UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

PROFESSIONAL LEARNING OF FOUNDATION PHASE TEACHERS IN THE ADVANCED CERTIFICATE IN TEACHING (ACT) PROGRAMME

BY

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ABSTRACT

This is a case study of three Foundation Phase (FP) teachers enrolled on the Advanced Certificate in Teaching (ACT) programme. It explores what they learnt about teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL) and how this learning impacted on their beliefs about literacy teaching and their classroom practices. The study aims to contribute to the on-going debates about teacher learning and take up from teacher professional development (PD) programmes in South Africa.

The research question which guided the study is: What kinds of knowledge do the FP teachers acquire from the ACT programme and how do they apply and recontextualise this knowledge in teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL)?

The study involved three FP teachers from three primary schools in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa, who were purposively selected as the analytical cases from a larger group (173) of teachers who enrolled in the ACT programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, in 2014. The case study followed the interpretivist paradigm and a qualitative method, with an element of a longitudinal approach. This made it possible to work closely with each teacher in her context for a period of 18 months, in an attempt to understand teacher learning through the eyes of the participants. The appropriateness of this approach became evident after recognising that it was not possible to separate my interpretations from the participants' background, history, context and prior understanding.

Data were generated from multiple sources: interviews, field notes, classroom observations and document analysis. Data were reduced and inductively analysed to give the reader a clear and systematic presentation of the three teachers' stories and descriptions about their experiences and pedagogies. These generated biographical descriptions which provided a deeper understanding of three different contexts. Deductively, three different lenses were also used: Reed's (2009) conceptual framework to analyse the Learning Guide of the ACT literacy Module 4; the principles of teaching First Additional Language (FAL) to describe teachers' pedagogies; and the Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth (IMTPG) to examine the nature of teacher change. Altogether, these generated rich descriptions and discussions about teacher learning and the impact on teachers' pedagogies.

The document analysis of the ACT literacy module aimed to understand what principles of literacy and domains of teacher knowledge were privileged in the intended curriculum. The analysis was achieved by using Reed's (2009) knowledge conceptual framework to understand the exemplified domains of knowledge. The results of the study showed a strong focus on the practical domain of teacher knowledge, as compared to the subject matter domain. Texts in the LG4 on emergent literacy theories and assumptions of effective teaching are clear, but the conceptual knowledge is not explicitly taught, which is needed to support the practical knowledge.

The principles of teaching FAL were used to map the ways in which the three teachers changed their teaching of English literacy. Anne and Lisa developed a deeper understanding of most of the principles of teaching FAL, such as bilingualism and creating opportunities for learners to build new vocabulary and to read fluently in English, while applying the Krashen's hypothesis of acquiring FAL. The third teacher, Jane, portrayed moderate - weak presentations of the FAL principles in the six observed lessons. The former displayed mostly a core change (networks of growth), unlike the latter with predominantly a peripheral change which might not last in practice, according to IMTPG. However, the three teachers acquired insufficient knowledge on writing skills as espoused in the literacy modules.

Complexity theory (Opfer & Pedder, 2011) is used as a way of explaining the different learning outcomes for the three teachers. Complexity theory suggests that the individual teacher, the learning activity (in this case, the ACT programme) and the school organisation and context all influence the process of teacher learning and change.

KEY WORDS: Teacher learning, Teacher knowledge, Teacher change, Teaching English as a First Additional Language, Foundation Phase.

DECLARATION

This dissertation is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy in the graduate programme in the School of Education, University of KwaZulu-Natal, in Pietermaritzburg, South Africa.

1. I, Faith Kananu Kimathi, hereby declare that the research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.
2. this dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
3. this dissertation does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
4. this dissertation does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then: their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced and, where their exact words have been used, then their writing has been placed in italics and inside quotation marks, and referenced.
5. this dissertation does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the thesis and in the references sections.

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F.K. Kimathi   Date

I declare that this dissertation has been submitted for examination with my approval.

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Dr Carol Bertram   Date

DEDICATION

To my three lovely children – the pillars of my strength through the challenging times. Ninet, Gracie and Joe, whose presence blessed and encouraged me through the entire solitary journey. You devotedly linked to this work, thus I truly dedicate it to you. God bless you always.

Lots of Love from Mum

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

This chapter serves to provide the focus, scope and significance of the study. Two important concerns why I decided to embark on this particular study are outlined, with the background information providing the nature and the state of the Foundation Phase (FP) in the South African primary schools context. This gives a clear understanding of the contextual issues and how the teacher learning of the FP teachers becomes crucial to the FP challenges. The critical objective and research questions are presented in relation to the case study design which I used to explore the concept of teacher learning. The chapter also defines the key concepts used in this study and ends with a brief outline of the chapters of this dissertation.

This study aims to understand teacher learning of FP teachers from the Advanced Certificate in Teaching (ACT), a formal professional development programme offered at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN). The study focuses particularly on the learning of English as First Additional Language (EFAL). The choice of EFAL as a lens to explore the teacher learning was motivated by the fact that literacy, in both Home Language (HL) and EFAL, is one of the three key content areas of the FP school curriculum in South Africa, which is the context of this study. English literacy in particular, is mostly offered as EFAL at the FP phase, as the majority of children in South Africa learn English as an additional language. From 2012, when the current Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPs) was implemented, English has been taught as a subject in the FP. The purpose of introducing EFAL at Grade 1 was to enhance the additive bilingualism and multilingual approaches (Department of Basic Education, 2011).

1.2 Focus of the study

The study aims to explore what a selected number of Foundation Phase (FP) teachers learnt from the Advanced Certificate in Teaching (ACT) programme, about teaching EFAL and how this learning might or might not have impacted on their beliefs about literacy teaching and classroom practices. The study anticipates contributing to the on-going debate about teacher learning and 'take up' from the teacher professional development programmes in South Africa (Adler & Reed, 2002).This study also draws attention to a relatively unexplored area – the

relationship that exists between teachers' learning in pursuit of advancing their qualifications and putting what they have learnt into practice in schools (Meyer & Abel, 2015). The three FP teachers in this study were part of a larger group of teachers (173) who enrolled in 2014 at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) on a two-year, part-time formal teacher professional development programme, the ACT for Foundation Phase.

Since 2000, the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) and now the ACT programme, has been offered to teachers who have a National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE), as a way of deepening their knowledge base on the subjects they already teach, or to teachers who are specialising in a new content area or phase. The programme encourages active contributions to the learning process and thus the teachers' inferences, intuitions, discoveries and conclusions are valued in the learning process. The assumption is that this teacher learning approach would encourage FP teachers to make meaning through critical thinking, interactions with peers, children and the context in which they practice (Hill & Khuboni, 2013). This approach is valuable in empowering FP teachers and creating learning which is not only simply theoretical, but also experiential and practical in nature. However, there has not been a great deal of systematic research to track exactly the kind of literacy knowledge teachers gain through these kinds of formal programmes (Abadzi, 2006; van der Merwe & Nel, 2012).This dissertation aims to contribute to this field by using the EFAL module as the specific context of the research.

1.3 Rationale for the study

The rationale for this study is underpinned and driven by two major considerations: national concerns over the FP schooling system and the need for research into the impact of the professional development (PD) activities in the South African context. The first consideration is the growing national concern over the schooling system. A great deal of state funds has been spent on upgrading teacher qualifications. However, the Annual National Assessment (ANA) results in numeracy and literacy research conducted among the 6 million Grade 3 learners in the FP suggest that numeracy and literacy skills and proficiencies are still lacking in many South African schools (Department of Basic Education, 2012). In related research, a recent study on Grade 6 teachers indicated that teacher training or development seems to have little or no impact on teacher knowledge (Taylor & Taylor, 2013b) and subsequently, on learners' performance. There is thus little evidence to suggest that the FP teachers perform any better with the improved teacher knowledge. There are a variety of reasons why the South African learners perform poorly in national and international tests; for example, poverty and socio-

economic issues such as unemployment, malnutrition (Fleisch, 2008), learning in English, the education legacy left by the apartheid regime (Bertram, 2011), as well as the teachers' failure to organise effective classroom practices (Hoadley, 2012, 2013). The continuing poor numeracy and literacy achievement of Grade 3 and 6 learners seems to indicate deficiencies in teacher knowledge and/or inadequate teacher learning from formal programmes like the ACE or ACT. In an attempt to search for empirical evidence to describe the relationship that might exist between teacher knowledge and teachers' practices, this study explored how three Grade 2 teachers' learning from the ACT programme impacted on their beliefs and teaching of EFAL.

In addition, FP is the base where all future learning of a person is established (W. Hugo, Jack, Wedekind, & Wilson, 2010), and this therefore affirms another reason why the FP has become a national priority or focus. Simply put, the fundamentals of speaking and listening, reading, writing and arithmetic are established at the FP and if not addressed with the urgency they require, the scourge of illiteracy and poor education will dramatically reduce the future life opportunities of young South Africans. Therefore, it is of paramount importance for the country to identify and tackle the challenges facing the FP, since reading and writing are considered the foundation of all future learning.

Such national concerns have made the Department of Basic Education (DBE) increase its commitment to support the professional development (PD) of teachers. For instance, the current policy document, *The Integrated Strategic Planning for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa 2011- 2025,* is one of the strategic plans released in 2011, the aim of which is to 'improve the quality of teacher education and development, in order to improve the quality of teachers and teaching' (Department of Basic Education and Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011).The underlying assumption of such policies is that PD improves the competencies of teachers who themselves eventually become essential drivers of a quality education system. Therefore, teacher learning in South Africa is vital for improving teaching and learning in the currently challenged school system.

At the FP level, government effort has been substantial. Three of the six key issues raised by the DoE (current DBE) during the first FP conference in 2008 in the Limpopo Province were aimed at improving FP teachers' competencies. The improvements proposed include equipping and supporting the FP teachers with the required skills and knowledge to effectively implement

the curriculum and encouraging them to be knowledge seekers, readers, managers and leaders (Department of Education, 2008c). To prove the government's commitment to the above issues, resources and funding initiatives were readily available for the FP from 2011 at the provincial level, restructuring of the PD programmes for teachers is vigorous at universities (Department of Basic Education and Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011), while CAPS was implemented in 2012 at the FP. This study is therefore relevant in its potential to inform the South African Department of Basic Education (DBE) about the kinds of English literacy knowledge acquired by FP teachers from the formal ACT programme, information which could be used for the purpose of improving the teaching and learning process.

The second major concern of this study is related to the broader research field. Several studies in South Africa have explored the knowledge that teachers 'take up' from formal professional programmes and new curricula, in order to determine how learners' performance relate to the teachers' knowledge, or to evaluate the effectiveness of the particular PD activities (Adler, Slonimsky, & Reed, 2002; Brodie, Lelliott, & Davis, 2002; Nomlomo & Desai, 2014; Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999). Indeed, these aspects are of value in the current South African educational context. However, insights on what teachers learn and how they learn provides a platform to resolve the dilemma of teachers' 'take up' from professional development programmes.

The following critical question then arises: how do teachers make sense of the theory and pedagogical practices propounded by the teacher education programmes and curriculum documents, and how do they carry these into practices of teaching their learners how to read and write at the FP? On this notion, S. M. Wilson and Berne (1999) acknowledged the need for more research in the United States and other countries, on how teachers reconstruct the theoretical knowledge from the PD to their classroom practices. This case study attempts to answer this critical question.

The acquisition of new knowledge among practising FP teachers in South Africa is surprisingly under-researched. Some researchers (Adey, Hewitt, Hewitt, & Laudau, 2004; Adler & Reed, 2002; Brodie et al., 2002; Vavrus, 2009) acknowledged the complexity of exploring teachers' 'take up' from educational programmes and understanding how teachers reconstruct the acquired theory into practice. There appears to be a gap between the learnt theory and teachers' practice, which needs further research. I do agree with some scholars that this gap is amplified

by the fact that teachers' practice is predetermined by the curriculum or the government policies, the nature of schools and the socio-economic status of our African context (Bantwini, 2011; Hoadley, 2012; Jansen, 1999; Taylor & Taylor, 2013b; Vavrus, 2009). However, understanding the relationship between the teachers' knowledge base and how it influences their practices is crucial in the education field. Therefore, it is my hope that this research would provide empirical evidence on the kind of knowledge that teachers acquire from formal programmes such as the ACT, to enable them to effectively teach reading and writing in their context. Such evidence would provide universities the opportunity to follow teachers into the classroom, to find out if and how the acquired knowledge is being enacted. In addition, the data gathered by this study could prove useful in the design and implementation of future PD programmes for teachers in other grades.

There are a number of studies on FP classroom practice, but very little on the knowledge base of FP teachers in South Africa. For instance, a study on pedagogic discourse in Grade 3 classrooms found limited published research on classroom discourse at the FP and thus, the research had focused broadly on primary school discourse and had adopted a paradigm grounded in developed countries contexts (Hoadley, 2012). In the same vein, a PD programme evaluation study in the Western Cape Province by (Meyer & Abel, 2015), as well as the study in the Northern Cape Province by (Brown, Wilmot, & Ash, 2015),which described how a PD programme impacted on FP teachers pedagogies, both responds to FP inquiry. However, both studies did not investigate the nature of teacher change or the domains of knowledge acquired by the FP teachers from these PD activities. With that in mind, this dissertation endeavours to investigate the relationship that might exist between the acquired teachers' literacy knowledge and their practices, at the FP in the South African context.

A number of studies have focused on learners' reading competencies and teachers' proficiency in the Languages of Learning and Teaching (LOLT) and English as First Additional Language (EFAL) at the FP level (Lenyai, 2011; Mbhalati, 2012; Msila, 2011), as well as on the teaching of literacy, mathematics and life skills (R. Evans & Cleghorn, 2010; Hoadley, 2003; Loubser, 2012). However, there appears to be little existing literature which directly addresses FP teachers' knowledge of teaching how to read and write in English, or how teacher learning about EFAL relates to classroom practices. Emerging studies on FP teachers have mainly focused on reflection on initial teacher programmes curriculum (C. Nel & Adams, 2014;

Nomlomo & Desai, 2014), or in search of the reasons behind poor enrolment among black student teachers (Petersen & Petker, 2011). Although these issues are vital, such works do little to address teacher pedagogies in this early phase and its influence on teachers' beliefs and their practices (Taylor, Draper, Muller, & Sithole, 2013). Studies on teacher knowledge have mainly focused on the development of a pre-service literacy curriculum (Nomlomo & Desai, 2014; van der Merwe & Nel, 2012), but little on the PD of the practicing teachers. Hoadley's classroom studies do not relate to professional development.

Therefore, if our goal is to improve the quality of teaching and learning at the FP, greater research investment should be made to examine the knowledge base for teaching and its complexities (Taylor et al., 2013). It is believed this study is one of such investments in that it explores the teacher learning complexities at the FP, foregrounded by a broader project at UKZN, which is exploring the complexity of FP teachers knowledge (Bertram, Christiansen, & Mukeredzi, 2015).

1.4 Background to the study

This section outlines the major trends regarding the FP learners' performance in the last decade. The idea is to illuminate how such issues would be related to the knowledge base of the FP teachers and how they acquire this knowledge in the South African context. The section ends by highlighting the development of the ACT programme (the broad case under study) at the university.

1.4.1   Background to Foundation Phase teacher learning in South Africa

In 2007, the Department of Education conducted a second cycle of systemic evaluations at the FP level, which involved the assessment of a random sample of 53 972 Grade 3 learners from 2 327 primary schools across the country (Department of Education, 2008b). The results were a duplication of the first evaluation conducted in 2001 and 2002. The latter results were so disturbing that the National Department of Education (DoE) delayed the release of the findings, but the media revealed the disturbing results. However, the results showed a positive increase in performance in literacy, from an average score of 30% in 2001 to 36% in 2007, as well as in numeracy, from an average score of 30% in 2001 to 34% in 2007 (Department of Education, 2008c). These statistics closely mirror those of the Monitoring Learning Achievement (MLA) study, conducted among Grade 4 learners as part of a joint initiative by DoE and the United

Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (Department of Education, 2008a). The results are also similar to the Annual National Assessments (ANA) test scores of 2011 (Department of Basic Education, 2012). All these studies revealed that learners' performance in both literacy and numeracy have been disappointing over the last ten years and this signals the need for urgent and substantial improvement.

Reflecting on the results of the above-mentioned 2007 evaluation, in an opening address at the first National FP Conference, the then Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, acknowledged the improved performance, but clearly expressed disappointment over the continued poor scores among the Grade 3 learners (Department of Education, 2008c). The Minister also pointed out that the variation among learners' performance at the FP relates to the category of schools they attended and LoLT. In particular, it was noted that African language speakers scored significantly lower on the assessments, in comparison to their English and Afrikaans speaking peers. For example, the average literacy scores for English and Afrikaans learners was 48% and 49% respectively, while for both Siswati and Tshivenda learners, the average literacy score was 26%. Opinions such as Minister Pandor's have been expressed elsewhere (Green, Parker, Deacon, & Hall, 2011; Mbatha, 2014; Taylor et al., 2013).

The findings of the systemic evaluations and related forums suggest that despite the extensive increases in national spending in all the provinces, very few schools had achieved significant improvements in performance or quality of learning outcomes at the FP. It is therefore not unreasonable that Green et al. (2011) relate the FP shortfalls to the competencies of the teachers. According to Green et al., the majority of the teachers who educate young children had not been educated and trained professionally to specialise in pedagogy at this level (2011, p. 111). Indeed, the accumulation of evidence indicates that the majority of the teachers at the FP, especially in the rural schools where resources are limited, know little about the subjects they teach, and less than the curriculum expects of the learners (Hoadley & Ensor, 2009; Taylor & Taylor, 2013b; van der Merwe & Nel, 2012). Taking this into account, it appears that providing sufficient numbers of competent teachers for the FP classrooms is one of the key strategic goals that South Africa should employ in order to improve learning outcomes in the FP and beyond.

This need has long been recognised and billions of tax payer money have been spent on pre-service and formal PD programmes for practicing teachers. However, the quality of the newly-trained teachers from the initial PD programmes is yet to be demonstrated, while the formal PD programmes for the practicing teachers have been criticised for offering too little practical knowledge to handle the new curriculum. With regards to the formal PD programmes for the practising teachers, the Council of Higher Education had this to say:

> The absence of a sustained plan that addresses the continuum of learning that is required and in particular, that addresses poor specialisation knowledge is perhaps, the greatest weakness of the ACE programme (2010, p. 135).

While substantial efforts have been made to improve teacher education and learning, such dissatisfaction has been expressed for many of the formal PD programmes. Elsewhere, experts in the field of FP education (literacy, mathematics) have been in consultation and proposed the conception of PD programmes, which prioritises the needs of FP teachers to prevent generic training (Nomlomo & Desai, 2014; van der Merwe & Nel, 2012). This would enhance the country's goal of closing the inequality gap in the schooling system, which has continued long after the apartheid regime ended (Department of Education, 2008c).

1.4.2   The Advanced Certificate of Teaching (ACT) programme

In an attempt to provide equal education, the post-apartheid government decided to improve the quality and quantity of teachers through the in-services programmes in the late 1990's. The objectives of these programmes were to amend the inequality of the past education system by providing teachers with the opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills (Department of Education, 2007), as well as to provide sufficient teachers in the different subjects in focus. Courses for teachers, ranging from short courses to a Further Diploma in Education (FDE), were offered by NGO's and higher institutions of learning. This FDE was later renamed by Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE) to the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE). However, the programme did not provide sufficient guidelines or areas of specialisations, leading to multitudes of ACE programmes being offered by different institutions (Department of Education, 2007). According to the Policy on the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (HEQF), dated November 2010, ACE programmes had to be transformed into either Advanced Diplomas in Education (ADE) at National Qualification Framework (NFQ) level 7, or Advanced Certificates in Teaching (ACT) at NQF level 6, in all

higher institutions offering teacher education (Department of Basic Education and Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011).

In 2013, UKZN launched the ACT as an initiative designed to replace the ACE programme, according to the new teacher education policy framework, and targeted the practising teachers in KZN, especially those from the historically disadvantaged communities (Department of Basic Education and Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011). The new programme is understood by the current DBE to be an important tool for improving teachers' competencies in teaching literacy, mathematics and life skills (Department of Basic Education, 2012). This means that the DBE supports the programme as an explicit measure to improving the subject matter knowledge for the FP teachers in the three content areas of the school curriculum, as defined by the current school curriculum - CAPS.

The programme aims to accredit the PD of teachers with a prior qualification in FP teaching at a lower level (e.g. NPDE), or to re-skill qualified teachers in a new teaching focus, that is, teaching in the FP. This gives practising FP teachers, especially those from historically disadvantaged contexts, an opportunity to obtain a higher qualification (ACT) and deepen their knowledge base. The intended curriculum of the ACT programme consists of eight modules-Learning Guides (supported by interactive Students' Guides) delivered within two years to the teachers through 'distance' education (mixed mode), which includes face-to-face teaching sessions and interactive materials (Verbeek, 2013). This approach is valuable in empowering FP teachers and creating a lifelong learning which is not only simply theoretical, but also experiential and practical in nature. However, there has not been a great deal of systematic research to track exactly, what and how teachers learn through these kinds of formal programmes. This study therefore aims to contribute to this field by providing empirical data to understand the kinds of knowledge that is learnt by three FP teachers from this programme, in the 2014-2015 course period. The next section provides the general objective and research question of this study.

1.5 Broad objectives of the study

The purpose of this study is to examine the teacher learning of selected practicing FP teachers from a formal ACT programme and to analyse how this learning might have impacted on the teachers' beliefs and teaching practices in their contexts. Research of this nature for the FP in

the South African context has been described, in the last decade, as a complex endeavour and critiqued for lack of fundamental empirical evidence to generalise the information (Adler et al., 2002), leading to the current rapid growth of numerous small scale, qualitative research studies in the FP teaching and learning practices (Brown et al., 2015; Hoadley, 2007, 2013; Nomlomo & Desai, 2014). Nevertheless, these studies have contributed enormously to the understanding of the relationship between teacher education and classroom practices at the FP level; and the outcome of this study might also contribute to the existing body of research about the literacy knowledge base of the FP teachers and the impact on their classroom practices.

To achieve the above broad objectives, this study had to explicitly:

- Explore the domains of teacher knowledge and assumptions privileged in the ACT curriculum about teaching English literacy.
- Investigate the domains of teacher knowledge and skills acquired by the FP teachers from the ACT programme and how it impacted their classroom practices.
- Analyse the nature of knowledge change the teachers experienced during the course of learning from the ACT programme, about teaching EFAL.

1.5.1 Research questions

According to Creswell (2013) research questions of interpretivist studies are generally open-ended and descriptive to enable participants to construct the meaning of a phenomenon. A typical model includes a 'grand tour' question, followed by sub questions. So, to achieve the specific objective described above, the intention of this study is to answer the following broad question:

What kinds of knowledge do the FP teachers acquire from the ACT programme and how do they apply and recontextualise *this knowledge in teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL)?*

A 'grand' question can be ample investigation to a sole researcher; thus creating 'subsidiary' questions helps to explicitly explore the broad question and guides the methodologies (Wagner, Kawulich, & Garnner, 2012). In that vein, the grand question was subdivided into the following secondary questions:

- *What domains of knowledge and assumptions about good literacy teaching are privileged in the ACT curriculum?*

- *In what ways has the teachers' learning from ACT programme contributed to their EFAL classroom practices?*
- *To what extent does the knowledge acquired by the teachers reflect a core or a peripheral knowledge change?*

These secondary questions enabled the researcher to answer the broad question of teachers' learning experiences from the ACT programme and also guided the methodologies of this study through the context of teaching EFAL at the FP.

1.6 Research paradigm and approach

For the purpose of data collection and analysis, this study followed an interpretivist paradigm and a qualitative method with a longitudinal approach. This made it possible to work closely with each FP teacher in their individual context for a period of 18 months, in an attempt to understand teacher learning through the eyes of the participants and in the actual practice. The case study approach was appropriate as it is not possible to separate the researcher's interpretations from the participants' background, history, context and prior understanding (Bassey, 1999, p. 44) in case study research designs. Such data can only be collected through the participants' deep insights of these critical issues surrounding the area of study. So, over the research period, I was able to gain the trust of the three participants; gathered detailed data regarding the FP teachers' perceptions, biographic data; and observed how this learning had impacted on their classroom practices.

1.7 Research design

The study used the above-mentioned case study design to capture the understanding and practices of the selected Grade 2 teachers, with respect to their learning from the professional programme about literacy teaching. The study purposively selected three FP teachers from those in the ACT programme as the specific cases or the analytical cases. These participants were part of a larger group of 173 teachers enrolled in 2014 at the UKZN, from various primary schools in the KZN province. These teachers completed the two-year course at the end of 2015. The study thus constructs a rich, reflective and holistic description of teacher learning of English literacy from the ACT programme and presents this account in terms of theories of

learning how to teach literacy at the FP. Then from these theories, the study explored the implication for the classroom practices and teachers' beliefs.

Methodologically, this case study can be described as a practice-based focus a case study (Bassey, 1999; Rule & John, 2011). This means that an inquiry was carried out in the classroom and with classroom teachers for a period of two years. During that period, one ACT Learning Guide was analysed; and personal and contextual details of each teacher's learning and classroom practices were observed, collected, recorded and analysed in phases over the period of the study. The goal was to learn from the teachers' classroom practices, while focusing on the relationship and/or patterns between their practice and the learning from the ACT programme (Adler & Reed, 2000; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). This enables the reader to fully understand the features of the specific cases under study in the real-life situation or context, which is the main objective of a case study design. However, the most significant reason for choosing the case study is that the design allows the researcher to use qualitative approaches and a small sample (Adler & Reed, 2002).

1.8 Origin of this dissertation

This section offers my background in order to understand my position as the researcher in this study. The short narrative is constructed by reflections of my personal context, teaching experiences and predispositions.

After completing my Master of Education Degree in 2001 through 'distance education' in Kenya, with only eight years of teaching experience, I found myself (like other young graduates) pushed out of the country in search of greener pastures in the diaspora. With my family, I relocated to Botswana and by 2004, I started teaching Geography and History in a private school. Having to teach the Cambridge school curriculum for the first time in a new context, teacher learning was paramount for me, in order to be able to cope with the new curriculum and teaching. By 2006, I expanded my portfolio as a Cambridge Geography teacher and gained vast experience in the field of study, critical and reflective approaches with my peers (online) from different parts of the world. Being a visual person, I greatly enjoyed organising, teaching and carrying out field trips with 'A' level students. By 2009, I had successfully completed several online courses and face to face short courses offered by Cambridge University.

This resulted in a practical and enriching experience, characterised by active reflection on subject knowledge, teaching strategies, new technologies and classroom relationships and management, for the purpose of improving a school curriculum. The teacher learning process of this nature is non-judgemental and it mediates our thinking as a means to assist individuals in self- directed learning, so as to achieve the goals from a social constructivism perspective.

According to the Cambridge framework, these short courses were supposed to empower teachers towards self- efficiency to enable them to become less dependent on outside agencies; to become responsible for their own PD; to develop self- directed teachers with the capacity to cope with change in a variety of situations, including the school context, acquisition of new knowledge, skills, material models and beliefs about teaching; to enable teachers to think deeply about lifelong learning; and to reflect on teaching practices to assist in redefining our purpose and role as teachers.

This circumstantial teacher PD with the Cambridge board greatly influenced my decision to explore teacher learning from a social constructivism perspective, with a strong focus on an interpretivist mode of inquiry, which is often associated with qualitative research. Underpinned by conceptual models or theories, such studies use multiple data collection methods and extensive data analysis through multiple steps to engage with the data. It was fascinating and interesting to explore the complex phenomenon with its multiple meanings through observations, reading secondary sources and listening to the real life experiences of the three teachers in social settings. Correspondingly, a qualitative inquiry represents an authentic means of social and human scientific exploration, without deferring to quantitative research (Creswell, 2013).

In the light of this background, I had to take precautionary measures to ensure that my own knowledge base, training and my engagement as a young PhD researcher was in line with my study. For instance, to ensure that my interpretations and understanding of the participants, my personal biases or meanings did not misguide how I represented the perceptions of the context or the study. I critically evaluated my own understanding of key concepts of teacher learning: FP teachers, literacy knowledge base and PD, as well as the ideas associated with the new context - South Africa. I believe this dissertation will contribute towards one noble segment

(FP) of the South African schooling system and contribute valuable knowledge to the ever-growing qualitative literature on the teacher learning of the FP teachers.

1.9 Definitions of the key concepts

In this section, I briefly explain the four key concepts used in this dissertation. The definitions of teacher learning or profession development, teacher knowledge and literacy have been and continue to be contested fields of study. Teacher learning refers to the processes, whether planned or unplanned, individual or social, that result in specific changes in the professional knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs or specific actions of teachers (Kelly, 2006).

- Professional development (PD) is mostly used interchangeably with *teacher learning*; *teacher growth* and *teachers change*. In this study, PD refers to the teachers' lifelong experiences, the essence of which is to gradually lead to changes in their classroom practices and profession in a qualitative manner (Fraser et al., 2007, pp. 156-157). However, it is not easy to draw a distinctive line between these concepts, thus making teacher learning and PD a contested field that requires clarity in educational research.

- Teacher knowledge can be defined as an in-depth, comprehensive and professional understanding of the content of the subject, school curriculum and context and learners, which is acquired formally and informally. The focus is on the "teacher" and his or her knowledge as an educator that is necessary for teaching of any subject matter (Ben-Peretz, 2011): This means, effective pedagogies are conducted by teachers who possess an adequate knowledge base and is usually determined by the interaction between 'professional' and 'self' knowledge of a teacher.

- English Literacy can broadly be referred to as the ability to read for knowledge, write logically and communicate meaning using a variety of socially contextual symbols (Verbeek, 2010). In this study, the concept of literacy is used to refer to the reading and writing practices at the FP although the reference of English reading is more favoured in this dissertation. This narrow definition is maintained in this dissertation, in relation to teacher learning, which is the focus of the study. Guided by the case study design and the research questions, I decided to use English literacy to as the contextualise teacher learning.

1.10   Outline of this dissertation

Chapter One sets the landscape of this study by outlining the focus of the study and the rationale. It also reviews the background of the study with a special focus on the current trends of the FP school performance as a backdrop to transform teacher education in post-apartheid South Africa. A brief account of the ACT programme, which is the broad case under study is offered. Highlights on the study's critical objectives and research questions are also found in this chapter. Lastly the key terms of the study and my position as the researcher are briefly outlined in relation to my background.

Chapter Two critically explores the current trends in teacher learning by reviewing the literature on teacher learning, professional development models and teacher change, as well as their implications for teaching practices. Although the chapter is explicitly grounded in teacher learning within an on-going professional programme, the chapter also explores literature and debates on the kinds of teacher knowledge necessary for effective teaching and learning.

The theoretical frameworks informing this study are also presented in Chapter Two. The general theoretical framework informing this study is the complexity theory (Opfer & Pedder, 2011) which was used to conceptualise teacher learning. To understand the domains of teacher knowledge and literacy privileged in the English literacy curriculum, Reed (2009) conceptual framework was used to analyse the content of the key Module 4 the Learning Guide of the ACT programme. Effective teacher learning is assumed to improve teachers' practice and, subsequently, learners' performance. To support this argument empirically, the principles of teaching EFAL derived from Module 6 (part of the ACT literacy curriculum) are outlined to explain how the ACT programme impacted on the pedagogies of the three teachers. Lastly, Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) model of teacher professional growth is provided: a useful external language of description which explored the nature of teacher change.

English literacy is the focus through which teacher learning was explicitly explored in this study, so Chapter Three is dedicated to literature that enables the reader to conceptually understand the assumptions made by different authors about literacy teaching at the FP. An overview of the reading components and approaches, literacy dimension and implications for teaching are also provided in this chapter. Literacy development has always been a major aspect of FP teaching all over the world and according to research, is proven to correlate strongly with

the future learning of the children. Therefore, this chapter also highlights literature pertaining to teaching and learning of EFAL in the South African context. The idea was to present an overview of the phenomenon and contextualise the study so as to explore any possible link between teacher learning on one side and teachers' practice and their beliefs, on the other side.

Chapter Four describes the research design, the paradigms employed, the instruments used to gather the data and the rationale for these methodological choices. In addition, factors that contributed to the generation of the three types of data and how the data were analysed and presented are also included in this chapter. The chapter ends by describing the ethical considerations pertaining to the study.

Chapter Five presents findings from the content analysis of the key Literacy Module 4 (Learning Guide). The chapter uses diagrams and graphs for the reader to have a clear understanding of the domains of teacher knowledge and theories of teaching reading and writing that the FP teachers are expected to acquire from the ACT programme. These findings from the content analysis inform the empirical data of the study.

Detailed descriptions of the findings and discussions of the empirical data, with the justification of the methods used, are presented in Chapters Six and Seven. This explicit account of the interview and classroom observation data is guided by the key objectives and research questions 2 and 3, which are found in Chapter One of the dissertation. Systematically, the findings on the pedagogic practices of the three cases (FP teachers) are described in Chapter Six and the nature of teacher change within the 18 months is provided in Chapter Seven.

Chapter Eight is the final chapter of this dissertation and it attempts to build a discussion about teacher learning that emerges from the data collected and analysed within the context. As a result, the researcher reviewed the research questions and summarised the key findings at different levels. This is the chapter where I tried to account for the complexity of teacher learning by drawing from the theoretical frameworks and methodological issues in relation to the design of the study and how they influenced the data collected and analysed.

1.11   Chapter summary

The main purpose of this chapter was to provide an overview of the context of the study. This was achieved by outlining the focus of the study and the reasons why the study is worthwhile for investigation. The chapter also clearly presented the background of teacher learning in the South African context by highlighting the current FP learners' performance trends and the factors influencing these patterns. The purpose was to help the reader understand the contextual phenomena and relate the issues to the objectives of the ACT programme / teacher professional development programme under this study. Explanations relating to the researcher's voice, definitions of the key concepts and a brief description of each chapter were also provided in this chapter.

The next two chapters attempt to provide an overview of the literature and its implications to classroom practices.

CHAPTER TWO: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS OF TEACHER LEARNING

2.1 Introduction

This literature review chapter does four things. Firstly, it distinguishes teacher learning, the core focus of this research, from professional development for teachers. Secondly, it describes several conceptual frameworks of teacher learning, teacher knowledge and teacher change, together with their implications for teacher professional activities. Thirdly, the analytical tool which engaged the nature of teacher change is discussed. Lastly, in relation to the research objective, an overview of the complexity theory is discussed to understand the factors which influence teacher learning (Opfer & Pedder, 2011). Literature on teachers' English literacy knowledge base is discussed in Chapter Three.

The focus of the study is to explore the teacher learning of selected FP teachers from the ACT programme. Therefore, it was logical and appropriate to include comprehensive and current literature on teacher learning, professional development, and teacher change and teacher knowledge, so as to understand the complexity of teacher learning.

2.2 Delineation between teacher learning and professional development

Teacher learning and professional development for teachers are the key concepts for this study. As a result, I attempt to untangle the meaning of teacher professional development, a concept which is often substituted by teacher learning and even teacher knowledge in some cases. However, as indicated by L. Evans (2002), there is a lack of clarity in this area of study because of the range of meanings assigned to the terms by different scholars. This phenomenon draws attention to the need to distinguish the concept teacher learning from teacher professional development.

Although there is abundant literature on professional development and teacher learning, these terms are often used interchangeably by different scholars (L. Evans, 2002), thus suggesting a divergent field (Fraser, Kennedy, Reid, & Mckinney, 2007). As a result, most of the conceptual and empirical works in the field of professional development and teacher learning are viewed by several scholars as confusing or meaning different things (Bertram, 2011). The term professional development is often linked to a particular initiative or activity that reinforces the idea that teacher professional learning occurs only as a result of attending specific events such

as workshops or programmes (Opfer & Pedder, 2011) during a given study period (Huberman, 1995). But research has shown that formal professional development activities may not necessarily lead to teacher learning or to changes in teaching practices (Bertram, 2011; Brodie et al., 2002; Wood & Bennett, 2000).

The main purpose of professional development, according to Little (1987), is to develop the profession of a teacher for his or her present and future school roles. This is echoed by other education researchers from developed countries who assert that increasing the learning opportunities for teachers enhances their classroom enactments and subsequently improves learners' performance (Borko, 2004), especially formal programmes which focus on the implementation of research based practices (Guskey & Yoon, 2009). Similarly, Meyer and Abel (2015) evaluation study of one teachers' course in the Western Cape Institute, South Africa, denotes that the main goal of teacher professional development is to improve teachers' competencies to enable them to enact better practices. However, the extent to which teachers' learning opportunities facilitate effective changes in their classroom practice remains unclear (Parise & Spillane, 2010). There is a limited empirical relationship between teachers' learning opportunities and changes in their teaching, especially in EFAL at FP, in the South African context.

I believe such brief engagement with the two concepts throws the reader into more confusion about the definitions of professional development and teacher learning. To some authors, professional development or teacher learning is sometimes used to describe an *activity* (like a programme) or *a product* and sometimes *a process*. It is therefore important to provide debates from different researchers so as to illuminate the conceptual understanding of professional development and teacher learning, as used in this dissertation.

Teacher learning or professional development of teachers should be recognised as a highly complex process that depends on a collection of factors such as teachers' biographies, social histories, working contexts, peer groups, identities, broader political culture and teaching preferences, as well as the quality of the professional development programme (Fraser et al., 2007). According to C Day (2004), these factors are essential for the establishment of effective professional development activities, which would subsequently yield effective outcomes. Thus, narrowing professional development activities into quick fix solutions such a refresher

course over a week or a single event with assumptions of teachers' knowledge deficiencies is unrealistic. According to research, such models do not address the contextual challenges or complexities of teacher learning (Bantwini, 2009). The concept of professional development and teacher learning must encompass opportunities for teachers to develop more effective teaching skills and strategies for the purpose of improving the standards of the schools, as well as the teaching profession (Taylor et al., 2013).

In an attempt to map the terrain of teacher learning in the last few decades, Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) propose three main domains of teacher learning, namely: knowledge-for-practice, knowledge-in-practice and knowledge-of-practice. This conceptual understanding is similar to (Kelly, 2006) classification of the domains of teacher knowledge: personal (beliefs and values of a teacher), propositional (conceptual and theoretical knowledge) and practical (knowing how), respectively (see details in section 2.34). I agree with Bertram and Christiansen (2012) who feel these categories by Cochran-Smith and Lytle tend to bring in more confusion on teacher learning and the domains of teacher knowledge. This conceptualisation generated an additional question for this study: what constitutes teacher learning, professional development and teacher knowledge? Reading several works in this field, I realised that scholars continue to disagree on a common definition, nor have a clear understanding of these three concepts (Borko, 2004; Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Cochran-Smith, 2005; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Desimone, 2009; Evans 2002; Fraser et al., 2007).

Consequently, there are strong views in favour of a more fundamental need, and also for moral purposes, to distinguish between professional development and teacher learning (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; C Day, 1999, 2004; Fraser et al., 2007). According to these scholars, professional development should offer teachers the opportunities to attain practical, emotional, social and intellectual engagement essential to accomplish sustainable professional change (C Day, 2004). Teacher professional development, according to C Day (1999, p. 4), entails:

> All natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct and indirect benefit to the individual, group or school and contribute through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, along with others, teachers review and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills, and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives.

This comprehensive description provided by Day includes important features of effective professional growth of the teachers involved in the process, as well as individual teacher progression. If it is inferred to be important for the FP teachers in the South African context, the relevance of this definition can be positioned as requirements of effective PD according to the following features:

- The professional development activity must create a collaborative learning environment. The focus of the professional activity must be relevant to the roles and needs of the FP teachers.

- The activities of the professional development must have a positive impact on the classroom and encourage reflection that would eventually transform the FP teachers and their peers, as well as their practices.

- The participants must gain the necessary cognitive, social, moral and emotional skills from the professional development activity to enable them to work efficiently with learners, fellow teachers and other members of the school (Carlisle, Cortina, & Katz, 2011; Rutgers, 2012).

Other studies have broadened the views on the concept of professional development to fit the various conceptual frameworks of teacher learning. According to situated and social frameworks, teacher learning is understood as an interactive social process (Borko, 2004) and a teachers' communal learning (Wenger, 1998), while the cognitive frameworks conceptualise teacher learning as a formal process led by an expert (Fraser et al., 2007; Guskey & Yoon, 2009). Generally, the social and cognitive frameworks bring in the idea of formal and informal learning, where the teachers act as powerful agents in their own growth and change. For instance, Borko (2004) incorporates the idea of community learning, but emphasises more the contextual experiences which are also relevant to this study:

> *For teachers, learning occurs in many different aspects of practice, including their classrooms, their schools, communities and professional development courses or workshops. It can occur in brief hallway conversations with a colleague or after school when counselling a troubled child. To understand teacher learning, we must study it within these multiple contexts, taking into account the individual teacher-learner and the social system in which they participate* (2004, p. 4).

This is similar to Desimone's (2009) account of professional development:

Teachers experience a vast range of activities and interactions that may increase their knowledge, skills and improve their teaching practices, as well as contribute to their personal, social and emotional growth as professional teachers. Such experiences can range from formal, structured topical seminars [in service courses] to everyday 'hallway' discussion with other teachers about instruction techniques embedded in teachers' everyday work lives (2009, p. 182).

With such arguments, it is deceptively easy for one to ascribe a simple definition to professional development and teacher learning, while the two concepts seem to focus primarily on the same component - the *process,* but with different brands. My understanding is that 'professional development' is a process of learning mostly from a formal activity or programme, whereas 'teacher learning' seem to encompass a range of teachers' experiences, both formal and informal. Elsewhere, Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002, p. 967) elaborate on a model of teacher professional 'growth' that closely connects the two concepts. In other words, it is not easy to draw a distinctive line between these concepts, as a result, professional development and teacher learning remain a contested field that requires clarity in educational research.

So, for the purpose of discussions and arguments in this study, 'teacher learning' will refer to the processes, whether planned or unplanned, individual or social, that result in specific changes in the professional knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs or actions of teachers. This supports the broad view of 'professional development' as teachers' lifelong experiences, the essence of which is to gradually lead to changes in their classroom practices and profession in a qualitative manner (Fraser et al., 2007, pp. 156-157).

To sum up, 'teacher learning' in this study is a process, while 'professional development activity' is any formal activity (such as a professional development programme) that a teacher engages in for the purpose of acquiring a knowledge base and skills for teaching. In this study, these concepts are used to focus specifically on what three FP teachers learnt about teaching EFAL from the ACT programme at UKZN, during the 2014 -2015 academic year.

The next two sections elaborate on the various conceptual frameworks of teacher learning, teacher change and teacher knowledge, so as to fully understand their implications for the professional development activities.

2.3 Teacher learning theories

Globally, many countries have shifted away from the traditional ways of teacher training and have embraced lifelong learning or professional development, which is in line with the current education and technological advancement. This section reviews literature and debates on the different theories of teacher learning, which provide a clear understanding of the challenges, complexities and the general desirable elements of effective professional development activities for teachers. In addition, to conceptualise teacher learning theories is another way of searching for merging threads in the midst of diverse teacher learning models and theories (Avalos, 2011). The first segment of this section presents the teacher learning theories.

2.3.1   An overview of the teacher learning theories

Research has acknowledged the significance of the professional development of teachers for the improvement of the education system (Avalos, 2011; Borko & Putnam, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hargreaves, 1994) and learners' performance (Desimone, 2009). This implies that scholars and curriculum developers have come to recognise that highly qualified teachers are fundamental for the improvement of the schooling system and learners' achievements (Minor, Desimone, Lee, & Hochberg, 2016; Taylor et al., 2013). Although there is little agreement on the characteristics of a highly qualified teacher, many countries in the world continue to promote teacher learning as an imperative measure to develop high standard teachers and consequently, improve the learners' performance (Minor et al., 2016).

On-going professional development for teachers has greatly increased in the last two decades, with Western countries being at the forefront (Avalos, 2011). In fact, the importance of teacher learning has become a global phenomenon, with many countries shifting away from the traditional training ineffective professional development initiatives over the last 20 years. Fraser et al. (2007), locate the new development within the broader policy outline of lifelong learning and identifies certain desirable elements of effective professional development for teachers. According to Lieberman and Mace (2010), professional development has become an imperative measure for raising school standards and thus an essential need for every teacher with an eventuality of effective teaching practice in mind.

Teachers are being encouraged to engage in continuous learning opportunities for the purpose of improving, maintaining, reflecting and changing standards of teaching in their classroom. This empowers them as professionals, to interpret and form critical judgements on the existing knowledge and its relevance to their specific contexts (Winch, Oancea, & Orchard, 2015). However, traditional workshops and short course in-service activities continue to train teachers, especially on how to implement new school curricula (Bantwini, 2010). This is because of their cost-effective advantages, especially among practising teachers in the less economically developed parts of South Africa and other African countries. Similarly, some studies in the USA show a correlation between teachers' workshops or summer institutes which emphasise research-based practices and improved learners' performance (Guskey & Yoon, 2009). "So, while undoubtedly many workshops are poorly organised and focus on unproven ideas and strategies, as a professional development, they are not the poster child of ineffective practice they are often made out to be" (Guskey & Yoon, 2009, p. 496).

Kelly (2006), highlights two major theories of teacher learning used by most professional development programmes but which have been contested in recent times. The first one is the cognitive learning theory which is grounded in the idea of teachers' learning being predominantly propositional knowledge (knowing what) from experts. Since the learning is not within the teacher's working environment, contextual issues are not necessarily emphasised. However, this theory argues that the knowledge acquired can be applied across a range of contexts. The notion here is that teachers acquire propositional knowledge from the experts' context (such as a formal workshop or programme) and then transmit (in a linear way) this learning to their classroom context. Nonetheless, research shows that such transfer across contexts is complex and often teachers take time before they are able to comfortably apply new pedagogies in their classrooms (Adey et al., 2004; Bertram, 2011; Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; C Day, 2004). These studies and others propose long-term, sustained, intensive and contextually based activities from the professional development programmes, to enable teachers to effectively reconstruct the acquired knowledge to their practices (Guskey & Yoon, 2009; Meyer & Abel, 2015).

Since the issue of transfer is problematic within the cognitive theory of learning, the second major group of theories, the socio-cultural learning theories, insist that learning must take place in the situation in which it is needed (Kelly, 2006). This suggests that although cognitive

learning is vital, teacher learning is a social and collaborative process, whereby the individual teachers construct knowledge in their different contexts, according to their needs. This confirms other international studies which advocate for the formal professional development programmes which are precisely planned and well-coordinated, with a strong school-based component integrated into the teachers' daily work (Battey & Franke, 2008; Minor et al., 2016; Reeves & Forde, 2004). Thus, professional development programmes should create dynamic learning opportunities in schools and even classrooms to enable teachers to build personal knowledge, formally or informally, in a social context.

In the same vein, (Gravani & John, 2004) argue that a pragmatic approach to learning advocates that either the cognitive or the socio-cultural perspective on learning can be used, depending on what works. As identified previously, both perspectives offer valuable insights into the learning processes and they are useful for understanding particular influences, but they focus on different aspects. The cognitive perspective emphasises the importance of personal conditions for learning, such as prior knowledge, while the socio-cultural learning theories stresses the importance of social and contextual conditions.

The systems thinking approach does not consist of a new theory of learning, but rather involves the interaction of the existing teacher learning theories. It emphasises the mutual relationship among elements in a learning system, which emerges when personal, social and contextual conditions for learning interact to improve each other in a way that produces collaboration. For instance actions like watching television or a guest speaker can provide insights or understanding (Gravani & John, 2004). Therefore, they argue, that any context, can be regarded as a learning system with complex relationships among people but not all function at the same time or extent. This contrasts with the idea that learning only occurs in a community of practice, which is established in the situated perspective.

There are also other unplanned learning opportunities in the work place. Two examples are when a teacher reads a newspaper or a magazine over a cup of tea in the staffroom (Borko & Putnam, 1995; Desimone, 2009); and valuable knowledge can also be acquired through interaction with colleagues and other stakeholders, especially during the implementation of a new curriculum (Bantwini, 2011). Altogether, teacher learning theories suggest that teacher learning, not only individual, but also a socio-cultural needs and collaborative process and

hence, takes place in different forms. According to Parise and Spillane (2010), teacher learning – formal, informal or any other opportunity in the teacher's social context - can build their profession, improve their knowledge base and their beliefs about teaching. Similarly, empirical studies in the USA indicate that well-planned formal professional development programmes and various informal opportunities at work can significantly contribute to changes or improvement in teachers' classroom practice (Minor et al., 2016) .

Other scholars such as S. M. Wilson and Berne (1999) advocate for teacher learning grounded within the socio-cultural perspective, where the formal programme activities incorporate community learning, partnership and self-motivation. However, the three constituents overlap with the notion of collective participation and site-based programmes in which the teacher is offered accessible opportunities by the experts to share, discuss, reflect and actively learn from peers or other educators (Guskey & Yoon, 2009). In my opinion, this view uses different words to articulate the same element or features of collaborative or professional learning communities.

There is an emerging body of literature from the socio-cultural perspective, which supports different forms of teacher learning communities. For instance, teachers learn better when they are members of communities of learning (Knight, 2002; Lieberman & Mace, 2010). Other forms of teacher learning in this category include communities of practice, peer coaching, networks and teams, as well as co-learning (Avalos, 2011). Although beyond the scope of this study, accumulative findings from this professional collaborative learning lead to effective teaching and school improvement., It also enables a better understanding of teachers' identities, productivity of team work, commitment, practices and agency (Avalos, 2011; Battey & Franke, 2008). Thus, effective teacher learning does not happen exclusively from a formally generated and codified body of knowledge, but also from experience for sustainable practice changes.

Teachers' documentation and reflection on their own experiences also offer important learning practice. For instance, Tournaki, Lyublinskaya, and Carolan (2011) evaluated a professional development model where teachers, during a lesson , offered learners the opportunity to actively engage in the teachers' scientific inquiry. Elsewhere, Roth (2007) notes that teachers who explore their own practice by observing their students' struggles and then choosing the

teaching approaches that can improve the students' understanding. Although Thompson and Thompson (1996) agree with this notion, they strongly feel that the level of support the teachers need to be researchers is beyond what most professional development programmes and teacher education can offer. On the other hand, Guskey and Yoon (2009) argue that effective professional development programmes which incorporate ideas from outsiders (e.g. programme authors and researchers) and directly offer these ideas to the teachers, enhance the enactment of new knowledge. These professional development activities articulate and also draw from the socio-cultural theory of teacher learning, with individual and collaborative participation being paramount and enhanced by a range of factors (Avalos, 2011; Guskey & Yoon, 2009).

Having reviewed the overlapping meaning of the concepts of professional development, teacher learning and professional development activities in section 2.2 and an overview discussion on teacher learning theories in this section, it is imperative to briefly discuss the implications of these theories on the teacher learning process in South Africa, which is the context of this study. Next, I present the implication of these debates on the South African teacher learning approaches.

2.3.2   Teacher learning approaches in South Africa

According to the (Department of Education, 2005, p. 4), the teacher education policy was designed to "achieve a community of competent teachers dedicated to providing education of high quality, with high levels of performance, as well as ethical and professional standards of conduct". This is confirmed by Mestry, Hendricks, and Bisschoff (2009) who acknowledge that the implementation of teacher education policies from 2001 had progressively shifted to a transformation perspective in alignment with the vision of the National Department of Education (the current Department of Basic Education). The transformation perspective of teacher learning is "underpinned by the philosophy of active learning, self-evaluation and reflection for all teachers" (2009, p. 475).

In an effort to improve the quality of teacher education, post-apartheid South Africa adopted the PD models which are based on the cognitive theories of learning. These are traditional methods such as in-service learning, workshops and seminars, and often distance learning. Yet their impact on teachers' practice has been inadequate and remains a major challenge (Adler

& Reed, 2002; Fleisch, 2008). According to Bantwini (2010), these 'cascading' training models for teachers offer short-term courses with little or poor follow-up structures to teachers who have to deal with long-term classroom practices in the complex South African schooling system. Internationally, PD short courses mostly offered by training agencies for schools are perceived as the least valuable means of enhancing classroom practice (Guskey & Yoon, 2009; V. D. Opfer, D. Pedder, & Z. Lavicza, 2011).

There are similar echoes from other researchers and even the media. For instance, the launch of the *Jika iMfundo* initiative (which translates to 'decode education') in Durban by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education on September 2, 2014, was reported by Sihle Mlam in the Daily News as "the latest in a long list of previous [teachers] intervention programmes, but is being hailed by stakeholders, including teacher unions, as they fix the ailing school system". Such forms of professional programme initiatives (workshops or seminars) are prevalent in South Africa and are mostly initiated by the provincial Departments of Education in accordance to the National Department of Basic Education (DBE) policies. According to this media report, the *Jika iMfundo* professional development intervention aims to assist all schools in the province from the grassroots, rather than having the change mediation being led from 'outside'. This can be achieved by supporting school management teams which can then lead learning and support teachers in covering the curriculum to improve learners' performance.

Coincidentally, cascading models and workshop interventions of PD are being used at a period when developers of teacher programmes in higher institutions of training have shifted to more transformative and effective PD models.
For the last two decades, recommendations for on-going learning, collaborative learning and site-based teacher programmes as the most valuable forms of teacher learning even in South Africa, have been irresistible (Brodie, 2013). Such models are mainly work-embedded and stress the importance of follow-up and the active participation of teacher learning (Kelly, 2006). They are placed formally or informally in school contexts. Such programmes draw from the pragmatic approach which advocates both cognitive and socio-cultural theories of teacher learning, depending on what works best for a particular context (Gravani & John, 2004).

One of the earliest PDs in the form of community learning was an ethnographic case study by Henning (2000), where seven South African unqualified teachers struggled to build a teachers' community learning programme in the early 1990s, until one of the former all-white universities came on board and helped them to form the programme. "The willingness and commitment of partnership on both sides, allowed for the successful development of a programme that combined contact education, distance education, school-based training and the systematic assessment of prior learning" (Avalos, 2011).

Since then, various professional teacher learning communities, where teams of practicing teachers get together regularly to exchange ideas and experiences about teaching and learning, have sprung up to promote professional development in each province in South Africa. Most of these interventions engage teachers, school administrators and the districts' education officials (Bantwini, 2011). The ultimate goal is to raise learners' performance by adopting new knowledge and teaching practices through collaboration. During the meetings, they discuss issues like lesson plans, learners' progress, curriculum challenges, and identify their own professional learning needs.

Although in South Africa, the most economically developed country in Africa and where teacher learning policies and on-going PD activities have been the most developed, little of the intended outcomes have been achieved (Taylor et al., 2013). The continued poor performance by learners and the inadequate teacher knowledge among the majority of the teachers have forced the government to search further for effective policies to streamline teachers' education in the country (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011b). The reason is that teacher education is perceived as a spring board to improve the teachers' competencies to enable effective teaching and learning in schools.

The ACT programme encourages participants to form peer discussion groups among themselves or with their colleagues in their teaching contexts. Such activities promote collaborative learning among the FP teachers. Verbeek (2013), suggests that such opportunities enhance academic skills, as it provides forums for positive criticisms about their assignments or tasks before submitting them. Although community learning is beyond the scope of this study, the ACT programme's intended curriculum seems not to have an explicit consideration of the factors which influence collaborative teacher learning. It is also believed that too much

teacher collaboration slows down individual creativity, while too little collaboration can hinder growth and create isolation (Opfer & Pedder, 2011).

