according to the different contexts of the schools and to accommodate unforeseen circumstances.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter offered a focused review of literature central to the study's aim, encompassing foundational theories of second language acquisition, which provide insight into how language learning occurs, and various language teaching methodologies, illustrating effective instructional strategies. An exploration of pedagogical knowledge highlighted essential skills and principles for fostering productive language-learning environments. Additionally, Lynch's Context Adaptive Model (1990) was briefly explained. Collectively, these topics establish a robust theoretical framework that not only supports but also directs the study, aligning it with established research and enhancing its relevance within the field of language education. The next chapter introduces the first three steps of Lynch's Context Adaptive Model (CAM) and details its influence on the sample choice as well as the design of the study.

Chapter 3: Clarification of programme evaluation audience and goals, context inventory and themes

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the first three steps of Lynch's context-adaptive model. Because these three steps are considered to be part of contextualising the study in more detail before collecting data, they are not included in the research methodology chapter that follows. They are used to motivate the selection of data-gathering instruments and techniques, and, as such, they play an important role in ensuring that appropriate data are collected to answer the research questions. In the first step of Lynch's CAM, the audience and goals of the study are identified. This is followed by the compilation of a context inventory for the study which covers factors that can interfere with the evaluation process that researchers need to be aware of such as logistical constraints and prevailing political and social conditions, for example. The third step requires the researcher to determine dominant themes based on the information provided through the first two steps which is essential to establish a focus for the evaluation (Lynch 1996: 3-6). The sections that follow are thus a discussion of the information obtained during the first three steps.

3.2 Determining the programme evaluation audience and goals

During step 1 of CAM the audience is identified together with the goals for the evaluation. The audience of the study refers to stakeholders that have an interest in the conducting of the Grade 10 EFAL programme evaluation and its findings. Lynch defines stakeholders as "people who hold some stake in the assessment or evaluation judgement or decision" (2003:15). They could be the participants of the study who are involved in the Grade 10 EFAL programme, or persons who would benefit from the programme evaluation. Stakeholders for this study were identified by the researcher and through preliminary interviews the researcher was able to elicit the goals they had for the study. Lynch distinguishes audiences based on three categories: primary, secondary and tertiary (2003:15-17), depending on their level of engagement with the language programme. The first category of primary-level stakeholders includes those persons with the highest stakes who are directly involved in the Grade 10 EFAL programme.

3.2.1 Primary-level stakeholders and goals

In this study, the primary stakeholders were teachers, learners and the researcher. Teachers interact with the learners regularly and have to teach in accordance with the curriculum, which makes them closest to the context of the evaluation. Learners closely participate in the curriculum as it is designed to cater to their needs. Although learners were not the focus of the study and not interviewed, the evaluation indirectly featured them. They were not interviewed as they fell beyond the scope and ethics clearance for the study. However, they remain primary stakeholders as they need to benefit from a well-formulated curriculum and proper teaching. The researcher was identified as a primary stakeholder due to her involvement as the initiator of the evaluation and her role in teacher training programmes at the University of the Free State (UFS). As part of the study, the researcher also had close engagement and contact with the Heads of Department (HODs) at the schools involved, teachers, and the subject advisor from the Free State Department of Education.

The following sections provide a summary of the main points that emerged in the preliminary discussions held with each stakeholder prior to the commencement of the full evaluation at the two schools selected for the study. The first school will be referred to as the Farm School and the second school as the Art School. In order to comply with privacy legislation and to protect the interests of persons involved in the study, the identities of schools and stakeholders will not be revealed based on the Protection of Personal Information Act 4 of 2013 (RSA 2013).

3.2.1.1 Teacher 1 (T1)

The preliminary interview with the Grade 10 teacher at the Farm School was conducted during the last week of the second school term in 2022. Unfortunately, the teacher was not able to make time for an interview in person as she was busy with administrative duties that needed to be completed before the end of the teaching term. It was imperative that the interview take place before the start of the third term in order to prepare for the data collection process which was scheduled to take place from the first day of the third term. The Free State Provincial Department of Education had only granted permission for data collection to take place during the third term of 2022. Due to this, the researcher resorted to conducting the interview telephonically. The teacher seemed nervous and asked for the list of questions to help her prepare and also asked to respond to them through a voice note instead of a phone call conversation. For this reason, the researcher tried not to put too much pressure on the teacher and honoured her request. Although the interview questions were open-ended and non-threatening in nature, the teacher provided very brief responses that did not yield comprehensive information.

Teacher 1 is a young Motswana woman who holds a Bachelor of Education degree specialising in languages (Setswana and English) obtained at the Central University of Technology (CUT) in the Free State province. At the time when the study was conducted, she had been teaching for ten months at the school. This is her first teaching position since her graduation. As a newly qualified language teacher, she is mainly responsible for teaching EFAL in Grades 8-11. In her responses to the preliminary interview questions, she mentioned that she could not provide detailed responses as she was fairly new to teaching.

Teacher 1 mentioned that people have misconceptions about the English language being challenging and difficult. Her main concern was the time allocation for EFAL. She found it extremely challenging to complete the content of the curriculum in the time allocated. With the school being based on a farm, attendance can be poor during rainy seasons when some learners cannot travel to school due to roads that are not in good condition. This makes it difficult to devise a “catch-up” plan since the curriculum itself is very full. When asked about her expectations for the programme evaluation, which Lynch refers to as goals, Teacher 1 stated that she hoped that the outcome of the evaluation would be a call for a redesign of the curriculum so that content could be covered properly in the time available and not be rushed for the sake of finishing the curriculum before the end of the academic year. She believed the emphasis on completing the curriculum was promoting the practice of what teachers and learners refer to as “cram, pass and forget”. The result was that learners focused mainly on passing the exam without fully comprehending the content. She also considered ongoing in-service teacher development to be one aspect that could be implemented as a result of the programme evaluation.

3.2.1.2 Teacher 2 (T2)

Teacher 2 teaches at the Art School. She holds a Bachelor of Arts Degree and a Bachelor of Education. She has been teaching English for 19 years – mostly in Grades 8 and 9 – in various schools. Because of a shortage of language teachers in the Art School, she was asked to take over the Grade 10 class during the year in which the data was collected (2022). Although she is a qualified teacher by profession, she does not specialize in English language teaching but in art subjects. As a new teacher in Grade 10, she is supported by another teacher who is a qualified language teacher. Because the study focused on Grade 10 classes, the qualified teacher could not participate as she mainly teaches Grade 12 learners.

The preliminary interview with Teacher 2 took place in person at the end of term 2, in June 2022. Teacher 2 mentioned that she was concerned that some aspects of the curriculum were challenging for Grade 10 learners and the time allocation did not match the amount of content to be covered. She mentioned that Grade 10 learners did not have enough knowledge of English to cope with the curriculum and that some of her learners could hardly read and write. Although learners showed interest in the language, their academic results and performance were contradictory.

In response to the question about her expectations for the programme evaluation, Teacher 2 replied that she hoped the evaluation would lead to further evaluations that focused on what was happening in primary school teaching as that is where the foundation is laid. She believed that a stronger foundation at the primary level would be a solution to the problems faced at senior levels. She hoped that this study would be followed by similar evaluations at different levels of teaching, especially the lower levels in the Foundation Phase. She also hoped that ongoing teacher training would take place regularly to support teachers in helping them to cope with the demands and expectations of the curriculum, particularly the EFAL component.

3.2.1.3 Researcher

The researcher is a language practitioner and an English Second Language (ESL) instructor by profession. She holds a master’s degree in Language Practice obtained from Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) and a TESOL certificate obtained from the University of the Witwatersrand. The terms researcher and evaluator are used interchangeably in this thesis as they refer to the same person. The research is guided by an evaluation model in which the roles are intertwined.

The researcher has worked as an English lecturer, ESL teacher, and course and examination coordinator at various local and international institutions, namely Tshwane University of Technology, UNISA, Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University, Lincoln College for Girls and

African Leadership Academy. Currently, the researcher is employed as an English lecturer at the University of the Free State (UFS) where she is responsible for training Education students who will be teaching English.

Since the researcher herself attended quintile 1 schools that were disadvantaged in terms of the quality of teaching and availability of content and resources, she was particularly concerned about the quality of education that children received in quintile 1 schools, which are mostly based in townships and rural areas. This prompted her interest in doing a full programme evaluation in the two selected schools. Furthermore, her current involvement with Education students at the UFS made her realise that most of her students were from lower quintile schools and still struggled with the English language. These are the same persons that we expect to address literacy issues in schools upon completion of their studies and to provide quality education mainly through the medium of English.

It was therefore the goal of the researcher to see how a full language programme evaluation could shed light on the different needs and circumstances of schools and teachers who were expected to follow the same curriculum. She was interested in seeing quintile 1 schools produce learners with high levels of English proficiency. Based on her own experience, she believed that the quality of English obtained at higher quintile schools was better than that of lower quintile schools due to the divide in the education system caused by social and economic factors. Another goal for the study was that the evaluation should provide information that could be useful to universities and other teacher training institutions when determining admission criteria for Education students and revising curricula. A further goal for the programme evaluation was to see how those who are responsible for appointing teachers in schools could be assisted to recognize the kinds of abilities and knowledge needed to teach Grade 10 English successfully in quintile 1 schools. Although the DBE and provincial education departments may be aware of the importance of appointing persons who are highly suitable for English teaching posts, this may not be happening in quintile 1 schools. The mini case studies conducted at the two selected schools could be useful for making a number of recommendations.

3.2.2 Secondary-level stakeholders and goals

Persons who have occasional contact with the Grade 10 EFAL programme may be interested in how the evaluation could inform their own work and experience. They are referred to as secondary stakeholders (Lynch 2003:16). The EFAL advisor, school HODs and principals have occasional contact with the Grade 10 EFAL programme and are not directly involved with the learners and teaching that takes place in the classroom. They irregularly visit classrooms and meet with teachers, but their involvement in the Grade 10 language programme is minimal when compared to that of teachers and learners.

3.2.2.1 EFAL Subject Advisor of the FSDoE (FSA)

The role of the provincial EFAL subject advisor from the Free State Department of Education is to monitor, support and conduct training workshops for teachers in schools. During the preliminary interviews the EFAL Advisor mentioned that he did direct teaching in classrooms, which meant that he could visit actual classes and model teaching practices expected from teachers, but this rarely happened as schools did not often seek such an intervention. Because of the concern that teachers tend to focus on aspects of the content they have mastered and often struggle to complete the syllabus due to time constraints, the EFAL advisor was interested in the results of the programme evaluation and hoped that the findings would play a role in further curriculum revisions. The subject advisor believed that a revision of the curriculum was necessary since teachers were burdened with administrative tasks as well as covering the syllabus. This made time management extremely difficult. The goal of the evaluation from the perspective of the subject advisor was to increase the effectiveness of language teaching by dealing with systemic problems. The current roles that the teachers were expected to fulfil were excessive. A redesign of the English programme could also help to make things more manageable.

3.3.2.2 Principal 1(P1)

Principal 1 manages the Farm School which was established in 1973. The principal at the time of data collection had assumed duty in 2022. From the years 2019-2023 the school’s matric pass rate was between 98 and 100 %. The school had a total of 601 learners and 20 permanent teachers in 2022. The principal expected the pass rate for EFAL to be between 70-100 per cent and he hoped that the programme evaluation would reveal ways in which teachers could be assisted and supported by the DBE to improve the English competency of their learners as he believed that mastery of English helped learners perform better academically and boosted learners' confidence. He hoped that the outcome of the programme evaluation would be an increased focus on teacher empowerment and possibly lead to the development of courses that catered for the different needs of teachers.

3.3.2.3 Principal 2/ Deputy Principal 2 (VP2)

Principal 2 from the Art School was not available for the preliminary interview due to other work commitments. Although the researcher called a number of times and booked several appointments with the principal, it was not possible to meet with him. Because of this, a pre-valuation interview could not be conducted to establish the context of the school based on the principal's perspective. During the data collection period, the principal appeared once to briefly meet the researcher. When he was asked for his time, he suggested that the researcher communicate everything with the deputy principal since he was not available to participate.

The deputy principal agreed to represent the principal. However, by this time the pre-evaluation phase of the study had passed, and it was time to conduct the full interviews. Therefore, preliminary data on the goals of the evaluation could not be obtained in the same way as in the case of the other secondary- and primary-level stakeholders. This then led to the final interview questions being adapted in order to accommodate important information about the context of the school as well as the evaluation goals of the deputy principal. The expressed goals are reported here for consistency.

The deputy principal mentioned that he would like the evaluation to lead to a number of revisions at schools. In particular, he hoped that the DBE would realize that much more support was needed at schools for extracurricular activities that could support the academic programme, and the work teachers did in classrooms. He believed that better support and monitoring of extracurricular activities such as public speaking, debates and competitions would enhance the learning of EFAL. Additionally, the DBE should focus on developing teachers through ongoing professional development opportunities, especially in the EFAL component. The deputy principal appeared passionate about what the school could offer if the curriculum favoured the school's context.

3.3.2.4 Head of Department (HOD 1)

The HOD at the Farm School is a qualified teacher who holds a Bachelor of Education specialising in languages. She has served in this role for three years and admits that there has been tremendous progress in the EFAL component since she assumed duty. Her role is to ensure that language teaching is efficient and effective in the school in order to better prepare learners for English competency beyond their high school years.

She expressed a number of concerns about overcrowded classrooms, limited time to cover content, the low proficiency levels of learners in the EFAL programme and poor parental support. In sharing her concerns, she stated that it was difficult to work with large groups in language classrooms as it did not give learners enough opportunity to demonstrate their oral language skills and also made it difficult for teachers to monitor, support and gauge the learners' oral proficiency. She further mentioned that learners struggled mainly with interpreting content and questions which made it difficult for them to provide suitable answers. Her comment on curriculum content coverage was that there was not enough time to do everything expected within the stipulated time. In addition to these concerns, she hoped that parental support and involvement could be increased so that learning could be supported beyond the classroom.

Her goal for the evaluation was that the curriculum would be revised to accommodate circumstances of a Farm School like theirs, particularly on the aspects of the quality of content and time allocation. She felt that the EFAL component was too demanding for Grade 10 learners. The suggested material and topics were too advanced for the learners in her school. More culture-specific topics that learners could relate to could help learners learn and understand the content better. Her goal for the programme evaluation can thus be summarized as ensuring the relevance of learning content, manageable classroom sizes and increased parental involvement and responsibility.

3.3.2.5 Head of Department (HOD 2)

The HOD at the Art School holds a Bachelor of Education degree. At the time of the preliminary interview, he had just submitted his master's dissertation for examination. He is passionate about education and making a difference in his school and the education sector at large. Not only does he fulfil the role of HOD, but he teaches Sesotho as a Home Language.

During the interview, he acknowledged that the school was struggling to recover after the use of the rotation timetable which was implemented due to the COVID-19 pandemic in the period 2020-2022. Because much of the teaching content was compromised during the rotation timetable, an Annual Teaching Plan (ATP) which was an abridged version of CAPS was introduced. This was what the school was using at the time in which the study was conducted.

Since it is an art school, HOD 2 was concerned about the misconceptions learners had that the school was interested mainly in art-related subjects. Learners paid more attention to their art subjects than to other content subjects such as English. As a result, most Grade 10 learners struggled with reading and writing which also affected their performance in understanding the theory of the art subjects. Learners seemed to be more focused on the practical aspects of the art subjects and had indicated that they joined the school because it was an art school; they had not expected to do any other subjects other than art subjects. Another concern that he mentioned was the issue of time allocation in the EFAL component which forced teachers to focus mainly on examinable topics in preparation for exams. The two-week cycle which only gives learners 9 hours to learn EFAL was restrictive and did not leave room for more critical topics to be explored. He admitted that, as an art school, they did not have enough language teachers. In fact, there was only one teacher that was qualified to teach English.

HOD 2 saw increased differentiation of curriculum content as the goal of the programme evaluation. Currently, there was a mismatch between the nature of the school and the curriculum. As an art school it was expected to adhere to the standards of CAPS which did not necessarily suit the needs of learners, especially in the township context. Most of the learners in this school excelled in practical components instead of theory. However, for them to succeed with their studies, mastery of theory is essential.

3.2.3 Tertiary-level stakeholders

Tertiary level stakeholders are those that might be interested in the results of the study made available as a published evaluation report. Examples of persons not directly involved on a daily or regular basis with the Grade 10 EFAL programme are community organisations, language teachers and testers in general, programme researchers and educational funders. These stakeholders have little or no direct contact with the evaluation context (Lynch 2003:16). Upon publication of the evaluation report, the provincial department of education will be presented with the findings of the study. Should the provincial department furnish the report to the national department, this could lead to considering the recommendations and possible curriculum and systemic revisions. The findings of the study can also be communicated to tertiary-level stakeholders through conference presentations, journal articles and popular media news articles and reports. In this way, the outcomes of the full programme evaluation can be communicated nationally to general members of the public, educators and institutions that may be interested in the outcomes.

3.3 Compiling a context inventory

Step 2 of Lynch's CAM requires the researcher responsible for the evaluation to compile a context inventory (2003:18-19) which is described as a list of details including evaluation resources, duration, features of the language programme and description of participants, amongst others. Lynch (1996:5) refers to the context inventory as the "essential phenomena and features that characterize the programme and its setting". He presents a list of questions that serve as a guide for researchers to formulate a context inventory (Lynch 2003:18-19). Lynch (1996:5) originally presented a list of guiding points for compiling the inventory (2003:19). The researcher used both the older and newer lists (Lynch 1996:5 and 2003:19) to identify the most suitable items for this study's context inventory. Though there are eleven (11) guiding points or questions, the researcher has covered some of them in the previous chapters and sections, for example the process of selecting schools and the characteristics of the programme participants. Therefore, to avoid repetition, only selected points not yet discussed that are deemed relevant for the context inventory are provided below:

- Availability of programme participants for collection of data and timing of the evaluation
- Participants' understanding of evaluation goals and their attitudes towards the evaluation
- Expertise in conducting the evaluation
- Availability of instructional materials such as electronic media and textbooks
- Political motivation and cultural issues

The list above was used to compile a context inventory for the EFAL programme in accordance with the logistics needed to execute the study. The respective elements of the context inventory are discussed below.

3.3.1 Availability of programme participants for collection of data and timing of evaluation

Teachers, HODs and Principal 1 all indicated their availability for preliminary discussions, as well as during the data collection process, but it was difficult to communicate with Principal 2 who seemed to be occupied elsewhere. As mentioned above, the deputy principal of the Art School managed to take the place of the school principal after the preliminary interview phase. Although the teachers seemed to be nervous about participating, they agreed to be accessible for both interviews and observations. Apart from the discomfort that came with being interviewed and observed, they expressed their willingness to participate in the study.

Data were collected during the third term of 2022. The Free State Department of Education does not grant permission for data to be collected in the fourth term as the fourth term focuses on examination preparations. Also, ethical clearance was obtained at the start of the third term. The first term was deemed not ideal due to possible issues around learner enrolments and timetables. Therefore, the second term was used for preliminary interviews since these did not require any official permission. Hence, the best possible time to collect data was found to be during the third term.

Unfortunately, the data collection timetable was compromised by events such as strikes that were not communicated to the researcher on time. The initial plan was to observe each school for three weeks for at least 15 sessions, but due to unforeseen circumstances, the researcher ended up observing 10 sessions during the three weeks spent at each school. Not being made aware of the possibility of such events ahead of the school visits prevented the researcher from devising an alternative plan.

3.3.2 Understanding of evaluation goals by participants and their attitudes towards the evaluation

As explained earlier in this chapter, prior to the collection of data preliminary interviews were conducted to explain the nature of the study to the main stakeholders and what would be required of participants. During these interviews, participants were asked about their interests and goals/ expectations based on their understanding of the study. The goals together with the participants' interests were reported in Section 3.2. The participants' goals indicated their hope for the EFAL component to be revised, particularly with regard to time allocation for covering curriculum content and the relevance and quality of content.

During the preliminary interviews, teachers seemed to be uncomfortable with the idea of having their classes observed and sharing their teaching approaches and experiences, but with constant reassurance from the researcher that their performance was not being assessed but the overall language programme, they eventually warmed up and developed a positive attitude towards the idea of being observed and interviewed. Because the Farm School was in a rural village, Principal 1 indicated that they were happy that their school was selected for such an evaluation as they always thought such a consideration would not be made for their school. Both schools gave the evaluator a warm welcome and expressed a positive attitude toward the study.

3.3.3 Expertise in conducting the evaluation

The researcher has been involved in the ESL teaching sector for over 10 years and holds a master's degree in Language Practice. Her teaching experience and training have counted in her favour and helped her understand classroom practices as well as the research skills needed to conduct the evaluation, such as qualitative data analysis for example. The researcher focused on language attitudes in her master's dissertation, which falls under the sociolinguistics discipline. Admittedly, there is not a strong relationship between her master's and this PhD study because she decided to change her focus to teaching and curriculum-related studies. What truly inspired this study was her educational background and the amount of time she spent teaching ESL learners in South Africa and Saudi Arabia. She realized the frustration that ESL learners have due to curriculum designs that do not favour their linguistic backgrounds. She saw how learners who started to learn the English language later in their lives struggled to reach more advanced levels of English competency. In trying to mitigate this problem, she tried various teaching methods suggested by the curriculums she worked with but realized that they were not effective. Hence, she saw that there was a discrepancy in the quintile system and decided to look for ways in which education could be made more favourable and equitable for all learners, regardless of their socio-economic and linguistic backgrounds.

3.3.4 Availability of instructional materials such as electronic media and textbooks

The preliminary interviews conducted at both schools revealed that the schools do not have electronic media and are still using the traditional chalkboard to teach learners. Learners in the Farm School all have the DBE-prescribed textbooks, whereas those in the Art School do not. They make copies of activities from random resources based on the weekly themes. Though the department is reported to give schools mobile data and both schools have electricity, it was uncertain how the mobile data was used since there was no use of electronic media.

3.3.5 Social, political and cultural issues

The programme evaluation was motivated by the disadvantage that comes with the ranking of schools according to quintiles, particularly where the teaching of English is involved. Although the quintile system is aimed at supporting schools in poor areas and ensuring that they receive adequate resources, this does not appear to benefit the learners. Learners in quintile 1 schools that are mostly in township and rural areas generally struggle with expressing themselves in English as compared to those from higher quintile schools. Also, the time allocated for EFAL does not seem to be enough to cater for the language and other needs of learners who come from areas where English is considered a "foreign" language. These aspects speak to social, political and cultural issues that influence the accessibility and quality of education. The unique contexts of the two schools selected for the study are discussed in the section that follows.

Figure 6: Farm School

The Farm School is a day and boarding school located in Sediba Village, Thaba Nchu, Motheo District. It is 96 km away from the city of Bloemfontein and is deliberately located at a central point in the area to accommodate learners from surrounding villages such as Talla and Kgalala. The school had 601 learners of whom about 200 were boarding scholars. Boarding learners mostly come from villages that are a distance away from the school and are learners who cannot afford daily travelling expenses. The school was identified as one of the highest performing quintile 1 schools within the Motheo District. Quintile 1 schools as defined in Chapter 1, refer to schools that are located in the poorest communities.

Figure 7: Art School

The Art School is 60km away from Bloemfontein, in Botshabelo township. It is an art school that offers traditional school content subjects in addition to art subjects. When the researcher visited the school, it became clear that the community did not adequately understand the nature and purpose of the school. As highlighted earlier, the misconception about the school is that as an art school, the primary focus is on art subjects. Most learners come to this school lacking knowledge about what exactly the school offers. Similarly to the Farm School, it is a quintile 1 school within the Motheo district. Classes have an average of 15 learners for arts subjects (dance, drama, visual art, design and music) to be facilitated effectively. The main admission prerequisite focuses on art capabilities rather than performance in other subjects.

The admission process differs between the Farm School and the Art School. The Farm School has developed baseline tests for English and Mathematics which are used to gauge learners' levels in these two subjects and to offer remedial support to struggling learners during the course of their studies. These learners are guided and supported according to their academic needs to better prepare them for the senior phase of secondary school. In contrast to the Farm School, the Art School's admission policy allows for learners to be tested for their art skills upon admission and subjects such as English and Mathematics are not prioritised during the admission process.

The Farm School is located on a farm where there is not much access to socialising beyond the school yard as opposed to the Art School which is based in a township where learners have access to social life outside the school yard. Also, since the Farm School is a boarding school, learners are governed by the strict rules of the school. Art schools such as the one that formed part of this study seem to be expected to perform like the traditional schools, which is a challenge as learners in such schools are mainly interested in art subjects. The curriculum does not make provision for art schools and prescribes the same teaching approaches and content regardless of the nature of the school.

3.4 Preliminary themes

The information obtained in the first two steps (clarification of audience and goals and the compilation of a context inventory) is important for guiding the full programme evaluation. Step 3 of Lynch's CAM entails identifying preliminary themes from the first two steps that can help provide a clear focus for the study. Other themes may emerge later in the study as the evaluation progresses. Based on his vast experience with language programme evaluation, Lynch (2003:19-20) provides a list of illustrative preliminary themes that may be applicable and serve as a guide for researchers, depending on the most salient themes of their evaluation:

- conflicts between teaching philosophy/theory and learner expectations:
- support for programme from larger administrative units;
- the relationship between governmental agendas and assessment practices;
- personality and management style and conflicts;
- the match between teaching activities and assessment procedures;
- learner motivation and attitudes towards teachers and programme;
- test anxiety;
- mixed levels of language proficiency;
- separate skills versus integrated skills teaching and assessment;

- the role and status of the language programme within a larger administrative unit;
- teacher autonomy and programme coherence;
- the role and status of teachers and learners in curriculum decisions;
- social justice concerns;
- the role and status of the language in the community.

Only a few of the above themes emerged from the preliminary interviews with the stakeholders prior to conducting the full study. They are summarized in the table below:

Table 3: Preliminary themes based on Lynch's CAM

Support for programme from larger administrative units
Mixed levels of language proficiency
The role and status of the language programme within a larger administrative unit
Teacher autonomy and programme coherence
Social justice concerns
The role and status of the language in the community

The researcher adapted the above-listed themes from Lynch's (2003:19-20) illustrative list and matched them according to the interests and goals of the study as determined by the audience and participants. The selected themes of this study are those that were found to be most salient for the evaluation as they dominantly emerged in the process of gathering data from the preliminary interviews. In the context of this study, the above themes will help focus the evaluation to yield cohesive data. The above themes will also help the researcher to determine the limits and constraints of the evaluation (Lynch 2003:20). Other themes that surfaced after the preliminary data collection are discussed in the subsequent chapters.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter has highlighted the individual contexts of the two participating schools and revealed their similarities and differences. It has also discussed programme evaluation goals expressed by participants during the preliminary interviews. The goals and the nature of the schools' contexts were used to formulate a context inventory which was used to identify a preliminary list of themes with the guidance of Lynch's illustrative themes. It is evident that though the two schools fall within the same district, are of the same quintile, and report to the same department of education, they are radically different in nature. One is a Farm School and the other an Art School which means that the social, academic and linguistic backgrounds of the learners are different. This was evident in the selection criteria that the schools used. The Farm School appears to recruit learners who are academically stronger, whereas the Art School seems to attract learners who are more gifted in the arts. The researcher noticed that the participants in the preliminary interviews had similar programme evaluation goals regarding CAPS, namely that the curriculum would be revised in accordance with the schools' unique contexts. The following chapter presents the research design and methodology employed in the study.

Chapter 4: Research design

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of the first three steps of Lynch's CAM covered in the previous chapter was to obtain important contextual information and to identify goals and themes that can guide the selection of an appropriate research design for the study (Lynch 1996:6-7). The research design influences the methodology and choice of data collection sets that are necessary to answer the research questions. This constitutes the fourth step of Lynch's programme evaluation model. Chapter 4 thus delineates in detail the systematic processes to be followed at various stages of the research to conclude the study in an ethical and accountable manner. For this reason, the chapter starts by explaining the research paradigm and philosophical stance adopted. This is followed by a detailed exposition of the research methodology and data collection instruments. The chapter closes with a discussion of the limitations faced while collecting data.

4.2 Research paradigm

The term paradigm is complex and open to different interpretations. Guba considers paradigm to refer to "a basic set of beliefs that guides action, whether of the everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry" (1990:17), leaving the definition to be refined further by others. Maree (2013:47) states that a paradigm is regarded as a set of assumptions or beliefs about crucial aspects of reality giving rise to a worldview. It addresses fundamental perceptions on the nature of reality (ontology), the knower and the known (epistemology) and methodologies. Kivunja and Kiyuni (2017:26) discuss various definitions of scholars and conclude that paradigm is an avenue that informs researchers how meaning will be constructed from data that is to be collected in accordance with the experiences of individuals. They emphasize the importance of clearly stating the paradigm locating the study in question. Another articulation comes from Kamal (2019:1389) who concludes that the term paradigm in essence portrays "the researcher's beliefs and values about the world, the way they define the world and the way they work within the world". In essence, a paradigm is a framework of beliefs that serves as a conceptual anchor and empowers researchers to formulate a comprehensive research plan.

By adhering to a paradigm, researchers ensure that their approach to data analysis is not arbitrary but is grounded in a systematic and coherent perspective. The purpose of embracing a paradigm, as articulated by Pervin and Mokhtar (2022:420), is to provide researchers with a methodological compass, directing their actions and decisions throughout the research process. In summary, the adoption of a paradigmatic approach is not merely a theoretical exercise; it is a practical and essential tool for researchers to navigate the complexities of their studies. It not only informs their data collection methods but also shapes the lens through which they interpret and make sense of the information gathered, thereby contributing to the overall rigour and validity of the research endeavour.

Because the present study involves an evaluation of a specific English language programme in two distinct school contexts in the Free State province, the researcher saw it fit to situate the research in an interpretivist paradigm, which is referred to by some scholars as the constructivist paradigm. The researcher believes that this paradigm is effective for studying topics from different angles to gain a deeper understanding of phenomena. Baxter and Jack comment that constructivists “claim that truth is relative and that it is dependent on one’s perspective” (2008:545). Greene provides further elucidation by referring to the interpretivist approach as “unabashedly and unapologetically subjectivist. It is also dialectic, for the process of meaning construction transforms the constructors” (1994:536). Zainal elaborates that “true knowledge can only be obtained by deep interpretation of subject” (2017:1).

Apart from being a “set of assumptions and perceptual orientations shared by members of a research community”, the research paradigm helps determine the research methodology the study should employ (Given 2008:591). It is clear from the above discussion that the interpretivist paradigm allows the researcher to understand and interpret views and opinions of participants in line with the topic of the study. It gives the researcher an opportunity to explore human thoughts and actions within social and organisational contexts (Klein & Myers 1999: 69-71). Furthermore, in keeping with interpretivist thinking, “truth and knowledge are subjective, as well as culturally and historically situated, based on people’s experiences and their understanding of them” (Gemma 2018:8). Since this study is aimed at investigating how language teaching is taking place in diverse school contexts and identifying impeding factors that need to be addressed to attain more meaningful and equitable education, the interpretivist paradigm was identified as suitable. The study does not attempt to measure language learning in a quantitative manner as in the case of a positivist paradigm.

From the many explanations and definitions provided above, we can see that a paradigm serves as a lens for studying and interpreting reality. The researcher's main interest was to understand the reality of EFAL teaching in two distinct township schools that are both required to adhere to the prescribed curriculum referred to as CAPS. The researcher sought to investigate how teachers have been prepared for their teaching responsibilities and the extent to which they are enabled to facilitate language learning and manage the demands of the curriculum within the unique circumstances of the school and educational context. As such, everyday teaching had to be observed and experienced first-hand.

In summary, the interpretivist paradigm considers the possibility of multiple realities and puts emphasis on the understanding of participants and their interpretation of the world around them (Ugwu, Ekere & Onoh 2021:120). The researcher considered it of utmost importance to capture authentic experiences of the teachers in the classroom and to be able to interpret them in the light of distinct circumstances, as well as on the basis of accepted criteria and principles in language teaching. The ultimate role of the researcher in working with the interpretivist paradigm is to study interaction processes amongst individuals and use contextual information to understand the historical and cultural setting of participants (Creswell 2009). In the context of this study, the researcher focused on the interaction of teachers and learners as well as teachers and the curriculum. These interactions were closely studied and are analysed and interpreted thoroughly in the chapters that follow.

4.3 Research methodology

In any research endeavour, the objectives of a study and the framing of research questions serve as cardinal compass points, guiding not only the trajectory of investigation but also shaping the nature and treatment of the data to be acquired and analysed. As elucidated by Kothari (2004:8), research methodology encompasses the rationale underpinning methodological choices, an explication of why a particular technique was favoured over alternatives, and a substantiation of decisions regarding research design, instruments, and the selection of the sample population. This holistic perspective ensures that the methodology employed aligns with the overarching goals of the study.

It is imperative to distinguish between research methodology and research methods to navigate the nuanced terrain of scholarly inquiry effectively. According to Cohen, Manion & Keith (2007:47), research methods encapsulate a “range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction.” While research methods constitute the diverse array of tools and techniques employed in the data-gathering process, research methodology refers to the underlying logic that governs methodological choices and the crafting of a comprehensive research design.

The next section elaborates in detail what qualitative research methodology entails and the role of the researcher, before dealing with the intricacies of case study research within a language programme evaluation framework that provides the scaffolding for the study. Within this exploration, attention will be devoted to the sampling strategy employed, shedding light on the deliberate choices made in identifying the study's demographic and contextual boundaries. Through this systematic investigation, the study seeks to not only address the “how” of data acquisition and analysis but to elucidate the “why” that underscores each methodological decision, thereby fortifying the methodological underpinning of the entire research endeavour.

4.3.1 Qualitative research

Jackson *et al.* (2007) indicate that qualitative research attempts to understand aspects of humanity by examining human practices and interpreting the observations made and insights gained. The focus is on “understanding human beings’ richly textured experiences and reflections about those experiences” (2007:22). Scholars who do qualitative research subsequently analyse these understandings in various spheres of life such as those encountered in the behavioural and social sciences, amongst other examples (Cropley 2021:5). The analysis is conducted in an *interpretive and naturalistic* approach, which means that qualitative research takes place in authentic settings where data is interpreted according to meanings shared by participants (Denzin & Lincoln 2000:3). Naz *et al.* explain that qualitative researchers “believe that the behaviour of individuals towards a particular situation is context related, context-dependent and context-rich” (2022:43). In essence, qualitative studies are not experimental but descriptive and are carried out under conditions that resemble real life situations (Cropley:2021:41). Creswell (2013:46) defines qualitative research in similar terms to Cropley (2021) and foregrounds the natural setting, participants’ perspectives, and the role of the researcher as the key instrument of data collection.

The role of the qualitative researcher is to obtain in-depth information about the participants' experiences and to interpret these against the background of specific factors and occurrences that influence them, for example the language and education policies and prescribed curricula in the case of this study. Such factors and influences help the researcher gather substantial data about the phenomenon in question (Jackson, Drummond & Camara 2007:23). Julius (2020:92) expounds that researcher working "within an interpretivist paradigm drawing on qualitative methods often seek experiences, understandings and perceptions of individuals for their data to uncover various realities rather than relying on numbers or statistics" as would be the case in quantitative or positivist methodologies.

Atieno (2009:13-14) provides a useful summary of the assumptions of qualitative designs:

> 1.Qualitative researchers are concerned primarily with **process**, rather than outcomes or products.
> 2.Qualitative researchers are interested in **meaning** how people make sense of their lives, experiences, and their structures of the world.
> 3. The qualitative researcher is the **primary instrument** for data collection and analysis. Data are mediated through this human instrument, rather than through inventories, questionnaires, or machines.
> 4.Qualitative research involves **fieldwork**. The researcher physically goes to the people, setting, site, or institution to observe or record behavior in its natural setting.
> 5.Qualitative research is **descriptive** in that the researcher is interested in process, meaning, and understanding gained through words or pictures.
> 6. The process of qualitative research is **inductive** in that the researcher builds abstractions, concepts, hypotheses, and theories from details.

The above assumptions were all applicable to the two school case studies. The process of language teaching was studied rather than the results of learners. This provided much descriptive data on the basis of which the researcher could draw conclusions and theorise alternative possibilities. Unlike quantitative approaches where data collection often relies on standardized instruments or tools, qualitative researchers personally engage with the research context. This human-centric approach implies that the researcher's subjectivity, skills, experiences, and interactions can influence the data collection and analysis. The researcher's ability to interpret nuances and context in a trustworthy way, and the richness of participants' experiences become crucial. In the case of this study, the researcher remained objective and prevented her teaching experiences from influencing the way she conducted interviews, observed classes and analysed data. Qualitative research is complex and highlights the importance of the researcher as an engaged and reflexive participant in the research process.

Atieno's (2009:13-14) delineation of the assumptions underpinning qualitative designs provides a comprehensive overview of the distinctive features characterizing this research approach. Qualitative researchers, as highlighted, place a central emphasis on process rather than on the final outcomes or products. Their focus revolves around unravelling the meaning individuals attribute to their lives, experiences, and the structures of the world. Significantly, the qualitative researcher acts as the primary instrument for data collection and analysis, engaging in fieldwork to observe and record behaviour in its natural setting. This inherently descriptive method seeks understanding through words or pictures, and its inductive nature involves building abstractions, concepts, hypotheses, and theories derived from specific details. Collectively, these assumptions underscore the context-dependent, and human-centric nature of qualitative research methodologies.

Rahman (2017:104) discusses the advantages of using qualitative research based on various scholars' contributions. Qualitative research yields rich data, analyses real-life experiences of participants and recognizes people's voices. The researcher builds rapport with the participants which helps to obtain subjective data, and the design has a flexible structure in which the researcher can construct and reconstruct elements to suit the context of the study. In terms of rapport between research participants and stakeholders, both parties in qualitative research "engage together in a joint process of production of knowledge" (Cropley 2021:56). Atieno (2009:16) notes that qualitative research enables "simplifying and managing data without destroying complexity and context." According to Prasad (2017:4642), the ultimate benefit of a qualitative approach is that it provides a broad inquiry which enables participants to raise important issues that matter to them.

Although qualitative research has many advantages, it is also important to note some of its drawbacks. Creswell (2013:49) cautions that qualitative research requires extensive time in the field, the data analysis process is complex, and the writing process can be demanding. The researcher has to transcribe and analyse data, which is time-consuming. Finally, because there are no set guidelines and it is dynamic in nature, it is always difficult to adhere to the initial plans that the researcher drafts.

In line with the explanation of advantages and disadvantages, the researcher indeed received substantial sets of data and was challenged by the amount of time spent doing fieldwork. The data analysis of qualitative research did tend to be complex as every observation and interview needed to be accurately transcribed each time upon completion. Also, analysing qualitative data requires a lot of integrity because it is only the researcher who is responsible for doing the fieldwork and this data can easily be manipulated to match the objectives for the study. Though there were challenges during the process of collecting data, the qualitative approach remained the most suitable option to obtain the data for this study.

4.3.2 Case study research

In order to observe how the Grade 10 EFAL component of the CAPS curriculum was being implemented in authentic settings, the researcher decided to conduct two mini case studies of how the teaching programme was being facilitated at each of the two selected schools respectively over a three-week period. A full case study would have required longer than a year to be completed. Swain (2017:174) states that the definition of case study in research remains confusing as there is no agreed definition, but the understanding is that it is more of a research strategy than a research method or methodology.

A case study "allows investigators to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events—such as individual life cycles, organizational and managerial processes" (Yin 2003:2). In the case of this study, the researcher collected data based on real-life events that took place in the classroom and interacted with people involved in events related to the EFAL programme. Maree (2013:75) explains that a case study is an empirical inquiry that forms an integral part of investigating a contemporary phenomenon which is embedded in a real-life context. The case study involves the use of "why" and "how" questions (Yin 2003:1) and investigates how participants interact with each other in a specific situation and the manner in which they make meaning of the phenomenon studied (Maree 2013:75). This gives the researcher the opportunity to closely study phenomena within a specific context (Zainal 2007:1). Furthermore, case studies afford the powerless, such as children or minors, the opportunity to voice their opinions in a way that contributes to the deeper understanding of the situation. Although scholars express similar views about what a case study is, Given (2008:68) admits that there is no consensus on "the basic characteristics of case studies" or "the 'instance' that is investigated" (Julius 2020:93). Essentially, the case of the current study is the evaluation of the Grade 10 English language programme prescribed by CAPS as experienced in the actual language classrooms at two distinct township schools.

Given (2008:68-69) states that case studies have an affinity towards descriptive goals, which means that the researcher is more interested in descriptive-interpretive elements. As such, case studies have a strong comparative advantage in terms of "depth" of the analysis. Another key strength of the case study is that it incorporates multiple sources and techniques to use with the data (Maree 2013:76). More often, case studies work with a small, limited number of participants to investigate a real-life problem, rather than to make statistical inferences in relation to the wider population (Yin, 2003). That being mentioned, the nature of case studies does not always yield robust data which makes them open to criticism. In the case of this study, the researcher spent time at two specific schools and worked closely with the teachers. The two teachers were identified in Chapter 3 as the primary level stakeholders and persons who could be affected most by the outcome of the study. The overarching objective of the study is to ensure alignment of policy, curriculum and teacher support with the identified needs of teachers and learners in different teaching contexts. The findings can potentially lead to more focused in-service support and training and influence further curriculum innovation that could benefit teachers and their learners in achieving the standard development goal number 4 of the 2030 UN Agenda (RSA 2019:45) which aims to foster inclusive and quality education for all learners.

Naz, Gulab and Aslam (2022:43) classify case studies into three categories:

- Exploratory: Studies a phenomenon to collect data related to the researcher's interests
- Descriptive: Studies a phenomenon in a natural setting and collects data as it happens in a narrative form
- Explanatory: Closely studies data hidden within the phenomenon

This study falls under the descriptive category as data was collected in natural settings in real time and events were narrated as they were taking place. This category does not imply that data should only be described. Thorough analysis and interpretation are essential within the interpretivist paradigm.

4.3.3 Sampling in qualitative research

The research topic, objectives, and questions are some of the research features that help determine the population that is suitable for the study. Because there were numerous potential populations or “cases” from which the researcher could draw a sample (Taherdoost 2016:18), the researcher had to choose a manageable sample from the list of schools in the Free State province that fell within the parameters of the study, as explained in Chapter 1, so as to achieve the research objectives and answer the research questions. Sharma (2017:749) explains that sampling is a “technique (procedure or device) employed by a researcher to systematically select a relatively smaller number of representative items or individuals (a subset) from a pre-defined population to serve as subjects (data source) for observation or experimentation as per objectives of his or her study.” Therefore, sampling is a process used to select suitable participants. A sample is a subset of the population which the researcher selects to be participants in the study (Given 2008:797). Taherdoost (2016:19-20) indicates that sampling involves a number of stages and provides the following guidelines:

- Clearly define target population
- Select sampling frame
- Choose sampling technique
- Determine sample size
- Collect data
- Access response rate

According to Taherdoost (2016:20) the researcher should start by clearly defining the target population suitable for the study. Thereafter the researcher should select a sampling frame which is the actual cases the researcher intends to work with, and lastly, choose a sampling technique that will help determine the sample size. The process of selecting a sample is important in any research project since it is rarely practical or ethical to study the entire population (Marshall 1996:522). The last two stages can only take place once the researcher has identified the sample of the study and do not necessarily contribute towards determining the sample.

There are two kinds of sampling referred to as probability and non-probability sampling, each with different techniques. Taherdoost indicates that probability sampling means “that every item in the population has an equal chance of being included in [the] sample” (2016:20). This is also referred to as random or representative sampling (Alvi 2016:12). On the other hand, non-probability sampling is usually associated with a case study research design and qualitative research (2016:22). Non-probability sampling is also known as non-random sampling (Alvi 2016:13). The table below indicates the techniques and types of sampling within each type (Sharma 2017:748).

Table 4: Sampling techniques

Probability Sampling	**Non-Probability Sampling**
Simple Random Sampling	Quota Sampling
Systematic Sampling	Purposive Sampling
Stratified Sampling	Self-Selection Sampling
Cluster Sampling	Snowball Sampling

According to Cohen *et al.* (2007:112) non-probability samples are often used in small-scale research because they are less complicated to set up, less expensive and can prove perfectly adequate where researchers have no intention to generalize data beyond the sample they are working with.

The type of method used within the non-probability sampling technique is the purposive or judgement sampling. Sharma (2017) states that purposive sampling is also known as judgemental, selective or subjective sampling. Zainal (2017: 3) defines this kind of sampling as a process in which the researcher uses discretion to select participants who may be knowledgeable about the problem being studied. This sampling relies on the judgement of the researcher in terms of what units (people, organisations, events or pieces of data) are required. In purposive sampling, the researchers "handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought" (Cohen *et al.* 2007:114-115). Because conducting an in-depth study at a number of schools within the district would be impossible within the time constraints of the study, the researcher selected two schools as the sample for the case studies. The researcher deemed purposive sampling suitable for the study since it is often used to obtain data in qualitative research (Gledhill, Abbey & Schweitzer 2008:85) and, as already mentioned, the schools were selected based on their quintile and academic performance.

Sharma further discusses advantages and disadvantages of purposive sampling and indicates that they allow the researcher to make generalisations from the sample in question but open a risk for researchers to be biased (Sharma 2017:751-752). Though this may be true, the researcher tried not to be biased throughout the different phases of the research. The nature of the sample for this study assisted in determining suitable instruments for data collection.

The total number of participants in the study was seven (7). Participants were selected purposefully based on their direct involvement in the programme. The study focused on the Grade 10 EFAL programme, so every stakeholder involved in the programme was deemed suitable to participate in the study. These participants contributed different kinds of data for the study in terms of what happens in the EFAL classrooms, the roles and responsibilities of HODs, principals as well as the DBE.

Table 5: Summary of the sample population for the mini case studies

Farm School	**Art School**
Teacher 1	Teacher 2
HOD 1	HOD 2
Principal 1	Principal (Vice) 2
FSDoE EFAL Advisor	

After completing the selection process of the schools for the mini case studies, a further process of sampling to determine the above participants was carried out as guided by Lynch's CAM (1990). The audience was selected and grouped according to their roles and levels of involvement in the EFAL programme, as expounded in Chapter 3 under Section 3.2.

4.4 Data collection instruments

In the intricate process of data collection and analysis, the judicious selection of research instruments emerges as a critical facet of the adopted research design. The compatibility between these instruments and the overarching design not only ensures methodological coherence but also lays the groundwork for extracting data that is both responsive to the research questions and aligns with the study's objectives. In this study, a deliberate and thoughtful selection of research instruments, namely semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis, was made to enable comprehensive analysis and triangulation of data.

To facilitate the data collection process, the study incorporated the use of an audio recording device. This strategic choice served multiple purposes, foremost among them being the preservation of data. The use of audio recordings not only alleviated concerns about inadvertently overlooking significant details but also afforded the researcher a level of ease during the interviews and observations. The audio recording device became an invaluable companion, freeing the researcher from the cognitive burden of deciding what to document in real time and what aspects might be of lesser importance. The decision to forego video recordings during class observations was influenced by the extended duration of the observation, which could potentially lead to the teacher and learners being uncomfortable. Additionally, considering that the main focus of the classroom observations was the teacher, the recording device was deemed more suitable.

While the researcher diligently maintained field notes throughout the research process, the use of an audio recording device offered a distinct advantage in the transcription phase. The recorded interviews and observations, when transcribed, ensured the accurate capture of salient points and nuanced details. This approach not only strengthened the reliability of the data but also enabled the researcher to navigate the intricacies of the interview process without disrupting the natural flow of conversation. The recording device further facilitated an immersive observation experience during classroom sessions, allowing the researcher to fully engage without being encumbered by the details that might otherwise be lost in the process.

Beyond the immediate benefits to data collection and transcription, the use of the recording device contributes significantly to the study's credibility. The recorded interviews and observations serve as verifiable artifacts, offering a tangible and enduring record of the study's data. Importantly, these recordings will be securely stored for a period of five years, aligning with best practices for data retention and providing a robust foundation for potential future scrutiny or validation. In essence, the integration of audio recordings into the data collection process not only enhanced the methodological rigour of the study but also laid the groundwork for a credible and enduring contribution to the scholarly discourse.

4.4.1 Document appraisal

To enhance the depth and breadth of the investigation, a deliberate and strategic choice was made to examine key sources of information relevant to the study, including the CAPS document, educational policies and DBE strategies. This decision was guided by a comprehensive understanding of document analysis provided by Dalglish, Khalid and McMahon (2020:1425). According to these scholars, document analysis is characterized by its systematic approach, involving a rigorous examination of the contents of written documents. The versatility of this method is underscored by the fact that it can be integrated with other research methods, thereby augmenting its contribution to uncovering nuanced insights.

Furthermore, Julius (2020:104) adds a valuable perspective to this methodological choice, emphasizing that documents are not mere repositories of events but function as windows into the actions, values, and historical contexts of individuals. Documents serve as powerful tools that extend beyond the surface, revealing the essence of human behaviour and the underlying values that shape it.

The rationale behind employing document analysis in this study is deeply rooted in the necessity to evaluate the alignment between the explicit content of the CAPS document, the National Education Policy Act, and the complex dynamics observed in real classroom situations. This methodological approach recognizes and addresses the crucial need to bridge the gap that often exists between policy intentions formulated at higher levels of the educational hierarchy and the practical realities of implementation experienced in diverse classroom settings.

By subjecting these key documents to thorough scrutiny, the researcher aims to discern not only the explicit guidelines laid out in official educational documents but also the implicit values, assumptions, and expectations that may influence the translation of policy into practice. In doing so, the study seeks to unravel the multifaceted relationship between policy formulations, pedagogical expectations, and the lived experiences of educators and learners within the educational landscape.

The choice to incorporate document analysis into the research design is a strategic move aimed at triangulating information, enriching the data collected through other means, and providing a more comprehensive understanding of how the CAPS document, manifests in the day-to-day activities of teachers and learners. This methodological approach, therefore, positions the study to uncover deeper insights into the intricate interplay between policy discourse and the lived realities of educational stakeholders.

4.4.2 Semi structured interviews (SSIs)

Interviews are one of the most lucrative methods of data collection as they provide an opportunity for the researcher to develop new questions, and probe and clarify information during the process, particularly those that are of a semi-structured nature. Naz *et al.* (2022:43) state that data is often collected in case study research through interviews and define an interview as a "dialogue between the researcher and the research subjects". Semi-structured interviews (SSIs) were used in this study as they enabled the participants to expound on their answers and the researcher could also ask for further elucidation from the interviewees where necessary. As Mclntosh and Morse (2015:1) comment: "The SSI is designed to ascertain subjective responses from persons regarding a particular situation or phenomenon they have experienced" and this type of interview gives the researcher the freedom to slightly deviate from the script (2015:4).

Mclntosh and Morse (2015:7) expound that SSIs are advantageous because the physical presence of the interviewer provides structure to the interview situation and enables the interviewer to ease the communication by offering breaks and emotional support when there is discomfort during the interview. Though SSIs are a good source for collecting data, participants may be shy or intimidated, which may stall the process. Kakilla (2021:1-3) acknowledges that semi-structured interviews have certain strengths and weaknesses. Amongst the strengths of semi-structured interviews are that they allow for in-depth conversations, participants have freedom to respond as they feel comfortable, and the researcher can formulate questions in a way that enables data synthesis and the identification of themes, especially when conducted in a face-to-face context. On the other hand, the weaknesses include a potential loss of data if there is a language barrier or poor understanding of the study that limits responses and interferes with the conversation (Kakilla 2021:1-3).

The researcher concurs with Kakilla (2021:1-3) and Mclntosh and Morse (2015:7) regarding the strengths and weaknesses of SSIs. During the mini case study interviews, although in some cases participants were able to provide in-depth responses, some participants seemed to be in a hurry and did not show a thorough understanding of the questions even when they were prompted. Cases in which responses were brief stalled the conversation at some point, but the interviewer developed techniques to keep the participants interested in the interview. Also, to ensure that data was not lost, the interviewer transcribed the interviews and made use of a recording device to save the audio recordings for verification and further consultation purposes should this be necessary.

Bearman (2019:4) believes that the effectiveness of semi-structured interviews is influenced by questions that generate rich, thick descriptions and that the questions should contain meaningful prompts in order for the responses to be nuanced thoughts. The researcher found the use of semi-structured interviews preferable to standardized interviews as she was able to "explore opinions and ideas of interviewees" and create room for probing (Naz *et al.* 2022:45). Interviews were conducted in different phases. The first set of interviews formed part of the first three steps of Lynch's CAM, as explained in Chapter 3. These were preliminary interviews conducted before commencing with the full study in which the designed data collection instruments were employed. The researcher needed to better understand the context of the schools and the curriculum prior to collecting actual data in line with the study, so preliminary interviews were held for this purpose. Data obtained in preliminary interviews was thus used in step 1 of CAM to present the audience and goals for the programme evaluation. The participants were briefed about the nature and purpose of the study and asked to share what they expected from the study. The second phase of the interviews was conducted during visits to the schools as part of the observation period of the study. The questions were open-ended and allowed participants to provide in-depth responses. The interviews were conversational, and participants felt free to ask for clarity.

When the researcher applied for ethical clearance for the study, the Free State Department of Education made it very clear that the researcher was not to interfere with the school programme when collecting data. To prevent this, the researcher had to make interview meeting arrangements with the participants at a time when they had no teaching or urgent commitments. Interviews took place during the participants' free periods and lunch times.

4.4.3 Classroom observations

A number of studies have explored the use of classroom observations in language teaching research. Long (1980) specifically advocates the need for a classroom observational component in research on language teaching to test language acquisition theories on the basis of formal instruction. Allwright (1988) makes the point that policy-making in education depends on descriptions of classroom realities obtained through observations. Classroom observations are also valuable for providing feedback in teacher training. Zaidi (2017) points out the value of classroom observations for the personal development of teachers but emphasizes the need to minimize anxiety by ensuring the person responsible for the observations is suitable for this role. These studies collectively underscore the significance of classroom observations in language teaching research.

Kothari (2004:17) refers to observations as a method of collecting information by way of the investigator's direct observation of actual events in an unobtrusive way without interviewing participants. He acknowledges that this method can be expensive and may not be suitable for cases where the sample is large (2004:17). Despite the investment of significant resources in terms of both time and money, the classroom observations were deemed to be an essential part of the current study because they gave the researcher a chance to see how Grade 10 learners were being prepared in the Further Education and Training (FET) phase for the final part of their school education, and how teachers were able to fulfil their roles in the unique circumstances at each of the schools that formed part of the mini case studies. This aligns with the study's overarching objectives.

The overt nature of the observations, where teachers were informed beforehand of the purpose of the study and given the assurance that their identities would not be disclosed, is a transparent and ethical approach that fosters openness and reduces potential intimidation. The researcher's role as a non-participant observer, as defined by Ciesielska, Böstrom and Öhlander (2018:40), further emphasizes the non-intrusive nature of the study. The researcher was introduced to the participating classes of learners as a guest from the University of the Free State so that she appeared less intimidating. The careful delineation of the researcher's role played a part in ensuring the integrity of the data collection process. In no way did the researcher attempt to participate in the lessons or interact with learners. Communication with the teacher was reserved for outside classroom times and in accordance with the scheduled interviews and meetings with teachers.

Baker (2006:172) cautions that although observations are a good source of data collection, they are complex and require the researcher to use several techniques and abilities. The recognition of the need for multitasking, perceptiveness, and the ability to read body language positions the researcher's role as demanding and multifaceted. For the researcher to capture all the crucial details of the lessons being observed, a recording device was used and an observation card to take notes and fill in the required data. This indeed was a complex system, but the use of the recording device made the capturing of data more efficient. The researcher was able to use the recordings later to check if all the details were captured accurately, increasing the trustworthiness and validity of the reported data.

In compiling the observation card, the researcher used resources such as The New Teacher Project (TNTP) as a guide (TNTP 2011). This initiative has developed a teacher rating tool with the primary objective of ensuring focused and rigorous classroom observations. This rating tool includes six design standards to be met by effective teachers and contains a list of in-class observable skills, amongst others. Additionally, the World Bank (2021:7) offers a complimentary manual for observers, crafted around the essential qualities of teaching practices. This manual encompasses three pivotal areas: classroom culture, instruction, and socioemotional skills. This holistic approach not only complements the focus on rigorous classroom observations but also enriches the evaluation process by providing valuable insights into the multifaceted aspects of effective teaching. Though the researcher did not incorporate every observation feature suggested by The New Teacher Project (2011) and the World Bank (2021), the observation card included the ten most salient aspects. These are listed and explained in depth in Chapter 7 which reports and analyses the class observation data.

The observation schedule was planned according to each school's timetable. The Farm School used a two-week cycle in its timetable that had different time slots each week, whereas the Art School used the same timetable throughout the term. Below is the timetable for each school together with the observation schedule that was followed.

Table 6: Timetable— Farm School

Week 1		
Day	**Time**	**Duration**
Monday	09:10-09:50	40mins
Tuesday	08:30-9:50	1hr 20mins
Wednesday	11:10-12:30	1hr 15mins
Thursday	10:30-11:10	40mins
Friday	10:30-11:50	1hr 20
Week 2		
Day	**Time**	**Duration**
Monday	14:00-14:40	40mins
Tuesday	13:20-14:40	1hr 10mins
Wednesday	11:10-11:50	40mins
Thursday	12:40-14:00	1hr 20mins
Friday	10:30-11:10	40mins

Table 7: Observation Schedule—Farm School

Week1				
Lesson	**Day**	**Date**	**Observation time**	**Duration**
1	Tuesday	19 July 2022	08:30-9:50	0mins
2	Wednesday	20 July 2022	11:10-12:30	1hr 15mins
3	Thursday	21 July 2022	10:30-11:10	40mins
4	Friday	22 July 2022	10:30-11:50	No class
Week 2				
5	Monday	25 July 2022	14:00-14:40	40mins
6	Tuesday	26 July 2022	13:20-14:40	1hr 10mins
7	Wednesday	27 July 2022	11:10-11:50	40mins
8	Thursday	28 July 2022	12:40-14:00	1hr 20mins
9	Friday	29 July 2022	10:30-11:10	40mins

Week 3				
10	Monday	1 August 2022	09:10-09:50	40mins
11	Tuesday	2 August 2022	08:30-9:50	40mins
12	Wednesday	3 August 2022	11:10-12:30	1hr 20mins
13	Thursday	4 August 2022	10:30-11:10	No class
14	Friday	5 August 2022	10:30-11:50	No class

Table 8: Timetable— Art School

Day	**Time**	**Duration**
Monday	08:00-09:00	1hr
Tuesday	08:30-09:30	30mins
Wednesday	11:00-12:00	1hr
Thursday	10:30-11:30	1hr
Friday	10:00-11:00	1hr

Table 9: Observation Schedule— Art School

Week 1				
Lesson	**Day**	**Date**	**Observation time**	**Duration**
1	Wednesday	10August 2022	11:00-12:00	1hr
2	Thursday	11 August 2022	10:30-11:30	1hr
3	Friday	12 August 2022	10:00-11:00	1hr
Week 2				
4	Monday	15 August 2022	08:00-09:00	1hr
5	Tuesday	16 August 2022	08:30-09:30	30mins
6	Wednesday	17 August 2022	11:00-12:00	1hr
7	Thursday	18 August 2022	10:30-11:30	1hr
8	Friday	19 August 2022	10:00-11:00	No class
Week 3				
9	Monday	22 August 2022	08:00-09:00	No class

10	Tuesday	23 August 2022	08:30-09:30	No class
11	Wednesday	24 August 2022	11:00-12:00	No class
12	Thursday	25 August 2022	10:30-11:30	No class
13	Friday	26 August 2022	10:00-11:00	No class

Classes were visited according to the timetable notwithstanding any unforeseen events. The researcher observed the classes regardless of what the circumstances were. For example, in cases where there was no teacher present, but learners were in class, the researcher stayed in class for the duration of the scheduled observation period.

In essence, the researcher's strategic approach to observations, grounded in a clear understanding of the method’s challenges and complexities, supported robust data collection. The judicious use of technology, transparent communication with participants, and a keen awareness of classroom dynamics collectively contributed to the methodological strength of the observation process within the broader research design.

4.5 Limitations of the study

Although the mini case studies were insightful and yielded substantial data, the time allowed per school in accordance with the prescriptions of the provincial Department of Education meant that it was not possible to cover all aspects of the Grade 10 EFAL programme. Data were collected during the third term as the Free State Department of Education does not offer permission for data to be collected during the fourth term due to the term being mostly dedicated to exam preparations. For data to be collected in both schools before the fourth term and the start of the new academic year, the researcher had to divide the available time between the schools. The amount of content the researcher expected to observe was compromised as teachers were not able to cover all of the required content. For example, in the case of the Farm School, literature was covered in term 2 and in the instance of the Art School, observations ended before literature was taught. Also, at both schools, summative assessments were given at the end of the term when observations were complete, so the researcher did not get to observe the administration of summative tasks.

The initial plan was to observe each Grade 10 EFAL class over a period of three weeks at the two selected schools, which would ideally mean that 15 classes would be observed in each school. However, there were public holidays, school events and strikes which interfered with some of the observations. A further complicating factor during the time that the researcher visited the schools was that substitute teachers were doing their practical work. Occasionally, a substitute teacher had to be observed in addition to the class teacher. Permission from both substitute teachers was requested and granted prior to observations.

Owing to the mentioned complications, the anticipated number of observations did not materialize. At the Farm School, a total number of 10 classes was observed. The term started on a Tuesday, leaving the first week of observations with three days of EFAL according to the timetable. On Tuesday, 19 July 2022, which was the first day of the term, not all learners had arrived at school. Since the Farm School is a boarding school, the school often faces logistical issues such as having all learners arriving at school on time. In such a situation, classes are disrupted because lessons cannot take place until the learners have arrived. During the same week, on 22 July 2022, classes were cancelled to accommodate a fun walk to commemorate the legacy of former president Nelson Mandela. On 4 August 2022, an official from the department visited the school and the schedule was adapted with some classes including EFAL left out of the timetable. The purpose of the official's visit was to attend to teachers' concerns and ensure that programmes were running smoothly. Classes were disrupted because there was a meeting that all teachers were expected to attend. On 5 August 2022, boarding learners had to leave school earlier than usual to catch a bus that was dropping them off at different villages. For learners to be dropped off at their homes early and safely, the school released them earlier than usual.

At the Art School a similar situation occurred, leaving a total of 7 classes observed. Data collection started on Wednesday, 10 August 2022. On 19 August there was a function at the school and classes were dismissed to accommodate such. As an Art School, functions and events that involve the learners are taken seriously because this is their opportunity to reveal their art skills and take part in competitions that help them expose their talents. On 24 August 2022, there was a COSATU national shutdown. Although the conditions of the shutdown encouraged teachers to go to work or forfeit their pay, the situation was volatile, and the researcher could not afford to take a risk and visit the school on that day. This was followed on 26 August by a SADTU meeting which led to classes being dismissed. The strike and meeting organized by COSATU and SADTU underscore their influence, as they can disrupt schools at any time without regard for the school's timetable. Such events can rather take place in the afternoon or on Saturdays. The mentioned instances at both schools compromised teaching time and highlight the absence of a dedicated annual calendar that accommodates special events, departmental visits, and logistical considerations for boarding learners. Nonetheless, the time spent at the schools was informative, yielded insightful data, and provided a clear picture of actual events at schools and how this affects the amount of time available for pedagogic activities. The schools' timetables do not cater for such events therefore teaching time is compromised to accommodate non-academic functions and activities.

4.6 Research validity and reliability

Ensuring the credibility of a study and maximizing transparency are paramount considerations in research. Central to these objectives is the utilization of valid instruments and the attainment of reliable data. It is important to distinguish between the terms validity and reliability to understand how they contribute towards the trustworthiness of a study. Validity, according to Robertson (2013:54), is intricately linked to the extent to which a researcher's interpretation of data can be perceived as logically derived and credible. On the other hand, reliability, as explicated by the same source, is roughly equated to the degree to which different researchers might arrive at similar findings given the same research framework.

Further clarification is provided by Mohajan (2017:1), who emphasizes that validity pertains to the suitability and effectiveness of the instruments employed, while reliability is concerned with the credibility of the findings. These nuances are considered invaluable criteria for assessing the overall credibility of research (Pandey & Pandey 2015:21). As aptly pointed out by Pandey and Pandey, a measuring device is deemed valid when it successfully measures what it is expected to measure, underscoring the importance of consistency in data measurement for achieving reliability. Consequently, the underpinning principle that emerges is that high-quality research necessitates the use of valid instruments, with a concomitant emphasis on the verification of data to optimize reliability.

The embodiment of these principles in the current study is exemplified through the adoption of methodological triangulation. This strategic approach, described as a "method used to increase the credibility and validity of research findings" (Noble & Heale 2019:67), aligns with the imperative to ensure the integrity of the study. Cohen *et al.* (2007:142) further elaborate on the role of triangulation, defining it as the incorporation of multiple methods of data collection within a study. In a corroborative vein, Honorene (2017:91) acknowledges the potency of triangulation in facilitating data validation through cross-verification from two or more sources.

Guided by Lynch's comprehensive step-by-step Context Adaptive Model (CAM), the researcher embraced a systematic framework to structure and extract data. The utility and effectiveness of Lynch's CAM were evident, providing not only a structured guide but also facilitating a comprehensive and logical evaluation of the research topic from diverse perspectives. The model, by offering insights into the efficacy of various tools, guiding the selection of a suitable research design, and providing approaches for robust data analysis, emerged as an invaluable ally in navigating the complexities inherent in the exploration of township EFAL classrooms.

4.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, the responsible design and execution of the data collection process in this study underscore the paramount importance of aligning research instruments with the adopted research design. The deliberate choice of semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis as research tools not only reflects the nuanced nature of the research questions but also ensures that the data obtained resonates with the study's overarching objectives. The strategic incorporation of an audio recording device emerged as a pivotal element in this research. Serving as both a practical tool and a facilitator of methodological rigour, the recording device contributed to the preservation of data and the ease of the recording process during interviews and observations. The decision to utilize audio recordings transcended expediency; it became a methodological choice that enhanced the accuracy of transcriptions, enabling the researcher to capture salient points and details with precision. The following chapter critiques the viability of the CAPS curriculum to guarantee inclusive and high-quality education for all under the prevailing circumstances.

Chapter 5: Appraisal of the prescribed language curriculum

5.1 Introduction

This chapter mainly analyses the prescribed curriculum (CAPS) aimed at ensuring that learners acquire knowledge and skills that they can apply in real-life contexts (DBE 2011a:4). The chapter also includes critiques of the curriculum based on other studies and publications. The purpose of this chapter is twofold. Firstly, the researcher wishes to examine the relevance of the EFAL curriculum to meet the stated curriculum aims and needs of learners. Secondly, the researcher wishes to consider the support from government to ensure the delivery of the curriculum and whether schools seem to benefit from this kind of support.

5.2 Curricular philosophies

Mulenga acknowledges that the concept of curriculum is a very complex one to define as literature reveals continued differentiation and dispute in terms of its definition (2018:2). This is evident in the scholarly definitions Mulenga (2018: 6) analysed including those of Cairns (1992) and Kennedy (2005). Their definitions reveal unclear assumptions and vague claims about what curriculum means, making it difficult to reach a consensus. Nonetheless, Mulenga (2018:20) concludes based on his study of the various definitions that a curriculum encompasses intentionally designed educational experiences that aim to achieve specific learning outcomes, whether delivered consciously or unconsciously under school authority, and that are meant to prepare learners for life in a dynamic society. This definition captures the essence of other conceptualisations of curriculum, including those of Themane (2011:1639-1640), who also distinguishes between a narrow and broad curriculum. Whereas a narrow curriculum refers to the list of courses taught in a school programme, a broad curriculum includes factors outside the classroom that influence teaching and learning such as the learners' socio- economic status. Wen Su (2012:154) sees curriculum as a checklist of outcomes. In a clearer articulation, the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) has adopted a definition of curriculum as "a statement of intended outcomes to be achieved, what knowledge content is to be acquired, which competencies and skills are to be developed, and the levels of performance that are expected from learners" (DHET 2017:10). This definition reflects the emphasis on outcomes in the new prescribed school curriculum aimed at preparing learners to be highly educated and intellectual individuals who can compete in various spheres of society. For the aims of the curriculum to be developed in a way that meets the needs of learners and teachers, collaborative work with curriculum experts in the education sector is crucial (DHET 2017:11).

Education is closely connected to philosophies and beliefs that guide teaching and learning. Several philosophies guide the curriculum development, ensuring that it is well organized and implemented effectively. Mulenga (2018:7-17) outlines the following philosophical underpinnings and believes that they should be considered in formulating the aims to develop a strong curriculum that caters for the needs of diverse learners, promotes critical thinking skills, preserves cultural heritage and cultivates intellect.

- ***The social reconstructionist philosophy***

  This philosophy emerged from 19th-century socialistic and utopian ideas driven by economic pressures. Initially, it developed alongside the popular progressive educational movement, but some progressive educators became dissatisfied with its focus on learner-centred education that primarily benefited middle-class and private school learners. They argued for a society-centred approach addressing the needs of all social classes. Social reconstructionism emphasizes the relationship between curriculum and societal development, aiming to equip learners with the skills, values, knowledge, and attitudes needed to tackle social, political, and economic challenges. This philosophy advocates for educational institutions to actively contribute to societal improvement rather than merely transmitting cultural heritage or studying social issues (Mulenga 2018: 9).

- ***Progressivism***

  Progressivism in education emerged in the late 19th and early 20th centuries as part of a broader social and political reform movement in America. It emphasizes how to think rather than what to think, prioritizing learner-centred and activity-centred curricula. This approach focuses on meeting learners' needs and interests, advocating for active experimentation and learning by doing (Mulenga 2018: 10).

- ***Essentialism***

  Rooted in idealism and realism, essentialism emphasizes an academic subject-matter curriculum with a focus on order, discipline, and effort. While progressivism initially and briefly gained popularity, essentialism regained dominance in 1957. Essentialists aim to preserve cultural heritage through education, promoting intellectual growth via essential subjects like English, mathematics, science, history and foreign languages. Unlike social reconstructionists who seek societal change, essentialists focus on transmitting culture and promoting mental discipline. Essentialism involves rigorous academic training, significant homework, and teachers as masters of their subjects, advocating for a strong core curriculum and high academic standards (Mulenga 2018: 10).

- ***Perennialism***

  The oldest and most conservative educational philosophy, perennialism emphasizes disciplining the mind, developing reasoning, pursuing truth, and cultivating intellect. Unlike progressivism, which sees truth as relative, perennialism views truth as eternal and unchanging. It relies on past, universal knowledge and values, emphasizing a subject-centred curriculum focused on liberal education through defined disciplines like language, literature and mathematics. The teacher is seen as an authority, and learners' interests are considered irrelevant due to their immaturity. Perennialism looks to historical ideas to address social problems and defines curriculum based on enduring ideas (Mulenga 2018: 12).

In a similar vein, Maley (2012:300-301) defines curricular philosophies as being of an academic, humanist, technological or reconstructionist/social reformist nature, the latter resonating with Mulenga's *Reconstructionist/Social Reformist* philosophy.

- ***Academic***

  The primary aim is to convey knowledge specific to a particular field of study. Learners are instructed on the subject and are expected to absorb and retain the information to uphold and transmit what the academic community values (Maley 2012:300-301).

- ***Humanist***

  Education is seen as a means to help learners fully develop as individuals. This approach emphasizes personal growth and often employs methods that make learners responsible for their own learning, focusing on interpersonal relationships, processes, and activities (Maley 2012:301).

- ***Technological***

  In terms hereof, education is viewed as a tool to serve practical purposes by providing Learners with the skills and knowledge needed for their social and professional roles. This approach typically involves specifying objectives in detail beforehand and emphasizes testing to determine if these objectives have been met (Maley 2012:301).

- ***Reconstructionist/social reformist***

  Education is perceived as a means to achieve desirable social change. This involves instilling predetermined beliefs and values, along with the necessary skills and knowledge for a given society. It often features detailed objectives and assessment (Maley 2012:301).

Maley (2012:301) acknowledges that most curricula include at least two or more of these philosophies. Though the CAPS document does not explicitly reveal which educational philosophies inspired its general aims, it seems to have leaned more towards the *social reconstructionist* philosophy to formulate its aims (DBE 2011a:4-5). This view is supported by Ajai (2023:16) who refers to the following aim of CAPS:

> Equip learners, irrespective of their socio-economic status, race, gender, physical ability, or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills, and values needed for self-fulfillment and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country (DBE 2011a:4).

However, this philosophy does not translate into practice in quintile 1 farm and township schools as the context of the schools differ. Ajai (2023:16) mentions that one of the underlying philosophies in the NCS is *equipping learners with values*, which is closely related to the *reconstructionist* philosophy discussed above. Ajai (2023) conceptualised the integration of this philosophy into life sciences teaching in South African schools. On the basis hereof, teaching learners values involves imparting the fundamental principles enshrined in the

Constitution of South Africa (RSA:1996b). To ensure that the philosophy is integrated with the curriculum, key concepts can be taught in a way that allows the teacher to instil constitutional values such as equality, responsibility/accountability, respect, and democracy in learners (Ajai 2023:28).

Without educational philosophies, curriculum developers would lack direction in developing the aims and implementing the curriculum. Each philosophy offers different perspectives on curriculum design. On the matter of operationalising the philosophies mentioned above, Rapetsoa (2017:218) notes that "curriculum designers should then come up with the way knowledge should be organized into curriculum". To do this, any curriculum development model should be based on a feasibility study and take into account the environmental context of the country.

5.3 Post-apartheid curricula developments

Against the background of the discussion on curricular philosophies, it is obvious that a new curriculum was needed to serve the interests of a new political dispensation in South Africa in which all learners regardless of their race, social class or linguistic background receive equal and quality education. Ever since the dawn of democracy in 1994, South Africa has revised policies and systems to ensure that all citizens receive equal treatment. In terms of the education sector, new ways of delivering education have been developed, and the curriculum has been revised to overcome curricular divisions that existed in the past, as stated by the Minister of Basic Education in the foreword to the new curriculum (DBE 2011a). The post-apartheid government introduced an outcomes-based education system (OBE) in 1997 to overcome curriculum and education disparities that were apartheid based, whereby there were separate school language syllabuses and provincial examinations (Du Plessis 2017:31). Numerous shortcomings and challenges needed to be addressed, including the following:

> … unequal educational opportunities, irrelevant curricula, inadequate finances and facilities, shortage of educational materials, the enrolment explosion, inadequately qualified teaching staff, high drop-out and failure rates, examination orientedness with a major emphasis on learning by rote as well as unimaginative teaching methods (Botha 2022b:3).

Despite curriculum revisions, many challenges persist, particularly in township schools. Webb, Lafon and Pare (2010:274) state that "…the impact of the apartheid legacy is still being felt, particularly in the case of Black and Coloured learners from under-privileged backgrounds." Rapetsoa argues that these challenges not only affect consumers of the curriculum, but they also affect the quality of education (2017:218). These ongoing issues raise questions about what the government has done to eradicate the remnants of Bantu Education which has been described as "education for barbarism" as its curriculum aimed to disrupt the advancement of Africans toward human civilization (Tabata 1959:16). According to Khumalo (2022:261) this education system was designed to exclude black learners from receiving quality education. In agreement with the above, Weideman and Van Dyk (2014:2) state that "Bantu Education policies have resulted in a legacy of educational deprivation for Black learners". However, academics such as Mamphela Ramphele, former vice-chancellor of the University of Cape Town, have commented that Bantu education was better than OBE (Moreosele 2008:1). Their comments appear to refer to the learners' low literacy rates and challenges to implement OBE successfully in all public schools. In both the previous and current education systems, the preferred medium of instruction and examination did not, and still does not, seem to favour Black learners as Afrikaans and English are languages that are not widely spoken in townships and rural areas.

According to Botha (2002b:361), the introduction of OBE aimed to improve the quality of education and attend to demands for an increasingly skilled workforce. In trying to define what OBE is, Armstrong (1999:3) concludes that there is no single definition, but the essence of OBE is that it is "… learner-centred, results-orientated and founded on the belief that all students can learn." This definition does not cast OBE in a negative light as these are all positive aspects. However, its implementation has been criticized since South Africa is a third-world country (Armstrong 1999:1). According to Moreosele (2008:1), OBE was a success in China and Japan because they had a rigid school system, disciplined pupils and enough resources. In the case of South Africa, it seems to have failed due to conditions that are not suitable for its implementation. In agreement with this criticism is Dr Wayne Hugo, the head of the University of KwaZulu Natal's School of Education in 2008 (cited in Mngoma 2008: para. 3), who stated at the time of the introduction of the new curriculum that there was no future for 'failed' OBE in South Africa and that the curriculum was not suitable for the country as it originated from countries that were well developed: "OBE specifies an outcome without prescribing a clear way to get there as if it is going to happen miraculously. That is not how education works" (Mngoma 2008: para. 10-11). Hugo also criticized replacing textbook content with activities and group discussions that took up teaching time and required learners to "talk from their own context without specialized subject content" (Mngoma 2008: para. 11).

Calls for the revision of OBE were made in 2000, and the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* and the *National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12* were introduced in 2002 (DBE 2011a: foreword). Further revisions were made in 2009 after the former Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga, appointed a task team to address diverse feedback from various stakeholders regarding the challenges faced in implementing the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and to develop recommendations for enhancing the implementation of curriculum policy (see DPME &DBE 2017:1). Part of the recommendations was a re-packaged curriculum policy, the result of which was the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12, which was approved by the DBE and published in 2011. Its application in schools started in 2012 (DBE 2011a:3).

In a subsequent step, in 2016 the Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME) ordered a comprehensive evaluation of the implementation of the NCS with the assistance of Jet Education Services (DPME & DBE 2017: 1). The implementation evaluation aimed to assess whether the curriculum was being enacted as outlined in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) and how its implementation could be improved. The evaluation used six criteria—effectiveness, appropriateness, equity, efficiency, impact, and sustainability—to determine CAPS' achievements and areas for enhancement (DPME & DBE 2017:2). The following recommendations were made in line with the evaluation findings:

- The DBE, DHET, SACE, and universities should collaboratively establish curriculum and practice standards that can guide teachers' education and professional activities. A sub-recommendation in this regard states that the standard of EFAL should be raised in all phases;
- The DBE must reassess and enforce merit-based appointment and promotion policies for educators;
- Collaborative research efforts on effective in-service education and training for teachers should be conducted by the DBE in partnership with universities, NGOs, and corporate entities;
- The DBE, alongside Provincial Departments of Education, must develop a robust programme to ensure school functionality;
- The DBE, in conjunction with Provincial Departments of Education, should create a comprehensive support programme for school leaders and teachers to facilitate effective curriculum implementation (DPME & DBE 2017:102).

While CAPS provides better guidance than its predecessor and has contributed to some performance gains, significant systemic issues persist, such as underperformance and inefficiency. These issues necessitate improving initial teacher education, promoting competency-based staff promotions, focusing on continuous professional development, ensuring consistent classroom attendance, and refining the subject advisory model.

Despite some positive trends, the current state indicates that CAPS' ambitious goals are yet to be fully realized, and ongoing efforts are needed to optimize implementation, particularly in resource-constrained schools. As it is, the National Evaluation Plan Report has made a number of important findings and recommendations that should have influenced CAPS, yet the curriculum has remained the same since the publication of the report in 2017. So far there have not been any further revisions to the CAPS document that fully incorporate the above recommendations.

5.4 CAPS and the Grade 10 EFAL component

The CAPS English First Additional Language document is structured into four distinct sections, each serving a specific purpose: Introduction to the CAPS, Introducing the Languages, Content and Teaching Plans for Language Skills, and Assessment. These sections collectively provide a comprehensive framework for educators to follow in teaching EFAL. The implementation of CAPS in schools is obligatory, with educators expected to align their teaching practices with the guidelines presented in each section. Below is an appraisal of the main objectives and components of the curriculum, grouped to facilitate discussion and the identification of dominant themes. Each section highlights crucial aspects and their significance in shaping English language education.

5.4.1 Aims of the language component of CAPS

Section 1 of the CAPS EFAL document provides an introduction to the curriculum through discussing the background, overview, general aims of the curriculum as well as the time allocated for the different phases from the Foundation to the Further Education and Training Phase (DBE 2011a:3-7). The background and overview capture the development of the CAPS document as a replacement of the Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and

Subject Assessment Guidelines (DBE 2011a:3-4). The most salient component of this section is the list of the general aims for the South African Curriculum (DBE 2011a:4-5). The essence of these aims is that by the end of a thirteen-year educational journey, learners should possess the skills to communicate effectively, engage in critical thinking, and demonstrate competence in both higher education settings and the workplace. These aims reflect social reconstructionist philosophy.

It is important to note that the EFAL and English Home Language CAPS documents have the same verbatim aims which implies that they are treated as the same. However, the distinction between a home language and an additional language varies from one learner to another. In higher quintile schools, English is taught as a home language, while in lower quintile schools, it is taught as a first additional language. Consequently, the similarity of these objectives suggests that learners from diverse quintiles and linguistic backgrounds are expected to achieve comparable levels of English proficiency by the end of their schooling journey. It is noticeable that these objectives are intended to be accomplished, regardless of the different quintile levels and diverse linguistic needs of learners (DBE 2011a:7).

5.4.2 Language levels and skills

CAPS provides a definition of language levels and gives an overview of language skills and teaching processes, and approaches (DBE 2011a:10). In addition, guidelines are provided for time allocations per division of work and suggestions for facilitating additional language learning.

The learning of languages in schools includes both the home language and the additional language. The Home Language is defined as the first language acquired by learners and the First Additional Language as the language learnt in addition to their Home Language (DBE 2011a:8). Many South African schools only offer one or two languages at the Home Language level, even though they may not be the home languages of some or all of the enrolled learners. Therefore, the terms ‘Home Language’ and ‘First Additional Language’ indicate the proficiency level at which the language is taught, rather than whether it is a native or an additional language. The *Home Language level* is intended to ensure competency in both social communication and the academic skills needed for learning across subjects. In contrast, the *First Additional Language* level is designed for learners with limited or no prior knowledge of the language, with an initial focus on developing basic speaking and understanding skills (DBE 2011a:8). The EFAL curriculum assumes that learners are not too familiar with the English language until they arrive at school. Nonetheless, the EFAL curriculum is still supposed to achieve the same aims as the English HL curriculum, enabling learners to transition smoothly to tertiary study and the workplace.

In the context of lower quintile schools, English is an additional language since it is not the learners' Home Language (DBE 2011a:8). This does not mean that the additional language is a replacement for the home language, but it is learned alongside it to strengthen and affirm the mother tongue, adding value to the language-learning process. Since most South Africans are multilingual, the CAPS definition of a Home Language may be challenged by the fact that some learners are fortunate enough to simultaneously acquire both the home language, which can be an African language for example, and a first additional language, which may be English, which then means that when they arrive at school, they are already familiar with the English language. In other cases, some learners may be stronger in English than their home language. The reality is that in this era there are children who are exposed to their home language and English through media. Some Black children are privileged in that they attend English medium kindergarten where they are exposed to English and by the time they enter school, they do not battle with the demands of the English language. This puts them at an advantage as compared to less privileged learners who do not attend pre-primary schools or receive exposure to the standard form of English from an early age.

In terms of First Additional Language learning, CAPS (DBE 2011a:9) lists specific aims for learning additional languages to assist learners to express themselves fluently in English so that they can use the language competently across the curriculum to gain high levels of both receptive and productive skills. The achievement of these specified aims should be visible when learners arrive at university, or the workplace and they are able to interact in English with relative ease and confidence. However, this is not the case and their inability to communicate fluently raises questions about the achievement of these aims during their schooling. It has been more than a decade since CAPS was implemented and yet there still seems to be a challenge as far as the English language is concerned, particularly in public schools in the townships and rural areas. The DBE (2011a:9) acknowledges that the reality is that many Grade 10 learners cannot communicate well in English. This study aims to shed light on why after several years of English instruction learners still grapple with the language when they enter the Further

Education and Training (FET) Phase. The issue of the low standard of EFAL is recognized in the Implementation Evaluation of the National Curriculum Statement Report referred to earlier. The report shows that its standard needs to be raised to improve learners' performance across the curriculum (DPME & DBE 2017:26).

The CAPS document provides an overview of the language curriculum which includes the conventional language knowledge and abilities, namely Listening and Speaking, Reading and Viewing, Writing and Presenting Skills, and Language Structures and Conventions (DBE 2011a:10-11). If facilitated well under conducive learning environments—with quality teachers and the necessary resources—these language skills can be achieved by all learners of different English backgrounds. The overview includes teaching processes for each skill in a step-by-step manner. The Language Structures and Conventions component is not accompanied by specific steps as this part of the curriculum is supposed to be taught in the context of the other skills. The CAPS document makes a distinction between the teaching processes of various language skills (DBE 2011a:10-11) and different language teaching approaches (DBE 2011a:10-17). In theory, by the end of Grade 12, learners should be able to use the English language effectively for different purposes, including reading, writing, speaking, listening and producing compelling pieces of discourse. Though briefly defined in the glossary (DBE 2011a: 89-94), there is a lack of emphasis on how learners can be supported to develop strong basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in preparation for strong English proficiency levels they need beyond high school.

To ensure that teachers effectively facilitate the development of these skills, the next part of the curriculum document, Section 2.4, covers important principles in language teaching (DBE 2011a:11-12). In essence, these principles emphasize that there should be a strong focus on all skills and that learners need abundant exposure to the additional language, teachers should provide more opportunities for learners to learn the conventions and structures of the additional language, and they should provide unlimited opportunities for learners to use the language for a range of purposes. At the two township schools included in the language programme evaluation, it was clear that learners do not receive adequate exposure to English to achieve the curriculum aims. Not only were there disruptions to the teaching programme, but it seems that there is little opportunity to engage with English beyond the classroom.

The second part of Section 2.4 (DBE 2011a:11-15) provides detailed explanations of the teaching processes, in other words, what teachers need to do before, during and after teaching the different skills. In brief, teachers are encouraged to activate schemata through stimulating activities that make learners receptive to new content before proceeding to teach. During the teaching of the skills, learners are expected to thoroughly engage with the material. This is followed by post-teaching activities in which learners are expected to apply knowledge and show evidence of learning in the form of an outcome such as written work or oral presentations, amongst others. By adhering to these established instructional processes, learners should receive the opportunity to understand the learning material on different levels. They should also understand language features and develop critical analysing skills.

In addition to language teaching considerations and processes, teachers are guided to plan their lessons according to suitable teaching approaches suggested by CAPS (DBE 2011a:16-17). The CAPS document provides the rationale for teaching language skills and proposes several language teaching approaches to cover the necessary skills. An additional approach to teaching literature is provided. This shows that a distinction is made between teaching language and literature teaching. The next sections look at the suggested approaches for each.

5.4.3 Language teaching approaches

The prescribed approaches (DBE 2011a:16-17) are text-based, communicative, integrated and process-oriented. CAPS notes that the text-based and communicative approaches depend on continuous use and production of texts. The following section briefly explains and critiques the characteristics of each approach.

The text-based approach seeks to empower learners not only as proficient language users but also as discerning critical thinkers capable of effectively navigating and producing diverse texts for varied audiences. As per the Department of Basic Education's (DBE) articulation, this approach encapsulates activities such as listening to English being used for different purposes, reading, viewing, and analyzing authentic texts to gain insights into their production techniques and to assess their impact.

While the benefits of a text-based approach are evident in its emphasis on critical thinking and language tool utilization, it is essential to acknowledge the practical challenges that educators may encounter, especially in resource-constrained environments. Notably, not all schools are equipped with essential tools like projectors and speakers, which are often integral for the effective administration of the text-based approach.

In instances where schools lack access to sound equipment, teachers might need to resort to reading aloud for listening activities. While this improvisation allows for the continuation of language learning, it inadvertently limits learners' exposure to a diverse range of English accents and varying speaking speeds. This limitation could potentially hinder the development of their auditory comprehension skills, critical for real-world language use.

Moreover, the need for improvisation underscores the need for educators to show adaptability and resilience. In the absence of advanced technological tools, teachers can resort to using printouts for other language skills, demonstrating resourcefulness in overcoming constraints. This adaptability is a testament to the commitment of educators to ensure that the objectives of the text-based approach are met, even when faced with challenges in resource availability. This was the case in the two township schools as teachers resorted to printouts to improvise for a lack of technological resources.

To strengthen the text-based approach further, it becomes imperative for educational institutions and policymakers to consider and address the technological disparities among schools. Providing access to essential tools, such as projectors and audiovisual sound systems, can contribute significantly to a comprehensive and well-rounded language education. Learners can be exposed to more standard English pronunciation and language conventions through audiovisual technology. The lack of technology and access to the Internet also means learners cannot use valuable language learning electronic applications that provide increased exposure to English and opportunities for self-directed learning with automated correction of errors.

While the text-based approach holds great promise for fostering critical thinking and language proficiency, acknowledging and addressing the practical challenges faced by educators is vital. By recognizing the limitations and working towards resource equality, education stakeholders can enhance the implementation of the text-based approach, thereby maximizing its benefits for learners across diverse educational settings. The social reconstructionist philosophy cannot be operationalized without all schools being fully equipped to implement the curriculum.

The communicative approach, recognized for its emphasis on real-life language use and communication skills, brings to light a crucial aspect that demands attention— the significance of substantial exposure to the target language for effective reading and writing proficiency. This approach presupposes that learners must immerse themselves extensively in the target language to develop the necessary linguistic competence for reading and writing.

In the context of township and rural learners in quintile 1 schools, there seems to be minimal exposure to English beyond the classroom. The communicative approach thrives in an environment where learners engage with the language not only in structured lessons but also in everyday, spontaneous conversations and interactions. In such a situation, learners naturally absorb the language, fostering a more intuitive and comprehensive understanding. The practical challenge surfaces when this approach is implemented in settings where learners do not have significant exposure to the target language outside formal lessons, as was the case in the two schools that formed part of the mini case studies. In such circumstances, learners may encounter difficulties in transitioning from the formal learning environment to real-life language use, impacting their ability to read and write effectively. The lack of exposure beyond the classroom impedes the development of practical language skills that are crucial.

To fortify the communicative approach in environments with limited exposure, concerted efforts are required. Interventions can include creating opportunities for English use beyond the classroom, promoting language-rich activities, and integrating English into daily routines. Providing learners with a more immersive language experience, such as through language clubs, language exchange programmes, or interactive digital platforms, can bridge the gap between formal learning and practical language application. For cases such as the two schools visited, providing opportunities where learners are exposed to the English language beyond the suggested 4.5 hours through reading programmes, debating competitions, storytelling, and poetry recitation opportunities would benefit in helping teachers to fortify the communicative approach.

Furthermore, collaboration between educators, parents, and the community is essential. Enhancing exposure to English in various settings will not only bolster the communicative approach but also contribute to a more holistic language learning experience for learners. Advocating for language-rich environments and fostering a positive attitude towards English outside the classroom are crucial steps in creating an ecosystem where learners can thrive in their language development.

The communicative approach highlights the need for extensive language exposure for effective reading and writing. Its successful implementation requires a multifaceted approach. By addressing the limitations in exposure and challenges such as time constraints, large classes and broad syllabi as pointed out in Chapter 2, Section 2.3, educators can empower learners to navigate the complexities of language use and application with confidence and proficiency.

The process approach in language education is rooted in the belief that learners must comprehend and navigate through various stages to create well-crafted written or spoken texts tailored to their target audience. This pedagogical method involves instructing learners on distinct steps and stages integral to composing different types of texts. Fundamental elements such as form, structure, and purpose are emphasized to instil a holistic understanding of the speaking, listening, reading and writing processes. According to Sun and Feng (2009) this method includes several stages: prewriting activities such as brainstorming and group discussions, drafting the initial text, getting feedback from peers or the instructor, revising the text on both a macro (whole-text) and micro (paragraph/sentence) level, proofreading for errors, and finally, presenting the polished version.