In line with these national policies, the ACT programme, although informed by the cognitive theory of learning, adopts progressive classroom-focused learning activities for the teachers (Reed, Davis, & Nyabanyaba, 2002). For instance, the intended curriculum of the ACT programme emphasises active participation during the contact session and most of the assessment tasks and assignments are classroom-based or context-based (Verbeek, 2013)to embrace the socio-cultural theory to teacher learning (Verbeek, 2013). This seems to reinforce the importance of the professional development activity, individual effort and the school context, as mediating factors towards teacher learning.

Earlier, empirical evidence indicates that teacher learning from formal activity may not necessarily take place (Adler & Reed, 2002), but is greatly determined by the duration of the programme and the specific participants involved as well as the interaction of contextual factors (Brodie et al., 2002),. Overall, teacher learning is not an automatic consequence of formal, informal and external programmes or of workplace or even collaborative activities. Therefore, an effective professional development programme in the South African context should integrate the cognitive and socio-cultural theories of learning in line with to the complexities of teacher learning processes (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Opfer & Pedder, 2011).

To show that teacher learning is a gradual, complex process which leads to the transformation of teachers' practices and beliefs, the next section conceptualises the domains of teacher knowledge anticipated from the professional development programmes.

2.3.3   What is the meaning of the term teacher knowledge?

The term 'teacher knowledge' emerged from Shulman's work in the early 1980s. However, the conceptualisation of the actual professional knowledge base for teachers still remains a contested field in research, irrespective of extensive literature globally. The process of reviewing articles, which focuses on teacher knowledge, is interesting, as most of the conceptual papers did not have a similar definition of the term "teacher knowledge". Thus, I limited myself to the definition of 'teacher knowledge' to three papers.

Verloop, Van Driel, and Meijer (2001, p. 443), provide an all-encompassing definition of the teacher knowledge base as "all profession related insights that are potentially relevant to the teacher's activities". In the same vein, Ben-Peretz (2011, p. 8) inspired by Grossman and Richert's works in 1988, extends this definition by breaking it down to "a body of professional knowledge that encompasses both knowledge of general pedagogical principles and skills and knowledge of the subject matter to be taught". Based on early childhood a teacher knowledge base study, Wood and Bennett (2000) define teacher knowledge as a set of diverse aspects of teachers' job which forms an ideology or theory and usually includes their daily routines information, skills, experiences, beliefs and agencies. They assume that such a set of knowledge consequently influences the teachers' teaching practices and learners' performance.

Altogether, these authors argue that, for teaching to be conceptualised as a profession, teachers need to have a well-defined and specific knowledge base to enable them perform their duties effectively, just like other professions. Empirically, it has been realised that teacher knowledge plays a major role in learners' achievement. For instance, research on teacher profession progression has shown that teachers who are knowledgeable and committed to their work influence the nature or the quality of classroom practices, which subsequently influences learners' performance (Desimone, 2009; Reutzel et al., 2011). Understanding the knowledge base for teaching, especially at the elementary level, is important since this is the foundation of all the children's future learning. Unfortunately, there is little consistency in the content and nature of this knowledge (Connelly & Clandinin, 2000; Minor et al., 2016; Wood & Bennett, 2000).

So, extending these scholarly works in this study, the term teacher knowledge will generally refer to the set of teachers' personal and professional information and skills about a specific discipline they teach, which are continuously acquired, either formally or informally, for the purpose of effective pedagogies. Hence, teachers have to acquire the knowledge base for teaching, sometimes for the purpose of upgrading their certificates and qualification in the field of practice through demanding studies and sometimes lifelong learning. In current times, the conceptual understanding of teacher knowledge seems to be expanding and widening the domains as presented in the next section.

2.3.4   Domains of teacher knowledge

The research which described a knowledge base for teaching dates back to the 1980s when Shulman first engaged with the domains of teacher knowledge to enable the effective teaching that teachers needed (Shulman, 1986, 1987). Since then, other scholars in the last three decades have tried to refine Shulmans' classification into distinct but interacted categories, constructs or domains, namely: subject matter or content, pedagogy, curriculum, contextual, learners, practical, personal propositional, formal and informal (Banks, Leach, & Moon, 2005; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Reed, 2009; Shulman, 1987; Winch, 2013a). Others like Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) tried to describe teacher knowledge with useful theoretical frameworks, but the conceptualisation of the actual professional knowledge base for teachers remains fluid, irrespective of extensive literature globally.

It is necessary to stipulate the domains of teacher knowledge for monitoring purposes, but more significantly, to have a clear understanding of the anticipated knowledge and skills for effective practice. As presented in Chapter Three, professional practice is informed by specialised knowledge and teachers, like all other professions, have a mandatory and often complex knowledge base, specific to enabling them to perform their duties (D. R. Reutzel et al., 2011).

Shulmans' work, especially with regards to pedagogic content knowledge (PCK), continues to influence research in this field. However, he tended to focus more on the propositional nature of teachers' knowledge (knowing that) and not very much on the procedural knowledge (knowing how). Even PCK is generally understood as propositional knowledge that needs to be practical. Some teacher educators expressed concern over the 'static' nature of Shulman's work and the separation between 'theoretical' and 'practice' knowledge, despite attempts by various professional development initiatives to provide a link between the two (Banks et al., 2005; Tinning, 2007; Winch et al., 2015).

There are a number of authors who narrowed down the knowledge base for teachers to a few key components. For example, Taylor &Taylor (2013a) in South Africa, described professional knowledge as having three aspects: disciplinary knowledge, subject knowledge for teaching (pedagogical content knowledge and curriculum knowledge) and classroom competence. While there are certainly some overlaps in the descriptions of domains of teacher knowledge,

there is still not one framework that is accepted by all in the profession and "the differing frameworks constitute clear evidence of the elusiveness and complexity of adequately specifying the nature of the knowledge teachers need to teach effectively" (Reed, 2009; D.R. Reutzel et al., 2011).

Drawing from their own classroom studies in the UK, (Banks, Leach, & Moon, 1999; Banks et al., 2005) developed a model of teacher knowledge in which subject or disciplinary knowledge, pedagogic knowledge and school knowledge (which includes curriculum knowledge) are actively interrelated with the teacher's personal knowledge. They argue that these domains of knowledge are acquired when teachers learn from their learning and working contexts. A similar framework was drawn from a study on a "successful teacher education programme" in the USA by (Darling-Hammond, 2006). In relation to designing programmes for pre-service and in-service teacher education, Banks et al. (2005) and Darling-Hammond (2006) believe that it is the responsibility of the teacher educators to use the models which are applicable to student teachers who are working in preparation for classroom practice for the first time and applicable to "expert" teachers working in times of curriculum and social change.

Many researchers in South Africa and elsewhere, find it difficult and complex to explore or quantify the domains of knowledge even from even effective professional learning programmes (Adey et al., 2004; Adler & Reed, 2002; Muller, 2014; Winch, 2013b). Other researchers like Bertram (2011) perceive teacher knowledge as a set of comprehensive information and skills which teachers acquire gradually to enable them to organise coherent teaching. She explicitly states that practicing teachers have a knowledge base in place and professional development activities should create models to boost what they already know by offering appropriate decontextualised formal and informal learning opportunities in the teachers' context.

Although there are some variations in terminology and examples used, the following elements appear to be common to the conceptualisation of knowledge in the professional development programmes put forward by Banks et al. (2005) for the UK context, Darling-Hammond (2006) for the USA context, Adler and Reed (2002) and Bertram (2011) for the South African context: pedagogical content knowledge, which includes aspects of 'school knowledge', as well as 'pedagogic knowledge'; knowledge of how learners learn; knowledge of the curriculum; and content knowledge.

Apart from Bertram (2011), the three theorists seem to have fragmented the concept rather than consolidating it and they have also not shown the relationship between these fragments. Such fragmentation has left the teacher knowledge a contested field for the last 30 years. For instance, Bertram (2011) and Darling-Hammond (2006) explicitly describe *what* teachers learn and *how* they learn in preparation for classroom complexity, but little empirical data are available on the kinds of knowledge that teachers need or how they acquire this knowledge. However, Darling-Hammond and Banks et al. highlight how teachers' beliefs and identities influence their subject content knowledge and pedagogy. This view, supported by empirical evidence, also suggests that classroom practices are determined by the teachers' personal beliefs, experiences and identity. For instance, a study conducted among FP teachers in a South African context and practicing in working-class or rural areas, tended to emphasise teaching as care-giving, rather than highlighting the instructional aspects of the work (Hoadley & Ensor, 2009).

The debates about the nature of 'knowing that' and 'knowing how' are complex, too complex to engage in this study. However, I do support the notion that understanding knowing *how* is sustained by specific knowing *that* (Muller, 2012). Professional knowledge cannot only be propositional, which is usually the knowledge used to make professional decisions, where the teacher draws from the general concepts to produce particular instructions (Shalem, 2014b; Winch, 2013a). For instance, when to correct a particular child is struggling to understand how to write short sentences during a EFAL lesson in Grade 2 or 3, the FP teacher would draw from useful analogies in the context or clarify the concepts using the HL to increase the child's understanding. Therefore, there is a need to recognise the domains of teacher knowledge, which are essential for the teaching of literacy and other subjects at FP level. This is an area of concern in the field of teacher education, in most of the developing countries.

Emerging frameworks conceptualise teacher knowledge in three broad, sophisticated, complex and interrelated categories, namely, practical, propositional and personal knowledge (E. Wilson & Demetriou, 2007). In support of this conceptual framework, Bertram (2011) demonstrates how content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, PCK and contextual knowledge are related. She locates PCK in both the practical and propositional domains. For instance, principles of how students learn specific subjects, common learners' misconceptions

or mistakes and subject-specific analogies, should be subsumed as propositional knowledge, while pedagogical knowledge and assessment strategies for a particular subject should be considered under the practical domain (2011, p. 10).

The Norms and Standards for teacher education gazetted in 2000 describe the seven roles that teachers need to enact, rather than the knowledge that they need to enact these roles. It appears as if the policymakers perhaps did not understand knowledge as essential to underpinning the practice of these roles, or that the role of knowledge was so obvious that it did not need to be articulated. The Norms and Standards were replaced by the teacher education policy, the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Quality (MRTEQ) (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011a), which foregrounds the knowledge needed for teaching.

The MRTEQ policy framework was gazetted in 2011 and it serves as an outline for the knowledge base that every teacher has to acquire from the professional development programmes. This framework specifies five teacher knowledge domains, namely, disciplinary (subject), general pedagogical, practical, fundamental and situational knowledge. Of the five, the fundamental and situational domains could be regarded as an attempt to redress the imbalances of the past that were created by the former apartheid regime. On this vein, it appears that the knowledge base for teachers is emerging as an important area of concern in the South African education context and research field. And studies in this field continue to redefine itself in the midst of new policy frameworks and against the international set standards. Research on whether domains of teacher knowledge are currently taught in PD programmes such as ACT is still scarce, yet such research might provide data upon which teacher education providers and policymakers would base claims regarding teacher knowledge. It also seems that the main fields being researched on a large scale in South Africa are teachers' knowledge in relation to mathematics in particular and to a lesser extent, literacy. The knowledge base for Foundation Phase teachers is even vaguer, as it comprises an amalgamation of three learning areas: mathematics, literacy and life skills.

In the next section, I present conceptual arguments regarding contingent constructivism approaches, which seem to be ideal for teacher education in in the developing countries including South Africa.

2.3.5 How constructivist approaches influence teacher learning in Africa

At the heart of constructivist learning theory is the belief that knowledge is not prescribed, but acquired through real experiences that have purpose and meaning to the learner and that the active exchange of experiences with others is paramount (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985). In addition, this learning theory articulates that the acquired knowledge is built on the prior knowledge which relates to situated learning proponents. Kelly (2006), contends that teacher learning must be situated in a relevant or "authentic" context. Thus, there is a great deal of overlap between what some authors call constructivist learning, social constructivist learning and the socio-cultural learning approaches in relation to the epistemological notion. Social constructivist and socio-cultural learning approaches put more emphasis on learning through social interaction and the value placed on cultural background.

In this section, I offer literature that focuses on the constructivist approaches which are related to teacher learning only. Constructivist approaches emphasise teacher learning and teacher change which is sustainable, contextual and offers appropriate teacher knowledge for the diversity in schools (Vavrus, 2009). Teacher learning, based on these conceptual understandings, is not only cognitive in nature, but is also the acquisition of new knowledge related to what the teacher already knows and is context-based (Hill & Khuboni, 2013). These approaches are presented in the form of situated cognition theories based on the early works of Piaget (1896–1980) who was instrumental in the development of informal learning. Constructivist philosophy has a long history of application in PD programmes for teachers. Hence, the relevance of literature with constructivist approaches in this dissertation.

The main aim of the ACT programme is to initiate and develop appropriate learning opportunities which promote "critical thinking among the FP teachers [who] then effectively learn from the providers [ACT programme] and subsequent engage in classroom practices" (Hill & Khuboni, 2013). These objectives relate to the general goals of professional development programmes for practicing teachers: "to broaden and deepen teachers' subject knowledge, pedagogic knowledge and educational knowledge. [And], extend teachers' reflective capabilities; facilitate professional growth and to enable access for further education" (Reed et al., 2002, p. 254).

For the last two decades, such teachers' programmes using the constructivist approaches t engage with teacher learning, have been well developed and empirical evidence on their

suitability is available in the UK and other developed countries (Cooner & Tochternan, 2004; King, 2014). There seems to be an inadequate systematic documentation or funded research inquiry into teacher learning programmes based on constructivist learning approaches in the developing countries. And, several research findings highlight that the normative constructivist approaches to teacher learning initiatives and even classroom pedagogies are inappropriate in the African context (O' Sullivan, 2004; Tabulawa, 1997; Vavrus, 2009). Most of the normative (pure) constructivist approaches are appropriate and developed for the developed environments and highly educated or qualified teachers.

Therefore, several researchers are opposed to the normative constructivist approaches to African teacher education in favour of the contingent constructivists' approaches which are contextually focused. The contingent constructivist approaches to teacher learning incorporate a broad range of pedagogical alternatives for demonstrating exceptional teaching for the teachers. For instance, teachers are encouraged to use whatever learners' activities, teaching strategies and skills that work best in their context, to bring about effective teaching and learning, rather than insisting on always using the norm constructivist approach adopted from the developed countries. According to Vavrus (2009), this perspective encourages pedagogical practices which are grounded in the context, rather than using the prescribed norms.

Thus, teacher learning programmes which build teachers' knowledge should provide learning opportunities where teachers can construct and reconstruct knowledge according to their own individual understanding and context (O' Sullivan, 2004). In the process, this kind of professional learning is able to stimulate the development of more independent learning skills and higher order cognitive skills among the participants, the teachers. Bearing in mind the complexity of teacher learning, such models provide teachers with a variety of learning opportunities which recognise their work, teachers' identity and the nature of teacher change. These are branded as adoptive models of teacher learning and change in the African context.

According to Tabulawa (1997), teachers' professional lives are further complicated by the social, cultural, economic and political environment of the particular country or context. In this vein, he blames the Botswana government for introducing the learner centred curriculum in the 1970s without considering the complexities of the teacher centred approaches which were the cultural norm in the country. Substantial evidence also asserts that traditional approaches are

more effective for teaching, especially in poor countries, due to social historic factors coupled with technical logistics (Brodie et al., 2002; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; O' Sullivan, 2004). In addition, Serbessa (2006) declares that the socio-economic situation in Africa makes it difficult to develop and adopt the 'alien' Western approaches which are perceived as effective methods of teaching and learning and thus, responsible for inconsistent classroom practices in South Africa (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). Due to these complexities, some teachers only take up the instructional strategies from a professional programme, leaving out the philosophy and rationale of the pedagogical ideologies (Adey et al., 2004; Brodie et al., 2002; Chisholm, 2011). Thus, changing pedagogical practices which have evolved over a long time and are often grounded in the socio-historical factors in Africa is a difficult, expensive and complex task.

So, it is more cost effective and useful for PD practitioners to stop condemning the formalistic (teacher centred) approaches which are still popular in many schools in the African context. Professional development models should nurture what is positive or good from such practices, identify any unrealistic methodologies and seek better sustainable ways of improving them, so as to achieve the desired changes in the African education systems (Serbessa, 2006; Vavrus, 2009).

According to O' Sullivan (2004), a study about the use of direct instruction methods for teaching and learning, conducted in the US in 1979 , showed a positive impact among the slow learners. Similarly, in the South African context, the township and rural schools continue to perform poorly in mathematics and literacy (Hoadley, 2013; Hoadley & Ensor, 2009; Slonimsky & Brodie, 2006). Hence, PD programmes are recommended to equip teachers with the formalistic or pragmatic approaches to understand pedagogical explanation of such performance in schools. Similar recommendations (in empirical studies) have been expressed in Namibia, Tanzania, Nigeria, Kenya, Lesotho and other sub-Saharan countries.

In the same vein, Jansen (1998) and Slonimsky and Brodie (2006) illustrate how inappropriate policies at the onset of democracy in South Africa led to the introduction and implementation of a radical OBE curriculum (Curriculum 2005) which did not consider the under-resourced schools, ill-trained teachers, or the conventional authority relations in these schools. By 2002, Curriculum 2005 changed to Revised National Curriculum Statements (RNCS), which encouraged active learning, creativity, innovation and at the same time guided the teachers on

the key areas of learning (Wayne, 2014). South Africa implemented another revised school curriculum (CAPS) in 2012, adopting the contingent approaches but also strictly guiding the teachers on what, how and when to teach. The aim was to cater for the diverse schools' needs and to offset the learners' continued poor performance.

If policy makers and researchers' desire is to change the teachers' practices at the FP and improve their teaching knowledge, there is a need to ground professional development activities on contingent constructivists' approaches, which relate to the teachers' contexts, local conditions, and the historical and technical challenges in South Africa. This means that teacher learning should be underpinned by contingent constructivist approaches which allow the use of flexible and wide range of pedagogical approaches in specific contexts (O' Sullivan, 2004; Vavrus, 2009). Opposed to the normative models from the rich western education systems which are linked to advanced technology and learner centred environments. If PD programmes draw from the contextual and pragmatic approaches, teacher learning process would lead to teacher change or growth appropriate to meet the needs of diverse classroom practices in Africa.

After providing several theories of teacher learning and the domains of teacher knowledge, the next section offers a description of the key teacher learning theory which underpins this study.

2.4 An overview of complexity learning theory

The previous two sections discussed several teacher learning theories and their implication for the PD activities at the international level, in an African perceptive and in South Africa, the context of this study. The idea of teachers learning from a formal programme and transformed into practice as a linear process (Guskey, 1986, 2002) and other ideas were discussed in section 2.3.3. Such descriptions and other similar theories adopt process-product or cause-effect approaches to the teacher learning process. However, recent studies have disputed this idea of conventional cause–effect learning processes and have embraced the conceptual frameworks which understand teacher learning as a gradual and multifaceted process (Adey et al., 2004; Bauml, 2011; Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Opfer & Pedder, 2011).

A brief description of complexity theory is discussed in this section and the implications of this study are presented in Chapter Eight section 8.6.The key assumption of complexity theory is that teacher learning is a complex on-going process and this informed my motivation for a

further exploration of an appropriate analytical tool with the same theoretical underpinning (Guskey, 2002).

In this section, I present the complexity theory as one of the contemporary theories which assumes teacher learning as a multifaceted process. According to Opfer and Pedder (2011), teacher learning is a complex process of social behaviour with various dynamic processes or subsystems that are constantly interacting. This implies that teacher learning is a process with different active variables which are integrated and operate at a specific social setting. The theory consists of three subsystems that influence teacher learning, namely: the teacher, the school environment and the nature of the professional development activity (Opfer & Pedder, 2011).
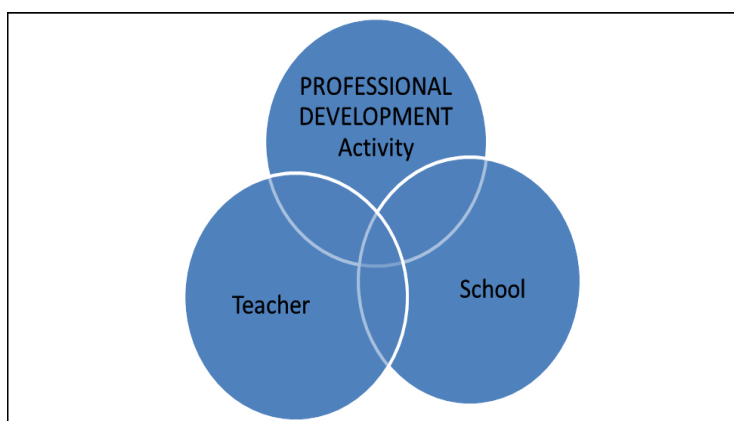
Figure 2.1: The three subsystems of complexity theory generated from Opfer and Pedder, 2011

This conceptual framework suggests that the components of these three subsystems interact and combine in different ways and thus impact on teacher learning in diverse ways. The subsystems are usually structured within the larger socio-economic contexts, but the authors of this framework have not given the socio-economic dimension any attention or focus. This would be because developed countries place less emphasis on these socio-economic contexts than developing countries. This study also assumes that teacher learning from the ACT programme is a complex process for the group of practicing FP teachers who were the participants. To explore their learning and how it impacted on their beliefs and pedagogies, I used EFAL as the empirical field for the investigation, while the complexity theory provided a general internal language of description to guide the study. Next is the description of the subsystems of the complexity theory, to comprehend how these subsystems impact on the teachers' learning.

2.4.1 Subsystem one: The individual teacher

The first subsystem of the complexity theory that influences teacher learning is that of the individual teacher. Empirical evidence shows that a combination of factors such as the teachers' knowledge base, beliefs, norms and values, influence their classroom practice (Hoadley, 2012). There is a growing body of literature that foregrounds teachers' biographies, dispositions and identities as key factors that influence both their classroom practices and their own ways of learning (Battey & Franke, 2008; Gangadeen, 2013).

There is a huge body of literature which aims to define the body of knowledge that all teachers need. There seems to be a general agreement that teachers do need a deep content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, knowledge of context and curriculum, as well as pedagogic content knowledge, which is specialised pedagogic knowledge of how to teach the specific concepts and content of their disciplines (Bertram, 2011; Shulman, 1986; van der Merwe & Nel, 2012). The depth and extent of teachers' different kinds of knowledge domains and the ways in which these domains interact, also influence teachers' learning processes and by implication, that of their learners.

Improving practice is not as simple as 'just' deepening teachers' content knowledge, as research shows that there are complex interactions between teachers' knowledge and practice. For instance, in English literacy education, there is a strong argument that teachers need a specialised kind of knowledge (Moats, 2014; Piasta, Connor, Fishman, & Morrison, 2009). The same notion also applies to other disciplines.

2.4.2 Subsystem two: The professional Development activity

The second subsystem of this theory is the learning activity. As already noted in Chapter Two and previously in this chapter, there is a wide range of research that describes the types of learning activities that appear to enhance teacher learning. Some literature tends to focus on formal planned activities like workshops, while other studies acknowledge learning activities that are informal and job-embedded (Borko, 2004; E. Wilson & Demetriou, 2007).

Formal planned learning activities are mainly informed by the cognitive learning perspective, which is underpinned by the notion of teachers learning individually and predominantly engaged with the propositional knowledge (knowing what) within a specified period of time. Context is not really taken into account, as the assumption is that the knowledge is

decontextualised and is applicable across a range of contexts (Kelly, 2006). However, research shows that this transfer across contexts is difficult and often does not happen (Adey et al., 2004). Research shows that once-off workshops seldom seem to support teacher learning, and studies support long-term, sustained and intensive activities. Research on professional development for teachers and teachers' growth by (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002) illustrate teacher learning and changes in a cyclic manner, where change may occur in one domain and not the other. The details of this model have been discussed earlier in this chapter.

In terms of pedagogy, research suggests that teachers learn more effectively when activities require them to engage materials of practice and when the activity is school-based and integrated into their daily teaching work (Adey et al., 2004). This implies that an effective learning activity should provide teachers with learning materials, which involves the active creation of new knowledge which is related to their practice contexts. For instance, teachers' assignments and tasks should reflect their experiences, beliefs and daily professional routines. The other body of literature tends to be located within the theories of situated learning and implies that teachers can learn from colleagues in school, in unplanned and planned ways.

My argument from this complexity view is that neither of these learning theories is sufficient on its own to explain the complexities of professional learning and in fact, teacher learning can and does emerge from both formal, externally-planned activities and workplace-based, collaborative activities. It is valuable and necessary to know what kind of professional development activities are more likely to support teacher learning, as their effectiveness would shift and change, depending on the individual teachers and the school system in which they teach.

2.4.3   Subsystem three: The school context

The third subsystem that Opfer and Pedder describe is the school. This encompasses the norms and the values of the school, its practices and structures which both enable and constrain the possibilities of teacher learning, teachers' beliefs and practices. Some professional development activities seem to focus strongly on practical knowledge and assume that teachers would transfer their learning to the school context without any problem (Hill & Khuboni, 2013). Such professional programmes seems not to realise that schools have different geographical and historical contexts as well as resource accessibilities. The ACT programme seems to be silent on the role of the school management in teacher learning. Although the

school based tasks are strongly emphasised in the teacher's workplace, follow up support and tangible monitoring from teacher development providers is not focused. According to (V. D. Opfer, D. Pedder, & Z. Lavicza, 2011), effective teacher learning is greatly determined by the school context and how the professional development activity and the school support or constrain both teachers' learning and their teaching.

Therefore to understand and explain why and how teachers learn, we must consider how the "teacher's individual learning orientation system interacts with the school's learning orientation, and how both of these systems together affect the activities in which teachers participate and then are reciprocally affected by the changes that occur from participation in these activities" (Opfer & Pedder, 2011, p. 394).

2.5 An overview of teacher change conceptual models

In this section, I present some of the early teacher change models or training approaches which continue to inform some teacher professional development initiatives, regardless of the weaknesses highlighted by education research in the last two decades. The early professional development and teacher change models evolved largely from prototypes developed by change theorists after the Second World War. Many of the ideas about change were mainly based on psychotherapeutic perspectives. Current empirical studies on teacher learning indicate that the assumptions of early models were inaccurate, especially when dealing with professional development for practicing teachers (Guskey, 2002; Huberman, 1995; Justi & van Driel, 2006).

Often, professional development practitioners attempt to change teachers' beliefs or values about certain pedagogies, instructional innovations or the desired school curriculum. These developers will assume that changing teachers' attitudes and beliefs first would automatically lead to changes in their classroom practices and consequently improve learners' performance. Figure 2.2 summarises the systematic steps of these models.

The professional development programme

⇩

Change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes

⇩

Change in teachers' classroom practice

⇩

Change in students' learning outcomes.
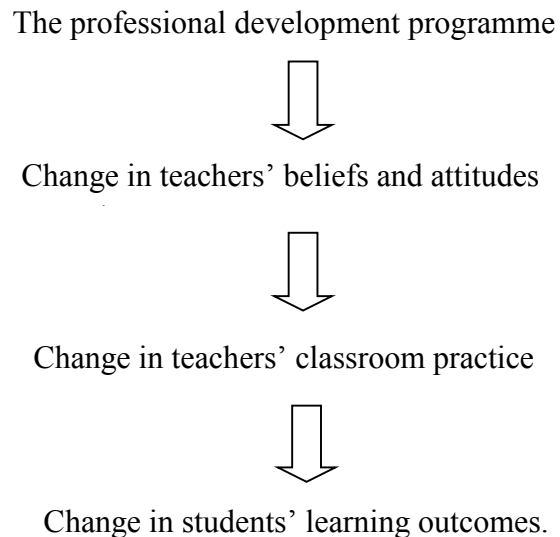
Figure 2.2: A diagram to illustrate a Teacher change model adopted from Guskey, 2002

According to the above diagram, the assumption that a teacher professional programme automatically leads to change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes is not accurate since teachers' perceptions and values are contextually based. On this notion an alternative teacher change model that re-examines the process of teacher change was proposed by Guskey. According to Guskey (2002), the teacher's desire to help the learners' unsatisfactory progress is the core of the process of teacher change. This encourages the teacher to seek new knowledge and skills from a formal professional development programme. The teacher then experiences the change in the classroom practice first, followed by the changes in learners' outcomes due to the new procedures or innovation. Lastly, changes in teachers' beliefs and attitudes about teaching and learning occur. This model is also suitable for the veteran teachers who only become committed to new instructional approaches when they see them work in their classrooms (Guskey, 2002, p. 5).

Such models have been critiqued, described as inefficient and have even been declared a failure in a substantial number of studies (Bantwini, 2009; Mestry et al., 2009; Wood & Bennett, 2000) and do not conform to the complexities of teacher growth (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). A number of factors have contributed to the low outcome or failure of most initiatives which have applied such a change approach. First, it is a linear-based framework which is passive and does not consider what motivates teachers to engage in professional development programmes; and second, it assumes a deficit of knowledge and skills among the participants (teachers), which needs to be fixed through prescribed short courses and workshop (Guskey, 1986, 2002). Lastly, although Guskey's (2002) model provides fundamental aspects of teacher change, the

44

framework does not demonstrate the complexity of the nature of the relationship between the components of teacher learning and change (Opfer & Pedder, 2011).

As a result, research into teacher change has gradually shifted from frameworks which perceive teachers as passive learners, to frameworks which promote teachers as active learners shaping their own professional growth and positive change through reflective participation in professional programmes and in practice (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002, p. 948). The idea of lifelong learning and effective professional development programmes has been emphasised in many studies (Darling-Hammond, Chung Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; C Day, 1999; Desimone, 2009; Fraser et al., 2007) The goal of teacher learning in these studies is not to repair personal deficiencies, but to offer an on-going process of learning in which teachers gradually change their beliefs and practices. However, most of these teacher learning models are from the USA, the UK and Australia, while most developing countries, including South Africa, are still in a transitional stage of adopting the current lifelong teacher development models. The cascading workshops model is still prevalent.

2.6 Interconnected model for teacher professional growth (IMTPG)

During my search for literature and theory to assist in the formulation of the research questions and to guide in developing the methodologies, I realised the propositions or explanatory understanding of teacher learning described by the complexity learning theory (Opfer & Pedder, 2011) were the appropriate concepts for this study. Though the concepts provided an impeccable way of understanding teacher learning, they were not detailed enough as tools for multiple data analysis. So, I decided to use the complexity theory at a macro level due to its strength in explaining the teacher learning phenomenon.

There are a number of reasons which made the Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth (IMTPG) a useful analytical tool for this study. Firstly, the fact that the model assumes a non-linear approach and accords to the existing evidence of teacher change offered by several scholars (Guskey, 1986, 2002) makes it essential. It builds on the four domains from Guskey's concepts of teacher change, but with different interactive variables which match teacher learning as a continuous complex process. In addition, good theories and conceptual frameworks seek to make sense of a given phenomenon and build on existing theories (Maree, 2012).

Secondly, the model identifies specific mechanisms of change which motivated me to apply it as my lens to understand teacher change, which is the focus of this study. The model recognises and clearly explains specific change sequences and growth networks and recognises distinctive and individualised teacher growth (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). Thirdly, from my research of various theoretical frameworks and applications, I realised that there are several studies which support teacher development, a professional growth process, using current theories. In particular, I found only one article which applied this model to explore science teacher change from a continuing professional development programme, in the Netherlands. The fact that it is empirically grounded makes this model powerful and an appropriate analytical tool to understand the kind of teacher change experienced by the three FP teachers during their 18 months of learning from the ACT programme offered at UKZN.

According to this model, teacher change can be interpreted in different ways, which echoes the interpretivist approach. However, for this particular study, teacher change is seen from a 'growth or teacher learning' perspective. The definition of teacher learning is detailed in Chapter Two, section 2.2. "Change as growth or learning [is where] teachers change inevitably through professional activity, teachers themselves, learners who work in a learning community" (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002, p. 948).

This model assumes that teachers' professional 'world' is established by four major domains namely, the external domain; personal domain; domain of practice; and domain of consequences. When a specific change occurs in any of these four domains, it influences another domain through growth networks. This change linkage in the four domains is facilitated through the processes of "reflection" and "enactment" which are represented by linking arrows (growth network) in Figure 2.3.
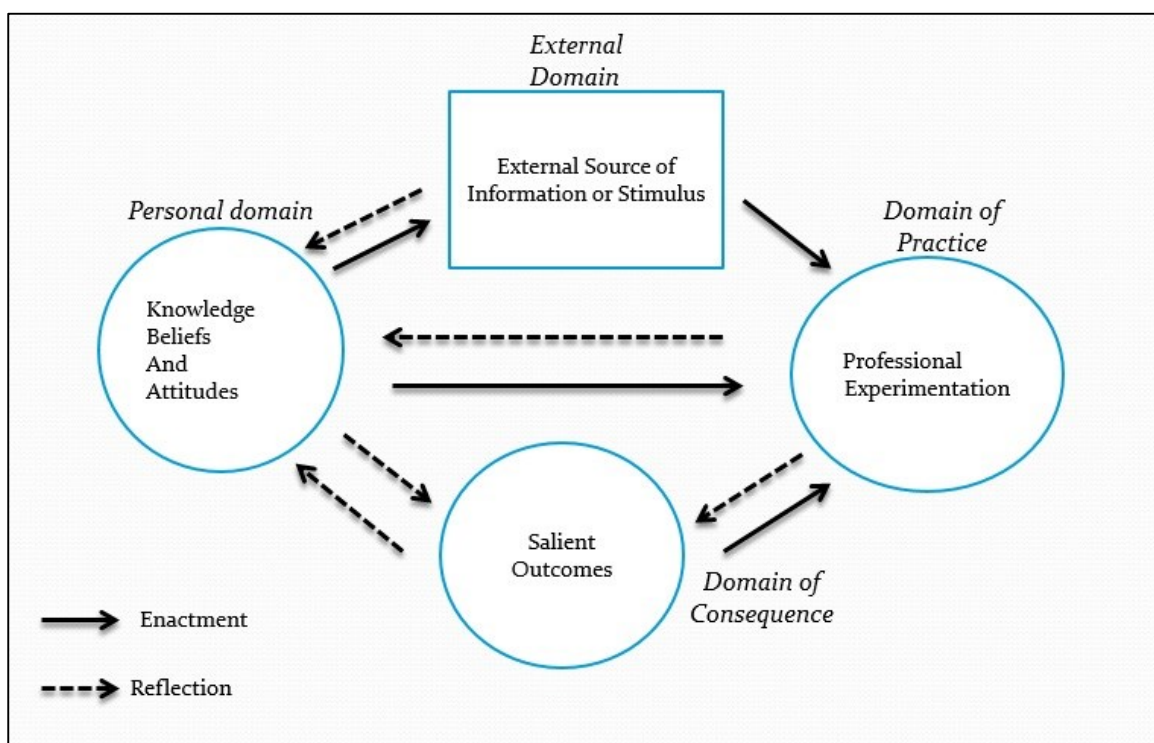
Figure 2.3: The interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth: Clarke & Hollingsworth (2002, p. 951)

The various pathways of reflections and enactments between the domains reveal the complexity of the teachers' change or growth. Any form of professional change experienced in any of the domains is influenced by the contextual factors (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). The authors of this model argue that the term 'reflection' is the process by which an active teacher cautiously and continuously reflects on the new experiences provided by the professional activity. On the other hand, 'enactment' is used to describe the specific action taken to demonstrate a new idea, belief or a new pedagogical practice acquired by the teacher, as modelled by the professional activity (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). The specific change sequence is presented by interlinking arrows which are either *reflective* or *enactive* links connecting two or more domains.

2.6.1 Nature of the teacher change: Growth networks and change sequence

Teacher change takes two forms - a growth network and a change sequence of two or more domains (the definitions are provided below), with either a reflective or enactive links connecting these domains, where empirical data supports both the occurrence of change in each domain and their causal connection (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002. p. 958). This implies that when change occurs in one domain through the process of reflection or enaction, this change

may be experienced in another domain. According to Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002), growth networks refer to a teacher change which is ongoing and lasting. Such a change demonstrates more than two linkage networks through the process of reflection or enaction within the domains involved. A change sequence, on the other hand, presents a single linkage which quickly disappears (or is temporal). This kind of distinction is crucial for it helps to identify and distinguish the kind of change that the teachers experience. Some teachers may experience a change sequence, which is temporal, while others may experience growth networks which are sustainable. The model explains teacher learning and change in complex ways because it takes into account the following factors:

- Teacher change is not linear in nature, but is a gradual, continuous and complex process.
- The process of change consists of several routes by which change in one domain leads to change in another.
- Teacher change occurs through the processes of *reflection* and *enactment* that link the four domains.
- Any form of teacher change occurs within the benefits and limitations experienced in the teacher's context of learning and practice.

However, in this study, it was not possible to incorporate the aspects of growth networks and change sequence to distinguish the kind of change experienced by the teachers, due to the time factors. The data were only collected for 18 months, which was a short duration to identify the teachers' change as lasting *(a growth of network)* or temporal *(change sequence).* Thus, to identify the kind of teacher change, I designed similar criteria to code the nature of teacher change from the beginning to the end of the programme. Details of the application of this model are presented in Chapter Seven, section 7.3. If this model is accurate, then teacher learning is a vital and on-going process in teachers' professional lives and the following requirements need to be taken into account, in order to refine the current professional development programmes:

- Teacher change is a complex and slow process which depends on contextual learning opportunities. Therefore, a professional development activity should not expect a uniform response from the participants. For this study, this model provided an opportunity to capture the nature of the individual change which teachers experienced during the teacher learning process and which was aligned to the two presentations of change (growth networks or change sequence).

- The participants should receive regular feedback on their learning progress. Since the model assumes complex approaches to understanding teacher learning, I used multiple methods of collecting data and three different analytical tools to capture, as much as possible, the teachers' perceptions and actual practices.

- Professional development activities should provide continuous follow-up and support, as well as positive encouragement. The ACT programme, through the delivery of mixed mode materials, encourages active participation through classroom-based assignments and tasks. This positively influenced the FP teachers towards achieving their goals of higher professional qualification and improving their pedagogical experiences. However, the programme does not offer any other form of follow-up after the formal 18 months of learning.

2.7 Chapter summary

In summary, this chapter conceptualises teacher learning as a process which is slow and on-going which leads to teachers' change, and professional development programme as a formal activity which offers teachers new knowledge and skills. Several theoretical frameworks of teacher learning, teacher knowledge and teacher change and their implications for teacher professional activities were also discussed including the analytical tools which engaged with the nature of teacher change. Literature on teachers' English literacy knowledge base is discussed in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER THREE: REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON LITERACY

3.1 Introduction

The relevant literature on models of professional development, teacher knowledge and teacher learning theories has been described in Chapter Two. It is also essential to review literature on literacy and the kind of literacy knowledge that FP teachers should have in order to effectively teach reading and writing. This literature specifically addresses the focus of the study which is to understand the particular knowledge offered to the three teachers to enable effective teaching of EFAL at FP. Therefore chapter also provides an overview of existing literacy education in the South African context. In that view, the first section of this chapter describes a short review of the South African languages, to understand the uniqueness of the South African context, where English is embraced as the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) and as an official commercial language. The chapter then defines the concept of literacy relevant to the topic and also provide insights into the various teaching and reading approaches to literacy that underpin this study. The last sections of the chapter, briefly explores research on knowledge base for teaching English literacy at elementary from an international and South African perspective.

3.2 Language Profile in South Africa

To understand the issues of language and literacy in South Africa, as well as to be able to understand the context of this study, it is imperative to provide an overview of the South African languages. The language profile of South Africa is complex. During the apartheid era, South Africa had English and Afrikaans as the only official languages and 'bilingualism' was often used to refer to Afrikaans and English bilingual speakers only (Granville et al., 1998). South Africa does not use the term bilingualism in this manner any more. The dictionary meaning of the term bilingual/bilingualism refers to proficiency in any two languages, but not necessarily equal in proficiency.

At the end of the apartheid regime, the new Constitution approved the official status of 11 languages underpinned by the principles of multilingualism. An overview by Tibane (2016) states the uniqueness of South Africa as a multilingual country (most people speak at least two of the official languages) with 11 official languages. According to the official languages Act each of these languages is guaranteed an equal status as part of promoting social cohesion in

the "Rainbow Nation" (Tibane, 2016). Yet, English continues to enjoy the status of the most widely used official and commercial language across the country, but on different proficiency levels (Dampier, 2012; Lenyai, 2011). However, the majority of the South Africans do not speak English as their home language (HL) but use English for multilateral relations and commercial purposes within the country and with the rest of the world.

IsiZulu is the home language spoken by 22.7% of the population, followed by isiXhosa at 16%, Afrikaans at 13.5%, and English at 9.6%; Sepedi at 9.1%, Setswana at 8%, Sesotho at 7.6%, and Xitsonga at 4.5%. Siswati is spoken by 2.5% of the population, while Tshivenda by 2.4% and lastly, isiNdebele by 2.1% (Schaffler, 2015; Tibane, 2016). English and Afrikaans speaking people seldom speak the black African indigenous languages, yet are fairly fluent in each other's language. Just like other Anglophone countries in the world, South African English is distinctive, having assimilated some words and phrases from other South African languages such as Afrikaans, isiZulu and others.

South Africa has to move beyond the old philosophies and positions on the use of many official languages, just like other regions of Africa, to achieve social cohesion and a coherent language-in-education policy. For instance, in the East African region, HL is spoken at home district levels, while Kiswahili and English remain the countries' lingua franca (or bridging language). Due to the language complexity, the nation and, in particular the DBE, continue to ponder the necessity of having the 11 languages treated equally in the schooling system. Contrary to the Constitution, only English and Afrikaans continue to take preference as languages of learning and teaching (LoLT) in the "Rainbow Nation", despite the enormous efforts by the DBE to promote all the official languages in schools (Fleisch, 2008; Schaffler, 2015; Taylor et al., 2013).

3.3 The Language-in-Education Policy in South Africa

In this section, I describe the approaches adopted by the DBE to facilitate the best practice for teaching English literacy to all learners in accordance to the Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) of South Africa. Since the English literacy research field is huge, I will limit my review to what the scholars argue about LiEP and the teaching of EFAL at the FP, which is the focus of this study.

The South African School Act (SASA) (Act 84 of 1996) introduced the language-in-education Policy (LiEP) in terms of section 3(4) of the National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act 27 of 1996). The LiEP stresses multilingualism as an extension of cultural diversity and an integral part of building a non-racial South Africa. The key principle is to retain learners' HL for learning and teaching, but to encourage learners to acquire additional languages for learning and teaching (Department of Education, 2003). In this regard, the DBE's position is that of an additive approach, which entails the addition of extra languages while maintaining the learner's HL. Both the HL and the FAL being acquired or learned are given equal emphasis.

The LiEP (1997) promotes additive multilingualism where all learners are expected to reach high levels of proficiency in at least two languages that is, their HL and one additional language. This means that competency in EFAL should be acquired while the HL is maintained and developed. Shifting from using HL to EFAL as the LoLT in Grade 4, where the learners are expected be proficient in reading or learning using EFAL, is a very difficult task (Fleisch, 2008; Fleisch & Schöer, 2014). To achieve this goal, the DBE explicitly states that the learners' HL should be used at the FP for learning and teaching to support literacy acquisition and growth amongst learners (Department of Basic Education, 2013b). However, the language-in-education policies to be adhered which consistently upholds the 11 official languages are yet to be achieved in the South African schools.

The current LiEP provides norms and standards for languages to be offered in South African public schools. According to this policy, English is offered as the "language of learning and teaching" (LoLT) and as a "subject" at the FP. The powers of determining a school's LoLT are entrusted to the school governing body, subject to the provisions of the Constitution, the South African Schools Act and any applicable provincial law (Department of Basic Education, 2011, p. 8). This gives the parents a chance to choose LoLT for their children, considering the practicability of the choice and in accordance with the laws of South Africa.

Therefore, the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and the current Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) offer English language as Home Language (HL) or First Additional Language (EFAL) at the FP. Although beyond the scope of this study, a distinction needs to be made, amongst the complexity of schooling in South Africa, between ''Home Language'' (HL), ''First Additional Language (FAL)'' and ''language of learning and

teaching" (LoLT). To offer a language as a HL assumes that the learners come to school able to speak and understand that language, and the teacher is expected to boost the basic proficiencies needed to develop and nurture literacy development in a formal environment (Mbatha, 2014). The subject English as First Additional language (EFAL) assumes that learners do not necessarily have any knowledge of English when they arrive at school. In additive bilingualism approach, the aim is for learners to first acquire language fluency and access the academic curriculum in their HL and when they are able to access instruction in English, the HL instruction is then phased out. Learners are then taught exclusively in English at Grade 4 meaning English is offered as "language of learning and teaching" (Mashiya, 2011). The learners' basic competencies of understanding and speaking are supposed to be developed and EFAL is supposed to build on the HL literacies, which learners acquire from their home context (Department of Basic Education, 2011).

However, scholars argue that although LoLT is a critical issue, even more critical is the *quality* of instruction offered, that is, the instructional models, programmes and strategies (Lenyai, 2011; Pretorius, 2014). That is to say, learners who fail to master reading and writing skills in their HL find the transition to English as a LoLT difficult. According to Lenyai (2011), we should be cautious on how additive bilingualism approaches are conceptualised in multilingual countries like South Africa. C. Nel and Adams (2014), argues that the South African education system is failing many EFAL learners who are experiencing "exclusion" as a result of the current implementation of the current LiEP. The majority of the country's learners face the challenges of mastering academic and literacy skills (for example, reading, writing and spelling) in a language they have yet to fully acquire, placing them at a high risk for developing literacy learning problems (Pretorius & Spaull, 2016).

According to the South African National Education Policy, the learners should start their learning at school in their HL but recent research evidence shows that many schools choose teaching them in a LoLT, which is different from what the children speak (A. J. Hugo & Lenyai, 2013; Mashiya, 2011; Taylor et al., 2013). In other cases, parents may, and increasingly do, opt for English or Afrikaans as the LoLT, rather than the HL of the learners in some schools (Taylor et al, 2013, p. 31). This is acceptable, according to the South African Schools Act (84 of 1996), but for these learners, their HL does not necessarily correspond with the LoLT. For example, a Sesotho-speaking learner living in KwaZulu-Natal province may attend a school in

a township or rural area where the LoLT is isiZulu. In addition, Mashiya (2011) and Phindane (2014) argue that for the majority of these learners entering Grade 4, the LoLT switches again (for the second time). This implies that 30% of the learners at the FP, mostly black children, are taught in a second language which in most cases is English, which they hardly speak at home in some districts. Fleisch (2008) adds a further dimension, that learners as well as teachers in townships and rural areas experience problems with EFAL learning and teaching, because they are not learning in a communicative language context. They hardly ever hear or speak English in their own communities. These learners live in a world in which English is essentially a foreign language.

3.4 Conceptions of Literacy

 In this section, I provide scholars' views on the term literacy to have a conceptual understanding of English literacy teaching at the elementary level. The main objective is to provide an overview of existing scholarship on conceptual understanding of literacy teaching and learning at the elementary level and *not* a detailed account of the broad term literacy or literacy education.

Traditionally, the term literacy refers to the ability to read and write, with the assumption that the learning of the phonics (sounds) would enable reading any printed text in a decontextualized manner (Verbeek, 2010). From this notion, the teaching of literacy has tended to focus more on the reading process as a technical skills of being able to read and write. In a modern education system, literacy can be defined as a set of practical skills acquired, to enable the intellectual functioning of individuals (Street, 2014). It is the acquisition of literacy skills that builds peoples' ability to engage in abstract, logical thinking and metalinguistic awareness. In a similar vein in South African education context, some researchers view literacy as a discipline which demonstrates the methods and skills which learners use to develop proficiency in reading and writing in a school setting (Granville et al., 1998). In this case, the acquisition of literacy skills in a formal setting enables learners to interact with each other and equips them with the knowledge needed to engage with the world through the use of written or spoken language (Piasta et al., 2009).

On the other hand, Barton (2001, p. 99) describes literacy as a "social practice embedded in people's ordinary lives, whether or not they read books or do writing". According to this

sociocultural thinking, people are constantly exposed to literacy events or human actions that involves the use of print in one way or another within a particular social group. Thus, such literacy practices imparts on the political, social, and cultural aspects of people's life. From this discernment, the term literacy shifts from the conventional knowledge (read and write) to a new paradigm where people have (various) literacies which develop continuously as we learn new skills in life (Bloch, 2009).

According to Pinto, Bigozzi, Gamannossi, and Vezzani (2009), the term 'emergent literacy' is used to denotes the acquisition of literacy as a developmental continuum, with its origins beginning early in the life of a child, rather than a conceptual process which begins when children start formal schooling Thus, emergent literacy overlaps with the term 'early literacy' which refers to how young children construct their own literacy individually and in a meaningful way as part of developmental and social learning processes. The emergent perspective of literacy is largely based on the cognitive construction of knowledge and hence, literacy learning in school is more than the acquisition of reading skills (Moats, 2009b). In one of the recent report on teaching of reading and writing in Foundation Phase in South African context, Pretorius, Jackson, McKay, Murray, and Spaull (2016, pp. 8-9) stress that:

> *Even before children formally start school they get socialised – to a greater or lesser degree into aspects of literacy from parents, caregivers and significant others in their environment. The values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and practices related to reading and writing activities that children acquire indirectly during the preschool years fall under the rubric of emergent literacy. The more strongly emergent literacy develops in the preschool years, the easier children find it to learn to read and write once they enter formal schooling.*

Therefore, in the emergent approach, the acquisition of literacy skills is a dynamic, ongoing process that begins long before children begin formal schooling. It consists of children's formal and informal interactions with oral and written language before attending school. The children then use their prior knowledge and experiences to support the task of learning to read and write in school. With this kind of emergent thinking, literacy teaching demands that teachers acquire the new techniques to enable critical decision making and communicate meaning from reading

and writing, using a variety of socially contextual symbols (Gunn, Simmons, & Kameenui, 2004; Pretorius et al., 2016).

In the field of emergent literacy, an important issue is its relationship to formal literary learning. Research has focused on this relationship but there is no single consensus on a single literacy acquisition model (Joubert, Bester, & Meyer, 2008). Understanding the relationship between written signs and meanings is a complex process that involves a diverse of skills and abilities embedded in peoples' context (Bloch, 2000). For instance Kuccer and Silva (2013), presents a multidimensional model made of interactive domains namely the linguistic, cognitive, socio-cultural and developmental dimensions to describe literacy acquisition. They argue that for literacy learning and teaching to be effective, it is paramount for the teachers to view literacy as a dynamic and a multidimensional process. Therefore, any person who wants to be literate has to continuously and efficiently engage with the cognitive, linguistic, socio-cultural and developmental dimensions of literacy (see Figure 3.1). Kuccer (2009) describes each dimension and also to demonstrate the interrelations among them during a literacy event as shown in Figure 3.1.

This model is a reflection and expansion of the preliminary works of Luke (1995) and The New London Group (1996), whose principles are widely used in Australia to provide teacher students with the opportunity to develop effective classroom practices.
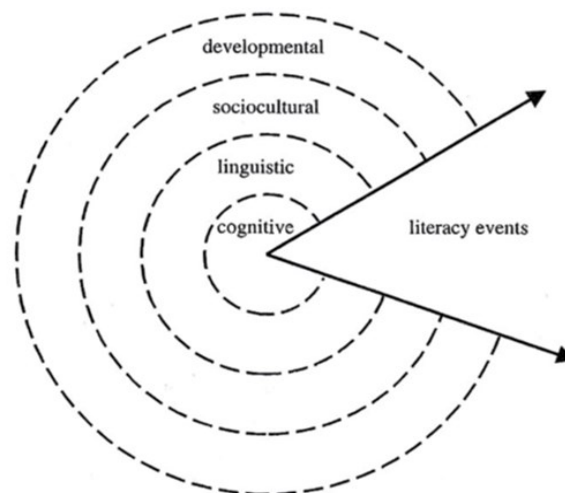
Figure 3.1: The Dimensions of literacy: Kuccer (2009, p. 5)

According to Kuccer (2009), although these dimensions are perceived as separate domains, in the real pedagogical practices, the teacher is expected to draw from the four dimensions. This

is because these dimensions are interrelated and operate in a trans-active and symbolic manner (Kuccer, 2009, p. 5), with each impacting on the other, in a complex manner. The summary of the four dimensions are presented as follows:

3.4.1   The cognitive dimension of the literacy model

According to the model, the centre of literacy is the cognitive dimension, where the language user's purpose is to explore, discover, construct and share meaning. Readers and writers at this level of this model are expected to apply various mental processes and approaches to create meaning, rather than to transfer meaning in a literacy event. Cognitive psychologies have explored the mental process of reading and writing and realised reading constitutes the very process whereby learning occurs and it lies at the roots of the academic performance. Therefore to improve academic performance at all levels of schooling, requires a strong competence in reading and writing which brings in the idea of social dimension of this model.

3.4.2   The linguistic dimension of the literacy model

The linguistic is second dimension of literacy from the centre of this model, and perceived as the language driver through which meaning is expressed in different systems. The reader uses systems of language different to construct meaning through the linguistic dimensions. Some of these systems include pragmatic, text type, Genre, text structure, semantic, morphemic etc. Therefore the reader and writer should coordinate and use all these systems to express meaning. Linguistics will emphasis on technical way which entails the textual dimensions or language of reading and writing. The next two dimensions of the literacy encompasses the social aspect.

3.4.3   Socio-cultural dimension of the literacy model

The socio-cultural dimension locates literacy as a social process and focuses on how various groups in a specific context employ literacy in the real world. The socio-cultural dimension shifts our attention from the text and the mind, to that of literacy event and literacy practices. Literacy does not only occur simply because an individual teacher possesses and applies the necessary linguistic and cognitive strategies or processes (Moats, 2014), but it is also an expression of group identity that signals power relationships (Kuccer & Silva, 2013). The way a person uses literacy within a given group reflects the nature of the group and the group position in the society Thus, teachers should realise that literacy is not a simple 'act' or

cognition process, it rather represents multiple social enactments or behaviours. Typically, it continues through the course of one's life, as long as literacy is encountered and used in new or novel ways as explained in the next section.

3.4.4 The developmental dimension of the literacy model

The developmental dimension of this model reflects growth in an individual's ability to effectively engage the linguistics and cognitive and sociocultural dimensions of literacy in a wide range of contexts. For instance, learners develop new abilities in written languages. They begin to tactically move and compose various dimensions of language, with more control and flexibility to expand their horizons (Kuccer, 2009; Moats, 2014).

In summary, the multidimensional model views literacy education as a complex process which should be conceptualised from multiple lenses, in order to fully understand the classroom practices of reading and writing. Such literacy experiences are supposed to be continuous and lifelong so as to allow the literacy progression of the reader and effective instruction in particular school events (Kuccer & Silva, 2013).

3.5 Approaches to reading

This section presents important conceptual approaches to reading practices in relation to teaching of reading and illuminated in most of the literacy education literature. The literature review is restricted to approaches to reading applicable to teaching EFAL at the foundation level. The approaches to reading should not be confused with specific reading strategies or techniques which refers to explicit instructional moves where the teacher defines a specific, discrete instructions, elements, or actions during a particular reading lesson (Hill, 2010). Module 4 and 6 of the ACT programme endorses shared reading guide, guided reading, independent reading or word attack techniques, as examples of effective strategies of teaching EFAL, depending on the school context and learners' proficiency. These Modules support phonic based, whole languages based and balanced approaches as approaches to effective reading.