While the process approach does not necessarily require tangible resources, it does demand a considerable investment of time. This is particularly noticeable when applied to learners with lower proficiency levels. Comprehending and implementing multiple stages of the writing process may present challenges for learners who are already grappling with the intricacies of the English language.

The comprehensive nature of the process approach, including the teaching of form, structure, and purpose, is indeed valuable for fostering a deeper understanding of language skills. However, for learners who are struggling with the basics of English, the process approach might seem demanding and potentially overwhelming.

Implementing scaffolded learning, where the complexity of the process is broken down into manageable steps, can provide the necessary support for struggling learners. Additionally, integrating practical and interactive elements into the process, such as peer collaboration and real-world applications, can enhance engagement and comprehension.

While the process approach is rich in its potential for enhancing language skills, acknowledging and addressing the time constraints and potential difficulties for struggling learners is imperative. Through thoughtful adaptation, strategic support, and ongoing professional development, the process approach can become a more inclusive and effective tool for empowering learners in their language development journey.

The three recommended approaches in the CAPS document (2011a:16-17) are briefly outlined to guide teachers on how they can effectively enhance learners' language proficiency across various linguistic skills. These approaches serve as a framework for teachers, providing strategies to improve learners' listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities. By thoroughly understanding and thoughtfully integrating these approaches into their teaching practices, teachers can design lessons that are not only well-structured but also aligned with clear and measurable objectives. This intentional planning ensures that language instruction is targeted, coherent, and effective in helping learners develop a comprehensive set of linguistic skills.

5.4.4 Teaching literature

The approaches advocated in CAPS reflect an intention to empower learners to connect literature with their immediate surroundings. By exposing learners to literature that resonates with their own worlds, it can become relevant and relatable. This not only enhances learners' comprehension but also exposes them to the outside world, teaches them new vocabulary, familiarises them with different literary devices and encourages a more profound interaction with reading material. However, for learners to enjoy literature, they need to have a high level of mastery of English and adequate exposure to reading aesthetic texts. Their teachers also need to be passionate about reading and have a positive attitude towards reading. Boshoff (2023:168) found in her study on reading habits and attitudes of pre-service teachers at the University of the Free State that while the majority of pre-service teachers demonstrated favourable attitudes towards reading, their actual reading behaviours did not correspond to these attitudes. There was a notable absence of extensive or leisurely reading among the cohort. Their reading habits leaned towards utilitarian rather than appreciative purposes. Many viewed reading as a compulsory task to fulfil academic requirements, rather than embracing it for the pleasure of reading itself or maintaining a regular reading routine. This finding indicates a possible decline in the reading culture amongst future teachers, which raises questions about the successful facilitation of the literature component in schools.

CAPS incorporates various approaches to teaching literature with the goal of developing imaginative thinking, nurturing creative writing skills, cultivating a reading culture, encouraging learners to engage critically with discourse, and instilling an understanding of literary devices (DBE 2011a:16-17). According to Maley (2012:302) literature is a collection of texts considered the most significant within a language or cultural group. It requires an aesthetic reading that places the text at the centre of attention, encouraging personal responses. It is characterized by special uses of language and a high concentration of literary devices as it spans a variety of genres, including poetry, fiction, drama, essays, travel literature, biographies, histories, philosophical and religious texts, journalism, and speeches, amongst other examples. Maley (2012:300) explains that literature is important as it provides a rich and diverse linguistic resource, offering essential input for phonological, lexical, syntactic, and discourse acquisition, which is crucial for effective language learning. This is in contrast to the limited exposure provided by many pedagogically driven text types. Literature is also an excellent tool for developing language awareness, including understanding language variation, social appropriateness, different cultures, ideological bias, and illocutionary meaning. In an increasingly multicultural world, the cultural insights offered by literature study are invaluable.

Learners in the two schools selected in this study have minimal exposure to the English language and culture. To ensure that they enjoy reading English literature despite their limited understanding of the English culture, the focus should be less on teaching ‘culture’ and more on fostering intercultural competence that is deeply rooted in the learners’ own historical and subjective experiences as language learners (Kramsch 2013:58).

Maley (2012:303) discusses two main approaches that have been used for incorporating literature into language teaching programmes. The first, **Literature as Study**, focuses on analyzing canonical texts in detail, with an emphasis on teaching about literature itself, including authors’ lives, influences, and critical perspectives. This method often prioritizes memorization and the transmission of established views over critical reflection and discovery. The second approach, **Literature as Resource**, uses a broader selection of texts to serve as examples of language use or as catalysts for various language learning activities. Here, literature is secondary to the primary goal of language learning, acting as a tool to facilitate engagement with the language. Based on his experience with the two approaches, Maley (2012:304) proposes a third alternative, the **Literature as Appropriation** approach which can be used when working in a multicultural context. The goal of this approach is to allow learners to adapt literature to their own learning needs and contexts, making it personally relevant and meaningful for their own educational purposes.

Incorporation of the above approaches does not necessarily mean that they will work in all school contexts, especially in South African townships where English seems to be a challenge for many learners. Challenges among English Second Language learners include insufficient background knowledge related to literary texts, limited general world exposure, lack of familiarity with literary language, and a lack of preference for the subject (Du 2022:258). These obstacles hinder ESL learners' ability to fully engage with and comprehend English literary works. Teachers have to develop their own approaches as they use their discretion to tailor their literature lessons to cater for the abovementioned challenges (Mpofu & De Jager 2018:8). To overcome such challenges and promote appreciation of literature, Maley (2012:308-310) suggests that learners should be given the opportunity to read and listen to texts extensively, perform texts, engage in creative writing activities and learn text analysis skills. These suggestions can encourage autonomy in learning and position learners as active contributors to their educational journey, resonating with social reconstructionist thinking.

With regards to the suggested approaches to teaching literature in the CAPS programme, it is worth noting that the approaches do not make a distinction between different language levels. The CAPS EFAL (DBE 2011a:12) and English Home Language (DBE 2011b:16-17) components are identical. While literature offers learners a window into worlds beyond their own, the uniformity in literature teaching approaches overlooks the reality that learners may not connect with and appreciate literary works in the same manner, given their diverse linguistic and social backgrounds.

The approaches to literature instruction in CAPS go beyond the traditional methods discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.1 in which the teacher is considered the knowledgeable authority who interprets and dictates the meaning of texts and provides notes for learners to memorize. Instead, the approaches proposed in the curriculum are aimed at developing learners who can think critically, express themselves creatively, and actively participate in the world of literature.

The literature component should serve as a catalyst for the cultivation of lifelong learners, equipping learners with skills that extend far beyond the classroom.

In the South African context, the following approaches to literature are recommended in CAPS (DBE 2011a:17):

- **Making every attempt to read as much of the text in class as possible without breaking for any other activity**

This approach, although advocating for an immersive engagement with literature, contradicts the content coverage strategy proposed by CAPS. According to CAPS, each language skill should ideally be covered over a two-week cycle. However, focusing exclusively on literature for a week without incorporating other language skills activities could potentially compromise the holistic development of learners' language abilities especially in the township context as they seem to need considerable support and equal opportunities to learn all the skills.

The constraint of having only 4.5 hours per week for English instruction presents a complex challenge for educators, as it necessitates strategic decisions on how to allocate time across different language skills. The tension arises when considering the apparent conflict between the practical implications of teaching and the recommendations outlined in the CAPS. This situation places undue pressure on teachers to manage the limited time effectively, as they are required to cover a broad spectrum of language skills within the constraints of the weekly schedule. The challenge is amplified when considering the statement from the DBE that certain aspects of the curriculum should not take more than two weeks. This directive may inadvertently neglect the diverse competency levels of learners, particularly those in lower-quintile schools who may face additional challenges.

- **Literary interpretation is essentially a university-level activity, and learners in this phase do not have to learn this advanced level of interpretation**

The assertion that literary interpretation is essentially a university-level skill is ambiguous and carries implications for the educational curriculum and learners in Grades 10-12. According to CAPS, these higher-order cognitive skills are deemed suitable for university-level study. This viewpoint aligns with the recognition that literary analysis involves a deeper understanding of various elements within a text and an advanced level of English mastery.

In Grades 10-12, learners are expected to learn and apply a range of literary devices and techniques. These encompass, but are not limited to, imagery, word choice, themes, and symbolism. The inclusion of such elements in the curriculum serves a dual purpose: it not only exposes learners to the richness of literary expression but also serves as a means for developing basic analytical skills. What is contradictory about this guideline is that universities expect learners to possess literary analysis skills, yet according to the EFAL curriculum, they do not have to learn these skills in their high school classes.

Understanding literary and poetic devices such as imagery, metaphoric language or personification, amongst, others provides learners with the tools to decipher the author's intended meaning and style of writing. Poetry, with its unique structure and often symbolic language, challenges learners to engage with texts in a creative and critical manner. The exploration of themes and symbolism, on the other hand, requires learners to go beyond the surface narrative and unearth deeper layers of meaning. This process not only enriches learners' understanding of literature but also sharpens their analytical thinking, encouraging them to connect disparate elements and draw insightful conclusions. Moreover, the inclusion of these elements in the curriculum aims to equip learners with the skills necessary for literary interpretation. Literary analysis, as a skill set, goes beyond merely comprehending the plot of a story. It involves the ability to discern the author's intentions, understand the cultural and historical context, and appreciate the broader implications of a literary piece. Such skills are invaluable for developing critical thinking, enhancing communication, and promoting a deeper understanding of the human experience.

By introducing these elements into the curriculum, CAPS recognizes the transformative potential of literary education. When literature is taught in effective ways that strengthen reading abilities, it not only prepares learners for higher education but also nurtures skills that are transferable to various disciplines and essential for navigating the complexities of the contemporary world. Literature is not being dealt with effectively as grade 10 learners cannot read with understanding. South Africa has a literacy crisis and the revision of the curriculum and reading methodologies is necessary.

- **Creative writing should be closely linked to the study of any literary text**

This principle suggests that engaging with new literary texts broadens learners' linguistic abilities, which, in turn, enhances their writing skills. A learner's proficiency in writing is closely tied to the depth of language knowledge. The CAPS guidelines emphasize the importance of focusing on reading and writing in Grades 10-12 to nurture the development of learners' aesthetic and imaginative capacities (DBE 2011a:12). This approach could have a significant impact if implemented from the primary school level. By fostering a culture of reading and creative writing from an early age, learners can be better equipped to handle the literary demands they will encounter in high school.

- **Literature is not about right answers**

The last guideline notes that it is crucial to emphasize that the reading and study of literature revolves around giving individualized interpretation of and personal responses to literary texts, in addition to being able to provide factually correct information stated in the text. Therefore, the integration of the learner-centred approach should be encouraged whereby teachers serve as facilitators and learners develop autodidactic and critical thinking skills as they learn to interpret texts without depending on the facilitator (Olugbenga 2021:68). Such skills enable the learners to read literature and provide personal responses without relying on the teacher/facilitator.

There is a strong relationship between the suggestions made by Maley (2012:310) and the suggested approaches to teaching literature in the CAPS document (DBE 2011a:17). Both encourage extensive reading and creative writing in the teaching of literature. However, Maley (2012:310) encourages the integration of techniques for ensuring a personal response to literature (getting inside the "skin" of the text) and text analysis, whereas CAPS states that literary interpretation is not essential in high school additional language learning (DBE 2011a:17).

After having discussed the suggestions mentioned by Maley (2012:13) as well as the suggested approaches to teaching literature in the CAPS document, it should be noted that there seems to be a lack consensus on the most effective methods for working with multilingual language learners. Teachers, whether consciously or not, may incorporate various methods into their lessons without necessarily being familiar with their formal names. This ambivalence does not negate their effectiveness. Nevertheless, it is crucial to emphasize that a one-size-fits-all teaching approach is improbable, given the diverse learning abilities of learners. No singular method can cater to the unique needs of every learner since their capacities and learning styles inherently differ. The generic nature of the curriculum, as prescribed by the DBE, may not adequately consider the varied educational backgrounds, resources, and needs of learners across different quintiles. The implied expectation that all learners, irrespective of their schooling system and resources, can uniformly grasp and master the same curriculum content within identical timeframes may inadvertently disadvantage those in lower-quintile schools.

Moreover, the curriculum's uniformity may not cater to the diverse aspirations of learners post-high school. Individuals have varied career goals, and a rigid curriculum might not offer the flexibility needed to accommodate learners pursuing different paths, whether it be further academic studies, vocational training, or other specialized fields.

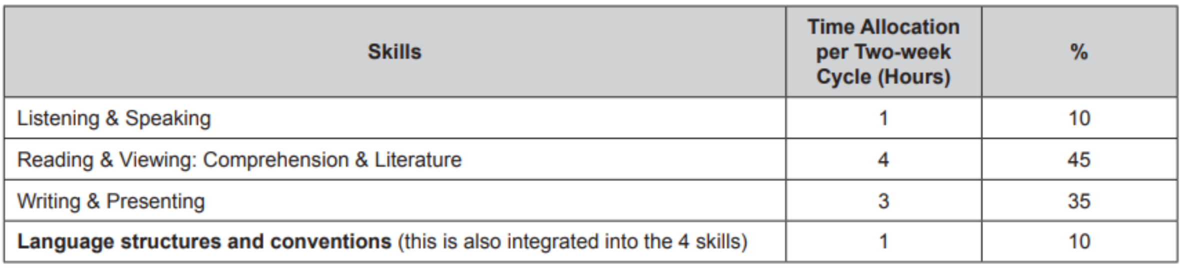
The fact that both the English HL and EFAL CAPS documents propose the same language teaching approaches appears to be an oversight, given the significant differences between learning a home language and an additional language. While the prescribed approaches provide a general framework for teachers, the CAPS document merely defines them without justifying their suitability or considering the diverse linguistic backgrounds of learners. These approaches seem more appropriate for teaching a home language than a second language, as they are broad and not specifically tailored to second language instruction. Furthermore, in the EFAL component, these approaches do not align with second language acquisition theories. A more effective approach would be to select methodologies grounded in second language acquisition theories to better support EFAL learners.

In light of these concerns, a more flexible approach to curriculum design and implementation is warranted. This includes considering the diverse needs of learners, acknowledging the resource disparities between schools, and providing educators with the autonomy to adapt teaching strategies based on the unique context of their classrooms. With increased differentiation of curriculum and content, the varied needs and aspirations of learners can be met, resulting in a more inclusive and equitable learning environment. This can be accomplished by introducing a Universal Design for Learning (UDL) model and applying technology to facilitate learning. UDL aims to reduce learning barriers and meet the needs of diverse learners, promoting inclusive learning (McKenzie & Dalton 2020:6). This approach suggests that lesson planning should be adapted to include varied instructional design, delivery, and support. Technology and digital media are seen as tools that motivate learners to engage in meaningful learning activities (Edyburn 2005:21). However, due to limited resources, incorporating technology to facilitate learning in township schools may be a challenge.

5.4.5 Other guidelines to complete the prescribed curriculum

As mentioned, to achieve the curriculum aims using the proposed guidelines and teaching methods, English teachers are offered 4.5 hours per week for the EFAL component (DBE 2011a:17). Each week, teachers are expected to make provision for a double period which will allow for more activities. The hours allocated do not take into consideration differences between HL and FAL learners and the fact that learners in township schools, such as the ones included in this study, have minimal exposure to English beyond the classroom. The table below shows the distribution of hours over a two-week cycle.

Table 10: Distribution of hours over a two-week cycle



Skills	Time Allocation per Two-week Cycle (Hours)	%
Listening & Speaking	1	10
Reading & Viewing: Comprehension & Literature	4	45
Writing & Presenting	3	35
Language structures and conventions (this is also integrated into the 4 skills)	1	10

(DBE 2011a:17)

The presented table reflects a fragmented approach to covering language skills, which appears to be the conventional/traditional method in South African schools. Weideman criticizes this approach as he believes that skills should not be taught in isolation and recommends a “skills-neutral” approach or a “disclosed view of language (2021:25).” This perspective, which aligns with the functional view of language, emphasizes the use of academic language in interactions with others for academic communication across various media and for different language purposes. According to Weideman (2021:25), prevailing language teaching approaches and assessment designs often adhere to traditional methodologies that rigidly compartmentalize skills into speaking, listening, reading, and writing. As alternative, Weideman (2021:25) proposes the adoption of a skills-neutral approach, which anticipates the use of language in various interactive contexts and mediums in which multiple skills are employed simultaneously, signalling a departure from the traditional demarcation of language skills. The emphasis falls on using language for specific functions and tasks rather than calling these listening, speaking, reading or writing, for example.

Weideman's approach is grounded in a functional perspective of language ability. In academic settings, this would mean using language to gather analytically qualified information, processing that information, and generating new insights (2021:34). This functional viewpoint extends beyond a mere skills-based categorization, redefining academic literacy as a set of characteristics that enable effective interaction in academic spaces. It encompasses the interaction of skills, for example, while listening, the brain is processing and interpreting information; at the same time the learner is making notes, which is a form of writing. This is accompanied by reading the notes and reflecting further on ideas, etc., illustrating how skills cannot be separated. The ability to listen attentively, take comprehensive notes, read critically, and formulate well-founded opinions are essential skills for academic success.

In agreement with Weideman's skills-neutral approach, Bachman and Palmer (1996) emphasize that language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing do not exist in isolation but interact and complement each other in real communicative contexts. They argue for the development of assessment tasks and materials that reflect this integrated perspective, allowing test takers to demonstrate their proficiency across multiple skills simultaneously. They suggest that integrated tasks more closely resemble authentic language use and provide a more comprehensive measure of language proficiency. The concept of the skills-neutral approach or the integrated approach challenges the traditional boundaries of language instruction, encouraging educators to view language as a dynamic tool used for multifaceted purposes in academic settings. This perspective is particularly relevant in a contemporary context where learners are expected to navigate diverse communication channels and engage with information through various media.

The traditional approach holds significant implications for language education, especially in high-enrolment schools with logistical and technological challenges to facilitate lessons. In such environments, direct teacher-learner engagement may be limited, negatively impacting learners' opportunities to practise and develop skills separately in compartmentalized units.

The skills-neutral approach offers a pragmatic solution and ensures that multiple skills are developed in each language lesson, including the literature class.

However, it is crucial to note that the topic remains relatively unexplored and under-researched in South African classrooms, leaving room for ongoing scholarly inquiry. The feasibility and effectiveness of applying an integrated and functional approach to develop language skills and abilities warrants further investigation to determine its practical application in diverse educational settings. As language is not compartmentalized post-high school, graduates are expected to integrate their language skills. The skills-neutral approach, if applied in classroom contexts could potentially revolutionize school language education, providing a more adaptive framework for equipping learners with the language skills and abilities they need.

Section 2 of the English First Additional Language CAPS document concludes by emphasizing the necessity for each learner to possess an approved textbook, extensive reading books and a dictionary, as well as access to a library and relevant media materials. Teachers are expected to have a copy of the CAPS document, the Language in Education Policy (LiEP), the prescribed textbook, a dictionary, grammar book, and necessary media materials for their classrooms (DBE 2011a:18). Apart from these basics, access to media technology can help teachers to obtain enriching online materials and resources as supplementary learning materials. Chapter 7, which covers classroom observations, discusses the extent to which these resources are available at the two schools.

5.4.6 Content and teaching plans for language skills

Section 3 of CAPS provides additional assistance for teachers in the form of detailed content and processes to be covered and teaching plans that can be followed to facilitate curriculum coverage effectively (DBE 2011a:19-69). The first segment of this section (DBE 2011a:19-22) repeats the teaching processes mentioned earlier (DBE 2011a:10-11) but provides more details on how to do this for each language skill respectively. With the exception of language conventions and structures, each skill set is accompanied by three steps that teachers can use to support learning: pre-, during-, and post-task activities. The repetition of the processes in the CAPS document does not seem necessary as the information can be abridged to make the document more manageable and user-friendly.

Despite the separation of the language skills in the CAPS document, to some extent an integrated approach is advocated (DBE 2011a:19-46). For instance, the listening and speaking skills encompass comprehension activities that necessitate learners to articulate their understanding of the content they have heard, thus integrating the writing skill. Similarly, within the reading and viewing component, there are writing tasks aimed at ensuring comprehension of the texts encountered. As for writing and presenting, the presentation aspect requires learners to engage in oral communication. Furthermore, language structures and conventions are supposed to be interwoven throughout the skills. In spite of their individual presentation, these skills are interconnected, demonstrating some theoretical adherence to Weideman's skills-neutral approach (2021:25). However, some teachers may try to focus on one specific skill at a time because of the way the skills are separated in the Grade 12 examination papers. For example, Paper 3 counts the most marks (100) and covers writing, yet learners at the two schools observed seem to do very little writing during the year. The segregation of skills appears to place considerable pressure on teachers to cover a substantial amount of content within limited timeframes, whereas the skills-neutral approach may alleviate some of this pressure as all skills will be taught simultaneously.

The content and teaching plans include some useful notes and present noble intentions, but they may appear overwhelming to teachers as they are lengthy and somewhat repetitive (see DBE 2011a:19-46). However, it is important to remember that these are merely suggestions meant to provide guidance and support to teachers. They can choose to implement what is relevant for their classes and manageable within their time constraints. By starting with the integration of some of the suggestions in the teaching plans, teachers can gradually become familiar with a wider range of options.

Though not mentioned in the CAPS document, a selection of approved textbooks for Grade 10 learners and their accompanying teachers' guides is available on the DBE website[3]. The name of the prescribed textbook for Grade 10 at the two schools selected for this study is the Platinum English First Additional Language Learners Book[4]. Though it is the prescribed textbook, learners at the Art School did not have copies of the textbook as it was reported that there were not enough funds to purchase them. The textbook aligns with the curriculum's expectations and structure. Apart from reflecting the suggested teaching plans (found in CAPS on pages 53-58) for Grade 10 learners, the textbook integrates thematic reading, listening, speaking, and writing materials and activities. The alignment of Platinum with the CAPS document is evident in the table and figure below.

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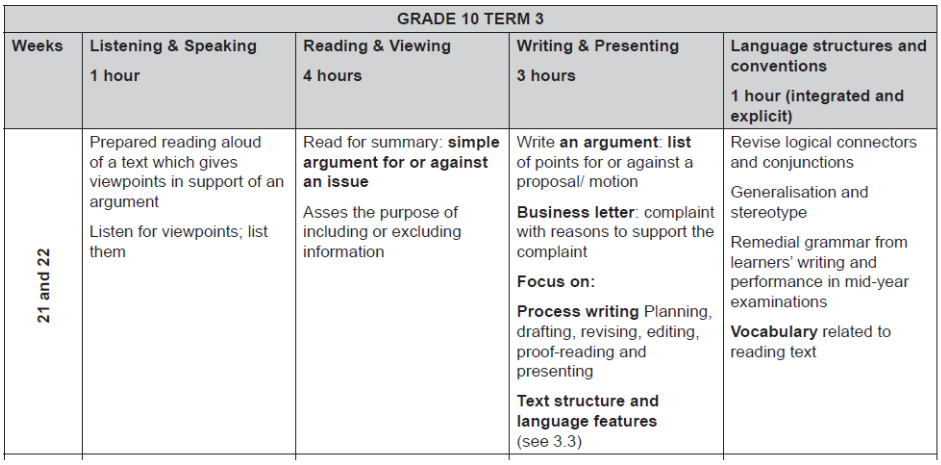
[3] LTSM National Catalogue (education.gov.za)
https://www.education.gov.za/Curriculum/LearningandTeachingSupportMaterials(LTSM)/LTSMNationalCatalogue.aspx

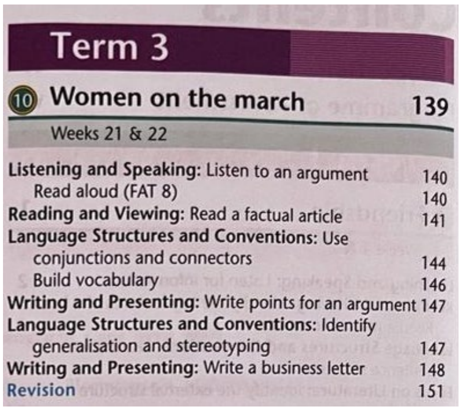
[4] Awerbuck, D., Dyer, D., Nonkwelo, N., Norton, J., Pillay, N., & Ralenala, M. 2011. *Platinum English First Additional Language*: Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

Table 11: Schedule from the CAPS document



GRADE 10 TERM 3				
Weeks	**Listening & Speaking** **1 hour**	**Reading & Viewing** **4 hours**	**Writing & Presenting** **3 hours**	**Language structures and conventions** **1 hour (integrated and explicit)**
21 and 22	Prepared reading aloud of a text which gives viewpoints in support of an argument Listen for viewpoints; list them	Read for summary: **simple argument for or against an issue** Asses the purpose of including or excluding information	Write **an argument**: **list** of points for or against a proposal/ motion **Business letter**: complaint with reasons to support the complaint **Focus on:** **Process writing** Planning, drafting, revising, editing, proof-reading and presenting **Text structure and language features** (see 3.3)	Revise logical connectors and conjunctions Generalisation and stereotype Remedial grammar from learners' writing and performance in mid-year examinations **Vocabulary** related to reading text

(DBE 2011a:57)



Term 3

⑩ Women on the march 139

Weeks 21 & 22

Listening and Speaking: Listen to an argument 140
Read aloud (FAT 8) 140
Reading and Viewing: Read a factual article 141
Language Structures and Conventions: Use conjunctions and connectors 144
Build vocabulary 146
Writing and Presenting: Write points for an argument 147
Language Structures and Conventions: Identify generalisation and stereotyping 147
Writing and Presenting: Write a business letter 148
Revision 151

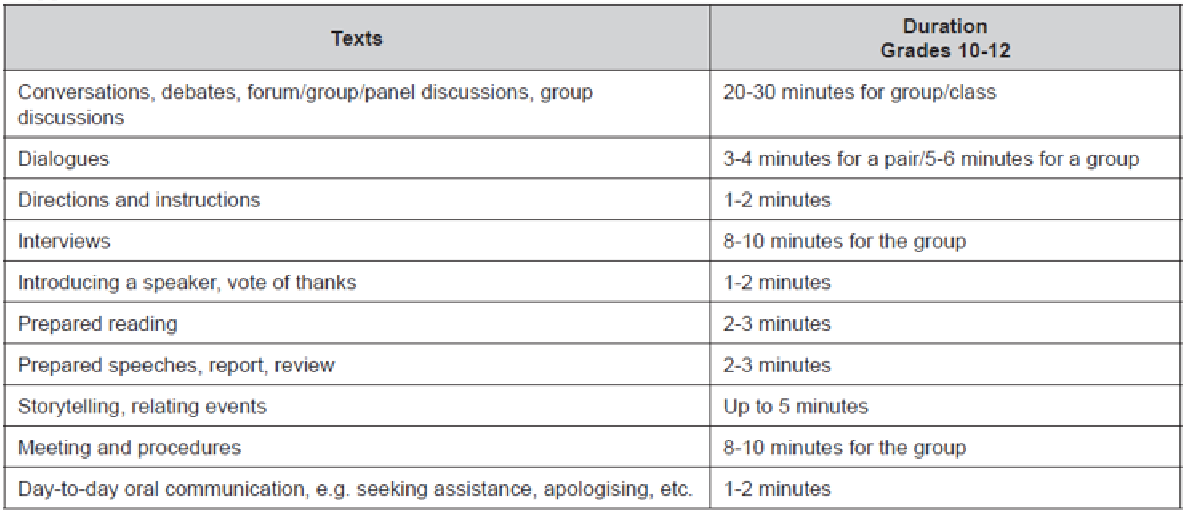
Figure 8: Schedule from the EFAL Platinum Workbook (Awerbuck *et al*. 2011:n.p.)

The table extracted from the CAPS document and the image from the contents page of the Platinum EFAL textbook clearly demonstrate alignment between the two for weeks 21-22. In principle, schools can effectively cover essential aspects of the curriculum without a textbook.

For instance, the Farm School utilized copies of worksheets believed to align with the suggested content and topics to ensure coverage of fundamental principles. It is noteworthy that the themes in the Platinum textbook, deemed interesting and relevant to South African teenagers, address pertinent issues (Awerbuck *et al*. 2011: iv). However, while the themes may be engaging, comprehending the content necessitates a proficient level of English language skills and also pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). A key distinction between the prescribed textbook and the CAPS teaching plans is that the Platinum book offers a comprehensive curriculum, while CAPS serves as a condensed outline. In schools without the required textbooks, such as the Art School, CAPS provides limited support and cannot be considered a substitute for instructional materials.

Another problematic aspect to note is the suggested duration for oral tasks (DBE 2011a:27), as outlined in the table below.

Table 12: Suggested duration for oral tasks



Texts	Duration Grades 10-12
Conversations, debates, forum/group/panel discussions, group discussions	20-30 minutes for group/class
Dialogues	3-4 minutes for a pair/5-6 minutes for a group
Directions and instructions	1-2 minutes
Interviews	8-10 minutes for the group
Introducing a speaker, vote of thanks	1-2 minutes
Prepared reading	2-3 minutes
Prepared speeches, report, review	2-3 minutes
Storytelling, relating events	Up to 5 minutes
Meeting and procedures	8-10 minutes for the group
Day-to-day oral communication, e.g. seeking assistance, apologising, etc.	1-2 minutes

(DBE 2011a:27)

The teaching plan for oral work overlooks factors such as class sizes and the language difficulties learners face. For instance, learners from high-enrolment quintile 1 schools who encounter difficulties with English may require more time than the suggested duration to complete the proposed activities. Consequently, the practical implementation of these activities may present challenges for teachers, necessitating adaptation and customization of the tasks to better suit the needs of their learners.

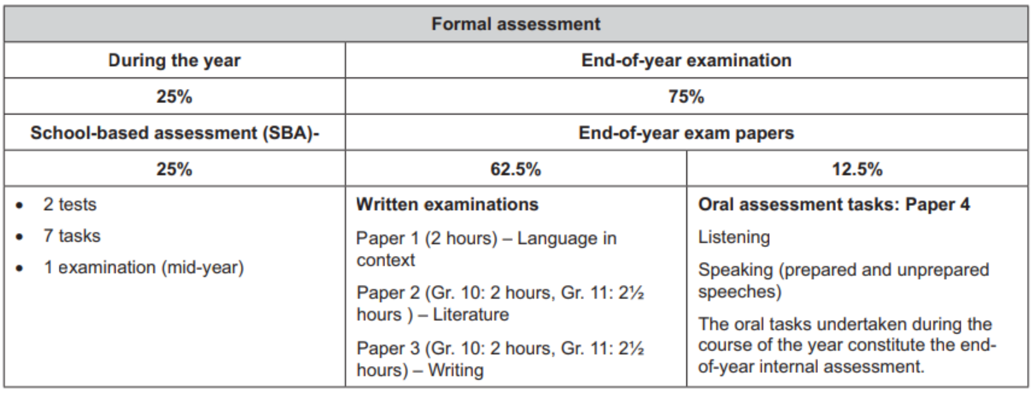
In summary, while CAPS provides a comprehensive framework for EFAL instruction, the document needs to be supplemented by detailed teaching manuals and learner textbooks. Ongoing professional development opportunities that help teachers to have a clear understanding of the curriculum requirements and what needs to be given priority in their unique teaching contexts could provide further valuable assistance.

The last part of the CAPS document, section four, serves a critical purpose: it delineates the comprehensive assessments required for learners as they advance through Grades 10 to 12. In addition to outlining these assessments, this section makes provision for recording and reporting learner performance. Assessment stands as a cornerstone in the educational framework. It functions as the primary mechanism for gauging progress and determining whether learners are ready to transition to the next grade level. As articulated by Tosuncuoglu (2018:165), assessment is a multifaceted endeavour, encompassing the evaluation of learners' knowledge, comprehension, perspectives, and learning approaches. Moreover, assessment is not solely about evaluating learners; it also plays a pivotal role in shaping effective teaching practices. Teachers utilize assessment data to tailor instruction to the diverse needs of their learners, ensuring that learning experiences are meaningful and impactful. In this way, assessments serve as a compass, guiding both educators and learners toward the overarching goals of the curriculum. By providing insights into learners' progress and learning outcomes, assessments empower educators to adapt their approaches, foster growth, and ultimately, push learners toward success.

Assessments encompass both informal and formal tasks, each serving distinct purposes in monitoring learner progress. Informal assessments consist of daily activities employed to gauge learners' ongoing development, whereas formal assessments provide a structured means of evaluating learners' progress at specific grade levels (DBE 2011a:77). Informal assessments are often integrated into classroom activities, offering insights into learners' understanding and mastery of content. These assessments may not always entail formal grading, sometimes affording learners the opportunity to engage in self-assessment. On the other hand, formal assessments, such as tests and examinations, are graded by teachers and hold tangible records of learner performance. These assessment types are commonly categorized as "assessment of learning" and "assessment for learning", as elucidated by Rahman and Majumder (2014:72). "Assessment of learning" aligns with traditional exams, serving as summative evaluations of students' knowledge and skills. In contrast, "assessment for learning" adopts a more dynamic approach, providing continuous feedback on learners' performance and facilitating the development of action plans aimed at enhancing their learning journey. Raoof (2013:49) elucidates that assessment of learning involves evaluating learners based solely on the outcomes they produce, whereas in assessment for learning, the primary focus is on the progression of learning, emphasizing the central role of learner growth and development while actively engaged in the learning process. This holistic approach to assessment empowers educators to offer ongoing support and cultivate environments conducive to learners' success and growth.

The DBE provides a structured framework in CAPS for formal assessments in Grades 10-12 (2011a:78). These assessments are to be designed with consideration for the age and developmental level of learners, ensuring relevance and engagement. Moreover, the DBE recommends that assessments target five cognitive levels—literal comprehension, reorganization of information, inference, evaluation, and appreciation—aimed at promoting English proficiency among learners (2011a:79). This approach to assessment aims not only to measure knowledge but also to promote critical thinking and effective communication. However, a lack of emphasis and awareness about the role these cognitive levels play in teaching and learning may defeat their purpose. Therefore, including ways in which these cognitive levels can be integrated during teacher training can help promote quality teaching. The following table offers a summary of the formal assessments per language skill required by the end of Grade 10.

Table 13: Summary of formal assessments (DBE 2011a: 78)



Formal assessment		
During the year	**End-of-year examination**	
25%	**75%**	
School-based assessment (SBA)-	**End-of-year exam papers**	
25%	**62.5%**	**12.5%**
• 2 tests • 7 tasks • 1 examination (mid-year)	**Written examinations** Paper 1 (2 hours) – Language in context Paper 2 (Gr. 10: 2 hours, Gr. 11: 2½ hours) – Literature Paper 3 (Gr. 10: 2 hours, Gr. 11: 2½ hours) – Writing	**Oral assessment tasks: Paper 4** Listening Speaking (prepared and unprepared speeches) The oral tasks undertaken during the course of the year constitute the end-of-year internal assessment.

The above scheme of work is the same for Grades 10-12 which implies that learners are exposed to the format of matric examination and assessment two years in advance (DBE 2011a:78). The use of the same examination format seems to encourage teachers to narrow the curriculum and engage in what is referred to as "teaching for testing" as they may not see the need to do anything beyond the examination scope (Du Plessis 2017:7). Table 13 is also confusing as it indicates that 25% of the work is considered school-based assessment which is done during the year and the end-of-year examinations contribute 75%. However, in Grade 10 all work is completed and assessed at school unlike in the instance of Grade 12 where the NSC school-leaving examination is set and marked externally. Feedback for assessments is recorded and shared through report cards, parents' meetings, school visits, parent-teacher conferences, phone calls, letters and newsletters (DBE 2011a:86). Grade 10 and 11 tests and examinations are said to be internally moderated by the subject advisor by taking samples of tests, oral tasks and examinations to verify standards and guide teachers in setting and assessing these tasks (DBE 2011a:87).

Learners' formal oral assessments take place once a year. This may create the impression that learners have enough time to prepare for the formal oral assessment. However, in cases where there is minimal exposure to English in the course of the year (in and outside the classroom), this implies that oral presentations are delivered in a more rehearsed manner that may not reflect learners' true oral ability.

Although the CAPS document is comprehensive and detailed, it seems overwhelming. The amount of information, unreasonable number of assessments and high expectations it sets may be difficult to meet, especially under tight time constraints. Without sufficient guidance and support from subject heads and advisors, teachers might find it challenging to fully implement the curriculum as intended. Such lack of support could lead to gaps in content coverage, as teachers may struggle to balance the demands of the curriculum with the limited time available for instruction. As a result, the effectiveness of the curriculum might be compromized, potentially impacting the quality of education that learners receive. Therefore, ongoing support and professional development must be given to teachers to manage these challenges and successfully deliver the curriculum.

5.5 Curriculum support for teachers

The Department of Higher Education and Training and the Department of Basic Education recognize challenges facing Teacher Education and Development (TED) in South Africa. They are aware that there is a lack of access to quality TED opportunities (DHET & DBE 2011:1). To develop teachers and promote quality education, the DBE website has included manuals, programmes and initiatives for teachers to consider as part of their professional development. What seems to be a concern is that the material does not provide guidance for teachers on how to strengthen the teaching of English as an additional language in a multilingual classroom. It does not include ways in which they can effectively teach English through translanguaging or code switching. Though the material also extends to learners and parents, it may not be easily accessible in cases where there is a lack of resources such as the internet, computers and phones. It may also be a challenge for parents who are computer illiterate which seems to be the case in remote areas.

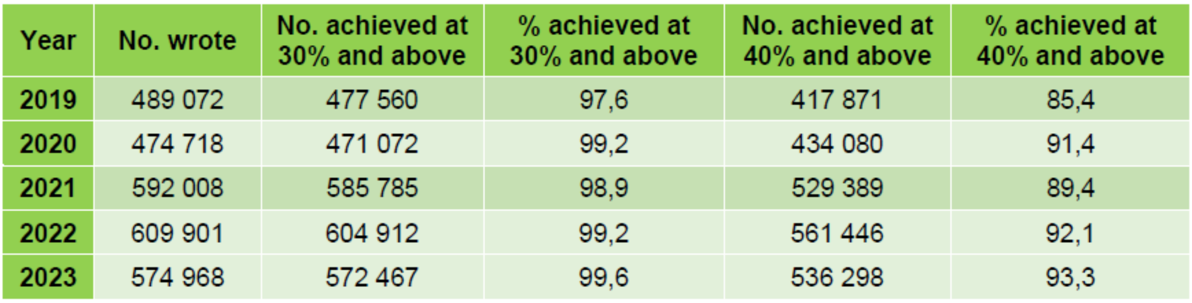
Among the resources provided are exemplar lessons, national reading strategies, self-study guides for learners, strategies for integrating English across various subjects, guidelines for teaching early-grade reading, and initiatives such as the Read to Learn programme. These resources, freely available on the DBE website, serve as invaluable tools for teachers aiming to elevate the quality of education they deliver. However, their impact may be limited if only a few teachers are aware of them. To address this challenge and ensure widespread utilization, robust workshops focusing on these resources and strategies to promote equitable education are imperative. Historically, conducting such workshops may have been constrained by financial limitations. Nonetheless, in today's digital era, online workshops offer a cost-effective and accessible solution. By hosting webinars, the DBE can reach a broader audience of teachers without the logistical challenges associated with in-person workshops, thereby maximizing impact while minimizing costs and time constraints.

Upon release of matric examination results, the DBE releases diagnostic reports which provide pass rates, areas of concern and action plans which can be used as a tool to help teachers prepare for upcoming examinations and improve their teaching. Apart from publicising the annual diagnostic reports on the DBE's website, the national department encourages subject advisors to run interactional workshops analysing the reports as this may help teachers engage and provide an opportunity for them to ask questions.

5.6 Performance in EFAL

At the time that this programme evaluation was initiated, the overall Grade 12 pass rate of the Farm School was 98.2% and that of the Art School was 57.6 % (DBE 2020:50). In the year 2023, both schools achieved a pass rate of 100% (DBE 2023a:33). It is worth noting that there was a large increase from 57.6% to 100% at the Art school within a period of three years. In terms of the EFAL component, the 2023 school subject report shows a pass rate of 100% for both schools (DBE 2023b:137). What remains questionable is whether learners' grades are a true reflection of their English competency levels. It is also important to mention that 2020 and 2021 were years affected by COVID-19 which makes it difficult to attach value to the pass rates and examination reports of those years as there were curriculum amendments. Initially, schools were closed for contact teaching and when they reopened, timetables were revised, and teaching hours were reduced with some of the teaching still taking place online. These amendments may not have been suitable in township contexts where learners did not have enough parental support or technological devices and access to online learning. The table below from the Diagnostic Report shows the overall achievement rates in the Grade 12 EFAL component over a period of five years.

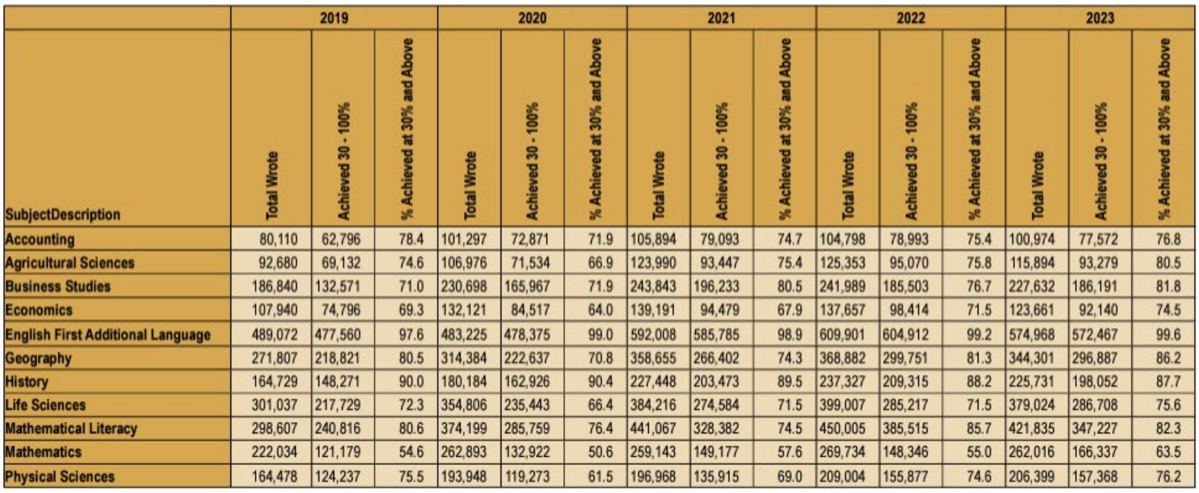
Table 14: Grade 12 EFAL pass rates between 2019-2023 (DBE 2023c:15)



Year	No. wrote	No. achieved at 30% and above	% achieved at 30% and above	No. achieved at 40% and above	% achieved at 40% and above
2019	489 072	477 560	97,6	417 871	85,4
2020	474 718	471 072	99,2	434 080	91,4
2021	592 008	585 785	98,9	529 389	89,4
2022	609 901	604 912	99,2	561 446	92,1
2023	574 968	572 467	99,6	536 298	93,3

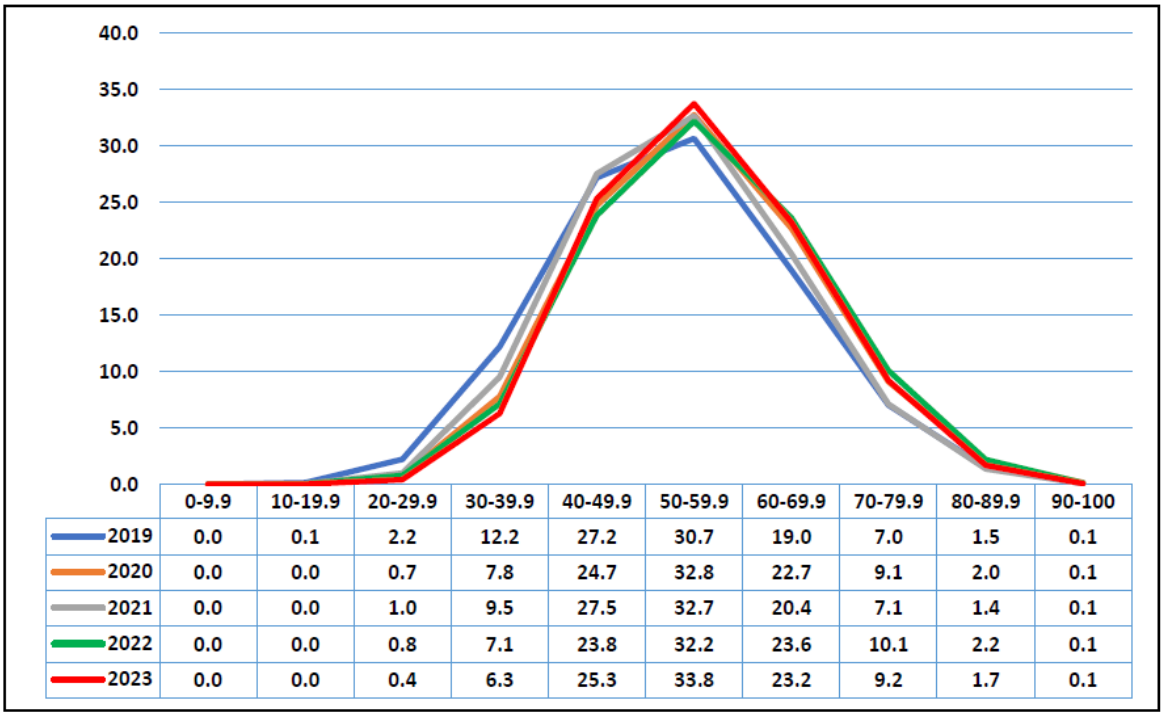
The table reveals a notable trend: almost 100% of the learners achieve a pass mark of 30% or higher, whereas between 85% to 93% achieve a mark of 40% or higher. This suggests that a significant portion of learners matriculate with English proficiency levels below 40%. Noteworthy in both scenarios is the considerable improvement observed when comparing 2019 and 2023. The pass rate for learners scoring between 30% and 40% increased from 97.6% to 99.6%, and for those achieving 40% and above, it rose from 85.4% to 93.3%. In essence, the table reflects a positive trend in the achievement rates over the years. However, these statistics do not necessarily reflect the actual quality of English proficiency that learners possess, which was the case in the two township schools. Low proficiency is also evident amongst first-year university learners coming from lower quintile schools. The discrepancy between the actual English proficiency levels of township students and the results reported by the DBE compromizes the credibility of these reports and questions the quality and standard of the EFAL component.

Table 15: Grade 12 results per subject between 2019-2023 (DBE 2023b:5)



	2019			2020			2021			2022			2023		
SubjectDescription	Total Wrote	Achieved 30 - 100%	% Achieved at 30% and Above	Total Wrote	Achieved 30 - 100%	% Achieved at 30% and Above	Total Wrote	Achieved 30 - 100%	% Achieved at 30% and Above	Total Wrote	Achieved 30 - 100%	% Achieved at 30% and Above	Total Wrote	Achieved 30 - 100%	% Achieved at 30% and Above
Accounting	80,110	62,796	78.4	101,297	72,871	71.9	105,894	79,093	74.7	104,798	78,993	75.4	100,974	77,572	76.8
Agricultural Sciences	92,680	69,132	74.6	106,976	71,534	66.9	123,990	93,447	75.4	125,353	95,070	75.8	115,894	93,279	80.5
Business Studies	186,840	132,571	71.0	230,698	165,967	71.9	243,843	196,233	80.5	241,989	185,503	76.7	227,632	186,191	81.8
Economics	107,940	74,796	69.3	132,121	84,517	64.0	139,191	94,479	67.9	137,657	98,414	71.5	123,661	92,140	74.5
English First Additional Language	489,072	477,560	97.6	483,225	478,375	99.0	592,008	585,785	98.9	609,901	604,912	99.2	574,968	572,467	99.6
Geography	271,807	218,821	80.5	314,384	222,637	70.8	358,655	266,402	74.3	368,882	299,751	81.3	344,301	296,887	86.2
History	164,729	148,271	90.0	180,184	162,926	90.4	227,448	203,473	89.5	237,327	209,315	88.2	225,731	198,052	87.7
Life Sciences	301,037	217,729	72.3	354,806	235,443	66.4	384,216	274,584	71.5	399,007	285,217	71.5	379,024	286,708	75.6
Mathematical Literacy	298,607	240,816	80.6	374,199	285,759	76.4	441,067	328,382	74.5	450,005	385,515	85.7	421,835	347,227	82.3
Mathematics	222,034	121,179	54.6	262,893	132,922	50.6	259,143	149,177	57.6	269,734	148,346	55.0	262,016	166,337	63.5
Physical Sciences	164,478	124,237	75.5	193,948	119,273	61.5	196,968	135,915	69.0	209,004	155,877	74.6	206,399	157,368	76.2

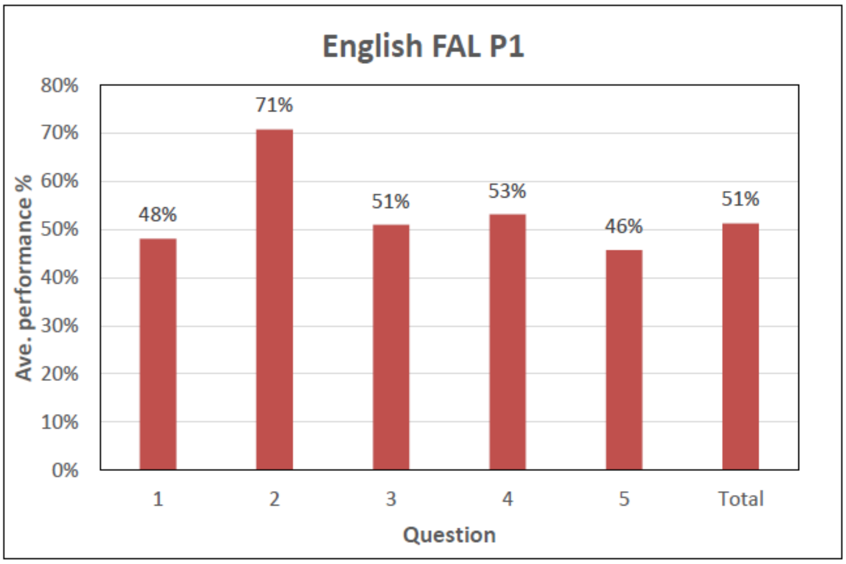
There is a notable discrepancy between the EFAL pass percentage and performance in other school subjects, suggesting that the standard for EFAL may be too low. This misalignment indicates that while learners are passing EFAL at a high rate, their performance in other subjects does not reflect the same level of proficiency, raising concerns about the rigour and validity of the EFAL assessments. It suggests that the current standard may not be adequately challenging learners or accurately measuring their true language abilities. Another instance is presented in Figure 9 below that shows 65.8% of learners achieved less than 59.9% in their 2023 EFAL examination. This indicates a significant number of learners who are performing below average; yet the overall pass rate in 2023 for the EFAL component was 93.3%.



	0-9.9	10-19.9	20-29.9	30-39.9	40-49.9	50-59.9	60-69.9	70-79.9	80-89.9	90-100
2019	0.0	0.1	2.2	12.2	27.2	30.7	19.0	7.0	1.5	0.1
2020	0.0	0.0	0.7	7.8	24.7	32.8	22.7	9.1	2.0	0.1
2021	0.0	0.0	1.0	9.5	27.5	32.7	20.4	7.1	1.4	0.1
2022	0.0	0.0	0.8	7.1	23.8	32.2	23.6	10.1	2.2	0.1
2023	0.0	0.0	0.4	6.3	25.3	33.8	23.2	9.2	1.7	0.1

Figure 9: Grade 12 EFAL examination results between 2019-2023 (DBE: 2023c:16)

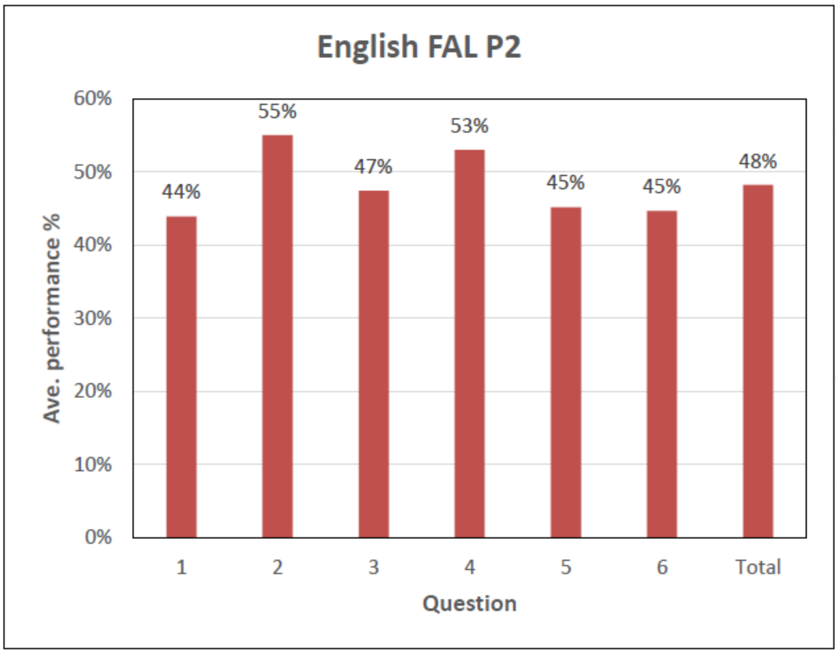
The following graphs from the 2023 NSC diagnostic report are based on data from a random sample of candidates' scripts. They do not represent national averages based on the full cohort of matriculants, but they provide valuable information for identifying the relative difficulties of Grade 12 learners per question paper and section. This information can be used in the Grade 10 classroom to prepare learners for their EFAL school-leaving examination at the end of their Grade 12 year.



Q	Topic
1	Comprehension
2	Summary
3	Analysing an Advertisement
4	Analysing a Cartoon
5	Language and Editing Skills

Figure 10: 2023 Paper 1 EFAL results (DBE 2023c:17)

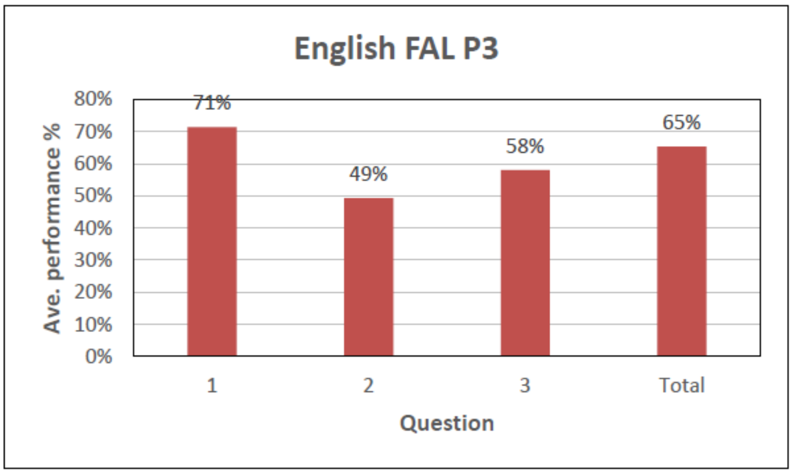
Figure 10 above illustrates that learners face challenges with text comprehension, and language and editing skills when completing Paper 1, Language in Context. As indicated in the graph above, they have scored under 50% for these components. These skills are essential for becoming effective speakers and writers of the English language. Without a strong grasp of these areas, learners may struggle to communicate clearly and accurately, which can hinder their overall language development and academic success



Q	Topic
1	Cry, the Beloved Country
2	Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde
3	Macbeth
4	My Children! My Africa!
5	Short Stories
6	Poetry

Figure 11: 2023 EFAL Paper 2 results DBE (2023c:25)

Figure 11 above indicates that on average learners attain below 50% for the NSC examination that covers the literature component. This suggests that learners are struggling to understand and analyse literary texts. As discussed in Section 5.4.4 in this chapter, engaging with literature is essential for developing critical thinking skills, enhancing vocabulary, and gaining a deeper understanding of language and culture. The low performance in this area highlights a need for more targeted support and effective teaching strategies to help learners improve their literary understanding and text analysis skills.



Q	Topic
1	Essay
2	Longer Transactional Text
3	Shorter Transactional Text

Figure 12: 2023 EFAL Paper 3 results (DBE 2023c:29)

The NSC Paper 3 focuses on writing skills. Surprisingly, the graph above reveals that on average learners are generally comfortable with essay writing, as they do not seem to struggle in this area. However, they face challenges when it comes to transactional texts, indicating that they may find it more difficult to write letters and other kinds of transactional texts. The fact that learners are able to execute the essay tasks indicates strength in expressing ideas and arguments. However, it should be noted that their ability to produce good essays is questionable based on their low performance in Paper 1 (Language in Context) and Paper 2(Literature).

In the 2023 Diagnostic Report (DBE 2023c: 15-33) of the Grade 12 EFAL examination a decrease in the average performance in Papers 1 and 2 between 2022 and 2023 is revealed. Performance in Paper 1 decreased from 55% (2022) to 51% (2023) and in Paper 2 from 53% to 48%. However, Paper 3 showed an improvement of 4%. Results for Paper 4, the oral component, were not reported as this assessment takes place throughout the year as part of the continuous assessment component at schools. The overall achievement for the EFAL component was 96.45% in 2023, which is a good pass rate. However, the 2023 Diagnostic Report indicates that the performance in Papers 1 and 2 was average and that of Paper 3, the writing component, just above average. Such outcomes raise questions about the credibility of the marking of these examination papers and the results obtained. In a study on the quality of NSC marking in the Northern Cape province, Van Wyk (2016: 127-129) found that the marking quality of examination papers in this region was compromised by several factors. These included inadequate language competency levels of markers and a lack of commitment from examination assistants tasked with verifying marks. Such findings reveal the challenges faced in maintaining the integrity and consistency of assessment processes, particularly in regions where resources and support may be lacking. Implementing a national examination system for progression and school accountability necessitates high levels of security and external quality assurance during both administration and marking (DPME & DBE 2017:25), a shortcoming pointed out in the CAPS implementation evaluation report referred to earlier in this chapter.

Building upon the above critiques and findings, Bedeker (2024:3-4) echoes concerns about the NSC language examination papers, highlighting their low cognitive demands and limited attention to authentic language use. This is also pointed out in the 2023 Diagnostic Report (DBE 2023c: 7-9). Other concerns identified during the marking process include learners' poor reading skills, critical analysing skills, time management and lack of writing ability. This again raises questions about the quality of the marking as learners' performance in Paper 3 (Writing) was very good in the essay section. Based on the above discussion, it is clear that there is a need to reform the examination papers and assessment measures to ensure that they adequately reflect the complexity and diversity of language skills, as well as their real-world applications. Such reforms can be made through training teachers and assessors to become assessment literate.

5.7 Teachers' language and assessment literacy

One of the key responsibilities of language teachers is to cultivate literate learners. Achieving this goal necessitates that teachers become adept in assessing literacy and that they comprehend the significance of proficient grading along with its implications. The term "assessment literacy" is defined as encompassing the knowledge, skills, and attributes essential for understanding the purpose and process of assessment (Rhind & Peterson 2015:28). This definition mirrors that of Pophmam (2009:267), who describes assessment literacy as an individual's understanding of the fundamental concepts and procedures in assessment likely to influence educational decisions.

In Green's (2021) exploration of language and assessment practices, he delves into the interconnected nature of language teaching and assessment, challenging the conventional notion that views them as separate entities. He advocates for the development of assessment literacy among teachers to bridge the gap between teaching and assessment, emphasizing that effective teaching requires a comprehensive understanding of assessment principles and processes (2021:6). The core argument put forth by Green (2021:6) revolves around the inseparability of language teaching, learning, and assessment. He underscores the importance of teachers cultivating assessment literacy, asserting that it enhances their comprehension of the grading process and associated principles (2021:6). According to Green, to conduct assessments validly, teachers must understand language acquisition processes: the methods through which languages are acquired, the types of evidence needed to gauge learners' linguistic proficiency, practical language usage, areas of difficulty, and strategies to enhance their linguistic skills (2021:10). Green delineates two main purposes of assessment: educational and proficiency language assessments. Educational language assessment focuses on the progress towards learning goals in a school setting, evaluating content comprehension and coverage. Proficiency language assessment, in contrast, assesses language skills required to meet predetermined needs or standards, such as those demanded by specific jobs or academic pursuits (2012:13). Acknowledging the financial constraints associated with developing language assessment literate teachers, Green proposes a set of basic principles for schools to facilitate assessment literacy among educators (2012:21). These principles include integrating assessment considerations into planning, emphasizing the importance of reflection and review in evaluating the effectiveness of materials and practices, fostering a culture of continuous improvement, promoting cooperation and teamwork for the development of assessment materials, and emphasizing the importance of evidence-based decision-making through effective record-keeping and systematic analysis (Green 2021:21). Green (2021:22) contends that adhering to these principles can support language learning and warns of the consequences if language assessment is not conducted effectively. He notes that ineffective assessment can cause teaching and learning to suffer, as a result of which individuals may be denied opportunities, and society may experience negative repercussions. Thus, Green emphasizes the critical need to conduct language assessment thoughtfully and to utilize the results in an informed manner (2021:11). Teacher training institutions as well as subject advisors should devote adequate time to language assessment as it differs from assessment in non-language subjects. Such a responsibility should not be placed on schools alone as suggested by Green (2021:10). This may help teachers understand the value and role assessments play and not see it as a bothersome administrative duty.

Weideman (2019:104) believes that language teachers will gain professionally if they start conforming to four core principles of language test design: reliability, validity, interpretability of test scores and "test efficiency", which refers to using test formats that are easy to administer and grade, "freeing up instructional energy" (Weideman 2019:113). He acknowledges that there are many more principles that should be covered as part of teacher training. Competent language teachers should effectively apply the four key principles to measure outcomes, employing reliable measures to identify learning gaps. They should use accurate measurements and interpret results for diagnostic information, facilitating the development of action plans. Additionally, they must ensure validity by using appropriate instruments to measure learners' abilities and outcomes (Weideman 2019:107).

Assessment literacy seems to be under-researched in South Africa. There seems to be a need for teacher training institutions and the DBE to assist teachers to become assessment literate to ensure fairness and accurate results that match the learners' actual levels of English competency. Kanjee and Mthembu (2015:163-164) explored Foundation Phase teachers' assessment literacy levels and found that teachers exhibited very low levels of assessment literacy, with approximately half of them performing at the 'Below basic' level and the other half at the 'Basic' level. Teachers' understanding of summative assessment practices was higher than in the case of formative assessment, with two-thirds demonstrating a 'Basic' understanding and 10% reaching a 'Proficient' level. One teacher demonstrated a 'Below basic' understanding of formative assessment, which is a significant concern. Observations of classroom practices at the two township schools aligned with these findings, emphasizing the need for improved assessment literacy among teachers.

5.8 Contextual constraints to implementing the curriculum at the two township schools

The educational landscape at the two schools differs considerably, each context presenting unique needs and demands. While the Farm School aligns more closely with a conventional educational setting, the Art School offers a different mix of school subjects as it specifically provides for learners who wish to develop in the arts. Unfortunately, there are misconceptions about the nature of the Art School, limiting its ability to excel as an art school with a good academic reputation. The perception of the researcher is that the school is viewed by the community as a type of special needs school for low-performing learners or learners with behavioural challenges. Learners are admitted to the school based on their interest in art subjects rather than academic development. However, as the school programme unfolds, learners encounter the demands of both conventional school subjects that are compulsory and their art disciplines. This highlights the need for clarifying the purpose of the school, addressing the community misconceptions and amending the enrolment criteria.

Both the Farm and Art School operate in locations where English is not the primary language of social interaction, with learners predominantly engaging in their home languages. In terms of the theory of social constructivism and a Vygotskyan approach to teaching and learning, as discussed in Chapter 2, the English teacher becomes the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO) that learners depend on. However, the challenge is to make the English language easily accessible to learners and to ensure that it still falls within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Because of the socio-economic realities in the communities and limited exposure to English, the English language is often beyond the reach of learners, as was evident at the Art School. Moreover, the limited access to the English subject of only 4.5 hours per week constrains the potential for extensive linguistic development. This contrasts with higher quintile schools where learners benefit from regular interactions in English with parents, peers, and technology as MKOs, facilitating a more immersive language learning process.

The challenge for township learners extends beyond limited MKOs to encountering complex texts that often surpass their understanding. The literature component of the curriculum appears to be particularly demanding. Literature, which serves as a valuable tool for expanding vocabulary, general knowledge and cultural awareness, becomes a hurdle when it incorporates references unfamiliar to learners from different backgrounds. The disconnect between the cultural, historical, and social context embedded in literature texts and the learners' lived experiences hinders their comprehension and engagement with the material.

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) document, designed to provide a standardized approach to education, falls short in addressing the realities of diverse school contexts. It overlooks the existence of special category schools such as art schools and fails to delineate how such specialized institutions should navigate the curriculum. The assumption of a one-size-fits-all approach inherent in CAPS raises questions about the realistic expectations for uniform outcomes across schools. The discrepancy in school backgrounds and available resources highlights the systemic inequalities present within the education system. The curriculum's inability to acknowledge and accommodate the unique challenges faced by different schools unveils a lack of fairness and equality in the education system.

In summary, recognizing the diversity among schools is essential for tailoring education to meet the specific needs of learners in different contexts. The system's failure to account for these variations compromises its ability to provide an equitable and effective learning experience for all learners. Addressing these disparities requires a more nuanced approach that acknowledges the distinctive characteristics of each school and promotes an inclusive and adaptable education system.

5.9 Conclusion

The main guiding document for the study was the prescribed language curriculum in the form of the CAPS document. It was therefore imperative to conduct an analysis of this document in line with the topic and aim of the study. The appraisal was however not restricted to the CAPS document. It included other scholarly works and documents aimed at ensuring that quality and equitable education is observed across all school quintiles. The appraisal of the CAPS document specifically concentrated on the four sections in the CAPS document. The findings resulting from this analysis were subsequently discussed in alignment with pertinent aspects previously explored in the literature review chapter. By drawing connections with existing literature, the discussion aimed to contextualize observations within the broader context of language teaching and assessment practices and educational research. The following chapter discusses outcomes of the interviews conducted with the primary stakeholders in the language programme evaluation.

Chapter 6: Presentation and analysis of semi-structured interview data

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the semi-structured interviews (SSIs) that were conducted with specific stakeholders involved in the EFAL programme. Interviews were conducted with the Free State Department of Education (FSDoE) EFAL advisor, one school principal, one vice-principal, two HODs, and two EFAL teachers. The roles, responsibilities and involvement of these participants in the programme evaluation were clarified in Chapter 3. The interviews were conducted with the purpose of obtaining in-depth contextual data from the stakeholders on how the mandate from the DBE to facilitate English language learning in schools was being fulfilled.

Interview questions were based on the designation of the participants as they served different purposes in the programme evaluation. The researcher ensured that interviews did not interfere with work time and met with the participants for 15-20 minutes at times when it was convenient. As explained in Chapter 4, interviews were recorded on a voice recording device and later transcribed. However, one participant asked not to be recorded (HOD 2, from the Farm School) as she felt uncomfortable. The sections below provide a list of interview questions according to the different designations. Thereafter, a discussion of responses is provided according to their alignment with the research objectives and questions.

6.2 Interview questions

Participants were intentionally chosen based on their roles and level of involvement with the learners. Individuals holding positions at the provincial level in the Department of Basic Education are more distanced from the classroom, as their responsibilities primarily involve monitoring and addressing education issues on a broader scale, extending beyond the confines of the classroom. In contrast, the EFAL advisor, principals, HODs and teachers engage directly and intensively with learners. While the interviews were not conducted in strict alignment with participants' designations, the subsequent interview questions are organized in accordance with the seniority levels within the EFAL programme.

6.2.1 Questions for EFAL advisor

It is crucial to acknowledge that despite the inclusion of the EFAL advisor among the participants, his role does not involve the facilitation of language classes. Instead, he assumes responsibility for overseeing the administration of teaching and learning within the province. His duties encompass visiting schools, monitoring their progress, and ensuring that learning occurs in conducive environments. The following questions were employed when engaging with the FAL advisor to gauge the extent of his involvement in his capacity within the EFAL component.

Questions for EFAL advisor

1. Do you think high school teachers are meeting the expectations of CAPS in the EFAL programme in township schools?
2. In what ways does the provincial department ensure that the EFAL programme is facilitated in accordance with the expectations of CAPS?
3. In your view, is the support provided to teachers from the DBE sufficient or not?
4. What areas of development do you think teachers require for effective teaching and learning?
5. How does the department monitor classes during the course of a year and provide feedback to schools and what monitoring or assessment tool is used during the monitoring of classes?
6. Does the DBE have enough resources to ensure sufficient distribution of prescribed learning materials such as textbooks in township schools?
7. Are there enough EFAL teachers to be placed in township schools or does the DBE have a plan to provide more teachers?
8. Highlight some of the challenges and improvements in the EFAL programme in your schools.

The interview with the EFAL advisor extended its scope more comprehensively compared to the interviews with other participants. It delved into national, provincial, and local dimensions that are pertinent to the Grade 10 language programme. The dimensions included support, resource allocation, time tabling and challenges in the EFAL component, amongst others. This inclusive approach allowed for a thorough exploration of the advisor's insights into various levels of the education system, offering a comprehensive understanding of how the EFAL programme operates and is managed across different administrative levels. The aim was to capture a holistic view that goes beyond individual classroom interactions, shedding light on the multifaceted aspects that contribute to the success and effectiveness of the Grade 10 language programme.

6.2.2 Questions for principals and HODs

Both principals and Heads of Departments (HODs) bear the responsibility of providing support to teachers, albeit in distinct ways that align with the nature and level of support required. Collaboratively, their paramount duty is to partner with teachers, fostering an environment wherein teaching and learning align with directives from the Department of Basic Education (DBE). Recognizing the inherent similarities in their roles, the researcher presented both principals and HODs with identical sets of questions during the interviews. This approach aimed to garner insights into their perspectives, practices, and strategies, fostering a comprehensive understanding of how their collective efforts contribute to the effective implementation of instructional guidelines and the overall success of the educational process.

Questions for principals and HODs

1. Is there anything specific you would like to mention about the EFAL programme at your school?
2. What is the background of your learners in terms of the language used at home and in the immediate community?
3. What is the school's language policy and does it make provision for using languages other than English for teaching and learning?
4. In terms of EFAL, have teachers expressed any challenges or areas of achievement?
5. Is there an opportunity for teachers to support each other? For example, learning through classroom observations or other means, and do you think such peer learning is necessary?
6. In what ways do you support EFAL teachers?
7. In what ways does the FSDoE support EFAL teachers?

The aforementioned questions were selected to ascertain participants' grasp of various aspects, including their understanding of their learners' proficiency levels, familiarity with the language policy, and insight into the collaborative dynamics between HODs, principals, and teachers. These inquiries aimed to explore how these stakeholders collaborate to uphold the language policy effectively and provide essential support to teachers within the educational framework.

6.2.3 Questions for teachers

Teachers are the primary stakeholders who work closely with learners and the curriculum. Their questions were mainly aligned with their role in the classroom and experience in teaching EFAL in township and rural schools. Both teachers were asked the same questions, but the nature of semi-structured interviews allowed for more impromptu questions and probing which led to the development of additional questions and responses.

Questions for teachers

1. What areas of growth have you identified in your teaching practice?
2. What lesson planning approach do you use?
3. What do you think is the best approach for teaching English and what is your teaching style?
4. What challenges do you face as an English teacher?
5. How do you assess the learners' level of competency and progress in English?
6. In what ways does your timetable accommodate all four language skills? How do you decide on which skills to cover each week?
7. How would you like to be supported as an English teacher?
8. How do you ensure that your teaching assistant is well prepared to support your learners?
9. How often do you find yourself using another language to simplify English expressions/ concepts at this level?
10. What motivates you to teach English?

The questions provided above were structured with a specific emphasis on guiding teachers through a reflective process concerning their professional development. They aimed to prompt educators to contemplate various aspects such as their motivations, the challenges they encounter, their approaches to lesson planning, their comprehension of the linguistic backgrounds of their learners, and the adoption of appropriate strategies to effectively support their learners' learning journey.

The next section of the chapter synthesizes and reports the interview responses according to their alignment with the first three research objectives:

- Determine alignment of curriculum and language in education policy with needs of learners and teachers;
- Determine what pedagogies and resources teachers are using to support learning and whether they are relevant for learners with diverse needs; and
- Determine the extent to which teachers are familiar with the curriculum and managing to cover all the prescribed components.

It should be noted that the fourth objective of the study, namely to analyse outcomes of the language programme evaluation and make recommendations where necessary, does not form part of the focus of this chapter, as it will be met at the end of the study. The discussion of interview responses is supported by quotations of participants' actual utterances.

6.3 Curriculum management

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) serve as a comprehensive framework, providing teachers with essential guidelines and clearly defined outcomes to be achieved by the end of the syllabus. The guidelines include teaching processes, approaches to teaching various language skills, teaching plans, suggested content, and assessments amongst others. These guidelines are designed to ensure consistency and quality in education across different schools. The Department of Basic Education (DBE) plays a pivotal role in overseeing the implementation of CAPS through various mechanisms, including support through provincial departmental school visits and workshops aimed at supporting educators in their teaching endeavours.

Despite the well-intentioned efforts to enhance the educational landscape, there are notable challenges that impede the realization of CAPS objectives. These constraints are particularly pronounced in the context of township and rural schools, especially with regard to the EFAL component. It becomes evident that the expectations outlined in CAPS are not always met to their full extent due to a myriad of contextual challenges.

One of the primary challenges is the diverse and often resource-constrained environments in which quintile 1 schools operate. Limited access to educational resources, including textbooks, technological tools, and supplementary materials, poses a significant hurdle for teachers striving to meet the CAPS guidelines. The discrepancy in resource allocation between schools in different socio-economic contexts exacerbates the challenges that teachers face in township schools, as evident in the responses to the interview questions reported below. Furthermore, the complex socio-economic conditions prevalent in quintile 1 schools introduce additional layers of difficulty. Learners in these contexts may grapple with various socio-economic challenges, such as limited access to educational support outside the school environment, language barriers, and a lack of exposure to enriching learning experiences. These factors can hinder the effective implementation of CAPS, especially in subjects like EFAL that require nuanced language instruction.

A thematic analysis of the responses to the interview questions revealed that the primary challenges affecting curriculum coverage as highlighted by the interviewees were related to insufficient time, large enrolments in schools, learners' limited proficiency in and exposure to English, and a lack of resources in township and rural schools situated in lower quintiles.

6.3.1 Time constraints and class sizes

The FSDoE advisor for EFAL concurred that the allocated time for covering content does not adequately account for the linguistic needs and limited parental support of learners in lower quintile schools. Learners in these schools require more time to comprehend content compared to their counterparts in higher quintile schools, where English skills are often developed more successfully from the early years of schooling.

In response to the question of whether high school teachers are meeting the expectations of CAPS in the EFAL programme in township schools, the EFAL advisor (FSA) responded as follows:

“Yes, to a certain extent they are meeting expectations of CAPS. However, most of the time teachers struggle to keep up the pace especially because of the literature component. They need more time to cover that because they have to read for learners. You can’t give first additional learners books to read at home. It is a problem. You can do that with home language learners. 60 percent of the time teachers complete or align their teaching to CAPS. The 40 percent is where you get high enrolment schools with inexperienced teachers ...” **(FSA)**

The response of the EFAL advisor reveals logistical problems related to high learner numbers, pacing management, and teachers who lack experience. The EFAL advisor acknowledged that schools were trying their best to meet the curriculum expectations but faced challenges with the time allocated for EFAL because of their learner’s linguistic backgrounds. He also mentioned that high enrolment schools made it difficult for teachers to monitor progress to the best of their ability and that content coverage was a problem as there was not enough time to cover all topics suggested by CAPS, especially the literature component. This seems to be a problem that cannot be solved anytime soon which means that teachers need to find ways to work with big classes.

The response above provides a clear warning that learners in the context of township and rural schools cannot read without supervision. They mostly rely on teachers to read for them, as indicated by the EFAL advisor who seems to be stating that even if books are available to take home to read, the learners will not be able to read them on their own. It is not clear how this helps learners improve their reading skills and how it fosters a culture for reading. Though the focus of this study is on Grade 10, it is important to note possible foundational causes of linguistic challenges faced at Grade 10 level. Recently, there have been several reports regarding the reading crisis in South Africa, such as the 2021 Progress in International Reading Literacy Study report (DBE 2023e) which focused on the early years of study. Such cases imply that much still needs to be done at foundational level to better prepare learners for high school. In terms of the success rates amongst Grade 10 learners, Mr Howard Ndaba the FSDoE’s Head of Communications expressed a concern that the 2023 Grade 10 pupils were the worst performing cohort in the Free State province and that the Grade 8 cohort had also failed dismally: “Both grades declined by 4% in 2023 while they showed an increase in the pass rate from 2021 to 2022” (Polity 2024). Grade 10 is the beginning of the intensive preparation period for matric, hence this study deemed the Grade 10 cohort as being a suitable choice for the language programme evaluation.

Teachers' inability to cover curriculum content revealed that they were not coping with the amount of content they were expected to cover as there was not enough time. This suggests that the curriculum is too full and does not seem suitable for the language proficiency of township or rural learners. This may be part of the reason why quintile 1 township schools do not produce learners who are highly competent in English. According to the EFAL Advisor, because of the lack of teaching time, teachers tend to focus on examinable topics and the marks learners obtain instead of the quality of work they produce. This corresponds with the findings of Neluheni (2011) who explored the dynamics of quality assurance measures employed to ensure the quality of EFAL assessments in Grade 10 and found that teachers tend to focus more on mark verification and learners' portfolio files than teaching. This means that the focus is more on administrative duties than the work done in class as the HOD and principal ultimately monitor this. Similarly, language teachers who participated in the Jika iMfundo programme which focused on improving curriculum management and content coverage expressed their concern that they "spent more time assessing and marking in the language subjects than teaching" (Moodley 2020:92). Jika iMfundo was implemented as an intervention campaign for the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education to improve learning outcomes. Its main premise lies in the fact that the improvement of outcomes relies on curriculum coverage (Bertram, Mthiyane & Naidoo 2021:3).

During the interviews with the teachers, they were asked how they ensured that all language skills were covered over the 4.5 hours allocated per week. They explained that schools were given the freedom to draft timetables, provided that they adhered to the 4.5 hours per week as stipulated in the CAPS document. There is no uniform timetable across schools and therefore skills may be prioritised according to the different needs of the learners. Both teachers mentioned that the DBE expects them to teach according to the Annual Teaching Plan (ATP) to prepare learners for assessments. This is a matter that other teachers have found restricting, especially those who were trained in critical literacy at university and who wished to implement what they had learned in their classrooms (see Nkealah & Simango 2023:74). Nkealah and Simango (2023:72-77) mention Paulo's Freire's critical pedagogy and state that it is designed to equip teachers with skills that enable them to teach critical literacy, support self-empowerment, and provide tools for teaching critical thinking. However, teachers fail to implement the skills learned at university because they "strive to adhere strictly to the plan and, in time, teaching to the plan becomes their standard practice" (Nkealah & Simango 2023:76), as in the case of the two teachers who participated in the present study. This indicates that there is little opportunity for incoming teachers to implement what they learned during their teacher training programme. It also implies that due to time constraints, the focus is on preparing learners for assessments instead of developing critical thinkers who will become better citizens for a just society. Motlaka (2016) investigated the implementation of Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy in the EFAL classroom and found that teachers struggle to apply critical teaching methods and thinking skills when creating learning activities. As a result, many learners complete their studies without developing strong English skills or the ability to think independently beyond their textbooks. This may be due to the low English proficiency levels of learners as well as time constraints as such learners may need more time to comprehend certain content. Adding a few more hours to the EFAL component may assist teachers to design lessons integrating Paulo Freire's pedagogy through designing activities that enable high order thinking.

During the interviews, Teacher 1 (T1) also mentioned that time for oral work was challenging. Many learners from township schools have limited exposure to spoken English and do not use English regularly amongst themselves or beyond the school premises. Although she would like to improve learners' English oral competency, T1 expressed that she did not have enough time to conduct structured informal oral tasks, so she only carried out formal oral tasks for assessment. This differs from Teacher 2 (T2) who conducts informal orals on a weekly basis. The differences in oral work at the two schools is understandable because T1 has a bigger group of learners and may not be able to assist all learners in the time available. In the context of quintile 1 schools where learners struggle with English competency, spoken language is often rehearsed and prepared for the purpose of being assessed, which does not provide a true reflection of oral ability. It also implies that impromptu oral activities put learners under pressure as they may find themselves battling with expressing certain ideas in English under unfavourable conditions when they are trying to obtain good grades. In such contexts, there seems to be minimal opportunity for their natural conversational skills to be developed.

The following extracts from the interviews illustrate the different approaches to oral work:

"We normally have oral examinations… we only do orals when we have oral formal tasks. There isn't. [sic] We don't assess them like that unless there is an activity that stipulates that

we should. I actually, [sic] I always use the classroom where I ask a single learner to come in front to talk about whatever ..." (T1)

"On a weekly basis towards the exams to accommodate all learners." (T2)

According to the two teachers, there is not much enthusiasm for oral work. Teacher 1 seems to be restricted by her big class as it may be difficult to facilitate oral activities regularly. On the other hand, Teacher 2 seems to focus on oral activities to prepare learners for exams instead of using them throughout the year to improve learner's English proficiency levels. Well-facilitated oral presentations generally give learners the opportunity to think critically, be creative and use language to engage and improve their oral skills. Learners who can express themselves with ease in a language tend to be confident, motivated speakers. Brooks and Wilson (2014:209-202) note that well-scaffolded oral activities provide learners with an enjoyable learning experience that enables them to improve their English oral skills, especially when oral tasks are done as group activities. However, these skills need regular practice. The current curriculum affords schools 4.5 hours of EFAL per week and expects teachers to accommodate all language skills over a two-week cycle. Kareema (2016:11) comments that "teaching speaking should be given equal opportunities along with other integrated skills". This seems to be a challenge in schools with high enrolment rates. As stated above, Teacher 2 is not able to provide regular practice because she teaches a bigger number of learners (56 learners). Hence, she only administers summative oral assessments. Large classes are highlighted by Brooks and Wilson (2014:206) as one of the challenges of implementing oral activities because they can be time-consuming: "For this reason, oral presentations are often not used in language classes or are only used as one-time summative assessment at the end of the course, with very little class time spent on getting the learners ready to present." Other challenges with oral activities are that some learners lack fluency, and teachers do not have enough skills to implement communicative teaching approaches (Brooks & Wilson 2014:210). The aspect on implementing teaching approaches forms part of the observations data discussed in Chapter 7.

When **HOD 1** was asked about the effects of teaching large classes, she responded by listing the variables affecting the quality of teaching as follows:

"1. Overcrowded classrooms make it difficult to promote interaction in English, to monitor learner's progress and brings a negative impact on teaching and learning. 2. There are no

remedial classes, so learners of different learning levels abilities [sic] are in the same class which makes it difficult to provide support through differentiation. 3. Content coverage is a challenge as there is not enough time and the learners' level is average." **(HOD 1)**

Responses around issues regarding overcrowded classrooms, content coverage, time available and poor levels of learners' English appeared frequently in the participants' responses. A new aspect mentioned during the interview with HOD 1 was the matter of lack of remedial classes. In the context of the two schools where learners lack parental support, there is a need for remedial classes. As stated by HOD 1, large classes do not give teachers enough time to support learners. Both schools do not offer formal remedial classes that cater to the different learners' learning needs. Schwartz recommends that "remedial education should be part of the teacher education curriculum and in-service teacher training" (2012:38). There seems to be a need for further support for weaker learners beyond the time they spend in class. This may appear as extra work considering the fact that teachers are already burdened with administrative duties. In-class work alone is not enough. Supplementary materials and extra classes may be a useful way to help struggling learners.

Class sizes can be the root of many other problems. If reading practice were to be given to each learner individually, the teacher would require more than a term to gauge the performance of each learner and provide one-on-one attention and feedback. In such a setting, the teacher may also have to spend more time trying to maintain order in the class, which can interfere with individual reading work. Group-based work may be difficult as learners' attention may easily deviate in large classes. It is probably the case in most quintile 1 schools with high enrolment rates; hence teachers may find themselves having to prepare learners for exams instead of communicative competence, as mentioned earlier. The pressure of meeting deadlines appears to be more important than the quality of the work done with learners. There are ways to manage large classes, but these were not mentioned by the participants who were interviewed. Teachers struggle with classroom management in large classrooms and there tends to be a lack of motivation and interest (Hadi & Arante 2015:5). Furthermore, learners tend to be noisy in large classrooms, easily distracting others and making it difficult for the teacher to control them. This is the case in Indonesia where English is a "foreign" language. Not all learners are motivated and interested to learn it. Based on their research, Hadi and Arante (2015:5) propose two strategies to overcome these barriers: employing a variety of games to attract learners' attention and sometimes having outdoor lessons. These may not be practical in township or rural schools with big classes. Although there are different techniques to work with large classes, research shows that large classes have negative implications in the teaching and learning process regardless of the curriculum. Ayeni and Oluwe (2016:68) find that large classes lead to high cases of examination failure and lack of motivation to attend classes. This shows that there is no healthy relationship between large class sizes and effective teaching and learning.

6.3.2 Distribution of prescribed learning materials by the DBE

The issue of resource scarcity is a pervasive concern in quintile 1 schools, with a widely held belief that adequate resources play a pivotal role in facilitating effective teaching and aiding learners in achieving desired learning outcomes. To delve into this matter, the EFAL advisor was queried about the sufficiency of resources provided by the provincial department to support teaching and learning within schools.

The EFAL advisor indicated as follows when asked about the Free State schools:
"Yes, the provincial department has enough resources. But some of the resources they just don't use them. They stack books and when they are asked they say they are old books. Teachers think that they need to have new material every year. They don't regard old material as useful material." **(FSA)**

According to the EFAL Advisor, the provincial department provides enough resources, but the issue is that teachers expect to receive new textbooks each year and do not regard old material as useful. Also, it is important to note that in addition to prescribed materials, teachers themselves are resources and a source of either poor or quality education. However, they do not seem to regard themselves as sources of information or knowledge and see the education system as unable to succeed without tangible resources from the provincial department.

According to Melikhaya and Mantlana (2020:113-114) teachers are still faced with challenges related to a shortage of teaching and learning resources and due to this, they cannot integrate technology to enhance their lessons. Also, the minimal resources they have are not always well managed. Relying on the same limited resources can be monotonous for both the teacher and learners, especially Grade 10 learners. Teenagers have a tendency to easily get bored so having a variety of resources may help the teacher plan interactive and enjoyable lessons. The only resource Teacher 1 used for the EFAL class was a CAPS-prescribed textbook, Platinum English First Additional Language Learner's Book Grade 10. Teacher 2 did not receive the prescribed textbook from the FSDoE but made copies of worksheets and materials related to the topics suggested in the CAPS document.

Problems related to inadequate teaching resources and textbooks also influence multimodal teaching possibilities. In conjunction with printed materials that cover receptive and productive skills, for the curriculum to be highly effective, resources such as whiteboards, projectors and sound equipment can be useful in teaching listening skills, for example. Technology is increasingly being used in modern education and the Department of Basic Education should look into ensuring that all schools have access to technology that supports learning and enhances the learning process. Melikhaya and Mantlana (2020:116) recommend that schools' budgets include the implementation of information and communication technology and that teachers should be equipped with the necessary skills and competencies to use technology in a beneficial way. Thus, "government should play a vital role in creating a balance in terms of providing teaching equipment to all schools irrespective of the locations of the schools, since resource provisions contribute to conducive learning" (Melikhaya & Mantlana (2020:116).

Private efforts exist to assist learners, parents and teachers with supplementary materials and additional support. One example is a website initiative called CAPS123[5] which was created by a group of teachers. The aim of CAPS123 is to present the CAPS content in a simplified way for teachers, learners and parents. Based on the responses from both teachers during the interviews, it seems as if they are not aware of these kinds of digital tools which can better support them to overcome some of the challenges they face with teaching resources and materials.

6.3.3 Shortage of teachers

Although there are schools with high enrolment rates, there does not seem to be a departmental strategy to appoint more teachers. The EFAL advisor acknowledged that there are not enough teachers:

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[5] https://caps123.co.za/about/

"...we do not have enough teachers. In most of high enrolment schools, we don't have enough teachers. To say the department has a plan, I would be lying. We need more quality teachers in Grade 8 and 9 to address the issues of learners of not being exposed to quality content." **(FSA)**

It is peculiar that there appears to be a lack of strategy to ensure an adequate number of teachers in schools despite a high number of learners graduating annually. This prompts questions about whether there is insufficient funding or issues with departmental planning. The response above indicates that the EFAL advisor acknowledges that there are not enough teachers and there is still a need for more quality teachers to be placed in Grades 8 and 9. To combat this, the former Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga, mentioned at the SADTU (South African Democratic Teachers Union) music festival in Durban on 6 October 2023 that the government's dedication to the well-being of future generations was clear from the investments they had made. The Minister further stated that if the government stayed on their current course, South Africa would not experience a shortage of teachers by the end of this decade (Pillay 2023:1). Indeed, a shortage of teachers may be something South Africa does not experience in the future as there is a high number of Bachelor of Education graduates. However, what we may experience is a shortage of quality teachers especially in the language component.

In December 2020, the DBE introduced an initiative aimed at providing employment opportunities to unemployed youth to assist in schools as teaching and general assistants (DBE 2023d). During the interviews, teachers were questioned about the necessity for classroom teaching assistance. Both teachers revealed that they did not have teaching assistants. However, in the case of Teacher 2, there were two trainee teachers who were university students fulfilling part of their coursework in the classroom. These persons are not to be confused with assistant teachers who are appointed by the government to assist teachers and support learners. The work of trainee teachers is equivalent to that of teachers and their contribution and roles form part of their studies.

The DBE places teaching assistants in schools to offer curriculum support to teachers in various subjects, including the language component (DBE 2012:5). It is notable that the Farm School with its higher enrolment rate has been obtaining a good -performance rate for several years. Conversely, the Art School, with a lower enrolment rate, has shown lower pass rates. This situation presents a contradiction as conventional expectations suggest that the Art School, with its lower enrolment rate, should be able to devote more attention to individual learners, potentially leading to better academic results. However, this has not been the case. Both the lack of teaching assistants and the discrepancy in academic performance between the two schools provide compelling reasons for the DBE to allocate teaching assistants to these schools, especially for English classes which are known to be particularly demanding such as the EFAL classroom. An additional role of facilitating an extra EFAL class may be possible if teaching assistants are appointed and to prevent overburdening teachers' schedules.

6.3.4 Support within the EFAL programme

Support is expected to be provided by national and provincial departments for schools to run their various programmes effectively. All interview participants were asked about the level of support they received from their immediate seniors, and the general consensus was that the DBE as a whole was trying its best to provide support. What remains uncertain is the suitability of the type of support offered in township and rural schools.

According to the EFAL advisor the FSDoE offers "*start-up training*" from the beginning of the school term and throughout the year. What seems to be the issue is that the type of support is not tailored in a way that caters for the unique needs of quintile 1 schools. The FSDoE cannot provide the same type of support to schools with different contexts, i.e. use the same solution to mitigate different problems. The type of support seems to be very basic and does not speak to the linguistic challenges faced in township and rural schools. The support seems to be more of an orientation preparing teachers for the start of the academic year or quarter, instead of providing focused interventions or useful tools for teachers to produce learners who are proficient in using English. As mentioned in Chapter 2, language knowledge is constructed through social interaction and the extent to which learners are exposed to opportunities to interact with others influences their progress in educational settings (Bernstein 2003:18-20). This explains the difference in English language proficiency among township and rural school learners and those in urban schools. According to Bernstein's (1971) theory, the learners at the two schools that formed part of the study are exposed in their communities to what he calls restricted code that is characterized by limited vocabulary and simpler grammatical structures. Elaborated code, on the other hand, is associated with middle-class or privileged communities, featuring a wider vocabulary and more complex sentence structures. Quintile 1 township and rural learners are more likely to be exposed to and primarily use restricted code due to factors such as socioeconomic status, cultural background, and limited access to resources. Conversely, learners in urban schools, which are often situated in more affluent areas, have greater exposure to elaborated code through their environment, peers, and educational resources. An increase in exposure to English in primary and high schools in township and rural areas may better prepare learners to be competent in the English language by the time they arrive in Grade 10.