Over the past century, research has shown that learning to read is a complex process and there is no single method that ensures reading achievement among all learners (Pinto et al., 2009;

Verbeek, 2010). In the 1990's, the great debate on reading theories was: should the teachers use the phonic based (Bottom–up) approaches or the whole language (Top–down) approaches to teach reading at the elementary level?

Table 3.1 presents some of the ways in which the two approaches to reading have been described by Flanagan (1995).

Table 3.1: A comparison of the phonics based and whole language approaches to reading

Phonics based approaches	Whole language approaches
Reading is a process that progresses from the parts to the whole (bottom-up). Learners first learn the individual letters, then letter characteristics; followed by other letter units representing sounds; then single words; then phrases and sentences; and finally the meaning of the text.	Reading is a process that progresses from the whole to the parts (top-down). It assumes the learners will have an understanding of the written language and how it functions. This understanding enables the reader to make sense of the written word.
Reading is collaboration of individual skills.	Reading is inclusive. All skills are implemented simultaneously to make sense of the written text
Reading is text driven. The page brings more information to the reader, than the reader brings to the written page.	Reading is comprehension driven. The reader brings existent knowledge to the text. He or she predicts and questions the text.
The reader must first master the mechanical and technical aspects of written language, before reading comprehension is addressed.	Meaning is most important and is the foundation of reading.
Once the learners have mastered the technical and mechanical skills, they can read.	People continue to learn how to read throughout their lives. There is no end.
Reading aloud is essential for the beginning reader.	Silent reading is essential for meditation and conceptualisation.

Source: Flanagan (1995, p. 12)

3.5.1   The phonic based approach to reading

The phonic based approach (Bottom–up) in learning to read essentially argues that literacy is all about translating graphic symbols into speech, with the assumption that meaning will follow (Verbeek, 2010). This is the most commonly used method at the foundation level of schooling and comprises methodologies where the reader progresses from simple sounds of letters to the whole text (Jourbert, Bester, & Meyer, 2008). This approach usually is decontextualized and purposed to teach young readers that letter combinations represent speech sounds heard in words. The reading skills are developed step by step, from letter to word recognition, understanding of words, sentences and lastly, the understanding of the whole text. This indicates that learners are expected to reach a certain level of technical and mechanical skills before they are exposed to authentic books or higher levels of reading. For instance, learners are required to mechanically recite the letters of the alphabet before they can start reading the words and then sentences (Flanagan, 1995).

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According to Tompkins (2013), use of basal readers enriches use of the phonics methods. A basal reader is a reading programme that offers a compilation of readymade lesson plans, workbook assignments, paperback books, and grade-level textbooks to help learners decode words (Ibid). In the South Africa context, teachers should use basal readers is to teach grammar, phonics, spelling, phonemic awareness, and numerous reading strategies and skills (Taylor et al, 2013). Everything is already mapped out for the teacher, which is valuable for teachers with limited pedagogical knowledge. Although a basal reader is great for strengthening reading skills, word identification, and decoding skills, it lacks differentiation primarily because everything included in the curriculum package is geared toward one reading level (Tompkins, 2013). Although the phonics approach encourages children to read each word separately in a sentence, Flanagan affirms that this approach hinders comprehension since differences exist between the reading of individual words and the reading of text.

Pretorius et al., (2016) stress the importance of phonics approach to learners' literacy development, but argue that it should not be the only focus of literacy teaching at the elementary level. According to International Reading Association (2007), the teaching of phonics skills from the beginning, is an important foundation to phonological awareness, decoding, word recognition and literal comprehension. However, other experts suggest that phonics approaches focus on cognitive philosophy and emphasis is more on the individual, rather than the social practices (Luke, 1995). This means that the phonics approach to reading alone is not capable of instilling self-imagination, innovation, dynamism and other dispositions that are highly valued in the 21st century education system globally (International Reading Association, 2007).

3.5.2 The whole language approach to reading

The second theory is the whole language approach, which assumes that literacy is fundamentally a meaning-making activity, an approach which emphasises treating phonics as only one kind of cue used in the process of reading and writing at the elementary level (Goodman & Goodman, 2009). This approach is often described as 'top-down', because the teacher first introduces a topic and engages children in discussion, then guides them to make sentences. For instance, a teacher may write a sentence on a strip of card, then cuts the strip into single words. Then, with the children, she breaks the words into their letter-sound units.

This process is an example of an activity from the 'language experience' method, which is a variation of the 'Top-down' approach (Hill & Khuboni, 2013).

According to Perez and Nordlander (2004), the whole language approach is grounded in the idea that children acquire the ability to read and write as naturally as they learn to walk and talk. In addition, literacy acquisition occurs when children are provided with numerous learning situations in which they are actively engaged in a reliable, meaningful communication that has a connection with their lives. This means that literacy events should be contextualised and meaning-laden. For example, teachers should create learning opportunities or environments from the child's home language and personal experience (Verbeek, 2010). It is because of such conditions that Jourbert et al. (2008), describe the whole language approach as a method which integrates all areas of reading. However, the balanced or integrated approach is an attempt to bring together the two perspectives by arguing that reading proceeds from both the smallest units of language to meaning and from meaning to smaller units (Verbeek, 2010).

Generally, the phonic based approaches use sounds of the word to help children decode text, whilst the whole language approaches encourage children to guess words from the meaning of the text to help comprehension. Research evidence suggests that the phonics skills and the whole language methods are equally important in learning how to read (Department of Education, 2002; Flanagan, 1995; Jourbert et al., 2008; Verbeek, 2010). This is because some children respond well to the phonic based approaches, while others progress better with the whole language methods. This means that children benefit even more from the amalgamation of these two approaches – the 'balanced' approach. Thus, FP teachers should be able to reconcile the two approaches in their classroom context, learning to balance the approaches for the benefit of the mixed abilities classrooms in the South Africa context (Verbeek, 2013). The next section gives an overview of the balanced approaches to reading.

3.5.3 Balanced approaches to reading

According to the socio-cultural perspectives, use of multiple approaches for literacy instruction at the elementary level is crucial because children learn differently in relation to their contexts and experiences (Perez & Nordlander, 2004). This means that one single approach such as phonics based approach or whole language methods may not meet the needs of diverse learners in a classroom. A balanced approach to reading allows learners to explore and form their own

understanding within the text. In addition, phonics, spelling, writing, reading, and oral communication are all included as part of a balanced approaches. Learners are encouraged to read diverse books and write, giving phonics the contextual attention it deserves for a successful and meaningful reading. Thus the balanced approaches are research grounded and comprehensively view literacy as inclusive without putting emphasis on one aspect of literacy at the expense of another (National Reading Panel, 2005). For example, a teacher using balanced approaches will value the instruction of both reading and writing, use of basal readers and also give learners writing tasks to strengthen their literacy skills.This allows diversity and flexibility in teaching and reading becomes a cognitive-linguistic activity which comprises several other skills such decoding, writing and comprehension (Pretorius et al., 2016).

Balanced approaches to reading also encourage recreational reading which improves autonomous learning, creativity, intelligence, comprehension, communicative competence, literacy development, motivation and attitudes towards language learning (Verbeek, 2010). However, recent research indicates that reading for enjoyment has declined significantly in the last years in South African context (Phindane, 2014). Several reading instructional intervention by the South African DBE at the national and provincial level have been implemented and incorporate ideologies of teaching reading from International Reading Association (IRA) and National Reading Panel (NRP). For instance, the Reading Association of South Africa (RASA) established in Cape Town in 2004 is a support and motivation from IRA, to which it is affiliated. Provincial branches of RASA were formed to support and promote effective reading approaches and suitable for various contexts (Department of Basic Education, 2013a, 2015).

3.6 What is the knowledge base for teaching Foundation Phase literacy?

Most linguistic research experts argue that teaching reading and writing at the foundation level needs a professional teacher who understands the progressive principles of the language being taught (A. E. Cunningham, Etter, Platas, Wheeler, & Campbell, 2015; International Reading Association, 2007; Moats & Foorman, 2008). These include knowledge of the language, and orthographic, semantic and phonological awareness, and phonics, which are all necessary for teaching word recognition and spelling. The children's developmental progression theories of literacy learning also need to be taken into account (Gunn et al., 2004). Such knowledge should also take into account reading process and skills, print structure, comprehension and vocabulary building strategies (Foorman et al., 2016; Kuccer & Silva, 2013; Moats, 1999;

Moats & Foorman, 2003; National Early Literacy Panel, 2008; Piasta et al., 2009). There is a growing consensus that teachers at the FP should be deeply grounded in the language knowledge to enable them to effectively apply the principles in the classrooms. According to Moats (2014, p. 77), teaching English literacy at elementary level requires:

> A well-prepared teacher, with a solid grasp of both the complexities of English orthography and the language systems that print represents in order to teach students recognition of written words. Without such knowledge, the teacher is likely to promote guessing strategies ("What might make sense here?"), bypass strategies ("Skip that and go on."), the belief that accuracy does not matter ("Nice try."), or rote memorization of higher frequency words…. Even if they use one of the many well-designed and scripted intervention programs, teachers must rely on background knowledge of their own to tailor lessons for individual students.

This means that teacher content knowledge is a backbone to what they practice in the classroom. It also means that if the teachers are not well prepared in terms of content knowledge and pedagogical strategies, would end up enacting procedures that may not be efficient in the classroom. Several international studies assert that teachers at the elementary level generally display inadequate knowledge about language and literacy concepts, literacy development and the literacy pedagogies needed for effective teaching at this critical phase of learning (A. E. Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2004; Foorman & Moats, 2004; Moats, 2014). According to research, the effective teaching of reading and writing requires the teacher to enact a specialised body of knowledge. This body of knowledge is complex and made of actively relating blends of teacher knowledge in emergent literacy and English language structure; explicit knowledge on the literacy concepts, systematic and explicit knowledge on reading components and approaches; as well as the effective teaching strategies to enable children's literacy development (Kuccer & Silva, 2013; Moats, 1999, 2009b, 2014; Piasta et al., 2009).

The person who can enact this specialised knowledge is a highly qualified professional teacher who acquires the teacher knowledge from a formal programme and informally, from their working contexts. The desire to understand this specialised body of knowledge in literacy is created by the fact that a gap continues to prevail between classroom practices and the research on how to teach reading and writing at the FP in the South African context (Kimathi & Bertram, 2015; van der Merwe & Nel, 2012).

Informed by research, the Table 3.2 details the assumptions of what the teachers need to know, in order to effectively teach reading at the FP.

Table 3.2: The relationship between the components of reading and teacher knowledge

Reading components (taught at FP)	Kinds of TK needed to teach the components of reading (A blend of subject knowledge and practice focused knowledge)
Phonemic awareness	TK on how to recognise relationships in phonological processes, reading, spelling and vocabulary is vital. These skills enable the FP teachers to equip the young readers phonemically and support their ability to blend and divide phonemes (sounds) that are associated with graphemes. Teachers are able to precisely identify and make decisions about confusable sounds and words.
Phonics	A teacher should be able to recognise prefixes, suffixes, roots and the morphological structure of words to help learners to recognise words, draw the meaning and recall the spelling more easily. Phonological awareness is also tied to other decoding skills or approaches.
Fluency	Teachers need to have the language structure knowledge at the sub-lexical level, at the level of semantic organisation and discourse structure to enable them to assign learners to appreciate reading texts and techniques to enable learners achieve fluency in reading and subsequently, writing, at this phase of learning.
Vocabulary	Teachers' knowledge of the English language structure such as phonology, semantics, morphology, orthography, syntax, pragmatics and grammatical rules and meaning is vital to enable the teaching of vocabulary.
Comprehension.	This requires the teacher to apply the linguistic concepts such as the text organisation, genre, pragmatic and syntax (sentence/text structure) knowledge.

Adapted from van der Merwe & Nel (2012); Moats (2009)

This implies that the literacy teacher knowledge base has both theoretical and practical aspects, where the formal gives an understanding of the subject such as literacy theories and concepts, while the latter gives the teacher the strategies of teaching (Shalem, 2014b; Winch et al., 2015). According to Van der Berg, Spaull, Wills, Gustafsson & Kotzé (2016), professional knowledge for teaching consists of three components, namely subject knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and classroom competence. The subject knowledge refers to content knowledge which the teacher is appointed to teach. Subject knowledge for teaching encompasses the theory, research base and methods related to the teaching of a particular subject. Classroom competence describes the practical ability teach in student group context.

Teachers need to have sufficient knowledge of all the elements that pertain to the task of teaching children to read. According to the South African Department of Education (2008b, p. 12), teachers responsible for teaching the foundation phase learners must have knowledge of the five components of reading, namely: phonemic awareness, word recognition, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension (details in Table 3.2). In 1997, the US governmental agencies and Congress set up the National Reading Panel (NRP) to assess the status of research-based

knowledge, as well as the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching children to read (National Early Literacy Panel, 2008). Similarly, the South African Department of Basic Education (2011) explicitly stressed the importance of focusing on these five components of reading.

Furthermore, in the development of emergent literacy, learners need to first of all develop meta-linguistic skills to enable them to identify and analyse specific sounds necessary for effective reading and writing (Reeves et al., 2008). Phonological development (including phonological awareness) provides the bridge between language and literacy, whereas higher-level phonological skills (e.g. sound manipulation and substitution) facilitate written language development in terms of reading and spelling (N. Nel & Müller, 2010; Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016). Children who are exposed to the knowledge and skills of reading, spelling and writing are able to communicate precisely and develop rich vocabulary, grammar and discourse skills (International Reading Association, 2007). Similarly, adequate language development is required to facilitate the language required for numeracy (Taylor et al., 2013).

A strong theoretical reasoning from the linguistic experts and empirical data suggest that teachers' acquisition of content and procedural knowledge leads to changes in teacher practice, beliefs and consequently improves the learners' reading skills (Shalem, 2014b). This is a call to professional developers and policy makers to strengthen professional development initiatives for practicing teachers, as well as the pre-service courses, to enable explicit literacy practices at the foundation level. For instance, a recent proposal for an online professional teacher learning programme for the FP teachers argues that, "Teachers need to know how reading develops, how good readers differ from weak readers, how to asses them, what cognitive, affective, motivational and environmental factors affect reading development, how to plan literacy time on a micro and macro level" (Pretorius et al., 2016, p.7).

3.7 International studies that prescribe the literacy knowledge base

There is a growing body of research that has revealed significant links between teacher knowledge and literacy practices at the foundation level of education (A. E. Cunningham et al., 2015; Foorman et al., 2016; Kuccer & Silva, 2013; Moats, 2014). According to these studies, effective knowledge-based practices are mostly associated with teachers who spend quality time in explicit phonological, orthographic and comprehension activities. Such

integrated teacher knowledge usually stems from professional teacher learning. Several studies have also established a positive relationship between teachers' literacy conceptual knowledge and learners' reading skills, after the teachers engaged with teacher professional learning (Moats, 2014; Piasta et al., 2009).

Foorman and Moats (2004) study on teachers' knowledge base needed for teaching reading in Australia explored teachers' perceptions of their own professional. According to the analysis of this study, most of the participants (regular and special education teachers) believed that, passing their training course was an emblem of a well-prepared teacher who can meet all the diverse needs of the early learners. However, more specific survey questions revealed that the programmes they attended did not equip them explicitly for contextualised instruction. The teachers' false perceptions of adequate training may have been as a result of the inadequate follow-up and the poor implementation of the new knowledge from the teacher professional initiatives (Barr, Eslami, Joshi, P., & Hammer, 2016). Other times, teachers do not acknowledge their incompetence in literacy knowledge base (A.E. Cunningham, Zibulsky, Stanovich, & Stanovich, 2009). A study in low-income communities' schools found that the majority of the Grade One teachers had not mastered the knowledge base necessary for teaching reading from a professional learning programme (A. E. Cunningham et al., 2004). In fact, for the last two decades, several studies investigating teacher learning among the practicing literacy teachers continue to suggest that most teachers themselves feel inadequate to teach literacy at the foundation level (A. E. Cunningham et al., 2015; Foorman & Moats, 2004; Moats & Lyon, 1996).

There is a discrepancy between *what* the teachers acquire from the professional development programmes, *their perceptions* of their knowledge base and what they should *practise*. This continues to be a major area of concern in education research. Recent research advocate for teachers to acquire research-based literacy knowledge to enable effective teaching of reading and writing (Bergh, Ros, & Beijaard, 2015; Moats, 2014; Piasta et al., 2009). These studies clearly indicate that learners taught by more knowledgeable teachers, as a result of professional development, receive explicit reading and writing instructions. Likewise, Barr et al. (2016) recent findings revealed that professional development leads to effective literacy practices. However, some studies in this field have not established a substantial relationship between teachers' knowledge and learners' increase in vocabulary, reading comprehension, spelling or

writing fluency skills (Cunningham et al., 2015). For example, one study found that teacher literacy knowledge was inconsistent with bilingual kindergarteners' literacy and language performance, such as letter naming, phonological awareness and spoken words (Cirino, Pollard-Durodola, Foorman, Carlson, & Francis, 2007). Such conflicting findings in literature about teacher knowledge and its impact on learners' performance reflects the complexity of teacher learning and the spectrum of factors which influence learners' performance. In addition, this may demonstrate that the field struggles to create measures of content knowledge that capture those knowledge constructs that are related to teachers' practices, or to student achievement (Spear-Swerling & Zibulsky, 2014). It is the inconsistency in findings from the extensive literature on knowledge base for teaching literacy which has strengthened my motivation to write this section.

3.8 Literacy teaching and learning at the Foundation Phase in South Africa

Despite the growing awareness of the relationship between early literacy learning and later school achievement, there still remains inadequate research on the literacy knowledge base for teachers at the foundation level, as well as the impact of this on the teachers' classroom practices in Africa (Banda, 2013; Serbessa, 2006). What the teachers should know in order to enable effective teaching of English literacy in primary schools in most multilingual-speaking African countries, even after decades of democracy, remains unclear or contested. This lack of attention can be attributed partly to social political influences, lack of research funding and the complexity of teacher learning (Vavrus, 2009). It is overwhelming and difficult to determine what teachers need to know, under what circumstances and how they need to know it. On this vein, there is little empirical data on the literacy knowledge base for effective instruction in South African literature.

The area of literacy knowledge base for FP teachers has generated new thinking among scholars in South Africa. Searching the South African Journal of Childhood Education (SAJCE) revealed that there are limited studies on teacher learning on how to teach EFAL and the impacts to classroom practices. Most of the current studies are about teacher knowledge in the mathematics area and the perception of teachers on the current school curriculum (Deacon, 2016; C. Nel & Adams, 2014; Taylor et al., 2013). Investigation into what teachers need to know to teach EFAL and how much of this knowledge they already possess, especially in the historically ill- resourced schools, is critical (Deacon, 2016; Mashiya, 2011; Schaffler, 2015).

After the department of education organised the first national conference on literacy teaching and learning at the FP in 2008, a number of studies focusing on learners' reading competencies and teachers' proficiency in LOLT at the FP are highlighted by Verbeek in 2010 her PhD study. Lenyai's (2011) study explored the teaching of EFAL at the FP in the in KZN province rural schools, South Africa. According to this study, learners would not be able to speak English fluently, since they did not comprehend the English texts. The investigation also revealed that techniques used to teach EFAL did not achieve the stated aims or encourage learners to communicate in English. The findings relates to A. J. Hugo and Lenyai (2013) who argue that, learners who are not fluent speakers often cannot read and write competently and also may not be able to decode English texts. However these studies did not explore the teachers' knowledge base or the professional learning of the rural school FP teachers.

Other small scale studies on FP teachers mainly focus on literacy teaching and learning in HL or FAL (Mbatha, 2012, 2014). So far, there appear to be very little existing literature which directly addresses FP teachers' knowledge of teaching EFAL at the FP or professional teacher learning and how it relates to classroom practices and their beliefs. Large scale projects and proposals mainly funded by department of education and other organisations on Foundation Phase literacy teaching and learning are gradually emerging, but empirical studies on teacher learning about EFAL and its impacts in practice is still scanty.

A study on reading skills of monolingual English and bilingual Sesotho-English third grade learners in Free State evaluated the learning of phonological and reading skills (Phindane, 2014), but did not investigate the knowledge base of the teachers. Similarly, Naidoo, Reddy, and Dorasamy (2014) investigated the reading literacy in primary schools in South Africa, but not the teacher learning or knowledge about reading and writing. A small project exploring the kind of knowledge domains acquired by FP teachers from the ACT programme during the 2012-2015 academic years, have one case study which engaged on the complexities of describing teachers' knowledge and addresses the issues of written tests as a methodology issue (Bertram , Christiansen , & Mukeredzi 2015). This study relates to teacher learning at the FP but the findings are limited by methodological challenges.

Literature on literacy campaigns and conceptual articles have been published to understand the government interventions to improve the teaching and learning of HL and English literacy at the FP. According to a report by Taylor (2016), most of the schools where children are taught in African languages as LoLT at FP, learning at Grade 4 is challenging because English becomes the LoLT. This means such learners did not developed good reading skills at their FP to form a sound basis for developing reading skills in English (Pretorius, 2014). According to a research report for the Programme to support Pro-poor Policy development (PSPPD), learning to read for meaning and pleasure at the FP is just at the policy level and in practice literacy teaching and mainly reading continue to be very little in South African schools at the FP. This relates to the instructions predominantly realised in observing Grade 2 reading lessons in 133 rural primary schools in 2012 by the NEEDU team, which consisted of much chanting in chorus when reading a 'Big Book' and very little independent reading. Few children were asked to decode or to explain the meaning of words, phrases and sentences (Taylor et al., 2013). According to the same national report, teaching writing in such contexts is less than 25% of curriculum specifications.

A number of national and provincial education departments have launched different reading initiatives, strategies, interventions and policy documents in the last decade, all focussing (to various degrees) in response to reading challenges in the Foundation Phase. Some of these interventions includes: literacy campaigns such as Readathon; National Reading Strategy (NRS); Foundations for Learning (FFL); Quality Learning and Teaching Campaign (QLTC). These Campaigns identifies many challenges that affect teachers as they teach reading but unfortunately there have been virtually no success stories, in terms of improved reading outcomes at the FP.

Current research on these campaigns suggests the activities of teaching learners how to read and gives guidance on how to use balanced approaches. They also stress to the teachers the areas of reading in relation to NRP 2005 which include: phonemic awareness, phonics, comprehension, vocabulary and fluency. It is well documented that many EFAL teachers in South African schools have limited English proficiency and have not been adequately trained in EFAL teaching methodologies (Green et al., 2011). According to Mashiya (2011) and Fleisch, (2008), many teachers lack both the knowledge to facilitate emergent literacy skills (in isiZulu and English) and adequate formal qualifications for FP teachers in the South African

context. The lack of the conceptual knowledge of language required for literacy acquisition among many teachers are the causes of ineffective teaching techniques, such as rote learning or learners chanting (Department of Basic Education and Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011). Until these teachers are better equipped with content knowledge, teaching literacy whether in HL or English even through other interventions will remain at peripheral levels and learners will not master the languages as expected (Spaull, 2015).

For more comprehensive discussion on the current South Africa literacy education see detailed works and reports by Pretorius (2014), Taylor (2016), Taylor et al. (2013), Van der Van der Berg, Spaull, Wills, Gustafsson, and Kotzé (2016), etcetera.

3.9 How does school curriculum understand reading at the Foundation Phase?

In 1997, the National Reading Panel (NRP) organised by the United States (US) government assessed the status of research-based knowledge and the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching children to read. According to this panel, research findings support the inclusion of the five components in the teaching of reading at the elementary level, namely: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. These reading aspects are also supported globally by other scholars (Moats, 2009a; National Reading Panel, 2000; Taylor et al., 2013). Similarly, the International Reading Association (2003, pp. 1-2) states that "teachers should be well prepared to implement research-based programs and practices and they must have the knowledge and skills to use professional judgement when those programs and practices are not working for particular children".

The current South African school curriculum, CAPS, explicitly adopts the notion of teaching the five components of reading for the FP (Department of Basic Education, 2011). See table 3.2 in section 3.5 for the teacher knowledge to enable effective reading. According to CAPS, specific times are set every day for reading and writing at the FP where learners are actively engaged with reading and subsequently writing activities as stipulated for each grade. The CAPS writing requirements to enable progressive literacy development among the young learners are: Grade 1 - writing short sentences; Grade 2 - writing paragraphs; and Grade 3 - extended passages (Department of Basic Education, 2011). In addition, the NEEDU Report of 2012 recommends learners at FP to engage with writing activities four times a week, including one extended piece of writing (Taylor et al., 2013). The CAPS is also very specific with regard

to reading strategies which includes: Shared Reading (including Shared Writing); Group Guided Reading and Paired / Independent Reading for the FP.

According to CAPS, children should learn to read and write fluently at adequate cognitive level by the end of Grade 3. Thu CAPS identifies the namely phonic based approaches, whole language approaches and balanced approaches as the appropriate reading approaches required in the FP. However according to several studies many FP teachers have not been trained to use these approaches and are often overwhelmed by teaching, lack the knowledge and skills to teach reading using these reading strategies (Murris, 2016). The teacher learning programme also have not explicitly taught some the reading approaches subsequently leading to more struggle during reading instructions.

In relation to emergent literacy progression, learners should be able to progress, from learning to read to reading to learn, using their prior literacy knowledge to explore other subjects. To achieve this objective, the teacher should use various strategies to enable learners to become independent readers through a gradual release of responsibility from high support to low support when the learner becomes an independent reader (Pretorius et al, 2016). For example, teachers have to ensure that the learners are exposed to intensive simple, spoken English which they can understand in meaningful contexts. It is argued that activities such as listening to the teacher and reading stories support emergent literacy. These can be modelled as a high level support from the teacher. Then, in grades 2 and 3, learners should begin learning to read and write in English. In Grade 4, teachers start using the additional language, for example English, as LoLT. Thus, learners will reach a high level of competence in English by the end of Grade 3 (Department of Basic Education, 2011).

Unfortunately this is not the case according to numerous international and national tests discussed in Chapter One, Two and Three. Research has shown that teachers need subject knowledge, knowledge of the school curriculum, as well as the general pedagogical knowledge to effectively teach reading (Blease & Condy, 2014). Teachers with inadequate knowledge would not be able to teach a writing curriculum to the CAPS expected levels. In addition, most teachers, especially those in the rural areas, have limited teaching resources and support. The challenge is even greater where the teachers have large classes with learners of mixed abilities

or having no pencils, books or papers (Ebrahim, Verbeek, & Mashiya, 2011; Fleisch & Schöer, 2014).

This implies insufficient professional development and interventions support from the DBE for the teachers, even after the implementation in 2012 of CAPS at the FP. In order to achieve the education objectives at the FP, teacher professional programmes, such as the ACT programme and pre-service courses, need to be offered to the FP teachers, with a rigorous language discipline knowledge base and offering practical knowledge, especially to the many untrained teachers at the FP (Hoadley, 2013; Pretorius et al., 2016). Teachers would develop the literacy skills for teaching EFAL according to the principles of emergent literacy.

3.10   Approaches of teaching English literacy at the foundation phase

Teaching EFAL at the FP (main FAL in the South African context) is grounded in the formal approaches to learning an additional language. Also referred to as 'traditional' approaches, since they were the most common approaches for hundreds of years, until the 1970s. The most common version of the traditional approach was the grammar-translation model. Teachers assumed that learners knew all the formal structures and functions of their home language (HL). The teachers then used this knowledge to compare the structures of the FAL and the HL. For example, they reminded learners of common nouns ('naming words') in the learner's HL and then they taught the same words and grammatical terms in FAL. The children also translated FAL words back into the home language (Hill, 2010).

The natural order hypothesis is the second approach to learning a FAL, proposed by language theorist Stephen Krashen. This hypothesis highlights that it is not necessary to teach language structures that learners of a FAL do not yet need to use. EFAL learners might learn it sufficiently to do a once-off exercise correctly, but they may not be able to retrieve it from their working memory. This would only happen if the previous language structure is applied in something they want to communicate. This is referred to as the acquisition process of FAL. Krashen (1982), argues that the essential ingredients for FAL acquisition (like English) is comprehensive input through teacher talk. The teacher should check on the learners' level of comprehension so that the learners can make sense of what the teacher is communicating. The above arguments reveal some of the challenges that learners could experience in an EFAL

lesson at the FP. This confirms an earlier position by researchers that one of the challenges that learners face is that of incompetent teachers.

The best way for Grade 1 to Grade 3 learners to acquire English language structures is by listening to the teacher reading stories to them in English, then talking about the story or teaching the letters of the alphabet, short stories and poems with a strong emphasis on the communicative language approach (Department of Education, 2008c; Verbeek, 2010). This is because the English language has evolved through the way people use it, rather than through strictly following the traditional grammar (Dampier, 2012; Hill, 2010). Thus, children learn how to use English structures from hearing them repeatedly in different contexts. For example, they pick up the way the teacher says things and repeat them when they discuss the story. This is called the immersion strategy, according to Krashen (2009), and Lenyai (2011). This is where the teacher immerses the learners into the target language without any rules.

Unfortunately, the majority of the FP learners are currently not receiving quality learning of these EFAL. Most of the PD initiatives are not relevant to the contexts of the practicing teachers (see section 3.5). However, linguistic experts have a different argument. According to Dampier (2012), developing the HL and EFAL in combination is the best possible manner to ensure the successful learning of the second language. However, the dual medium approach has not yet successfully managed to change people's attitudes towards language learning. "People's attitudes towards a language can only be achieved if the social linguistic position of the language spoken changes in a society and the members of the society" (Phindane, 2014). With such arguments, the next section explores the kind of knowledge base suitable for teaching FP.

3.11 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have provided a review of literature that highlights key issues in literacy, teaching English as a Second Language, including policy developments, theoretical issues and insights from empirical studies in both South Africa and international perspectives. These provide a backdrop to the study, which seeks to examine emergent literacy and teacher knowledge base in FP.

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Methodologies are the principles and assumptions that define the choice and suitability of various methods and approaches employed in a study. Therefore, this chapter interrogates and describes the research design and justification for using the specified set of methods. The first section explains the research design adopted, highlighting the paradigm and the mode of enquiry of the study. Then detailed justifications of the location, sampling procedures and samples are provided. Choices of data collection methods, instruments and data analysis descriptions and trustworthiness are described in this chapter. The last section of the chapter addresses the methodological challenges, decisions taken and ethical issues. It is important to reiterate that the purpose of the study was to understand teacher learning and thus, the teachers' learning experiences in their natural setting were explored. The research design and methodologies are illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 4.1 on page 76.
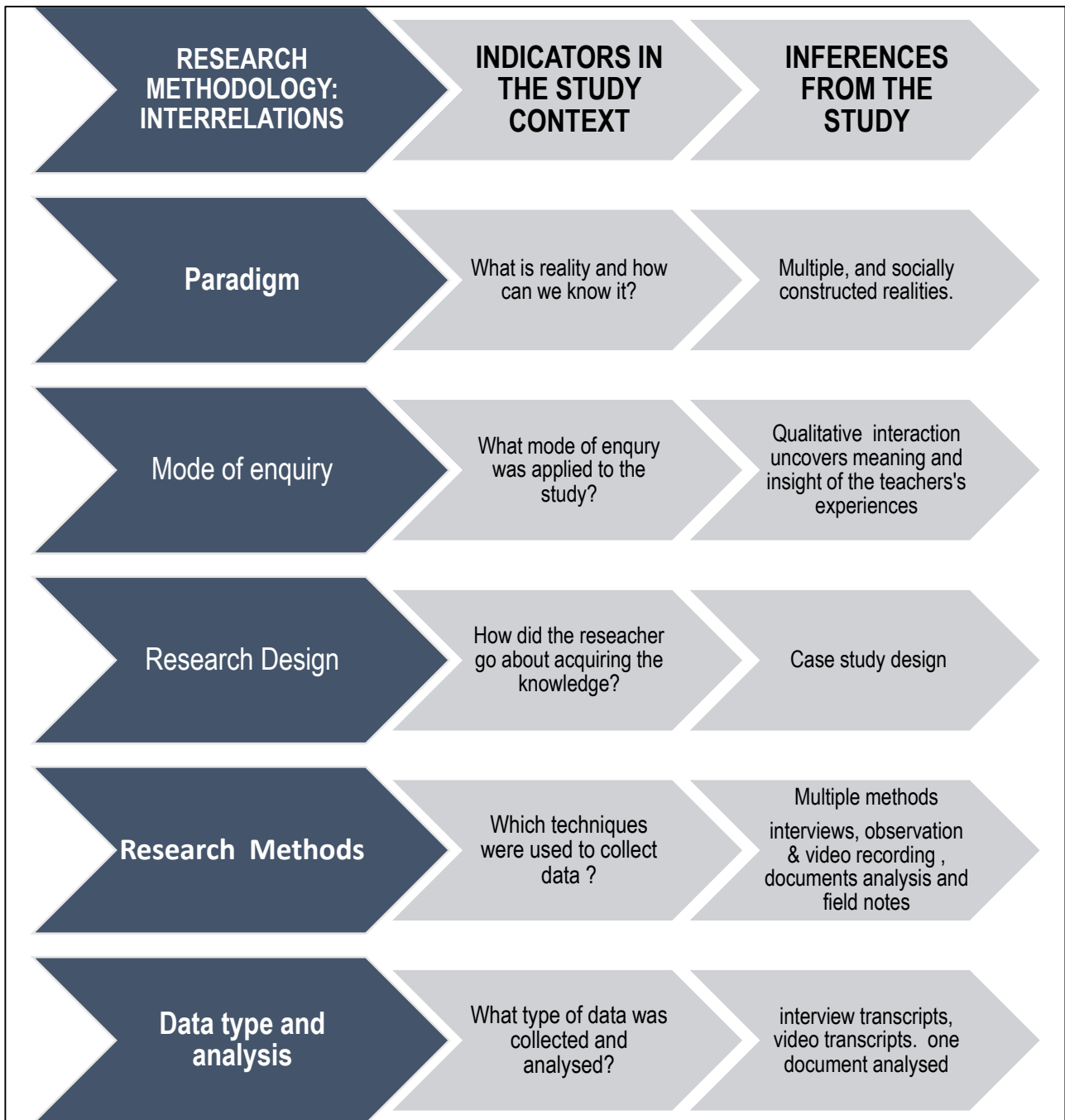
Figure 4.1: Diagrammatic representation of methodology design chapter

4.2 What is a research paradigm?

According to Wagner et al. (2012, p. 51), everyone has his/her own view of what constitutes truth and knowledge. These views guide our thinking, our beliefs and our assumptions about society and ourselves and they frame the world around us. This is what the social sciences (and education field) call a paradigm. A paradigm is a lens through which people view the world

and ask questions about the purpose, motivation and expectation of the research (Cohen et al., 2011). These aspects of paradigm help to define the researcher's views and appropriate approaches to a systematic inquiry. Thus, choosing a suitable paradigm at the beginning of the research forms the foundation upon which decisions about approaches, modes of enquiry and other method decisions are based.

This particular study is guided by the interpretivist paradigm and integrates the critical realism approach which is typical in qualitative methodologies. In this vein, Maxwell (2012, p. 5) affirms that ontologically, the real world exists independently of our theories, perceptions and constructions, but our understanding of this world is inevitably a construction from our own perspectives and standpoint. This means that in qualitative interpretive research, there is no single way of understanding reality and that reality depends on the conceptual world and the viewpoints held by researchers from 'within' and the participants of the phenomena we want to comprehend.

4.2.1   Why use the interpretive paradigm?

Guided by the research questions and theoretical framework of the study, I decided to employ the interpretive paradigm to work closely with each teacher in their individual contexts. The main objective of using this paradigm in a case study design was to explore and have an in-depth understanding of the teacher learning of three FP teachers. Although subjective in nature, this approach allowed me to understand each teacher as a unique individual in a particular context.

My focus was on the participants' perceptions, views and responses and my own interpretation of the reality presented in the study context (Cohen et al., 2011). To achieve this goal, I analysed one module learning guide, observed and video recorded six selected English literacy lessons for each teacher and interviewed the teachers over a specified period of time (18 months). Thus, my engagement in the real world of the teachers involved deeper investigation through observing classroom practices, document analysis and conversations with the teachers, which helped to discover new insights into the field of teacher learning.

As the study progressed, the research questions and external language of descriptions evolved, which allowed me to explore teacher learning in the real context and through the eyes of the

three teachers. I was able to gather in-depth data regarding the ACT intended curriculum, the teachers' classroom practices, and the teachers' perceptions, views, responses and beliefs. This concurs with Cohen et al. (2011) who argue that case study designs, validated by the interpretive approach, provide valuable insights about the participants and critical issues surrounding an event or their context. Based on the proceeding discussions, the interpretive paradigm was selected as the most appropriate for this study.

4.2.2   Mode of enquiry: Qualitative approach

According to Wagner et al. (2012), qualitative research tends to ask questions about relationships between variable such as 'Why' and 'How' to understand a social phenomenon such as teacher learning. Answers to these questions usually provide textual data (or narratives), which is typical amongst qualitative methodologies. In this case, I adopted the qualitative data collection and analysis approach to explore the kind of assumptions and teacher knowledge acquired from ACT programme and how the acquired knowledge impacted on the teachers' beliefs and FAL teaching in Grade 2.

To have a clear understanding of the processes and systems, the qualitative researcher interacts with those involved in the process or the system (Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2014). Simply put, the researcher enters into the lives of the participants of the study, as fully and naturally as possible, in order to understand their views (Cohen et al., 2011; Maree, 2012; Maxwell, 2012). Thus, the study provided an opportunity in which I personally engaged with each of the three participants of this study, who were registered for the ACT programme (process) and were also teachers of FAL in their schools. This is consistent with the interpretivist belief that reality is 'socially constructed' by different individuals. This suggests that the researcher's voice as a social co-constructor of knowledge in an interpretivist approach is inevitable for an in-depth description of the event or phenomena.

4.3 Case study design

There is no distinctive definition of a case study and thus, different researchers presented different definitions of a case study. For instance, Bassey 1999 notes that an educational case study is:

an empirical enquiry which is conducted within a localised boundary of space and time; into interesting aspects of an educational activity, or programme, or institution, or system; mainly in its natural context and within an ethic of respect for persons; in order to inform the judgements and decisions of practitioners or policy makers; or of theoreticians who are working to these ends; in such a way that sufficient data are collected (Bassey, 1999, p. 58).

The above definition identifies some specific features of a case study such as a "case of singularity, a precise or unique phenomenon in the real world" (Simons, 2009, p. 3), usually locations and interacts within a specific area (Yin, 2009), its depth of investigation and richness of data (Stake, 1995), and its use of multiple sources of data, methods of data collection and analysis (Cohen et al., 2011; Simons, 2009). Data might take qualitative or quantitative forms, or comprise a combination of both, but case studies traditionally tend towards the qualitative (Creswell, 2013). In other words, there is no single definition of a case study in educational research. Nevertheless these conceptual features have been accepted to create harmony among scholars (Rule, Davey, & Balfour, 2011).

Bassey asserts that case studies have the potential to identify the world's truth in a specific setting thus generating some kind of accuracy which she refers as *"fuzzy generalisation"*. This specificity and particularity of case study calls it a paradox (Simons, 2009). This means when a researcher concentrates deeply on one instance, a case study can produce insights about the world. However, its emphasis on uniqueness and individuality often leads to findings which cannot be generalised and sometimes are questionable (Rule & John, 2015).

I believe the main purpose of a case study is to generate deep insights about specific phenomena. However, such phenomena are also experienced in different contexts and thus a range of case studies can explore the same phenomenon. For example, this study is a case study which explores teacher learning from the ACT programme (a specific activity), but other researchers can examine the same issue elsewhere.

4.3.1   In what way is this study a case study?

This study is one of a singularity, which is teacher learning from the ACT programme in the natural context, with a practice-based focus (Adler & Reed, 2002). This study is a theory-seeking case study (Bassey, 1999) which is similar to what (Yin, 2009) refers to as an exploratory case study, as opposed to an intrinsic case study (Stake, 1995). In exploratory case

studies, the phenomena are first identified, then specific cases experiencing the phenomena are identified and examined. In that view, this particular study can be described as follows:

- The Advanced Certificate in Teaching (ACT) programme which replaced the Advanced Certificate of Education (ACE) programme in 2013 at UKZN is a formal professional learning programme for the FP teachers. The part-time programme has been designed for practicing FP teachers and any other teacher who wishes to join the profession at this phase (a specific phase of schooling) and is the broad case under study. The programme aims to contribute to the policy and practice in the wider field of teacher professional development (TPD) in South Africa.

- Three FP teachers were purposively selected from a larger group (172 teachers) who enrolled in 2014 for the two-year ACT programme (which had a specified time and programme). This relates to Bassey's definition of a case study. Teachers constitute the specific cases or the analytical cases of this study.

- The case (or subject) is teacher learning of three specific FP teachers (specific cases), confined by category (teaching English as a FAL), practice-based focus (Grade 2) in three particular schools in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa. This is an empirical study, based on data collection over a specified period of time. The research was carried out in the classroom and with classroom teachers. The objective was to acquire information about the teachers' classroom practices, in order to explore the relationship between their pedagogies and learning from the ACT programme (Adler & Reed, 2002). The units of analysis included the textual analysis of Module 4, the teachers' views and beliefs about teacher learning and teaching FAL, as well as specific FAL lessons, thereby' building a case (Rule & John, 2015).

- In this study, a large amount of data were generated, which enabled an in-depth, intensive inquiry, which reflects the rich reality of each case. The research focused on the teachers – what they said, believed and did and why they took certain actions. Document analysis of Module 4 is detailed in Chapter Five, while the classroom practices which were observed are described in Chapters Six and Seven.

4.3.2   Why a case study design for this research?

According to Cohen et al. (2011), a case study design is able to observe features of an individual, phenomena or group in a specific context, through the investigation of relationships,

occurrences and trends, in order to attain authentic findings from a social perceptive. This supports Bassey (1999, p. 44) statement, that "researcher's interpretations in a case study cannot be separated from the participant's background, history, context and prior understanding". In this case, the research design enabled an explicit investigation of teacher learning complexities and generated diverse sets of data. Subsequently, clear insights on the uniqueness of teacher learning among the three selected participants were also realised.

"Case studies allow new ideas and hypotheses to emerge from careful and detailed observation, which becomes the foundation of many notable theories in education and social sciences research'' (Blanche et al., 2014, p. 461). Similarly, case study findings may promote critical reflection on the existing teacher development theories, or a desire among education researchers to explore the same phenomena in multiple case studies in other contexts (Rule et al., 2011). For me as a novice researcher, the design provided an opportunity to gain a deeper understanding of the factors and complexities of practicing teachers' learning from a formal professional programme in the South African context. The findings of these specific cases (the three teachers) can be used as a guide or focal point for other small scale studies, or even longitudinal or large scale studies in other contexts.

A case study design allows the researcher to choose a small sample of participants and to employ various sources of data collection using the qualitative mode of enquiry (Adler & Reed, 2002). This approach generates descriptive and rich longitudinal data about individuals or particular situations (Blanche et al., 2014). For this case, the multiple sources of data enabled my interpretations and were appropriate for the three teachers' own views about teacher learning and its impact on their classroom practices.

Despite the appropriateness of using the case study design, the issue of validity has created huge debates among education researchers. Causal links are difficult to test and generalisation of the findings cannot be made from case studies (Yin, 2009). "Indeed, the premises of naturalistic studies includes the uniqueness and idiosyncrasy of situations, such that the study cannot be replicated [but] that is however the strength rather than their weakness" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 202). In the same vein, Rule and John (2011) and Yin (2009) appreciate the analytic generalisation of case studies, which is similar to 'fuzzy generalisation' (Bassey, 1999). Case studies are able to use multiple data collection methods which generate 'thick' descriptions of

real situations which can be re-analysed by other researchers using the original data in similar contexts. Recent qualitative design writers agree that the case study design has the ability to generate propositions that can be tested by other research methods (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Blanche et al., 2014; Rule et al., 2011; Rule & John, 2015). However, some qualitative researchers feel that the reliability of case study findings cannot be generalised due to the small samples, peculiar nature of the subjects and diverse interpretations of the findings (Cohen et al., 2011).

4.3.3   Why the qualitative approach for a case study?

According to Cohen et al. (2011), the qualitative research approaches are appropriate for a case study for the following reasons:

- Naturalistic location: The qualitative researcher collects data 'in situ'. The researcher observes the participants carrying on with their daily duties and talking in a real world setting. Simultaneously, the researcher can ask them questions in order to understand 'why' they do what they are doing. In relation to this study, face-to-face interactions with each of the participating teachers in their working context (classrooms), during the three phases of data collection and sometimes at their contact centres (when applicable), took place.

- The researcher as the key instrument: The qualitative researcher has to spend valuable time personally interacting with the people who hold the data, either by examining documents, observing behaviour, or interviewing participants. They may use protocols and instruments for collecting data, but the researcher should actually gather the information. For this study, classroom observations and video recording of some of the FAL lessons were carried out, biographic interviews and video stimulated interviews with each teacher were also conducted. Informal conversations with the teachers, for clarity purposes and verification, were of great significance. To have a clear understanding of the intended literacy curriculum of the ACT programme, one of the Learning Guides (LG4) was also analysed and used as a backdrop of the empirical data analysis about the teachers' classroom practices.

- Multiple sources of data: Qualitative researchers typically gather multiple forms of data, rather than relying on a single source. In this case, various methods of collecting data were employed to gather rich in-depth information about English literacy teacher knowledge and pedagogical practices. Data were collected in three phases. Two

classroom observations during phase 1, four video recorded lessons in phase 2 and 3, four semi-structured interviews, document analysis, field notes and/or informal conversations (per teacher) were collected. The extensive data were reviewed, transcribed and a cross-case analysis conducted before proceeding to the next data collection phase.

- Participants' meaning: In the entire qualitative research process, my position was to focus on understanding the meaning that the three teachers held about teacher learning and their classroom practices. The meanings or views from the literature was cautiously applied and did not influence the teachers' views or my own, in this study.

In summary, the design of this study is a case study grounded in the qualitative approach, with an element of longitudinal research seeking to understand teacher learning of the three FP teachers in a real life situation and to provide rich and holistic descriptions of the phenomena within an interpretivist framework.

4.4 Sampling procedure

For quantitative researchers, the main concern is accuracy and generalisation of the results thus sampling must represent the whole population. On the other hand, the qualitative case study researchers' focal objective is to generate rich, in-depth descriptions and analysis, which is only feasible with a small sample (Bassey, 1999; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Cohen et al., 2011; Yin, 2009). Sampling entails making decisions on 'who' and 'how many' people or groups, settings, events or behaviours will participate. In this study, convenience and purposive sampling were used. The next section presents an account of the location of the study and the selection of the samples of teachers and their schools.

4.4.1   Location of the study

The study's main objective was to investigate teacher learning among practicing FP teachers enrolled in a formal PD programme (ACT) in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province, South Africa. With a total area of 94 361 square kilometres, KwaZulu-Natal is roughly the size of Portugal (Tibane, 2016). While it is the country's third-smallest province, it has the second-largest population of 10.3-million people. The principal language is isiZulu, followed by

English and Afrikaans. Remnants of British colonialism and a mix of Zulu, Indian and Afrikaans traditions give the province a rich cultural diversity.

The time frame for data collection and analysis of this study was from 2014 to 2016. The province was identified as a convenient location that provided an easy access in terms of time and resource factors. In addition, the ACT programme, which is the broad case in study, was launched in 2013 as a new initiative and according to the new teacher education policy framework at the School of Education, University of KwaZulu-Natal.

4.4.2   Selection of the participants and their schools

Verbeek (2013), the author of Learning Guide (ACT 1), describes FP teachers as 'generalists' since they teach three core learning areas at this phase - literacy, mathematics and life skills, either Grade R, 1, 2 or 3, using integrated approaches. Nevertheless, each of these core areas needs a specialised knowledge base to enable effective teaching and learning. For this study, it was necessary to choose only one area of learning to focus on, in an in-depth manner. English as FAL was selected as the focus of this study.

Three FP teachers from a larger group (173) who enrolled for the ACT programme in 2014 were purposively selected as participants for the study. This type of sampling depends on the availability and willingness of the participants who are similar to the population (Blanche et al., 2014). The main goal was to understand the teacher learning process of each of three teachers from the ACT programme and how this learning impacted on their beliefs and pedagogical practice in their different contexts. The investigation only engaged with pedagogical practices relating to EFAL. This was in line with the purposive and criterion sampling principles where the teachers selected met the specific criteria (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Cohen et al., 2011). The participants of this study were FP teachers teaching Grade 2 and were enrolled for the ACT programme in 2014 for the two-year, part-time course. Table 4.1 offers details of the participants selected (teachers and their schools) for this study.

Table 4.1: The participants and the school samples of this study

Participants (Pseudonyms)	Sample schools	LOLT	School environment	School Quintiles (SQ)
Teacher Anne	School 1	English	Fairly good infrastructure with a reasonable size compound at the peripheral of the city	Quintile 4
Teacher Lisa	School 2	IsiZulu	Adequate infrastructure and school compound in a township	Quintile 3
Teacher Jane	School 3	IsiZulu	Poor infrastructure and small compound in a rural area	Quintile 2

SQ 5: highest level resources & fee-paying schools.   SQ 1: poorest level of resources & non-fee paying schools

Historically, South African township schools were for black people and often underdeveloped and situated mainly on the peripheral of the major cities and towns, while rural schools were mainly the poorest, with no basic services and all reserved for the Black people. In the post-apartheid era, schools have been ranked in categories known as quintiles. The school quintiles are determined by the National Department of Basic Education (DBE), largely for purposes of allocation of financial resources annually (see chapter 6.2.2. for details). Thus, school 1 (quintile 4) had adequate resources and learners pay fees, unlike schools 2 and 3 in quintile 3, which depend solely on the Department of Education for funding.

The Co-ordinator of the ACT programme was approached at the beginning of the course (February 2014) for the enrolment forms which provided details of all the teachers and names of their schools. The idea was to gather information about the targeted participant schools for my convenience, in terms of time and geographical location. It was important to consider the diversity and multilingual school contexts of South Africa, so one rural, one township and one urban school formed the sample of this study. The descriptions of the three school environments are offered in Chapter Six, which presents the teachers' stories, sections 6.2.2.1 (school 1), 6.4.1.1 (school 2) and 6.7.1.2 (school 3). The intention was to capture a fair representation of three different literacy pedagogical contexts at the FP in the province.

Another criterion for sampling the schools was informed by the school choice of LoLT used in the province. The majority of the learners in KwaZulu-Natal Province are IsiZulu speakers so two schools with IsiZulu as the LoLT were selected and one school using English as LoLT. None of the students enrolled for the ACT programme was attached to a school using Afrikaans as LoLT.

4.5 Why was the pilot study conducted?

Before entering the field, I decided to pilot this study with a nearby junior school. This pilot study involved classroom observation of two grade 2 teachers during a mathematics and FAL lesson in November 2013. This was followed by interviews with the teachers about their teaching practice on that particular day. This exposed me to the FP context and acted as a form of preparation sessions. The main objective of this exercise was to evaluate whether the data generated were meaningful and relevant for the intended study. In addition, this exercise boosted my confidence in the field and offered the opportunity to adjust any irregular interview questions.

After a successful pilot study, the research questions and interview questions were adjusted and planning for the field was outlined and executed accordingly. The data was collected in three phases as illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 4.2.

Analysis 1
Preliminary transcription Document analysis
- PHASE 1: *At the begining of professional development activity - ACT programme (February 2014)*
- Classrooom Observations 1 and 2
- Biographical teachers' interviews 1
- Field notes/informal conversation

Analysis 2
Transcription 1
- PHASE 2: *During the professional development activity - ACT programme (August 2014)*
- Video Recording 1 and 2
- Biographical teachers' interviews 2
- Video stimulated interview 3
- Field notes/ informal conversation

Analysis 3
Transcription 2 Data Reduction
- PHASE 3: *At the end of the professional development activity - ACT programme – (October 2015)*
- Video recording 3 and 4
- Video stimulated interview 4
- Field notes/informal conversation

Figure 4.2: The three phases of data collection, initial analysis and the instruments used to collect the data

This diagram summarises the activities of data collections and analysis as described in the next sections systematically. Next I present the specific instruments used to collect the data.

4.6 Data collection methods

Generally, interpretivist researchers use interviews, informal conversations, observations, visual aids, personal and official documents, photos, drawings and artefacts, as data collection methods depending on the study design, the nature of the participants and the research problem, (Cohen et al., 2011; Wagner et al., 2012). This section describes the data collection methods and provides a discussion of the appropriateness of the choices. Nevertheless, "in qualitative research, data collection and analysis are often not seen as two distinct phases but may occur simultaneously" (Blanche et al., 2014, p. 289). This relates to the works of Hartley (2004), which affirms that data collection and analysis in a case study design are developed simultaneously in a continuous and sequenced manner, to facilitate theory development grounded in the empirical data. For this reason, document analysis is presented as a tool for collecting data.

4.6.1   Document analysis as a method of generating data

The document analysed was one purposively selected Learning Guide (LG), entitled *ACT 4: Teaching reading and writing in home language in FP*. Only one module was analysed due to time factor and the scope of the dissertation. The findings of this LG analysis are detailed in Chapter Five. This LG comprises knowledge, skills, teachers' learning activities (tasks) and reflection activities about reading and writing at the FP level. This information addresses the TK base and assumptions of effective literacy teaching and learning at the FP in the South African context.

By seeking answers to research question 1:

What domains of knowledge and assumptions about good literacy teaching are privileged in the ACT literacy curriculum which promote the effective teaching of EFAL at the FP?

The domains of teacher knowledge privileged in the LG 4 were identified. This process gave me insights about emergent literacy and theories of teaching reading and writing that the FP teachers are expected to acquire from the ACT programme. Guided by emergent literacy theories, precise categories for coding were generated from the principles of teaching EFAL in Module 6 (LG6) to analyse the classroom practice data.

4.6.2 Classroom observations

I observed teachers' pedagogic practices over a period of 18 months in order to describe their teaching practices at the beginning, middle and end of their enrolment in the ACT programme. The idea was to assess how the participants progressively changed (or did not change) their literacy knowledge base and their practice over this period. To enable the collection of such in-depth data, two classroom observations of literacy lessons for each teacher were conducted in February 2014 (phase 1), at the time that the FP teachers enrolled with the ACT programme. The purpose of this observation was to gain insights into the teachers' literacy knowledge base at the beginning of the learning, as a baseline to track any changes in their teaching practice during and at the end of the ACT programme. Moreover, this classroom observation provided a less intrusive opportunity for me to familiarise myself with the classroom contexts during this phase of data collection. (See details of data collection phase on table 4.2.)

To reduce distraction during the lessons, I sat at the teachers' desk and observed the form of pedagogies, interactions and classroom environment management to attain insights into the teachers' knowledge base about reading and writing in Grade 2. During each of the observations, frequencies of particular instructional strategies, interactions and situations were recorded as field notes. Any informal conversations were recorded and spatial maps reflecting classroom organisation were also drawn as part of the field notes (Cohen et al., 2011). With the teachers' consent, the two classroom observations were audio recorded and later transcribed before phase 2 of the data collection. These transcripts were stored in marked folders for each teacher.

During phases 2 and 3 (August 2014 and October 2015) of data collection, I video recorded two English literacy lessons per teacher so as to investigate if there were any changes in the teachers' pedagogies. The assumption was that professional learning from the ACT programme might have had impacted on the teachers' practices. Video recording was used to reinforce the researcher's observation, which had been conducted during phase 1. According to Cohen et al. (2011), the most notable advantage of video recording is the ability to capture non-verbal data that the audio recording cannot, which is useful for a detailed case study. This relates to the researchers' choices of video recording selected English as FAL lessons to capture the teacher's behaviours, attitudes, regulative relations and classroom's environment management, created during classroom interactions. It was essential to capture these real-life interactions, which

enhanced the generation of a 'thick' description of *what* and *how* the classroom practices changed as result of teacher learning from the ACT programme.

In addition, the video recording method gave a clearer picture of the teachers' instructional intentions in terms of content selection, sequencing and pacing of the lesson, which collectively contributed to understanding the teachers' knowledge base (Ensor & Hoadley, 2004). During phase 2 and 3, the video recorded lessons were also transcribed. All the informal conversations and classroom notes were recorded at each phase as mentioned earlier. Spatial maps reflecting classroom organisation were also drawn as part of the field notes, with classroom changes noted over the time. Table 4.2 below shows the classroom observations/video recording schedules and interviews with the three teachers who participated in this study.

Table 4.2: The classroom observation and interview schedules during the data collection phase

Data collection phases	School Term	Number of lessons to be observed/video recorded per teacher	Lessons	Total interviews based on observation/video recording
1.Feb 2014	1	2 classroom observations	1 and 2	1 interview x 3 teachers = 3
2.Aug 2014	3	2 Video recordings	3 and 4	2 interviews x 3 teachers = 6
3.Oct 2015	4	2 Video recordings	5 and 6	1 interview x 3 teachers = 3
Grand total		**6**		**12**

The empirical data was generated from three teachers, in three phases from February 2014 to October 2015.The data collection started with two classroom observations during phase 1, followed by subsequent video recorded observations conducted for each teacher on two consecutive days in the succeeding phases. During phase 2 and 3, in-depth video-stimulated interviews were conducted on the second day after the video capture. I audio taped the observed lessons and together with the video recorded lessons, these were analysed.

The following are the advantages of video recording as explained by (Cohen et al., 2011):
- Video materials are a superb medium for recording evolving situations and interactions, details that the observer may miss and non-verbal matters such as facial expressions and different types of behaviour.
- It allows for repeated viewing and checking, although this extracts its price in terms of time required to watch and re-watch the video.

- Video images are powerful in a range of methodologies in educational research because they can catch everyday practices of participants and special events and hence, they capture the rich details of complex situations.
- Flexibility importance – the video images are ideal for moving images. For instance, the researcher can easily change the point of focus, location and angle of the camera and edit the material during data analysis. The fact that the researcher is *in situ* also means that she/he has an opportunity to write down her/hi own notes about the lesson or situation.
- The data from the video can be used retrospectively as a point of discussion, to ask video participants to reflect on the material, to substantiate data from other sources and to illustrate themes, issues or events (2011, p. 531).

However, video recording and observation have been blamed for contributing to the Hawthorne effect, which is the possibility of participants changing their behaviour to suit the researchers' objectives. Also, some participants may be reluctant to be videotaped, as opposed to live observation and fear the possibility of video data exposure to a third party. According to Blanche et al. (2014), it is vital to have a co-researcher during the video shooting session. In this case, I acted as the main facilitator, and my research assistant concentrated on the video recording of the lesson. During the first phase (the observation sessions), the assistant researcher was not required in the classroom. This multi-method approach was adopted to enable collection of in-depth data from each specific case using specific instruments.

4.6.3   Interviews

Two categories of interviews took place during the three phases: a semi-structured individual interview and video-stimulated interviews. For both categories, a set of pre-determined, open-ended questions were used to guide the interviews (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Maree, 2012). A list of interview questions is found in Appendices 6 and 7. Nevertheless, most of the questions were designed and administered from a naturalistic approach which enabled me to engage with the real-world of the teachers (Wagner et al., 2012). For the purposes of focus and having less distractions from the young learners, all the interviews were conducted inside the classroom after the school ended at 2 o'clock. I used an audio recorder for all the interview conversations and any non-verbal prompts were noted as field notes, where applicable. This assisted me later with the transcription.

4.6.3.1 Semi-structured individual interviews

According to Cohen et al. (2011, p. 411), semi-structured interviews can be used with other methods to explore unexpected results or anomalies, to confirm alternative methods, or to examine the motivations of the respondents in depth. In this case, semi-structured biographical interviews were conducted during phase 1 of the data collection, in February 2014. The interviews focused on the teacher's biographical information, as well as their perceptions and beliefs about teaching English literacy at the FP. The questions were modified during phase 2 of data collection in August 2014, and were used for the second round of the interviews to enhance the authenticity of the responses of interview 1. Guided by pre-determined open-ended questions, I was able to gain insights into the teachers' background information, teaching experiences, values, attitudes and beliefs about teaching English literacy, their perceptions of teacher learning and more specifically, their expectations from the ACT programme (see appendix. 6).

4.6.3.2 Video-stimulated interviews

After the video-recording of the two lessons, each of the three teachers also participated in a video-stimulated, semi-structured interview for one hour (see appendix 7 and 8). A video-stimulated interview is a data collection method in which participants view a recorded video sequence of their teaching practice. I invited the participants to reflect on their decision-making and action processes during the video-recorded event (Nguyen, McFadden, Tangen, & Beutel, 2013). In this particular study, teachers viewed clips of their recorded lessons and were asked to confirm, comment or discuss why they made certain decisions or used specific instructional methods. Both the teacher and the interviewer were free to stop the video and attend to any questions whenever applicable. I used verbal prompts regularly to encourage the teachers to reflect deeper about what they were doing. The purpose of using the video-stimulated interviews in this study was to gain insights into why the participants chose to act or teach in certain ways. In addition, I had the opportunity to probe for more insights and evaluate the teachers' values, preferences and beliefs and relate to their real pedagogical experiences.

However, Nguyen et al. (2013) argue that the rapid increase in the use of this technique in education research, especially in the developed countries, has generated several questions concerning the influences and biases of video-stimulated data. Therefore, to counter the

theoretical and practical shortcomings of video stimulated interviews, Nyugen et al. suggest the following to researchers:

- Prior to the interview, the researcher should explain the purpose for this technique and a rapport between the researcher and participants established, to enhance effective data collection. For this study, the procedures of the three data collection phases were explained, while the teachers signed consent letters which explained the purpose of the study (see Appendix 5). Briefing was also done on each of the days of video- recording and the subsequent stimulated interview.

- The stimulated interview should always be conducted as immediately as possible after the recorded event to enhance validity. In this study, it was carried out after the video recording session, but after school ended at 2 o'clock, to counter any distraction from the learners.

- An interview protocol has to be developed for the video stimulated interviews. The semi-structured questions guided the interview as much as possible.

With a longitudinal approach, teachers were not only able to justify their literacy lessons as they saw them, but were also able to describe and elaborate on any surfacing issues (Cohen et al., 2011). This helped to shape and strengthen the trustworthiness of the study. The next section is a description of how field notes and informal conversations with the teachers corroborated with other key methods of data collection

4.6.4 Field notes and Informal conversations

Spending more time with the teachers helped to establish friendly relationships and enabled them to elaborate on what took place in the classroom in a relaxed manner. I utilised field notes in conjunction with informal conversations and any other instruments whenever the need arose during the research process. Field notes contain descriptions of the researcher's reflections regarding the conversations, interviews, moments of confusion and stimulation of new ideas during the study (Cohen et al., 2011; Maree, 2012). Therefore, for this study, field notes were able to capture a range of details noted during classroom observations and interview sessions. Moreover, field notes corroborated with informal conversations, document analysis, teachers' interviews, observations and video recording to enhance the trustworthiness of the study.

The next section focuses on the data analysis which involves procedures and methods used to organise, reduce and analyse the collected data.

4.7 Data Analysis

The process of making sense of the transcribed data is discussed in this section. According to Yin (2009), data collection and analysis in case studies are developed together, in order to strengthen the ability to construct a theory from the findings. In this study, after the field data collection (Phase 1), the content analysis of Module 4 (LG) started and preliminary findings were gathered before Phase 2 of the field data collection in August 2014. During Phase 2 and 3 of data collection, the transcription of the observation audio tapes, classroom video tapes, field notes and systematic analysis continued in stages (Cohen et al., 2011). These steps facilitated the creation of a 'thick' description of the three teachers' learning from the ACT programme and how the learning process had influenced their pedagogic practices. The approaches or strategies used to reduce and analyse the different sets of data are provided in the next section.

According to Hoadley (2005), small scale research, driven by both inductive and deductive approaches, can generate stories often described as the classroom longitudinal approach. In this vein, whilst guided by the design of the study, I considered both strategies as appropriate for this data analysis. The inductive process involves organising, classifying and identifying relationships among the different categories or patterns generated. So, the process began with identifying patterns and consistencies in the raw data (the transcription stage). Further examination of the data led to the generation of teachers' stories and thick descriptions of the teacher learning from the ACT programme. These descriptions were followed by claims and theory building (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). At the same time, a researcher may decide to have a clear theoretical or conceptual framework with which to analyse data (Cohen et al., 2011). This is a deductive strategy, where the researcher moves from the general to the specific, as opposed to the inductive process. In the deductive case, the principles of teaching FAL, Reed's (2009) teacher knowledge framework and the teacher change model by Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002), were concepts which provided analysis categories for some aspects of the data. Thus, both inductive and deductive strategies were used to analyse the data.

The next section describes the analysis of Module 4 in order to answer research question 1.

4.7.1 Content analysis of Module 4 using Reed's conceptual framework

A brief description of the content analysis of Module 4 (LG) is provided, using Reed's (2009) conceptual framework. The detailed account of the document analysis is covered in Chapter Five, for the purpose of coherence in the presentation of the findings of the content analysis.

According to Kohlbacher (2006), a qualitative content analysis tries to apply a systematic, theory-guided approach to text analysis, using the category system. Through such systematic steps and procedures, the research seeks answers about the gap which exists between the general theory and the empirical data (Cohen et al., 2011). This conception was achieved by deductively engaging the seven domains of teacher knowledge as conceptualised in Reed's (2009) framework, whereby the content of the LG was carefully examined in order to establish how these concepts fitted or failed to fit. The process enabled an explicit engagement with the TK base and emergent literacy ideologies privileged in the selected document.

4.7.2 The relevance of Reed's conceptual framework in analysing Module 4

According to Reed (2009), all texts are designed for certain specifications, which usually limits the ways in which they can be read. So, this particular conceptual framework makes it possible to ascertain the readers' position or identity, in relation to the designers' selection and organisational choices in the three distance education courses that Reed analysed in 2009. This study employed the framework with a different teacher development programme and a different group of teachers – FP teachers in KZN province. The main objective was to examine the domains of TK privileged in Module 4 (to answer research question 1), so as to have a clear understanding of the kinds of knowledge acquired by the three teachers from the ACT programme. Thus, the document analysis became a springboard to answer research question 2: *In what ways has the three teachers' learning from ACT programme contributed to developing their personal, propositional and practical knowledge of teaching English literacy?*

To engage with the Module 4 (LG), the seven domains of TK - subject; pedagogy; learners; curriculum; context; and self and academic skills knowledge from Reed's (2009) conceptual framework, became the criteria used to understand the kind of English literacy knowledge privileged in the LG. These domains were used as deductive categories and systematically assigned to the module's text, with the assumption that there was a relationship between frequency of content and meaning (Cohen et al., 2011; Kohlbacher, 2006; Mayring, 2000).

This means that the seven domains of the TK formed the deductive codes for the document analysis, facilitating a clear understanding of the kind of TK privileged in the ACT literacy intended curriculum, which the FP teachers were expected to learn.

4.7.3   Classroom data analysis using principles of teaching English as FAL

The second question of this study was to establish how the three teachers' learning from ACT programme contributed to their personal development, propositional and practical knowledge of teaching EFAL. To achieve this goal, the classroom data had to be analysed to explore any possible relationship between the teachers' pedagogies and their learning from the ACT programme. In addition, I was able to compare the teachers' pedagogical practices and learning in relation to their context thus, answering the research question 2 on how the teacher learning contributed to the teachers' knowledge base of teaching FAL at the FP. A set of principles of teaching FAL espoused in LG 6 were generated as a conceptual frame for this particular data.

Why use the principles of teaching additional language to analyse classroom data?

I considered the principles of teaching English as FAL to be most appropriate lens for classroom data analysis. First, the principles are specifically endorsed by the literacy modules (Module 4 and 6) as theories and conceptual knowledge which teachers should acquire from this specific programme to enable them improve their knowledge base about learners' progressive literacy acquisition and development as well as improve their classroom practices. Second, these are specific principles of teaching EFAL as per the ACT programme intended curriculum and also endorsed by CAPS to enhance literacy teaching at the FP drawing from the additive bilingualism approach (refer to: FAL- CAPS pp8-17). They are therefore most appropriate for this particular data. Third, in the same vein, the principles of teaching FAL were deemed appropriate since English is offered as FAL in the three schools. Although school 1 had predominantly isiZulu speakers, English is the LoLT in relation to the South African language-in-education policy (LiEP) as detailed in chapters 3 and 6. Lastly, these principles are in line with the global emergent literacy principles and literature (Moats, 2014; Kuccer and Silva, 2013; Piasta et al., 2009). The use of the principles of teaching FAL, allowed the generation of a very specific lens to describe this particular classroom data (Ensor & Hoadley, 2004). The specific procedures which I used to analyse the classroom data are briefly outlined in the next section.

4.7.4 How the principles of teaching FAL were used to analyse the classroom data

A brief description of the classroom data reduction as the first form of analysis is presented in this section. This empirical data reduction and analysis started simultaneously with the data collection at the end of 2014. A detailed account of the actual coding, analysis and findings is offered in Chapter six section 6.2.

As the first step, I organised and generated a description of each of the 12 video transcripts (4 video recorded lessons x 3 teachers) organised in episodes. (Samples of the transcribed lessons have been used to present findings in Chapters 6 and 7.) I then summarised the major principles of teaching English as a FAL from Module 6 (LG, pp 1-24). Nine principles of teaching English as FAL were generated, which were used deductively to analyse the video transcripts. Table 4.4 provides the nine principles used for coding.

Table 4.3 : Principles of teaching English as a first additional languages (FAL) from Module 6

Principles of teaching EFAL	Definition	Implications for practice
1.0 Bilingualism	**1A.** Develop both HL and FAL	Teachers use code-switching to enhance meaningful communication to foster bilingualism. Learners are encouraged to use code switching.
	1B. Receptivity to acquiring a language	Pleasure - learning the language should be enjoyable and pleasant. Practice - repeated use of new knowledge so that it becomes part of a child's working memory and meaningful (not chant of a word over and over). Performance - Using the language for authentic (reliable, accurate) communication. Praise – given to the children whenever they communicate in English.
2.0 Theories of additional language that influence teaching	**2A.**Formal (traditional) approaches to learning FAL	Grammar-translation model – teaching of grammatically correct structures of English and isiZulu in a conscious and formal manner for learners to learn the FAL
	2B. Krashen's natural approaches to acquiring FAL based on the 5 hypotheses	- Teacher to provide opportunities which are context based, informal and loosely organised for the learners to acquire FAL unconsciously. - Children acquire FAL in a natural and a gradually orderly manner. - Monitoring - learners (self) to use FAL structure to correct their own errors. - Meaningful communication when correcting errors is vital for learners to acquire English language structure e.g. during reading and storytelling. - Input - comprehensible input from the teacher, where learning is to be interesting, relevant and increases reading competence e.g. start from what they know going to new knowledge, level of challenge must be right, ensure that learners are happy, confident and fluent. - The affective filter - moods, feeling and attitudes seriously affect the acquisition of FAL. Does the teacher smile or get irritated with the class feedback?

3.0. Developing vocabulary and oral sentences fluency	3A.Develop listening and speaking skills	Enhance purposeful listening and authentic speaking through verbal and non-verbal communication e.g. reading stories, use body language, imaginative role play, pictures, puppets etc.
	3B.Building vocabulary in FAL	Formal learning of vocabulary through labelling of classroom objects, direct instruction through actions and theme teaching. Encourage learners to read for pleasure and use the vocabulary acquired from the environment and media. Repetition, vocabulary games and wide reading to support vocabulary building.
4.0 Balanced strategies that support the three approaches to literacy teaching	4A.Strategies and routines that support meaningful word study and reading	Word study – provide children with opportunities and routines to manipulate words in a meaningful way, e.g. use of multiple assessment tools and sight words (word wall, word cards), fun activities and games (to look for patterns, rhymes). Word identification - provide opportunities (sight words) to practice and identify words. Use bottom-up (synthetic) and top-down (meaning-based) approaches to literacy to teach phonics. Games, songs or exercises to strengthen the letter-sound relationship (vocabulary building).
	4B.Strategies and routines that support meaningful writing	Model good handwriting to the children, pay attention to children's scribbles and drawing, teach handwriting according to CAPS policies and provide opportunities where they can write words and letters from direct instructions (to enable sentence building).
5.0 Learning environment	5.0.Print-rich learning environment.	Create a friendly environment which uses time productively. Use different and authentic prints to meet learners' specific needs. Print-rich environment with a range of children's literature or book collection accessible to the learners. Classroom posters made by the teacher and learners' creative work displays, word walls and other sight words (to support sentence building), phonic charts, posters of themes. Reading and discussion corner or a classroom library which is accessible

To analyse the video transcripts, the second step was to develop a framework and criteria to 'speak' to the classroom data devised from the principles of teaching English as a FAL. A strong presentation of the any of the aspects of teaching FAL in the lesson was code 4 and code 1 demonstrated a very weak presentation of the principle. The indicators of the aspects of the principles of teaching English as FAL were numbered from 1A to 5.0. An exemplar of principle of bilingualism (aspects 1A and 1B) is presented on a sample of the framework and criteria in Table 4.4 on page 98.

Table 4.4: A sample of criterion or rubric used for coding

1.0. To what extent does the lesson portray the principle of bilingualism?

Criteria used to code the concepts during the lesson				
1.0 Bilingualism **(see Table 4.3)**	**4.Strong presentation**	**3.Moderate presentation**	**2.Weak presentation**	**1.Very weak presentation**
1A.Both HL and FAL must be fully developed and used during the lesson	A balanced and appropriate use of HL and FAL. Learners were often encouraged to code switch.	The teacher code switched accurately and appropriately most of the time. Learners were generally encouraged to code switch.	Use of HL and FAL was not in balance. Little code switching was evidenced by both the teacher and the learners.	Used HL or FAL only. No code switching was presented.
1B.Receptive-ness to acquiring FAL	Children enjoyed and were praised for almost all tasks. Meaningful repetition and use of new knowledge was applied objectively.	Children enjoyed and were regularly praised for completed class tasks. Adequate repetition and the use of new knowledge was applied contextually.	Children reasonably enjoyed, and sometimes praised for completed class tasks. Chants of sentences, words and sounds were common with little contextual application of the new knowledge.	Children did not enjoy the lesson and were not praised for the class tasks. Chants of sentences, words and sounds was common.

The third step of this analysis involved the careful reading of each episode of the 12 lesson descriptions several times, searching for statements which correlated with the principles of teaching English as FAL. For instance, using Table 4.4 a lesson episode was coded either 1 to indicate a very weak presentation and 4, for a strong presentation of the principles of bilingualism (1.0) in both sub-categories 1A or 1B. The sub categories (or aspects) of the principles of teaching English as a FAL was vital to increase the accuracy level as much as possible. A more detailed account of how the coding was conducted is provided in Chapter Six, section 6.3. Lastly, I created a table for each of the six lessons per teacher and developed a rich summative description of the classroom data analysis, for each to illustrate how the teachers' literacy pedagogies changed within the 18 months of learning from the ACT programme. This kind of data analysis creates a rich to in-depth description of specific aspects of the classrooms where the teacher, learners, resources, tasks, incidences and the subject knowledge are clearly understood (Ensor & Hoadley, 2004; Ensor et al., 2009).

4.7.5 Analysis of the interviews data

The third question of this study was to establish the extent to which the knowledge acquired by the three teachers reflected either a core or a peripheral change. In order to answer this question, the teachers' interviews transcripts were inductively analysed to generate descriptive stories. These stories then provided a framework for deductive analysis, which explicitly answered the third question. The teachers' interview data were validated by the classroom data and the field notes to generate an in-depth description and insights into the extent to which teachers' knowledge and practice reflected a core or a peripheral change during the 18 months of learning. Detailed analysis procedures and findings are provided in Chapter Seven.

Next is a brief account on how the teachers' interviews were analysed inductively.

4.7.6 Inductive approach to the teachers' interviews to understand teachers' experiences

I transcribed the first interview audio tapes and researchers' field notes from the teacher interviews during phase 1 of data collection. The transcripts were generated from four semi-structured interviews per teacher, and stored after every phase on a continuous basis as illustrated in table 4.6 below.

Table 4.5: The types of interviews administered to the three teachers in three phases, Feb 2014– 0ct 2015

Teachers' interviews phases 1, 2 and 3	Period of teachers' interviews					
	Feb 2014		Aug 2014		Oct 2015	
	BI	VS	BI	VS	BI	VS
Anne Interview 1 during phase1	√					
Lisa Interview 1 during phase1	√					
Jane Interview 1 during phase1	√					
Anne's interview 2 and 3 during phase 2			√	√		
Lisa's interview 2 and 3 during phase 2			√	√		
Jane's interview 2 and 3 during phase 2			√	√		
Anne's interview 4 during phase 3						√
Lisa's interview 4 during phase 3						√
Jane's interview 4 during phase 3						√

Source: Researcher. BI - Biographical interviews VS - Video stimulated interviews

The second interaction with the interview data enabled the creation of stories around teachers' background and experiences. Each of the transcripts was read and important statements from the teachers were highlighted to get an overview of the data. These statements were examined and linked together to build a continuous narrative. I creatively re-examined and reconstructed the teachers' stories to comprehend and understand different insights. Thus, through the inductive strategy at this stage, a clear understanding of the teacher learning process and its impact on the teachers' pedagogical practices during the 18 months from the teachers' perspectives was achieved. These rich descriptive stories of the three teachers became were use for the deductive analysis in the next section.

4.7.7   Deductive approach to understand teacher's change during the learning process

According to Ensor and Hoadley (2004), data analysis cannot be comprehensively achieved without a theoretical position. Thus, in order to answer the third question, the three descriptive stories were assumed as the *data* which were analysed using the conceptual model to make sense of what specifically changed during the learning process. The interconnected model of teachers' professional growth (IMTPG) by Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) was considered appropriate at this stage of analysis.

The description of IMTPG is provided in Chapter Two and the steps of analysis and findings in Chapter Seven. In this section, I provide a brief account of the process of the analysis.

Firstly, each of the teachers' generated stories was analysed by first identifying the persistent words and concepts in relation to the three broad domains of teacher knowledge - personal knowledge, propositional knowledge and practical knowledge (see detailed accounts of these domains of knowledge in Chapters Two and Six). Using a yellow marker, I coded all teacher statements which related to the personal domain of knowledge to identify any underlying patterns. The idea was to find out and describe the teachers' beliefs and specific values about learning and teaching English as FAL when they started the ACT programme, and to see if this personal knowledge had shifted over the 18 months. The same process was repeated for the propositional and practical domains of teacher knowledge which were coded using a blue marker and purple marker respectively. (Elaborations of the propositional and practical domains are provided in Chapters Six and Seven).

Secondly, to understand the teachers' learning journey from the ACT programme over 18 months, I re-read the stories, field notes and specific transcripts to ascertain what the participants said about their learning. More attention was given to how the individual teacher, school and the ACT programme specifically influenced the teacher knowledge. The process of analysis demanded a deeper reading of the interview transcripts and an analysing of words, phrases and sentences again. Seeking evidence from the data, I managed to explain the key aspects that seemed to emerge from the data about teacher knowledge change.

Thirdly, the procedure enabled the identification and expansion or reduction of the common sentences (relating to the personal, propositional and practical domains of teacher knowledge) from the individual teachers' stories. At this level of analysis, I drew up a list of common phrases and sentences in relation to the key aspects of the three domains of teacher knowledge (Table 4.6) which were linked to the IMTPG in the fourth stage of this analysis.

Table 4.6: Aspects of the domains of teacher knowledge used to analyse the data

Domains	Aspects of the teachers' domains of knowledge
1.Personal Knowledge	a) Beliefs about the ideal literacy lesson, roles of the teacher and learners.
	b) Teachers' personal challenges
2.Propositional Knowledge	a) Theories of emergent literacy
	b) Principles of bilingualism
	c) Theories of reading
3.Practical Knowledge	a) Opportunities and strategies for building vocabulary, oral sentence fluency and writing
	b) Classroom management to enhance meaningful teaching and learning

The fourth step of this analysis was to link the IMTPG to the teachers' inductively produced stories. This was achieved by deductively linking the specific identified aspects of teacher knowledge from each story to the four *change* domains, namely: the external source of information or stimulus, which for this study was the ACT programme (in the external domain); the teacher's knowledge, beliefs and attitudes (in the personal domain); new practices and activities in FAL (in the practice domain); and salient teaching outcomes (in the domain of consequences). These are as presented by the IMTPG domains detailed in Chapter Two and the procedures as detailed in Chapter Seven. The mediating processes (reflection and enactment) which facilitate teacher change are illustrated using arrows in figure 4.3.
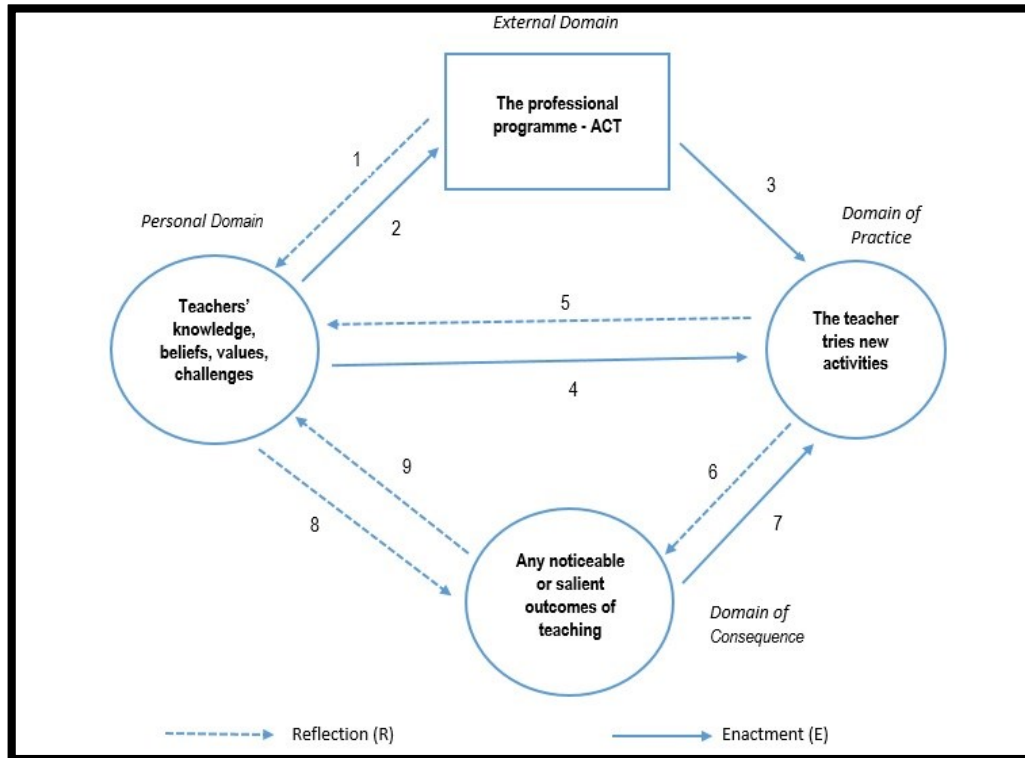
Figure 4.3: Mediating processes within the teachers' domains: Adapted from Clarke & Hollingsworth (2002, p. 957)

The mediating processes are shown with the two arrows labelled reflection (R) and enactment (E) in figure 4.3 above. It is the complexity and interaction of these processes which reflected the nature (core or peripheral) of knowledge change that each of the three cases experienced during their learning period. The arrows are numbered to illustrate the two processes which facilitated change from one domain of IMTPG to another. (See Fig 7.2 in Chapter 7 for details).

4.8 Trustworthiness of this study

The main purpose of the case study design is to make meaning and explore group and individual experiences so as to understand the different truths about a phenomenon or a similar one (Creswell, 2009). For this reason, qualitative researchers are more concerned about the trustworthiness of the findings, rather than accurate measurement and the justification of one truth. The terms of trustworthiness or credibility are therefore used to describe the reliability of this study. To ensure the trustworthiness of the research, the principles of dependability, confirmability and transferability were observed in relation to ethical rules and measures.

4.8.1 Dependability

A key concern for most case study researchers is how the 'social constructions' in natural settings can yield dependable or reliable findings (Rule & John, 2011). For this reason, the data generated by case studies have been critiqued as subjective, biased, short-sighted and peculiar in nature, which affects the credibility of the study (Cohen et al., 2011).To increase the trustworthiness of this study as much as possible, certain measures were considered.

First, my stance and choice of the participants was crucial. I used purposive sampling with some element of convenience as a criterion to select the three FP teachers and their contexts. "Although these sampling strategies can be used in isolation, using them in combination contribute[d] to [trustworthiness] and triangulation" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 230). In the same vein, direct observation and classroom video-recording indicates the complexity of the teachers' learning and its impact on their practice. Lesson observations data from the three phases were consistently corroborated with the video-stimulated interviews and field notes data, so as to build a 'thick' description of each case.

Second, to increase the levels of trustworthiness, modest measures were followed for less disturbance in the classroom. For instance, the classroom schedules were communicated to the teachers one month earlier and I reminded them one week prior to the school visits. If a teacher unexpectedly cancelled an appointment during the data collection period, I rescheduled the appointment with the consent of the teacher. However, this prolonged the timeline of the study by two months.

I had to bear in mind the teachers' working hours, so interviews were done after the school teaching hours. In addition, refreshments were provided whenever the teachers spent longer periods of time than anticipated. This created a relaxed atmosphere and trust between the participants and myself. However, one teacher who was uncomfortable with video-recording the EFAL during the last phase (October 2015), was given more time to prepare for the lesson - which she did.

Third, although it is hardly possible to be completely unobtrusive when collecting data, (Blanche et al., 2014), I tried as much as possible to collect data with the minimum influence on the classroom setting. For instance, the research assistant had to be cautious with the curious

learners when video-recording and I did not make any movement or contribution during the lesson proceedings. I also did not criticise the school contexts or judge any information given during the interviews. This reduced the chances of the teachers and the learners doing things differently during lessons and interview sessions. Lastly, this study involved humans and so ethical clearance with all the stakeholders was mandatory as detailed in section 4.9.

4.8.2   Conformability

According to Pandey and Patnaik (2014, p. 5746), "Conformability can be seen as a degree of neutrality or the extent to which the findings of a study are shaped by the respondents and not researcher bias, motivation or interest" in qualitative research. This means the researcher must ensure as must as possible that the findings are a true reflection of the participants' reality rather than the researchers' preferences. Qualitative writers like Blanche et al. (2014) affirm that using multiple methods in qualitative studies offers the opportunity to compare the different data sources thereby increasing the trustworthiness of a study. In this case, multiple data collection methods and three different analytical tools were used.

To avoid compromising my findings, several measures were also taken during the period of transcription and analysis. First, I persistently read and wrote all the transcripts during the data collection phases and thereafter, in order to eliminate errors. Second, I consulted individual teachers either through emails or telephoning whenever clarification was needed after a data collection phase, on either interview data or on extracts of video-recorded lessons and photographs, and appropriate measures were taken. According to Mouton (2012), such measures confirm the researchers' interpretations and the consistency of the data which facilitated the composition of coherent, strong and persuasive arguments during the writing stage. Third, as I have verbally said, "it is easier for other people to locate errors or mistakes of a writer or researcher, during the final stages of writing", I gave various chapter drafts to peer readers and later my dissertation to a professional editor evidence on Appendix 9.

4.8.3   Transferability

It is not possible to generalise empirical data from case studies. However, complex phenomena such as teacher learning and its impact on the teachers' practice as determined during cross analysis can result in 'fuzzy generalizations' (Bassey, 1999). The same principle applies to this

particular study, where the complexities of teacher learning were described. This does not mean that the limitation of generalising the findings of a case study were ignored. For instance, Cohen et al. (2011) assert that case study designs have limited generalisability due to their peculiar nature. Nevertheless the generated notions or findings can be tested on one or more empirical cases (Yin, 2009, p. 15), creating an analytic generalisation.

Since these 'thick' descriptions were based on a small sample, I do not claim empirical generalisability in accordance to qualitative rules and terms. However, such research would give some insights on professional development activity and have an influence on the learning of the practising teachers. Such insights are in line with 'fuzzy generalisations' (Bassey, 1999) which researchers should test in their own situation or conceptualise them further.

4.9 Ethical considerations

According to Yin (2009), the researchers of case studies are dependent on the participants for their data. Thus without the participants' trust and collaboration, case studies cannot be fruitful. The researcher need to ensure that the rights, needs, values and desires of all the participants are respected (Creswell, 2013). This understanding brings to the fore a number of ethical issues that needed to be considered when during the data phases.

First, gaining access to collect data was significant, so I made application for research clearance to the University. This was approved and I obtained the ethical clearance in 2014 number HSS/0098/014D (Appendix 3). Second, relevant documents were submitted to the Department of Education for approval to conduct research in the selected government schools. Upon approval, I approached the schools' management to gain access, observe/video-record the EFAL lessons and conduct interviews with the teachers. Once the consent was obtained from the principals and the relevant teachers, data collection started. All the participants signed consent forms (Appendix 5) and the participants' rights to withdraw or terminate participation in the study at any time were acknowledged. For the purpose of confidentiality, pseudonyms were used for the participants. To protect the identities of learners and teachers, their faces are masked in Chapter Six and Seven. Similarly, I adhered to all ethical principles in accordance with the standards set by the UKZN in 2007.

4.10 Chapter summary

In this chapter, descriptions of methodologies used to understand the complexities of teacher learning in a natural setting as much as possible, are provided. Reasons for adopting a case study design, the interpretivist approach and qualitative paradigm are clearly stated. A combination of data collection methods and theoretical tools for analysis were used to build accuracy and acceptance of this study among other researchers and critics of case study designs and the qualitative paradigm. Lastly the chapter tried to satisfy research ethics by offering three criteria of trustworthiness, namely, transferability, dependability and conformability.

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS ON LITERACY MODULE ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

Below is a mind map of the findings of part of this dissertation, followed by the content of Chapter Five. The structure of the next three chapters on findings and discussions are diagrammatically presented in Figure 5.1.

Chapter 6: Teachers pedagogic practices
Classroom data/ field notes
Instruments used: Observation (2 x 3) and Video recording (4 x 3)
Analysis tool: Principles of teaching FAL from Module 6(LG6)
November 2015 - March 2016

Chapter 5: Contextualizing the study
Analysis of Module 4
Analysis tool: Reed's conceptual framework to understand the domains of teacher knowledge privileged in LG4. **June 2015**

Teacher learning
Chapter 7: Teachers' professional learn
Teachers' interviews/ field notes/classroom data
Instruments used: Audio tapes/video tapes
Analysis tool: IMTPG (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002)
March- June 2016

Chapter 8: Key discussions on the findings and factors which influenced teacher learning
Analysis tool: Complexity theory (Opfer & pedder, 2011)
Novemeber 2016

Figure 5.1: Mapping chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8 of the study

Bearing in mind the research questions, Chapter Five discusses the document analysis of the ACT intended curriculum, represented by Module 4 in this study, a Home Language (HL) literacy Learning Guide (LG4) for the programme. This means the chapter provides the analysis of LG4 as an account against which three sets of data (collected in segments through classroom observation and video recording, field notes and teachers' interviews from February 2014 to October 2015) were understood. The analysis of the module aims to answer research question1: *What domains of knowledge and assumptions about good literacy teaching are*

privileged in the ACT intended curriculum which promotes effective teaching of English as FAL at the FP?

This was achieved by using Reed's (2009) conceptual framework to understand the domains of teacher knowledge privileged in the ACT intended curriculum embodied in Module 4. The first research question was subdivided into three questions for effective analysis:

1. What domains of teacher knowledge are privileged in module 4?
2. What literacy theories and principles are privileged within the content domain?
3. What approaches of reading are espoused in the module?

The findings are presented in section 5.4, followed by an overview of the module's assumptions on professional learning for the FP teachers in section 5.5. The last segment of this chapter presents the gaps established in the module, as well as the constraints faced during the document analysis phase.

5.2 The descriptions of the document analysis

Presented in this section is the description of the module analysed and a brief description of Reed's conceptual framework. The main objective was to gain clear insights regarding the domains of teacher knowledge, principles of emergent literacy and the theories of reading espoused in the learning guide. Lastly, the section gives an overview of the units of analysis for this document analysis.

5.2.1   The Structure of Module 4

The Learning Guide selected for the analysis is entitled: *ACT Module 4: Teaching reading and writing in Home language in Foundation Phase (EDEC 104): Learning Guide.* The module (LG4) is an essential and specialised resource for all the ACT programme students, published in 2013 by the School of Education, Pietermaritzburg Campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The designers of the module are Ann Hill and Fikile Khuboni, with Yvonne Reed as the critical reader. Their personal profiles are:

- Ann Hill, a retired senior lecturer from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology in 2011, is currently attached to the university's research and post graduate studies department where she works as an Education consultant. She specialises in primary,

secondary and college level literacies, teacher education and professional development.

- Fikile Khuboni lectured in UKZN for seven years and in 2009 relocated to Witwatersrand University, School of Education as a senior lecturer. She has a keen interest in university teaching, curriculum design and qualitative research.

- Yvonne Reed is a literacy expert at Witwatersrand University, School of Education, where she works as a part time PhD supervisor and participates in research and publication support activities for emerging researchers. She has a keen interest in postgraduate courses in literacy learning and teaching, material design, assessment, grammar and pedagogy. Reed is also the author of the teacher knowledge conceptual framework which is the lens used to analyse Module 4 in this study.

Module 4 comprises two booklets – a Learning Guide (LG4) and a Student Guide (SG4) with a reading pack. The LG4 provides the intended curriculum content and tasks or learning activities to the ACT programme student teachers. On the other hand, the SG4 contains the structure of the programme and outlines the assessment requirements in the module.

The LG4 (Module 4) consists of the background information of the text (12 pages); a learning text designed in four units covering theories of children's literacy development and principles of emergent literacy in unit one; strategies and the approaches to teaching reading and writing in unit two and three; creating and managing a literacy environment in unit four (114 pages); the teachers' readings pack (28 pages); and lastly, the module ends with a teachers' handbook on teaching reading in early grades (24 pages).

Overall, the LG4 is the "teacher" of the ACT student teachers during the times when they are not in contact sessions with their tutors. The student teachers are advised to spend over 160 hours on the module, which includes attending contact sessions in the provided centres; reading the recommended materials; researching; conducting classroom observations; and other tasks given for a successful completion of the two-year course. Table 5.1 gives the details on the contents of the Learning Guide (Module 4 page ix).

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Although the sub-headings of the Module's units or chapters seem to follow a systematic order of literacy content, the designers' selection and organisation of the text in each of these four units is not presented in a linear manner. The layout includes a well-defined blend of systematically arranged paragraphs of text and icons of activities, student reflections (stop and think), key points, comments and academic skills. The combination of the paragraphs of text and activities in the four units of the module is a typical design of distance learning materials in the South African context. Figure 5.2 is an insert from page x of Module 4, which exemplifies the icons and the message that each icon conveys.
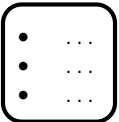
ICONS

The following icons are used in the Learning Guide in order to provide you with visual "signposts" of what is expected of you. You will soon become used to recognising each icon and the message it conveys.

Time management
This icon in the margin will give you an indication of approximately how much time you have for each module, unit and section, and will help to remind you to manage your time well. Each learning activity also gives an indication of how much time you should spend on it ("Spend about :"). The times are approximate, and will vary from student to student.

Activity
When you see this icon, you will know that you need to do some kind of activity that will help you to learn and to think about content, ideas or skills.

Comment
This icon usually comes after an activity, and is the author's comments or guidance on an activity. These comments should never be read before you have completed the activity. This is because your opinion may be different from the author's and still be acceptable.

Stop and think
Whenever you see this icon, you should stop and think about the issues that have come up so far. You can do this in writing, and file what you have written for your own reference, or you can just think about it.

Key points
The points following this icon are a brief summary of the main ideas that you have covered so far.

Academic skills
This icon indicates where study skills are integrated in the Learning Guide to provide you with some support if you need it.

Assignment/ toolkit
When you see this icon in the margin you will know that the activity is part of an assignment or your toolkit.

Figure 5.2: The icons and the message each conveys from the Learning Guide, P. X.

The authors' motive was to explicitly give the reader a clear visual 'sign post' on the curriculum's expectations and assumptions on each page. The advantage of such an arrangement is that it motivates or allows the ACT student teachers to complete their tasks at specified times, to use the resources actively and encourage peer collaboration and consultation. In addition, this material design helps the student learners to develop personal critical and reflective minds, which is associated with the constructivism approaches to teaching and learning (Sapire & Reed, 2011).

The next section presents an overview of the conceptual frameworks which were used to analyse this document. First, I present the conceptual framework by Reed (2009), to unpack the domains of teacher knowledge in the LG4 in the next section.

5.3 Reed's conceptual framework for analysing Module 4 (LG4)

The analytic lens which was used to analyse the domains of teacher knowledge privileged in ACT module 4 is a conceptual framework developed by Reed (2009). Initially, the author used the framework to understand the domains of teacher knowledge privileged in the three sets of distance materials used in the South African context, drawing from the works of Banks et al. (1999), Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999), Adler et al. (2002), Darling-Hammond (2006) and Morrow (2007). This conceptual framework is relevant to this study as the works of the same authors inform the teacher knowledge literature reviewed in Chapter Three, section 3.5 of this dissertation.

According to Reed (2009), all texts are designed for specific settings which limits the ways in which the text is read. So, this particular conceptual framework guides the readers' position in relation to the designers' selection and organisational choices in accordance to the three distance education materials analysed by Reed. This study uses the framework in the same country, but with a different teacher professional development programme and a different group of teachers – FP teachers in the KZN province. The main objective was to examine the domains of teacher knowledge privileged in Module 4 (to answer research question1). Thus, the document analysis became a backdrop against which research questions 2 and 3 were answered.

The seven domains of teacher knowledge: subject; pedagogy; learners; curriculum; context; and self and academic skills knowledge from Reed's (2009) conceptual framework became the criteria used to engage with the teacher knowledge privileged in Module 4. These domains were used as deductive categories and systematically assigned to the module's text with the assumption that there was a relationship between frequency of content and meaning (Cohen et al., 2011; Kohlbacher, 2006; Mayring, 2000). This means that the seven domains of the teacher knowledge formed the deductive codes for the document analysis, facilitating a clear understanding of the kind of teacher knowledge privileged in the ACT literacy intended curriculum, which the FP teachers were expected to learn.

The following tables (Table 5.2–5.8) illustrate the domains of teacher knowledge established from Module 4 in relation to Reed's categories and specific text examples coded from each of the established domains of knowledge. From the left, the first are the codes for the text, followed by the teacher knowledge domain category as provided by Reed's conceptual framework and to the right, the indicators (aspects) that relate to the specific domains in the module. With each of the tables, an example of text (examples selected randomly) is provided in italics to illustrate the coding of the module text.

Table 5.2: The subject domain of teacher knowledge and the indicators analysed in the text

Domains to be coded	Domains of teacher knowledge provided by Reed	Indicators (aspects) of the teacher knowledge domains in the text
Subject knowledge	Subject or content knowledge (material that relates to literacy theories at the FP)	Text that relates to: • Theories and elements of emergent literacy among young children • Theories on reading readiness • Child development theories which promote effective learning

Below, I have provided an example of a text (material that relates to literacy theories at the FP) which was coded as subject knowledge in Module 4.

> Before children start learning the standard codes for reading and writing, they develop necessary pre-literate knowledge, skills and attitudes. This means that they begin to develop language and knowledge of print long before they begin formal school in Grade 1. The skills and attitudes that facilitate literacy in Grade 1 include: Metacognition: awareness of thinking processes; Vocabulary: ability to learn and use new words; Motivation: curiosity about print; interest in using and decoding print; Use of symbols: ability to represent experience in pictures; Oral narrative skills: ability to have a conversation or tell a story about a topic… (Module 4, Pg. 8).

The above coded text illustrates the content knowledge that a teacher should know about children's literacy development in order to help the teacher understand the abstract knowledge and relate it to their experiences at practice level.

Table 5.3, presents the second domain of the teacher knowledge and the indicators (aspects) in relation to the conceptual framework used to analyse this module.

Table 5.3: The pedagogic domain of teacher knowledge and the indicators analysed in the text

Domains to be coded	Domains of teacher knowledge provided by Reed	Indicators (aspects) of this teacher knowledge domain in the text
Pedagogic knowledge	Methods of teaching reading	Text that relates to: • Strategies for building vocabulary and fluency • Strategies for developing active readers and writers at FP • Classroom management methods

Below is an exemplar of a text which was coded as pedagogic knowledge domain to illustrate the material that relates to methods of teaching reading in Module 4.

Activity 2.3.1 Shared reading

This activity should take you about 90 minutes.

> Do this activity with your whole class, using a big book. If you don't have a big book, you will have to do this with a small group of children. Every single child in the class or group needs to be able to see the book easily. Choose a book that you think your children will enjoy… (Module 4, Pg. 55).

This coded text presents an Activity icon which illustrates how a teacher should conduct shared reading as a strategy of reading to develop active readers.

Table 5.4 presents the teacher knowledge which explains how learners acquire literacy skills (Learners' Knowledge) domain and its indicators (aspects) as coded in the module text.

Table 5.4: The learners' knowledge domain of teacher knowledge and the indicators analysed in the text

Domains to be coded	Domains of teacher knowledge provided by Reed	Indicators (aspects) of this teacher knowledge domain in the text
Learners' Knowledge	Knowledge explains the processes and ways in which learners learn or acquire the literacy skills of reading and writing.	Text that relates to: • learners' cognitive and social cultural processes • what makes reading difficult to learners • what makes reading meaningful to learners • benefits of an integrated curriculum to the learners (page 8-16)

Example of a specific text coded as Learners' Knowledge domain from the LG4 in Unit 3 which is an illustration on how teachers should motivate learners to enable effective reading skills in their context.

> We have already discussed the need for children to develop automaticity. This means that children immediately (automatically) recognise most of the words they read. Playing with phonics helps children's working memories to retrieve letter-sound relationships automatically. Fluent readers do not have to stop to work out the phonics of each word. Children can use their knowledge of phonics in familiar words to work out the sound structures of new words (Module 4, Pg. 81).

This text addresses teachers on how to explore different strategies of teaching phonics since some learners do well with direct instruction of phonics elements, while others progress better when a teacher takes the 'whole words' learnt in natural setting and breaks them into syllables and phonemes, then identifies the phonics and makes up the word for the learners (Nomlomo & Desai, 2014).

Table 5.5 presents knowledge of the curriculum domain which was coded in the Module.

Table 5.5: The knowledge of the curriculum domain of teacher knowledge and the indicators analysed in the text

Domains to be coded	Domains of teacher knowledge provided by Reed	Indicators (aspects) of this teacher knowledge domain in the text
Knowledge of the curriculum	Knowledge of the current school curriculum	Text that relates to: • curriculum statements about reading and writing • interpretation of this curriculum into practice.

The excerpt below is a text selected from the module to show the kind of curriculum knowledge privileged in Module 4 and the CAPS conceptualisation of the FP literacy teaching.

Activity 1.5.3 Draft and write a letter to a newspaper

This activity should take about 90 minutes.

> The most recent South African curriculum policy, 'CAPS', says that children must start learning English as first additional language in Grade 1. What do you think about this policy? (South Africa. 2011. DBE CAPS p.8-9) (module 4, pg.15).

The module's objective was not to teach about the school curriculum; however, it is important to integrate the school curriculum with the teacher learning activities to enable a clear understanding of what is expected of teachers and subsequently helps teachers to make effective professional judgments (Shalem, 2014b).

Table 5.6 provides the contextual knowledge and its indicators which refer to the contextual knowledge that locates reading and the teaching in a socio-cultural context.

Table 5.6: The contextual domain of teacher knowledge and the indicators analysed in the text

Domains to be coded	Domains of teacher knowledge provided by Reed	Indicators (aspects) of this teacher knowledge domain in the text
Contextual knowledge	Contextual knowledge that locates reading and the teaching in a socio-cultural context	• Reading and writing context in SA - home and school • Status of the reading resources in schools • Status of the LoLT in the KZN province

An exemplar of a text from Unit 1, which emphasises the contextual knowledge that locates reading and teaching in a socio-cultural context is provided below.

> Children are born with the ability to hear all the sounds of all languages… they begin to recognise patterns of speech sounds and rhythms used by the people around them. They imitate the general 'tune' of the language they are exposed to…, even though they do not know exactly what words mean, or how to say them….. Many early childhood literacy practitioners believe that it is important to use music, rhythm and rhyme to develop children's phonological awareness (Module 4, p.73).

The text assumes teaching and learning literacy (HL and EFAL) in a socio-cultural context is natural and important to know. Thus, conceptual knowledge on phonological awareness was taught to enable teachers understand how children learn a new language and subsequently improve their personal knowledge and strategies for learners to acquire EFAL in their context (Parise & Spillane, 2010).

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The next table (5.7) is a presentation of self-knowledge domain as coded in the module.

Table 5.7: Knowledge that reflects teacher identity as a learner and as teacher

Domains to be coded	Domains of teacher knowledge provided by Reed	Indicators (aspects) of this teacher knowledge domain in the text
Self-knowledge	Knowledge that reflects teacher identity as a learner and teacher (the past and present practices)	Text that relates to: • Factors influencing teacher identity formation • Teachers' reflection as a young reader and adult reader • Teachers' views about teaching reading and writing • Teachers' reflection on their work experiences

The module assumes that an effective student teacher is the one who learns from the programme, reflects on the self as a FP learner (past) and as a professional teacher (present practices). The module suggests that when teachers reflect upon activities and strategies of teaching (past and present) with support, they are able to adopt new identities and practices on the basis of their reflections. See activity 1.5.3, the text excerpt coded as curriculum domain on Table 5.5.The module assumes the FP teachers have a clear understanding of the school curriculum. This activity is to assess the teachers' reflection ability on their practice and the extent to which CAPS influences their classroom planning and teaching.

Lastly, Table 5.8 presents the academic skills domain and its indicators (aspects) as coded in the module.

Table 5.8: The Academic skills domain of teacher knowledge and the indicators analysed in the text

Domains to be coded	Domains of teacher knowledge provided by Reed	Indicators (aspects) of this teacher knowledge domain in the text
Academic skills	Materials that aim to extend teachers' academic reading and writing competencies	Text that relates to: • Making academic notes by the teacher • Understanding the module structure and tasks • Turning notes into academic discourse

The eight tables were compiled and adopted from Reed's table, 2009 pp.181.

Below, I present a text that aims to develop teacher's academic literacy knowledge and is coded as Academic Skills (selected from Unit 4 of the Module).

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Academic skills – free writing: 'Free writing' is when you simply write down whatever comes into your mind when you respond to a word, idea, or opinion of an issue or a topic. It is unplanned and informal. (Module 4, pg.3).

In the above text, emphasis is on the importance of the teachers developing their own literacy skills for the purpose of teaching these skills to the learners. Tables 5.2 to 5.8 illustrate the relationship between the domain categories and the indicators (aspects) of the teacher knowledge, evidenced by the specific examples coded from the text. They also serve as a way to verify the specific coding method and evidence of the coded knowledge in the document for the purpose of the validity and trustworthiness of the study.

5.3.1 Description of the units of analysis

According to Gillham (2000) and Creswell (2009), the core of content analysis in research is to identify important statements which really say 'something' about the phenomenon. So, during the document analysis phase, I carefully scrutinised the table of contents, paragraphs of texts, all the icons and the teachers' handbook in the Learning Guide (LG4), to determine the units of analysis. Drawing from the work of Reed (2009) and the design of the module, I delineated the units of analysis to paragraphs of text, activities and icons. Thus, bulleted, numbered or short sentences and small paragraphs comprised the specific units of analysis which were carefully read several times during the analysis. The stop and think (teachers' reflection), comment and time management icon were excluded from the analysis because the information offered in these icons was basically the author's comments or guide to an activity or key area of learning.

In the next section, the specific procedures used to analyse Module 4 using Reed's conceptual framework are discussed in order to have a clear understanding of the findings which follow.

5.4 Procedures and methods of the content analysis

The first step of this document analysis comprised counting the precise occurrence of the paragraphs of text and activities, key points and academic skills icons as per the designers' plan. Essentially, this quantitative approach was used preceding the qualitative content (discourse) to acquire an overview of the 'units' under analysis. In addition, the summarising

of the categories in this manner is a statistical technique which allows trends, frequencies, priorities and relationships to be calculated (Cohen et al., 2011).

The second step involved reading, identifying and coding the denoted domains of teacher knowledge on each page of the module, using different colours to represent the seven domains of teacher knowledge by Reed (2009), in each of the paragraphs of texts and activity, key points and academic skills icons.

Lastly, the coded texts were examined to sort out those which had more than one coding. This was necessary because the seven domains of teacher knowledge are not presented in a distinctive manner, but rather some of the units of text had to be coded in more than one domain. For instance, it was not easy to separate subject knowledge and pedagogic knowledge domains or knowledge of the self as a learner and as a teacher from the learners' knowledge domain, which greatly overlaps in the whole LG4. Figure 5.3 contains example from Activity 1.5.4 in Module 4, page 15, illustrates how the dilemma of coding the domains of teacher knowledge was experienced due to the overlap during the analysis period.

*A**ctivity 1.5.4 Reflect on your own experience***

This activity should take about 60 minutes.

1.   Think back to your earliest memories of reading. Write your responses to these memories in your workbook.
   a.   Describe the activities that helped you to read. (coded PK and self K)
   b.   What texts did you read? (coded PK and self K)
   c.   Which activities and texts were the most helpful? (coded self K)

2.   Read the commentary in the following paragraphs on approaches to teaching reading. (coded SK)
   a.   Were any of these approaches used to teach you to read? (coded Self K)
   b.   Was your experience different from all these approaches? (coded Self K)
   c.   Describe how the way you learned to read was the same or different from the approaches described below. (coded Self K)

3.   Which of the three approaches below is most similar to an emergent literacy approach? (coded SK) (Module 4, p. 15)

Figure 5.3: An exemplar of the domains of knowledge overlap in the units of analysis

Initially, the above activity, pedagogic domain, seemed correct (see Table 5.2 for the coding criteria). However, after reading the text during the writing stage, I realised the activity had an overlap of four domains according to Reed's conceptual framework. Overall, this particular activity was predominantly coded as self-knowledge, pedagogic and, only one numbered sentence was coded subject domain as shown by the highlights on figure 5.6. Similarly Activity

1.5.3 was coded as Curriculum and Self-knowledge domain as illustrated on Tables 5.5 and 5.7.