Even with the challenges that still remain, the EFAL advisor expressed that he was happy about the support that the FSDoE offered to teachers. Apart from the orientations at the beginning of school terms, the FSDoE conducted workshops and provided schools with internet, laptops, and data to ensure that they kept up with the latest ways and styles of teaching and learning through technology. However, based on information that the researcher gathered, and the challenges teachers mentioned, the support at the two schools that formed part of the programme evaluation was of a limited nature. The distribution of the resources seems to be inconsistent and needs to be managed differently so that resources and support are offered to schools evenly. Although the EFAL advisor attested to the fact that the FSDoE was supporting schools well, this support does not seem to be reaching schools in a timely or equivalent manner.

The principal, vice principal, and heads of departments were also requested to share their perspectives regarding the assistance provided by the provincial department of education. All of their responses affirmed that the support from the provincial education department was praiseworthy. This aligned with what the two teachers also expressed. HOD 2 from the Art School commented as follows:

"I don't want to lie with this one. We are supported, at 90 plus percent. We are sent weekly activities... which need to be covered each day. The FAL advisor is always available and willing to support." **(HOD 2)**

Upon reviewing the nature of the support and the interview responses, the researcher found that the concept of support appeared ambiguous in both the questioning and the answers provided. The responses regarding support from the FSDoE were broad and primarily focused on the provision of worksheets and activities on a weekly basis, rather than on more comprehensive interventions such as professional development workshops, training courses, or technological assistance. This suggests that the typical form of support schools are accustomed to is the provision of supplementary materials and that they continue to rely on the FSDoE for innovative ideas.

Apart from discussing the support in the form of the mentioned resources and training, the principals and HODs were asked about the role they played personally in supporting teachers to ensure quality teaching and learning. Their responses were recorded as follows:

HOD 1 responded by listing the following ways in which she supports EFAL teachers:
-Encourage teachers to share information amongst themselves.
-Always available on WhatsApp to share urgent communication.
-Challenges are discussed during departmental meetings and are ironed out.
- Emotional support is also offered and teachers cover each other’s class when there is a need.
-Learning facilitators are always available and share supplementary materials such as the five star words to be learnt on a weekly basis.

Learning facilitators (LFs) are not the same as teaching assistants. As explained by HOD1, they are permanent employees of the FSDoE tasked with overseeing the facilitation of school subjects. Their role includes sharing teaching and learning materials, monitoring subjects, attending to teacher’s queries and providing support to teachers.

“*The only thing I know is that at our school they are supported by our HOD. But we do seek advice from LFs* [learning facilitators] *they do visit occasionally to give advice and guidance to educators. It is basically like that. But material so the management and SGB support the material they buy material for educators and other things. But professionally, the help comes from the HOD and LF from the department.”* **(P1)**

VP 2 agreed with Principal 1:

“LFs do support our educators. They do come to school occasionally.” **(VP 2)**

HOD2 said that he provided support only when there was a request from teachers:

"The only time that I find myself supporting them is when they tell their problems because it is difficult… mme, I don't want to lie... They are not comfortable with being supported unless they have expressed concern. I use departmental meetings to attend to queries and concerns."

From the aforementioned responses, it is evident that only HOD 1 offered a response related to personalized support. This suggests that the other participants are primarily focused on task completion and may overlook the importance of holistic professional support. Furthermore, their responses suggest a lack of proactive efforts in reaching out to teachers to provide assistance unless specifically requested to do so by the teacher or there is an intervention by the learning facilitators. Notably, participants did not mention collaboration with other supporting entities, suggesting that the FSDoE primarily operates independently to uphold pass rates. Their steadfast commitment reflects efforts to align with the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 through activities such as school visits and supporting educational initiatives aimed at enhancing education quality in the country.

6.4 Teachers' pedagogical approaches and resources to support learners with diverse linguistic needs

A prevalent observation in the EFAL component is the notable reliance of learners on their first or indigenous languages. This practice seems to be inadvertently facilitated by teachers who, in response to learners' limited understanding of English, integrate vernacular languages into their instructional approach. Consequently, the teaching style in these classrooms often evolves into a bilingual one, where the use of the learners' mother tongue becomes a default strategy to bridge comprehension gaps.

In instances where learners encounter difficulties comprehending English, teachers resort to the use of vernacular languages to convey concepts and simplify content. While this approach may offer immediate clarity to learners, a critical concern arises regarding its effectiveness in aiding the mastery of the English language. The utilization of vernacular to explain EFAL concepts introduces a potential contradiction, as the intended focus on teaching English may become overshadowed by the unintended promotion of linguistic diversity within the classroom. There is still a lack of clarity regarding how the incorporation of vernacular languages supports the broader objective of enhancing English language proficiency. While immediate comprehension is achieved through the use of the mother tongue, the potential impact on the development of English language skills such as oral and writing proficiency and increased accuracy of language use remains uncertain. It was for this reason that the researcher included in the interviews with the teachers a focus on the use of other vernaculars in their English classes.

6.4.1 The use of mother tongue in the EFAL classroom

To avoid confusing teachers with technical terms such as code switching and translanguaging, teachers were asked to what extent they find themselves using the learners' mother tongues to simplify and explain concepts. Both teachers agreed that they often integrated other vernaculars in their EFAL classrooms.

Teacher 1 stated that she ensured comprehension by switching to Setswana to simplify difficult concepts:
"*...I use it when I think that they do not thoroughly understand what I am trying to say. So, I try to use it to bring them closer to what I am trying. For instance, you get that they understand it in their own language than they do in English. Sometimes, it's quite helpful. But I know that I shouldn't dwell so much on it. It helps get my point across."*

Teacher 2 said "*When you realise that you are talking alone, you have to simplify. For example, they seem to understand idiomatic expressions in Sesotho*."

When responding to the question above, both teachers expressed a level of discomfort which insinuated that they were uncertain about the practice of integrating vernacular language. Their responses indicate that using other languages in the English classroom fulfils a role where learners are of the same linguistic background. It becomes an added advantage if the teacher speaks the same language as the learners. They naturally ease the learning process by integrating Sesotho or Sestwana in the context of the two schools. They seem to do so to "*simplify*" content and maintain the learners' attention.

As discussed in Chapter 2 under Section 2.3.5, research confirms that "code-switching is a necessary and effective tool in educational contexts, as it promotes classroom interaction and helps learners to access meaning" (Stromvig 2018:60). Uys (2010:54) believes that the encouragement of code-switching benefits learners and teachers whose language is not English. This is the case in both schools as English is not a home language for the learners and teachers. Memory Nkengbeza, and Liwisano (2018:66-67) agree that code-switching is beneficial, especially in supporting learners from rural areas, but note that it should be used wisely. They suggest that it should be reduced from Grade 4 and not be used from Grade 11. This suggestion seems to be made to increase the exposure to the English language and ensure that learners fully understand content in English. Memory *et al.* (2018:66-67) further note that this practice needs to be carefully monitored by the Ministry of Education by setting ground rules and paying unexpected classroom visits.

According to the responses provided by the two teachers, they seem to be aware of the role code-switching plays in supporting learners to understand certain concepts but may need training to better understand how they can effectively use code- switching strategies with learners who do not come from English-speaking backgrounds. Scholars who study code-switching advocate that through training, teachers can be enlightened about the effectiveness of this pedagogy (Lenyai 2011; Makalela 2014; Probyn 2019; and Shinga & Pillay 2021). As an emerging field of research, training for teachers in this regard will help them incorporate code-switching and multilingual pedagogies in beneficial ways.

6.4.2 Uncertainty about teaching approaches for EFAL learners

When asked about their preferred teaching approaches and which approaches they thought were best for teaching their EFAL learners, both teachers seemed not to have a clear understanding of what was meant by teaching approaches, and the interviewer had to probe further by providing examples. Teacher 1 responded uncertainly as follows:

"I think communicative approach stands out because that way I will not just tell them what I need and expecting from them, but rather…I can leave that also to them. It is not just about me but rather it is about those learners. So, I think a communicative approach it's better because I get to hear what they actually mean and improve on that… I guess." **(T1)**

In response to the same question Teacher 2 indicated as follows:

"The best approach is just to let yourself be and them be; it helps them. You let them be in class and then they become free in this way... they become free and comfortable to express themselves." **(T2)**

The interviewer also helped Teacher 2 understand the question better by providing a list of teaching approaches. Teacher 2 subsequently responded:

"Communicative. Because now when they are afraid, they are able to show that they don't understand. Jah it helps." **(T2)**

The responses above suggest that teachers are not using specific techniques and strategies that are evidence-based to teach English and that they are not familiar with the CAPS document for Grade 10 EFAL. As discussed in Chapter 2 under Section 2.4, content knowledge alone is not enough. Teachers are expected to know the didactics of language teaching and understand the different teaching approaches to use them appropriately. However, there seem to be constraints for teachers to implement teaching pedagogies which makes it unclear if these were covered at university or in teacher training. The above responses also revealed that workshops offered by the FSDoE in the beginning of the year do not emphasize approaches to promote better teaching of the EFAL component. This implies that pre-service teacher training alone is not enough and there is still much to be done to help teachers with their English language proficiencies and ongoing professional development.

6.4.3 Lesson planning

Being well-prepared before stepping into the classroom stands as a cornerstone of effective teaching. The foundational principle of understanding not only what to teach but also how to impart knowledge is instrumental in creating a conducive and successful learning environment. Well-planned lessons empower teachers to anticipate potential questions and challenges that may arise during the instructional process. This foresight, in turn, equips teachers to teach with clear objectives in mind, fostering a purposeful and organized approach that resonates in the well-structured delivery of lessons (Gizi 2021:54).

The significance of going into the classroom well-prepared extends beyond the act of planning lessons; it underscores a commitment to creating an enriched and purposeful educational journey. As teachers align their objectives with their instructional strategies, they not only enhance the overall learning experience but also contribute to the cultivation of a positive and conducive atmosphere for both teachers and learners alike. Against the background of the importance of lesson planning, teachers were asked about whether they used lesson plans and how they approached lesson planning. They responded as follows:

Teacher 1 stated, *"I do have a lesson plan and it is not always that… I do not always follow my lesson plan to the … because sometimes you get that you have planned a certain thing and when you get to class you are teaching this and you see that there is actually an area that you think or you rather…you want them to develop on so sometimes you have to think on your feet. Not that there is no lesson plan entirely, we do have such. But then sometimes you just have to change things a bit just to accommodate your learners and make sure that at least they manage to grab what you are trying to tell them and bridge whatever gap you see at the time."* (T1)

Teacher 2 said*, "There is a template that we have. A lesson template so we follow that."* (T2)

The responses above indicate that teachers are aware of lesson plans but do not seem to use them optimally. For teaching to be successful and meaningful, teachers need to make use of lesson plans to prepare themselves for what will take place in the classroom (Straessle 2014: 179). In the case of the two teachers, it is evident that lesson planning is not something that is prioritized and monitored by the HODs. Without explicitly mentioning it, it seems as if the practice of formally writing lesson plans is not emphasized as both teachers implied that they are not expected to produce a formal lesson plan. This also insinuates that they can go to class unprepared. It was also evident during the interviews that they lacked thorough understanding of the approaches they are expected to use to teach the various language skills. This aspect formed part of the observation card features and was observed in the EFAL classrooms. Details regarding how teachers demonstrated understanding of teaching approaches are discussed in Chapter 7. Teaching without planning in accordance with the CAPS' standards means that there is bound to be a misalignment between what happens in the classroom and what is expected of teachers according to CAPS.

6.5 Evaluation and professional development of teachers

Though this topic was not covered as one of the three main research questions, it emerged in the interviews as an area that needs to be addressed. During the analysis of interview responses, it was evident that there is a need for focused professional development opportunities. The concept of professional development seems to have been politicized and carries some negative connotations in the education space as it implies that teachers are not good enough. This tends to make teachers feel uncomfortable. There seems to be a misunderstanding between unions such as the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) and the DBE when it comes to the monitoring of the work teachers do in the classroom. There appears to be no clear understanding of the purpose of classroom observations. Unions seem to be protective of teachers even in cases where the DBE is making an effort for teachers to develop professionally. As Mafisa comments, it can be argued that "SADTU and other trade unions play a protectionist role when they encounter the 'not so user-friendly policies' being promulgated in the educational setting" (2017:73). To evaluate internal professional development efforts, the researcher saw it fit to include questions about peer learning opportunities, how teachers gauge their growth and various ways they keep themselves motivated.

6.5.1 Peer learning amongst teachers

Interview participants were asked if there was an opportunity for teachers to support each other through classroom observations or other means, and if they thought peer learning was necessary. The following comments were made:

"Jah we do it in a performance appraisal. where we visit classes and do some lesson observations. But you know, teachers have a tendency when they know that you are coming tomorrow, they will prepare everything... I did it last term where I visited a few classes, and they were 100 percent. But, I am not saying if you pitch unannounced you will get problems... I think with the help of the HOD they give me feedback regarding what is happening in the course." **(P1)**

"Previously, but not this current year we did ask teachers from other schools to come and teach or help with us…but it do help and teachers learn from each other. But this current year I don't think … it is not happening…" **(VP2)**

"Well… I am seeing it in grade 10. The grade 10 teachers are working together to plan lessons but they do not cover each others' classes when one is absent. One of the most feared thing by teachers is observations. That one is not happening." **(HOD 2)**

The practice of classroom observations does not seem to be emphasized in the two schools. These observations would serve as a beneficial tool to identify practical problems and support teachers in township and rural schools. Given the context of the two schools, where learners come from backgrounds where there is minimal exposure to English and they are only exposed to English in a formal learning context, there is no doubt that these schools need to be given more attention. As it is, the two teachers seem not to have a thorough understanding of teaching methods and lesson planning. These are common issues that exist and tools such as observations and action plans can be devised to mitigate challenges that teachers encounter in their teaching of the English language.

6.5.2 Teachers' area of growth

Teachers were asked to comment on their areas of growth. Though teacher 1 expressed that she was comfortable with her grading ability and lesson facilitation skills, she also felt that the university curriculum did not prepare them adequately for when they started working at schools. She mentioned that things such as a "subject improvement plan/ analysis" are things they learn in the workplace. Teacher 2 commented, "*As you teach, you learn"*. She saw learning as a dynamic process, which always offered room for improvement.

The responses above reveal the sensitivity of the issue of professional development and performance appraisal. In both schools, there does not seem to be a structured performance appraisal that helps teachers see their progress. Their growth is based on self-reflection and experience. This implies that there are no incentives, rewards or awards to motivate teachers. Apart from self-evaluations, there seems to be no person or system that provides them with evidence regarding their growth and learning. As much as learners' learning is assessed, teachers too need to be assessed with the purpose of improving learning and providing quality education. Performance management systems help workers to work with a purpose and objective in mind. It helps them develop professionally and thrive to offer positive contributions in their fields. An effective performance management system comprises individual performance, evaluation, and feedback on performance (Kumar & Nirmala 2013:4). End-of-year results for learners are not always a true reflection of a teacher's efforts and work. For teachers to know whether they are offering quality education, their teaching practice needs to be evaluated and feedback should be provided to support continuous improvement and professional growth.

6.5.3 Teachers' motivation

The level of the teachers' motivation appears to be pivotal in ensuring a conducive learning environment. During the interview with the EFAL advisor, he mentioned that young teachers are highly motivated:

"…we are getting young teachers who are willing to attend workshops… who are willing to learn… some of them are better trained than the old cohort. So that is an improvement." **(FSA)**

As discussed in Chapter 2, under Section 2.5, there are different types of motivation during the teaching process. Teachers with intrinsic motivation are passionate about teaching. On the other hand, those who are extrinsically motivated are driven by incentives to perform better. The comment of the EFAL Advisor about the motivation of young teachers was made with reference to teachers serving in the Free State province in general. To probe whether the teachers at the two schools shared this motivation, they were asked what motivated them to teach English. Their responses were recorded as follows:

"Apart from the love I have for the subject, I want to help these learners understand it in-depth because not only is English a subject but it is a language across curriculum so it would be very very beneficial for them to at least understand it so that they can apply it on other subjects. I guess, my learners making it… it's enough for me." **(T1)**

"The learners, they motivate me. Especially when you have taught them from lower levels to higher levels and you see an improvement. It really motivates you." **(T2)**

Both teachers are mainly motivated to teach English by their learners' progress and success. Teacher 1 believes that success in English helps learners succeed in other subjects as this is the language used across the curriculum. Teacher 2 sounded happy to talk about witnessing learners' growth as they progressed from lower to higher levels. Their responses show that despite the challenges their learners face in the English language, they remain motivated. In terms of motivation theory, these teachers seem to be intrinsically motivated because they find joy in what they do.

6.6 Alignment of curriculum and policy with needs of learners and teachers

CAPS is a generic curriculum that does not differentiate between schools in different quintiles with diverse needs. The alignment of curriculum and educational policies with the needs of learners and teachers seems to be something that needs to be given more attention by the DBE. The success of the curriculum in township and rural schools seems to hinge on the EFAL component. One of the main concerns that emerged from the interviews was the low English proficiency levels of the Grade 10 learners. With English being the agreed medium of instruction (MOI) in both schools, this concern raises questions about the quality of English learners are exposed to throughout their schooling years. It also implies that the chosen medium of instruction is not favouring learners.

6.6.1 Learners' home languages

Learners from the Farm School are Setswana speakers and those from the Art School are Sesotho speakers. Setswana and Sesotho are the languages they use at home and in the immediate community. They are only exposed to English during teaching hours. This means that their exposure to English is limited and the use of English beyond the classroom is restricted. In response to the question about learners' language use at home and in the immediate community, Principal 1 and Vice Principal 2 responded as follows:

"*... to tell you the honest truth, on a scale of 10 they honestly do not understand. Hence, we have established a reading club. But the department has introduced 'drop everything and read'* *on Wednesdays after school during studies in the hostel. We encourage learners to speak English."* **(P1)**

"... according to me personally, I think English as a medium of instruction at our school is not practised at home. They speak Sotho. They usually speak Sotho in the streets, even at home, even in the community forums. I think is like that." **(VP2)**

The two HODs commented as follows:
HOD1 stated that Setswana is the main language used, and it is rare to find learners using English amongst themselves at school. This makes it difficult to bridge the gap between English and Setswana.

HOD2 made an astute statement that warrants further attention:
"This community is Sesotho speaking. Most of the learners come to school not so much well versed in their mother tongue. These learners cannot even master their mother tongue. How can we expect them to master English? That is the challenge we are facing."

The responses above reveal that learners do not come from English-speaking communities. Interestingly, HOD 2 noted that the learners struggle to master their mother tongues as well. This suggests broader proficiency challenges among learners within the language component as a whole. This could be a result of the lack of BICS in HL, which affects effective learning through English as the LoLT. Sibanda (2019:9) suggests that languages that are often considered to be "pure" or standardized forms and typically taught in formal settings, do not necessarily reflect the actual speech patterns of people, whether they live in rural or urban areas. In other words, the languages as they are formally taught or understood to be "correct" may differ significantly from how people actually communicate in their daily lives.

The Farm School is based in a Setswana-speaking community, whereas the Art School is in a Sesotho–speaking community. Normally, learners would use their home language in their immediate communities and at school. This should provide an opportunity to develop high proficiency and literacy in the mother tongue or first language. It is understandable that learners may not be exposed to English in their communities before starting school. There seem to be no other platforms for them to use English apart from the classroom. They have minimal exposure to English speakers and contexts that force them to speak English.

Township, rural and city children are raised in distinct cultural and linguistic environments. Before 1994, the apartheid regime enforced segregation by confining Black people to townships while reserving urban areas for Whites (Suzuki 2021:669-670). Even after apartheid ended, there remained a notable discrepancy in residential patterns: middle-class Black families increasingly moved to urban areas, whereas White families generally did not relocate to townships. Consequently, it is rare to encounter White families residing in townships. This demographic landscape has implications for language exposure and acquisition. Urban-dwelling Black children often benefit from exposure to the English language due to their proximity to diverse linguistic environments. In contrast, children from township and rural areas typically have limited interaction with English speakers, leading to restricted exposure to the language. Furthermore, they may lack sufficient encouragement to learn English through alternative channels such as radio broadcasts, television programmes, or literature. This linguistic disparity underscores broader socio-economic and historical factors shaping language acquisition and proficiency within South Africa.

Stoffelsma (2019:2) states that there are “large differences in vocabulary development of children, depending on their home background and school context. In general, children from low socio-economic backgrounds have a poorer understanding of words.” Learners in urban areas have easy exposure to the English language so by the time they start school, they have informally learnt the language which makes it easier for them to understand formal English lessons in the classroom (Varpe 2013: 12). Informal language use is not aimed at grammatical accuracy but constitutes the first step towards acquiring a language. In terms of learning English, the situation with township and rural children differs because of the nature of their living conditions or socio-economic circumstances. There is minimal opportunity to be exposed to English and because of this, they will struggle to acquire communicative competence in the language. When they start to formally learn English at school, they will need additional support to reinforce and master the basics. If not given this support, learners may experience difficulties comprehending more complex concepts and ideas in the higher grades.

Based on the comment of HOD2, it seems that there are problems with the teaching of both HL and FAL school subjects in some schools.

Principal 1 expressed his concerns about the level of English that learners possess at Grade 10. When asked to comment about the EFAL component, he provided the following response:

"*I actually don't think there is anything specific or anything to be concerned about in terms of the delivery of the of the [sic] subject at the school, at the moment. The fact that we don't do it as a home language does not worry me that much, but we really need to do something about the level of English. More especially spoken English. That is where we should start. It came to my concern when I noticed that a lot of these learners cannot interpret some of the verbs in other subjects…. Learners do not understand what it means to draw up a conclusion. There was a learner who took out a pencil. He wanted to draw everything that was discussed in the paper instead of writing the conclusion…so I became concerned at that very moment. So in each subject we encourage each teacher to have a glossary of those words that they normally use in question papers."* **(P1)**

P1 believed that poor understanding of question verbs in English was a problem, and he decided to intervene by asking teachers to share a glossary of useful question verbs to support learners.

HOD1 provided a similar response to Principal 1 on problems understanding English words:
"Question interpretation is still a problem for many learners, and this is time consuming for teachers as they spend most of the time trying to break down terminology. It eats up time that should be spent on content." **(HOD1)**

Action verbs form part of the EFAL curriculum. However, teachers are not consulting CAPS to see what should be covered, or they are not sure how to go about teaching English vocabulary and terminology. In one of the recommendations made in the National Senior Certificate 2022 Diagnostic Report it is stated that it is "imperative that learners must have a firm understanding of action verbs that are used in the phrasing of questions" (DBE 2022:9) as this is essential to understanding the verbs in different contexts and school subjects.

Both teachers believed that mastering English was the key to helping learners to succeed not only in English, but in other subjects too. Teacher 1 stated:
"I think so… because if they can understand in class when we are talking, when we are reading and they use the same level of understanding to approach their other subjects… I guess they… jah… I guess ..." **(T1)**

Teacher 2 agreed that English proficiency was necessary for learners to succeed in other school subjects:

"Yes, without English, they cannot write a history essay. So, they have to master English …English is the basis of everything. We just need space and extra classes and teacher to support low performing learners. Enough resources and remedial programmes should be considered to support and assist learners." **(T2)**

It is concerning that after eight years of instruction in English and using English as the LoLT learners in Grade 10 are still struggling to express themselves in English fluently. The responses above raise concerns about the quality of English that the learners are exposed to.

6.6.2 School language policy

Section 6(2) of the South African Schools Act (RSA 1996a) confers on the School Governing Body (SGB) the right to determine the language policy of the school. In both schools, the SGB has chosen English as the medium of instruction from Grade 4. Adhering to the chosen medium of instruction may be challenging for teachers as they try to ensure comprehension of the content. Several factors contribute to this disparity, including learner linguistic profiles, mismatches between teachers' home languages and those of their learners, the subject being taught, the imperative to enhance content comprehension, as well as teachers' individual understandings, misconceptions, and beliefs regarding the role of language in education. These multifaceted influences collectively shape a teacher's decision-making process regarding language choice during lesson delivery. In the case of quintile 1 township and rural schools, teachers may find themselves resorting to translanguaging techniques, which is the case at the two schools under discussion. The integration of translanguaging may be something teachers are not well-versed in. Therefore, Ayob (2020) believes that to supplement language policies, language teaching policies should consider incorporating teacher training opportunities that train teachers to integrate translanguaging pedagogies effectively. Language policies alone do not seem to be enough and need to be accompanied by other interventions that can be implemented beyond the training opportunities.

Not all SGB members are teachers and therefore they may not comprehend the depth and consequences of choosing English as the medium of instruction since they do not interact directly with the curriculum. The ultimate decision of which language to use and how to use language in the classroom to ensure comprehension is determined by the teacher based on the linguistic demands and backgrounds of learners. Below are responses to the question in line with the language policy of each school.

"Yes, our medium of instruction is English. It was discussed in the SGB meeting, so we have English across the board initiative where learners are encouraged to speak English. But, you can have all these measures in place, but if you do not implement them correctly you will not get anywhere. Because out of 10 language teachers, for example, only two of them will be interested in learners speaking English." **(P1)**

HOD1 confirmed that the medium of instruction is English as determined by the SGB.

"According to the departmental policy and school policy because our school policy are like that one of the department. We only use English as a instructional language… here at our school we use English." **(VP1)**

"We have a policy. Our policy does not help learners a lot when they come to make some assessments or support in some way… The LOTL is strictly English. Sesotho is … can only be used during the Sesotho period." **(HOD2)**

P1 indicated that though English may be used throughout as the medium of instruction, if it is not implemented correctly the outcomes may not be favourable. The sudden introduction to English in Grade 4 may be contributing significantly to learners' difficulties across all subjects, including English itself. Stoffelsma (2019:2) states that the "focus on English exposure during Grade 3 is significant because over 70% of learners in South Africa transition from using an African Home Language (HL) in Grade 3 to English as the primary language of instruction in Grade 4". Children possess highly adaptable minds, effortlessly absorbing language. They demonstrate the ability to acquire multiple languages in informal settings. This is evident in townships, where many children are already proficient in several languages before entering school. Regrettably, English is not typically among the languages they encounter beforehand. If children were exposed to English prior to formal schooling, it could potentially alleviate the burden on teachers and allow English instruction to focus on pertinent content rather than struggling to develop basic English proficiency at the Grade 10 level.

6.7 Conclusion

This section critically reported and examined the data obtained from semi-structured interviews conducted with the study’s selected participants. It offers an analysis of the interview results in light of the primary research literature pertinent to the study’s objectives and inquiries. The dominant themes covered participants’ perceptions regarding curriculum expectations, the alignment of teaching practices with the curriculum, strategies for managing curriculum demands, and the obstacles encountered in delivering quality education. These aspects collectively provide insight into the challenges and successes experienced by educators in navigating the educational landscape. The following chapter undertakes an examination of the observations made during classroom visits.

Chapter 7: Classroom observations

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter the data derived from the comprehensive classroom observations conducted at the two schools are reported and analysed. A total of ten observations were carried out at the Farm School complemented by seven observations at the Art School, all taking place over a three-week duration per school. The original intent was to observe 15 classes throughout this period at each of the two schools. However, unforeseen circumstances, including strikes, holidays, and school events, led to the cancellation of some classes, altering the intended scope of observation. Despite the reduced number of observations possible, the researcher was able to observe an adequate number of classes to gain a comprehensive view of language teaching in quintile 1 schools for the purposes of a mini case study. Detailed insights into lesson specifics and occurrences were recorded on an observation card which was designed to encapsulate features aligned with the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) expectations and general teaching practices. The presentation of data covers events at the two schools during the third term, as well as an analysis of samples of learners' work. As noted in Chapter 4, the Department of Basic Education has a restriction on research-related activities at schools during the fourth term. Hence, data collection was confined solely to the third term. The Farm School was observed from the 19th to the 5th of August and the Art School from the 10th to the 26th of August 2022.

7.2 Observation schedule challenges

In the pursuit of valid and trustworthy research practices, the data collection process is a pivotal phase, offering a firsthand glimpse into the dynamics of the phenomena under study. The following section discusses issues that arose during the data collection period, such as unforeseen circumstances that interfered with the data collection schedule.

7.2.1 Farm School

The third term started on Tuesday, the 19th of July 2022, leaving the first week of term three with four teaching days. The observed class comprised a total of 56 learners. At the boarding school, logistical considerations often lead to staggered arrivals due to transportation constraints. Notably, as not all learners had returned by the first day, the initial class was dismissed, prompting adjustments to the intended lesson plan. The logistical demands of learner transportation on the first day altered the anticipated flow of the class. This highlights the real-world challenges faced by teachers in adapting to the dynamic circumstances of a boarding school environment.

Further complexities emerged during the observation period, including a significant event on Friday, the 22nd of July, when a fun walk was organized to commemorate Nelson Mandela. Such events, while valuable for fostering a sense of community and engagement, can disrupt the regular class schedule, influencing the progression of planned lessons.

As the observation period extended into the last week of the permitted visits at the school, an additional factor came into play—the visitation of a departmental official on the 5th of August 2022. This occurrence resulted in a deviation from the standard class timetable, underscoring the impact of external factors on the teaching and learning arrangements. The complexity of scheduling was further evident on the same day, as the school day concluded earlier than usual. The reason behind this adjustment was the impending long weekend, prompting boarding learners—who hailed from various villages situated far from the school—to return home. The necessity for an early departure was driven by the logistics involved in ensuring their safe and timely arrival at their respective destinations, illustrating the difficult balance between academic commitments and the practical considerations of learner well-being and transport logistics in a rural boarding school context.

7.2.2. Art School

A series of seven observations were made between the 10th and 26th of August 2022, offering valuable insights into the teaching and learning activities of the observed group of learners and their teachers. The class comprised a total of 13 learners. This class size seems ideal from a teaching perspective, as indicated by scholarly research on class sizes (Vandenberg 2012, Etim et.al 2020 & Bondebjerg *et.al* 2023). Reduced class sizes are preferred and believed to contribute towards learner achievement positively. An interesting aspect was the presence of three teachers during the observation period. Two of these teachers served as teacher trainees, fulfilling their practical work requirements, while the third assumed the role of the main class teacher. Though the main class teacher (T1) was involved in delivering the fourth lesson, she was mainly involved in teaching the Grade 12 learners during the scheduled time at the school. She was asked to help Grade 12 learners prepare for mock exams. In fact, she only taught one lesson throughout the observation period. This indicates that there are not enough English teachers to meet the needs of the school.

The observation period was marked by notable disruptions, including holidays, events, and strikes, resulting in the dismissal of several classes. On Friday the 19th of August, a school entertainment function interrupted regular classes, diverting attention to the event. There was a visit from one of the school network providers and learners took part in various competitions such as dancing and singing to win prizes. Subsequently, on the 22nd of August there was no active teaching, but no reason for this was reported by the teacher trainee. Teacher Trainee 1 gave learners an activity to complete and collected the activity for marking. The following day, the 23rd of August, none of the teachers attended the scheduled English class and no excuses were provided. Learners spent the session chatting, using their phones and some were sleeping. This unexplained occurrence created a noteworthy gap of three days without any formal learning and teaching taking place.

On the 24th of August 2022, a SADTU National Shutdown was introduced, adding another layer of disruption to the class schedule. The next day, the 25th of August, the allocated English class time was utilized for a Mathematics test, indicating the adaptability of the teaching plan to accommodate other assessment requirements amid interruptions. This created the impression that the English component was viewed as less of a priority compared to Mathematics. To make matters worse, on the 26th of August 2022, a SADTU meeting further influenced the class routine, revealing the negative impact of external factors on the consistent delivery of lessons.

The above-mentioned disruptions, whether due to holidays, events, strikes, or organizational meetings, contributed to a fragmented class schedule during the observation period. These instances highlight the challenges teachers face in maintaining a consistent instructional flow in the face of external factors beyond their control. The nature of these events seems to be beyond the control of the school and staff members. If a school agrees to host an event, teachers may not have the power to prevent it. Events such as strikes and protests are officiated and organized by organisations that govern teachers, so the school has no control over that either.

Arrangements to make up for the time lost were not made which compromised teaching time and content coverage.

7.3 Unique contextual challenges

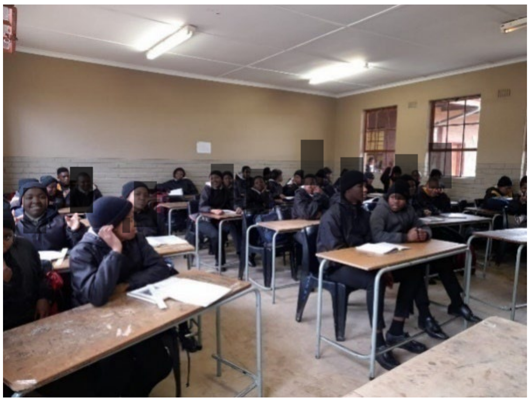


Figure 13: Farm School Grade 10 class

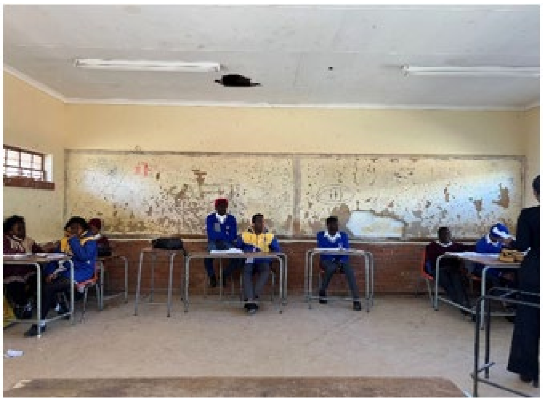


Figure 14: Art School Grade 10 class

The two images above illustrate the physical conditions at both schools. Due to the differing natures of the schools, the Farm School has a larger learner population compared to the Art School. Both schools rely on traditional chalkboards and lack technology resources such as computers and tablets for learning. However, the Art School, despite having a smaller number of learners in the EFAL class, constantly faces issues with shortages of chairs and desks. Additionally, neither school has resources or wall posters to enhance classroom appeal. At the Farm School, learners and their teacher utilized prescribed textbooks, while at the Art School, they relied on copies and worksheets as there were not enough funds for textbooks to be purchased.

7.4 Discussion of classroom observations

Annual pass rates are used as one of the main appraisal tools and indicators of the success of schools and the work performed by teachers. However, relying solely on end-of-year results appears insufficient for a comprehensive assessment of the real-life classroom experiences faced by both learners and teachers in preparation for the schools' year-end outcomes. Therefore, it is essential to consider the process of achieving favourable results through undertaking classroom observations. Evaluating a school's success based solely on year-end results does not provide a complete picture. Teachers and learners encounter challenges that may go unnoticed by stakeholders who are not actively present in the classroom. According to Siddiqua (2019:54-55), teachers have found observation sessions highly beneficial for their professional development, enabling them to identify and reflect upon critical classroom events. When conducted in regular cycles, classroom observations empower teachers to focus on improving their actions and develop a diverse range of strategies. Additionally, teachers have noted that the feedback they receive helps them identify their strengths and weaknesses and also exposes them to other ways of teaching (Atkinson & Bolt 2010:16). In the case of this study, although participants agreed to be observed, observations seemed to be something new to them and they seemed to be uncomfortable about the idea. For example, Teacher 1 mentioned to me that the experience of being observed was unnerving. I could also see that the two facilitators at the Art School demonstrated little confidence during their teaching, which may be related to the fact that they were being observed or inadequate practical exposure to teaching. Due to this, I created a comfortable environment by adopting a friendly and reassuring approach explaining that I am also a facilitator and that my purpose was not to find fault but to learn from their experiences so that we can formulate solutions to the challenges they face as EFAL facilitators. This language programme evaluation used observations as one of the tools to identify the realities that EFAL teachers deal with as a means of achieving the main research objective: to find ways to provide language teaching in township schools that is meaningful for the learners and that helps to reduce some of the inequities in the education system.

7.4.1 Features of the observation card

To ensure consistency and a fair observation process, an observation card with the same features was used at both schools. So as not to interfere with or complicate the observation process, the selected criteria gauged the most prominent components of teaching. The following is a list of features observed in each class:

- Lesson type / topic / objectives
- Teaching processes (pre-, during- and post-task activity processes) and approaches
- Language usage
- Feedback/ error correction
- Time management and practicalities
- Critical thinking and advanced abilities
- Learning materials and resources
- Assessment and progress monitoring
- Rapport in the classroom

In addition to these features, the researcher included an additional section where any relevant comments and information could be noted that were not covered by the observation card.

7.4.2 Covered sections of the CAPS

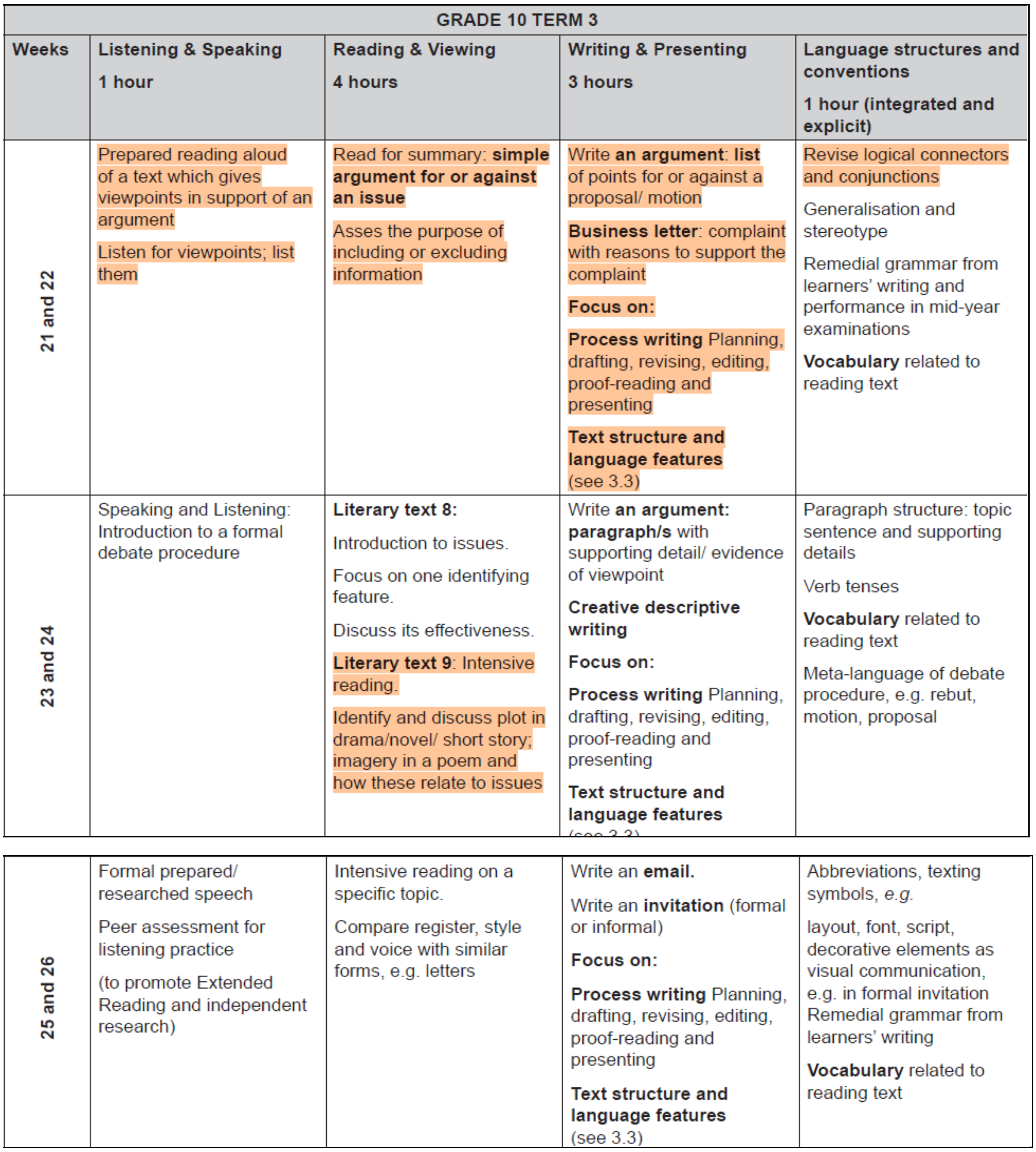
With each class observed, the researcher recorded events according to the mentioned observation card features and provided additional notes where necessary. In the discussion that follows, a narrative is provided for each lesson observed. This is followed by a succinct summary of the observed criteria. It is important to note that at the time of the school visits, the two schools were covering different sections of the curriculum. The content topics and variations are included in the table below.

Table 16: Observation Schedule

Classes observed	**Farm School**	**Art School**
Lesson 1	Feedback: Paper 2 Midyear Examination	Reading & Viewing: Diary Text
Lesson 2	Feedback: Paper 2 Mid-year Examination (cont.) and Introduction of Listening & Speaking Activity	Reading & Viewing: Diary Text (cont.)
Lesson 3	Reading & Viewing Skills	Writing skill: Informal Letter
Lesson 4	• Language Conventions and structures: Antonyms • Writing & Presenting: Argumentative Essay	Feedback: Informal Letter Literature: Poetry
Lesson 5	Language Structures & Conventions: Metaphor and Simile	Feedback: Poetry Comprehension Activity
Lesson 6	Language Structures and Conventions: Conjunctions	Writing Skill: Dialogue Conventions
Lesson 7	Language Structures and Conventions: Conjunctions (cont.)	Writing Skill: Dialogue Conventions (cont.)
Lesson 8	Writing Process: Formal Letter	
Lesson 9	Speaking/Oral Skills	
Lesson 10	Literature: Short Story “I am not talking about that now”	

The table above illustrates that more work was covered at the Farm School, compared to the Art School, with the Farm School covering all the suggested skills. As reported in Chapter 5, Section 3 of the CAPS document outlines the suggested content to be delivered in the Grade 10 EFAL classrooms over a two-week period (DBE 2011a:19-46). The Farm School was observed during weeks 21-23 and the Art School was observed during weeks 24-26 according to the pacing in the CAPS document (DBE 2011a:57). The following table indicates highlighted topics that were covered during the six-week observation period at the respective schools.

Table 17: Pacing schedule from the CAPS document



GRADE 10 TERM 3				
Weeks	**Listening & Speaking** **1 hour**	**Reading & Viewing** **4 hours**	**Writing & Presenting** **3 hours**	**Language structures and conventions** **1 hour (integrated and explicit)**
21 and 22	Prepared reading aloud of a text which gives viewpoints in support of an argument Listen for viewpoints; list them	Read for summary: **simple argument for or against an issue** Asses the purpose of including or excluding information	Write **an argument**: **list** of points for or against a proposal/ motion **Business letter**: complaint with reasons to support the complaint **Focus on:** **Process writing** Planning, drafting, revising, editing, proof-reading and presenting **Text structure and language features** (see 3.3)	Revise logical connectors and conjunctions Generalisation and stereotype Remedial grammar from learners' writing and performance in mid-year examinations **Vocabulary** related to reading text
23 and 24	Speaking and Listening: Introduction to a formal debate procedure	**Literary text 8:** Introduction to issues. Focus on one identifying feature. Discuss its effectiveness. **Literary text 9**: Intensive reading. Identify and discuss plot in drama/novel/ short story; imagery in a poem and how these relate to issues	Write **an argument: paragraph/s** with supporting detail/ evidence of viewpoint **Creative descriptive writing** **Focus on:** **Process writing** Planning, drafting, revising, editing, proof-reading and presenting **Text structure and language features** (see 3.3)	Paragraph structure: topic sentence and supporting details Verb tenses **Vocabulary** related to reading text Meta-language of debate procedure, e.g. rebut, motion, proposal
25 and 26	Formal prepared/ researched speech Peer assessment for listening practice (to promote Extended Reading and independent research)	Intensive reading on a specific topic. Compare register, style and voice with similar forms, e.g. letters	Write an **email.** Write an **invitation** (formal or informal) **Focus on:** **Process writing** Planning, drafting, revising, editing, proof-reading and presenting **Text structure and language features** (see 3.3)	Abbreviations, texting symbols, *e.g.* layout, font, script, decorative elements as visual communication, e.g. in formal invitation Remedial grammar from learners' writing **Vocabulary** related to reading text

(DBE 2011a:57)

The Farm School mostly adhered to the pacing and content suggested by CAPS, whereas the Art School only managed to cover literary text 9 which was a poem. Since the Farm School has a recommended textbook, this may be the reason why they managed to adhere to the pacing schedule. Failure to cover content according to the pacing schedule at the Art School may be attributed to the lack of textbooks and the fact that there was more than one facilitator who was not necessarily a qualified teacher facilitating the class. It is important to note that the suggested content may not be equally covered across schools due to various factors such as shortages of resources and the level of learners.

7.4.3 Class observations at Farm School

Lesson 1: Mid-year examination Paper 2 feedback

Wednesday 20 July, 11:10-12:30 (1hr 15mins)

In the first lesson of the term, Teacher 1 facilitated a comprehensive revision and feedback session, reflecting on the mid-year Paper 2 literature examination written at the end of term 2 as required in the CAPS document (DBE 2011a:56). Specifically, the focus was on dissecting the literature questions in the examination paper which comprised two distinct sections: one dedicated to drama, featuring "The African Dustbin" (Mtumbani 2006) and the other centred around a short story, "The Park" (Matthews 1983). Learners were given back their scripts to verify their marks.