An overlap of the seven domains of teacher knowledge was unavoidable, so the coding of the entire module was sometimes a confusing exercise, irrespective of the coding indicators generated in tables 5.2-5.8 in section 5.2.2. However, re-reading the module text several times and the supervisors' remarks eliminated most of the confusing coding. The findings and claims made from these procedures, coding and other methods are discussed in detail in the next section.

5.5 Findings from the content analysis

This section answers the three key questions outlined in the introduction of this chapter (5.1), about the knowledge domains and the discourse of literacy privileged in Module 4. The domains of teacher knowledge privileged in the LG4 are described in section 5.5.1, the literacy concepts in section 5.5.2 and lastly, the theories of reading advocated in the module are discussed in section 5.5.3. Comparisons of the findings are also discussed whenever appropriate.

5.5.1 What are the domains of teacher knowledge privileged in the module?

The table below presents the units of analysis or the contents analysed in each of the units or chapters by highlighting the major topics covered and the type and quantities of text, to help calculate the regularities and occurrences of the domains of teacher knowledge in the module.

Table 5.9: Units of analysis per unit in the Module

Unit coverage	Unit of analysis: (Type of text)	Units of analysis (Numbers)	%
Unit 1 **Children's literacy development & principles of emergent literacy**	Paragraphs of texts (PT)	79	68
	Icon: Activities (Act)	25	21
	Icon: Key points (Key)	7	6
	Icon: Academic skills (AL)	6	5
Total		117	100
Unit 2 **Theories of learning, reading and writing**	Paragraphs of texts (PT)	75	79
	Icon: Activities (Act)	18	19
	Icon: Key points (Key)	1	1
	Icon: Academic skills (AL)	1	1
Total		95	100
Unit 3: **Strategies of teaching reading and writing**	Paragraphs of texts (PT)	52	79
	Icon: Activities (Act)	10	15
	Icon: Key points (Key)	4	6
	Icon: Academic skills (AL)	0	0
Total		66	100
Unit 4 **Creating and managing a literacy environment**	Paragraphs of texts (PT)	62	79
	Icon: Activities (Act)	10	13
	Icon: Key points (Key)	4	5
	Icon: Academic skills (AL)	2	3
Total		78	100

The specific text analysed, or the total units of analysis were counted and percentages calculated for easy comparison and graphical presentation. Below are the analysed paragraphs of text and icons in table 5.9 presented in a percentage bar graph in figure 5.4 for better interpretation and understanding of the text analysed.
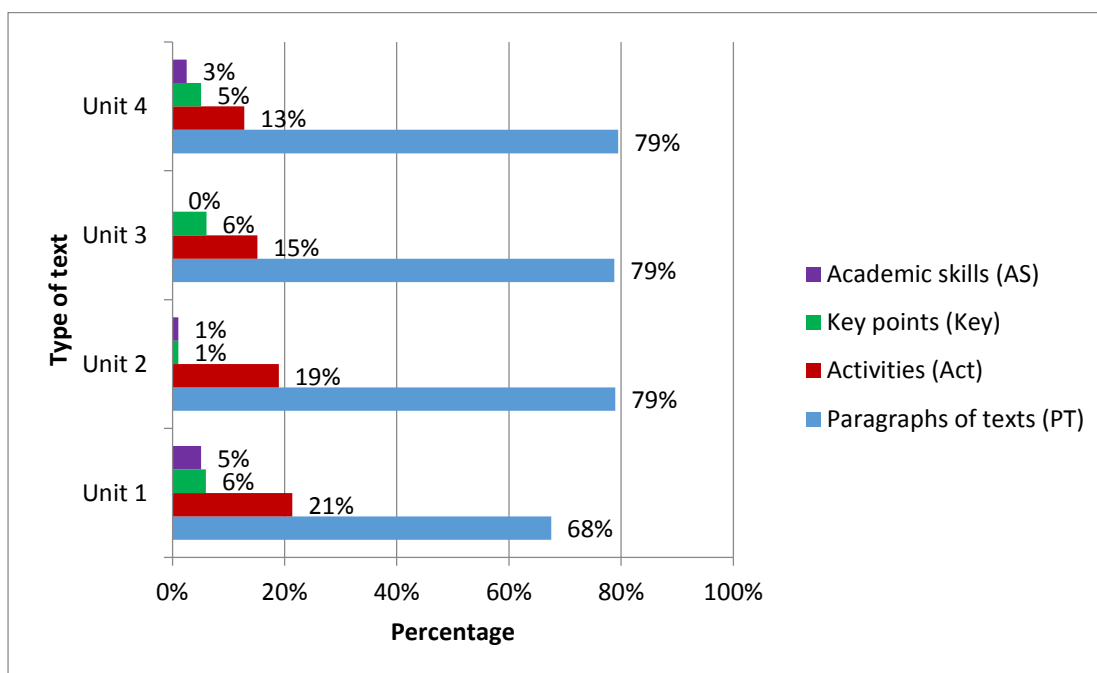
Figure 5.4: A percentage bar graph showing the division of the content analysed

Overview findings drawn from Table 5.9 and graphically presented in Figure 5.4 show that 68% of Unit 1 text, and 79% of Units 2, 3 and 4 analysed text is presented in the form of paragraphs of text. According to this graph, the academic skills icons as a unit of analysis, have the lowest representation. Such findings reflect a typical design of distance materials for a specific discipline module.

Presentation of domains of teacher knowledge per module's units (chapters) to enable a comparison of domains of knowledge privileged in each of the four units was also done. The findings of the four units - 1, 2, 3, and 4 - are shown on table 5.10 where the findings of the seven domains of knowledge espoused in Unit 1 are presented. The findings on the domains of knowledge presented from the paragraphs of texts and Key points icons are the only units of analysis shown on the pie chart in Figure 5.5below. This selection was done for convenient purposes – to have limited number of graphic presentation in this chapter.
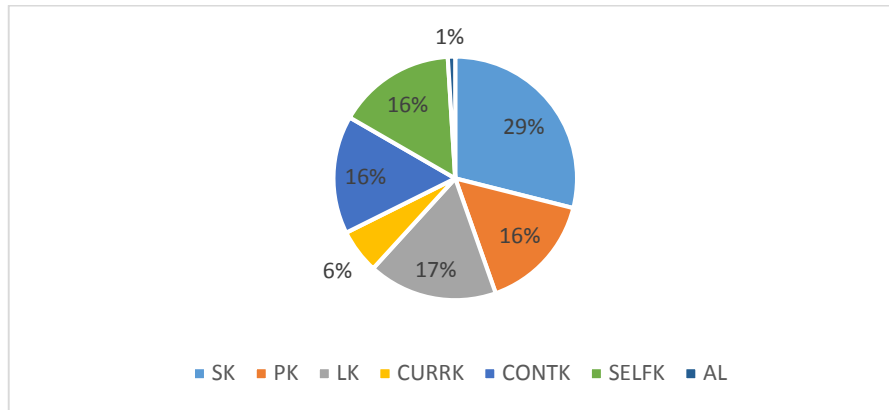
Figure 5.5: Teacher knowledge domains in Unit 1- Paragraphs of text and Key points icons

The pie chart shows that the subject knowledge domain dominated in the paragraphs of text and 'Key points' icon in Unit 1, while there is a moderate representation of pedagogic knowledge, learners' knowledge, contextual knowledge and self-knowledge domains, which all represent 16 – 17% of the text. The lowest presentation was knowledge of the curriculum and academic skills knowledge domains.

Figure 5.6 presents the domains of teacher knowledge in the activity (Act) icons and academic skills (AS) icons in Unit 1. The pie chart shows a blend of self- knowledge, pedagogic and subject knowledge domains highly privileged (above 20%), knowledge of the curriculum is moderate, while learners' knowledge and academic skills were the least represented (less than 10%) in the Activities (Act) and Academic domain (AL) icons of Unit 1, as compared to the teacher knowledge representations in figure 5.5 above on Paragraphs of texts and Key points icons representation.
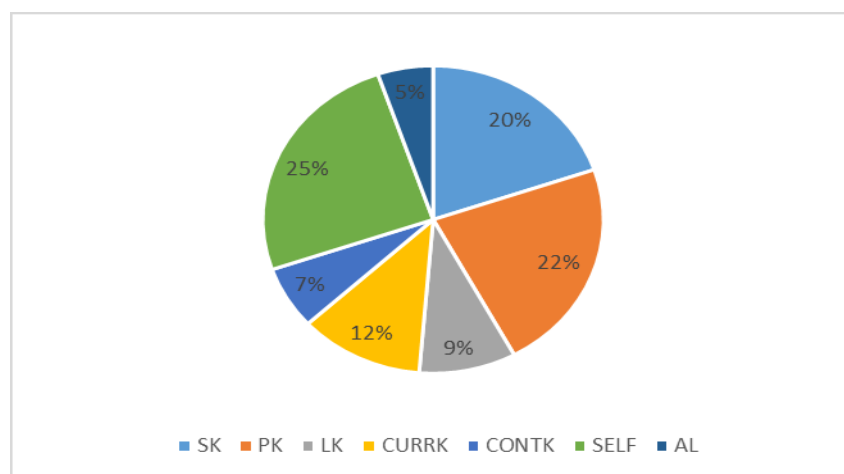
Figure 5.6: Teacher knowledge domains in Unit 1- Activities and Academic skills Icons

This pie chart (Fig 5.6) shows that self-knowledge (25%), pedagogic knowledge (22%) and subject knowledge (20%) domains dominated in the Activities and Academic Skills icon in Unit 1, while there is a moderate representation of knowledge of the curriculum with 12% of the text. The lowest representation was contextual knowledge, learners' knowledge and academic skills knowledge domains with a range of 9 - 5% of the text. The trend in the Activity (Act) and Academic skills (AL) icons, implies that most of the teachers' tasks were designed with a strong focus on the practical (pedagogical) knowledge and personal (self) knowledge.

Drawing from Reed's conceptual framework, the findings shown in the two pie charts show that all the seven domains are present in LG 4, but a dominance of pedagogic knowledge, subject knowledge and self-knowledge domains in Unit 1.

Table 5.10 shows the findings regarding the domains of teacher knowledge in the entire module, which enabled a comparison of the units of analysis in the module Units: 1, 2, 3 and 4. These data are then presented graphically in a comparative bar graph in figure 5.7.

Table 5.10: Domains of teacher knowledge privileged in Module 4

Content selected for analysis in Module 4									
			Total number domains of teacher knowledge coded in the learning guide						
Unit Page	Units of analysis	Units of analysis	SK	PK	LK	CURRK	CONT'K	SELF'K	AL
Unit 1 **Children's literacy development & principles of emergent literacy** Pg.1 -28	Paragraphs of text, including *Activity Key points and Academic skills icons*	117	74 **(63%)**	51 **(44%)**	42 **(36%)**	21 **(18%)**	38 **(32%)**	51 **(44%)**	6 **(5%)**
Unit 2 **Strategies & theories of reading and writing** Pg. 42-58	Paragraphs of text, including *Activity, key points and Academic skills icons*	95	73 **(77%)**	49 **(52%)**	58 **(61%)**	8 **(8%)**	32 **(34%)**	47 **(49%)**	26 **(27%)**
Unit 3 **Reading process** Pg.72-85	Paragraphs of text, including *Activity, key points and Academic skills icons*	66	58 **(88%)**	41 **(62%)**	24 **(36%)**	2 **(3%)**	12 **(18%)**	17 **(26%)**	16 **(24%)**
Unit4 **Creating & managing literacy environment** Pg. 92-110	Paragraphs of text, including *Activity, key points and Academic skills icons*	78	67 **(86%)**	41 **(53%)**	29 **(37%)**	7 **(9%)**	29 **(37%)**	39 **(50%)**	15 **(19%)**

Table 5.10 above, gives an overview of the domains of the teacher knowledge variations as coded in unit 1, 2, 3 and 4 of the module. The percentage given for each of the domains add up

to more than 100% since some texts were coded more than once due to the overlaps of the domains of teacher knowledge. I also decided to present the teacher knowledge domains graphically to enable a quick comparison of findings from the different dimensions - similarities and differences of the teacher knowledge per units (chapters of the module), texts of all the units of analysis and an overview of the entire document analysed.
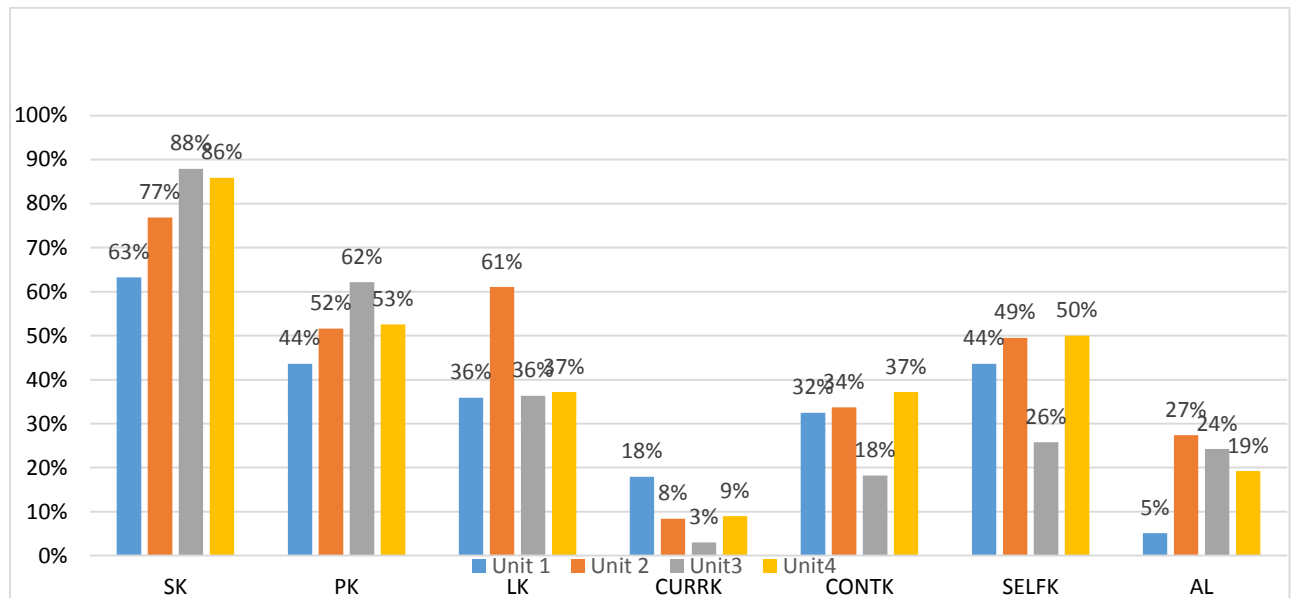
Figure 5.7: A comparison of the domains of teacher knowledge privileged in Module 4

The findings from the comparative bar graph indicate that most of the text relates to the subject knowledge domain, followed by the pedagogic knowledge and learners' knowledge domains. There is moderate representation of the self-knowledge and contextual knowledge domains. Lastly, the knowledge of the curriculum and academic skills knowledge domains had the least representation of Reed's conceptual framework.

Interestingly, although Table 5.10 and Figure 5.7 shows that much of the text focused on the subject knowledge domain, the other six domains of knowledge together have a strong practical knowledge focus. For instance, the subject knowledge domains in Units 1 to 4 is above 63%, while the other domains had lower percentages in all the units, despite all of them having a practical focus. Thus, overall, there was a strong focus on *how knowledge*, rather than *what knowledg*e, the theoretical knowledge.

This finding relates to the works of Shulman, the founder of domains of teacher knowledge, who specifically endorsed PCK domains as the most important domain of teacher knowledge

(Shulman, 1986). This knowledge enables teachers to use their personal understanding of the subject (literacy), learners and context and to reflect on the self to enable effective teaching opportunities(Selmer, Bernstein, & Bolyard, 2016).

The findings echo the current debates about the complexity of teacher learning which suggests research-based professional development as focusing not only on deep knowledge of the subject, but rather a blend of propositional, practical and personal knowledge for the purpose of effective teaching (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013; Stürmer, Könings, & Seidel, 2013). Since it is clear from the above analysis that the main focus of the module was on practical knowledge, the next section aims to engage deeper with the propositional knowledge privileged in the module. It answers the question: What kind of reading approaches are espoused in the module?

5.5.2 What theories and principles of literacy are privileged within the content domain?

Highlighting the effective theories and strategies of teaching literacy, this module was designed for the FP teachers in the South African context for the purpose of improving the literacy knowledge base for FP teachers, especially those in the rural school contexts. According to the module, effective literacy teachers should have the knowledge base grounded in emergent literacy theories which is in line with the current school curriculum. In the South African context, literacy teaching is grounded in the principles of additive bilingualism, multilingual philosophies and emergent literacy approaches to enhance the development of literacy (HL and FAL) for the diverse ethnic learners (Department of Basic Education, 2011; Taylor et al., 2013).

The module also echoes to the American National Reading Panel (NRP) reports in 1997, which stresses the importance of research-based teacher PD for the purpose of improving the teaching profession and consequently improve classroom practices. Teachers with explicit knowledge in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension are able to enhance effective literacy approaches at the elementary level to teach reading (National Early Literacy Panel, 2008). Similarly, the International Reading Association (2003, pp. 1-2) states that

"...teachers should be well prepared to implement research-based programs and practices, and they must have the knowledge and skills to use professional judgement when those programs and practices are not working for particular children."

According to the findings, the module takes in consideration these recommendations which are also locally emphases in the government's education policy in the post-apartheid South Africa. Emergent literacy forms the foundation for teaching and learning guidelines for the early literacy development in South African schools, outlined in the National Curriculum Statements (NCS) (Department of Education, 2002), the Foundation for Learning Programme (FLP) (Department of Education, 2008c) and in the latest school curriculum, CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011). According to these government documents, the teaching of literacy at the FP should be conducted in HL (see Chapter Three). This process provides the foundation for teaching how to read and write in first additional language (FAL) in Grade 1 to Grade 3. This line of thought is essential to any multilingual context like South Africa.

Although this conceptual knowledge is provided, the teaching of these theories is not explicit in the modules. Evidence of this claim is provided in Chapters Six and Seven.

To understand teaching and learning literacy, there are three conceptual theories privileged in LG4:

a) *Emergent literacy principles*

An emergent perspective on literacy underpins this module, which is largely based upon the cognitive construction of knowledge grounded in principles of additive bilingualism and multilingualism in the South African context. In emergent literacy, the teaching of reading and writing is based on the understanding that children's literacy begins long before they actually read and write (Gunn et al., 2004). According to the module, pre-literate behaviour emerges as children interact with older children, adults and everyday social events and routines. These experiences lay a foundation on which the children are able understand literacy concepts during their formal learning. The extract below from the Key points' icon in Unit 1 summarises the foundations of literacy that young children bring to the school context and should be observed by the teachers from their behaviour.

> …Before children start learning the standard codes for reading and writing, they develop necessary pre-literate knowledge, skills and attitudes. This means that they begin to develop language and knowledge of print long before they begin formal school (Module 4, pg.8).

To nurture children's literacy development process, the following support system from the classroom teacher and learners' contexts is emphasised in the module as indicated on the Key points' icon in Unit 1:

> … Teachers need to find ways to connect children's knowledge from home with literacy activities in school. Teachers and families are partners in helping children to become literate… (Module 4, pg. 11).

Therefore, teaching reading and writing at the FP from the emergent literacy perspective is essentially a process where the teacher builds on the children's oral language as pointed out in Module 4, page 18, about the kind of knowledge brought to school by the Grade R learners.

> ….. Children often have some of this knowledge and skill before they arrive in Grade R… children demonstrate knowledge of print when they pick up a book, hold it the correct way up, turn pages in the correct direction… but you need to do specific activities that will tell you what children already know…(Module 4, pg.18).

According to the Department of Education (2009), children's literacy development should be nurtured formally in school using learners' Home Language (HL), the familiar knowledge and gradually, the teachers introduce the additional language(s) in enhancement of bilingualism and multilingualism (Department of Basic Education, 2011). So, strategies such as guided reading that are introduced in HL in Grade 1 are also used in Grade 2 to build children's literacy development to a new level which is First Additional language (FAL) in the South African context. (Module 4, Pg. 54-55 on reading strategies).

b) *Principles of additive bilingualism and multilingualism*

Units 1 and 2 explicitly support 'additive bilingualism' and multilingualism principles in teaching literacy at the FP. According to these principles, when children enter formal learning, those who are literate in their HL can easily transfer much of their previous cognitive knowledge of the reading and writing process to the new concepts of FAL. In support of this notion, Mbatha (2012) and Mashiya (2011) argue that children learn more easily to read and write in their HL because they come to school fluent in speaking and usually with a significant vocabulary. As a result, they do not re-learn reading, but rather learn how to integrate meaning as they read and write in their HL or FAL (Department of Basic Education, 2011). For instance, children taught phonics in HL, do not need to learn sound-spelling relationships all over again in English, but use their prior knowledge. See figure 5.9 below.

> *Activity 1.5.1 Using home language to read for meaning*
>
> *This activity should take about 30 minutes*
>
> *1.Read the following to a very young child, who cannot yet read. When you read, ask the child to 'read' with you. Notice which words she can 'read'.*
>
> > *Sawubona bhuti .[English version]*
> >
> > *Yebo, sawubona sisi.*
> >
> > *Unjani?*
> >
> > *Ngikhona. Wena unjani?*
>
> *2. Record what you notice during the reading.*
>
> *3.Write down why you think she can read some of the words.(Module 4, pg.12)*

Figure 5.8: Activity 1.5.1 which supports additive bilingualism approach in reading

The text specifically illustrates how the early beginners can be assisted by their teachers to read and write during a EFAL literacy lesson using HL to enhance the additive bilingualism approach. First, the learners are exposed to activities and familiar words in their HL such as the IsiZulu greetings and then, the learners are expected to decode English sentences using their prior knowledge. This means that learners benefit from classroom practices that allow them to apply and expand their literacy understanding to a new context using more predictable and supportive materials in English. Such notions of 'additive-bilingualism' and subsequently, multilingualism, were prominent in Units 2 and 3 – where the teacher is first of all expected to develop a strong literacy foundation in HL grounded in the children's culture and context and then, builds the FAL literacy on it. However, Module 4 does not emphasise the differences between teaching English as a HL or FAL - this notion is covered in Module 6 and is therefore beyond the scope of this study.

Basically, the module encourages teachers to expose the children to the correct use of the additional language(s), in the same way as they expose them to their home language: through repeated use in stories, songs and conversations.

> Children use their home language to support their additional language. For example, if they do not know a word that they need in a sentence, they often use a home language word in its place. For example, 'Thandi wants to wash izitsha'. This strategy is called 'code switching'... (Module 4, page 13)

In this particular extract, the module addresses teachers using IsiZulu as the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) or any other HL and the advantages of a bilingual or multilingual child in a learning environment. This means that Module 4 follows the general

guidelines to accommodate the needs of all teachers, especially those whose LoLT is IsiZulu, or any other official language in the South African context, irrespective of the structural differences in these languages. Teachers can only achieve this concept of multilingualism by getting involved in different tasks from different backgrounds within the range of the children's conceptual backgrounds.

c) *The five components of reading*

The current school curriculum, CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011) explicitly adopts the notion of teaching the five components of reading (see Chapter Three for details). Thus, Module 4 promotes the teaching of the five reading components, which are phonemic awareness phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension.. Informed by research, Table 5.11 summarises the assumptions of what the teachers need to know, in order to teach the five components of reading effectively.

Table 5.11: The relationship between the components of reading and knowledge base required to teach reading at the FP

Reading components (taught at FP)	Domains of teacher knowledge needed to teach reading effectively (A blend of subject knowledge and practice focused knowledge)
Phonemic awareness	A teacher should be able to recognise relationships in phonological processes, reading, spelling and vocabulary. These skills enable the FP teachers to support learners' ability to blend and divide phonemes (sounds) that are associated with graphemes. Teachers should precisely identify and make decisions about confusable sounds and words.
Phonics	A teacher should be able to recognise prefixes, suffixes, roots and morphological structures of words to help learners to recognise words, draw the meaning and recall the spelling more easily. Phonological awareness is also tied to other decoding skills or approaches.
Fluency	Teachers need to have the language structure knowledge at the sub-lexical level, at the level of semantic organisation and discourse structure to enable them assign learners appreciate reading texts and techniques to enable learners achieve fluency in reading and subsequently, writing at the FP.
Vocabulary	Teachers' knowledge of English language structure such as phonology, semantics, morphology, orthography, syntax, pragmatics and grammatical rules and meaning is vital to enable teaching of vocabulary.
Comprehension.	This requires the teacher to apply the linguistic concepts such as the text organisation, genre, pragmatic and syntax (sentence/text structure) knowledge.

Adapted from van der Merwe & Nel, 2012; Moats, 2009.

In summary, table 5.11 implies that the kind of knowledge needed to effectively teach reading is complex. This knowledge consists of actively relating blends of teacher knowledge in

language structure; explicit knowledge of the literacy concepts; systematic and explicit knowledge on reading components; approaches to reading; and effective teaching strategies to enable children's literacy development (van der Merwe & Nel, 2012). From the module, exemplars which relate to the five components of reading are provided in table 5.12 below.

Table 5.12: Exemplars from the module which are related to the reading components

Reading components at FP	The extent to which the module integrates the reading components
Phonemic awareness	Activity 2.2.1 (page 45) on awareness of phonemes (speech sounds): ***Activity 2.2.1 Check your own awareness of phonemes in the English language*** *This activity should take you about 20 minutes.* *[Teachers]Do this exercise to check your own phonemic awareness in English.* *Which of the following words does not rhyme with the others: book, ball, look?* 　*1.　How many phonemes are there in the word 'laugh'?* 　*2.　How many syllables are there in a word 'encyclopaedia'?* *Say classroom without 'room'. Say road without /d/* My understanding of this activity is that the module assumes the FP teachers have a good phonemic awareness in English, so the focus is on how to teach these sounds. Activity icon 2.2.2 (page 47) on the diagnostic activities and approaches of teaching letters are emphasised. However, such diagnostic activities do not coherently help one to recognise, compute and operate phonemes.
Phonics	The module indicates that teachers who enact phonic and spelling instructions are required to know and explain the morphemes and orthographic systems of the words (Module 4, pp. 72-88). This is important because the reading and spelling build and rely on the same mental representation of a word, while the spelling knowledge helps in reading fluency (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2007). However, in Unit 3, little is covered on the theories and structure of phonics, the definitions and description of the terminologies is on pages: 48-49, 72-73, 79-81 and the activity icons in Unit 2 and 3 are on the practical knowledge, which emphasises the kind of strategies to use in the classroom to support the phonics approaches. ***Activity 2.2.3. Phonics*** *Johnny who speaks English at home, sees the word 'chief' and wants to read it. He asks his teacher for help, and she tells him to 'sound it out'. He knows the sound 'ch' and 'f' from his phonics lessons, but not the sound 'ie'. He looks at the picture but all he can see is a man sitting on a stool. He tries again, but still cannot understand the word.* Re-read the scenario about Johnny and then answer the questions. 　1.　Did Johnny manage to read the word correctly? 　2.　What did Johnny use to try to read the word 'chief'? 　**3.**　What do you think the teacher should do to help him to read better? (module 4, pg. 48)

	According to this text, knowing the relationship between spoken sounds and letters assists children in both reading and writing words. So, the purpose of phonics instruction is to give children the ability to read (decode) and spell (encode) unfamiliar words easily. The activity focus is on how to teach reading and assumes the teachers have the phonics knowledge required to support learners' analysis of words by syllable (unit of a word) and/or morpheme.
Fluency	A teacher needs to select and facilitate the best methods of fluency reading and writing instruction for the learners, as presented on pages 50 to 88 (Units 2 and 3). To achieve this objective, the module presents the strategies for good fluency instruction in the FP classroom in these two units and draws from the teachers' base knowledge of the topic being taught, the teachers' vocabulary and cognitive ability in reading. This knowledge is usually integrated into the English language structure, namely, the phonology, morphology, orthography, semantics, syntax and pragmatics (Kuccer and Silva, 2013). *For your children to become fluent readers, they need to hear fluent reading. One simple strategy is to read aloud to children, **modelling appropriate expression, phrasing and pacing**. This doesn't mean that you dedicate a whole lesson to demonstrating fluent reading. However, if many of your children struggle with fluency you might read a section of the text out loud and point out that your voice rises at the end of sentences that are questions, or that you take a breath between phrases. You may also consider books on tape as excellent tools for giving children an opportunity to hear a variety of voices read in a fluent manner (Module 4. Pg.50).* Again, the assumption here is that teachers are already fluent readers themselves
Vocabulary	The conceptual aspect of teaching vocabulary is presented mainly in pages 82- 88, to enable learners to: pronounce the words correctly, break the words into syllables and morphemes, recognise the meaning of the words and use the word effectively in speech and writing. According to Module 4, for a teacher to teach vocabulary, she must first be able to recognise and understand the individual words in reading to enable her to use the words. As a learner begins to read, it is the duty of the teacher to guide them to decode unfamiliar words found in print into oral communication, especially in their first language (Ref to section 6.4.1). ***Vocabulary games*** *Games are an effective way to teach new words, because children are engaged in the learning process, and they have an opportunity to hear and use the words in the game, and they are fun. Here are three examples of such games. (Module 4, pg.83)*

	This text illustrates one of the many strategies of teaching Vocabulary. Other strategies are covered on pages 84-88.
Comprehension.	The module encourages teachers to teach the young learners strategies of extracting meaning from a text. So, the module on pages 51-54 covers the strategies that the teacher should use to enable learners to comprehend reading. This requires the teacher to apply the linguistic concepts such as the text organisation, genre, pragmatic and syntax (sentence/text structure) knowledge (Kuccer & Silva, 2013), which the module assumes the teachers have in place. *It is your responsibility as a teacher to explain to children how to use several strategies to improve their reading comprehension. You need to provide opportunities for children to practise these strategies when they are listening to stories you read to them. The following comprehension strategies can be used to help children to comprehend what they are reading…. (Module 4, pg.51).*

From the extracts in table 5.12, the module seems to engage in great depth with the practical aspects of the five components of reading. The LG4 assumes that the FP teachers need to deepen their practical knowledge on 'how' to teach the five components of reading. Thus, it promotes and explicitly focuses on effective strategies for teaching the five research-based components of reading, which are reinforced by the emergent literacy paradigm. Informed by research, the aspiration of this module is to deepen the teachers' practical knowledge in literacy, in an effort to close the gap which prevails between classroom practices and teacher learning of the FP teachers. However, the module does not explicitly teach the theoretical aspects on the components of reading: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. In addition, the module does not offer the student teachers an account of the English, isiZulu or any other language's structure, to support the teaching of the five components of reading. These components are the fundamental basis for reading and subsequently, fluent reading becomes a basic skill, the future academic life of every child (Barr et al. (2016).

According to accumulative literature and other education researchers, to teach reading and writing effectively one requires to enact a specialised body of knowledge. This body of knowledge is complex and made of actively relating blends of TK in emergent literacy and English language structure; explicit knowledge on the literacy concepts, systematic and explicit knowledge on reading components and approaches; and effective teaching strategies to enable children literacy development (Kuccer & Silva, 2013; Moats, 1999, 2009b, 2014; Piasta et al.,

2009). A person who enacts and critically reflects on this knowledge should be an effective literacy teacher. However, Module 4 does not offer a comprehensive specialised knowledge base for teaching literacy. For instance, conceptual knowledge on English language structure, dimensions of literacy and theories of writing are not explicitly covered in the module. The module focus is three theories and components of reading and practical aspects on how to teach reading (Kimathi & Bertram, 2015).

This implies that PD programmes should offer knowledge and skills which have both theoretical and practical knowledge, where the *knowing that* gives an understanding of the subject and *know-how* knowledge (Shalem, 2014b). For instance, in this case the ACT literacy modules should clearly teach the literacy theories and concepts to support the practical knowledge of the teachers which the focus of this particular PD programme

Since the components of reading are key to fluent reading, next, I present the reading approaches espoused in Module 4.

5.5.3 What approaches to reading are espoused in the module?

The module supports both the phonics-based ('Bottom-Up') and the whole language ('Top-Down') approaches to teaching reading and the Balanced Approach which is a combination of the two approaches (Module 4, pg.16).The Balanced Approach is an emergent literacy perspective method which tries to reconcile the phonics-based and whole language approaches to early reading and writing. Although the module supports the phonics-based and whole language approaches in teaching how to read, more emphasis is put on the balanced approaches.

Therefore, the module emphasises that the use of phonics is a necessity in teaching reading, but it is not sufficient to achieve the main goal of reading and writing - making meaning of the text (Module 4, pg. 48-50, Activity 2.2.3 and 2. 2. 4). Various strategies on how to teach reading in support of the three approaches so as to meet the needs of diverse learners are emphasised in Units 2 and 3 of the module. This implies that the teachers may use phonics-based approaches for the slow learners, while others can progress better with the whole language methods in multilingual contexts, such as South Africa. The text extract below summarises this section as follows:

Policy makers have to consider some hotly contested issues past and current trends in reading-teaching theory: Phonics; whole language; and balanced approaches. Policy makers need to be aware of debates and evidence from research on effective ways of teaching literacy (Module 4, pg. 14).

In the module, the conceptual description of the three reading theories are only discussed on page 16 and even in this particular text, there is more focus on 'how' to implement these approaches, than on the theory of what they mean and the strengths and weaknesses of the approaches.

5.6 How Module 4 relates to literacy learning for the FP teachers

According to ACT's intended curriculum, learning how to teach literacy is no longer viewed as the formal teaching by teachers using the prescribed reading skills and grammar of a language, but rather a dynamic and ongoing process where the student teachers acquire skills to support the young learners develop literacy in a meaningful contextual manner (Lenyai, 2011; Mashiya, 2011; Mbatha, 2014). This implies that the module is underpinned by a constructivist approach. According to Sapire and Reed (2011, p. 199), student teachers using the open education resources are expected to become "conscious of their own learning so that they can actively develop their own understanding of instructional practices in order to purposefully link the manner in which they learn to their own situation". Thus, the module supports teacher learning which takes into account what they know about teaching literacy, what they are supposed to learn and thus adopts the emergent literacy approaches to teaching (Gunn et al., 2004).

The module encourages the FP teachers to engage in continuous professional learning, with the anticipation of building a web of teachers with virtuous professional qualities to enable effective literacy teaching. Unit 1 recaps this as:

Confident professionals inspire confidence in parents and children. Professional confidence comes from: Understanding how important the work is, creating a caring professional community, learning continuously to improve professional knowledge and skills (Module 4, pg.5).

According to the module, a literacy teacher needs to clearly understand teaching as a professional job, and collaborate with the other "investors" in the teaching and learning. A teacher who collaborates should engage in continuous professional development at different

times of his or her career life. In the same vein, an effective professional development activity should aim to improve the teacher's individual perceptions, knowledge base and expertise in literacy domains (Barr et al., 2016). Such enhancements have a direct positive impact on literacy teaching and learning.

Module 4 expects the ACT student teachers not only to read this learning resource alone, but also to critically reflect and enact the knowledge and skills acquired, enact peer discussions and other tasks in the modules. This would then enable them to apply what they learn, to reflect on the success or failure of the application and to learn from their mistakes (Sapire & Reed, 2011). The module notes:

> …This advanced certificate is also practice-based. This means that it requires you not only to read and write, but also to apply what you have learned, to reflect on the success or failure of the application and to learn from your mistakes. Learning is therefore not simply a theoretical exercise, but also a practical, experiential one. (Module 4, pg.ix)

The FP teachers are not only engaged in formal professional activities, but the module also reminds student teachers of the benefits of collaboration and informal learning opportunities in their working contexts.

> Learning is a process of change… The most powerful learning happens when you share your thoughts with people who are also learning. Colleagues who seek solutions together to improve their practice, inspire one another. You can form a study group or learning partnership with another student to share thoughts, knowledge, and experiences……… Read the first reading from your reading pack: (Mourshed, Chijioke, & Barber, 2011). How the world's most improved school systems keep getting better. McKinsey & Company….In your workbook, list the strategies that teachers have used to work collaboratively. Comment on which strategies could work in your school and district… (Module 4, pg. 5).

In fact, research evidence suggests that teachers who help each other, either through group discussions, observing their colleagues' lessons, exchanging ideas on teaching methodologies, collecting samples from their classes for comparison purposes, tend to be better teachers (Hill & Khuboni, 2013). Thus, learning how to teach literacy from this module alone is not sufficient. Rather the ACT students are supposed to work consistently and practically – reading; researching; integrating with other external stimuli; engaging in peer discussions and reflecting on pedagogic practices or personal challenges.

In summary, this module was designed to strengthen the literacy knowledge for the practicing teachers or any new teacher willing to teach at the FP. The key literacy content espoused in the module are the principles of emergent literacy and the theories of reading and writing.

5.7 What are the silences in the ACT Module 4?

During the analysis process, some issues were established as silences in module 4. First, with reference to the findings presented, the module had limited reference to the academic skills icons, especially in Units 3 and 4 (see Table 5.9 in section 5.5.1). The academic skills icons are supposed to integrate teachers' English skills or academic competencies to enable effective teacher learning and understanding of the module. Research evidence in the South African context highlights that most of the FP teachers lack the basic understanding of concepts related to the English language, to enable them to teach how to read and write (van der Merwe & Nel, 2012). This inadequacy contributes to ineffective teaching and reading problems among teachers across the disadvantaged schools, a situation which demands new solutions.

In this era of advanced technology, (Sapire & Reed, 2011) suggest upgrading the distance learning resources as a possible solution to reach many practising teachers. Unfortunately, most of the teachers who enrol for PD in South Africa are not computer literate, many cannot afford the IT gadgets, or they do not have access to internet facilities. The module assumes the teaching methodologies for English and isiZulu literacy will be instructed in the same manner, even in contexts where IsiZulu is the LoLT. Most of the schools and the teachers in the rural or under-resourced schools are expected to use the same methodologies and resources with the learners who use English as HL.

The module design also does not translate the IsiZulu sentences for the non-IsiZulu readers, thus limiting the use of the teacher learning resource only to the KZN province schools. It is only on page 54 where 5 bulleted sentences are translated in English, trying to explain how a teacher can help the learners extract meaning from a text.

> Miss T uses this same approach every day to write about things the children have experienced. She writes down exactly what the children say (even if the grammar is incorrect!). After a few days as she writes she says: 'Ngizofaka ungqi ngoba uma sibhala igama lomuntu siqala ngongqi.' or, 'Ilapho kuphela khona lokhu okushiwo nguSipho, ngakho-ke ngizofaka ungqi. We always end our sentences with a full stop. (Module 4, p.6).

It is ironical that the first extracts explain the differences between the two language structures, but then the designers of the module did not translate the extract on page 61 for the non-IsiZulu readers. This means that the module does not comprehensively explain to the reader the principles of multilingualism and bilingualism, while the subject matter is different or the teaching principles cannot easily be translated from one language to the other (Mashiya, 2011).

5.8 Chapter summary

The main findings from the content analysis can be summarised as follows. First, drawing from Reed's teacher knowledge framework, inferences from the domains of teacher knowledge privileged in the Learning Guide (LG4), indicate a main focus on practical knowledge domains. So the module does not explicitly offer the teachers theoretical knowledge about emergent literacy, principles of bilingualism and multilingualism which underpin the teaching of the five components of reading and the practical knowledge (Kimathi & Bertram, 2015). Second, the dimensions of literacy and English structure are not explicitly taught either. Several scholars have conceptualised that an effective PD programme should offer teachers propositional knowledge and practical knowledge for effective teaching. See chapter 8, section 8.4 for details of this debate on the two domains of knowledge.

The next two chapters provide empirical evidence to illustrate the extent to which the teachers contribute to these assumptions.

CHAPTER SIX: TEACHER'S LITERACY PEDAGOGIES

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I presented the findings and discussion on the document analysis of Module 4 which forms the backdrop of the empirical findings about EFAL practice in this study. The multiple classroom data reduction process is presented in the methodology chapter in section 4.7.2, whist the actual coding of the data and findings are presented in this chapter to give the reader a clear and systematic presentation of the three teachers' pedagogies.

The chapter begins with the methodologies and procedures which were used to analyse the classroom data. This is followed by individual teachers' stories. Each of the stories, begins with biographical information and the school context as background information to give the reader a deep understanding of the context of this research. The last section of each story offer rich findings and discussions about the teachers' knowledge changes during the course of their learning on the ACT programme. The findings were generated from the classroom observations, video-tapes transcripts and researchers' field notes.

6.2 The general account of the classroom analysis.

The classroom data analysis can be traced from the document analysis of Module 4 detailed in Chapter 5. Findings of the document analysis in Chapter 5 provided a clear understanding of the theories of literacy which underpin the lens (the principles of teaching FAL) devised from Module 6 (LG 6) which were used to engage with this particular set of data (classroom data). For the purpose of coherence, description of the classroom analysis first, I had to read LG 6 and synthesised the main structures of the five major principles of teaching English as a FAL in the South African context. Nine sub-categories were generated and used deductively to analyse the 18 video transcripts. Table 1 below provides the aspects or elements of the FAL principles used for coding the 18 video transcripts.

Table 6.1: Principles of teaching English as a first additional languages practices (EFAL) in South Africa context

EFAL Principles	Definition	Implications for practice
2.0 Bilingualism	**1A.** Both HL and FAL should be fully developed	Teachers use code-switching to enhance meaningful communication to foster bilingualism. Learners are encouraged to use code switching.
	1B. Receptivity to acquiring a language- (meaningful practices)	Pleasure - learning the language should be enjoyable and pleasant. Repeated use of new knowledge so that it becomes part of a child working memory and meaningful (not chant of a word over). Performance- Using the language for authentic (reliable/ accurate) communication. Praise- the children whenever they communicate in English
2.0 Theories of additional language that influence teaching	**2A**. Formal learning FAL	Grammar-translation model – teaching of grammatically correct structures of English and isiZulu in a conscious and formal manner
	2B. Krashen's natural approaches to acquiring FAL based on the 5 hypotheses	Teacher to provide opportunities which are contextual and informal for the learners to acquire FAL unconsciously. Children acquire FAL in a natural and a gradual orderly manner. Monitoring- learners to use FAL structure to correct their own errors, meaningful communication when correcting errors is vital for learners to acquire English language structure e.g. during reading and storytelling. Comprehensive input from the teacher to the learners to be interesting, relevant and increase reading competence e.g. start from what learners know to new knowledge, level of challenge must be right, ensure that learners are happy, confident and fluent. The affective filter- the teachers' and learners' moods, feeling and attitudes affect the acquisition of FAL. Does the teacher smile or get irritated with the class feedback?
3.0 Developing vocabulary and oral sentences fluency	**3A**. Develop listening and speaking skills.	Enhance purposeful listening and authentic speaking through verbal and non-verbal communication e.g. reading stories, use body language, imaginative role play, pictures, puppets etc.
	3B. Building vocabulary in FAL	Formal learning of vocabulary through labelling of classroom objects, direct instruction through actions and theme teaching. Encourage learners to read for pleasure and use the vocabulary acquired from the environment and media. Repetition, vocabulary games and wide reading to support vocabulary building.
6.0 Balanced strategies that support the three approaches to literacy teaching	**4A**. Strategies and routines that support meaningful word study and reading	Word study – provide children with opportunities and routines to manipulate words in a meaningful way e.g. use of multiple assessment tools and sight words (word wall / word cards), fun activities and games (to look for patterns, rhymes).Word identification - provide opportunities/sight words to practice Use bottom-up and top-down (meaning-based) approaches to teach phonics. Games, songs or exercises to strengthen the letter-sound relationship.
	4B. Strategies and routines that support meaningful writing	Model good handwriting to the children, pay attention to their scribbles and drawing, teach handwriting according to CAPS polices and provide opportunities where they can write words and letters from direct instructions (to enable sentence building).

7.0 Learning environment.	5.0. Print-Rich learning environment.	Create a friendly environment which uses time productively. Uses different and authentic prints to meet learners' specific needs. Print-Rich environment with a range of children's literature or book collection accessible to the learners. Classroom posters made by the teacher and learners' creative work displays, Word walls and other sight words (to support sentences building), phonic charts, posters of themes. Reading/ discussion corner or a classroom library which is accessible

The coding of the transcribed video tapes was the second step of this analysis. This involved reading each of the six lessons per teacher several times for a clear understanding and then attaching the meaning of the lessons to the aspects of the principles of teaching English as FAL (See Table 6.1). This process is illustrated using one observed EFAL lesson the three teachers' stories.

See details for teacher Anne in section 6.4.5, for teacher Lisa in section 6.5.5 and lastly for teacher Jane in section 6.6.5. The next section offers findings from the general coding and analysis of the teachers' pedagogies.

6.3 Teachers' pedagogical findings

This section presents the contextual findings as illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 6.1. Findings on the pedagogical practices incorporates what I observed in the classroom as well as the teachers' instructions. The layout of this section is divided into six major sub-sections to foreground each of the teachers' personal stories from the case study. The interpretivist approach is outlined diagrammatically in figure 6. 1
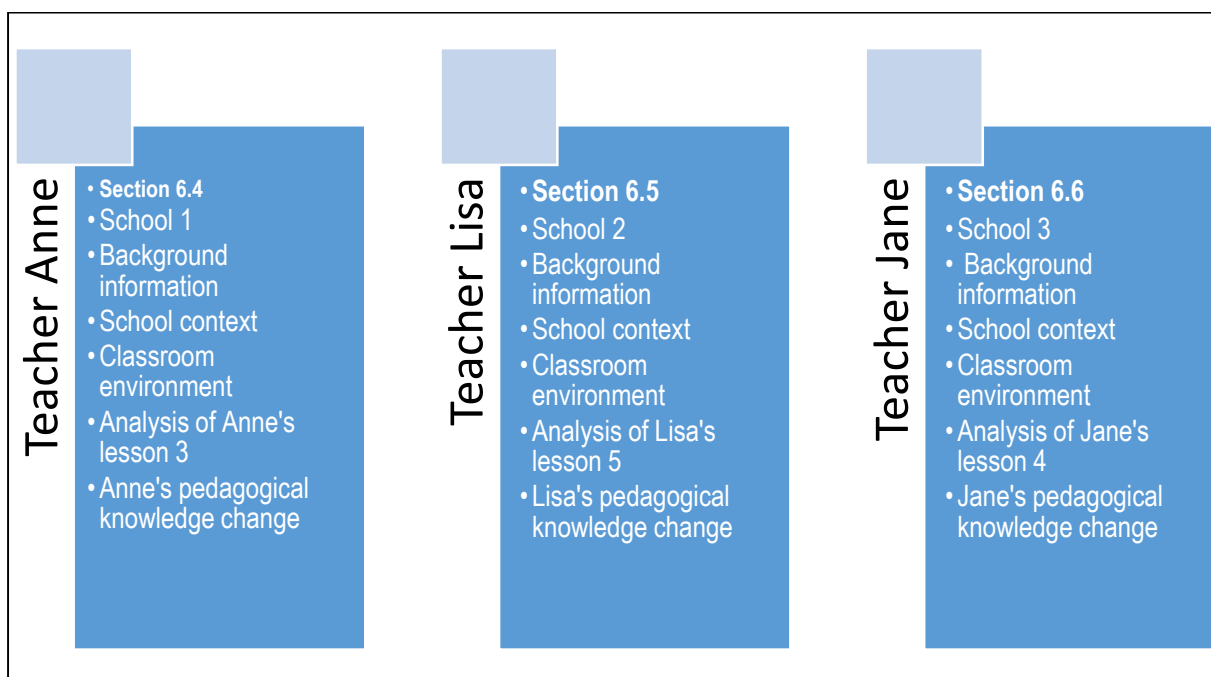
Figure 6.1: Diagrammatic representation of the three teachers' pedagogical findings

Each subsection provides findings about classroom practices changed during the teacher learning process from the ACT programme. The purpose of presenting the classroom findings as individual teacher stories was to create a personal comprehensive picture of the pedagogical changes at the beginning of the learning, during the learning process and at the time of the course completion. Teacher Anne's account is presented first, followed by Lisa and lastly, the section ends with Teacher Jane's story.

6.4 Teacher Anne's story about the pedagogies practices

The data revealed Anne as an experienced teacher whose commitment and hardworking spirit enabled her to improve her pedagogic practices during the duration of learning from the ACT programme. Her story will cover the five strands illustrated on the diagram in figure 6.2.

6.4.1   Teacher Anne's background and experiences

Anne is an African female teacher in her late forties who grew up in a rural area of KwaZulu-Natal, during the apartheid regime - areas with limited resources mainly reserved for the Blacks. Schools were generally not well resourced. She remembers the teachers taught at a very slow pace and little content was offered, while most learners did not understand what was

taking place in class. This made it difficult to clearly remember her experience at that level. However, she could remember that, learning during her school days, was purely rote learning (memorisation of facts) and taught in isiZulu. The teacher did most of the talking, while the learners were expected to listen and obey instructions. Learners did not use text books or participatory learning activities, instead, the teacher gave the isiZulu and English words and sounds which they memorised and 'chanted' without understanding. However, her teacher was pleasant to the learners most of the time and ensured every learner did the work as expected. Corporal punishment was a common phenomenon, especially for those who did not understand what was being taught. Thus, the slow and or weak learners received most of the caning, most of the times.

Anne remembers really struggling with her academic work and didn't get any assistance from her siblings or parents. She began writing letters before proceeding to reading in Grade 1 with most of her written letters reversed. The teacher would pinch her thighs and she cried most of the times as she recalled laughing,

> most of the time, ja the teacher used to pinch me under the thigh there, I cried. Oh, I cried a lot on that…its letter d, ja that letter, it was very hard for me. I would not differentiate between d and p, so that's where I had a problem in writing

Maybe Teacher Anne had learning difficulties which the teacher was not able diagnose, or the teacher's knowledge base on how to teach phonics was inadequate. Anne had no idea how she passed Grade 1 amidst the difficulties in reading and writing, but by Grade 2, she managed not only to write her letters well, but also started to read. She recalls being overwhelmed with joy when she first learnt how to read and write clearly in English.

She had been a FP teacher in school 1 for 16 years, where she taught Grade R for 13 years and currently teaches Grade 2. During data collection, Anne had 44 learners in her class in 2014 and 36 in 2015. In February 2014, during the course of the first interview, Anne described her working context as *an urban school*. Challenging as it is for me to describe an *urban school* in the post-apartheid era in South Africa, Anne viewed her school as better than many other schools located in the rural area in terms of teaching EFAL and resource availability. Schools in any town or city are of different status in relation to the socio-economic status of the people. A 'one-size fits all approach' is not an accurate approach to describe an *urban school* in South Africa. Urban schools range between expensive boarding or day schools to various public

schools. (See the quantiles categories in section 6.2.2). So in this case, Anne's working context could be described as an urban school in a working class residential zone.

Previously, urban schools were generally located in towns and cities which were declared domains of white people, who also owned 87% of the land during the apartheid regime (Gardiner, 2008). However, in the present democratic state, urban areas are characterised by a dense population of all races, and relying on secondary (industrial) and tertiary sectors for economic growth, unlike the rural areas which rely on primary industries such as agriculture and forestry.

Anne acknowledges the difference between her teaching methods and those of her own FP teachers in the olden days in the rural areas. For instance, she discusses the content with her class, asks for their opinion to establish their prior knowledge and then identifies where to start a lesson unlike the rote learning mentioned earlier. This means Anne's learners participate in the learning process and she uses their prior knowledge to enable effective teaching, unlike during her school years when the teacher did all the talking. Anne offers extra lessons to the slower learners and group work under the mentorship of brighter learners to provide a conducive environment where the weak ones can learn from their peers. She motivates them by giving them stars and encourages them verbally.

Anne claimed to have a Matric (Grade 12 or end of high school) certificate and seemed uncomfortable to talk about her prior academic qualifications. In addition, she had enrolled with an on-going professional development programme on a part-time basis and completed National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) qualification in 2011. According to (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011b), the ACT programme is accredited by the South African National Qualification Framework (NQF) at level NQF6. The programme is therefore eligible for any teacher who wants to strengthen their teaching knowledge base in their areas of specialisation or phase and/or have a three - year diploma from a former college of education; or a NPDE qualification accredited at NQF 5 level. So, on completion of the NPDE, Anne was upgraded to NQF 6 level and was assigned a new position as a Grade 2 teacher. Besides attending the ACT programme, Anne once attended DBE workshops on how to implement the current literacy CAPS in 2013.

Anne loves sports. She coaches netball and soccer and she also enjoys reading magazines and newspapers at least once a week for leisure. She reads drama and story books that are written

either in English or isiZulu whenever she gets spare time to borrow the books from the Pietermaritzburg Educational Library. She considers her reading skills and English literacy knowledge at FP phase as good. This was well demonstrated during the observed classroom lessons. Anne is a passionate person and in her own words, describes teaching as a 'calling' *...And I like reading and I like to be a teacher. I think that's a calling for me,* she concluded during the first interview when she enrolled with the programme.

This explains her search and desire for more knowledge from the formal programme. Besides attending the ACT programme, Anne collaborates with other teachers in the school and visits their classes to learn new strategies through observation of their teaching. Because she also discusses new ideas with them and analyses her practices and performance with them, she can be described as a *self-motivated* teacher. The discussions and analysis helps her to identify problems in her teaching methods and to make corrections.

The next section describes the findings on Anne's working context so as to have insights into how the school context influences the teachers' practices.

6.4.2   Teacher Anne's school context

Anne's operational context in this study is school 1, which is one of the three schools where the participants work. School 1 is located approximately eight kilometres from the Pietermaritzburg CBD, in the uMgungundlovu municipality in KwaZulu-Natal province. Most of the teachers and learners at this school are from the surrounding area, which was formerly only for the Black people during the apartheid regime. The area is on the edge of the town location, characterised by small scale industries and residential areas, mainly for the intermediate social class (routine, white collar jobs mainly at supervisory level) and core working class (semi and unskilled workers) of African language speakers.

The language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in this school is English, although almost all of the learners speak isiZulu as their home language (HL). Anne was not sure of the reasons, but according to the NEEDU report (2013), the use of English at FP as a LoLT is a common phenomenon in cities, townships and some rural contexts which are not monolingual schools. Thus, contextual factors such as parent preference or demographic changes made some schools choose first additional language(s) such English or Afrikaans as their LoLT, in accordance with the Language-in- Education policy (LiEP) adopted in 1997 (A. J. Hugo & Lenyai, 2013). The

LiEP aims to support and pursue 'additive multilingualism' as an approach to language in education in South Africa, and recommends:

> An additive approach to language in education, giving individuals the right to choose the LoLT at their school if it is practicable for the school to accommodate the choice of LoLT, and promote the use of learners' HL at the same time to provide access to other languages (Department of Basic Education, 2013b, p. 8)

All South African ordinary public schools are categorised into five groups, called quintiles. Quintile one is the 'poorest' category, while quintile five is the 'least poor' as mentioned in Chapter 4. Anne did mention the issue during the first interview in 2014, but she seemed not to know how schools are categorised. This categorisation is determined by the National Department of Basic Education largely for purposes of allocation of financial and resources annually as explained in Chapter Four for allocation of resources.

According to a press release by the Minister of Education, Grant (14 October, 2013), these categories help to determine schools which should pay fees. Learners attending Quintile 1, 2 and 3 schools do not pay school fees and receive the same amount per learner. Therefore, in order to compensate these schools for their loss in fee income, the National DBE provides them with a larger Norms and Standards allocation than schools classified as "fee-paying" in quintiles 4 and 5. Table 6.2 presents the percentage of school quintiles for 2014/ 2015 to illustrate this system.

Table 6.2: National and Provincial South African schools breakdown of the quintiles for 2014/2015

National Poverty table for 2014					
Provinces	Quintiles				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	5
Eastern Cape	27.3%	24.7%	19.6%	17.0%	11.4%
FC	20.5%	20.9%	22.4%	20.8%	15.4%
Gauteng	14.1%	14.7%	17.9%	21.9%	31.4
Kwa Zulu -Natal	**22.1%**	**23.2%**	**20.2%**	**18.7%**	**15.8%**
Limpopo	28.2%	24.6%	24.2%	14.9%	8.0%
Mpumalanga	23.1%	24.1%	21.5%	17.7%	13.5%
Northern Cape	21.5%	19.3%	20.7%	21.4%	17.1%
North West	25.6%	22.3%	20.8%	17.6%	13.7%
Western Cape	8.6%	13.3%	18.4%	28.0%	31.7%
South Africa	**20.0%**	**20.0%**	**20.0%**	**20.0%**	**20.0%**

Source: Media Release by Minister of Education Donald Grant Western Cape,14 October, 2013

Nationally, each quintile contains 20% of all learners, but not 20% from each province. Table 6.2 shows that 22.1% of the schools in KZN fall into the category of schools in the poorest 20% in South Africa. In the province, only over 34.5% of schools pay fees in quintiles 4 and 5, when the average for South Africa as a whole is 40%. KZN province is one of the three provinces with relatively high levels of poverty, as compared to the rest of the country.

Anne was aware that school 1 falls in quintile 4 and thus, learners pay school fees of R1280 annually. During Phase 1 of data collection, I observed that the school environment was secure and clean, with a spacious car parking area, adequate sports grounds, well maintained lawns, and had a busy and resourceful team of workers, especially at the front office. Two hospitable guards guided the visitors and ensured learners were safe during the play/break time.   It is well connected to electricity and water and has a good tarred road leading to the school. The teaching

fraternity is well organised, mostly found in their classroom during teaching time and seemed supportive of each other.

The principal of this school was well informed and in-touch with her teachers and their professional learning, as well as with their teaching activities. Though busy with administration duties, she set aside time to spend with the teachers, as mentioned informally during my introductory time. The principal also claimed to have worked as a part time tutor for the NPDE programme in previous years at the Pietermaritzburg (UKZN) campus. She proudly talked about her school being active in sports and other cultural activities.

6.4.3   What motivated Teacher Anne to enrol with the ACT programme?

During the first interview (February 2014), Anne mentioned that the main reason why she enrolled into the ACT programme was to gain more information about teaching and learning. This motivation is driven by her personal desire to provide the best foundation for the learners under her care. Her improved skills would make it easier for her learners to understand the knowledge and skills that they are expected to acquire in Grade 2. Specifically, when teaching English as a FAL, she hoped to learn the different ways of explaining concepts to the learners, as well as the different teaching strategies. For instance, she enthusiastically said,

> **Anne:** By the end of the ACT programme, I hope to learn how to handle a class of mixed abilities. This will give me confidence and motivation.
>
> **Interviewer:** During your English lessons, what do you want to learn more?
>
> **Anne:** Ja, to be myself in the classroom and to be, whatever I am doing I must be, have that courage that I am doing the right thing.

Anne's aim was to update her professional skills and become a better skilled and effective teacher. She wanted to understand her capabilities better and gain confidence that she was teaching the right content, at the right level and using the latest teaching strategies. This would only be achieved by acquiring more knowledge and skills from the professional programme, especially those she feels inadequate in and thus, gain more confidence as a teacher.

Next is a brief account of Anne's classroom environment to create an idea of how space was utilised for teaching and learning of EFAL in that period.

6.4.4 Classroom: the teaching and learning environment

According to Hoadley and Jansen (2012), the physical environment available for teaching and learning influences the transmission of knowledge to the learners. This means that "the conditions for learning that a learning environment provides, can either facilitate or harm children's learning. Conditions of learning have a significant influence on how education shapes learners' identities and self-efficacy" (LG 6 pp.107).

The classroom of Grade 2A was spacious enough to accommodate the 41 and 35 learners in 2014 and 2015 respectively, with various teaching resources. The learners were smart looking, with clean school uniforms and their desks were arranged in pairs facing each other, six or eight in a group, with small but adequate spaces between each group.

The class was generally clean with good ventilation (open windows), a well-designed reading spot covered with a clean mat and in-built storage shelves with learners' workbooks at the back of the class. The walls had bright, visible and colourful posters. The chalk board with neatly written days and dates stood divided in three sections; words for the week, work for the day with clear instructions and a blank session for the teacher. A stand for the big book was well position at the front of the class, but near the teachers' desk (see details in chapter 7 section 6.4.4). During each visit, I observed that the teacher and the learners were jovial and ready for our visit. The next section provides analysis of one of the the six observed EFAL lessons during the 18 months of Anne's learning.

6.4.5 The analysis of Anne's observed lesson 3

To personalise the general procedures of classroom analysis discussed in section 6.2, I used data from one of the six observed EFAL lessons to demonstrate the coding exercise. See methodology chapter section 4.7.3 and general procedures in section 6.2.

Anne is a well organised and confident teacher with a very good command of the English language. According to my observation at the teacher desk, her daily lessons were planned and adequately prepared, while the learners seemed happy and confident too. There were 37 learners on this particular day and the classroom environment was similar to what was observed during phase 1, but the learners' seating arrangement seemed to have changed and some new posters added.

The description of Anne's FAL lesson 3 video recorded during phase 2 of data collection is offered in figure 6.2.

Date: 26-08-2014   **Topic:** Adjectives   **Duration:** 40 minutes   **Class: 2A**

Episode 1

The day started with the teacher' registration duties, while the class read loudly from the big book *Tummy Ache* led by their peer for 2 minutes. The learners seem to read from memory. Teacher recapped the previous lesson by asking the learners to define the word

> T: Who can define the word noun?
> L: Action words (class shouted NO!)
> L2, L3, L4: Names of a person, name of a place and names of things (respectively)
> T: Very good answers. Today we are going to learn about adjectives

Episode 2

The teacher introduced adjectives as the topic of the day and pasted a chart with incomplete sentences on the chalkboard. They read the title - Adjective - and the teacher re-emphasised that an adjective describes a noun. Individuals were asked to made sentences using adjectives. In an orderly manner they quickly constructed sentences such as: *I have a big leg, A terrible tiger, I have a white cat etc.* The teacher was impressed by one learner who recalled a sentence from a story done the previous term.

Episode 3

The teacher pasted a well written chart with incomplete sentences on the chalkboard and then the class read out loudly the following words from the flash cards: *Nice, long, tall, clever, sunny, sharp and yellow.* After the class reading each of the seven words three times, she pasted them next to the chart with incomplete sentences The teacher called individual students to read the incomplete sentences, which was then repeated loudly by the class.

Then individuals were called to the chalkboard and pasted the correct flash card to complete the missing adjective. It was easy and fun for most of the learners. She encouraged and assisted the slow readers. Correct answers were applauded and wrong answers were acknowledged, rephrased and right answers were given to the whole class as illustrated below

> T: Zuma read for us sentence number five
> L: Thi--s (pauses) cat has a <u>tall</u> tail (class burst into laughter and many raised their hands
> to correct Zuma)
> T: Let's give Zuma another chance to read the sentence, yes try again Zuma.
> L:(shyly) This cat has a <u>long</u> tail
> T: Very good boy

Zuma stood up confidently and pasted the word *long* on the blank space of the fifth sentence and the class applauded. Lastly, the class read the seven completed sentences loudly. The teacher removed the pasted adjective words and left the incomplete sentence.

Episode 4
Two students distributed exercise books from the shelves and each learner completed the sentences. *She instructed the learners to copy and complete each of the sentences from the board with the* correct adjective provided *from the flash cards framework.* The children worked individually and the teacher monitored the lesson, helping those who were struggling, reminding them to write dates, day and to seek help if there was a need. Most of them seriously concentrated on the task but few initially walked around sharpening pencils or borrowing pencils and erasers. The lesson came to an end while a few were still writing.

Figure 6.2: Descriptions of Anne's English literacy Lesson 3 Video recorded on 26-08-2014

To code this particular lesson, specific aspects were devised from FAL principles of teaching. The criteria on table 6.3 have the following key coding features: a strong presentation of any of the aspects of teaching FAL in the lesson was code 4 and code 1 demonstrated a very weak presentation of the lesson as illustrated below:

Table 6.3: The indicators used to code principles of teaching FAL from classroom data

2.0. To what extent does the lesson portray the main principle of Bilingualism?

Criteria and indicators used to code the aspects of the principles during a FAL lesson				
1.0 Bilingualism aspects	**4.Strong presentation**	**3. Moderate presentation**	**2.Weak presentation**	**1.Very weak presentation**
1A. Both HL and FAL must be fully developed and used during the lesson	A balanced and appropriate use HL and FAL. Learners were often encouraged to code switch	The teacher code switched accurately and appropriately most of the times. Learners were generally encouraged to code switch	Use of HL and FAL was not in balance. Little code switching was evidenced by both the teacher and the learners.	Used HL or FAL only. No code switching was presented.
1B. Receptiveness to acquiring FAL	Children liked the lesson and were praised for almost all tasks. Meaningful repetition and use of new knowledge was applied objectively.	Children liked the lesson and were regularly praised for completed class tasks. Adequate repetition and use new knowledge was applied contextually.	Children reasonably liked the lesson, and were sometimes praised for completed class tasks. Chants of sentences, words and sounds were common with little contextual application of the new knowledge.	Children did not enjoy the lesson and were not praised for the class tasks. Chants of sentences, words and sounds was common.

As explained in Chapter Four, classroom data was read several times in search of statements which correlated with the codes. For instance, table 6.3, demonstrates how Anne's lesson 3

was coded for the first aspect of bilingualism (1.0) was given two sub categories coded as 1A (both HL and FAL must be fully developed) and 1B (receptiveness to acquiring FAL). Each of these aspects were connected to a piece of text from the observation or video transcript and corroborated by the researchers' field notes to generate the codes. Aspect 1A was coded at 4 written as 1A.1 (see Table 6.4 below) which means Anne did not have a good balance of the HL and FAL (weak presentation of aspect **1A**) during the lesson.

Table 6.4: Analysis of Anne's lesson 3 using principles of teaching English as an additional language at the FPT

Main principles of teaching FAL	Definition or aspects of the principles coded	Implications for practice
1.0. What is bilingualism?	1A. Both HL and FAL must be fully developed	English is the LoLT in school 1, located in the suburb of the PMB town, but predominantly a Black residential area thus, the teachers' aim was to strengthen the FAL and not create a balance between the two languages. She did not use HL during the lesson. The learners also fluently participated in the class discussion in short phrases in English. Coded as 1A.1
	1B. Receptiveness to acquiring FAL	The learners were actively involved and happy as they answered the teacher's questions and pasted the correct adjective. Some seemed to repeat the sight words after the teacher from memory. The teacher encouraged them and was very patient with the slow learners and applauded every correct responses. Maybe the slow learners acquired new knowledge but did not apply it in the context. Generally, the exercise of identifying an adjective and constructing a sentence orally seemed easy for most of the learners. Coded as 1B. 3
2.0. To what extend did the lesson present explicit opportunities of learning and acquiring FAL in an authentic way?	2A.Formal (traditional) approaches to learning FAL	The learners knew and applied their prior knowledge of nouns and adjectives without difficulties, especially in the formal sentences in episode 3. The reading was guided by the teacher who selected and sequenced the content of the sentences and the sight words in a systematic manner. The majority of the learners completed the sentences easily. Coded as 2A.3
	2B.Krashen's natural approaches to acquiring FAL based on the 5 hypotheses	The teacher provided informal opportunities to the happy learners to define the word adjective and construct their own sentences which were context based. She was very friendly, patient and corrected the slow learners' errors in the most appropriate manner for them to grasp the content. The level of the teacher's talk and text was easy for the bright learners, but fine for the slow learners, which enabled the active participation of most of the learners. Coded as 2B.4
3.0. To what extent did the teacher provide meaningful opportunities to enhance building of vocabulary and oral sentences fluently?	3A.Develop listening and speaking skills	She instructed individuals to read out the correct adjective to the class and then pasted the correct flash card on the blank spaces of the sentences. She encouraged both the strong and the weak learners to actively participate in the class tasks. Coded as 3A.3
	3B.Building vocabulary and developing	Teaching using the theme and following the CAPS was evidenced, and learners used the given adjectives to complete the formal sentences on the chart. The majority repeated the key words and sentences and constructed their own sentences without any problem. Coded as 3B.3

	oral sentences in FAL	
4.0. To what extent does the teacher use balanced strategies and routines that supports meaningful reading and writing?	4A.Strategies and routines that support meaningful word study and reading	For the comprehension and identification of adjectives they only used the flash cards and meaning-based approach to reading the text. To strengthen the letter-sound relation, they read one rhyme at the beginning of the lesson and a short song during the lesson (to get their attention). Coded as 4A.2
	4B.Strategies and routines that support meaningful writing.	She modelled a neat and well written chart and list of words to the class. In the last episode, learners were instructed to write the incomplete sentences on the chalkboard and fill the missing adjectives. They worked individually and the teacher monitored the task, marking and helping those who were struggling. Coded as 4B.3
5.0. To what extent does the classroom portray a print rich environment?	Print-Rich learning environment	The teacher had increased or changed most of DBE charts for IsiZulu and English sounds and words, life orientation charts on hygiene and health, and numeracy charts on additions, subtraction and numbers. The teacher's written works and learners' creative works dominated the classroom displays. The class had a reading corner with several displays too, games, counters, home items, reading books and the big book stand. The back of the class also had storage shelves with learners' workbooks and other reading books in piles, and the basal readers were also displayed. On the right side, were the learners' utensils and drinking water. Coded as 5.4.

Similarly, I generated a table for each of Anne's six lessons and developed a rich summative description of the classroom findings to illustrate how their EFAL pedagogies changed within the 18 months of learning from the ACT programme. The next section offers the Anne's classroom summative findings.

6.4.6 Findings on Teacher Anne's EFAL pedagogic practices in School 1

This section illuminates how Anne's pedagogic practices changed during the learning process from the ACT programme. Anne has been well-respected and valued among the school administration as a Grade 2 teacher, for her dedication and hard work for 16 years in school 1. Anne and a Grade 3 teacher were the two FP teachers from school 1 enrolled in the ACT programme in 2014-2015. She is well known for transmitting adequate knowledge and skills to the children at the FP, building their confidence which is needed for successful future learning.

Table 6.5 presents a summary of how Anne's classroom practices changed during the professional learning process from the ACT programme. The coding for Ann's lesson 3, are clearly demonstrated on Table in section 6.4.

Criteria used for coding the FAL principles (Module 6)	Period of classroom video recording					
	Feb 2014		Aug 2014		Oct 2015	
	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6
1A: Development of Bilingualism	2	2	2	2	2	2
1B: Receptivity to acquiring FAL	3.5	3	3.5	4	3	3
2A: Formal approaches of learning FAL	4	3	3	4	3	3
2B: Natural approaches to acquiring FAL	3.5	3	4	4	3	3
3A: Development of listening and speaking skills	3	3	3	4	3	3
3B: Building vocabulary in FAL	3	3	3	3	3	3
4A: Strategies to support reading and word study	3	4	3	4	4	3
4B: Strategies to support meaningful writing	2	3	3	3	2	3
5: Print-rich environment	3	3	4	4	4	4
Total scores	27	27	28.5	32	27	27
4= Strong presentation/score - Total 4 x 9 = 36. 1 = Very weak presentation/score - Total 1 x 9 = 9.						

The first column shows the nine aspects derived from the principles of teaching English as FAL with the columns L1 to L6 showing the results from the classroom data observed. Column L4, highlighted in blue, shows the EFAL lesson with the highest score, while row 1A (highlighted in yellow) represents the aspect which had an anomalous presentation (Anne used English as LoLT). Lastly the green highlighted row (5) display well-presented aspects of the lessons during the three phases of data collection. Prefix

Next are the summative descriptions of Anne's observed EFAL lessons.

1. **Before enrolling with the professional development - ACT programme (February 2014)**

According to the criteria used, the possible total score was 4 x 9 = 36 for a lesson, where a score of 36 was 'ideal' and a score of 9 was recognised as weak presentation of all criteria. Table 1 shows that at the beginning of professional learning with the ACT programme in 2014, Teacher Anne presented an above-average teaching performance during the two observed lessons with scores of 27 and above for the nine principles of teaching FAL. Anne's two lessons that were observed before she started learning from the ACT programme illuminate a moderate presentation (score of 3 for each aspect) in relation to receptivity to acquiring FAL, explicit use

of natural approaches to acquiring FAL and provided moderate opportunities/strategies for children to build new vocabulary, supported meaningful reading, writing and print-rich classroom environment. Therefore, she was already teaching according to many of the principles taught in Module 6. However, she scored 2 (weak presentation) in three aspects: the development of bilingualism (both lessons), strategies of developing listening and speaking skills (lesson 1) and opportunities/strategies used to develop meaningful writing (lesson 1). The latter two aspects improved to moderate presentation in lesson 2. This means that these three principles of FAL were not strongly present in her practice when she enrolled for the ACT programme.

2. **During the professional development – ACT programme (March 2014 to Sept 2015)**

During the teacher learning process, in the two video recorded lessons in August 2015, Anne presented an improvement in most of the FAL principles. Apart from developing bilingualism which was weak (score of 2) in her classroom practice, all other areas of presentations were mainly at moderate and strong levels. The total score for lesson 3 was 26.5 for the nine principles coded, whereas lesson 4 presented the score of 32 in all the principles, as shown in Table 6.5 The constant weak presentation on the development of bilingualism in Anne's video recorded lessons would be attributed to the fact that the LoLT in school 1 is English and thus, Anne's practice according to the school values was to emphasise the use of English at the expense of IsiZulu. According to Hill (2010), the National Education Evaluation & Development Unit (NEEDU) and the National Report 2012 (Taylor et al. (2013), there are schools where learners use the LoLT (e.g. English) throughout the grades but do not speak this LoLT as their mother tongue in the South African context.Department of Basic Education (2013b) suggests that such schools should have teachers who devote a substantial amount of time teaching the FAL at the FP. However, this principle should be applied cautiously since the first principles of bilingualism in the South African context insist on teachers fully developing the HL and FAL of the learners at the FP (Hill, 2010; Lenyai, 2011)

3. **At the end of the professional development - ACT programme (October 2015)**

By Oct 2015, the teachers had covered the entire ACT intended curriculum (eight modules) and were very busy revising for the final examination of the ACT programme. Lessons 5 and 6 illuminate an insignificant change (score dropped by 6), in relation to the previous lessons observation in February 2014 and August 2015. However, moderate presentations of the FAL

principles were coded, except for bilingualism and the strategies used to support meaningful reading and writing.

The development of bilingualism did not show any change over the 18 months. Anne did not focus on developing bilingualism when she was first observed teaching, neither did she do so at the end of ACT programme. She barely code switched because the LoLT of school 1 is English and HL was only used when elaborating or clarifying a difficult concept to the learners. That explains Anne's focus on developing English literacy at the expense of IsiZulu, which is the HL of the learners in this school.

With regards to the strategies to support word study and reading, the presence of these strategies was more obvious in the last few lessons that were observed. However, there were no increases in the strategies to develop meaningful writing. There was a clear indication that Anne's classroom environment changed to promote a much more print-rich environment than was observed at the beginning of the study. According to the interview responses from the three teachers, the increase of posters and displays in their classrooms by October 2015 can be attributed to the fact that teachers seemed to have accumulated by this time more materials for display from learners by the third term, the DBE and their own creative writings, unlike in February when the schools start. However, they also appreciated the practical and conceptual knowledge acquired from Modules 4 and 6 on the importance of having a print-rich environment at the FP.

6.5 Teacher Lisa's story

The data revealed Lisa as a self-motivated and articulate teacher, whose diligence enabled her to seek various professional learning activities for the purposes of her teaching, before and during her enrolment in the ACT programme. Her story starts with the contextual findings in the next section.

6.5.1   Teacher Lisa's background and experiences

Teacher Lisa is an African female teacher in her mid-forties, who began school at a much younger age compared to the conventional standards. She loved attending school and clearly remembers her first day in school. Having been left home alone on this particular day, she dressed up and followed other children to school. At the time, there was no Grade R class and her mother scolded her when she returned, wondering why she had gone to school at the age of six. However, that did not stop the self-motivated young girl from going to school, she said

during the first interview in February 2014. Lisa remembers enjoying her school work or tasks and never failed in her studies. Her most exciting experience was an incident in Grade 3, which she enthusiastically expressed as:

> I just went, I never failed. I never struggled. I just, I remember when I was doing, it was standard 1, grade 3, I remember, the other teacher for grade 4, she was teaching English and then she came to our class in grade 3 looking for somebody who is going to tell her kids, her learners the past tense of "do", because they didn't know it. Then I just raised my hand and said, and tell her the answer and then she took me to grade 4 and put me in front of the class and told me to tell them the past tense of "do", then I did that and I cannot forget that.

She had never forgotten this experience of courageously standing in front of a Grade 4 class and providing the answer at her tender age. Though Lisa had older siblings, she di not recall any incident during which they taught her to read or write. Her fluent and commendable reading skills could be attributed to the school learning, although she cannot remember her teachers' methodologies. Lisa does not think that her experience as a FP pupil influenced her current teaching methods in reading and writing.

Lisa had sixteen years of experience as a FP teacher in school 2, which she describes as a township school. In the current South African context, a township is a designed area or district, but the term is often used to describe the undeveloped urban areas, mostly in the peripheral of large towns and cities which were reserved for Black people during the apartheid era.

Lisa started as a Grade 3 teacher and taught at this level for ten years before teaching Grade 2. In 2015, her class had 44 learners, while in the previous year (2014), there were 42 learners. Lisa has a Matric Certificate (high school certificate) and had completed a three year part-time professional training course in 1992, with the junior primary diploma qualification. Later in 2010, she enrolled and completed the ACE Life Orientation certificate with University of South Africa (UNISA). Lisa had attended more than five training workshops about teaching literacy over the previous two years.

She was also involved with the Soul Action school programme in the school, which has helped her with teaching resources (sight words, pictures and sound letters) and encouraged her to create her own teaching resources from the available cardboard and other available materials. The Soul Action school programme is a branch of the Soul Action Christian ministry which had initiated a programme among some underprivileged schools in the townships of KZN province. Since 2014, they had been working alongside the Grade 2 and 3 teachers to support

them in the teaching of English phonics. The FP teacher participants like Lisa and her colleagues claimed that the workshops, the provision of resources and support visits, had increased their competencies and efficiency in teaching phonics. Being a part time preacher, Lisa devotes her free time to reading Christian literature and Bible commentaries twice or three times a week, to enable her to adequately prepare for sermons.

Lisa organised her class into groups, as opposed to her colleagues in the other three Grade 2 teachers who used rows. She deliberately organised the struggling student groups at the front, while the stronger groups at the back. This style enabled her to offer immediate corrections of errors and assistance to the struggling individuals and groups. Moreover, she said that arranging the desks in groups offers the learners a better chance to discuss and engage in common activities with their peers.

Lisa enjoys and is passionate about teaching, just like Anne, irrespective of numerous challenges in her context. Her passion for teaching means that she builds good relationships with the learners, which has resulted in a happy class. One of her major challenges in class is when some learners are not motivated to learn.

According to Lisa, changes in the school curriculum over time (NCS, CAPS) had brought new learner-centred approaches to teaching which were significantly different from what was used during her learning years. For example, FAL (e.g. English) lessons were introduced at FP in the current CAPS. In her opinion, the reason for introducing FAL early at the FP level was to make it easier for learners to receive instructions and learn better in the other subjects from Grade 4. If the learners only started learning the FAL at Grade 3, they would be ill prepared in their English proficiency at Grade 4 where it is used as the LoLT.

6.5.2   Teacher Lisa's operational context

School 2 was Lisa's working context, located 65 kilometres from Pietermaritzburg, in the eThekwini municipality in KwaZulu-Natal province, South Africa. Most of the teachers and learners were from the surrounding areas of the township, as reported by Lisa during an informal conversation in August 2014.

At the time of the study, the school surrounding area was still predominantly a residential area for the intermediate social class (routine, white collar jobs mainly at supervisory level) and core working class (semi- and unskilled workers) mainly of the African language speakers. The

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learners are mostly isiZulu speakers and thus, the LoLT at the FP is IsiZulu in accordance with the South Africa LiEP policy discussed in section 6.2.2.1.

The school principal (2015) has been in the chair for the last 33 years and she had a staff of 35 teachers. The school had a fairly good, permanent infrastructure of a typical township school in South Africa. It was divided into three blocks - Grade R block, FP and intermediate phase block, and the senior phase block. The children paid school fees of R100 annually and were provided with a feeding programme, although the able parents were encouraged to pack a snack for their children (see Table 6.2 in section 6.4.2 on school quintiles). From my observation, most teachers drove their own vehicles to the school and usually arrived at school on time together with the learners at 8.00 am. Administration and security appeared to be adequate, with a security guard at the gate throughout the day.

The school provided adequate support to the FP teachers' professional learning. Lisa claimed that the teachers were allowed to leave their working context earlier to enable them to attend phonic workshops organised by the Soul Action programme. Occasionally, the DBE officials conducted literacy and mathematics workshops and observed their teaching methodologies. The school also introduced peer mentoring in 2013, where colleagues made turns to assess their peers teach and together they discussed the feedback on the pedagogies.

During phase 3 of data collection (October 2015), I witnessed the mentoring session for Lisa. The visiting Grade 2 teacher sat at the teachers' desk for 20 minutes and observed Lisa teaching, then the observing teacher would write a report. Informally, Lisa mentioned that each FP teacher in the school has a slotted time for assessment and mentoring purposes. Lisa considers this modelling approach (school 2 support for FP teachers) as valuable and also appreciates the support given to the teachers by the Soul Action programme, the ACT programme and DBE workshops.

The school is not only focused on academics but also active in sports and other cultural activities. Lisa is actively involved and she describes her first experience in the current school:

> Okay, there was no attire [referring to Heritage Day celebration], there was nothing. I went to my previous school and borrowed the attire [Zulu traditional dressing]. They [her school community] didn't know – we were practicing there, we dressed up there and the celebration was here. We were doing the function here on the lawn. Then when my children came - they were grade 3 - when they came out wearing nice attires, wow they said wow, what did we do?

After this glamorous event in 2002, the self-motivated Lisa was appointed as the school cultural coordinator, a position she holds to date, assisted by a committee of teachers. Lisa would like another person to take over this position for reasons of change, but there seems to be no teacher willing to take this tedious responsibility, together with their teaching load.

6.5.3   What motivated Teacher Lisa to enrol with ACT programme?

Lisa initially wanted to enrol for an Honours' degree programme at the university, but did not have a specific course in mind. She sought guidance from the university regarding the best programme for her case, as it was too late to apply for the honours degree. Determined to acquire new knowledge, she decided to enrol for the ACT programme as an alternative and attain more knowledge as a FP teacher. Below is a conversation about her enrolment in the programme:

> **Interviewer**: Tell me, why did you decide to enroll for this ACT programme?
>
> **Lisa:** Okay, to be honest, I was, I wanted to register for the Honours degree at UKZN and when I went there, I found that it was closed already, the… applications were taken and it was closed. And so they sent the pamphlets to the school, inviting us to register for ACT, then I told myself that I don't want to stay, I was going to do the studies, so now that I couldn't register and I have to do something, then I enrolled for this programme.
>
> Interviewer: Okay
>
> **Lisa:** But I found it, that it's very helpful as I'm seeing, that it will help me to help my colleagues in the school.
>
> **Interviewer:** So you're finding it useful, even though you did not think this was what you wanted to do?
>
> **Lisa:** Ja, ja.

This shows Lisa's enthusiastic attitude enabled her to take the offered opportunity to learn more about teaching at the FP. She added that her willingness to acquire more knowledge enabled her to work hard during her study period. She also believed that it was the combination of the DBE resources offered, the Soul Action programme and the ACT programme, which provided her with enormous knowledge about her teaching planning and teaching methodology. She has no regrets about having enrolled for the ACT programme.

When asked what she anticipated to learn about teaching FAL from the ACT programme, Lisa noted that she had no idea initially, but after reading her module guides, she realised it was

crucial for teachers to understand and apply the balanced approaches of reading (combining phonics and whole language approaches) to enhance the learners' meaningful reading

6.5.4 Classroom: the teaching and learning environment

Before embarking on the comprehensive descriptions of the pedagogic practices, a brief description of the classroom 2B (pseudonym) environment is offered. The classroom for the Grade 2B was spacious enough with a variety of teaching resources. The majority of the learners looked smart, while their little tables were arranged in pairs facing each other, eight in a group with adequate spaces between each group. The class was adequately clean with good ventilation (open windows), with a designed reading spot and inbuilt storage shelves. The teachers' desk was at the back of the class. The walls had bright, visible and colourful posters which were regularly changed according to the video records. The chalk board was an important teaching resource, seen by the amount of chalk dust behind it, showing the frequency in the usage.

Lisa's classroom provides an effective environment which is conducive to literacy acquisition and development, irrespective of the contextual limitation (township conditions in South Africa). Just as doctors or dentists need appropriately equipped surgeries (space and materials) and appointment systems (time management) to treat patients, teachers also need appropriately equipped classrooms, time management and control systems to teach children effectively (LG6 Pg. 115) and Lisa's classroom seemed to be one of them (see details in chapter 7). The teacher and learners seemed ready for the visitors, but I also realised they were a little nervous at the beginning of the lesson, due to the researchers' presence, as observed in each visit.

Capturing and analysing pedagogic practices in this study was important to understand the kind of pedagogical shifts experienced during the course of the professional learning. The next section offers the analysis one of the six observed lessons.

6.5.5 Analysis procedures of Lisa's lesson 5

In this section I give a human face the classroom general analysis to illustrate how one of the Lisa's observed lesson was coded. See Tables 6.3 for the coding criteria.

Following is Lisa's lesson 5 descriptions, constructed from the video transcripts of the data collected during phase 3, on the 28 October 2015.

| **Date:** 28-10-2015 | **Topic:** Listening and Speaking | **Duration:** 45 minutes | **Class**: 2B |

Episode 1

The learners were quiet and seem to be ready for the lesson. The teacher, in a very surprising manner, uncovered a self-drawn (picture) mounted on the wooden stand. Holding it, she moved around the class for the children to have a close look at the picture. This seemed to create curiosity among the children about the lesson. After every learner had seen the picture, she then pasted it on the chalkboard for visibility purposes. The well-drawn picture showed a young boy playing with the sand at a beach.

She then engaged the children on a number of questions which stimulated a conversation with the learners. The teacher asked questions and encouraged them to put up their hands for individual responses. This was achieved most of the times and given a round of applause by the class. Part of the conversations went as follows:

> *T: What is happening in this picture?*
> *L: It is a beach (isiZulu)*
> *T: Why do you think is a beach?*
> *L: Water*
> *T: (She described the picture) This is a beach, it has a boy playing with a bucket with sand. Is it clear children?*
> *L: (chorus) Yes teacher*
> *T: When do people go to the beach?*
> *L1: Christmas day*
> *T: Good, it's nice to go to the beach on Christmas day!*
> *L2: December*
> *T: Yes, during the December holiday. Now tell me why we go to the beach during the December holiday?*
> *L:The weather is hot*
> *T: (write the word hot on board). Yes, we go when it's hot. The days in December are sunny and we feel hot. So when we want to feel cold we go to the beach. Right, am I clear?*
> *L: (chorus)Yes teacher*

The conversation went on, based on what was visible on the picture in a free, interactive manner, and individual responses were highly encouraged. The teacher generated the key words of the day such as *hot, blue water, salty, sand, sharks and swim wear* as the children answered her questions. These words were clearly explained and written on the chalkboard. This conversation was predominantly conducted in isiZulu and only seven learners responded in one word answers in English. In total, only ten English words were given by the learners in English. The teacher kept switching coding to enable the children to comprehend the lesson. This episode took seven minutes.

Episode 2

The learners in a systematic order moved to the front of the class and sat next the book stand. The girls sat on the blanket mat provided by the teacher, while the boys sat behind the girls on their chairs. The teacher then uncovered a colourful poster with several activities taking place on a typical beach on a sunny day.

The teacher first gave the learners one minute to study the poster and then she described the different activities on the beach. In a chorus, the learners kept repeating whatever the teacher said or finished off the teacher's sentences.

> T: As you can see the water is blue, what is the colour of the water?
> L.(Chorus/loudly) Blue
> T: There are many people, women, men boy and…
> L :(Chorus/loudly) girls.
> T: am I clear?
> L: (Chorus/loudly) Yes teacher

The discussion on the poster was very interesting and the teacher guided the learners in construction of simple sentences from the poster through question and answering techniques in a well sequenced manner. Responses were either individual or whole class depending on the question. Part of the conversation was as follows:

> T: (pointing) What is this?
> L: Cake
> T: (smiling). This is not a cake. This is called a sand castle. This is called…
> L: (chorus) a sand castle
> T: What are the children building? The children are building a sand castle.
> L: (chorus). The children are building a sand castle.
> T: what is to build?
> L :(isiZulu). Like to build a house
> T: Good, Who is building the sand castle? The children are building the sand castle.
> L: (chorus) The children are building the sand castle.
> T: Can you see the other children? What are they doing?
> L: (isiZulu). The children buy ice-cream

The discussion, closely guided by the teacher, covered the *what, who, why* and *when* aspects. The teacher, in a sequenced manner, using repetition and questioning technique, covered four different activities in the poster. She then took time to summarise the lesson by reviewing the key concepts from the drawing and the poster. The teacher took one minute to find out whether they enjoyed the lesson and why? The enthusiastic and the happy looking children responded positively to the teacher. The teacher then divided the learners into two group and standing, and they sang: *if you are happy and you know*…

Episode 3

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Lastly, the learners had a hands-on opportunity. The teacher distributed worksheets (black and white version of the poster in A4 paper). Each group of the learners was given a box of crayons and instructed to colour the beach and they were not supposed to copy the teachers' poster. To emphasise the issue of creating their own posters, the teacher covered the beach poster. The teacher moved around as the learners did their colouring. The majority of the learners were busy, very keen with their individual work, as they took time to decide on the colours to use, but a few did a quick fix to their worksheets. Learners were free to move from their groups to get crayons from other groups. There was no noise or distraction during this activity. The teacher moved around and kept reminding them that crayons are supposed to be shared in the class. To motivate them, she promised to display their work the next morning in the classroom. And for sure when I came in the next day, all the colourful worksheets were displayed systematically according to their groups' seating.

The lesson ended after 18 minutes of learners working individually on their worksheets. The teacher reminded the learners to write their names, dates and the day, before she collected the papers plus the crayons, assisted by the group leaders.

Figure 6.3: Descriptions of Lisa's English literacy Lesson 5 Video recorded on 28-10-2015

Table 6.6 demonstrates how this lesson was coded. For instance, the third aspect of the principles (3.0) *'To what extent did the teacher provide meaningful opportunities to enhance building of vocabulary and oral sentences fluency',* this aspect was given two sub-categories coded as 3A (develop listening and speaking skills), and 3B (building vocabulary and develop oral sentences in FAL). Each of these aspects were deductively connected to a piece of text from the transcript and corroborated by the researchers' field notes to generate the codes. Aspect 3A for Lisa's lesson 5 were both coded at 4, recorded as 3A.4 and 3B.4 respectively (Table 6.6) for the coded aspects. This means that Lisa presented very good opportunities to develop learners' listening and speaking skills; and also offered admirable occurrences for learners to build their vocabulary during this particular lesson. Table 6.6 below presents a coding of lesson 5.

Table 6.6: Analysis of Lisa' lesson 5 using principles of teaching English as FAL at the FP

Concept	Definition	Implications for lesson 5 practice
1.0 What is bilingualism?	1A. Both HL and FAL must be fully developed	The teacher code switched accurately and appropriately in all the episodes, especially when explaining what happens at the beach, using local examples. She encouraged the learners to respond in English every time a learner responded to her question Coded as 1A.3.
	1B. Receptiveness to acquiring FAL	The lesson was enjoyable and practical, where both the learners and the teacher used the new knowledge meaningfully and contextually. For instance, one learner was able to provide reasons why he had never been to a beach after the teacher explained what children should and do not do at the beach. Coded as 1B.4

2.0. To what extend did the lesson present explicit opportunities of learning and acquiring FAL in an authentic way?	2A.Formal (traditional) approaches to learning FAL	The discussion was closely guided by the teacher and covered the *what, who, why* and *when* aspects on the beach poster. The teacher, in a sequenced manner, used repetition and questioning techniques to cover four different activities in the poster. She then took time to summarise the lesson by reviewing the key concepts from her drawing and the poster using isiZulu and English accurately and appropriately. Coded as 2A.4
	2B.Krashen's natural approaches to acquiring FAL based on the 5 hypotheses	The beach drawing and poster were used in a systematic manner: first the drawing was introduced and the beach contextualised, then the teacher talked about the boy in the drawing and moved to the new knowledge (poster of a typical beach) and engaged the learners using the prior knowledge in an excellent manner. This created the correct level of challenge. Corrections of errors were done to the whole class and repeated for understanding. Coded as 2B.4
3.0. To what extent did the teacher offer meaningful opportunities to enhance building of vocabulary and oral sentences fluency?	3A.Develop listening and speaking skills	The teacher's talks were clear and accurate in all the episodes. The use of the drawing and poster created an excellent opportunity for the class to be able to closely study the pictures and to answer the teacher's questions from their own point of view. Coded as 3A.4
	3B.Building vocabulary and develop oral sentences in FAL	The conversation about the drawing was done in a free, interactive manner and individual responses were highly encouraged. The teacher generated the key words - *hot, blue water, salty, sand, sharks* and *swim wear* - as the children answered her questions. These words were clearly explained, read repeatedly and written on the chalkboard. Learners coloured in their own beaches to conclude the lesson. Coded as 3B.4
4.0.To what extent did the teacher use balanced approaches to meaningfully support reading and writing?	4A.Strategies and routines that support meaningful word study and reading	Writing of words and use with a whole language-based approach to explain the words and sentences generated from the story. Coded as 4A.2
	4B.Strategies and routines that support meaningful writing.	Learners were provided with an opportunity to colour their own beaches without copying the posters' colours, as the last task of the lesson. Coded as 4B.3
5.0. To what extent does the classroom portray a print rich environment	5. Print-Rich learning environment	The class had colourful pictures, teachers and learners creative works, shelves at the back of the class with piles of DBE workbooks and reading books which were well arranged. There were a variety of posters and charts displayed on either sides of the walls, such as shapes, a weather chart, colours, list of vowels, list of sounds, public holidays in English/ isiZulu, a clear noticeboard with school/class rules. Drinking water, plates and cups were well kept at the back of the class. Coded as 5.4

The next section provides the summative descriptions of Anne's observed literacy lessons analysis.

6.5.6   Findings on Lisa's EFAL pedagogic practices in school 2

Table 6.7 presents a summary of the findings on how Lisa's classroom practices changed during the course of learning from the professional programme. The nine principles of teaching FAL as depicted in module 6 of the intended literacy curriculum were used as the lens for this particular coding.

Table 6.7: The extent to which Lisa's practice reflects the principles of teaching English as a FAL

Criterion used for coding the FAL concepts	Period of classroom video recording					
	Feb 2014		Aug 2014		Oct 2015	
	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6
1A: Development of bilingualism	3	3	4	3	3	4
1B: Receptivity to acquiring FAL	3.5	2	3	3	4	4
2A: Formal approaches of learning FAL	3	2	4	3	4	4
2B: Natural approaches of acquiring FAL	2	2	4	3	4	4
3A: Development of listening and speaking skills	2	2	3	3	4	3
3B: Building vocabulary in FAL	3.5	2	3	2	4	3
4A: Opportunities/strategies to support reading and word study	2	2	3	3	2	4
4B: Opportunities/strategies to support meaningful writing	2	3	3	2	3	2
5: Print-rich environment	2	2	3	3	4	4
Total scores	23	20	30	26	33	32
4= Strong presentation/score Total 4 x 9= 36. 1 = Very weak presentation/score Total 1 x 9 = 9						

Unlike Anne, Lesson 5 (highlighted blue) was the observed lesson with the highest score. Row 3B highlights the anomaly representation aspect according to the FAL principles. Finally, row 4B (highlighted in yellow) points out the FAL that was sporadic in nature with alternative scores of 2-3 during the three phases of data collection.

 Next is the summative descriptions of Lisa's observed literacy lessons analysis.

1. **Before enrolling for the professional development – ACT programme (February 2014)**

At the beginning of the professional learning on the ACT programme, Teacher Lisa scored a moderate representation of 23 and 20 for the two lessons. Before teacher Lisa joined the ACT programme, the findings illuminate a moderate representation in relation to the development

of bilingualism (both lessons), receptivity to acquiring FAL, explicit use of formal approaches to learning FAL and adequate opportunities for building vocabulary in FAL. Thus, an average performance in most of her teaching approaches was in accordance with the principles of FAL in lesson 1. On the other hand, lesson 2 showed a weak representation in almost all the principles of teaching FAL, as illustrated in the table. This means that most of the principles of FAL were not strongly present in her practice when she enrolled for the ACT programme.

2. **During the professional development – ACT programme (March 2014 to Sept 2015)**

During her enrolment period, the video-recorded observation indicated a great shift of practices, as presented in the two lessons observed in August 2015, in relation to the FAL principles. She only scored a weak representation on development of listening and speaking skills (lesson 4), building vocabulary in FAL (lesson 4), opportunities/strategies to support reading and word study (lesson 4). The posters and displays in the classroom remained gradually changed to a fairly strong presentation in both lessons observed.

All other aspects were mainly presented as strong or moderate representations as shown in Table 6.7. This implies that during the meaning-making process, Lisa changed her practical and personal knowledge and thus, improving her classroom practices according to the FAL principles.

Teacher Lisa presented weak opportunities/strategies to support meaningful writing during lesson 4. According to her explanation during the interview, learners were not supposed to engage in writing for this particular lesson. However, according to CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011, p. 16), in Grade 2, writing in FAL receives more focus and with support, learners are expected to write a simple set of instructions and a personal recount. Together with the teacher, they are also expected to write a simple story. This implies that if the teacher appropriately applies the natural approaches to acquiring FAL and shows adequate opportunities/strategies to foster meaningful writing in their classroom practices (Hill, 2010), learners should engage in some kind of writing during the EFAL lessons.

3. **At the end of the professional development – ACT programme (October 2015)**

By October 2015, the teachers had covered the entire ACT intended curriculum (eight modules) and were very busy revising for the final examination of the ACT programme. Lessons 5 and 6 at this period illuminate an impressive improvement in Lisa's practices. She scored highly,

with strong representations in the following areas: development of bilingualism (lesson 6), receptivity to acquiring FAL (both lessons), explicit use of formal approaches to learning FAL (both lessons), explicit use of natural approaches to acquiring FAL (both lessons), development of listening and speaking skills and strong opportunities for building vocabulary, as well as supporting meaningful reading and word study (lesson 5).

With regards to this improvement, teacher Lisa presented practices of a FP teacher who had acquired new knowledge and skills from the ACT programme and was able to apply these skills in her practice. This form of learning is accommodative in nature; the learner has to do much more than just adding a new element to the existing knowledge. According to Illeris (2009) theory of learning, the learner (in this case the FP teacher) is able to break down some parts of the existing knowledge and transform it so that the new schema can be accommodated. In this way, Lisa was able to reconstruct the new skills and knowledge of engaging learners with writing exercises as observed in lessons 5 and 6.

6.6 Teacher Jane's story

Jane is an older and experienced teacher who enrolled with the programme mainly to upgrade her teaching qualification and improve her English fluency, in order to enable effective teaching of English as FAL. She seemed a caring and 'loving mother' and committed to giving the learners her best, as observed. She further claimed to have improved the teaching methodologies during the duration of learning from the ACT programme. Her story starts with the contextual findings in the next section.

6.6.1   Teacher Jane's background and experiences

Jane is an African female teacher in her early fifties, with two years of experience as a Grade 2 teacher in school 3 which she described as 'a rural school'. According to the South African context, rural areas are those areas without access to ordinary public services such as water, sanitation, electricity and are characterised by poor infrastructures, low income and long distances from towns and cities (Gardiner, 2008). Teacher Jane claimed to have taught other grades within her ten years of teaching experience. Her current 2015 Grade 2 class has 52 learners, while in 2014 she had 54 learners:

> **Interviewer:** *How long have you been teaching Grade 2? (Reads the boxes)*
> **Jane:** *2 years*

> **Interviewer***: Have you ever taught any other Grade at Foundation Phase? Please specify.*
>
> **Jane***: Yes, I have taught Grade1, 3 and 4 for 6-8 years. (She was not sure)*
>
> **Interviewer:** *What qualifications do you currently have?*
>
> **Jane***:* Finished Matric in 1990, I then did a course called Junior Primary Diploma for 3 years.
>
> **Interviewer:** *How many times have you attended training workshops about teaching literacy or reading and writing in the last 2 years?*
>
> **Jane:** *Once*

Jane has a South African Senior Certificate (Matric), which she acquired in 1990. In addition to that, she enrolled for a continuing teacher professional programme on a part-time basis and completed the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) qualification. Jane had attended a training workshop about teaching literacy once over the last two years. She seemed not to remember much about her academic and teaching progression.

Teacher Jane recalls how the efforts of her teachers and peers during her formative years as a pupil shaped her teaching and her present skills. According to her, the pictures that her teacher used in class helped her to understand stories and reading. Pictures attracted her into reading and the understanding of the story. Just like she learnt from her teacher as a pupil, she used pictures and other real objects in the context to demonstrate episodes during reading times and also to make learning enjoyable. She also recognised the efforts of her teacher in doing mathematics as she imparted the art of counting using stones, therefore making numbers easier to count. This method of using objects in learning was evident in her class, since she used objects like a box and pens to teach prepositions. Pupils seemed to enjoy the method as it appears understandable and easy to recall.

Peer assistance, was another concept that she had learnt as a foundation phase pupil and it seemed to work for her. Jane is conservative and has therefore preserved some of these methods of teaching which she acquired in her days as a foundation phase learner.

6.6.2   Teacher Jane's operational context

School 3 is a junior primary school comprising Grades R to 3, and the teachers and the learners are from the surrounding areas. The school is located in a rural/semi-rural area 105km away from Pietermaritzburg, in the eThekwini municipality of KwaZulu-Natal province, South

Africa. The school falls into quintile 3, according to the South African school ranking system. Thus, the learners do not pay school fees and, unlike school 2 where parents are encouraged to pack a snack for their children, learners depend heavily on the school feeding programme for their daily meals.

The site of the school is on the side of a gentle hill slope with a small compound due to the terrain shape which limits expansion, sports and young learners' movements and play. The senior primary school (Grade 4-7) is barely 2 km from this site. According to the DBE plans, the two schools are supposed to merge in the future, but land availability or expansion space has been the biggest challenge. The last section of 20km of the road to the school (from the city of Durban) was not tarred but constructors were on site when we started the data collection in 2014. By October 2015, most of the internal feeder roads in the area were tarred and the prediction at that time was that the municipality would be finishing the work by the end of 2016. Typically, this is a busy rural area road with taxis, buses and private cars transporting children to and from school during the rush hours. The school is located in a moderately populated area.

The principal's office had two computers and a printer which the school uses to photocopy learning materials, and next to it is the school library. During the first and second data collection phases, the principal of the school was seen to be active in the school compound, involved in the teaching process too and ensuring class attendance by all the teachers. In 2015, there was a new principal who seemed to be more of an administrator and kept to his office during the time of our visit.

The school is not only focused on academic work, but is also active in sports and other cultural activities, as evidenced by the number of trophies in the Principal's office. Security at the school is enhanced by a watchman who keeps guard over the teachers' and visitors' cars, guides the visitors, and ensures learners are safe at the play/break and are collected by the right caretakers after school.

6.6.3   What motivated Teacher Jane to enrol with the ACT programme?

According to teacher Jane, her enrolment for the ACT programme was prompted by her desire to keep pace with the changing dynamics in education and to upgrade her NPDE qualification, which is credited at NQF level 5, to the Advanced Certificate in Teaching offered at UKZN credited at NQF level 6 in the South African criteria for teachers' education.

Interviewer: Why did you enrol for the programme?

Jane: To upgrade my qualifications.

Interviewer: Any other reasons?

Jane: No.

Interviewer: What did you expect to learn from the programme?

Jane: How to relate with the children. What type of resources to use for teaching?

Interviewer: Is there a specific that you wanted to learn from the programme?

Jane: I wanted to learn how to present my lessons to the children because I wanted to have confidence in what I was teaching.

Despite Jane's main motivation of enrolling for the programme, she still expected to learn more on how to relate with the children, present a lesson and use different teaching resources. *"...especially how to use group work if you have large classes, because we have large numbers at our schools. And how we are going to supervise these learners"*, she added on a serious note, during the second interview in August 2014. By acquiring more knowledge on these teaching methodologies, Jane hopes to gain more confidence during the teaching process and become more articulate in English and ultimately, become a better teacher in the long-term.

6.6.4   Classroom: the teaching and learning environment

A brief description of the classroom environment during the data collection is offered in this section to provide insights on how Jane used the classroom environment to enhance teaching and learning in school 3. The Grade 2C classroom (pseudonym) had little space and limited resources, in relation to the over 50 learners of this class in 2014-2015, during the data collection period. In 2014 the learners' little desks were arranged facing each other, very close to each other (no space for movement) in a group of eight; and in 2015, the researcher found them in rows (standards of ANA exams), all facing the teacher whose desk is in the front. The majority of the learners in the class had school uniforms, but some were not clean. The class was tolerably clean, with fairly good ventilation (two open windows), without a designated reading spot or inbuilt storage shelves. The displays were old and all over the walls including beneath the chalkboard, with little change over the 18 months. The chalk board was the key teaching resource, given the amount of chalk dust behind showing the frequency in the usage.

Jane's classroom gave the impression of a learning environment which needed a creative touch in terms of infrastructure and a personal reading culture that are the physical and temporal elements of the learning environment. For example, the management of the few resources and the small amount of space, coupled with her good warm classroom culture, would enhance the effective teaching and learning of EFAL. This conclusion comes as a result of my observation of lesson 4 in episode 3, where Jane warmly invited the learners to the front as they sang along with the teacher "Come along my children", for a simple body exercise prior to the FAL lesson. The teacher and the learners seemed relaxed in their homely class in 2014 and keenly observed the researchers' actions and the video camera.

The next section illustrates how Jane's observed lesson 4 was coded and analysed.

6.6.5   Analysis of Teacher Jane's lesson 4 in school 3

Jane is a well-respected and valued teacher in school 3, in relation to the African norms (respect of older people in a social context). She is well known for her motherly love to all the children and willingness to learn new methodologies of teaching.

The following is Jane's lesson 4 descriptions, constructed from the video transcripts of the data collected during phase 2 in August 2014. See table 6.3 in section 6.4.5 for the lens used to engage with this data.

<table>
<tr><td>Date: 29-08-2014</td><td>Topic: Guided reading</td><td>Duration: 46 minutes</td><td>Class: 2C</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">

Episode 1

The teacher had photocopied a story from a Grade 2 textbook (FAL), but since there were not enough copies, she distributed a copy per every two learners. The class was noisy as she distributed the copies which had clear images and text, but in black and white. Using the textbook, she teacher explained the title of the story and read the story below twice to the class.

The healing tree

Nandipha's family lived in a small village far away from the doctor. Nandipha's mother was ill. Nandipha's granny knew how to help her. Nandipha and her granny went to the big, dark, cool forest. They walked down narrow paths until they were deep in the forest. Often, Granny bent down and looked at a plant. Each time she shook her head. Sometimes she sniffed the air and then shook her head again.

</td></tr>
</table>

Suddenly, Granny stepped off towards a tall tree. She scraped a little bit of the bark of the tree. She picked some of the leaves. "These will help Mama," Granny said joyfully. When they got home, Granny made a special tea with the bark. She put the leaves on Mama's forehead. "Don't worry, Nandipha your mama will be better very soon," said Granny.

The story was long, some learners seemed attentive but the majority did not follow or focus on the teachers' reading. The third reading was done by the learners alone, where the majority struggled to the extent that most of the time I was not able to hear the English words clearly, because most of them were just chanting and stammering. The class's focus in the reading was poor and it seemed like less than 15 learners were actually reading. The class applauded themselves for the reading and moved to the next task.

Episode 2

The teacher moved to the back of the class and requested two groups to read the story in turns as the class listened. The rest of the class was busy doing their own activities, not related to the lesson. Some learners seemed bored, tired and played quietly with their pens, books and handouts, while the others whispered to their buddies in their groups. The teacher did not control or even notice the distraction as she was busy concentrating on the reading from the two groups. After the reading, the class applauded their peers for the effort put in the reading. Then the teacher summarised as follows:

> *T: Did you hear the story?*
> *Class: Yes!*
> *T: whose mother was sick in this story? Whose mother was sick? (Silence) Nandipha's mother was sick*
> *Class: Nandipha's mother was sick*
> *T: Who tried to help Nandipha's mother?*
> *L:(isiZulu) Gogo*
> *T: What is Gogo in English*
> *Class: Granny*
> *T: What did she do to help Nandipha's mother?*
> *L(isiZulu) She made Nandipha's mother a special tea*
> *T: (English) Good, did you hear that? Granny made Nandipha's mother special tea. And what did she put on Nandipha mother's forehead?*
> *L:(isiZulu) Leaves*

Episode 3

Orally, the teacher guided the learners to match the five incomplete sentences at the end of the story. Sluggishly, individual learners matched the sentences and each time, the teacher wrote the complete sentence on the chalkboard and explained in isiZulu. This task was very difficult for the learners and they struggled to put the sentences together. At the end of the task, the class loudly read the five sentences written by the teacher on the chalkboard.

Figure 6.4: Descriptions of Jane's EFAL Lesson 4 Video recorded on 29-08-2014

Table 6.8 demonstrates how the lesson was deductively coded. For illustration purposes, the fifth aspect of the principles: *'To what extent does the classroom portray a print rich environment?'* had only a single sub-category, coded as 5.0 (print-rich learning environment).

The main objective of this aspect is to have an insight into how the teacher created and managed the classroom environment to enhance effective teaching. The aspect was deductively connected to pieces of text from the transcript and corroborated by the researchers' field notes to generate the codes. Aspect 5.0 for Jane's lesson 4 was coded at 2, recorded as 5.2 and 3B.4. This means that Jane's classroom did not present a print rich environment which is vital for teaching and learning at the FP. Table 6.8 below shows the coding of Jane's lesson 4.