Central to the objectives of this lesson was providing learners with constructive feedback on their understanding and application of literary elements, particularly figures of speech such as metaphor and simile, alongside a deepened comprehension of the concept of setting within a narrative. The lesson started with a clear articulation of its primary aim: to offer feedback on the summative literature examination written at the end of the second term of the year 2022. To facilitate an interactive feedback session, the teacher randomly assigned different learners to read various segments of the drama and short story texts. Concurrently, the teacher corrected any mispronunciations on the spot during the reading of the text, ensuring linguistic accuracy and fluency.

Following the oral reading, the teacher guided learners through a series of probing questions, encouraging active participation. Learners were afforded the opportunity to articulate their responses, with the teacher navigating their contributions, providing explanations, and supplementing with illustrative examples to strengthen comprehension. However, learners seemed reluctant to participate. To encourage participation, the teacher employed a personalized approach, actively engaging learners through calling them by their names, trying to elicit thoughtful responses and encouraging deeper exploration of the subject matter. However, this did not seem to be a complete success as learners continued to mumble answers.

Despite the informal nature of the activity, which was supposed to foster a comfortable and inclusive atmosphere conducive to learning, there existed potential avenues for further enrichment. For instance, incorporating a segment dedicated to highlighting challenging vocabulary or assigning homework tasks aimed at defining difficult terms could enhance and reinforce lexical proficiency and ensure progress in this part of language learning.

Table 18: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 1

Objectives	**Teaching processes/ approach**	**Language(s) used**	**Feedback/ error correction**	**Time/ practicalities**	**Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities**	**Materials/ Resources**	**Assessment/ monitoring progress**	**Rapport / atmosphere**
Paper 2 mid-year examination feedback	Teachers and learners were unpacking exam answers	English and vernacular	Answers provided in full	Incomplete lesson	Nature of the exam required learners to think critically	Access to test paper and marked scripts	Feedback on Paper 2	Learners were reluctant to share answers

Lesson 2: Listening & Speaking

Thursday 21 July, 10:30-11:10 (40 minutes)

The first part of this session was a continuation of the Paper 2 examination feedback. Following this segment, Teacher 1 introduced the topic of "Listening & Speaking" without explicitly stating the lesson objective, although it was briefly communicated verbally to the learners. The text that guided this lesson came from the Platinum EFAL textbook for Grade 10 (Awerbuck *et al.* 2011:139), with the theme of "Women's Day".

Teacher 1 started the lesson by prompting learners to analyse a picture on page 139, activating schemata and encouraging them to describe their observations orally. This also ties in with the element of "Reading & Viewing" (DBE 2011a:28-35). This activity served as a preparatory exercise for engaging with the subsequent oral text. Lacking access to an overhead projector or sound equipment, Teacher 1 orally presented the text from the Platinum EFAL textbook (Awerbuck *et al.* 2011:139), prompting learners to listen attentively. The reading of the text was only done once. This activity integrated various skills which adheres to the skills-neutral approach suggested by Weideman (2021:25), indicating that skills do not have to be taught in isolation.

Upon completing the reading, Teacher 1 posed questions based on the oral text, aiming to elicit learner responses. However, challenges arose as some learners encountered difficulty articulating their thoughts in English, with one learner resorting to vernacular. Efforts to encourage English usage met with reluctance from the learner, suggesting a lack of confidence and comfort with the language.

Participation in the listening activity was notably low, with fewer than five learners actively responding to questions. This limited engagement may have been due to their low English proficiency levels which made it challenging to gauge the appropriateness of the text's difficulty level, indicating a potential need for additional time for comprehension.

The lesson concluded without learners having the opportunity to showcase their level of understanding of the oral text. As homework for the next class, learners were tasked with reading a comprehension passage on page 141 and responding to selected questions for the Reading and Viewing lesson.

Table 19: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 2

Objectives	**Teaching processes/approach**	**Language(s) used**	**Feedback/ error correction**	**Time/ practicalities**	**Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities**	**Materials/ resources**	**Assessment/ monitoring progress**	**Rapport / atmosphere**
Completion of Paper 2 examination feedback Listening & Speaking lesson	Listening & Speaking process observed (DBE 2011a:19-27)	Teacher mostly used English, and learners used a mix of English and vernacular	Provided in full	Managed to achieve lesson objectives	The exam question paper is designed to enforce critical thinking skills. The L&S activity required basic understanding of the text	Access to exam paper and marked scripts Platinum learner textbook and teacher manual (Awerbuck *et al.*2011)	Feedback on the exam paper Listening and Speaking activity monitored	Minimal engagement by learners

Lesson 3: Reading & Viewing

Monday 25 July, 14:00-14:40 (40 minutes)

To prepare for this lesson, Teacher 1 provided learners with an opportunity to engage with the text from the Platinum EFAL textbook (Awerbuck *et al.* 2011:141) and to answer pre-selected questions aimed at developing their reading and viewing skills. The lesson began with Teacher 1 guiding the learners through the glossary, focusing on the key vocabulary essential for understanding the text. Learners chorally read the vocabulary along with the provided definitions. However, Teacher 1 did not encourage contextual use of the words or verify comprehension beyond the definitions provided in the textbook.

Following this, the class proceeded to read the text itself, with Teacher 1 assigning different learners to read sections consecutively. Despite this, there was no systematic approach to unpacking the text paragraph by paragraph or addressing challenging vocabulary. Teacher 1 did emphasize the importance of punctuation and corrected pronunciation errors, indicating a general struggle among learners with certain words. Upon completing the reading, Teacher 1 did not offer a comprehensive explanation of the text.

While the lesson followed an informal structure, aligning with the requirements of CAPS and the textbook, the text's difficulty seemed to have exceeded the learners' proficiency levels. This was evident in their struggles with reading and comprehension, despite their confidence in answering homework questions. Teacher 1's ability to monitor individual progress seemed to have been challenged by the large class size. Nonetheless, efforts were made to ensure completion of tasks, such as reviewing work with learners who struggled to answer questions during class.

Table 20: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 3

Objectives	**Teaching processes/approach**	**Language(s) used**	**Feedback/ error correction**	**Time/ practicalities**	**Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities**	**Materials/ Resources**	**Assessment/ monitoring progress**	**Rapport / atmosphere**
Reading comprehension	Reading & Viewing process observed (DBE 2011a:28)	English and vernacular	Provided with a lack of depth	Managed to achieve lesson objectives	Basic understanding	Platinum EFAL textbook (Awerbuck *et.al* 2011)	Facilitating p. 141 Platinum textbook activity with minimal observation of comprehension of the text	Learners were involved in the reading of the text

Lesson 4: Language Conventions and Structures, and Writing & Presenting Skills

Tuesday 26 July, 13:20-14:40 (1hr 10minutes)

In this lesson, although the objectives were not explicitly outlined to the learners, the focus was on teaching antonyms (DBE 2011a:46) and introducing argumentative essay writing (DBE 2011a:35). The lesson began with a review of the previous session, followed by an activity on antonyms using a different text. Teacher 1 explained the concept of antonyms and facilitated a group activity in which learners were tasked with identifying antonyms for words written on the chalkboard. To model the activity, Teacher 1 employed guiding questions and prompts, encouraging learners to participate in eliciting antonyms. For instance, she would say, "If it is not many, then it is…?", prompting responses such as few or limited. Though she could not interact with each learner individually, Teacher 1 circulated the class to ensure learners remained engaged. During the antonym activity, learners conversed in vernacular.

Upon completing the task, Teacher 1 transitioned to introducing argumentative essay writing. She explained the concept of an argumentative essay and presented a prompt on the board: "Boys and girls should attend the same school", instructing learners to write an argumentative essay in response to the prompt without any explanation to guide the writing process or an opportunity to orally engage with the topic to activate schemata. While this prompt appeared to be level-appropriate, provided learners could engage with the topic and integrate their own perspectives, Teacher 1 omitted providing a specific format for structuring an argumentative essay. A process-oriented approach to essay writing suggested in the CAPS document (DBE 2011a: 35-37) could have offered guidance on the essay's structure and elements could have been scaffolded. More time was allocated to the essay writing task. The nature of the task required learners to subtly apply their understanding of antonyms and use language that is applicable in real-life situations as the communicative approach dictates (Maryslessor, Barasa & Omulando 2014:83). Both tasks conducted during the lesson were informal in nature, possibly aimed at gauging learners' comprehension of antonyms and argumentative writing abilities. The argumentative essay opened room for learners to critically think about their stances in line with the prompt and support ideas as they composed their essays.

Table 21: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 4

Objectives	Teaching processes and approach	Language(s) used	Feedback/ error correction	Time/ practicalities	Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities	Materials/ resources	Assessment/ monitoring progress	Rapport / atmosphere
Language Conventions and Structures, and Writing & Presenting Skills	Writing process not observed (DBE 2011a:35-37) Process approach not observed (DBE 2011a:16)	English and vernacular	Provided on the spot for the activity on antonyms	Managed to achieve lesson objectives	Basic understanding	Prompt provided on chalkboard	Essay completed as homework	Comfortable atmosphere for leaners to participate- teacher encouraged participation

Lesson 5: Language Structures & Conventions: Metaphor and simile

Wednesday 27 July, 11:10-11:50 (40min)

In lesson 5, Teacher 1 commenced by introducing the objective of the lesson: for learners to engage in a vocabulary activity integrating figures of speech such as simile and metaphor. Following this, Teacher 1 elucidated the concept of literature and its components, while also drawing a clear distinction between simile and metaphor. Although examples were provided, learners were not afforded the opportunity to contribute their own examples, limiting the reinforcement of their understanding. Subsequently, Teacher 1 assigned a multiple-choice activity from the Platinum textbook (Awerbuck *et al.* 2011) aimed at enhancing learners' vocabulary. The task was informal, with learners instructed to complete it individually. Throughout the activity, Teacher 1 moved around the classroom to monitor progress and offer assistance to learners as needed. Concluding the session, Teacher 1 collected the exercise books for grading outside of class time.

Table 22: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 5

Objectives	**Teaching processes/approach**	**Language(s) used**	**Feedback/ error correction**	**Time/ practicalities**	**Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities**	**Materials/ resources**	**Assessment/ monitoring progress**	**Rapport / atmosphere**
Language structures & conventions	Teacher's creativity- Teacher centred Limited learner verbal interaction	Mostly English, some vernacular	Exercise books marked after class	Managed to achieve lesson objectives	Basic understanding	Platinum textbook (Awerbuck *et al.* 2011)	Teacher moved around to monitor the activity	Inhibiting atmosphere

Lesson 6: Language Structures and Conventions: conjunctions, and Writing Skills
Thursday 28 July, 12:40-14:00 (1hr 20 minutes)

Teacher 1 revisited Lesson 4 by briefly outlining the structure of an argumentative essay, highlighting its components as introduction, body, and conclusion. However, crucial elements such as a thesis statement and how to provide supporting details were omitted from the explanation, and the structure was not visually presented for enhanced comprehension.

To provide feedback on the previous task on argumentative essay writing, Teacher 1 selected random learners to read their essays aloud, tabulating key points on the chalkboard in response to the prompt "Boys and girls should attend the same school". While monitoring the readings, Teacher 1 corrected pronunciation and pacing, with responses provided by learners in both English and vernacular. Efforts were made to encourage English responses, although this posed challenges for some learners. Despite the opportunity for learner participation, there was still a significant amount of teacher talk time, limiting opportunities for learners to express themselves and utilize English language skills effectively during the session.

Following the argumentative essay reading, Teacher 1 introduced the topic of conjunctions, providing a brief explanation without eliciting examples or discussing various types of conjunctions. Subsequently, learners were tasked with an activity on conjunctions on page 146 of the Platinum textbook (Awerbuck *et al.* 2011). Throughout this activity, Teacher 1 circulated to ensure learners remained focused. Teacher 1 seemed to have not understood the relationship between the grammar point and writing task, specifically that they were meant to complement each other so that learners could use conjunctions to compose sentences that are grammatically correct and well punctuated.

Upon completion of the task, Teacher 1 reviewed answers and prompted learners to assess their own work. Both activities conducted in this lesson were informal and aligned with the appropriate level according to CAPS standards.

Table 23: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 6

Objectives	Teaching processes/approach	Language(s) used	Feedback/ error correction	Time/ practicalities	Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities	Materials/ resources	Assessment/ monitoring progress	Rapport / atmosphere
Reading aloud and pronunciation, revision of essay writing, Conjunctions	Essay writing process briefly explained	English and vernacular	Provided in full	Managed to achieve lesson objectives	Basic under= standing	Chalkboard/ Access to Platinum textbook (Awerbuck et.al 2011)	Informal activity Feedback reviewed on the spot	Not enough opportunity for learner engagement

Lesson 7: Language Structures and Conventions: Conjunctions (cont.)

Friday 29 July, 10:30-11:10 (40 minutes)

This lesson was a continuation of the topic on conjunctions. The entire lesson was spent on an additional conjunction worksheet in the form of a gap-fill activity. The activity was completed individually with the teacher moving around to assist. There was no opportunity for feedback.

Table 24: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 7

Objectives	Teaching processes/approach	Language(s) used	Feedback/ error correction	Time/ practicalities	Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities	Materials/ resources	Assessment/ monitoring progress	Rapport / atmosphere
Conjunctions	Peer learning: while learners were working on an individual task they kept discussing questions and possible answers amongst each other.	Teacher used English to give instructions; learners used vernacular to explain questions to each other	Feedback not provided	Managed to achieve lesson objectives	Not included	Worksheet	Informal	Learners directly engaged with the activity and seemed to be enjoying discussing answers with their peers.

Lesson 8: Writing Process: Formal Letter

Monday 1 August, 09:10-09:50 (40mins)

In this lesson, a process-oriented approach was employed to instruct learners about formal letter writing, which is an outdated mode of communication as emails are used more prominently today. Teacher 1 initiated the lesson by activating prior knowledge, prompting learners to identify various modes of communication. When letter writing was mentioned, Teacher 1 introduced the objective of the lesson. On the chalkboard, the format of a formal letter was modelled, emphasizing the inclusion of two addresses, date, salutation, subject, and a complementary closing. Throughout the modelling process, Teacher 1 encouraged learner participation and addressed any queries raised by the learners. However, due to time constraints, Teacher 1 was unable to facilitate additional activities as originally planned. Instead, most of the lesson was dedicated to guiding learners through the purpose and format of a formal letter. This task formed part of the required DBE assessment tasks during Weeks 21 and 22 of the first term (DBE 2011a:57). The task was completed after the classroom observation period had expired. However, the evaluator was given a sample of learner work for analysis.

Table 25: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 8

Objectives	Teaching processes/ approach	Language(s) used	Feedback/ error correction	Time/ practicalities	Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities	Materials/ Resources	Assessment/ monitoring progress	Rapport / atmosphere
Formal letter	Teacher centred Writing process (DBE 2011a:35	English and vernacular	Teacher attended to questions	Objectives not fully met	Basic understanding of letter writing	Chalkboard	None observed	Learners seemed motivated to learn about letter writing

Lesson 9: Oral, Task 7- Prepared Read Aloud

Tuesday 2 August, 08:30-09:50 (40 minutes)

In preparation for the oral summative assessment, this lesson aimed to equip learners with the necessary oral skills essential for success in the formal read-aloud assessment scheduled for the end of the term. To exemplify proficient oral reading skills, Teacher 1 selected four learners to read the selected oral text in front of the class. These learners were provided with a text to review individually for five minutes before presenting it to the rest of the class. Following their readings, they returned to their seats. After that, Teacher 1 read the text aloud and prompted the class to provide feedback on the oral reading skills demonstrated, highlighting instances of effective oral reading. Learners offered brief responses, predominantly in vernacular, assisting Teacher 1 in assessing their comprehension of oral reading considerations. Throughout this interaction, Teacher 1 documented significant considerations for oral presentations on the chalkboard. Moreover, Teacher 1 discussed important considerations of oral presentations, emphasizing the importance of being audible, maintaining eye contact, and exuding confidence, among other essential aspects. This informal activity elucidated the expectations for learners during the oral reading assessment, fostering a clearer understanding among the learners. The session ended with the teacher concluding that learners needed to be confident and effective communicators.

Table 26: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 9

Objectives	**Teaching processes/approach**	**Language(s) used**	**Feedback/ error correction**	**Time/ practicalities**	**Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities**	**Materials/ resources**	**Assessment/ monitoring progress**	**Rapport / atmosphere**
Oral Skills	Process approach observed (DBE 2011a:16)	English and vernacular	Provided on the spot	Managed to achieve lesson objectives	Basic understanding	Chalkboard	Teacher informally assessed learning while supporting learners as they completed the oral activity	Pleasant and engaging

Lesson 10: Literature

Wednesday 3 August, 11:10-12:30(1hr 20 minutes)

The focal point of this lesson was the short story "I am not talking about that now" (Magona 2003). The primary objective was to engage learners in an informal reading of the story. Prior to commencing the reading, Teacher 1 encouraged learners to identify challenging words and look them up independently after class, promoting self-directed learning. Although the reading of the short story could not be completed within the lesson timeframe, learners were afforded the opportunity to take turns reading. Throughout the reading session, Teacher 1 emphasized the importance of paying attention to punctuation and pronunciation which disturbed the flow of the reading and potentially interfered with the understanding of the text. Due to time constraints and unforeseen circumstances, such as one learner experiencing emotional distress during the reading, the planned activities, including a gap-fill activity, vocabulary exercise, and critical thinking questions, could not be completed. Teacher 1 went outside with the anxious learner to discuss the incident. This incident underscored the ongoing challenge some Grade 10 learners face regarding confidence in reading. It highlighted the need for continued support and encouragement to foster confidence and proficiency in reading among all learners.

Table 27: Synoptic summary of class observation—Farm School, Lesson 10

Objectives	**Teaching processes/approach**	**Language(s) used**	**Feedback/ error correction**	**Time/ practicalities**	**Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities**	**Materials/ resources**	**Assessment/ monitoring progress**	**Rapport / atmosphere**
Literature	Teacher's discretion and creativity (DBE 2011a:16)	English and vernacular	Pronunciation was corrected on the spot	Objectives not fully met due to the distressed learner	Included in the activity but not completed	Photocopy of the short story, "I am not talking about that now".	Teacher monitored learners' reading mistakes as well as pronunciation mistakes.	Threatening as learners waited on the teacher to point out their reading mistakes

7.4.4 Class observations at Art School

Lesson 1: Reading and Viewing

Wednesday 10 August, 11:00-12:00 (1hr)

At the start of the lesson, learners had to go outside to find chairs and desks for the class. This was not successful, and some had to share desks and chairs. The focus for the first lesson observed at the Art School was on reading a diary entry. The learning objectives were not thoroughly explained or written on the chalkboard. This lesson was facilitated by a Teacher Trainee (TT1) from a university as the main teacher was asked to assist a Grade 12 group of learners with preparations for preliminary examinations. The lesson started with TT1 distributing the text and asking the learners to read the text and complete the comprehension activity. Both TT1 and learners did not have a textbook. It was unclear from which book the diary text activity had been extracted. What is known is that the recommended text for diary entries is 80-100 words (DBE 2011a:45). There was no pre-teaching of the vocabulary. Whilst the learners were performing the task in their classwork books, TT1 remained seated for most of the time, occasionally checking to see if learners were still working on the task. Learners were talking among themselves in Sesotho as they tried to explain questions to each other. Since the class was small, managing the conversations seemed not to be a problem. The dominant language used as TT1 tried to assist with the task was Sesotho as the learners battled to understand English. The nature of the task required learners to read intensively and demonstrate their understanding through answering questions in line with the text. However, during the feedback segment which TT1 facilitated 45 minutes later, learners struggled to respond in English as they mostly answered in Sesotho. Their responses were mostly in line with the questions. This indicated a certain level of question comprehension. However, their challenge was to respond in English. The teacher resorted to providing the correct answers, which left the learners confused as they did not get the opportunity to discuss the text as a class, share perspectives and their understanding of the text.

Table 28: Synoptic summary of class observation—Art School, Lesson 1

Objectives	**Teaching processes/approach**	**Language(s) used**	**Feedback/ error correction**	**Time/ practicalities**	**Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities**	**Materials/ Resources**	**Assessment/ monitoring progress**	**Rapport / atmosphere**
Reading & Viewing: Diary text	Reading process not observed (DBE 2011a:10)	English and vernacular	Feedback was rushed	Objective partially achieved	Basic understanding of the diary entry	Access to photocopies of the diary text	Limited monitoring	The teacher seemed to only be interested in getting the task completed.

Lesson 2: Reading & Viewing: Diary Text cont.

Thursday 11 August, 10:30-11:30 (1hr)

A second Teacher Trainee (TT2) facilitated this class. The arrangement was that the two trainee teachers alternate. This session was a repetition of the previous lesson. Learners did not disclose that the activity used for this lesson was completed the previous day. There were only a few remaining questions to be answered from the previous lesson. This revealed that there was no planning or communication between the teachers. TT2 asked the learners to take out the text and identified one learner to read out the whole text to the class as the rest of the learners listened. Similarly to the Farm School, mispronunciation was corrected on the spot during the reading. TT2 facilitated the lesson in Sesotho except when she read the English text or questions. She asked questions in English and explained answers in Sesotho. The use of Sesotho seems to have assisted learners to understand the text, but it was not clear if they understood the text in English. Upon completion of the reading, TT2 provided feedback. There was no opportunity to unpack the text to ensure comprehension. The session was teacher centred as learners only spoke when they were answering questions and in their answers their code was restricted. The task was informal and seemed to be advanced for this group of learners as they struggled to answer questions in English. Learners were most comfortable to provide answers that they were familiar with from the previous lesson.

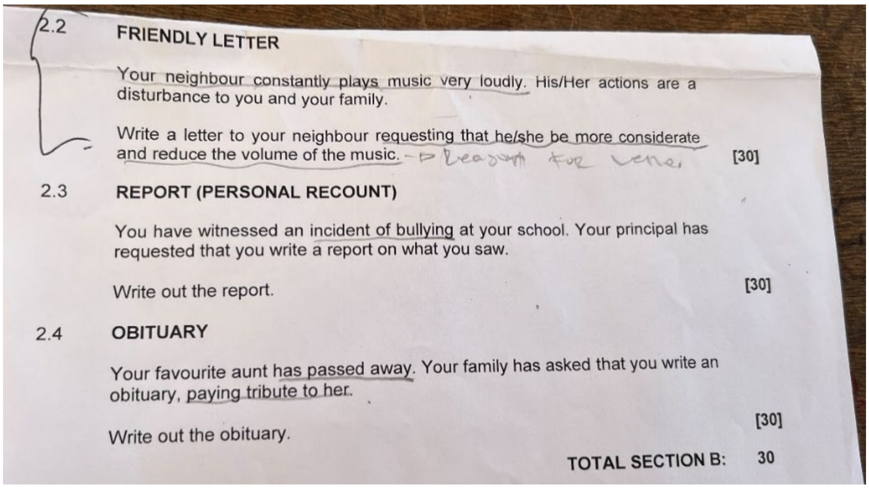
Table 29: Synoptic summary of class observation—Art School, Lesson 2

Objectives	Teaching processes/ approach	Language(s) used	Feedback/ error correction	Time/ practicalities	Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities	Materials/ resources	Assessment/ monitoring progress	Rapport / atmosphere
Diary text	Reading process not observed (DBE 2011a:10)	Mostly Sesotho	Feedback was rushed	Objective was unclear	Basic understanding	Access to the diary text	Limited monitoring	Teacher dominated

Lesson 3: Writing skill: Informal letter

Friday 12 August, 10:00-11:00 (1hr)

This session started 15 minutes late due to learners once again trying to find chairs and desks. This session was right after lunchtime and there is a tendency at the school for learners to remove furniture from other classes during lunchtime which causes delays. The primary focus of this lesson was to introduce learners to writing an informal letter. This lesson was taught by both trainee teachers with one teacher covering the format of letter writing and the other facilitating an activity related to letter writing. At some point the trainee teachers were teaching interchangeably and assisting each other. TT1 started the lesson by handing out a letter text without clearly explaining the objectives. She then assigned one learner to read the letter to the class. During the reading, both TTs helped learners with pronunciation. Upon completion of the reading, TT1 interpreted the letter in Sesotho and explained the different parts of an informal letter highlighting its function, level of formality and format. This was mostly done in Sesotho which made it difficult to gauge the learner's understanding of the content in English. Learners seemed to comprehend the lesson better in Sesotho. The interpretation of the letter was followed by an editing activity that learners had to complete in line with letter writing. The task was taken from the Grade 9 English literature examination Paper 2, which means it was of a lower level and expected to be easier for Grade 10 learners. Ideally, an editing task requires learners to identify and correct mistakes. Instead, the mistakes were already highlighted and identified for learners; all they had to do was correct them. Upon completion of the activity, both TTs realized that the majority of the learners had battled with the activity and did not seem to understand the instructions for the activity. This was evident when learners showed a lack of understanding when they had to respond to a question which required them to quote from the text and another which required them to pluralize nouns. The TTs had to use a Sesotho term to explain what it means to quote. When they said “ke ditsebe” meaning “ears”, the learners remembered what quotation marks are. To help learners understand quotation marks, teachers tend to compare them to “ditsebe/ears”. In clarifying what it means to pluralize, TT1 asked what the opposite of plural is, to which the learners responded “unplural” and “plurals”. Such responses at Grade 10 level casts suspicion on their level of English proficiency. Their inability to understand such concepts in an activity designed for a lower-level class revealed the reality that English teachers deal with in Grade 10 EFAL classes. Upon completion of the activity, there was not enough time for feedback. The class ended with the TTs giving learners the task below as homework, which falls under Term 1 on the pacing schedule (DBE 2011a:53), and creates the impression that the TTs were not aware of the pacing schedule and content to be covered each school term.



2.2 **FRIENDLY LETTER**

Your neighbour constantly plays music very loudly. His/Her actions are a disturbance to you and your family.

Write a letter to your neighbour requesting that he/she be more considerate and reduce the volume of the music. → Reason for vene [30]

2.3 **REPORT (PERSONAL RECOUNT)**

You have witnessed an incident of bullying at your school. Your principal has requested that you write a report on what you saw.

Write out the report. [30]

2.4 **OBITUARY**

Your favourite aunt has passed away. Your family has asked that you write an obituary, paying tribute to her.

Write out the obituary. [30]

TOTAL SECTION B: 30

Figure 15: Friendly letter prompt

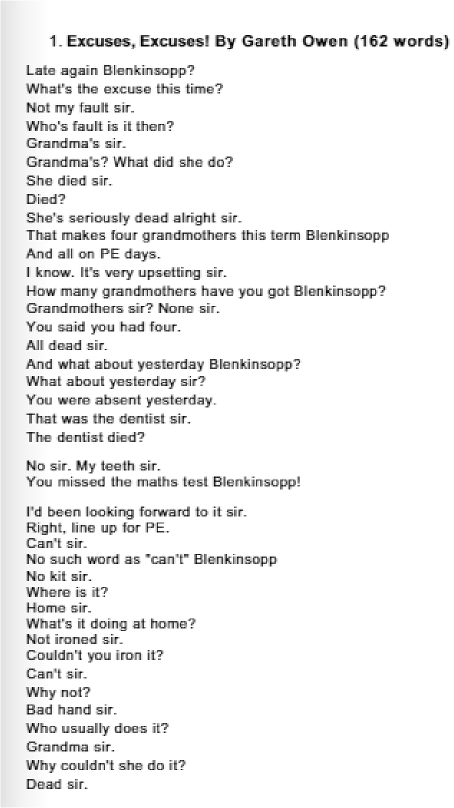
Table 30: Synoptic summary of class observation—Art School, Lesson 3

Objectives	Teaching processes/approach	Language(s) used	Feedback/ error correction	Time/ practicalities	Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities	Materials/ Resources	Assessment/ monitoring progress	Rapport / atmosphere
Informal letter	Writing process not observed	Mostly Sesotho	Feedback was provided	Objective unclear	Basic understanding	Friendly letter prompt	Limited monitoring	Intimidating

Lesson 4: Literature- Poetry

Monday 15 August, 08:00-09:00 (1hr)

This lesson started 10 minutes late due to learners trying to find furniture. T2, the appointed class teacher introduced the poem “Excuses Excuses” (Owen 2001) and asked learners if they knew the meaning of the word “excuse”. She probed in English, but learners answered in Sesotho. She then encouraged learners to use English. She continued to probe until she gathered a solid definition and wrote it on the chalkboard. T2 went on to read the poem and as she read the poem, she stopped to highlight interesting and important parts of the poem. T2 distributed a copy of the poem and asked learners to read with her. When she finished reading the poem, she went through questions in the activity for the learners to answer during the lesson. She provided a brief explanation of the questions to help learners better understand them without thoroughly unpacking the poem. T2 used both Sesotho and English. This seemed to happen in a natural way. Although she mostly used English, she seemed to have an urge to explain certain concepts in Sesotho. T2 asked questions about the poem to gauge the learners’ comprehension. Learners seemed to be more comfortable responding in Sesotho as their responses were more elaborate than when they responded in English. After unpacking the poem and interpreting the questions, learners were given the opportunity to complete the activity. T2 moved around to attend to learners who needed help. Though the lesson was deemed to be suitable for this cohort, there were challenges as they completed the activity. Part of the activity required learners to punctuate and negate sentences. Learners did not seem to understand the function of the most common punctuation marks. One learner mentioned that a comma is used to end a sentence, and the rest of the class did not know what an apostrophe was until T2 wrote it on the chalkboard. She wrote “didn’t” to refresh their memories and only after this did the learners demonstrate their understanding. Because of limited time, the poem activity could not be completed during this session and was given to learners as homework.



1. Excuses, Excuses! By Gareth Owen (162 words)

Late again Blenkinsopp?
What's the excuse this time?
Not my fault sir.
Who's fault is it then?
Grandma's sir.
Grandma's? What did she do?
She died sir.
Died?
She's seriously dead alright sir.
That makes four grandmothers this term Blenkinsopp
And all on PE days.
I know. It's very upsetting sir.
How many grandmothers have you got Blenkinsopp?
Grandmothers sir? None sir.
You said you had four.
All dead sir.
And what about yesterday Blenkinsopp?
What about yesterday sir?
You were absent yesterday.
That was the dentist sir.
The dentist died?

No sir. My teeth sir.
You missed the maths test Blenkinsopp!

I'd been looking forward to it sir.
Right, line up for PE.
Can't sir.
No such word as "can't" Blenkinsopp
No kit sir.
Where is it?
Home sir.
What's it doing at home?
Not ironed sir.
Couldn't you iron it?
Can't sir.
Why not?
Bad hand sir.
Who usually does it?
Grandma sir.
Why couldn't she do it?
Dead sir.

Figure 16: Poem "Excuses, Excuses" by Gareth Owen

Table 31: Synoptic summary of class observation—Art School, Lesson 4

Objectives	Teaching processes/approach	Language(s) used	Feedback/ error correction	Time/ practicalities	Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities	Materials/ Resources	Assessment/ monitoring progress	Rapport / atmosphere
Poetry	Teacher centred Approaches to teaching literature – teacher was creative (DBE 2011a:16-17)	Mostly English by the teacher and Sesotho by learners	Provided on the spot during the reading of the text.	Objective not fully achieved	Basic understanding	Photocopy of the poem	Teachers monitored and attended to questions	Not clearly observed- there was more teacher talking time as learners' participation was minimal

Lesson 5: Literature- Poetry continued

Tuesday 16 August, 08:30-09:00 (30mins)

TT1 facilitated this session without supervision of the class teacher. It was a feedback session on the previous activity based on the poem "Excuses Excuses". Most of the questions were completed after school as homework. TT1 provided feedback on the activity and mostly asked questions in Sesotho. She mostly read answers directly from the memorandum without providing further explanations and examples to strengthen the answers. Learners were able to answer questions they were familiar with from the previous session in English because they read the answers from their books. For additional questions, learners answered in Sesotho. The nature of the activity allowed learners to think critically, but they struggled with understanding questions. For example, question 1 required learners to provide an answer of two to three sentences, but the learners were only able to provide single-sentence answers. This indicated poor understanding of the instruction and inability to provide in-depth answers using the English language.

Table 32: Synoptic summary of class observation—Art School, Lesson 5

Objectives	**Teaching processes/approach**	**Language(s) used**	**Feedback/ error correction**	**Time/ practicalities**	**Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities**	**Materials/ resources**	**Assessment/ monitoring progress**	**Rapport / atmosphere**
Activity feedback: Poetry	Teacher centred and dominated- there was less interaction from the learners	Mostly Sesotho with some English	Read from the memorandum and not broken down for easy understanding	Managed to achieve lesson objective	Questions were beyond the level of the learners	Photocopies of the poem, chalkboard	Speaking of English was not encouraged as learners responded	Not clearly observed as the lesson was mostly one sided.

Lesson 6: Writing Skill- Dialogue Conventions

Wednesday 17 August, 11:00-12:00 (1hr)

TT2 facilitated this lesson alone. The session was on dialogue writing with the focus on question tags, punctuation, and capitalization. TT2 briefly explained the objective of the lesson, highlighting what a dialogue is and what the writing of a dialogue entails. TT2 wrote on the chalkboard features of dialogue as well as the layout as an example. To gauge learners' understanding, TT2 tasked a few learners with a board work activity in which she asked them to write mini dialogues entailing various features of dialogue writing. For example, one learner was asked to include a question tag in the dialogue. As learners wrote, they struggled with spelling and sentence construction, but the rest of the class was interactive and other learners assisted those doing the board work to construct meaningful sentences. The engagement during the board work activity was mostly in Sesotho. The learners doing the board work were also responsible for discussing salient features of the dialogue. The engagement created a comfortable space indicating the learners were used to learning English using Sesotho.

Table 33: Synoptic summary of class observation—Art School, Lesson 6

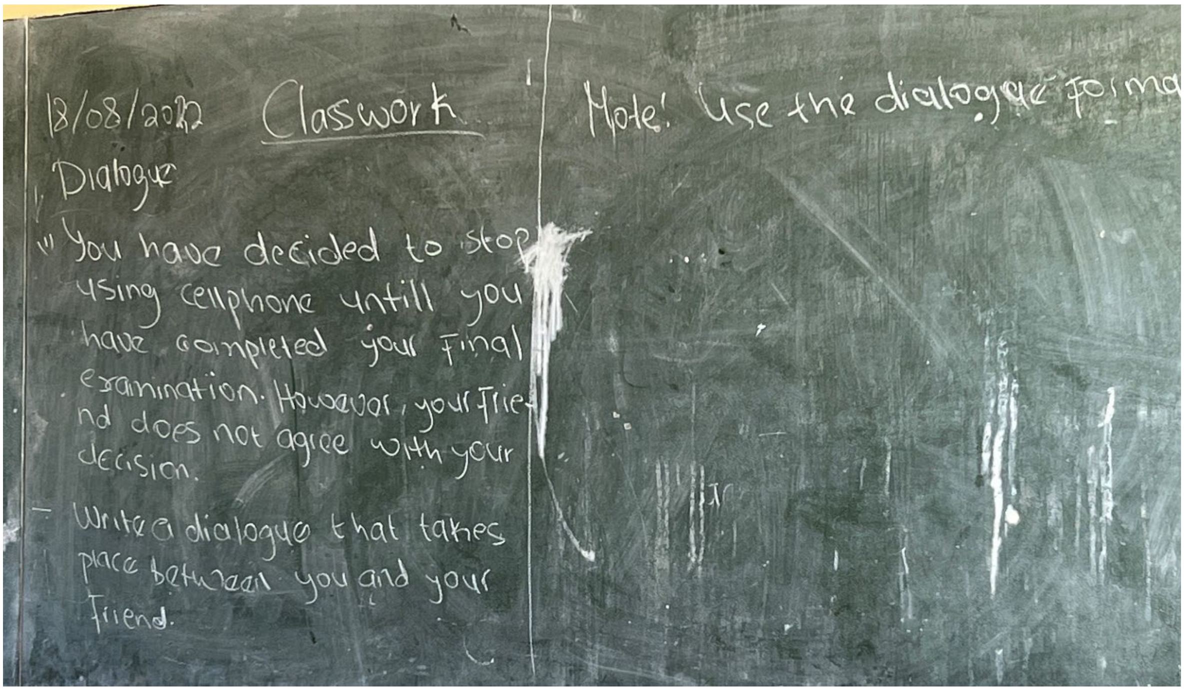
Objectives	Teaching processes/approach	Language(s) used	Feedback/ error correction	Time/ practicalities	Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities	Materials/ resources	Assessment/ monitoring progress	Rapport / atmosphere
Dialogue writing	Writing process (DBE 2011a:35)	Mostly Sesotho with some English	Discussion as a class	Managed to achieve lesson objectives	Basic understanding	Chalkboard	Interactive activity	Pleasant and engaging

Lesson 7: Writing Skill- Dialogue Conventions (cont.)

Thursday 18 August, 10:30-11:30 (1hr)

The last lesson observed was facilitated by TT2 as it was a continuation of the previous class on dialogue writing. The primary focus was on the placement of punctuation marks in dialogue writing. This does not give a true reflection of the purpose of dialogues. The lesson objectives did not fully address the main purpose. Teaching the features of dialogue without clarifying its purpose made the instruction feel decontextualized.

The lesson started with TT2 writing a sentence on the chalkboard for learners to punctuate. TT2 selected learners randomly to punctuate the sentence and opened the floor for the class to assist. She encouraged the learners doing the board work to provide reasons for the placement of the punctuation marks. In their participation they mostly used Sesotho. In one instance, a learner was trying to participate in English, but the TT2 said they should rather use vernacular to “save time”. Another learner expressed a concern that he wished to participate in English but was not able to do so. These cases prove that there are still learners at Grade 10 level who cannot express themselves in English. The use of Sesotho in the teaching and learning in this class was too dominant and created the impression that Sesotho was mostly the medium of instruction for teaching English, leaving less room for the learning of English. To ensure that learners understood the technical format and features of dialogue writing, a classwork activity was given. Because of limited time, this eventually was completed as homework.



18/08/2022 Classwork

Dialogue

1. "You have decided to stop
using cellphone untill you
have completed your final
examination. However, your frie-
nd does not agree with your
decision.

- Write a dialogue that takes
place between you and your
friend.

Note! Use the dialogue forma

Figure 17: Dialogue writing activity

The above prompt contains grammar and spelling errors, and its purpose seems unclear. The language on the chalkboard illustrates the type of English that learners are exposed to in some classrooms. This non-standard variety of English may influence the language use of the learners who see the teacher as the model language user:

Grammar/sentence construction

No article or possessive adjective before "cellphone"

Breaking up the word "friend" when words with one syllable cannot be written this way.

Spelling

United States spelling of "untill"

In addition to the above errors, the prompt instructs learners to write a dialogue without clear guidance on what direction the dialogue should take or how long it should be. For example, "Write a dialogue that takes place between you and your friend in which you provide reasons for your decision" may sound clearer, especially to learners with low English comprehension levels.

Table 34: Synoptic summary of class observation—Art School, Lesson 7

Objectives	Teaching processes/approach	Language(s) used	Feedback/ error correction	Time/ practicalities	Critical thinking/ Advanced abilities	Materials/ resources	Assessment/ monitoring progress	Rapport / atmosphere
Dialogue writing (cont.)	Technical class on punctuation marks.	Mostly Sesotho with a little English	Provided in full	Managed to achieve lesson objectives	Not included	Chalkboard	TT2 attended to questions and supported learners Homework	Intimidating as learners struggled to express themselves in English

7.5 Reflecting on classroom observations

By observing Grade 10 classes at the two schools using audio recordings and observation cards, a pattern of meaningful features was recognized. The tables in Section 7.4, which provided a synoptic summary of class observations, were consolidated in one table and analysed to identify trends at both schools. The table below summarizes these trends.

Table 35: Summary of notable observations

Objectives	Mostly not clarified
Teaching processes/approaches	Farm School: Familiarity with teaching processes was observed Art School: Revealed limited familiarity with the suggested teaching processes in the CAPS document
Language(s) used	Regular code-switching between English and vernacular
Feedback/error correction	Reading feedback focused mainly on punctuation which interrupted the flow of lessons Classwork books were taken for marking after school
Time/practicalities	Farm School managed time well Art School lost time due to a shortage of furniture that made classes start late
Critical thinking/advanced abilities	Activities were level appropriate and required basic level of understanding, yet they remained challenging for the learners.
Materials/resources	Chalkboard Farm School: Platinum English First Additional Language, Grade 10 (Awerbuck *et al.* 2011) Art School: photocopies of activities
Assessment/monitoring progress	All assessments taken in class were informal except the letter writing task for the Farm School. Informal tasks were monitored in class and in some cases marked after lessons
Rapport/atmosphere	Mostly intimidating as learners struggled to express themselves in English

The following discussion elaborates on the observation findings per observation card feature.

7.5.1 Lesson type/topic/objectives

As discussed in Chapter 5, the prescribed government curriculum framework (DBE 2011a:10-11) furnishes a comprehensive overview of the curriculum, delineating the various language skills to be addressed along with the corresponding teaching processes for each skill. There were noticeable differences in the teaching processes and approaches adopted by the teaching staff at the two schools to cover the different language skills. Teacher 1 (T1) from the Farm School demonstrated commendable coverage of all four skills over the three-week period. However, there was an occasional inconsistency with regard to stating and clarifying the learning objectives of a lesson.

Conversely, at the Art School, a different approach was observed. Two teacher trainees did most of the class facilitation and the main English teacher at the school (T2) was not always present to supervise or assist. They introduced lesson topics without explaining or clarifying the lesson objectives. This practice falls short of providing learners with a clear understanding of what is expected from them by the end of each lesson. Clearly stated objectives are instrumental in aiding learners' comprehension of the lesson's importance and purpose. They not only guide learners throughout the lesson but also enable teachers to deliver organized and purposeful instruction.

Lesson objectives function as the guiding compass for learners, directing them toward the intended outcomes of the course (Mahajan and Singh 2017:65). These outcomes, likened to navigation tools, must be explicitly communicated and elucidated for learners to grasp the lesson's purpose, understand their expectations, and engage in reflective learning. Popenici and Millar (2015:6-7) advocate for a strategic approach when setting objectives—employing the future tense, using simple and concise language, and ensuring observability and measurability. Unfortunately, in the observed classes, the practice of writing lesson topics and clarifying objectives was inconsistent. Only in lesson 2 did the TT1 at the Art School put the lesson topic on the chalkboard. Subsequently, this crucial element was omitted from the remaining lessons.

The absence of written lesson topics and objectives on the classroom chalkboard reveals a potential lack of awareness regarding their significance. While attempts were made to explain briefly the purpose of each lesson, the absence of a written record poses challenges for both learners and teachers. It inhibits learners' ability to reference and reflect on lesson objectives, hindering their overall progress.

7.5.2 Teaching processes and approaches

Teacher 1 demonstrated commendable adherence to the recommended teaching processes/approaches outlined in CAPS (DBE 2011a:10-11). Her approach was characterized by a balance between following the suggested processes and allowing room for improvisation and innovation, responding to the natural flow of the lesson. This integration of structure and flexibility contributed to the creation of lessons that followed a logical sequence, which helped to make the subject content comprehensible for learners. It became evident that Teacher 1's level of preparedness and familiarity with the various teaching processes facilitated effective management of the lesson's progression, ultimately enhancing the learning experience for the learners. This proficiency showcased her understanding of the diverse teaching processes associated with different skills, reflecting a deliberate and informed pedagogical approach.

In contrast, the observed classes at the Art School revealed a marked inconsistency in the facilitation of lessons. The trainee teachers' approaches seemed more spontaneous, indicating a lack of planning and preparation. The absence of a structured adherence to recommended teaching processes suggests a potential gap in pedagogical content knowledge, which could impact the overall effectiveness of instruction.

This disparity underscores the importance of teachers being cognisant of and proficient in the prescribed teaching processes. Teacher 1's approach exemplified the positive outcomes associated with aligning teaching practices with the recommended processes, enhancing the overall coherence and efficacy of the lessons. In contrast, the inconsistencies observed at the Art School emphasize the need for a more concerted effort to ensure that all teaching staff, including pre-service/trainee teachers (TTs) doing practical teaching at schools, are well-versed in the diverse teaching processes tailored to different skills. This is essential to provide more equitable and meaningful learning experiences at the different schools. In the case of TTs, it would be beneficial for them to be supervised and to discuss their lesson plans in advance to ensure consistency in adhering to teaching processes and considerations, especially in cases where the class teacher is not present, as was the case with Teacher 2 who only facilitated one class during the observation period.

7.5.3 Language usage

Undoubtedly, Teacher 1 demonstrated an effort to uphold the use of English as the primary language of teaching and learning in the EFAL classroom. However, the proficiency levels of learners in English appear to pose a challenge to the teacher's intent to maintain an English-centric environment. The prevalent use of vernacular by learners creates a circumstance in which the teacher, out of necessity, finds herself switching to vernacular to accommodate learners' needs. This often occurs when learners seek clarification of certain concepts or explanations of specific ideas. Similarly, at the Art School English and vernacular were predominantly utilized to elucidate and clarify concepts, demonstrating a similar response to learners' linguistic needs. This raises questions about the role of learners' vernaculars in the English language classroom in the Further Education and Training (FET) Phase. The reliance on vernacular that was observed at both schools did not seem to promote English proficiency. Limited opportunities were provided for learners to actively engage in English, with the only substantial use occurring during written activities. The dearth of reinforcement of English use was evident as learners predominantly responded and interacted in vernacular among themselves.

The observed use of different languages aligns with the concept of code-switching, a practice where teachers use more than one language as a pedagogical tool to reduce misunderstandings, and learners use their home language to seek clarity and communicate with the teacher and peers. It appears to unfold naturally and be intrinsic to communication in the bilingual/multilingual setting of the two schools. Translanguaging can reflect a dynamic interaction between vernacular and English that has potential pedagogical benefits in certain contexts, as explained by Thomas *et al.* (2022:9). While the incorporation of vernacular may foster inclusivity and positive attitudes among learners, the potential impact on English proficiency remains a concern. Harris (2020:45) notes learners' positive attitudes toward translanguaging but emphasizes the need to consider how this practice aligns with the goal of enhancing English proficiency. At the two schools observed, English was not the predominant language of teaching and learning which made the English classroom seem inconducive for the development of high levels of English proficiency. The use of translanguaging can be more beneficial if integrated in ways that facilitate the retention of learners' home language while concurrently promoting significant strides in English proficiency. This can be accomplished by employing a number of strategies and techniques such as the use of bilingual vocabulary lists, contrastive analysis of grammatical structures in English and the learners' vernacular or home language and using coherent stretches of text in each language rather than switching rapidly between languages mid-sentence. Translation activities can also be employed meaningfully to increase awareness of structural and vocabulary differences between languages. To maximize the effectiveness of translanguaging, Omidire and Ayob (2022:125) and Najarro (2023:1) underscore the importance of substantial investment in pre-service teacher education to raise awareness about the strategic integration of learners' home languages into lessons. This approach ensures that translanguaging becomes a pedagogical tool that not only preserves learners' linguistic diversity but also contributes to their mastery of English. The challenge lies in striking a balance that preserves linguistic heritage while helping learners attain higher levels of English proficiency. Therefore, when creating translanguaging strategies, it is important to understand the linguistic context of a school community and its learners, set realistic expectations based on their language backgrounds, clearly define whether the lesson focuses on fluency, proficiency, or both, and carefully consider the potential challenges of allowing or restricting the use of languages other than the target language (Thomas *et al.* 2022:29-30).

7.5.4 Feedback and error correction

Teacher 1 demonstrated a proactive approach to addressing learners' mistakes by promptly correcting pronunciation and language errors and actively moving around to monitor their progress during tasks. The class size, however, seemed to present a limitation, preventing her from attending to every individual learner. Despite this constraint, she provided general feedback on common mistakes and cultivated an open environment where learners could seek clarification.

In contrast to the large class size at the Farm School, the Art School's smaller class size naturally facilitated easier monitoring and feedback provision during activities. Regrettably, the facilitators at the Art School did not fully capitalize on this advantage. While they offered prompt feedback for pronunciation, other in-class monitoring was minimal. At times, facilitators remained seated while learners completed activities, missing opportunities to address individual needs.

Feedback in the classroom can take different forms, including whole-class feedback and individual feedback. Bashir, Kabir and Rahman (20162016:38-40) emphasize the importance of feedback to support language learning. Obilor (2019:40) views it as a means of dialogue that encourages motivation and self-esteem while bridging the gap between expected and actual learning. At both schools, the emphasis was on providing verbal corrections on the spot, which seemed to have created an inconducive atmosphere for learners. It seems to have made learners anxious while they read texts out loud anticipating being corrected.

The contrasting approaches in the two classrooms highlight the need for teachers and teacher trainees to be cognisant of different feedback forms, when feedback is desirable, and the significance of leveraging class size for effective monitoring and feedback. While Teacher 1 navigated the challenges of a larger class, facilitators at the Art School missed opportunities for more individualized attention. As feedback plays a pivotal role in the learning process, both whole-class and individual feedback are essential components for promoting overall improvement. Encouraging an open and supportive environment, as evident in Teacher 1's class, fosters a positive attitude toward feedback, contributing to the continuous development of learners.

7.5.5 Time management and practicalities

During the observation period at the Farm School, a commendable commitment to punctuality and adherence to designated class times was observed. This dedication to a structured schedule contributes to a conducive learning environment, promoting consistency and allowing learners to anticipate and plan their daily routines effectively. The respect for time management shown at the Farm School not only reflects a commitment to academic professionalism but also the efficient use of instructional time, maximizing the opportunities for effective teaching and learning.

Unfortunately, the opposite scenario was noted at the Art School. Logistical constraints were identified as influencing the starting times of classes. These constraints included a lack of suitable furniture. Communication and coordination among school staff and administrators could help to mitigate these challenges and enable the scheduled classes to take place in a conducive manner.

The contrast between the Farm School's punctuality and the Art School's logistical constraints indicates the significance of organizational aspects in shaping the learning environment. A consistent and reliable schedule not only establishes a sense of order but also enhances the overall educational experience for both educators and learners. Recognizing and addressing logistical challenges at the Art School presents an opportunity for targeted improvements, ultimately contributing to a more effective and harmonized educational system.

7.5.6 Critical thinking and advanced abilities

For successful learning outcomes, monitoring of learning and assessments should be thoughtfully designed to allow learners to showcase their cognitive skills and language abilities, including the application of higher-order thinking that involves understanding, evaluating, analysing, synthesizing, and applying knowledge to solve problems. In her teaching approach, Teacher 1 conscientiously structured in-class questions and informal assessments, challenging learners to engage in critical thinking and demonstrate an advancement in their comprehension of the content through analytical, synthesizing, evaluative, and creative skills. This teacher actively promoted the development of these cognitive skills by encouraging class discussions and assigning activities tailored to match the learners' cognitive levels. However, a notable challenge arose as learners found it difficult to demonstrate these skills in English, seemingly feeling much more at ease when integrating their native language (NL) Sesotho. The struggle to fully articulate their thoughts and showcase their cognitive abilities in English emerged as a barrier to effective expression and comprehension.

The teacher trainee facilitators at the Art School adopted a different approach, asking predominantly closed-ended questions that limited learners' opportunities to provide extensive responses in English. When afforded the chance for more elaborate responses, learners consistently defaulted to expressing themselves in the local vernacular. Although some of the activities initiated critical thinking, this proficiency was more effectively demonstrated in the learners' home language, especially when tasks were undertaken outside the classroom environment.

The above observations highlight a language-related challenge in the educational setting. Learners faced difficulties employing advanced cognitive skills in a language that was not their first language. It shows the importance of considering language proficiency and comfort in instructional design from the earliest grades of schooling. Without the necessary baseline proficiency in the language of learning and teaching, it will be difficult to help learners acquire the kind of academic English they need for more advanced coursework that requires deep understanding and critical thinking in the higher grades.

7.5.7 Learning materials and resources

The contrast between the Farm School and the Art School regarding the provision of prescribed textbooks raises significant concerns and has implications for the educational experiences of the learners. At the Farm School, where all learners had been issued with a prescribed textbook, there is a potential advantage in terms of ensuring a consistent and equitable basis for instruction. This can contribute to a more structured and cohesive curriculum delivery. However, at the Art School, the absence of prescribed textbooks for all learners, and also manuals for the teaching staff, introduces disparities in a system that is supposed to benefit learners from all backgrounds and circumstances. Learners without access to a prescribed textbook may face challenges in keeping up with the curriculum and completing meaningful learning activities, which could negatively affect understanding and academic performance. The discrepancy in resource provision between the two schools draws attention to the need for a comprehensive examination of resource allocation policies and practices, highlighting the potential impact on learners' access to essential educational materials and the subsequent implications for their academic development. Addressing this imbalance at both school and provincial level is crucial for promoting a fair and inclusive educational environment where all learners have equal opportunities for learning and success.

7.5.8 Assessment and progress monitoring

A variety of activities were incorporated into the curriculum to enrich the learning experience. Although these activities were designed to support the acquisition of knowledge, critical thinking, creativity, and analytical skills, they were not aligned with the proficiency levels of the learners. A significant linguistic challenge surfaced, impeding learners' understanding of prompts and, consequently, hindering their ability to complete tasks effectively. Despite the activities being deemed appropriate for their skill levels, many learners grappled with grasping the fundamental concepts of the content. As a result, they found it challenging to showcase their critical, analytical, and creative abilities during activity completion.

In the context of the Art School, the utilization of photocopied worksheets and weekly activities shared by the DBE Learning Facilitators provided a means of monitoring progress while following a structured learning path. However, even though the activities were aligned with CAPS' recommended topics and content to be covered, learners encountered difficulties in comprehending task prompts and successfully completing activities. A notable example was Lesson 3, where the activity was extracted from a Grade 9 Paper 2 examination paper. Unfortunately, learners struggled to navigate and complete the task due to their limited ability to fully comprehend the prompt.

In Teacher 1's classroom at the Farm School, the adoption of open-ended questions aimed to encourage learners to provide extensive responses. However, a notable challenge emerged as learners struggled to sustain longer utterances in their replies. Some resorted to code-switching between languages as a strategy to convey more substantial responses. Even at the Grade 10 level, there remained learners who faced difficulties in engaging in a simple conversation in English, indicating an ongoing proficiency gap. Conversely, facilitators at the Art School relied predominantly on the home language to assess learners' comprehension of prompts and to offer clarifications. The minimal opportunity for teachers to move around the classroom exacerbated challenges, leading to prolonged or incomplete activities. In cases where a small group setting could have facilitated more personalized attention and support, class monitoring and learner assistance could be expected to be more manageable.

These observations indicate the persistent obstacles within the educational environment to master the English language. The struggles of learners to sustain lengthy responses and the continued reliance on native languages for comprehension reveal a need for targeted language support initiatives.

7.5.9 Rapport in the classroom

Despite the intimidating nature of the English classroom and discomfort learners had in expressing themselves in English, a generally positive rapport between teachers and learners in both educational contexts was observed. A positive rapport fosters a supportive and conducive learning environment, enhancing learner engagement, motivation, and overall academic performance. The presence of such a favourable atmosphere suggests that teachers are approachable. A notable aspect in this regard is that of motivation amongst learners. In both cases, learners seemed to be motivated to learn, regardless of their level. This was evident in the way they carried themselves during lessons. They were attentive and teachers did not struggle to manage their classrooms. As discussed in Chapter 2 under Section 2.5, emotional factors such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety influence the teaching and learning of an additional language such as English (Ni 2012: 1509). The observations revealed that learners at both schools were eager to learn the English language. However, they lacked confidence and seemed anxious whenever they had to express themselves in English. Such instances may indicate the challenges students face when they know what they want to say in their mother tongue but struggle to express it in English. This issue often stems from an insufficiently established linguistic foundation. Implementing strategies such as positive affirmations, group work, and peer discussions can help alleviate some of the anxiety, rather than placing the burden of response on a single student. Wilson and Gardner (2009:33-34) emphasize that motivation and encouragement are effective classroom strategies that help learners to become confident and improve their language achievement.

7.6 Analysis of assessment artefacts

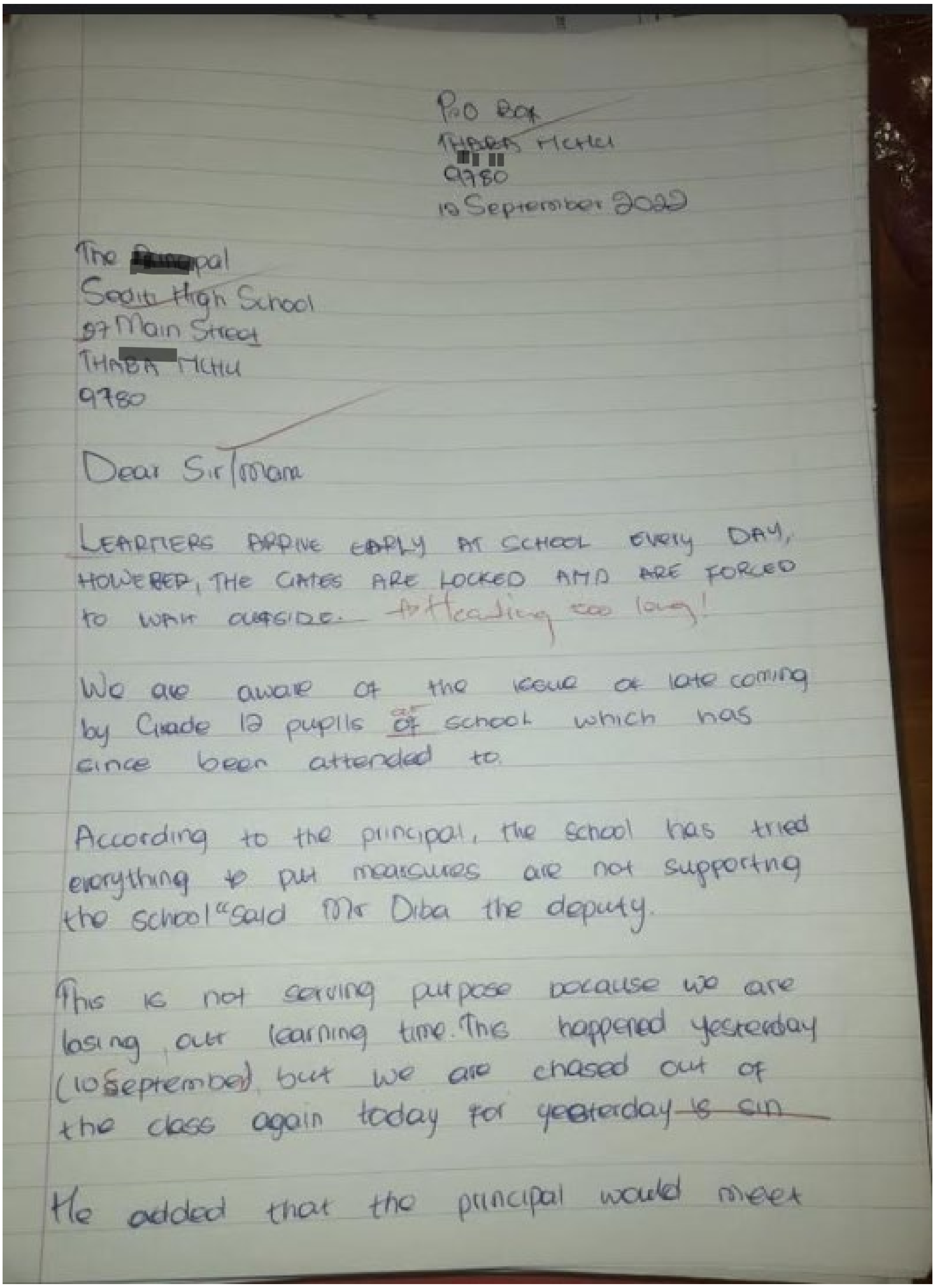
This section evaluates an assessment that was conducted during the third term of 2022 in the form of a letter-writing task. Each of the participating schools administered distinct prompts for this assignment. The Farm School directed its learners to write a formal letter, whereas the Art School encouraged a more informal and friendly letter. The samples from the Farm School were submitted as a formal assessment and those from the Art School as homework which was an informal assessment. The primary objective of this analysis is to gain insights into how learners from both schools interpreted the prompts and executed the writing tasks. The few samples of assessments that the two schools provided are analysed in terms of their adherence to the specified letter format, the language utilized, and the extent to which the communicative function of a letter can be considered to have been executed successfully. Additionally, the chapter will shed light on the grading methodologies employed by the respective teachers at the Farm and Art School.

7.6.1 Examples of letter writing: Farm School

Learners were provided with the following prompt:

> *You and a large number of other learners arrive early at school every day. However, the gates are locked, and you are forced to wait outside.* Write a letter to the principal of your school telling him or her about the problem that you experience because of this.

The above prompt does not give learners a clear indication of the type of letter they are expected to write or its communicative purpose. The intention is that learners should write a letter of complaint in which they express their concerns about having to wait outside and make a request to be allowed to enter school earlier. The current wording of the prompt could result in letters that describe the problem but do not lodge a complaint or request for alternative arrangements. Indicating to the learners that the nature of the letter is that of a complaint would provide guidance and enable learners to respond appropriately. Clear task specifications help teachers set tasks that are valid and reliable which in turn helps learners understand what is expected of them. The following are samples of how the learners responded to the task with sample 1 having scored the highest mark.



P.O Box
THABA NCHU
[redacted]
9780
12 September 2022

The [redacted]pal
Sedit High School
07 Main Street
[redacted]
THABA NCHU
9780

Dear Sir/Mam

LEARNERS ARRIVE EARLY AT SCHOOL EVERY DAY, HOWEBER, THE GATES ARE LOCKED AND ARE FORCED TO WAIT OUTSIDE. Heading too long!

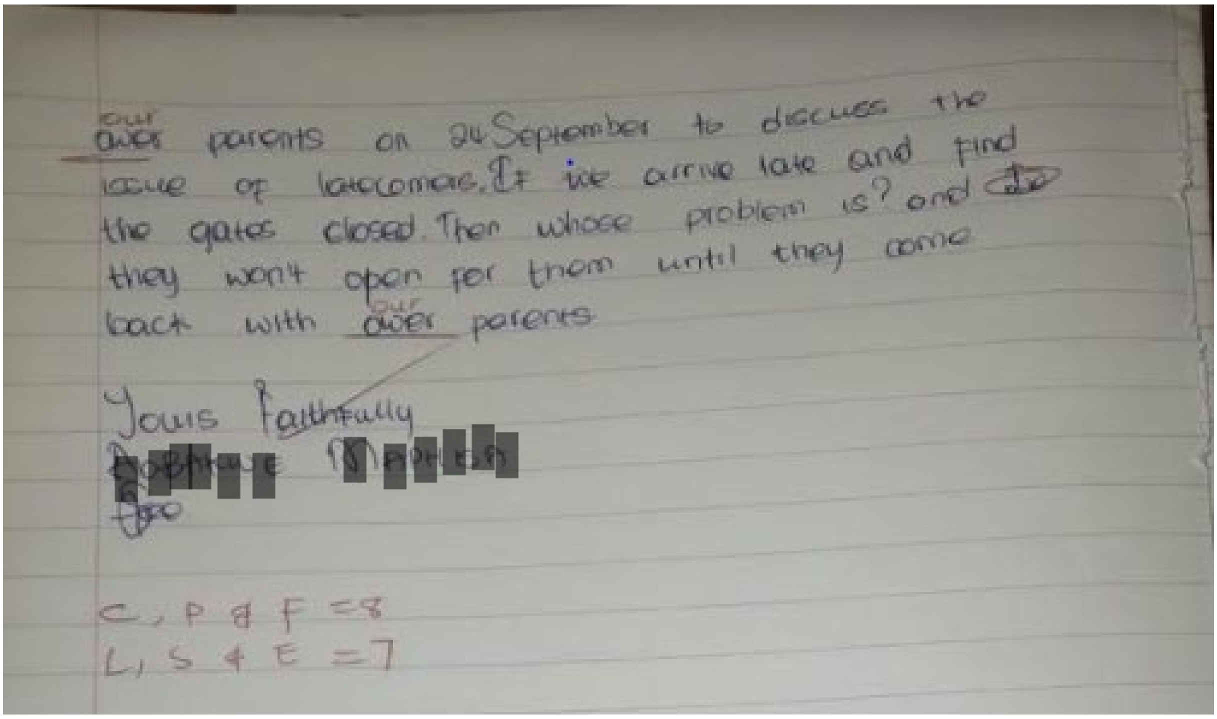
We are aware of the issue of late coming by Grade 12 pupils at ~~of~~ school which has since been attended to.

According to the principal, the school has tried everything to put measures are not supporting the school" said Mr Diba the deputy.

This is not serving purpose because we are losing, our learning time. This happened yesterday (10 September), but we are chased out of the class again today for yesterday ~~is sin~~

He added that the principal would meet

Figure 18: Writing task sample 1



our
awer parents on 24 September to discuss the
issue of latecomers. If we arrive late and find
the gates closed. Then whose problem is? and
they won't open for them until they come
back with awer parents
our

Yours faithfully
[redacted]

C, P & F =8
L, S & E =7

Figure 19: Writing task sample 1 cont.

Writing task sample 1 indicates that the learner did not have a clear understanding of the prompt, which is an issue that was raised by both Principal 1 and HOD 1 during the interviews. The learner shows poor understanding of the prompt. A stronger understanding may have helped her successfully respond to the task. Though the learner showed an understanding of most of the features of a formal letter, she seems to have struggled to express her ideas. Below is a list of problems identified in the analysis of the writing task sample 1.

Basic mistakes

- The sender's address is incomplete: the street name, house number and suburb are missing.
- The learner addresses the principal as "Sir/Mam" which indicates uncertainty about the name of the principal.
- The heading of the letter is lengthy and takes the form of two sentences.
- The learner uses the first person plural to address the principal in the first paragraph. The tone is authoritative and inappropriate regarding the positions of power and the audience participating in this communicative event. The information is also irrelevant: the learner did not seem to understand that the issue is not that of Grade 12 learners coming to school late, but of learners arriving early and being forced to wait outside.
- The second paragraph is incoherent and the quotation is incomplete. Quotation marks have been misplaced. The third paragraph does not logically follow the previous and also shows the

learner does not understand the prompt as mention is made of being chased out of the classroom. The fourth paragraph suggests the learner is confusing an interview with letter writing as the learner mentions what the deputy principal stated using indirect speech. Inappropriate use is made of pronouns.

- There is no appropriate closing line before ending the letter.
- There are grammar and vocabulary mistakes that impede the meaning of the message; these are not highlighted by the teacher.

Grammar/sentence construction errors

"…put measures are not supporting…"

"This is not serving purpose…"

"…losing out learning time…"

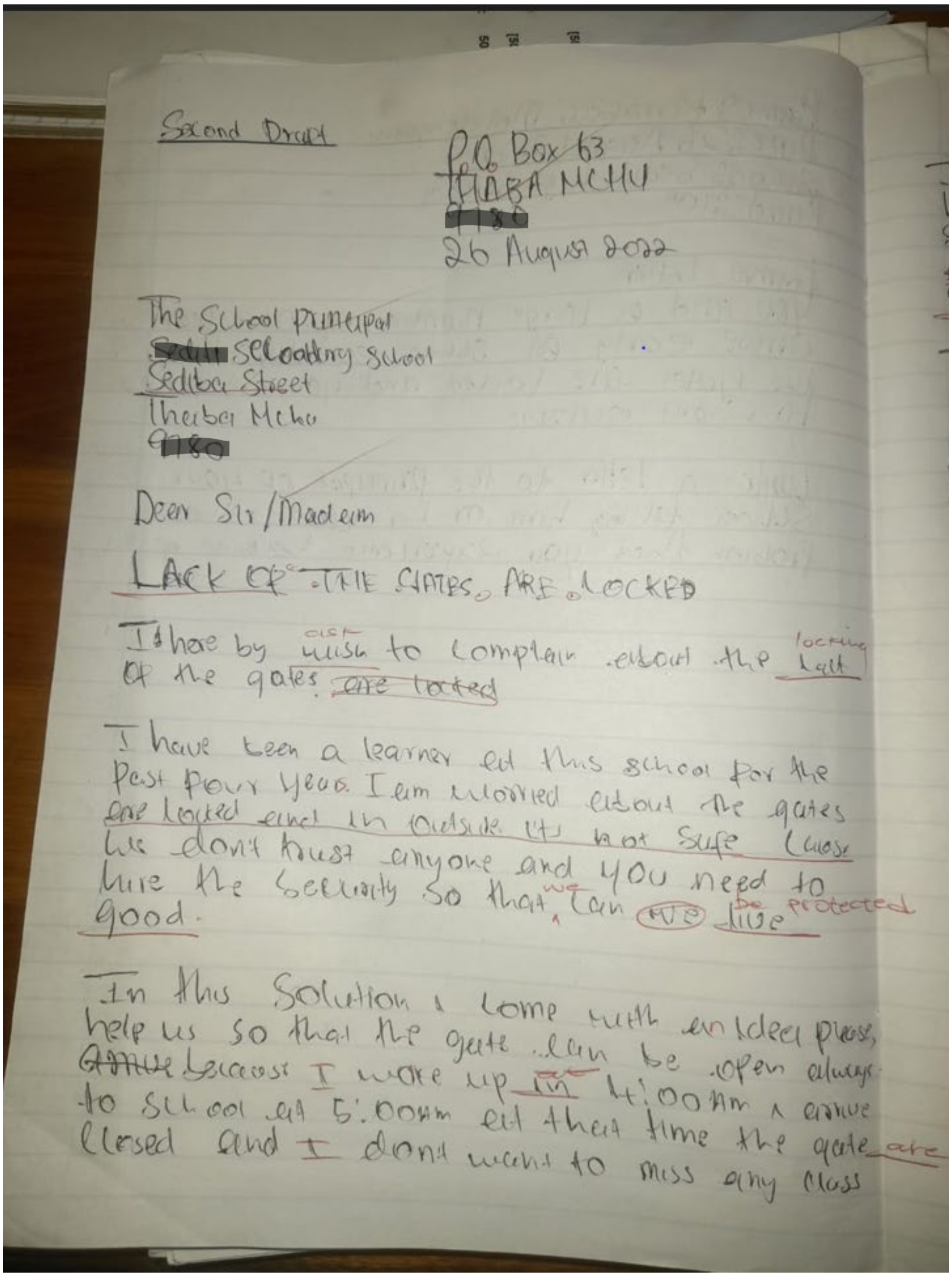
"… but we are chased out of the class again today…"

"…for yesterday sin…"

…whose problem is?"

Spelling errors

"Ower"



Second Draft

P.O. Box 63
THABA MCHU
[redacted]
26 August 2022

The School principal
[redacted] Secondary School
Sediba Street
Thaba Mchu
[redacted]

Dear Sir/Madam

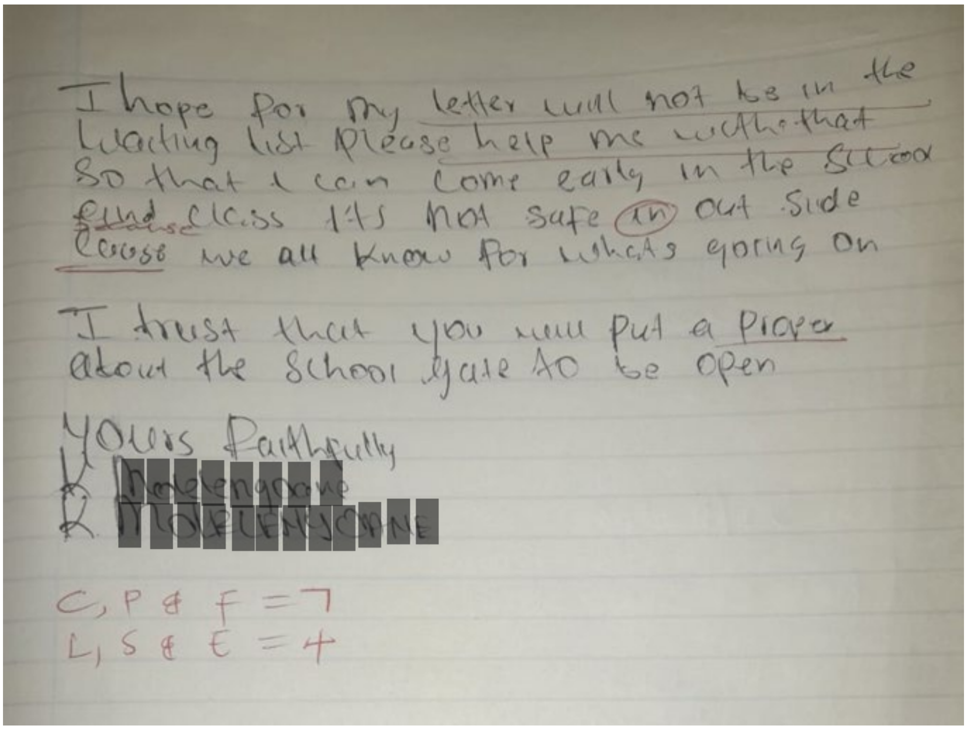
LACK OF THE GATES ARE LOCKED

I hereby ask wish to complain about the locking lack of the gates. ~~are locked~~

I have been a learner at this school for the past four years. I am worried about the gates are locked and in outside it's not safe cause we don't trust anyone and you need to hire the security so that we can we be protected live good.

In this solution I come with an idea please, help us so that the gate can be open always ~~arrive~~ because I wake up at in 4:00 am I arrive to school at 5:00 am at that time the gate are closed and I don't want to miss any class

Figure 20: Writing task sample 2



I hope for my letter will not be in the waiting list please help me with the that So that I can come early in the school and class i'ts not safe in out side cause we all know for whats going on

I trust that you will put a prayer about the school gate to be open

Yours Faithfully
K [redacted]
K.

C, P & F = 7
L, S & E = 4

Figure 21: Writing task sample 2 cont.

Writing task sample 2 shows that the learner understands both the prompt and structure of a formal letter. However, the use of punctuation marks, capitalisation and syntax appeared to be a challenge. Some mistakes have been underlined, but not corrected in ways that would help the learner understand the types of mistakes made and learn from them. Below is a list of problems identified in the analysis of the writing task sample 2.

Basic mistakes

- The sender's address is incomplete: the street name, house number and suburb are missing.
- The learner addresses the principal as "Sir/Mam" which indicates uncertainty about the name of their principal.
- The heading of the letter consists of errors that impede meaning.
- The tone and approach are inappropriate
- There are grammar and vocabulary mistakes that impede the meaning of the message but they are not highlighted by the teacher.

The following is a list of example errors as all sentences contain grammar mistakes.

Grammar/sentence construction

"..and in outside it's not safe"

"…his don't trust…"
"…so that can we live good."
"In this solution I come with an idea please…"
"..wake up in 4:00am…"

Spelling errors
"lack"
"here by"
"cause"
"yours"

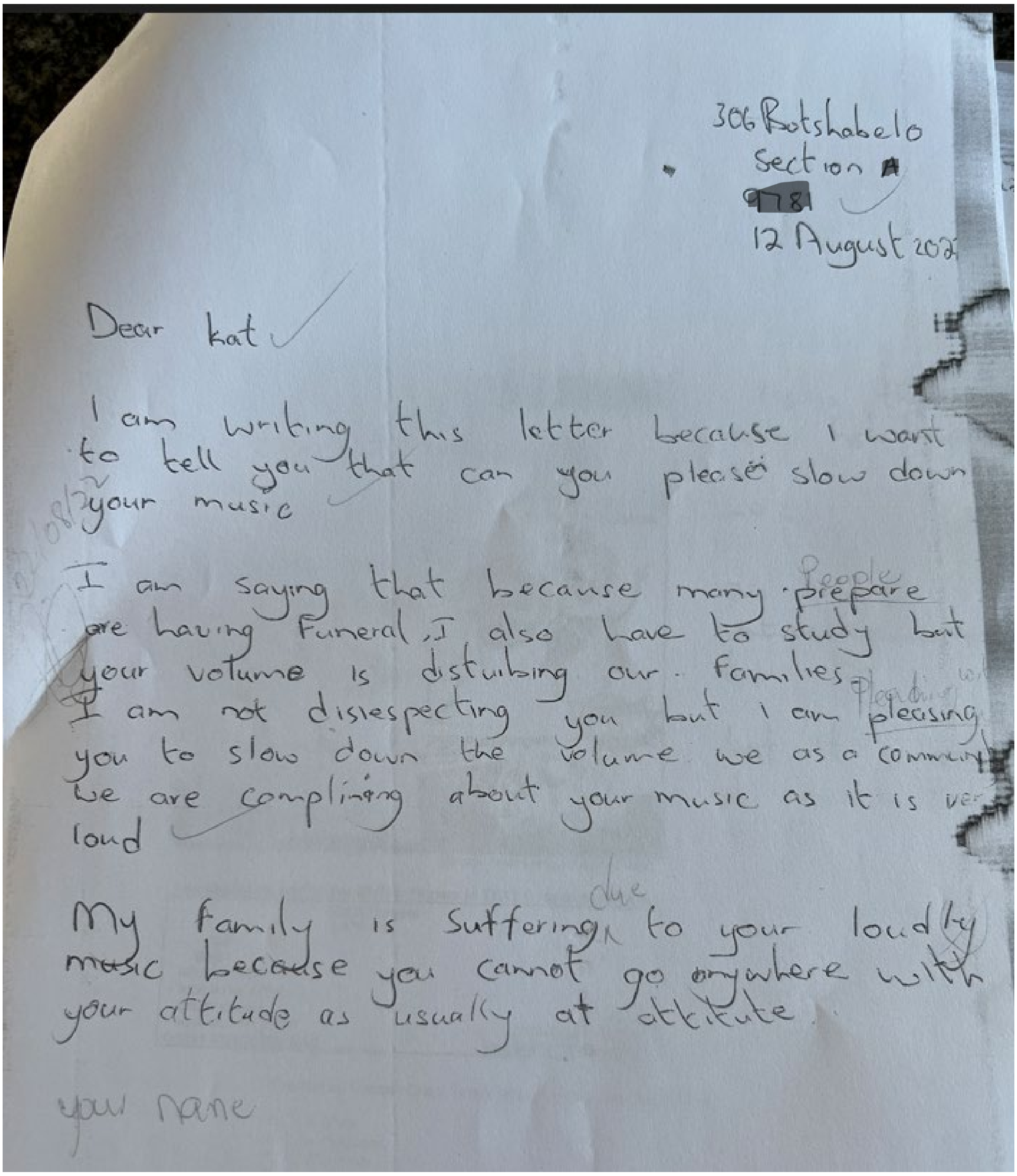
For both scripts, Teacher 1 did not provide a rubric but seems to have used the criteria from the CAPS document (DBE 2011a:85). Also, there was no written feedback provided to help the learners better understand their mistakes. The kind of language errors and incoherent language in the writing samples imply that the level of English of her learners is very low.

7.6.2 Examples of letter writing: Art School

Learners were instructed to write a friendly letter using the prompt below:

> *Your neighbour constantly plays music loudly. His/her actions are a disturbance to you and your family.*
>
> Write a letter to your neighbour requesting them to be more considerate and reduce the volume of the music.

The above prompt does not have clear specifications that provide learners with an approach to consider when writing the letter. It fails to clarify specifications such as mark allocation, word limit, and task duration, amongst others. Hughes and Hughes mention that for tasks to be valid and reliable, task specifications need to be clear from the outset (2020:87). The following examples show how the learners responded to the task. A rubric was not used to allocate the learners' marks and written feedback was not provided.



306 Botshabelo
Section A
[redacted]81
12 August 202

Dear kat

I am writing this letter because I want to tell you that can you please slow down your music

I am saying that because many prepare People are having Funeral, I also have to study but your volume is distubing our families. I am not disiespecting you but I am pleasing Pleading you to slow down the volume we as a Commun we are complining about your music as it is ver loud

My family is Suffering due to your loudly music because you cannot go anywhere with your attitude as usually at attitute.

your name

Figure 22: Writing task sample 3

Writing task sample 3 shows understanding of the prompt as the learner has responded accordingly. However, due to challenges with vocabulary and the basics of constructing sentences, the writing piece indicates that the learner still needs much support with grammar, vocabulary, morphology and punctuation. The attempt to communicate a problem to a neighbour can be considered partially successful when viewed from the perspective of a foreign language learner in the elementary stage of learning English. The level of mastery is inappropriate for Grade 10 and there is still much room for improvement. The following mistakes were identified, many not corrected by the marker.

Basic mistakes

- Address is incomplete – street name is missing
- The closing and name were omitted

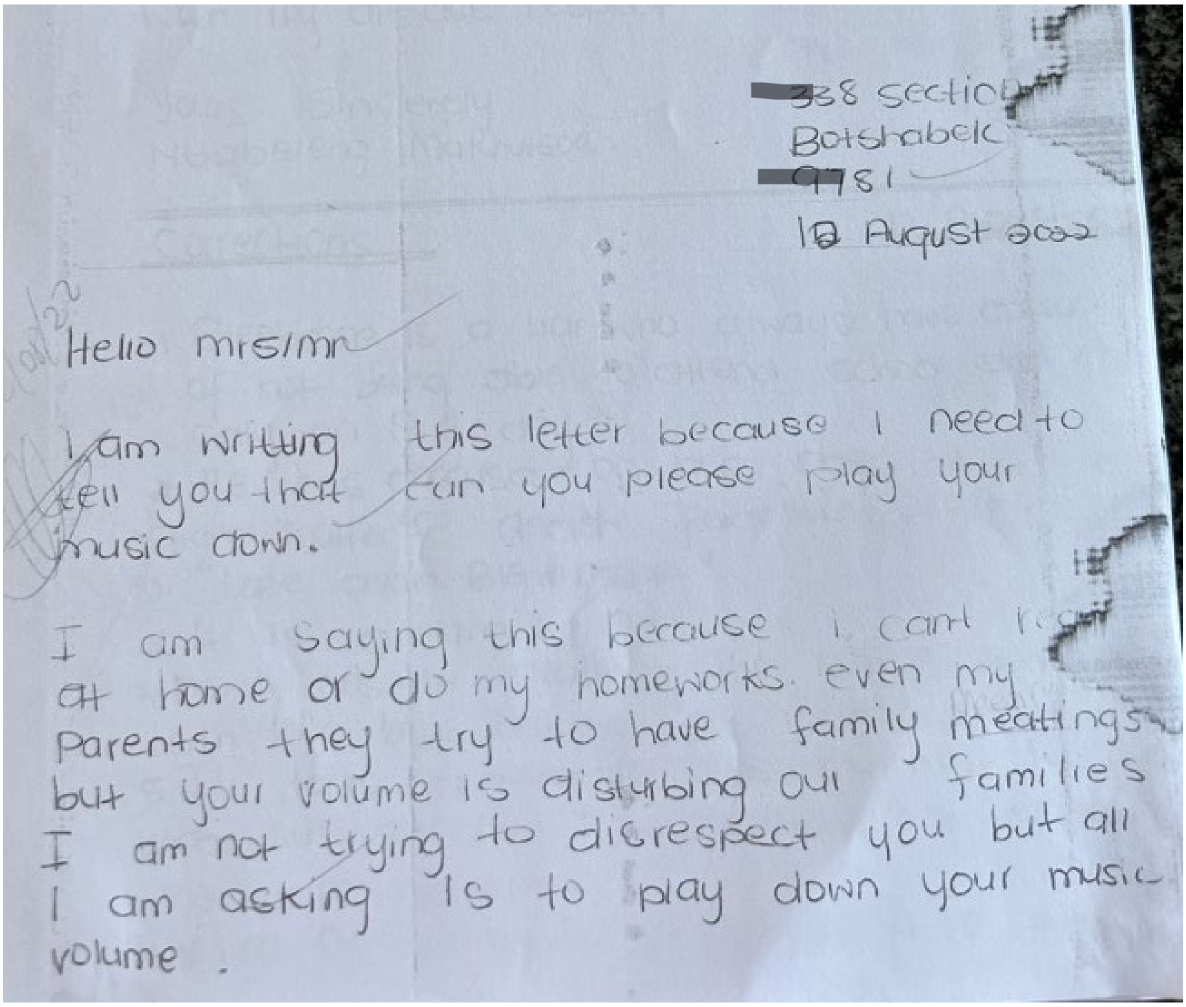
Grammar/syntax/vocabulary

"..I want to tell you that you can" instead of "I want to ask you to …"
"I am saying that" – incorrect demonstrative pronoun
"prepare" instead of "people"
"funeral" – plural missing
"pleasing you" instead of "pleading with you"
"…suffering to your loudly music…" – adverbial instead of adjectival form of "loud"
"we as a community we are" – repetition of subject pronoun
The last paragraph is completely incoherent.

Spelling and punctuation errors

"kat" – name not capitalized
"complining"
Full stops missing at the end of sentences

The learner's frequent spelling and vocabulary mistakes in writing task sample 3 significantly impair the clarity and effectiveness of the message. These errors create confusion and detract from the overall quality of the work. Though the task was informal, without a clear rubric or criteria to reference, it becomes difficult for learners to gauge their progress and areas of improvement. A rubric would provide transparency and ensure that all aspects of the work, such as content, language use, and coherence, are assessed consistently. The lack of such a rubric raises questions about the fairness and accuracy of the grading process.



[redacted]38 sectio
Botshabelo
[redacted]781
12 August 2022

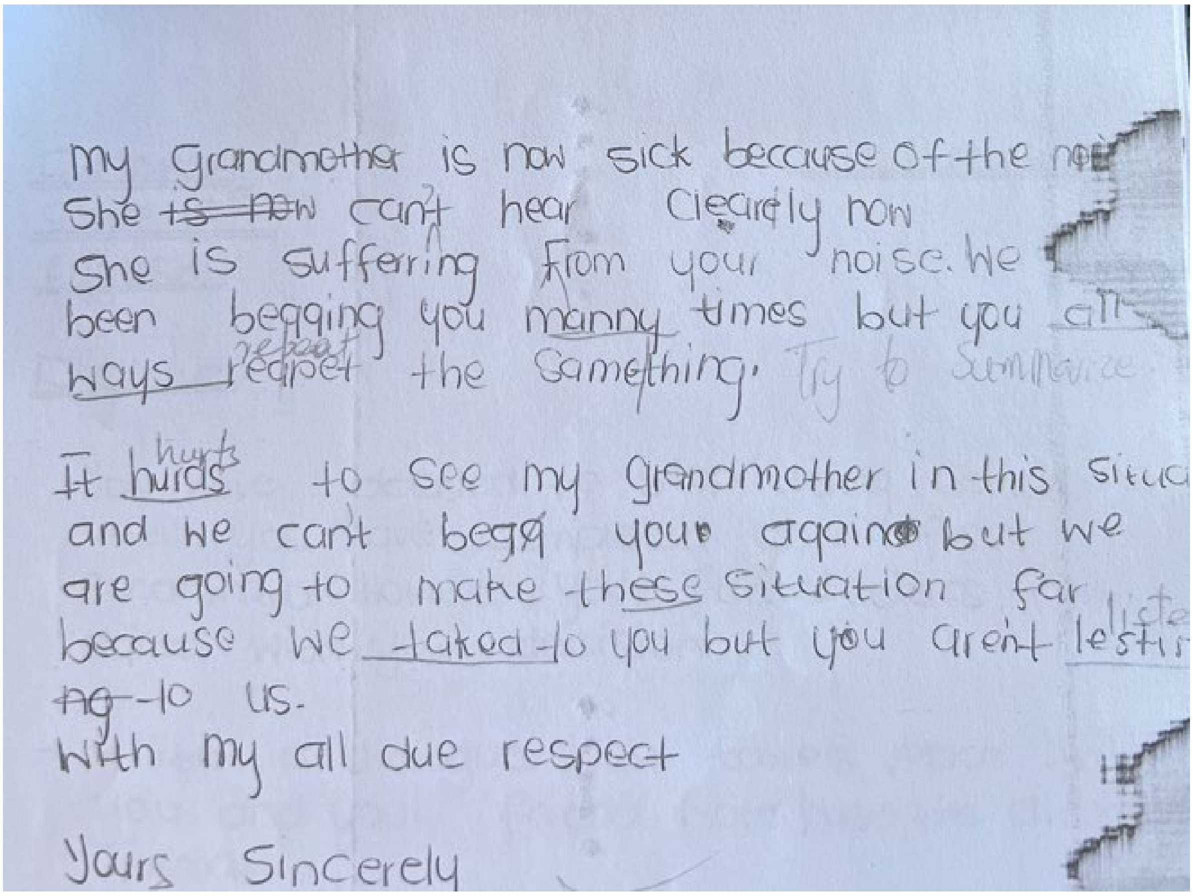
10/22

Hello mrs/mr

I am writting this letter because I need to tell you that can you please play your music down.

I am saying this because I cant r
at home or do my homeworks. even my Parents they try to have family meatings but your volume is disturbing our families I am not trying to disrespect you but all I am asking is to play down your music volume.

Figure 23: Writing task sample 4



my grandmother is now sick because of the noi
She ~~is now~~ can't hear Clearly now
She is suffering from your noise. We
been begging you manny times but you all
ways repeat reapet the Samething. Try to Summarize

It hurts hurds to see my grandmother in this situa
and we can't begg your again but we
are going to make these situation far
because we taked to you but you aren't liste lestin
~~ng~~ to us.
With my all due respect

Yours Sincerely

Figure 24: Writing task sample 4 cont.

Although communication has been achieved to a certain level and the learner shows understanding of the prompt, grammar and spelling difficulties affected the flow of the message. For a homework task, the learner had enough time to seek help at home or elsewhere but did not seem to do so. With regard to support at home, Teacher 2 mentioned in the interview that learners at the Art School struggled because they did not have enough parental support. Below are examples of mistakes that were identified from the writing task sample 4 script with some of them not being corrected by the marker.

Basic mistakes

- Address does not include the street name
- Salutation uses informal language but the closing formal

Grammar/syntax/vocabulary

"I need to tell you that can you please" – similar errors to previous example

“ play your music down” – “play” instead of “turn”
“… or doing my homeworks” – pluralisation of abstract noun
“…suffering from your noise.”
“make these situation far” – incoherent
“with my all due respect”

Spelling mistakes
“writting”
“meatings”
“clearely”
“manny”
“all ways”
“reapet”
“samething”
“hurds”
“lestin”

For both samples, Teacher 2 did not indicate the criteria she used to grade the tasks, and she also did not include any mark allocation or written feedback to help the learners understand the types of errors they had made. Feedback and mark allocation should be considered even if the task is informal as was the case with writing task samples 3 and 4. The focus of the grading was mainly on the quality of the content rather than mark allocation. From the analysis, it is evident that learners in township schools still battle with basic vocabulary and grammar in English. It is also important to note that the type of task given to learners at both schools is less relevant in today’s context, as technology has become a primary tool for communication and learning.

7.7 Reflecting on learners’ samples of written work

This section discusses two salient aspects of assessment that were noticeable in the analysis of learners’ samples of work: a lack of rubrics and feedback, as well as the impact of code-switching or translanguaging on learners’ written work.

7.7.1 Rubrics and feedback

The CAPS document does not provide clarity in terms of the use of rubrics. As a result, both schools did not provide rubrics or written feedback on the scripts. Teacher 1 had to contend with a large class, so providing detailed written individual feedback would be too demanding. Teacher 2 only had 13 learners, so providing feedback would be feasible and relatively easy. Wolf and Stevens (2007:5) define a rubric as a "…multi-purpose scoring guide for assessing learner products and performances". Learners deserve to know more than the numerical value they obtain for their work. They need to understand the grading criteria that will be used before attempting the task. Wolf and Stevens (2007:13-13) provide a list of benefits of using rubrics:

- Rubrics make the learning target clearer
- Rubrics guide instructional design and delivery
- Rubrics make the assessment process more accurate and fairer
- Rubrics provide learners with a tool for self-assessment and peer feedback
- Rubrics have the potential to advance the learning of learners of color, first generation learners, and those from non-traditional settings.