Table 6.8: Analysis of Jane' lesson 4 using principles of teaching EFAL at the FP

Concept	Definition	Implications for practice
1.0 To what extent is bilingualism evident?	1A. Both HL and FAL must be fully developed	The teacher used code switching to explain the story to the learners and encouraged the learners to respond either in English or IsiZulu in all the episodes. Coded as 1A.3
	1B. Receptiveness to acquiring FAL	The majority of the children repeated whatever the teacher said and hardly understood the long reading from the teacher. The teacher tried to communicate and praise the learners, but the majority was not attentive and seemed bored or not interested in the revision. Coded as 1B.2
2.0. To what extend did the lesson present explicit opportunities for learning and acquiring FAL in an authentic way?	2A. Formal (traditional) approaches to learning FAL	The teacher did not capture most of the learners' attention during the four reading sessions. The teaching strictly followed the DBE learners' book and themes. Coded 2A. 2.
	2B. Krashen's natural approaches to acquiring FAL based on the 5 hypotheses	The teacher did not provide adequate informal opportunities for the acquisition of FAL. She occasionally appreciated correct responses and encouraged them to speak in both languages throughout the lesson, especially in the last episode where individual learners attempted to construct sentences by matching the incorrect phrases given. Coded as 2B.2
3.0. To what extent did the teacher provide meaningful opportunities to enhance the building of vocabulary and oral sentences fluency?	3A.Developing listening and speaking skills	She provided one photocopy of the story to each pair of learners and and talked about the story to create a conversation with the learners. Coded as 3A.2
	3B.Building vocabulary and develop oral sentences in FAL	She focused on the reading and learners followed the story and explanations from the black and white photocopies made. The teacher's talk about the story was minimal. majority of the learners were not fluent readers and thus, struggled to read by themselves. Coded 3B.2
4.0. To what extent does the teacher use balanced strategies and routines that support meaningful reading and writing?	4A.Strategies and routines that support meaningful word study and reading	The learners were given the opportunity to read the story as a class and two selected groups also read the story. One oral exercise was done by individuals to match the incomplete sentences, followed by the whole class's reading the completed sentences written on the chalkboard. Coded 4A.2
	4B.Strategies and routines that support meaningful writing.	The teacher wrote the five sentences on the chalk board in the last episode, but no opportunity was provided for the learners to write these sentences or new words.Coded 4B.1

5.0. To what extent does the classroom portray a print rich environment?	5.0 Print-rich learning environment	The room is relatively small for the 54 learners, with a small lockable cupboard loaded with DBE workbooks.A long table with piles of different books on the side, Old numbers, shapes, colours charts, lists of isiZulu and English words, a clock, calendar, life skills pictures, and old drawing of the SA flag by the learners. All these materials were mounted all over the walls, even below the chalkboard and did not look impressive. Coded as 5.2

The next section provides a summative description of Jane's observed literacy lessons analysis.

6.6.6   Findings on Jane's EFAL pedagogies practice in School 3

The researcher generated table 6.9 below to present the overall coding findings of the six analysed lessons, followed by rich summative descriptions of the analysis to illustrate how the teacher's literacy pedagogies changed during the 18 months of learning from the ACT programme.

Table 6.9: The extent to which Jane's practice reflects the principles of teaching English as a FAL

Criterion used for coding the FAL concepts	Period of classroom video recording					
	Feb 2014		Aug 2014		Oct 2015	
	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6
1A: Development of Bilingualism	2	2	3	3	3	3
1B: Receptivity to acquiring FAL	2	2	3	2	3	2
2A: Formal approaches to learning FAL	3.5	3	3	2	2	2
2B: Natural approaches to acquiring FAL	2	2	3	2	3	2
3A: Development of listening and speaking skills	2	2	2	2	3	3
3B: Building vocabulary in FAL	2	3	3	2	2	2
4A: Opportunities/strategies to support reading and word study	2	3	2	2	2	1
4B: Opportunities/Strategies to support meaningful writing	2	2	2	2	1	1
5: Print-rich environment	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total scores	19	21	23	19	20	18
4= Strong presentation/score Total 4 x 9= 36. 1 = Very weak presentation/score Total 1 x 9 = 9						

Lesson 4, highlighted in blue on column L3, indicates Janes' best lesson observed according to the coding presentations. The development of bilingualism (row 1A), shows an improvement

in the above-mentioned aspect of the lessons. Finally there was no improvement in the print-rich environment, as exhibited in row 5, which is highlighted in yellow.

1. **Before enrolling for the professional development – ACT programme (February 2014)**

According to table 6.9 at the beginning of the professional learning with the ACT programme, Teacher Jane's presentation in relation to the nine FAL principles observed in February 2014, scored a total of 19 and 21 in the first and second lesson - a weak presentation in the two lessons. Jane's observed two lessons before she enrolled for the ACT programme illuminate a weak presentation in almost all the principles of teaching English as FAL, with an exception of a moderate presentation on formal approaches to learning FAL (two lessons), building vocabulary in FAL (lesson 2) and on opportunities / strategies offered to support reading and word study (lesson 2).

This implies that prior to enrolling for the ACT, Jane's teaching practices were not in accordance with the principles of teaching FAL, as stipulated in Module 6. This correlates with a great deal of the South African empirical findings, which indicate that the majority of the FP teachers in the rural areas have limited teacher knowledge to enable efficient teaching of literacy and mathematics (Green et al., 2011).

2. **During the professional development – ACT programme (March 2014 to Sept 2015)**

After the first semester of the ACT, teacher Jane's classroom practices observed in August 2015 present a similar pattern of weak presentations in relation to the FAL principles observed in February 2014. The scores show weak presentations in almost all the principles and very weak in lesson 4 on the opportunities/strategies used to support meaningful writing, implying that there was no change in her classroom practices even after learning on the ACT programme for one semester. Her total score was 23 (lesson 3) and 18 (lesson 4), as compared to 19 (lesson1) and 21 (lesson 2) in February 2014 when she started the learning programme.

There is a moderate to weak presentation of the principles of development of bilingualism, receptivity to acquiring FAL, approaches to formal learning and the acquisition of FAL, and a very weak presentation on opportunities/strategies to support reading and word study. There was no strong presentation of any of the FAL principles during the 18 months of learning. This implies that after her enrolment with the ACT programme, learning took place and Jane

acquired some knowledge and skills she might have not been able to explicitly apply in the class (another context). Thus, Jane did not gain substantial new knowledge and skills related to the principles of FAL, to enable sustainable classroom practice changes, as shown by the total scores in table 6.8

3. At the end of the professional development – ACT programme – (October 2015)

By October 2015, the teachers had covered the entire ACT intended curriculum (eight modules) and were very busy revising for the final examination of the TL programme. A similar presentation was observed for teacher Jane's scores, with a moderate presentation of most principles while very weak opportunities/strategies were used to support meaningful writing. Opportunities and strategies to support reading and word study were also poorly presented in lesson 6 and were coded as a very weak presentation.

With regards to classroom environment, there is a clear indication that Jane's classroom practice regarding FAL principles remained the same, which was a weak presentation, as observed during the 18 months. She did not change the classroom environment to promote a much more print-rich environment than was observed at the beginning of the study. Although she claimed to have improved the quality and quantities of the classroom display over time during the Aug 2015 interview session, the way she organised the posters and the quality of the posters displayed still persisted as a weak presentation, according to the criteria used for FAL principles.

Overall, Jane seems to have made insignificant changes in her classroom practices in relation to the nine principles of teaching FAL. She may have reflected on the conceptual knowledge from the ACT programme, but not much was put into specific enactment. This implies that Jane may have understand the methodologies, but did not put them into practice during the 18 months as specified in Module 6 (LG 6).

> *Interviewer: How does the school help you to improve reading and writing in this grade?*
> *Jane: We network with other teachers for support, especially in the learning activities. If I have a problem in my class, I can go to my colleagues in order to find a solution.*
> *Interviewer: Is there a situation you remember of how your colleagues helped you for your English lesson?*

Jane: I went to Teacher Mary (pseudonym). I asked her for help on how to teach verbs to the pupils. She told me to have the learners do some actions and ask them to name the actions that they are doing and write the words the kids say on the board. Then afterwards, I asked the pupils to read from their books and pick out verbs from what they read.

This implies that learning from the programme did not explicitly enrich her prior knowledge on how to teach reading and writing in FAL. The next chapter's findings and descriptions from Jane's interviews about her professional learning and pedagogic experiences further support the above claims.

6.7 Chapter summary

In this chapter the background information and experiences of the teachers shows that the three teachers' experiences as learners in the past and their present experience as a FP teachers greatly influenced what they did in the classroom. The lessons findings of the three teachers using the principles of teaching FAL also indicate that the three teachers made substantial shifts in their practices during the their learning period of 18 months. This means the ACT programme had an impact on their pedagogic practices and the variation in the teachers change is attributed to different contextual factors.

CHAPTER SEVEN: TEACHERS' LEARNING AND KNOWLEDGE CHANGE

7.1 Introduction to the chapter

This chapter provides responses to research question 3, presented in the form of teachers' stories about 'how' their knowledge changed and graphic presentations on '*the nature*' of teachers knowledge change using the Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth (IMTPG). Methodologically, I was in a position to apply both the inductive and deductive approaches to the analysis. That is, I generated the teachers' stories and my own descriptions from the all the data and, deductively, examined how their knowledge changed and the nature of the change experienced by the three teachers during their learning period. (See the details in the methodology in section 4.7 and 4.8.)   The main objective is to present an in-depth description and insights into the extent to which the three teachers' acquired knowledge changed within the 18 months of learning from the ACT programme.

First, the chapter defines the three domains of teacher knowledge, namely personal, propositional and practical, as applied in this study. Second, the constituents of the analytical tool and the interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth (IMTPG) are described. Third, the teachers' stories (views and experiences) on how their knowledge base changed and the description of the nature of this knowledge change are provided.

Extracts from the teachers' conversations and Module 4 extracts are presented in italics, as data to reflect the key findings of this study. Also, extracts from observed lessons are offered to validate the interview data and are presented in tables. Lastly, to familiarise with the application of IMTPG, a graphical representation of the data is offered.

7.2 Definition of the three domains of teacher knowledge

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, any 'individually or personally acquired' knowledge that a teacher possesses about *what* to do, and *when* and *how* to do something, is generally described as *personal knowledge*. The primary approach of acquiring this knowledge is through several individual senses (Winch, 2013a), making personal knowledge difficult to transfer to another person, write it down or verbalise it (Shalem & Slonimsky, 2013). This domain of teacher knowledge does not come from external sources, but is usually experiential in nature, which makes it problematic to account for or to measure in research (Adey et al., 2004). In this study,

the FP teachers drew their *personal knowledge* from their beliefs, values, attitudes and experiences about teaching and learning FAL at the FP.

Every teacher must also have knowledge on *how* to teach, this domain of teacher knowledge is a combination of what the teacher knows, does and acquires from the act of '*doing'* (Shalem & Slonimsky, 2013*)*. Similarly, Winch (2014) and Bertram (2011) describe *knowing how* as a tacit type of *knowing what.* Statements about the strategies, activities, routines, classroom management, assessments and class practices, that the teacher uses to enable effective teaching and learning of FAL at the FP, are categorised broadly as *practical knowledge* in this study.

The assumption in this study is that teachers have to understand at least to some degree, the broad "theories, principles, general facts and reasons that underpin the tacit or know-how knowledge" (Shalem & Slonimsky, 2013, p. 70), which for this specific case is teaching of EFAL.   This domain has different names such as the *propositional knowledge or knowing what* (Winch, 2010, 2013b) or *declarative knowledge* (Knight, 2002). Thus, to teach FAL effectively, the FP teachers are expected to draw knowledge from theories and principles which underpin the teaching of English as a FAL in the South African context (Winch, 2013b). These include the theories of acquiring FAL and the principles of bilingualism, which were fully discussed in Chapter 6. The emergent literacy theories and the approaches to reading, are also propositional knowledge, which is detailed in Chapter 5.

It is important to note that the three broad domains of teacher knowledge do not exist as distinctive domains empirically, but rather, as constantly interacting and integrating domains which influence the teachers' practice (Winch, 2010, p. 552). The following section is a brief description of the components of the lens used to explore the knowledge change.

7.3 Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth - the analytical tool

Details of Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth (IMTPG) are discussed in Chapter 2 section 2.4, so here I only highlight the domains of this model that were used in this study. According to this model, teachers' professional growth (change) is a gradual, continuous process which occurs in four distinctive spheres of influence of a teacher, namely: the external domain (ED), the personal domain (PD), the domain of practice (DP) and the domain of consequences (DC). Changes in teachers' knowledge in these domains can only be achieved through the processes of *'reflection'* and *'enactment',* which are exemplified by the linking

arrows on Figure 7.1. The various process links of reflections and enactments between the domains reveal the complexity of the teachers' change or growth (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002).
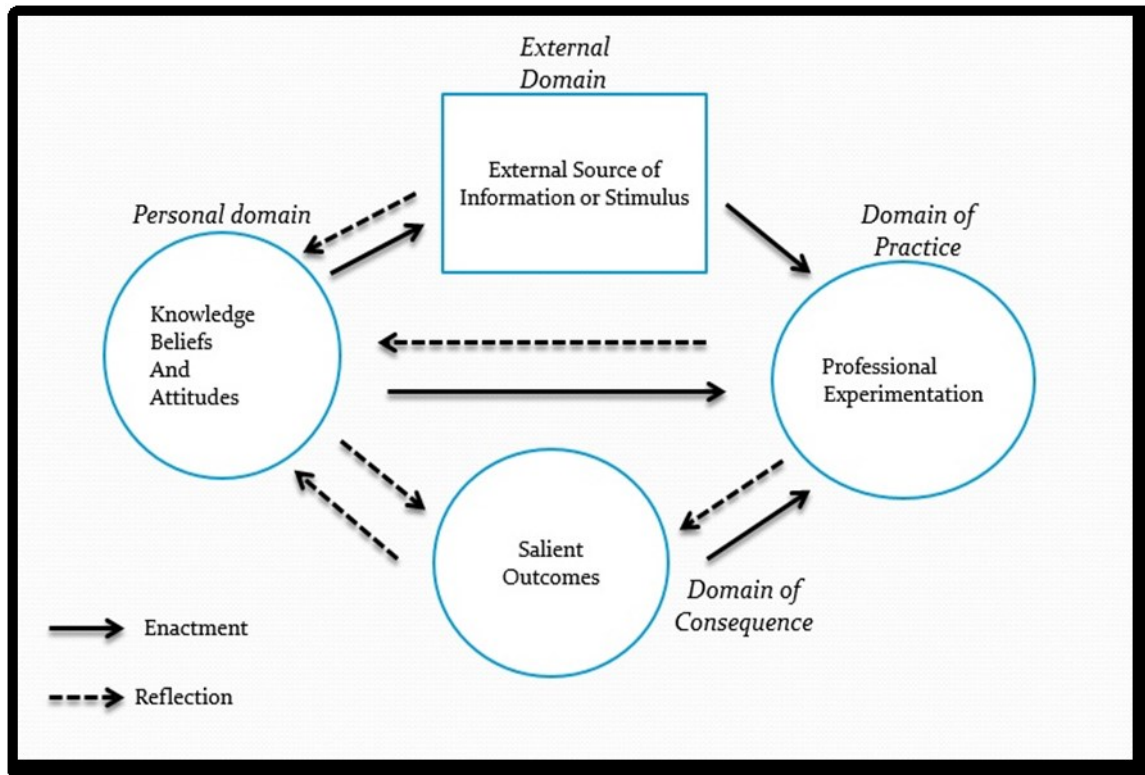
Figure 7.1: The interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth: Clarke & Hollingsworth (2002, p. 951)

The authors of this model argue that the term *'reflection'* is the process by which an active teacher cautiously and continuously reflects on new experiences provided by the professional activity. On the other hand, *'enactment'* is used to emphasise the *specific action* taken to demonstrate a new idea, belief or a new pedagogic practice acquired by the teacher, as modelled by the professional activity (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002).

7.3.1   How the IMTPG was used to analyse the teacher knowledge change

Due to the complexity of the IMTPG and the scope of this study, it was necessary to analyse the data in five levels. Guided by research question 3 and the principles of teaching FAL, I carefully read the interview responses and mapped the domains of knowledge onto the literacy knowledge. As a result, 'seven specific aspects' in the personal, propositional and practical

domains of teacher knowledge were generated. These aspects were the coding criteria for the nature of teachers' change.

Table 7.1 presents the seven aspects of the three domains of teacher knowledge - the criteria used to engage with the data.

<p style="text-align:center">Table 7.1: Aspects of the domains of teacher knowledge generated to analyse the data</p>

Domains	Aspects of the teachers' domains of knowledge
1.Personal Knowledge	a) Beliefs about the ideal literacy lesson, roles of the teacher and the learners
	b) Teachers' personal teaching experiences
2. Propositional Knowledge	a)Theories of emergent literacy
	b) Principles of bilingualism
	c)Theories of reading
3.Practical Knowledge	a) Opportunities and strategies for building vocabulary, oral sentence fluency and writing
	b) Classroom management to enhance meaningful teaching & learning

These explicit aspects of the domains of teacher knowledge were identified, marked with different markers and then tagged to the teachers' statements (views) on 'what' they said about their learning. The main purpose was to gain insights into *which of* and *how* the domains of teacher knowledge changed (or did not change), within the 18 months of learning from the ACT programme. Where the teachers' knowledge had changed - according to what the teachers said, validated by classroom observations and other contextual evidences - the 'nature' of change was certain. The findings are offered in section 7.4 to 7.6.

In the next levels of analysis, it is important to understand the difference between the four domains of the IMTPG – which is the tool of analysis and the four domains of change (*defined changes which were coded* within the domains of the IMTG). These integrated concepts should not be confused with the *three* domains of teacher knowledge (plus their aspects) coded from the data.

The second level of this analysis was to give the IMTPG an empirical underpinning. Each of the marked teachers' statements were read again for clarity and to identify the recurrence of aspects. Then identified statements from the teachers' stories were 'pegged' to the four *change* domains of IMTPG, namely: external source of information or stimulus, which for this study is the ACT programme (in the external domain), teacher's personal knowledge (in the personal domain), teaching of English literacy (in the practice domain) and salient outcomes of the new knowledge or teaching (in the domain of consequences), as presented inside the domain circles

in Figure 7.2. The arrows (routes or pathways of change) within the teachers' four domains are connected by the nine arrows (1-9) also illustrated in figure 7.2.
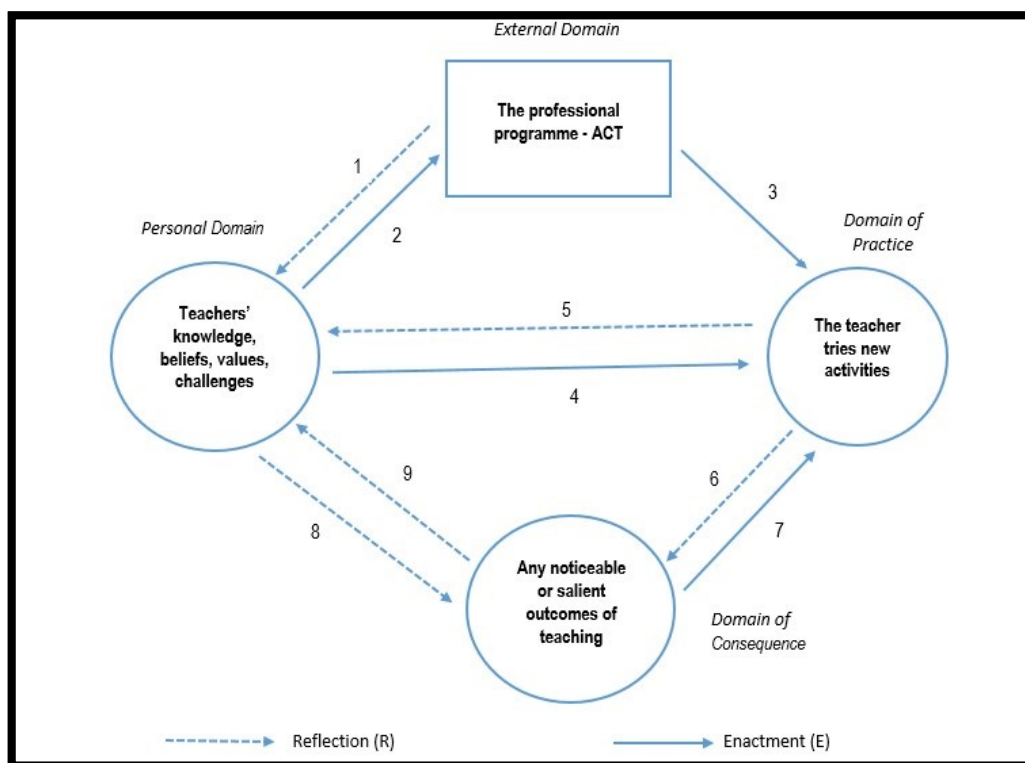
Figure 7.2: The IMTPG illustrating the change mediating processes within the domains. Adapted from Clarke & Hollingsworth (2002, p. 957)

The nine arrows (routes of change) illustrate the *reflection* and *enactment* processes which facilitate change in each domain of the IMTPG (see fig 7.1 and 7.2). In addition, the arrows indicate the direction of specific knowledge change experienced. For instance, mediating process link 1 represents a specific action or concept/s such as a balanced approach of reading, which was *reflected* by the teacher 'in' the personal domain 'from' the ACT programme (in the external domain). The use of meaningful group work modelled by the ACT programme (in the external domain) was *enacted* 'in' the domain of practice during EFAL lesson (shown by arrow 3). The arrows (route of change*)* and domains of the model are presented in an interactive manner to illustrate the complexity of teacher learning (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Justi & van Driel, 2006; Opfer & Pedder, 2011).

This complex coding presented a methodological challenge on how to determine specific nature of change since the three domains of teacher knowledge had seven aspects and so several

readings, and coding of the data was vital. Furthermore the model assumed that all teachers who attended the ACT programme acquired knowledge and skills and changed their beliefs and practices, which is not usual with individual cases (Adey et al., 2004; Brodie et al., 2002). It was also realised during the data collection phase that the teachers were concurrently attending other external programmes and that their changes could be from other external stimuli and not only the ACT programme.

Nevertheless, to simplify this complexity and make sense of the teachers' stories about the specific changes and the nature of the change experienced during the 18 months, was key. So, the third level of this analysis involved the creation of a clear orientation of the nine interactive relationships of the IMTPG. The statements tagged to the seven aspects of personal, propositional and practical domains of teacher knowledge (Table 7.1) were then tagged to the domains of the IMTPG. The linkage is demonstrated in Table 7.2 below.

Table 7.2: Relationships of the domains of teacher knowledge and the IMTPG

Domains relationships of IMTPG (see Fig 7.2)	Criteria used to identify aspects of three domains of teacher knowledge change from their stories
1. From External Domain to Personal Domain (Mediating process- reflection)	Statements from teachers on specific concepts discussed during contact session or read from LG which modify their knowledge on theories of emergent literacy, reading theories principles of teaching FAL etc. (Coded as propositional knowledge)
2. From Personal Domain to External Domain (Mediating process-enactment)	Statements from the teachers about teaching FAL that influenced personal learning during a contact session/discussion/assignment from the ACT programme. (Coded as personal knowledge)
3. From External Domain to Domain of Practice (Mediating process-enactment)	Statements from teachers about new classroom practices as a result of discussions /learning during the contact sessions or assignments given by the ACT tutors. (Coded as practical knowledge).
4. From Personal Domain to Domain of Practice (Mediating process-enactment)	Statements from the teachers which modified an action during their classroom practice such as teachers PCK, learning activities, regulative relations, etc. (Coded as personal knowledge).
5. From Domain of Practice to Personal Domain (Mediating process- reflection)	When teachers reflect on certain new practices which changed their beliefs, values, attitudes, teaching experiences etc. (Coded as practical/propositional knowledge).
6. From Domain of Practice to Domain of Consequence (Mediating process-enactment)	Statements from the teachers about a new practice from ACT programme which steered some desired or noticeable outcome or motivated their teaching/ learners. (Coded as practical knowledge).
7. From Domain of Consequence to Domain of Practice (Mediating process- reflection)	Statements about a desired outcome from the teaching practices which made teachers talk reflect on what they would teach or do in the future. (Coded as practical knowledge).
8. From Personal Domain to Domain of Consequence (Mediating process- reflection)	Statements on how teachers' acquired knowledge has enabled them to reflect on specific outcomes of teaching. (Coded as personal/propositional knowledge).
9. From Domain of Consequence to Personal Domain (Mediating process- reflection)	Statements from a teacher who had reflected on certain outcomes of the new practices and changed their beliefs, values and personal strategies of teaching FAL (Coded as practical knowledge).

Modified from Justi & van Driel (2006, pp.443)

Coding was complex as illustrated in Table 7.2, the first right column and second row of the table shows the IMTPG relationship 1, while statements from the teachers stories which depicted change in proposition knowledge through reflection process of the concepts 'from' the external domain 'to' the personal domain. This stage of analysis was essential to generate coding criteria for the nature of change experienced in each aspect of the domains of teacher knowledge.

The process of amalgamating domains relationships of the IMTPG with the teachers' statements about their learning experiences was complex. For instance, where a specific action was mediated upon by the teacher (see domains relationships of IMTPG number 2 and 4 in Table 7.2), were both coded as personal knowledge. The reason being; the teacher only reflected on the new knowledge which is difficult to measure or quantify (also see definition of personal domain of teacher knowledge). Nevertheless, this complex coding gave me a clear understanding of how the three domains of teacher knowledge changed, related or impacted on each other and more importantly, the nature of change that the three teachers experienced. A section of the rubric developed to integrate the steps of analysis is presented in Table 7.3 below:

Table 7.3: The IMTPG relationships to the domains of teacher knowledge coded from the teachers' stories

Domains relationships of the IMTPG (see Fig 7.2 and table 7.2)	Teacher knowledge	Aspects of FAL teacher knowledge domains coded
1.From External Domain to Personal Domain (Mediating process - reflection)	Propositional domain	a) Theories of emergent literacy
2.From Personal domain to the Domain of Practice/Domain of Consequence (Mediating process -reflection)	Propositional domain	b) Principles of bilingualism c) Reading theories
3.From Personal Domain to External Domain (Mediating process -enactment)	Personal domain	a) Opportunities and strategies for building vocabulary, oral sentence fluency and writing
4.From Personal Domain to Domain of Practice (Mediating process -enactment)	Personal domain	
5.From Personal Domain to Domain of Consequence (Mediating process - reflection)	Personal domain	b) Classroom management to enhance meaningful teaching & learning
6.From Domain of Practice to Personal Domain (Mediating process - reflection)	Practical domain	a) Opportunities and strategies for building vocabulary, oral sentence fluency and writing
7.From Domain of Practice to Domain of Consequence (Mediating process-enactment)	Practical domain	
8. From Domain of consequence to Domain of Practice (Mediating process - reflection)	Practical domain	b) Classroom management to enhance meaningful teaching & learning
9.From Domain of Consequence to Personal Domain (Mediating process - reflection)	Practical domain	

The process of distinction, interlinking and going *to* and *fro* between aspects of teacher knowledge domains from the teachers' statements and the IMTPG relationships was crucial. This involved a careful scrutinising of the nine relationships representations for each teacher

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(9 domains of the IMTPG relationships x the appropriate aspects of teacher knowledge from the stories) as shown in Table 7.3.

The fourth stage of this analysis was to demonstrate the variations of the individual teacher's change of knowledge and beliefs about teaching FAL within the social setting/situated learning in the 18 months. Therefore, the next section discusses how "the two mediating processes of enaction and reflection, usefully connect to practice and cognition and identify both activities as mediators of change'' in this study (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002, p. 956).

7.3.2 The nature of teacher knowledge change experienced

According to research, teachers may experience superficial and unsustainable or a substantial change which is sustainable, from participating in a teacher professional activity (Adler & Reed, 2002; Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Justi & van Driel, 2006; Meyer & Abel, 2015). Thus, the fourth level of analysis, which was to identify the *nature* of teacher change using the analytical tool, was significant in this study.

The authors of the IMTPG describe the nature of teachers' growth as either a *change of sequence* (one or more simple links through the mediation process between two or more domains of IMTPG) or a *growth network k-* a networks of several integrated links through the mediation processes between the four domains of IMTPG. *(*See Chapter 2 section 4.7.7). This aspect to establish the nature of knowledge change made by the three teachers in this study was not achievable due to time constraints and the scope. As a result, I decided to apply a similar gauge to engage with the data. To replace a *change of sequence* of the IMTPG, teachers' statements which established between <u>one </u>to <u>four</u> different reflective or enactment links for a given aspect of personal, propositional or practical domains of teacher knowledge, were interpreted as a <u>*peripheral change*</u> to acknowledge a *change of sequence* of the model (Figure 7.3). On the other hand, any aspect of the personal, propositional or practical domains of teacher knowledge which had more than <u>five </u>reflective or enactment links was identified as *core change* in recognition of a *growth network* of the IMTPG use (Figure 7.4).
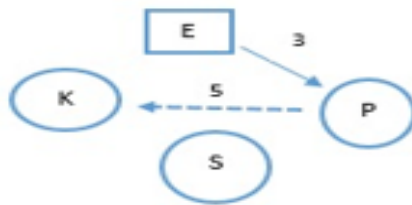
Figure 7.3: A peripheral change (substitutes change of sequence): Adopted from Clarke & Hollingsworth (2000, p. 959)
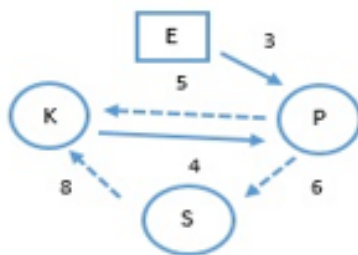
Figure 7.4: Core change (substitutes a growth network change): Adopted from Clarke & Hollingsworth (2000, p. 959)

The letters in the domains circles represents the actual change as explained in Figure 7.2. The external stimuli (E) - agent of teachers' change (ACT for this study) - is located in the external domain, change of teachers' knowledge and beliefs (K) in the personal domain, teachers' new practices (P) in the practice domain and salient outcome of the new practice (S) in the domain of consequences.

Therefore, the fifth level of this analysis involved analysing again the teachers' coded statements on the new knowledge acquired from the ACT programme to establish the mediating processes. The purpose was to establish the aspects of domains of teacher knowledge which reflected either a *peripheral* or *a core* change.

Together with the descriptions on how the three teachers' knowledge changed, the findings of this complex deductive analysis are provided in section 7.4, 7.5 and 7.6 for teacher Anne, Lisa and Jane respectively. Pictorial representations are used to increase the authenticity of the findings. The next section provides findings on *what* and *how* Anne's knowledge base for teaching literacy changed.

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7.4 Anne's story on how her knowledge changed within the 18 months

According to Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002), teacher learning is a complex growth process which can only be achieved through the process of reflection and enactment. Thus, for a teacher to achieve a sustainable growth or change of their knowledge base, they 'take up' the abstract knowledge from the formal programmes and contextualise it through the process of reflection and enactment at their working contexts.

In February 2014, Anne enrolled for the ACT programme with the notion that the teachers' role in an ideal English literacy lesson in Grade 2 is to facilitate and monitor the progress of every learner in their tasks, as per the teachers' expectations during the lesson, as expressed in the following statements:

"The teacher is to make sure the primary resources as textbooks, chalk board and appropriate learning activities are available for a good literacy lesson'', she said during the first interview and added,*"and the learners must respect, listen and respond to the teachers' instructions positively to enhance active participation at all times".*

This personal belief was confirmed by the well-sequenced teacher-centred lessons which were observed on two consecutive days in February 2014. The FAL lessons were scheduled at 8 am in the school timetable for all the Grade 2 classes. Anne started both lessons in the same systematic manner: peer guided reading (during registration time), then she started the lesson with an ice breaking activity, followed by big book reading (teacher guided) which involves learners identifying the pictures through the teachers' talk (predominantly using the questioning techniques), then phonics, spelling session and lastly, the learners' activity and sometimes homework, as evidenced in lesson 1. When asked about this sequencing of the lessons during the last interview in October 2015, Anne said: *"it is recommended [by CAPS] and I think it is a good one, because that is the way we can be able to assess the children and get them doing the activities".*

This means that at the time of enrolment with the ACT programme, Anne's sequenced lessons regarding lesson planning, preparation and teaching of EFAL were informed by the school curriculum and subsequently, the DBE workshops, as highlighted in her biographical data. Anne then creatively reconstructed this theoretical knowledge through constant reflection and

enactment and generated well-sequenced lessons which she argued 'works in her case' or leads to effective teaching.

Anne used a formal approach to teach phonics/sounds as per the theme given by the CAPS documents. During the shared reading lesson she simultaneously wrote these sounds on the chalkboard for the learners to re-read and spelt out the sounds and the words. As noted in lesson 1 and 2, the learners chanted every new word or sentence three times after the teacher, a technique that she acquired from a colleague in the school context. She had acquired this practical knowledge informally, reflected and enacted the technique in her classroom.

Although she maintained a similar sequence in the lesson, the subsequent interviews, video recorded lessons and field notes data, all indicated a shift in Anne's perceptions of an ideal FAL lesson, the roles of a teacher and the learners. She seemed to have realised that a well-planned lesson can sometimes have several detours and acknowledged at the end of her learning that, *"Everybody [learner] must be active and as a teacher, you are not here to tell them, we expect them to say what they know and then you [teacher] just correct them in a positive way".*

This shows a change in her beliefs about learning. Earlier in 2014, she said that learners must listen, respect and respond to the teacher's commands.

During the teacher learning period, as observed in the subsequent video recorded lessons in August 2014, Anne modified her teaching methodologies to 'season' the well sequenced lessons. She described *"teaching is an art"* and felt it was her duty as a teacher to keep revising her methodologies in order to effectively meet the demands of every lesson. She added,

"The ACT programme encourages the FP teachers to teach new words in a new way.'

She clearly explained what she learnt from the programme about teaching phonics and new vocabulary.

"First, let the children learn the sound and the words of the day if they do not know them already, then introduce the new words to the learners before they encounter it [them] in a sentence and lastly, involve the learners actively to gauge if they understand the meaning of the word."

This practice was observed during lesson 3 which was taught seven months after she enrolled for the ACT programme. An extract of this lesson is presented below.

Date: 26-08-2014   **Topic:** Adjectives   **Duration:** 40 minutes   **Class: 2A**

Episode 1

The day started with the teachers' registration duties, while the class read loudly from the big book *Tummy Ache*, led by their peer for 2 minutes. The learners seemed not to comprehend what they were reading but were recalling a prior reading of the same story. Teacher recapped the previous lesson by asking the learners to define the word *noun:*

L: *action words (class shouted NO!)*
L2, L3, L4*: Names of a person, name of a place and name of things* (respectively)
T*:* very good answers. Today we are going to learn about adjectives

Episode 2

The teacher introduced adjective as the topic of the day and pasted a chart with incomplete sentences on the chalkboard. They read the title Adjective and the teacher stressed that an adjective describes a noun. Individuals were asked to make sentences using adjectives. In an orderly manner, they quickly constructed sentences such as: *I have a big leg, A terrible tiger, I have a white cat etc.* The teacher was impressed by one learner who recalled a sentence from a story done the previous term.

Figure 7.5: Extract which was used earlier from lesson 3 observed on 26-08- 2014

In this particular lesson, Anne did not use the formal sequence of starting with phonics, but rather started with the learners' prior knowledge in relation to the day's lesson. In this lesson, Anne was also using a variety of learners' activities and continuously creating opportunities for interactive learning. For instance, in episode 2, she used a chart and chalkboard to explain and gave examples of adjectives. In episode 3, individuals orally identified the adjectives and completed the sentences on the chart provided. The lesson ended with episode 4, where learners completed the sentences with the correct adjectives in their note books, guided by the teachers.

The teacher monitored the writing session, marked some work and helped the struggling learners. These aspects had not been reinforced during lesson 1 observed in February 2014. Thus, her practical skills and values about the teachers' roles had shifted through the process of reflection on the emergent literacy concepts and reading approaches (coded R1). She engaged learners more actively in class (coded E3, E4, and R5) and used interactive methods/resources (process links E3, R6). She reflected on the new methods, as well as the outcome of the teaching (R8).

In the last interview, after 18 months of learning from the ACT programme, Anne praised the programme for transforming her practical skills. She claimed to have learnt new techniques of

blending teachers' talk with the reading materials such as big book, basal readers, flash cards and the designing of visuals (pictures/charts). She had this to say, *"The tutors told us to use large, visible posters or charts to all learners with bright colours for teaching at FP",* which she found to be profitable to her classroom, as observed during lesson 5, episode 1 below.

Date: 21-10-2015   **Topic:** Guided reading   **Duration:** 38 minutes   **Class:** 2A
Episode 1
The lesson started with children standing up and singing: *Head, shoulders, knees and toes.* After settling down, the teacher reminded the learners that the lesson was a continuation of the previous lesson. In a chorus, the learners read the title of the big book - *The Gingerbread Man.* The teacher took the learners through the front page (see the picture) of the big book as follows:
T: *What do you see in this picture?*
L: *I can see the Gingerbread man*
T: *Ok, what do you think he is doing?*
L: *I can see the Gingerbread Man running*
T: *Yes, the Gingerbread Man is running*
T: *Do you know oven?*
L:(In a chorus) *Yes*
T: *Where do we find oven?*
L: *In the kitchen*
T: *Where in the kitchen?*
L: *Uum. Is where you have a big space and it's big.*
T: *Ok, oven is found in the stove. Do you have a stove at home?*
L: (in a chorus) *Yes.*
T: *Let us look at the other pictures in this book and then you tell me what is happening.*

Figure 7.6: Excerpt from lesson 5 observed on 21-10-2015

In this episode, the learners repeated most of the concepts as the teacher explained how the Gingerbread Man was not a real person, but a biscuit baked in the oven by the hungry little woman. She explained the concepts, by starting from the learners' prior knowledge to the new knowledge. Anne's perspective on how to teach had changed after seven months of learning from the ACT programme. She reflected on the propositional knowledge offered by the programme and changed her beliefs and values about the ideal lesson and the roles of the teacher and the learners as had been observed in lesson 1. This influenced the way she planned, prepared and enacted lesson 3 and 4, as well as lesson 5 and 6, which were video-recorded in August 2014 and October 2015 respectively. These lessons had more learners' activities, and the learners asked questions more freely, as demonstrated in lesson1, episode 4 or lesson 2, episode 2.

Anne started to use group work more confidently (practical knowledge was enacted in the domain of practice), enabling the learners to participate in the lesson, but at different levels. She explained excitedly during interview 3 in August 2014:

Now group work is useful to me, because as I group them, I group them through their abilities sometimes, so while I'm still with the other group, I know there is someone in the group who can be able to help those who have, find difficulties somewhere.

During the lesson 5 and 6 video-recording in October 2015, Anne explicitly used the questioning technique to probe the learners' prior knowledge. This implies that the teaching strategies such as the questioning techniques, the group work and the use of posters or charts (as highlighted above), was modelled by the ACT programme and had expanded her practical knowledge schema. Through the process of enactment, Anne started to address specific questions to the whole class and reflected more on the learners' feedback, as shown from lesson 5, episode 5 below.

T: What did you notice in all these words?

L1: (the smartest learner*) I noticed all these words end with AKE.*

L2: No they did not have AKE

T: *Thabiso does not agree with Ayanda. What do you notice in all these words?*

L1: (No response from the class*) I want to make sentence*

T: *Ok, all these words end with AKE* (repeated pointing at the *AKE* sound in each word)

Figure 7.7: Excerpt from lesson 5 observed on 21-10-2015

In the above dialogue with the learners in October 2015, Anne engaged the learners more explicitly in order to take them from what they knew, to the unknown concepts. Although she did not give L1 a second chance to make a sentence (perhaps she interpreted it as a distraction and used her professional judgement and ignored the learner), this particular lesson was different from the two lessons observed in February 2014, where Anne concentrated more on individual corrections and discipline, as illustrated in lesson 1 episode 4 or the extract below:

T: Hey, it is pulling a snake? This is not a snake, this is called a worm. Right! (Distraction in class). Early in the morning! What are you doing? (Referring to a learner). Let's continue by reading the sentence below the picture

ALL: (read twice) Mother bird found a worm (From lesson 2 episode 2).

Figure 7.8: Extract from lesson 2 observed on 06-02-2014

The teacher learning programme seems to have contributed towards Anne's practical knowledge through reflection on how to use the questioning technique, repetition, effective ways of responding to learners' errors, learners' prior knowledge and her literacy knowledge

and values (process links R1, R5). These tasks or activities were then used in class (process links E3, E4 in Figure 7.8). Thus, she had the opportunity to closely observe learners in their authentic learning context (process link R6) and reflect on the salient outcomes of the new methodologies (process links E7, R8, R9) respectively. So, through reflection of the old strategies and implementing the new ways from the ACT programme, this teacher was able to transform the well-sequenced lessons (practices) by incorporating new ideas from her learning and understanding.

Anne also realised that shared individual and guided reading strategies, which are recommended by the CAPS documents, could be linked and reconstructed with a number of proactive learning activities and teaching aids. To prove her point, I observed that Anne had tremendously enriched most of the lesson routines such as the use of sight words and contextual objects and designed more colourful charts and short sentences and stories, as compared to lesson 1 and 2. For example, in lesson 4 (a continuation of lesson 3) the teacher designed a short, well written story for the guided reading. Pasted on the chalk board, the guided reading was more explicit and encouraged learners to read individually in episode 2. The next extract describes episode 3 of this lesson:

The learners worked in pairs and cut out each of the words as follows *Pam, teddy bear, very special, has* and *a*. The cutting was done one word at a time, with the teacher's step by step instruction. Learners were encouraged to work in turn and help each other as the teacher moved around monitoring the task. They made noise, scrambled for the scissors and decided who would cut the word first, etc. Every time a pair finished they shouted 'Bingo'. They were asked to put the sentence back together and then read their new created sentence together.

For the next activity, the teacher recited:

If you are happy put your hands <u>under</u> the table. If you are happy and know it, put your hands <u>over</u> your head. And if you are happy and know it, clap your hands. Learners stopped talking and focused on the teachers' instructions, they did the actions quickly and the teacher moved to the next episode. This episode took 15 minutes.

Figure 7.9: Except from lesson 4 observed on 26-08-2014

This lesson is an example of how Anne began incorporating interactive tasks and used teaching aids or "tool kits" created in their contexts to modify the thematically sequenced lessons. This supports one of the principles of acquiring FAL, which teachers are encouraged to embrace, which is to motivate, praise the learners and make learning fun (coded R1, E4, R5, E7, R9). This finding supports Bertram and Christiansen (2012) argument that a teacher who draws from propositional and practical knowledge is able to sustain effective teaching. In such a situation,

the two domains of teacher knowledge are integrated and cannot be separated because the teachers acquire the decontextualised theoretical concepts, which then inform the practical knowledge (Winch, 2013a).

Propositional and practical domains of knowledge are usually acquired from formal and informal activities, by individual teachers who then transform this knowledge in different ways (E. Wilson & Demetriou, 2007). To teach EFAL, prior to her enrolment for the ACT programme, Anne mainly drew from knowledge and skills stipulated in the CAPS documents for the FP. CAPS expects teachers to teach phonics and reading, speaking and listening, as well as writing, in all schools teaching EFAL (Department of Basic Education, 2011). Anne claimed to be familiar with these areas of teaching literacy, during the first and second interviews in 2014. She also used appropriate reading strategies as observed in lesson 3 (figure 7.11), but she was not familiar with the terminologies used to describe the reading theories, which were taught in Module 4 and reinforced in Module 6.

When asked about the strategies for teaching these skills of English literacy, she said,

"a teacher should constantly keep changing the different reading strategies stipulated in the school curriculum to help learners read fluently".

When asked to describe the different strategies used to teach reading again during the last interview in October 2015, she gave a detailed account of the reading strategies recommended by CAPs more confidently than she did in 2014. However, she still seemed confused by the terminologies used to describe the reading theories (approaches) of reading:

> ***Interviewer:*** *Yes… What do you mean by whole language approach?*
> ***Anne:*** *[where] whole class is going to, is learning a new concept*

From the above conversation, Anne seemed not to understand the concept 'whole language approach' or distinguish the three reading theories emphasised in Modules 4 and 6. Although she used these approaches as evidenced during the lessons, she was not able to describe the principle of using 'whole word' when teaching new vocabulary in EFAL. Anne did not explicitly understand the conceptual knowledge about reading theories in the module, which would enable her to develop her own practical knowledge for teaching reading in a way which is accessible to the learners who were isiZulu speakers. In this case, Anne was not able to

articulate the propositional knowledge about the reading theories. As a result, her practice was coded a peripheral change with process links R1, E4, R5.

During the February 2014 interview, Anne expressed some challenges experienced when teaching English as a FAL. First, all her learners are mother-tongue isiZulu speakers and for the majority of them, English is only introduced and spoken at school. This situation creates a language barrier according to Anne. Secondly, she argued that the sound structure in the two languages were different: *For instance, "ca" for CAT in English is different in isiZulu language, where the sound is represented by "tsa". In other cases, if the learners do not understand how to put the words in English, they automatically switch to isiZulu.*

Anne was aware of the main concepts of emergent literacy and the concept of the language structure of the two languages before enrolling for the ACT programme. According to Module 4 (pp 5-6), emergent literacy is grounded on the principle that children's literacy development is a lifelong process which starts in the home environment of the child (before formal schooling). During the same interview, Anne confirmed her knowledge of emergent literacy by saying *"we [teachers] expect them to say what they know and then you [the teacher] just correct them in a positive way"*.

This implies that children's literacy development process needs appropriate support systems from the teacher, school and the learners' different environments (Hill & Khuboni, 2013). Anne seemed to understand, even before she started learning from the programme, that literacy development is a lifelong process and that learners come to school with prior knowledge. She expressed the following: *"The teachers' role is to innovate learning activities that build or boost the children's language and using questioning technique enables me to know how much information they know"*.

This was observed in lessons 3 - 6 and, in terms of teacher change about teaching techniques, she was coded on Table 7.4 since she reflected on and enacted (process links R1, E3) the main concepts of emergent literacy and in practice, engaged more with learners' prior knowledge, continuously reflecting and probing learners (mediating process links E4, R5, R6) who engaged actively during the lessons (mediating process link E7).

In the same vein, Anne's knowledge about the principles of bilingualism where the FP teacher is expected to develop both the HL and FAL to enhance effective learning of the second language, is questionable. She did not apply the principles of bilingualism as stipulated in

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Module 6 (p. 2) that "bilingualism is an asset or advantage and should be encouraged". Although it is uncommon for both languages to be perfectly balanced in a lesson, Anne did not try to create a balance. She occasionally used isiZulu to clarify concepts for the learners but did not allow them to code switch during the learning process, as noted during the observed lesson 1, episode 4 when one learner tried to give a feedback in isiZulu:

> The teacher read each of the given sentences one after the other and the learners repeated in a chorus. Then she engaged the learners to search actively for the verbs. An example of the conversation for **each** of the 9 sentences is as follows:
>
> T: (referring to the first sentence) *In this sentence which one is the verb?*
>
> L1: *Mother Bird*
>
> T: (surprised) *Mother Bird is a verb??!!! You can't even differentiate between a noun and a verb umh! A noun is a name of a person or things which we did last week, today we are doing verbs, right?*
>
> L2: Umdokwe (soft *Porridge)*
>
> T: (disappointed,) *Answer in English! Porridge is a verb??*
>
> ALL: (Chorus) *No!*
>
> T: *No, porridge is not a verb, who can try again.*

Figure 7.10: Except from lesson 1 observed on 04-02-2014

Anne promptly reminded the learners to respond by giving feedback in English in all the observed lessons, as noted in the field notes recorded during lesson 4 and 5. This was later clarified by Anne that, it is a school policy to improve the English oral proficiency among the isiZulu speakers who use English as the LoLT. So Anne's knowledge of the principles of bilingualism did not change or she knew the propositional knowledge, but did not use it in her teaching practice because of the school policy. In this case, the school context and policy carried more weight than the propositional knowledge learnt from the module.

At the time of enrolment for the ACT programme, Anne described,*' 'learners with illegible and poor handwritings also [having] difficulties in reading…. it is difficult to monitor what such learners are doing in class at all times''.*

In a frustrated voice, Anne continued to say that such learners make an effort to grasp something from the lesson when the teacher pays individualised attention, but switch to unrelated tasks or gets easily distracted or noisy, leading to discipline problems when the teacher proceeds to another group or learner. In addition, she lamented how teaching the naughty learners is difficult without corporal punishment in schools (which is illegal in South

African schools). She is forced to include a little spanking or talks harshly to the noise makers and those who lack concentration or are easily distracted from their tasks as observed in the lesson 1 video-clip.

Lesson 1: Episode 4

The class was noisy and for the teacher to get their attention, she made them recite a poem and then reviewed the previous lesson on verbs and praised the learner who defined a verb correctly. This was followed by a round of applause from the rest of the class. She directed them to a chart pasted on the chalkboard for another reading session in search for verbs. The teacher read each of the above sentence one after the other and the learners repeated after her loudly, then she engaged the learners actively in search of the verbs. An example of the conversation for each of the 9 sentences is as follows:

T: (referring to the first sentence) *In this sentence, which one is the verb*

L1: *Mother Bird*
T: (surprised) *Mother Bird is a verb??!!! You can't even differentiate between a noun and a verb umh! A noun is a name of a person or things which we did last week, today we are doing verbs, right?*
L2: *Porridge*
T: (disappointed) *porridge is a verb??* ALL: (Chorus) *No!*
T: *No, porridge is not a verb, who can try again*

Figure 7.11: Except from lesson 1 observed on 04-02-2014

When asked what she had learnt about the classroom management skills in the October 2015 interview, she said, "*I didn't know that, when others [learners] are finished doing their work, they must do something, so they won't disturb others, but now I know that I must have something for those who are fast, so I think I have improved on that part.*"

This particular change was observed in lesson 6, as learners who completed their tasks early, without being reminded, excitedly moved to the discussion corner to play with the displayed toys and games and others engaged themselves in individual reading or activities of their own choice as the teachers continued to help the weak learners or marked their work. I also realised the classroom's designed discussion corner had been improved with new decorations, clean mat, more toys, games, magazines and reading books. The photograph below (page 199) shows four learners who had completed their task early at the discussion corner on the mat.

Figure 7.12: Photograph of learners taken during Lesson 6 on 22-10-2015

Therefore Anne's classroom activities were not only as a result of enacting the propositional knowledge, but in this particular case, she reflected on the classroom management principles (coded as process link R1), then enacted the new knowledge by upgrading the decorations and displays, and then actively engaged the learners at the mat (Coded E3 and E4). When asked about the visible changes on the small classroom library at the back of the classroom in October 2015, Anne proudly said, *"The purpose of my library corner in my class is for those who are faster. After they have finished doing their activities, I ask them to go and play at the corner or pick a book to read from the library corner"*.

Figure 7.13: Photograph of the classroom library taken on 22-10-2015

She transformed the classroom environment after reflecting on the importance of enriching the classroom with a variety of readers' books to enhance effective learning (Coded E4 and R5). The classroom library was neat, colourful and decorated with more books displayed, as compared to February 2014, when the classroom library had only a few worksheets and few basal readers. Through her own initiative, she actively engaged with the new content knowledge and skills on *the basic dimensions of an effective environment, as* stipulated in Module 4 (pp 92-110). One of the desirable outcomes of using discussion corners and classroom libraries at the FP is to enhance effective classroom management skills (Hill, 2010). Anne reflected on these desired outcomes and encouraged learners to bring their own reading books and to make use of the facilities (coded R6, E7, R9). As a result, new knowledge was added into the already existing disciplinary schema (Bertram, 2011). For her, improving this area offered learners the opportunity to improve their reading skills and habits and also possibly provided a solution to the discipline challenges she faced as mentioned earlier.

Anne claims to have used different ways of motivating learners even before enrolment for the ACT programme. For instance, learners who responded correctly were rewarded collectively using words of applause, a stamp or a star on the forehead, as observed during the video recording sessions. Learners' incorrect responses were mostly rejected. Nevertheless, changes were noted in August 2014, Anne was more pleasant and praised the learners, as compared to

the previous lessons. The video lessons showed a shift in the way she responded to learners' errors in relation to the principles of teaching FAL to enhance meaningful teaching.

> *... ja, we learnt these methods of motivating learners, like include giving them certificates and involving their caretakers to witness the presentations, displaying their work in class, praising individual and whole class and communicate to learners with respect um..*

During the last video recording in October 2015 (lessons 5 and 6), feedback on learners' assessment was more appreciated and rewarded. *"Every effort put by the learners must be rewarded by the teacher, according to ACT learning",* she established during the interview. Overall, Anne argued that most of the materials learnt from the ACT programme was not new, but it explicitly informed the prior knowledge about classroom management and helped her create new ideas about classroom management. This was presented as process links R1, E3, E4. R5, R6, E7 and R9 on the model. Towards the end of the learning on the ACT programme, Anne still hoped for a mentor who would coach her on how to manage large classes of mixed abilities and with limited resources.

Anne was happy about her classroom displays and saw them as a source of beauty during the first interview in February 2014. Although she did not use them for teaching, they provided easy access for learners to read leisurely, she said. Her displays included a class list, class rules and routines, a timetable, calendar, her own created teaching charts, learners' creative works and different charts and posters in the three area of learning at the FP. These were systematically arranged and clear to the learners and visitors. In 2015, I realised Anne had changed the posters and charts, as initially, most of them were provided by the DBE, but this particular year there were more displays of the learners' work, which she claimed were source of inspiration for her learners. *"They feel proud and great whenever they see their work being used by the teacher, either to explain something to the entire class or just on the display",* she added.

Although the ACT programme did not solve Anne's problems of inadequate resources, managing large classes and learners' difficulties in understanding the complex English language structure, she continuously expressed gratitude about how the programme boosted her critical thinking and reflection on lesson plans, learners' activities and her teaching methods during the last interview. By the end of the programme, Anne realised the teacher's role is complex and integrated *"a mediator and [but also] a scholar, researcher and a life-long*

learner. [With the new knowledge]…. *I think I overcome... [the challenges] because I'm, I'm a good listener and I'm eager to do anything that I will come across".*

The next section provides the findings of the nature of knowledge change which Anne described and also observed (from the selected EFAL lessons) in this section and how the coding was determined.

7.4.1   To what extent does Anne's knowledge reflect a peripheral or core change?

This section describes the nature of knowledge change experienced by Anne during her learning from the ACT programme. The main objective is to validate Anne's story in section 7.4 (above), to answer research question 3. Analysing the description in this manner established Anne's knowledge change as either a peripheral or a core change in relation to the IMTPG. The findings provide the reader with a clear understanding and insights into specific knowledge change, skills and beliefs that Anne experienced within the 18 months of learning from the ACT programme.

According to the IMTPG, a change that occurs from one domain to another is facilitated by either the process of reflection or of enactment. So, to simplify the coding, the reflection (R) and enactment (E) processes of change have numbered arrows to indicate the direction of the mediating processes of knowledge change, according to the model's principles. The nature of the teachers' knowledge change in this study is designated as *a core* or sustainable change or as a *peripheral change* to substitute a *growth network* and *a change of sequence* of the IMPTG.

Table 7. 4 displays the nature of Anne's knowledge change, procedurally explained in section 7.3.