Providing learners with a rubric as a scaffold helps learners know how to approach and complete a task with clear objectives in mind. Additionally, Jeffrey (2018:2) notes that rubrics can be reused for similar tasks. Although the design of rubrics may seem time-consuming, it can be a beneficial tool for quick marking and feedback.

Teacher 1 did indicate in the interview before class observations started that the teachers had prescribed rubrics that were to be used:

> *"There is a prescribed rubric. We have such for each and every grade. We normally use them for longer transactional writing and oral assessments".* **(T1)**

The way in which both teachers marked the samples above, implies that they only use rubrics for the main examination tasks. When teachers cannot use rubrics due to various reasons, they should find other means of providing learners with feedback. Another potential benefit of using rubrics is that they can help learners develop intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci 2000b), which plays a crucial role in language learning as discussed in Chapter 2.

7.7.2 Negative effects of translanguaging

The language errors identified indicate the negative effects of uncontrolled translanguaging during the teaching of English. Though García (2014), Makalela (2015) and Childs (2016) advocate for the inclusion of multilingual pedagogies in education, Fang, Zhang and Sah (2022:308) highlight the need for a clear rationale to motivate their implementation for inclusive education. Stakeholders in the education sector should emphasize its benefits for learners and develop strategies to do this in ways that lead to increased mastery of both the vernacular and English. The practice of integrating vernacular in English lessons becomes a challenge during assessments and tests when the teacher is not allowed to explain questions to learners and when learners have to respond in one language.

It seems that the use of English and vernacular has become established practice in township classrooms. However, when confronted with a writing task for formal assessment, learners are only allowed to use English. Because of their very basic English, they incorporate English equivalents of language constructions in the vernacular. The following examples illustrate what seems to be the effects of uncontrolled translanguaging or code-switching when learners are required to produce written English:

> "…slow down your music" – based on the context, the learner is trying to indicate that the volume must be lowered to minimize the noise
>
> "…pleasing you to slow down…"– the word "pleasing" seems to have been used to express a pleading tone (writing sample 3).

The above examples indicate that the learner struggles with grammar and vocabulary skills. Both examples are not grammatically correct and prove that the learner's vocabulary is not rich. For instance, an equivalent for "slow down" in the context of the letter would be the word "reduce" which the learner didn't seem to consider. Pretorius and Stoffelsma (2017:10) emphasize that vocabulary knowledge is essential for both speaking and writing skills. and Pretorius and Stoffelsma point out that FAL learners do not have the same "underlying linguistic competence" as L1 English speakers: "… not only do they have fewer bootstrapping mechanisms to infer word meaning but they also have fewer opportunities in which to apply word inferencing processes" (2017: 3). EFAL learners need a "threshold of 3000-word families (about 5000 lexical items)" to be able to understand English texts at a minimal level (Pretorius

& Stoffelsma 2017: 3). Learners without this minimum threshold will not be able to do any reading satisfactorily.

The examples provided indicate a certain level of interference of the mother tongue in the learner's thought processes. Heritage and Montle (2022:293) note that many learners in their study faced challenges with grammatical rules in learning a second language due to interference from their first language which was incorporated during the teaching and learning of English. The errors are especially noticeable in the learners' speaking and writing. As noted by Denizer (2017:50) and Kasap and Emamvirdi (2022:9) interference of the mother tongue in English assessments affects learners' performance considerably.

In the case of township and rural schools, learners are strongly influenced by their mother tongue owing to the way content is taught through a form of translanguaging that is not strategic and does not support the mastery of English. This becomes evident when analysing examples of written work. Moreover, even though it was not possible to collect more data on assessments at the two schools, it was observed that learners struggled to pronounce words in English and that the mother tongue at times interfered.

Sherpa (2016:38-39) acknowledges that in the context of primary school learners in monolingual communities the mother tongue aids understanding and accelerates learning. However, it also hinders English language acquisition by limiting exposure to the target language. Teachers use the mother tongue to explain difficult concepts, introduce new material, and make learners feel more comfortable. Parents and teachers agree on its importance for clarifying concepts quickly and effectively. However, the study concludes that while the mother tongue is an invaluable tool in teaching English, its use should be balanced to ensure learners develop competence in the target language.

Voicu (2012:213) warns against the overuse of the mother tongue in English classes for the following reasons:

- The use of the mother tongue may become an uncontrollable habit that can be misused.
- Languages are different, so the use of the mother tongue may sometimes be misleading.
- The interference of the mother tongue may lead to grammar, vocabulary, and sentence structure errors in the target language.
- The use of the mother tongue compromises the provision of comprehensible input.

Voicu (2012:213) does not oppose the use of the mother tongue in teaching English but cautions that it needs to be used in ways that benefit the learners so that the purpose of teaching and learning English is effectively fulfilled. A different view comes from Heritage and Montle (2022:298) who found in their study that the English subject should be taught in the English language to maximize its exposure and improve learners' proficiency. Nkosi (2008:87) made a similar recommendation in the context of the Sesotho classroom by stating that teachers should only use Sesotho to teach Sesotho in order to preserve its quality.

7.8 Emerging themes

Three dominant themes were identified on completion of the analysis of classroom observations and assessments. These themes were recognized as salient factors influencing the success of the EFAL classroom in quintile 1 township and rural schools. Language classrooms are primarily evaluated on the basis of the use of the English language, how it is taught, and the extent to which activities enable learners to develop high proficiency levels in English, the language under investigation in this study. From the observations, the main themes that emerged were related to language interference and exposure to English, teachers' pedagogical content knowledge and higher-order and critical thinking abilities.

Theme 1: Language interference and exposure to English

The official language of teaching and learning in both schools is English as decided on by the SGB, parents and teachers in accordance with Section 6(2) of the South African Schools Act (RSA 1996a). This study focused mainly on the Grade 10 EFAL programme. Therefore, the expectation was to witness the language of teaching and learning in use in a very particular context, namely quintile 1 township and rural schools. The selection of these schools was based on the challenges faced by universities in terms of the English proficiency levels of learners from lower quintile schools. The observations revealed extremely limited exposure to English and strong reliance on other vernaculars such as Sesotho. Teacher 1 from the Farm School mostly adhered to English but made a few exceptions to simplify definitions of difficult concepts. At the Art School, the dominant language of teaching and learning was Sesotho, even when the context was an English language class. Though language accommodations are to be expected, they seem to be performed in a way that does not necessarily benefit the learners.

While some scholars may see the instances of translanguaging discussed above as beneficial in helping learners better comprehend the content and learn English, its outcomes at the two observed schools were not favourable in terms of supporting learners' English competency. In the case of both schools, there was minimal room for learners to use English contextually, and whenever given the opportunity to speak English, their mother tongue interfered with their ability. This was also apparent in writing tasks.

Though translanguaging has become a trending phenomenon in academia, it has been in existence for years. There is some evidence that translanguaging can be effective, but this may not apply to secondary school language teaching. The different contexts of schools and learners' linguistic backgrounds need to be considered. The debate around the use of translanguaging when teaching multilingual learners is ongoing.

As discussed in this chapter, the use of the mother tongue, or other vernaculars, in the Grade 10 English classes at the two schools observed is not necessarily wrong, but it is not used strategically. It is clear that the teachers have not received training on how to incorporate meaningful translanguaging in their lessons. In the case of the Art School, there appears to be a misuse of translanguaging. The dominance of the mother tongue is notable and interferes with the ultimate purpose of preparing learners to become better English speakers. If the teachers and learners resort to using the mother tongue most of the time, they receive less exposure to the English language and learners end up not seeing the significance of learning English. This becomes a problem when learners apply to study at a university because the medium of instruction is predominantly English, and assessment is done solely in English.

Another notable aspect relating to limited English language use is that learners mostly use the restricted code. Learners from South African townships predominantly belong to lower socio-economic classes which align with what Bernstein considers the working class in terms of his restricted code theory (1971). It was observed that learners at both schools used simple English terms and high-frequency words characteristic of elementary English or foreign language learning (Johns & Wilke 2018:9-12). They not only struggled to read and write in English but did not seem confident in speaking English. According to Bernstein (1971), the language or restricted code of learners is influenced by the socio-economic class that they belong to. Whenever the learners were given an opportunity to speak, they provided brief utterances and avoided in-depth responses. They appeared to be far more comfortable when they were speaking their mother tongue. Also, teachers modified their language to make it simple for learners to comprehend and find it easy to respond to questions. Bernstein's (1971) restricted code theory was evident in this context as the language code was restricted to the English level of the learners. The notion of modifying language goes against Krashen's input hypothesis which suggests that for learners to become competent in the target language, the input in the target language must be slightly above the learners' current ability and level (Krashen 2009:20).

Theme 2: Teachers' pedagogical content knowledge

Despite the awareness of teaching processes shown by Teacher 1, there was insufficient evidence at both schools of a thorough knowledge of how to integrate different methodologies and techniques in the additional (and bilingual) language classroom effectively. Teaching approaches guide how different skills should be developed. They force the teacher to deliberately plan lessons bearing in mind which steps they need to consider as they teach various skills. A lack of awareness of teaching pedagogies and their underlying philosophical beliefs about language learning indicates a lack of teacher preparation and interaction with the CAPS document. For example, when facilitating a writing lesson, facilitators should not only focus on the final product, but the process as well, which includes, drafting and peer reviews (DBE 2011a:35-37). Although observed teachers made an effort to teach the various stages involved in the writing process, time constraints hindered them from implementing this and providing in-depth facilitation. In the process approach, teachers are not only expected to teach the processes but to monitor that learners understand and can apply the processes.

Theme 3: Engaging higher order and critical thinking activities

CAPS states that formal assessments should address five cognitive levels: literal comprehension, reorganization, inference, evaluation, and appreciation (DBE 2011a:79). At the two schools in question, the assessments analysed in this chapter were considered appropriate to foster higher-order thinking. However, the learners' limited proficiency in English defeated the purpose of the tasks. This is not because of a lack of intelligence, but because of low levels of English proficiency. The learners' cognitive levels may be stronger in their vernacular. In terms of in-class activities, learners were given some level-appropriate activities to enable them to demonstrate their critical thinking skills. However, at both schools, learners resorted to using other languages and struggled with interpreting questions and articulating their responses in English.

Observations in line with the types of activities that were given to learners indicate a need for teachers to strengthen their understanding of Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom 1956) so they can purposefully integrate different levels into their teaching. Also, exposing learners to Bloom's Taxonomy could help them to learn with purpose and understanding. Suggested activities include examples on how teachers can use Bloom's Taxonomy as a tool for learners to enhance their critical thinking skills (DBE 2011a:79). Learners seem to be expected to develop and demonstrate these cognitive abilities without any awareness hereof. Perhaps, providing clear objectives and informing learners what is expected of them can help them approach their learning more strategically. Knowing what direction their learning is expected to take and what they should be able to do at the end of each activity may boost their level of motivation and encourage them to learn with objectives in mind.

7.9 Conclusion

This chapter reported and analysed the data collected during the classroom observations and assessments completed at the two schools selected for the study. With the guidance of the observation card and its lesson features, the researcher was able to report, discuss and analyse the unfolding events in the two English First Additional Language (EFAL) classes. The findings brought to light the challenges educators face when attempting to incorporate various recommendations outlined in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) as well as the existence of bilingual practices in the EFAL classrooms. It became evident that teachers, in their pursuit of effective in-class implementation, cannot rely solely on their intuition and efforts. Instead, they require additional focused support beyond their teacher training and the workshops provided by the Department of Basic Education (DBE). The analysis revealed a fundamental reality: teachers grapple with multifaceted challenges in translating CAPS guidelines into practical classroom strategies when working with learners with low English proficiency levels. This chapter illuminates the need for supplementary resources and support mechanisms to empower teachers to deliver impactful EFAL lessons. Even with the existing workshops and support available on the DBE website, it is evident that a more comprehensive and sustained support system is needed. Moreover, the matter of limited exposure to the standard form of the English language needs to be resolved urgently in all school grades. The identified themes emphasize the need for focused attention on key aspects to better support both pre-service and in-service teachers in delivering EFAL lessons that align with CAPS expectations. The next chapter concludes the study and presents recommendations to ensure that quality and equitable education is observed across all quintiles.

Chapter 8: Language programme evaluation conclusions and recommendations

8.1 Introduction

This language programme evaluation was motivated by concerns about the discrepancies that exist in the quality of English education between quintile 1 and 5 schools. Learners in higher quintile schools generally exhibit higher proficiency in English compared to their peers in lower quintile schools that are predominantly situated in townships and rural areas. Central to this investigation is the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), which expects all learners to attain proficiency in English by the end of high school. However, proficiency in English continues to be a challenge for both learners and teachers in quintile 1 schools. To address this issue, this study employed Lynch's Context Adaptive Model (CAM) (1996) to identify the factors contributing to this proficiency gap within the English First Additional Language (EFAL) component. CAM is designed to evaluate language programmes by examining a phenomenon from multiple perspectives and facilitating collaboration with stakeholders at all levels within the programme. This chapter is a presentation of the final step of the evaluation model: it provides an integrated report of the key findings and makes recommendations aimed at bridging the linguistic and educational divide across the five quintile levels.

8.2 Meeting research objectives and answering research questions

The study had four primary objectives. Firstly, it aimed to assess the alignment between the curriculum and the language in education policy with the needs of learners and teachers in quintile 1 township and rural schools. Secondly, it sought to evaluate the relevance of the pedagogies and resources teachers are using to support learners with diverse needs. Thirdly, it aimed to determine the extent of teachers' familiarity with the curriculum and their ability to cover the prescribed content. Lastly, the study intended to use the findings to develop recommendations for the consideration of various stakeholders identified in the programme evaluation (as discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.2). The recommendations are reported separately in the last part of the chapter (Section 8.3). The findings related to the first three research objectives are attended to in the following sections. It should be noted that the findings apply specifically to quintile 1 schools with similar contexts to the two schools included in the programme evaluation.

8.2.1 Curriculum and language policy alignment with needs of learners and teachers

Ensuring alignment between curriculum and language policy with the needs of learners and teachers is crucial for the effectiveness of education. There is a notable concern when considering the diverse needs and backgrounds of learners and teachers in township and rural settings. The current curriculum appears to lack sufficient emphasis on addressing the unique challenges and needs associated with the language backgrounds of learners and teachers in the two schools.

8.2.1.1 Learners' needs

While learners did not participate directly in this study, their role in the classroom was observed during classroom visits. Additionally, insights from interviewed participants and samples of learners' work enriched the researcher's understanding of the learners' linguistic needs as they revealed serious challenges in the EFAL component such as learners' struggles to read, speak and write in English. These challenges are acknowledged in the CAPS document: learners entering Grade 10 still cannot communicate well in English (DBE 2011a:8).

Learners from the two schools face a scarcity of opportunities for meaningful interaction with English speakers. Despite exposure to text types such as written and spoken texts, visual images and literal and non-literal texts, there seems to be insufficient time and resources to foster substantial proficiency in English for academic purposes. Moreover, as Stoffelsma (2019) reminds us, spoken language cannot fully substitute for the depth of vocabulary found in written form. Extensive exposure to good English language models and access to meaningful printed materials remain essential. Effective and evidence-based reading methodologies should be incorporated to enable reading with understanding across the curriculum. One promising initiative is the Read to Learn programme (Hart 2023) which integrates reading and writing in a way that supports learning across the curriculum.

At both schools, English language utilization predominately occurs during the weekly 4.5 hours of EFAL class sessions as the language is not used as the lingua franca outside the school classroom. Regrettably, the EFAL classroom seems to be characterized by heightened pressure that leads to feelings of anxiety, and even intimidation among learners when asked to do oral activities (see example in Chapter 7, Section 7.4.3). To attest to this, learners at both the Farm and Art school lacked confidence and seemed anxious when they had to use English as revealed in the observation findings and learners' samples of work. Learners' anxiety and limited English ability can largely be ascribed to informal translanguaging practices that have become common practice in the Grade 10 language classroom owing to unsuccessful language teaching and ineffective methodologies to teach reading in the lower grades of schooling. This unfortunate situation is exacerbated by language policies that encourage a rapid move to English in Grade 4 without the necessary foundation having been laid.

A significant barrier to achieving proficiency in English seems to be the delayed introduction of elaborated code English as the LoLT in quintile 1 schools. As indicated by Quan *et al.* (2024:282), Grade 4 learners are not adequately prepared to switch to English as the medium of instruction after only encountering a basic and restricted code of English in the Foundation Phase. This delay to expose them to elaborated code English and their unpreparedness contrasts with the experiences of learners in upper quintile schools in urban areas where English is introduced earlier and more organically as an elaborated code. Socio-economic circumstances intersect with language learning to a greater extent in rural and township settings than in urban areas. According to Bernstein (1971), middle-class speakers tend to use longer words, complex sentences and detailed descriptions (elaborated code), whereas working-class speakers often rely on simpler language (restricted code). In the case of quintile 1 schools, learners are often introduced to English in its restricted form, which may not equip them to achieve the same proficiency levels as their peers in higher quintile schools. Introducing the elaborated code across all quintiles could help bridge the gap in English academic language proficiency among learners. This aspect will be covered in the recommendations that follow at the end of this chapter.

8.2.1.2 Teachers' needs

The fulfilment of teachers' needs is imperative, as their satisfaction or lack thereof can reverberate throughout the education system. Teachers are seen as conduits of quality education, particularly in the English component. However, the issue of limited access to teaching resources and time management constraints seems to be an impediment to providing quality and equitable education. Moreover, teachers need further support in developing English proficiency for academic purposes to be able to assist EFAL learners in lower quintile schools.

It is crucial that there are sufficient teaching resources and well-trained teachers who are proficient in their subject. Though this falls beyond the scope of the study and could not be determined, a general impression prevails that higher quintile schools are well-resourced and employ well-trained teachers with PCK. Evidence of difficulties teaching English in schools is provided in the Implementation Evaluation Report of the National Curriculum Statement Grade R to 12 which suggests that as many as half of the Grade 10 English teachers are not strong enough in English (DPME & DBE 2017:15). This raises questions about the potential disparities in the quality of English education between schools of varying quintiles and underscores the critical importance of employing quality teachers who are fluent in English to expose learners to quality English from the early grades in quintile 1 schools. The call for more prepared teachers, especially in the English component, emphasizes the urgency of prioritizing teacher competence in quintile 1 schools to bridge the existing gaps in educational quality.

In the course of interviews and observations, it became apparent that the participating teachers in this study exhibit resilience and resourcefulness by making the most of the available resources to facilitate lessons in alignment with the curriculum. Their commendation for the Department of Basic Education’s support stresses the importance of external assistance in maintaining the smooth functioning of schools. However, despite these commendable efforts, several challenges persist, with notable implications for English language education in quintile 1 schools.

8.2.2 Relevance of pedagogies and resources to support learners with diverse needs

To facilitate effective English language instruction, teachers play a role in implementing a series of strategic steps designed to support learners with diverse needs. These steps are integral to fostering proficiency in key language skills, encompassing speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Moreover, teachers should leverage the diverse array of pedagogies and resources available to improve their instructional approaches.

8.2.2.1 Teacher’s Pedagogical Content Knowledge

An integral aspect addressed in this study is the significance of teachers’ Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK) as part of their professional responsibilities. However, expertise in subject matter alone does not guarantee effective teaching. Teachers must be equipped with a repertoire of teaching approaches that can be integrated meaningfully into their lessons.

The study's findings offer valuable insights into the pedagogical approaches adopted by the teachers at the Art and Farm schools. Although Teacher 2 showcased proficiency in employing diverse teaching methods to enhance linguistic skills, it was difficult to observe her teaching approach as she only presented one class. During the interviews when probed about their preferred language teaching approaches, the two teachers' responses indicated a misunderstanding of what was meant by pedagogy as a concept and approach in language teaching (see Chapter 7, Section 7.5.2). The study unveils a disconnect between teachers' responses and their actual knowledge of teaching approaches, signalling a potential gap in the content covered during their teacher training and the professional development workshops hosted by the Free State Department of Education (FSDoE). These workshops appear not to be sufficiently training teachers to understand and integrate teaching processes and approaches, leaving educators ill-equipped to deliver content in ways that optimally benefit multilingual learners. Ensuring that teachers possess the necessary tools and strategies is crucial for creating an effective and meaningful learning environment.

As highlighted in Chapter 2, effective teachers should possess both pedagogical and content knowledge (Shulman 1986). Based on teachers' responses regarding teaching approaches, their own English competencies as well time constraints to implement the curriculum, a skills-neutral approach should be adopted in which language skills are integrated during classes as suggested by Weideman (2021:25) and other scholars. This should apply to the teaching of literature as well. It appears that a long-term intervention aimed at strengthening teaching pedagogy and content knowledge would be beneficial.

8.2.2.2 Teaching resources used

Discrepancies in the availability of textbooks between the Farm and Art School were observed. Whereas learners at the Farm School had textbooks, those at the Art School did not, leading to a dependency on the abridged CAPS document referred to as the Annual Teaching Plan (ATP), and printed worksheets aligned with weekly topics suggested in the CAPS document. This highlights challenges in resource management and coordination at the Art School, potentially affecting the consistency and delivery of meaningful and equitable teaching.

The national Department of Basic Education's website serves as a valuable repository of supplementary materials, ensuring the crucial continuity of teaching even in the face of potential delays in material delivery. These resources are available for downloading and can mitigate the effects of textbook shortages. Despite the availability of these resources, it was surprising to notice that none of the interviewed teachers referenced or utilized them in their teaching practices. This raises concerns about the awareness and utilization of valuable, accessible materials that could enhance the quality of education.

The evolving digital landscape, marked by widespread Internet access, underscores the need for teachers to be innovative and proactive in their approach to teaching. Relying solely on traditional channels, such as waiting for the provincial Department of Education for resources and teaching activities, is unnecessary in today's advanced world. Teachers can leverage the wealth of online resources and explore innovative teaching methods and tasks to enhance the learning experience of their learners.

The observation that teachers appear to lack a comprehensive understanding of the relevance of various pedagogies is a significant concern. Pedagogies, or teaching methods, play a crucial role in shaping the learning experience, especially for learners with diverse needs. Furthermore, teachers' apparent lack of awareness regarding available online resources for supporting learners with diverse needs is a notable gap in their professional knowledge. Digital resources offer a vast array of tools and materials that can be instrumental in creating inclusive and differentiated learning environments. These resources can provide targeted support for learners with diverse needs, catering to different learning styles, abilities, and preferences.

8.2.3 Curriculum familiarisation and content coverage

Notably, none of the teaching staff involved with the Grade 10 classes that were observed had a copy of CAPS. The curriculum serves as a fundamental manual that guides teachers in structuring their teaching methods and approaches. The lack of access to the complete curriculum likely contributes to teachers' unfamiliarity with crucial aspects, such as various teaching approaches, processes and grading guidelines.

In lieu of the full curriculum, teachers in both schools rely on the Annual Teaching Plan (ATP). This document primarily outlines the content to be covered during the academic year and functions more as a pacing schedule. While it provides teachers with a clear outline of what needs to be taught and when, it lacks detailed guidance on how the content should be covered, including the recommended teaching approaches to ensure learner engagement and mastery of subject content.

Teachers also highlighted content coverage as a significant concern, citing time constraints as a primary obstacle. Both lower and higher quintile schools receive an equal allocation of time for the EFAL component. However, the equality in time allocation does not necessarily translate into equitable outcomes, as the issue of inadequate exposure to English and content coverage persists. Teachers, driven by a commitment to align with the curriculum, face a dilemma wherein their dedicated efforts might not yield optimal outcomes due to the prevailing low proficiency levels of the learners. The CAPS curriculum is overly ambitious and needs to be refocused in accordance with modern communication practices, needs and realities.

The synthesis of salient findings provided above reveals that the CAPS EFAL component fails to adequately consider the linguistic backgrounds and needs of teachers and learners in quintile 1 township and rural schools. Key factors affecting the successful implementation of EFAL for learners with diverse needs include the lack of ongoing professional development opportunities for teachers to enhance their pedagogical content knowledge, disparities with the distribution of textbooks and learning materials, lack of awareness and use of digital resources, and the inability to cover content due to time constraints. Based on these findings, the following recommendations are proposed.

8.3 Recommendations

To address the imperative need for meaningful English language teaching within the diverse landscape of quintile 1 schools, this section provides recommendations formulated to enhance the effectiveness of language programmes, ensuring they align with the unique needs and challenges prevalent in diverse educational settings. The recommendations below are aimed at increasing equitability of learning opportunities in quintile 1 schools in particular but may be applicable to schools in other quintiles as well.

8.3.1 Expose learners to conversational English from Grade R

The type of English that learners encounter in township and rural communities often falls within the restricted code. This makes it challenging for them to acquire the necessary elaborated code needed for academic purposes. To address this, learners should be introduced to conversational English through a natural language acquisition approach from Grade R. This can be done through games and activities that involve the use of English in addition to other vernaculars and the appointment of designated teachers who serve as good English role models. This model is used successfully in bilingual homes where parents act as fluent language role models. According to this model, each parent consistently uses a particular language with the child who learns to associate that language with the parent from birth. This does not involve translanguaging but fluent and articulate speech. This approach could be continued in the Foundation Phase by focusing on oral and aural English skills through games, songs, stories and activities such as "show and tell". Once learners have mastered learning to read and write in their home language vernaculars, learners can be taught to read and write in EFAL using appropriate methodologies. To learn to read with understanding in English, learners must be taught phonics in English as the English sound system differs from that of other languages, and learners need to be able to associate phonemes with graphemes and learn the different blends of letters and consonants. At first learners would be exposed to a restricted code of English as an additional language in Grade R, but they would incrementally receive increased exposure to develop an elaborated code from Grade 4 onwards. This should be combined with effective reading literacy instruction such as the approach used in the Read to Learn programme (Hart 2023).

Early exposure to a conversational and restricted form of English could help ease the drastic transition and complications experienced currently in Grade 4. The concepts of elaborated and restricted code are closely related to those of BICS and CALP in this recommendation. Learners should be exposed to basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) in English from Grade R and more advanced English should be introduced incrementally to develop cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) from Grade 4. Although this is the objective of CAPS, it does not seem to be the case in quintile 1 schools based on the Grade 10 learners' levels of English in the two schools that were studied.

This recommendation emphasizes the importance of promoting multilingualism within the educational framework in a responsible way, particularly in disadvantaged communities. By employing the findings of second language acquisition research, English can be acquired as an additional language akin to acquiring a home language or another community language in a multilingual setting. This approach acknowledges the inherent multilingual capacity of township and village children by recommending English in authentic settings so as to integrate it into the linguistic repertoire of township children from a young age. The goal ultimately is to make English as accessible and familiar as their primary languages through innovative classroom and literacy practices.

This recommendation does not contradict the views of Quan *et al.* (2024:287) who advocate for the development of African languages by using the mother tongue as the language of instruction in South Africa, arguing that African languages can be elevated to the same status as English and Afrikaans. However, it suggests that by Grade 10, learners should be proficient enough to learn other school subjects in English and to master the EFAL curriculum. This will help prepare them for opportunities where English is the primary language of communication, such as in business, commerce and higher education.

8.3.2 Teacher training and professional development opportunities

To cultivate an inclusive and culturally sensitive learning environment, it is imperative to provide ongoing training for educators, equipping them with the necessary tools to enhance their teaching practice. This recommendation emphasizes the importance of professional development programmes tailored to empower teachers with the skills required to navigate the diverse cultural landscapes present in educational settings. Teachers should be equipped with effective strategies to address language barriers and facilitate English language acquisition in multilingual classrooms. This involves specialized training that goes beyond conventional language instruction, acknowledging and adapting to the unique linguistic challenges faced by learners from various backgrounds. For example, the current mode of translanguaging being used in classes does not support the mastery of English. Translanguaging pedagogy needs to be developed so that teachers can use translanguaging strategically and effectively in primary school EFAL classrooms. The matter of differentiated instruction that caters to different learner needs is also underexplored in South Africa. Online training through a learning management system (LMS) such as Blackboard or Moodle could also be investigated to support teachers.

By investing in continuous training initiatives, educational institutions can ensure that their teaching staff remain adept at fostering an inclusive and supportive atmosphere. This proactive approach not only benefits learners by providing a culturally rich and responsive learning environment but also contributes to the professional growth and efficacy of teachers themselves. As educators enhance their cultural competence and language facilitation skills, they become better equipped to meet the diverse needs of learners, thereby promoting a more equitable and meaningful educational experience for all.

8.3.3 Monitoring and evaluation of the EFAL component through an online learning management system and database

To ensure the ongoing success and relevance of the language programme, a systematic and regular evaluation is paramount. This recommendation advocates for the implementation of a comprehensive online learning management system and database to collect relevant data and feedback directly from schools and teachers throughout the academic year and to provide support and training. More use of online systems can be made to provide provincial departments with information needed to ensure that data such as resource needs, teacher shortages and other concerns are received quickly and cost-effectively from schools. This will enable easy access to management of resources, adequate supplies and teacher and learner needs. Such systems can also be used for ongoing online teacher development opportunities. Soliciting feedback from schools may help provide valuable information that includes strengths and areas that require addressing.

Community engagement is a crucial element in supporting learners’ educational journeys. By involving the community in discussions around language policy and pedagogy, awareness can be increased of the importance of literacy and how learners can be supported at home. In addition, education departments can gain a holistic perspective of community perceptions of the quality of learning in quintile 1 schools. This involves seeking input from parents, community leaders, and local stakeholders to gauge the EFAL programme’s alignment with community needs and expectations. Regular language programme evaluations are proposed.

This recommendation emphasizes the dynamic nature of education by proposing a responsive approach. Programme evaluation findings should be actively used to keep track of trends and changes and to adjust and refine the language programme. This adaptive strategy allows educational institutions to address emerging challenges, incorporate innovative teaching methods, and continually enhance the overall effectiveness of the programme. Future research in language programme evaluation should cover additional grade levels to ensure ongoing curriculum revisions that will best meet the linguistic needs of learners in quintile 1 schools.

8.4 Conclusion

In an eNCA interview on January 18, 2024, Premier Panyaza Lesufi of Gauteng emphasized the need for a fundamental shift in South Africa’s education system to ensure inclusivity and equity for all South African learners. He highlighted the current discrepancies in the education system, advocating that every learner deserves equal access to quality education. In South African schools, English often serves as a marker of quality education, creating a divide between schools in different quintiles. English instruction should be consistent across all schools, with highly qualified English teachers placed in lower quintile schools to ensure that learners receive the same standard of education. The proposed recommendations for transforming English language teaching in lower quintile schools mark a crucial step towards creating an inclusive and effective learning environment. By involving all identified stakeholders, the curriculum can be revised and implemented more successfully. Teacher training can be more focused and community partnerships can be strengthened to address the unique challenges of township and rural schools.

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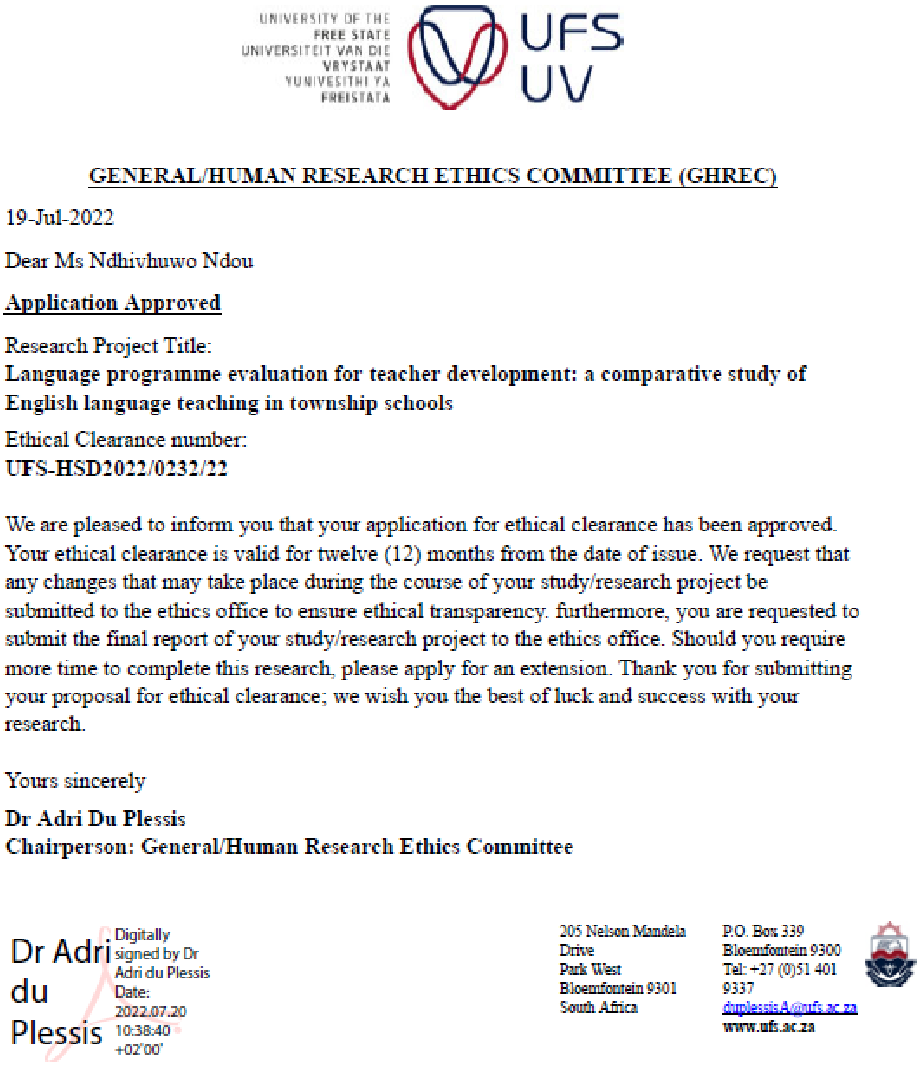
Annexures

Annexure A: Ethical clearance



UNIVERSITY OF THE
FREE STATE
UNIVERSITEIT VAN DIE
VRYSTAAT
YUNIVESITHI YA
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UFS
UV

GENERAL/HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (GHREC)

19-Jul-2022

Dear Ms Ndhivhuwo Ndou

Application Approved

Research Project Title:
Language programme evaluation for teacher development: a comparative study of English language teaching in township schools

Ethical Clearance number:
UFS-HSD2022/0232/22

We are pleased to inform you that your application for ethical clearance has been approved. Your ethical clearance is valid for twelve (12) months from the date of issue. We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your study/research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure ethical transparency. furthermore, you are requested to submit the final report of your study/research project to the ethics office. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension. Thank you for submitting your proposal for ethical clearance; we wish you the best of luck and success with your research.

Yours sincerely

Dr Adri Du Plessis
Chairperson: General/Human Research Ethics Committee

Dr Adri du Plessis
Digitally signed by Dr Adri du Plessis
Date: 2022.07.20 10:38:40 +02'00'

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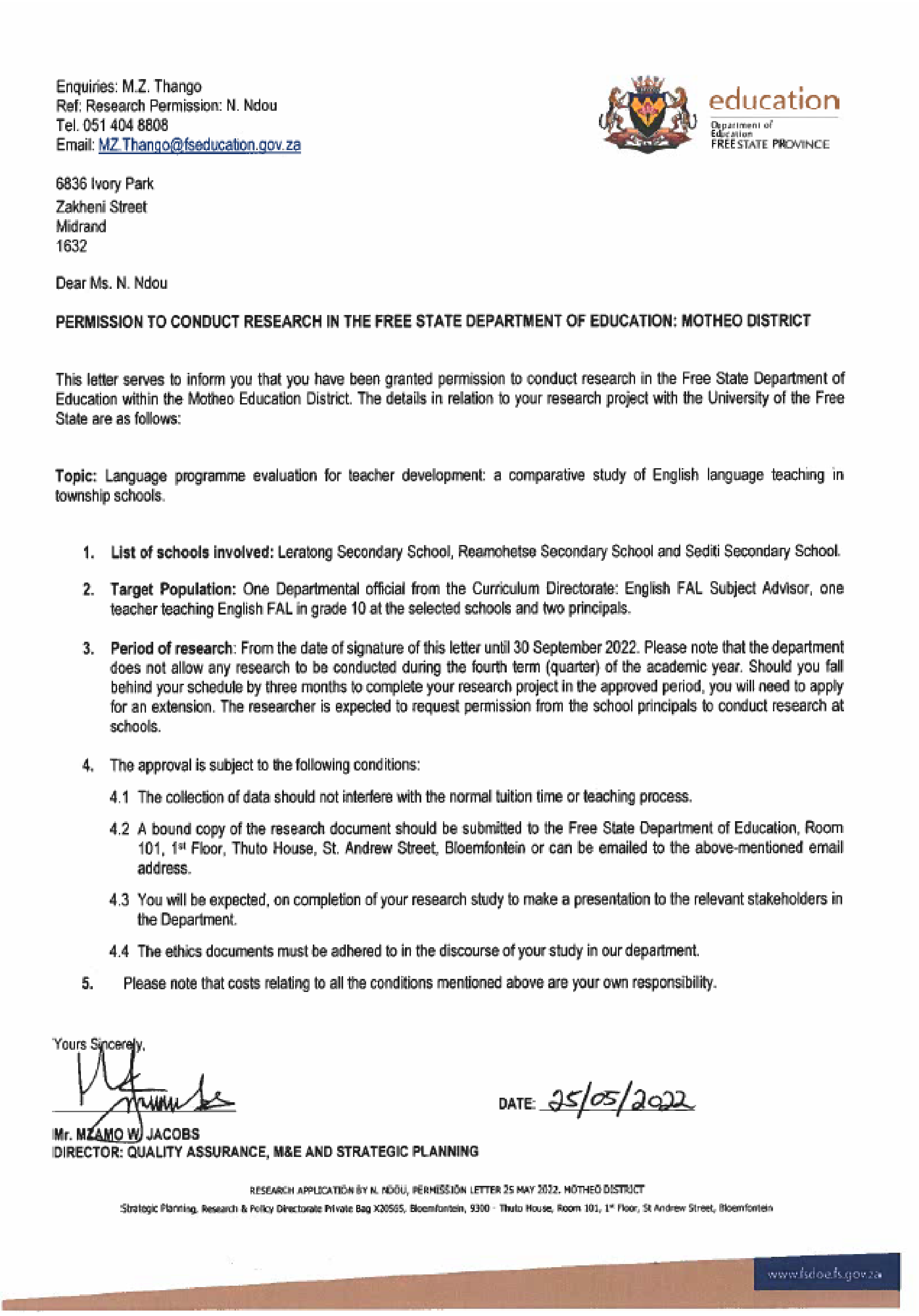
Annexure B: FSDoE permission letter



Enquiries: M.Z. Thango
Ref: Research Permission: N. Ndou
Tel. 051 404 8808
Email: MZ.Thango@fseducation.gov.za

education
Department of Education
FREE STATE PROVINCE

6836 Ivory Park
Zakheni Street
Midrand
1632

Dear Ms. N. Ndou

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION: MOTHEO DISTRICT

This letter serves to inform you that you have been granted permission to conduct research in the Free State Department of Education within the Motheo Education District. The details in relation to your research project with the University of the Free State are as follows:

Topic: Language programme evaluation for teacher development: a comparative study of English language teaching in township schools.

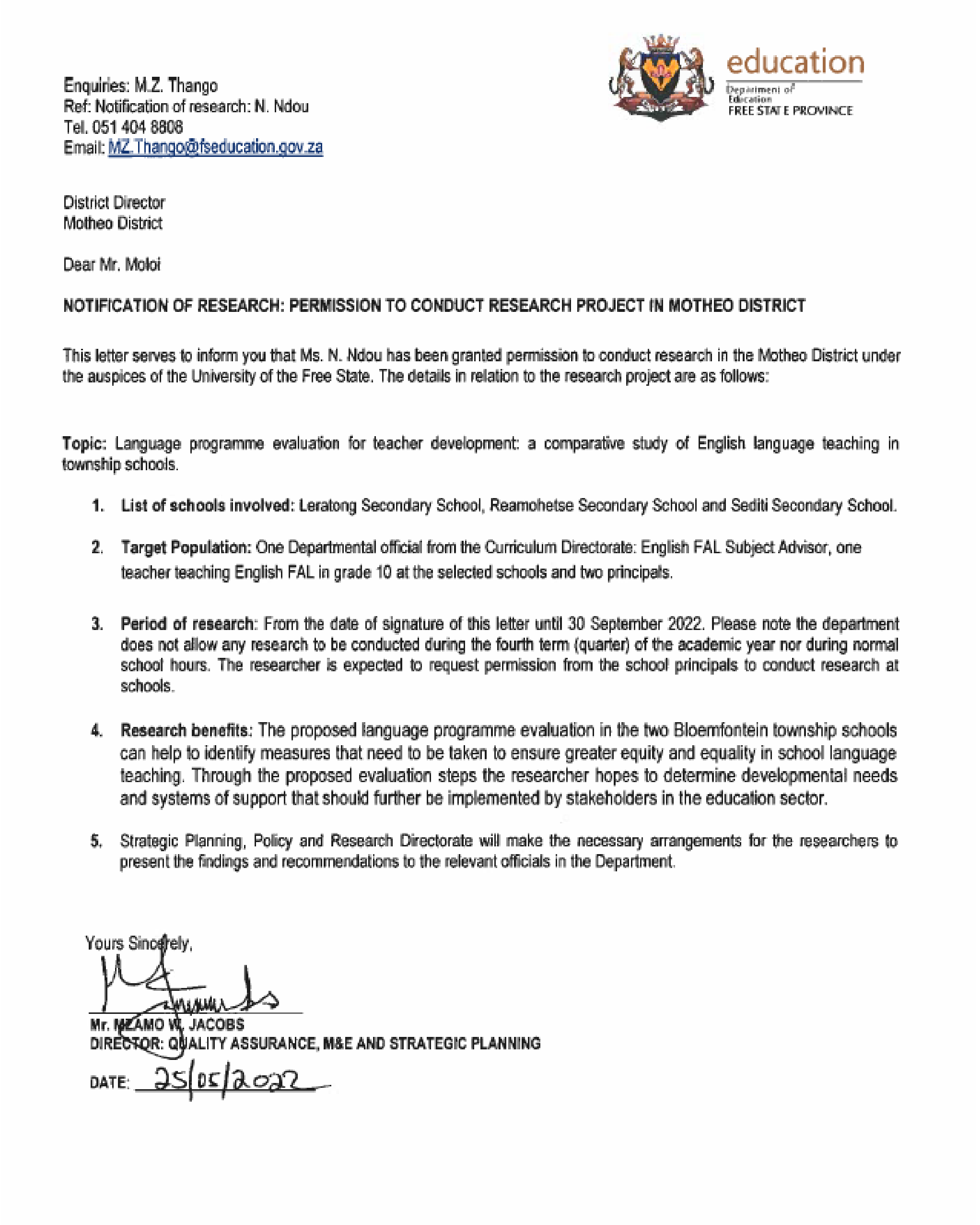
1. **List of schools involved:** Leratong Secondary School, Reamohetse Secondary School and Sediti Secondary School.
2. **Target Population:** One Departmental official from the Curriculum Directorate: English FAL Subject Advisor, one teacher teaching English FAL in grade 10 at the selected schools and two principals.
3. **Period of research**: From the date of signature of this letter until 30 September 2022. Please note that the department does not allow any research to be conducted during the fourth term (quarter) of the academic year. Should you fall behind your schedule by three months to complete your research project in the approved period, you will need to apply for an extension. The researcher is expected to request permission from the school principals to conduct research at schools.
4. The approval is subject to the following conditions:
    - 4.1 The collection of data should not interfere with the normal tuition time or teaching process.
    - 4.2 A bound copy of the research document should be submitted to the Free State Department of Education, Room 101, 1st Floor, Thuto House, St. Andrew Street, Bloemfontein or can be emailed to the above-mentioned email address.
    - 4.3 You will be expected, on completion of your research study to make a presentation to the relevant stakeholders in the Department.
    - 4.4 The ethics documents must be adhered to in the discourse of your study in our department.
5. Please note that costs relating to all the conditions mentioned above are your own responsibility.

Yours Sincerely,

DATE: 25/05/2022

Mr. MZAMO W. JACOBS
DIRECTOR: QUALITY ASSURANCE, M&E AND STRATEGIC PLANNING

RESEARCH APPLICATION BY N. NDOU, PERMISSION LETTER 25 MAY 2022. MOTHEO DISTRICT



education
Department of Education
FREE STATE PROVINCE

Enquiries: M.Z. Thango
Ref: Notification of research: N. Ndou
Tel. 051 404 8808
Email: MZ.Thango@fseducation.gov.za

District Director
Motheo District

Dear Mr. Moloi

NOTIFICATION OF RESEARCH: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH PROJECT IN MOTHEO DISTRICT

This letter serves to inform you that Ms. N. Ndou has been granted permission to conduct research in the Motheo District under the auspices of the University of the Free State. The details in relation to the research project are as follows:

Topic: Language programme evaluation for teacher development: a comparative study of English language teaching in township schools.

1. **List of schools involved:** Leratong Secondary School, Reamohetse Secondary School and Sediti Secondary School.
2. **Target Population:** One Departmental official from the Curriculum Directorate: English FAL Subject Advisor, one teacher teaching English FAL in grade 10 at the selected schools and two principals.
3. **Period of research:** From the date of signature of this letter until 30 September 2022. Please note the department does not allow any research to be conducted during the fourth term (quarter) of the academic year nor during normal school hours. The researcher is expected to request permission from the school principals to conduct research at schools.
4. **Research benefits:** The proposed language programme evaluation in the two Bloemfontein township schools can help to identify measures that need to be taken to ensure greater equity and equality in school language teaching. Through the proposed evaluation steps the researcher hopes to determine developmental needs and systems of support that should further be implemented by stakeholders in the education sector.
5. Strategic Planning, Policy and Research Directorate will make the necessary arrangements for the researchers to present the findings and recommendations to the relevant officials in the Department.

Yours Sincerely,

Mr. MZAMO W. JACOBS
DIRECTOR: QUALITY ASSURANCE, M&E AND STRATEGIC PLANNING

DATE: 25/05/2022