Table 7.4: The nature of Anne's knowledge change through process of reflection (R) and enactment (E)

Domains	Aspects of FAL teacher knowledge domains which changed/not changed within the 18 months	Numbered processes of change (R/ E). See table 2	Nature of change
1.Personal Knowledge	a)Beliefs about the ideal literacy lesson, roles of the teacher and learners.	R1, E3,E4,R6,E7 and R 9	Core
	b)teachers' personal experiences	R1, E2, E3, E4, R5 and R9	Core
2.Propositional Knowledge	a)Theories of emergent literacy	R1,E3,R6 and E7	Peripheral
	b)Principles of bilingualism	None	No change
	c)Reading theories	R1,E4 and R5	Peripheral
3.Practical Knowledge	a)Opportunities and strategies for building vocabulary, oral sentence fluency and writing	R1, E3, E4, R5, R6, E7, R8 and R 9	Core
	b)Classroom management to enhance meaningful teaching & learning	R1,E3, E4, R 5, R6, E7 and R9	Core

According to Table 7.4, Anne achieved core changes in four aspects of teacher knowledge: aspects 1a and 1b (in personal knowledge), aspect 2c (in propositional knowledge), aspects 3a and b in practical knowledge. She showed a peripheral change in two aspects of propositional domain (2a and c). Anne did not attain any change in the principles of bilingualism (2b). She was aware of the bilingualism principles, but did not change the practices since the LoLT in school 1 is English and allowed, in accordance with the DBE policy as discussed in Chapter 3.

Two examples to illustrate Anne's core change in Figure 7.14 and peripheral change EFAL knowledge change in Figure 7.15 are provided to illustrate knowledge change through the processes of reflection and enactment. In the external domain of IMTPG, the source of knowledge *change* is the *ACT programme* (in the rectangle). It is represented as the letter E. In the personal domain (left circle), what changes is the *knowledge and beliefs* represented by the letter K; in the domain of consequence (at the bottom), the change is *any salient outcomes of the new practices,* is represented by the letter S; and lastly, the letter P represents *new practices* which are found in the domain of practice.
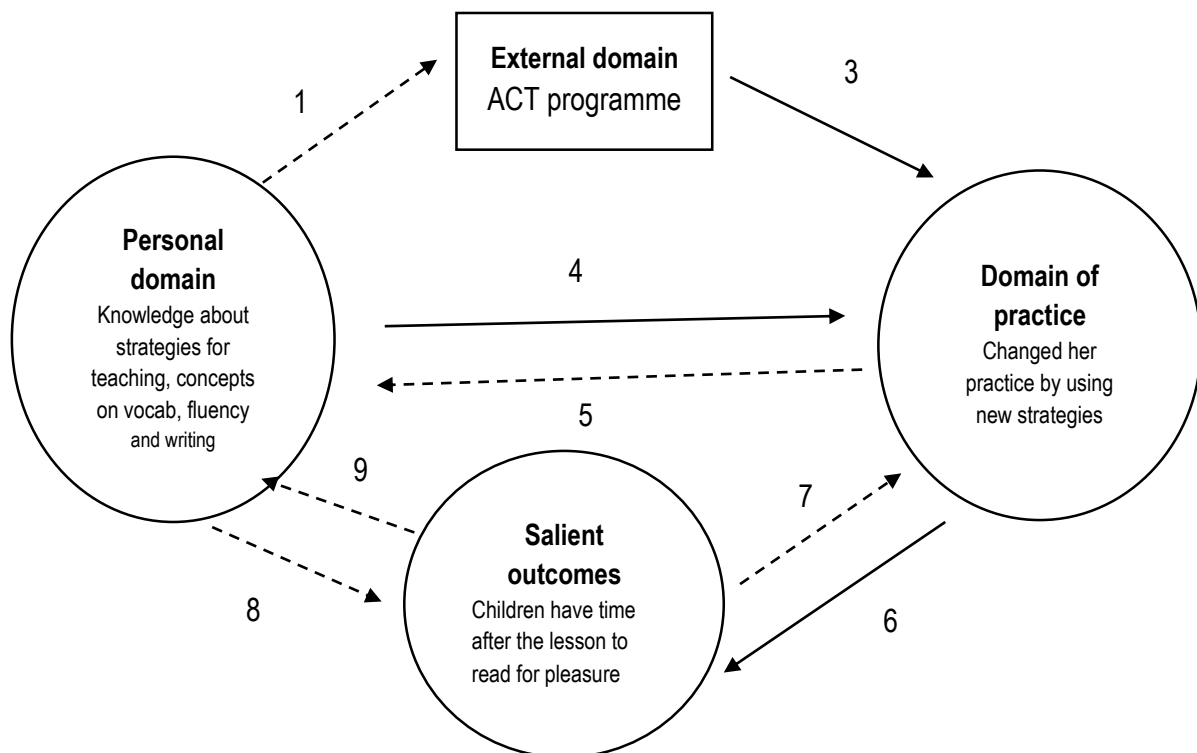
Figure 7.14: Exemplar of Anne's core knowledge change

According to this exemplar, Anne had a total of eight routes of change where she reflected (R1) on the new knowledge from E domain and enacted (E3, E 5 and E7) from her personal knowledge, ACT programme and classroom practices.

Anne's example of a peripheral change is from the reading theories aspect (propositional knowledge), illustrated in Figure 7.15.
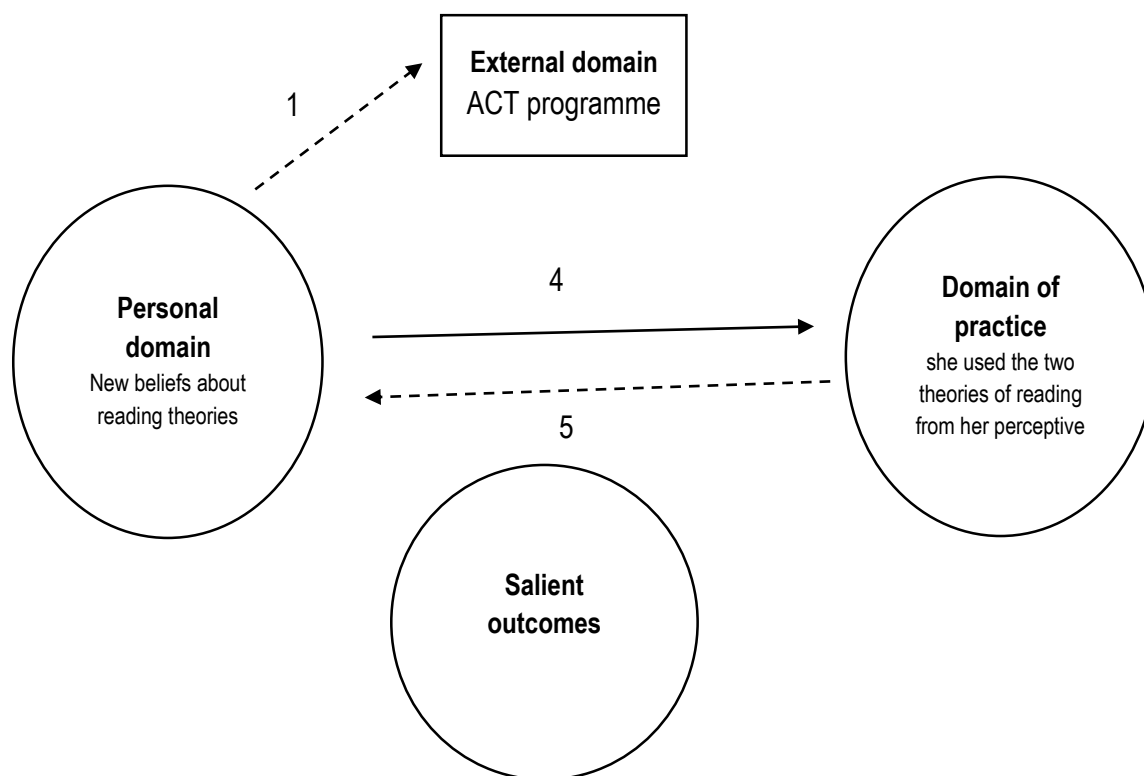
Figure 7.15: Exemplar of Anne's peripheral knowledge change

The second figure, illustrates the simple peripheral knowledge change of reflection (R1) on the reading theories from Domain E, enacting (E4) and reflecting (R5) on her skills and knowledge about reading. The next section presents Lisa knowledge change findings.

7.5 Lisa's story on how her knowledge changed within the 18 months

Lisa attributes her professional development and growth to the different opportunities and learning situations (external stimuli) over time, where she has acquired different kinds of knowledge and skills. This section takes the reader through Lisa's journey of learning from the ACT programme, but also incorporates what she said about her learning experiences from other professional activities. These experiences are not presented as distinct learning involvements,

but rather integrated to give insight into how Lisa's learning from the ACT programme was also influenced by prior and concurrent learning experiences.

Lisa indicated during the first and second interviews in February and August 2014 respectively, that the Soul Action programme, a non-governmental school programme initiated by the Soul Action Christian Ministry, greatly transformed her current teaching strategies. She highlighted how this programme provided the school with teaching resources such as strategy games, balls, flashcards with sight words, phonics-letters, number puzzles, charts and posters, mini-boards plus the accessories for learners - consumables like erasers, pens, crayons, markers and chalks to support teaching of English phonics. The Soul Action programme supporters also visited the teachers and guided them on how to use these resources and modelled strategies such as role play. The modelling experiences were similar to the ACT learning experience on teaching strategies, she claimed during the last interview in October 2015.

Lisa integrated the Soul Action programme resources and knowledge with the knowledge offered by the ACT programme to teach phonics and reflect on the proactive learning activities and specific outcomes of the teaching. According to the IMPTG, this was coded as a core knowledge change with links R1, E4, R5, E6, R7 and R9 on the IMTPG. This Soul Action programme took place concurrently with the ACT programme in 2014. Lisa was one of the four Grade 2 teachers in her school mentored through workshops and classroom visits, where they collaborated and prepared teaching aids using recycled materials to make charts, pictures and toys to facilitate the teaching of vocabulary and phonics. These resources, as mentioned from an informal conversation, helped Lisa through reflection to develop her own toolkit (ACT programme teaching aids) to enhance effective pedagogies and creativity, as observed during lessons 4, 5, and 6.

During the August 2014 interview, Lisa mentioned that she predominantly used the isiZulu language to teach English FAL due to lack of confidence. Lesson delivery was a big challenge and learners did not comprehend the new language, she argued. The Soul Action programme encouraged her to code switch and elaborated the importance of this technique. This relates to the principles of 'additive bilingualism' and 'multilingualism' in teaching literacy, taught in Module 4 and 6 of the ACT programme, as evidenced in this extract:

Children use their home language to support their additional language[s]. For example, if they do not know a word that they need in a sentence, they often use a home language word in its place. For example, 'Thandi wants to wash izitsha [dishes]'. This strategy is called 'code switching'... (Module 4, p. 13)

According to these principles, when children enter formal learning, those who are literate in their HL can easily transfer much of their previous cognitive knowledge of the reading and writing process to the new concepts, or any new additional language (Lenyai, 2011; Mbatha, 2014). Thus, teachers with effective code switching techniques enhance the development of FAL skills at the FP. Learners in Lisa's class were fluent and had mastered the basic phonics in isiZulu (HL), as revealed by the classroom observations and expected to use this knowledge to code English words or simple sentences. Lisa argued that the ACT programme enhanced her code switching knowledge, previously acquired from the Soul Action programme and she gained more confidence in class. The mediating processes were a reflection of the principles of bilingualism and the enactment of the code switching during the lesson to enhance a balance between the HL and FAL. This teacher knowledge change was interpreted as mediating process links R1, E4 and R5.

Before enrolling for the ACT programme, Lisa believed that the main role of a teacher is to teach phonics and boost learners' vocabulary in every FAL lesson. The conversation between the interviewer and Lisa below illustrates the enormous shift of teacher's belief about an ideal literacy lesson, realised at the end of the programme in October 2015.

Lisa: Okay, first of all, hey I wasn't sure of it [ideal lesson] at the beginning of this ACT programme

Interviewer: Yes

Lisa: Until I started doing ACT 7, where ACT 7 emphasises creative play. If I engage the learners in play, I am definitely sure that they will grasp what I want them to learn. [Mediating process links R8 R9]

Interviewer: What else… apart from having information on creative play? What knowledge should she [teacher] know in order to teach effectively?

Lisa: The teacher must know that a lesson without resources becomes vague to the learners. She must use the resources, the teaching aids that would help the learners to understand. (Mediating process links E3, E4, R6)

Interviewer: Yes

Lisa: As the first additional language, we must not just talk English one way, because somewhere, somehow, they would be left behind and get lost, because it's not their language. That is why I've been mixing isiZulu and English. (Mediating process links (R1, E3, E4, R5,).

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Interviewer: Yes, I know that, isiZulu is the medium of communication.

Lisa: Yes.

Interviewer: I realised yesterday you gave learners a very interesting activity according to me. After the teacher talk, you told them to colour their own posters of the beach and your instructions were very clear – that they should create their own posters and not copy yours. Could I assume that you wanted them to have their own knowledge and not copy from your poster?

Lisa: Yes, because I know that they have their existing knowledge. So I was just strengthening that knowledge.

The overall nature of change in the aspects of ideal lesson, role of teachers and learners (personal domain) was a core change with seven mediating process links (R1, E3, E4, R5, R6, R8 and R9). From the above interview, Lisa admits that prior to enrolling for the ACT programme, her beliefs about an ideal lesson were not precise. However, at the end of the programme, she claimed that an ideal literacy lesson is participatory in nature, where the teacher actively involves learners and the use of a variety of teaching resources. In addition, she argued that, a competent teacher uses demonstration techniques, concrete items, in a literacy lesson. These viewpoints were different from what she perceived as an ideal literacy lesson during the first interview in 2014.

Teaching EFAL, according to Lisa, during the first interview in February 2014, was primarily influenced by the current school curriculum (CAPS) and her prior learning from the DBE training workshops. During these workshops, the DBE officials interpreted the CAPS and trained the teachers on how to use the textbooks and learners' workbooks within two half days (12- 5pm per day) of attendance.

When asked about the DBE workbooks during the second interview in August 2014, Lisa was happy with the colourful picture design and focus on phonics. She said that the learners too find them very easy and enjoy the simple activities for both isiZulu and FAL (English). This motivates even the slow learners, unlike the older learners' textbooks purchased from other publishers. In addition, as observed during lesson 3 and 4 in August 2014, the workbooks formed an integral part of reading and spelling lessons to enhance speaking and listening skills. For instance, in lesson 4, Lisa guided the learners to identify the correct words on the stickers and to paste them next to the correct pictures to build their vocabulary. Laughing, she commented later, *"Especially the weak ones enjoy and love to use stickers."*

Although she acknowledged that the DBE workbooks are relevant and at the right level for the learners, Lisa was not content with the DBE decision that the teachers must use these workbooks: "*DBE did not train us on how to use the new workbooks and most of the teachers, especially those who did not come for the ACT programme, are still struggling.*" She lamented that the lack of knowledge and skills on how to use the new textbooks and workbooks to teach the slow learners, manage large classes of mixed abilities and the inadequate basal readers, are a challenge to the teachers. Addressing the issue of large classes of mixed abilities, Lisa claimed it was very challenging to give learners different tasks as stipulated by the ACT programme, while teaching the same theme. In addition, the DBE workbooks do not provide differentiated tasks for all the learners. She continued,

> Even in instances where the CAPS documents indicate differences in levels of understanding, there is little that a teacher can do to correct the situation without failing to give [equal] attention to all the learners.

To solve this dilemma on what do with the weak or slow learners and to give attention to the entire class as one unit, Lisa was of the opinion that slow learners should be assisted through extra work at the end of the day. She thought it was not practical to use different learning activities during a single lesson. Similar ideas were shared by the other two teachers during the first interview in February 2014. Nevertheless, during the last interview in October 2015, she had a different opinion regarding different learning activities. She realised that it is possible to give learners' different tasks according to their abilities. For example, *"a teacher must give the clever ones more challenging work to create time to help the weak ones with the task."*, she highlighted. So, Lisa reflected her own beliefs, experiences and conceptual knowledge from the ACT programme, on learners' tasks and regulative relations, but was not observed using the techniques in practice. This personal aspect was coded at reflection level with mediating process link R1 and R5 in respect to the IMTPG.

When asked about the knowledge she had acquired about reading theories or approaches, Lisa claimed one of the notable difference made in her practice was as a result of the explicit knowledge she acquired about the use of the *whole word approach* instead of *phonics approach* when learning vowel sounds.

> I used to start my lessons with sounds, but I know now I must also use the "word". When we teach words, we must segment the word to b-u-s and then the complete word is bus and if the learner knows how to segment the word into the sounds and then he must learn the word itself.

Lisa's new knowledge on how to link or use phonics and the whole word approach to boost learners' vocabulary in FAL lesson was commendable. She gave a good illustration of how a teacher should use the phonics and whole word approach to build learners' vocabulary, but she did not seem familiar with the terminology *whole word approach* or *balanced approach.* She expressed it in October 2015 as *"...and name it [word] the bus, then he knows how he will use it in the sentence. Then that's the sentence approach. Those are some of the approaches that I learned".*

It was interesting that Lisa, just like Anne, seemed not to have remembered the terminology of the reading approaches from any of the learning experiences, although practically, adopted a balanced approach to reading. Lisa demonstrated the use of balanced approach during lesson 4 and 5 in August 2014 and October 2015 respectively (process links E3, E4 and R5). This enhances the effective acquisition of reading skills among mixed abilities learners. In addition, children who are fluent in their HL have a significant vocabulary at Grade 2. As a result, they do not need to re-learn sound-spelling relationships all over again in English, but rather learn how to integrate meaning as they read and write in their HL or FAL (Department of Basic Education, 2011).

Lisa claimed to use choral or guided reading or individual reading lessons twice a week after four sessions of phonics during the August 2014 interview. Individual reading is mainly for assessment purposes and marks are awarded on their reading performance. Once she identifies those with challenges, she gives them more attention and peer reading is encouraged in the class, she added. During the last interview in 2015, Lisa's conceptual understanding of how to integrate various reading strategies, such as guided/group reading, individual/ independent reading, and individual reading using a balanced approach to reading, was enhanced by the ACT programme. She learnt from the ACT programme that this integration enhances the learning of new words and gives learners confidence and fluency in reading.

Lisa was observed in lesson 4 while teaching new vocabulary using the 'word attack skills', where she combined the 'five finger' strategy using a flash card with the whole word approach, comprehension technique, read loud and guided reading, as illustrated in Module 4 (pp. 25-26). She had achieved a core change in the practical domain through mediating process links E3, E4, R5, R6 and E7. Although she was familiar with and used the practical techniques, the

conceptual terminologies such as whole word approach and balanced approach seemed difficult to remember during the last interview in October 2015. At the beginning of the ACT programme, Lisa argued that the teaching of phonics, spelling and development of oral skills took precedence in the Grade 2 school curriculum. She said:

> Ja, for now, they cannot construct sentences, for now, as we just focus on spelling of words, so the other rules of the language structure, language use, I don't think we can be able to do that, but at least they will be getting the foundation."

In addition, she said, CAPs documents recommend 15 minutes for writing tasks, where learners are expected to write new vocabulary, complete short sentences, draw or colour (especially the weaker learners) and join dotted lines for mathematics lessons. Specific writing content of a list of learnt words, copies of captions to match pictures and completing short sentences are outlined (Department of Basic Education, 2011, p. 47). The pacing of these writing activities are very specific with a suggested contact time with the learners of 30 minutes per week. Contact time remains the same but the level of content increases to writing short sentences and to using children dictionaries to build up vocabulary (DBE, 2011, p. 57).

During the August interview 2014, Lisa had changed her views about teaching and learning reading and writing:

> Learner must be able to know the meaning of the word, like he must be able to draw. If the learner can draw what the word means, then the learner can be able to use it now in a sentence, because by drawing he knows what the meaning of the word is. If we are talking about the bus and the learner draws the dog, then he does not know the meaning. About feedback, I learned that, if it happens that the learner cannot write, then we were given the strategies and methods of how to help that learner. If the learner has drawn the picture, I must let her tell me what it [the picture] is about. If what he wrote, doesn't correspond with what he is telling me, then I must help him or her to write the correct thing, by writing [modelling]. If there is a picture, I must ask him "what were you trying to say here?''

Lisa seemed to understand how drawing and/or writing facilitates acquisition of EFAL, as compared to her understanding in February 2014, at the beginning of the ACT course. Lisa created more opportunities or strategies to enhance writing, as observed during lesson 5 and 6 in October 2015 and changed her practical knowledge and personal beliefs through the

reflection of the new knowledge mediating (coded as R1 and R5) on how to use integrated approaches when teaching comprehension and writing.

During the August interview in 2014, she articulated how the stipulated DBE textbooks and workbooks can be used in a more meaningful manner. She combined the knowledge on how to use visuals as teaching aids from the teachers' guidebook, the DBE textbooks/workbooks, proactive teaching strategies acquired from the ACT programme and the Soul Action programme. A good illustration of this initiative was observed in October 2015, where the learners enjoyed and actively engaged in this particular episode of lesson 6. During this lesson, Lisa taught using familiar concepts proceeding to new knowledge. She claimed to have acquired the technique from the three external stimuli, namely the ACT programme, the DBE and the Soul Action programme.

For instance, in Module 4 (learners' activities in unit 2 and 4), the student teachers were expected to design large visible posters and charts with colourful pictures and flashcards and, guided by the CAPS themes, to use integrated approaches to teach. The creation of mathematics and literacy toolkits modelled on the teachers' contexts were to encourage the teachers to innovatively try to handle contextual challenges such as the inadequate teaching aids from the DBE to enhance effective teaching. Lisa demonstrated this practical knowledge acquired by integrating resources such as sight words from the flash cards, learners' feedback on the chalkboard, and colourful pictures, posters and textbooks, during this particular lesson.

It was also observed during lesson 3 that Lisa used the phonics approach to build vocabulary using the flash cards given by the Soul Action programme: *Ja, these are the letters that we started with and I just copied the pictures, then write the names [words]*. This meant Lisa was able to combine the theoretical and practical knowledge from Soul Action and the ACT programme about teaching phonics and developing teaching aids to create her own charts (teaching resources) which she used effectively. This is an illustration of how a teacher with conceptual knowledge is able to construct her own knowledge through reflection and enactment of the concepts modelled. When asked how the ACT programme supported the use of the DBE workbooks and the stipulated reading strategies, Lisa excitedly replied,

> there is shared reading in our [learners] textbooks, so the other books that we bought, we use them for independent and individual reading and the reading for enjoyment. Also this new uhm… Programme for Improving Learning

Outcomes [PILO] they supply us with material, they give us the posters, they give us the books…I've got them here [going over to books]. They give us English and Zulu. (Interview in Oct 2015, p17).

From this interview, Lisa's knowledge about reading strategies was primarily from the Department of Education (DoE) initiatives in the province and the school curriculum, but not from the ACT programme per se. However, because the scope of this study does not explore other external stimuli of teacher learning, I did not probe Lisa further on this issue to ascertain the extent which the Programme to Improve Learning Outcomes (PILO) or any other source may have influenced her knowledge changes, whose evidence was not available in the classroom. PILO is one of the many Provincial DoE initiatives in South Africa, which support schools' management teams and teachers (Metcalfe, 2014).

In February 2014, it was noted that Lisa's classroom had posters and charts on mathematics, literacy and life orientation, mainly from the DBE. Learners' seats were arranged in rows of two learners per table. In August 2014, the researcher observed a diverse classroom display of colourful posters, teacher' charts on various themes in the three areas of learning at the FP, learners' creative drawings, classroom rules and a set of basal readers on a small table. The learners' seating arrangement was different: *"the reason why I changed the seating arrangement, so that they can see each other and share things",* Lisa commented. Since the classroom was not designed with a discussion corner or storage facilities, the extra books and other learning resources were neatly arranged on either side of the classroom. This classroom display and arrangement was neat, well organised and diverse, which revealed an enrichment of the classroom environment from what was observed in February 2014.

At the end of the ACT programme in October 2015, Lisa had creatively transformed her classroom environment. More colourful posters, charts and learners' work were displayed in a systematic and impressive manner. For instance, the teachers' desk, displays of teaching aids, learners' textbooks and workbooks were neatly arranged. Lists of routines and classroom rules were also displayed on the walls at the back of the class, while on the left side of the class were an extra table and a chair. The two sides of the walls had the teacher's and learners' creative works, posters, and charts of the three areas of learning from the DBE. When asked about the amazing organisation of the small room with over 44 learners, she proudly pointed to the latest learners' work and said, *"the ACT programme has helped me a lot. Since last year, as you can see that my classroom is print rich, I now use bright charts to improve my teaching and learners*

enjoy them.....learners don't learn from the teacher alone but such visuals and sight words enhance literacy learning".

The learners' colourful works were outcomes of the learners' task from Lesson 5, which I observed. Lisa had managed to display them for this particular day, as observed during lesson 6. She said,

> This also makes the classroom colourful. And they did enjoy, they become happy if they see that you have taken their work and displayed it. You can't just throw it in the bin. So, they can see that it has got value.

It was also noted that the learners' seating arrangement had a different set up from February 2014. Now three tables were grouped together for six learners, to facilitate easier communication among themselves. According to Lisa, the slow, easily distracted or hyperactive learners were allocated the front seats or near the teachers' desk, according to her discretion. To create space on the learners' tables, each child had their blue well-tailored book-bags as 'lumbar support cushions' on their little chairs. Lisa had initiated and tailored blue book-bags for the 44 learners in her class, based on the Deputy Principal's instruction. When asked about this innovative action, Lisa said that she decided to tailor these book-bags due to the big challenge they experienced with the learners, as a result of their classroom being used as a church room on Sundays. The church members would misplace the learners' books, chairs and tables. Monday mornings were terrible for the learners. *"Now, with the well labelled blue book bags, the problem is less"* she commented.

Since Lisa did not have a discussion corner or enough space for displays or storage, she acquired practical knowledge and skills on how to manage the small classroom in a meaningful way. In the last interview in October 2015, Lisa concluded, *"the two programmes [Soul Action and ACT] have taught me how to handle some contextual challenges without involving the school [administration]".* Her neat, organised and print rich environment gave the impression of an innovative and self-motivated teacher who is always ready to go an extra mile to accomplish the daily works in their context. This practical and personal domain changes were interpreted as core (with a complex mediating process links of R1, E3, E4, R5, E6, R7, R8 and R9) on classroom management. Below is a picture of the classroom described.

Figure 7.16: A photo of Classroom 2B: Taken on 20-10-2015 during lunch break

In Feb 2014, Lisa said that her free time was dedicated to reading Christian literature and Bible commentaries twice or three times in a week to enable her to adequately prepare for sermons. By the end of the learning process in October 2015, she acknowledged how the ACT programme had inspired her to read more of the learners' stories for pleasure. As a result, she encouraged learners to bring their own reading materials (both in isiZulu and English). Lisa's beliefs and values about reading for pleasure within the 18 months changed with reflection (R1) and enactment (E3). For instance, she realised the class had exhausted reading the few basal readers available in the classroom and requested the learners turn to magazines and other books to occupy their time. Instead of waiting until the DBE allocates money for these books, most of these materials were ferried from the learners' homes, she said.

By the end of the programme, Lisa symbolised an enthusiastic and hardworking teacher who not only acquired new teaching knowledge, but also got promoted to mentor her colleagues. She expressed gratitude to all those who encouraged her to enrol for the programme and realised that an effective teacher is a life-long learner.

7.5.1   To what extent does Lisa's knowledge reflect a peripheral or core change?

Table 7.5 presents the overall findings on how Lisa demonstrated the processes of reflections and enactments to facilitate change in the three domains of knowledge during the 18 months of learning from the ACT programme. For a clear understanding to the reader, the reflection

(R) and enactment (E) processes of change are numbered as R1, E2 etc., to indicate the specific process experienced in each of the nine domain relationships developed from the IMTPG. The nature of teacher change is described as *a <u>core</u>* or sustainable change or a *<u>peripheral change</u>*. A brief account on the nature of teacher change in IMPTG is presented in section 7.3.

Table 7.5: The nature of Lisa's knowledge change through processes of reflection (R) and enactment (E)

Domains	Aspects of the teachers' domains of knowledge which changed/not changed within the 18 months	Numbered processes of change (R or E)	Nature of change
1.Personal Knowledge	a) Beliefs about the ideal literacy lesson, roles of the teacher and learners.	R1,E3,E4,R5,E6,R8, R9	Core
	b) teachers' personal challenges	R1,E2,E3,E4,R5,E6,R8	Core
2.Propositional Knowledge	a) Theories of emergent literacy	R1,E3,E4,R5,R7,R8	Core
	b) Principles of bilingualism	R1,E3,E4,R5 E6,R8,	Core
	c) Reading theories	R1,E4 E6.R7	Peripheral
3.Practical Knowledge	a) Opportunities and strategies for building vocabulary, oral sentence fluency and writing	R1,E2,E3,E4,R5,E6,R7,R9	Core
	b) Classroom management to enhance meaningful teaching & learning	R1,E3,E4,R5,E6,R7,R8,R9	Core

R1- Reflection process coded in Domain relationship 1 of IMTPG

E4 - Enactment process coded in Domain relation 4 of IMTPG (see Table 7.2)

According to Table 7.5, Lisa made the most complex mediating process relationship links in all aspects of practical and personal domains of knowledge. As a result, Lisa portrayed a core change (6/7) with more than six different mediating processes of reflections and enactments as shown in Table 7.5.

Pictorial representation in Figure 7.17 illustrates the change mediating processes within the aspect of classroom management (3b) in the practical domain which had the most complex mediating process links relationships as detailed on Table 7.5.
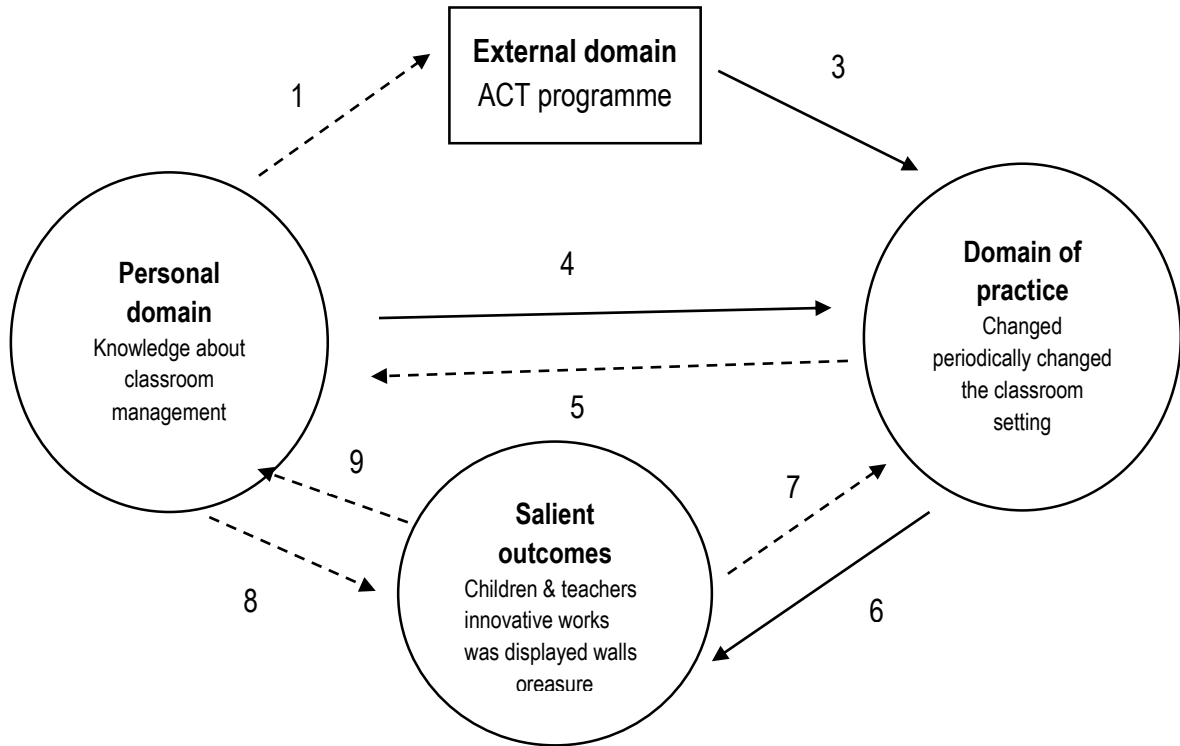
Figure 7.17: Exemplar of Lisa's core knowledge change illustration of classroom management (3b)

A complex growth network was realised in classroom management (3b) represented by several networks of reflection from the personal domain with a reflection to the new knowledge from the ACT programme about classroom management enactment and reflection in the domain of practice and the outcomes of her classroom management skills. See able 7.5 for details.

The next figure illustrates an exemplar of Lisa's peripheral knowledge change experienced in the aspects of reading theories (2C). See Table 7.5 for details. This aspect had three mediating process links as shown on page 217.
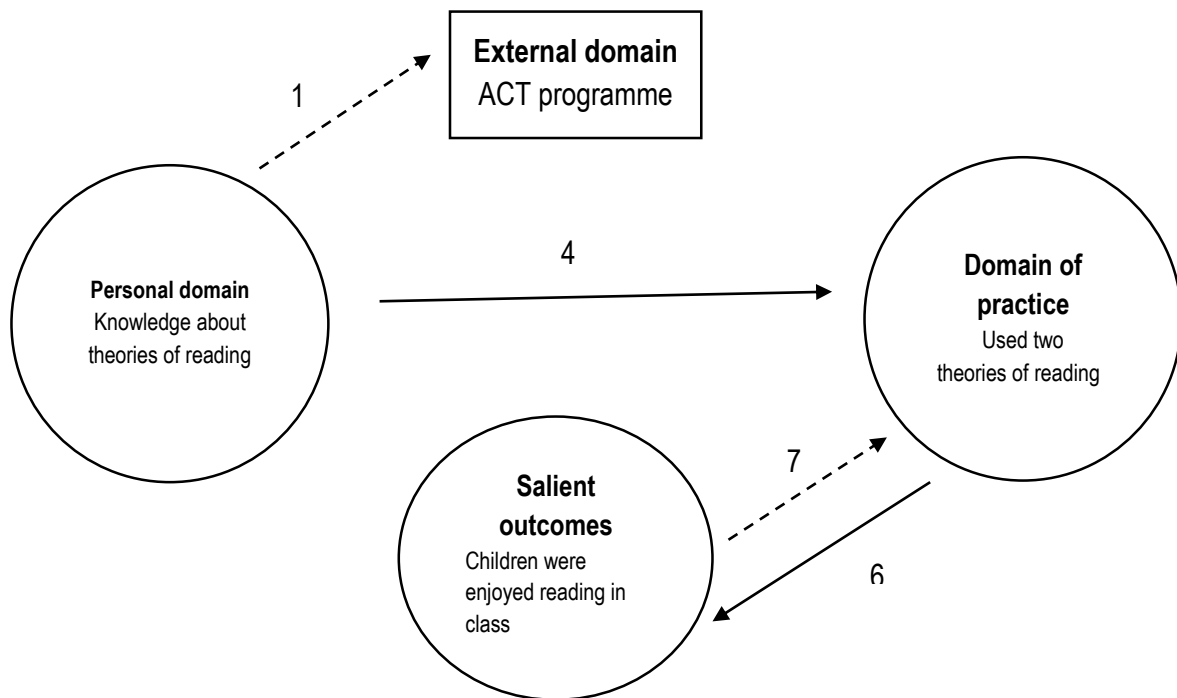
Figure 7.18: Exemplar of Lisa's peripheral knowledge change within the reading theories, propositional knowledge

The only peripheral nature experienced by Lisa was on the theories of reading as shown on the figure with four simple change links labelled R1 where she reflected on the conceptual knowledge about reading from the ACT programme and practiced what she believed worked in her context (E4). She also reflected on important salient outcomes of reading practices (E6 and R7). As mentioned earlier, Lisa seems to have made the strongest change in reaction to IMTPG as compared to Anne and Jane. The next section presents findings on the knowledge change experienced by Jane in school 3.

7.6 Jane's story on how her knowledge changed within the 18 months

During the February 2014 interview, Jane argued that an ideal EFAL lesson takes place when the teacher explains the concepts and gets correct feedback from the learners. In addition, she said that an effective teacher would repeat these concepts for at least 2 - 3 lessons to ensure comprehension. During the third interview in August 2014, Jane mentioned that an effective teacher at the FP should encourage learners and give extra work or personal help to the slow learners at all times. By October 2015, Jane's views were different. She visualised an effective

teacher as a person who guides the learners to discover new knowledge through learner-centred and participatory approaches.

Jane seemed to have reflected on the theoretical knowledge about effective teaching (coded process links R1 and R5) from the ACT programme. On that note, she used the group work strategy and involved all the learners in a discussion about a shared reading and group leaders presented to the class during lesson 2. Most of the groups did not understand the instruction and what to do. Similarly, during the shared reading lesson 3 and 4 in August 2014, the learners seemed to repeat whatever the teachers said without comprehension.

At the beginning of the ACT programme, the two lessons observed in February 2014 had the same sequence. Each started with an ice breaking exercise to enable the learners to change from one area of study and pay attention to the next lesson. This was followed by an introduction, where Jane asked questions based on the text pictures and ensured almost all learners were involved in giving feedback. Lastly, the teacher did the shared/guided reading and wrote some exercises (spelling and new words) on the chalkboard. Jane's reading experiences as a pupil inspired the way she implemented the lessons, as she noted, "*Yes, I read [texts] first and the learners listen, then read after me the same way my teacher did*". The same sequence was observed in August 2014, where reading was more of a chant (see Appendix lesson 4). The learners repeated words or sentences several times after the teacher without understanding. From the video clips, the learners were easily distracted by their peers and did not concentrate on their texts, but looked at the teacher as she read from the teachers' book.

Jane integrated the questioning techniques with demonstration, using tangible everyday objects in three observed lessons (3, 4 and 5) to review the learners' prior knowledge. This also encouraged the learners to respond in English, as evidenced in Episode 1 of lesson 3.

Episode 1

The lesson started with learners reciting a poem. After settling down, the teacher manoeuvred her way to the back of the class and helped the learners to push or rearrange the tables creating reasonable passage between the learners' seats. She picked a box and held it up for all the learners to see and then started a conversation to teach prepositions:

T: What is this?

L: A box

T: Good this is a box. I say 'this' because it is near me, but for you because you are far, you must say 'that' is a box. Now am going to put the pen here. Where is the red pen?

L: The pen is in the box

T: (pauses) She says the pen is in the box. Is she correct? Others say what? Where is the pen? No, the pen is not 'in'.

L: The pen is on the box

T: Good the pen is 'on top' (she emphasised) of the box. The pen is on the box (class repeated and the teacher wrote the word on the chalkboard).2

To demonstrate other prepositions, she placed the pen in the box and used the key question: Where is the pen? Where is the teacher standing? She changed the position of the pen to demonstrate prepositions such as *on, in, behind, in front, between* and *under*. Lastly, she engaged three learners in front of the class to demonstrate the same prepositions *(eg.Sabelo is between Mpho and Amanda).*This kept the learners active and participated in this task.

Figure 7.19: Excerpt from lesson 3 observed on 28-08-2014

This method, she said, was acquired from a colleague but was also supported by the ACT programme. Therefore, Jane reflected on the practical knowledge of demonstration from her school context and gained more practical confidence after learning the same teaching method from the ACT programme. This was coded as having mediating process links R1, E3, E4 and R5. However, she consistently maintained the same lesson sequence during the six observed lessons across the 18 months. Some changes were also noted during the video recording. For instance, during lessons 3 and 4 in August 2014, the repetition of sentences or words was more to emphasise or clarify the teacher's explanations and questions, which targeted the learners' prior knowledge and the context (see lesson 3 episode 1 above). She affirmed the importance of repetition, group work activities, demonstration and the use of artefacts for teaching, during interview 3, in August 2015 and interview 4 in October 2015, in a more comprehensive manner.

During the same interview, Jane claimed that the ACT programme reinforced and clarified most teaching strategies which she knew. For instance,

> If you want to introduce a lesson, you must start with ice- breaking activity to get the attention of the learners. I learnt that I must use large colourful pictures because the young ones learn easily when you use books with pictures, young children learn from pictures.

According to the ACT programme, she added that a teacher must use reading texts with many colourful pictures and give learners tasks to write 2-3 short sentences. A teacher can also use the same pictures to create stories, or the clever learners can write their own sentences using the same resources. Before, she used photocopied pictures from the textbooks due to limited resources and by the end of the ACT programme, her concern was where to get coloured photocopies in the rural area context. This practical and personal knowledge implies teacher knowledge change, with mediating process links R1, E4, R5 and E6.

During the third interview in August 2014, Jane also claimed to have discovered from the ACT programme that apart from using a round of applause, putting stars, stamps and positive remarks on the learners' books after positive feedback, teachers should constantly find ways to motivate the learners. Certificates can also be issued to excellent or improved performance and the teacher can even invite their caretakers to witness the presentations. Similar claims were made by Anne during interview 4 in October 2015. Jane also learnt to correct individual learners' errors in the whole class (who responded collectively) and was, from then on, more watchful of distractive learners who teased their peers for giving incorrect feedback to the teacher, she added. The acquired conceptual knowledge was coded with mediating process links R1 and R5. Jane was then observed during lesson 3 and 4 using the individual and collective approaches in class and thus coded with mediating process links E3 and E4. When asked how the ACT programme contributed to her teaching strategies in October 2015, she had this to say,

> If I see that there are those who didn't co-operate and those who did not understand, the problem I am asking. I changed my style of teaching, maybe I… though the problem is with me heee… So I changed the way of doing it.

 When asked about the use of demonstration and repetition during the lesson, she said,

Yes, it is ok [to imitate a character in a text], because they [learners] say ma'am is now talking about an old person, oh now it is a boy... oh, they [ACT programme] say we use repetition to teach the young ones. You must repeat until they learn something.

Then she concludes, [laughs] *Ok, Yes. I gotten myself something from ACT, I managed to develop my style of teaching, how to [plan] and how to prepare the lesson for the children, how to work with the teams in the school. How to handle the learners who have barriers. They teach us a lot at the programme.*

She also learnt how to write stories, design teaching resources (toolkits) from recycled materials and to use group work more effectively. For instance, as observed during a group work session in lesson 3, Jane was not in a position to monitor the different groups because of lack of space between the learner's tables as she would have liked and this disappointed her very much. Although Jane was observed using sight words and writing on the chalkboard, there was very little evidence to show the sustainability or change of this knowledge within the period of her learning (process links R1, R3, E4 and R 5).

Before enrolling for the ACT programme, Jane predominantly used isiZulu (HL) to teach the FAL and learners responded in isiZulu during FAL lessons. As reported by Jane, *"Because the learners' mother tongue is isiZulu, there is need for translating the English into isiZulu so as to connect with them and to explain to them properly. This then takes long."* This related to the FAL principles which indicate that both HL and FAL should be fully developed at the FP. The teacher and the learners should code-switch to enhance meaningful communication to nurture bilingualism in the South African context (Module 6, pp. 34-36). However, this approach had its own challenges, as observed in August 2014 and October 2015, during the reading lessons. Jane used probing questions in both languages to understand the learners' prior knowledge, but seemed to struggle with verbal English. However, her code switching had slightly improved at the end of the learning programme. So Jane reflected on the principles of bilingualism (R1) and enacted the code switching during the lesson (E3) and thus, was a peripheral change of propositional knowledge realised.

Jane knew the English literacy skills stipulated in the CAPS, teaching of: speaking and listening; reading and phonics; handwriting and writing, just like the other participants. She was also familiar with the reading approaches, but was not able to define or explain these approaches. According to Jane, during the last interview in 2015, *"Kids tend to comprehend*

when a teacher uses both approaches. In Module 4, we learnt phonics what… want we get them to pick the phonic from and how to sequence to the words. And how to do the sentences again. Those we have learnt in the modules.

Jane claimed to use different strategies of reading such as shared reading, individual reading, peer guided reading and group reading in February 2014. She preferred group reading, especially for isiZulu literacy lessons because collective reading made reading enjoyable and popular among the learners. As observed in lesson 5 in 2015, individual reading in this class is noisy, every child tried to read louder to surpass their peers. Some learners seemed to chant, looking at the pictures without comprehending as the teacher moved around monitoring the loud individual reading.

Jane claimed to have acquired reading strategies knowledge from the *Jika iMfundo* programme which she attended in early February 2014. The pilot programme of the *Jika iMfundo* initiative in 2014 was the latest in a long list of previous intervention programmes launched by the KwaZulu-Natal DoE and the PILO. According to the Daily News of 2 September 2014, the intervention aims to support school management teams to lead learning and support teachers in covering the curriculum, especially in rural or township schools in the uThungulu and Pinetown districts. Jane did not attend the second and third workshops in the second and third term as stipulated by the DoE. Since this practical and personal knowledge change was from different external stimuli, the mediating process links were E4 and R5.

Grade 2C had 54 and 53 learners in 2014 and 2015 respectively, in one room with no inbuilt space discussion, class library or storage facilities. As a result, the room was congested with learners seated in groups with small spaces in between the desks during the two phases that I visited the school. When asked about seating arrangement, Jane had the following to say:

> I don't have enough space to move around, when teaching reading there's not enough space. The classroom is small and many…yes I can't do the individual attention to move around. I must, if I want to do an individual attention, I must take them outside or I must move desks, so as to come forward and be around my table.

In October, the learners were seated in rows, which is a DBE requirement during the ANA examination period. In addition, she said, "*We were told [by the ACT programme] that you must mix ability group[s]. We mustn't use the [rows] …. we mustn't put those who are shy alone; they must be with the clever ones.*" Despite classroom challenges, Jane photocopied

texts for reading lessons for the learners from the one DBE learners' textbook for each series, as observed in lesson 4, August 2014. She also enacted the group seating arrangement, a concept she was aware of before teacher learning and which was emphasised during the ACT learning sessions. This was a peripheral change with mediating process links E3 and E4.

On either side of the classroom were two tables where a few basal readers, workbooks and exercise books for the learners were kept. New workbooks, the few textbooks and teaching resources were locked in a metal cupboard next to the teacher's table. She said, *"According to ACT programme, learners must pick and read for enjoyment after doing their tasks"*. However, there were no easily accessible reader books in the classroom. She claimed, with the new knowledge, the learners went to the school library once per week for 15 minutes for silent reading and she appreciated the difference, as learners started to take more interest in reading English stories. This was supplemented by the use of the 'read aloud' technique which she employed for the two literacy lessons observed in October 2015.

In an informal conversation, Jane revealed that the school library was designed, and fiction and non-fiction readers' books were donated, by a prominent area celebrity and a story writer in 2007. The school library also had reading books from the DBE for the junior schools. However, it was not possible to verify school library information.

It was noted that the quality and quantity of classroom display had not changed much during the 18 months of learning from the ACT programme. The displays in the classroom walls in October 2015 were exactly the same. One noticeable display was some old learners' drawn flags of South Africa and dusty looking charts around the chalkboard and notice-board spaces which were not attractive. The displays included one class rules chart; two life skills posters on good health, lists of words and sentences in English and isiZulu; a clock (not working); a calendar, and a list of colours. She claimed in August 2014, that the posters and learners' drawings were a source of motivation for the learners.

Figure 7.20: A photo showing the back section of Grade 2C: Taken on 30-09-2015

Jane became defensive when asked about the classroom displays during the last interview October 2015: "*eehh the first time when you came it was earlier now there a part of the work that we have done with the learners and this (pointing on the sight words next to the noticeboard (see figure 22) helps the learners to read instead of making noise while the teacher is out for the meeting*". According to Module 6, pp 123, a FP teacher is expected to create a stimulating dynamic environment for HL which also supplies an environment for acquiring a FAL. Jane seemed not to have changed her classroom displays for the 18 months, neither had she innovatively generated colourful pictures, theme posters, word walls, phonic charts and learners' creative writings.

7.6.1 To what extent does Jane's knowledge reflect a peripheral or core change?

The brief description on how the nature of teachers' change was analysis is presented in section 7.3. In this section the overall findings on Jane's knowledge change is offered. The reflection (R) and enactment (E) processes of change are numbered as R1, E2 etc., to indicate the specific process experienced in each of the nine domain relationships developed from the IMTPG (see Table 7.2. The nature of teacher change is described as *a* _core_ or sustainable change or a _peripheral change_ to substitute a *growth network* and acknowledge a *change of sequence* of the IMTPG.

Table 7.6: The nature of Jane's knowledge change through process of reflection (R) and enactment (E)

Domains	Aspects of domains of the teachers domains of knowledge which had changed/not changed within 18 months	Numbered processes of change	Nature of change
1.Personal Knowledge	a) Beliefs about the ideal literacy lesson, roles of the teacher and learners.	R1,E3,E4,R5,	Peripheral
	b) Teachers' personal experiences	R1,E3,E4,R5,R6,E7	Core
2.Propositional Knowledge	a) Theories of emergent literacy	R1,E3,E4,R5,	Peripheral
	b) Principles of bilingualism	R1,R5	Peripheral
	c) Reading theories	R1,E3, R5,R8	Peripheral
3.Practical Knowledge	a) Opportunities and strategies for building vocabulary, oral sentence fluency and writing	R1,E3,E4,R5,	Peripheral
	b) Classroom management to enhance meaningful teaching & learning	R1,R3	Peripheral

Jane demonstrated less than five mediating process link relationships of change in all aspects of teacher knowledge except in personal experiences (aspect 1b of the personal domain) as illustrated in Table 7.6. Thus, she demonstrated a peripheral change in six aspects of teacher knowledge (6 of 7) with an exception of teachers' personal experiences, which showed *a core change* on the right column of Table 7.6. Principles of bilingualism (propositional domain) and classroom management (practical domain) showed simple linear mediating processes of reflection, with two mediating process links as shown in Table 7.6.

The Figure 7.21 on page 226, illustrates Jane experiences (1b on Table 7.6) the only aspects where Jane experienced a core change according to the IMTPG.
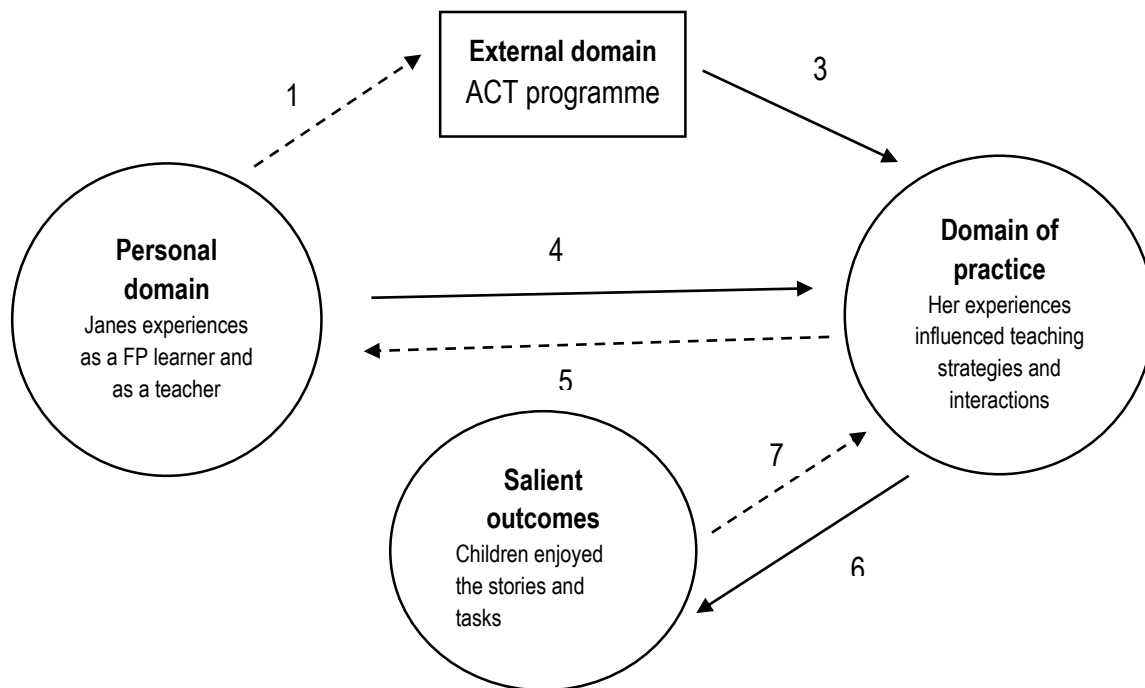
Figure 7.21: Exemplar of Jane's core knowledge change in the aspect of personal experiences (1b)

This *core change* network had several levels of change as illustrated in Figure 7.21. The figure illustrates the aspect of teachers' personal experiences (in the personal domain) which changed with the most process link relationships - two processes of enactment and four processes of reflection. Figure 7.22 below, shows the weakest change experienced by Jane in two domains of IMTPG in relation to the principles of bilingualism during her learning period.
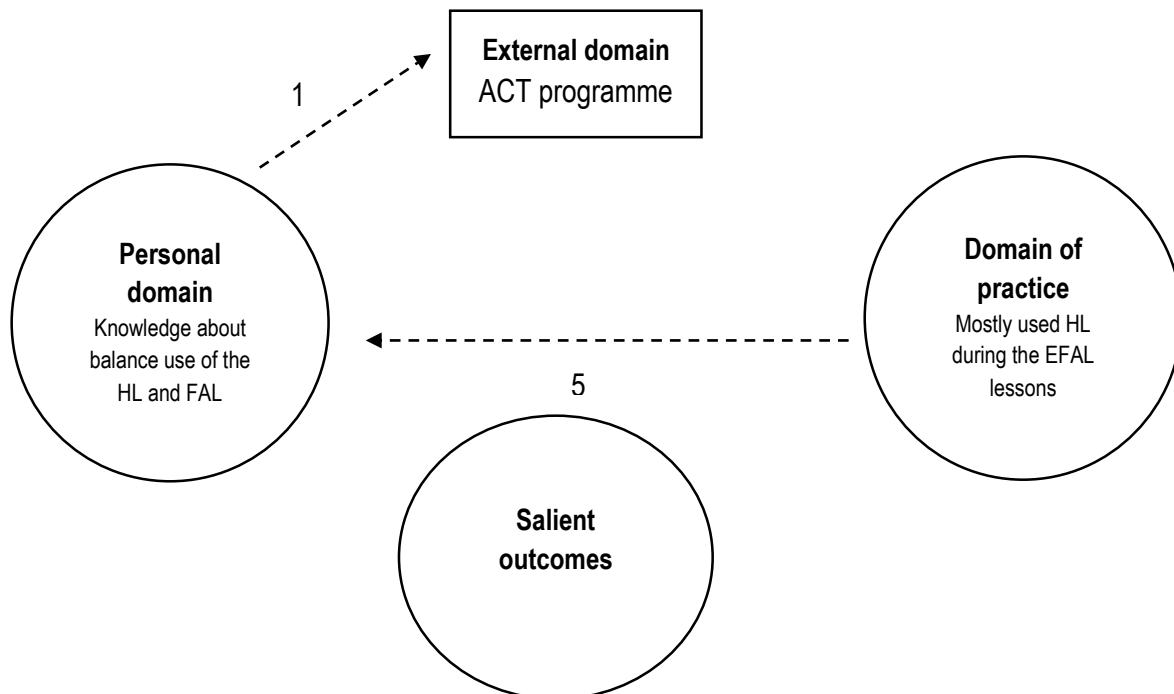
Figure 7.22: Exemplar of Jane's peripheral knowledge within the aspect of bilingualism (2b)

The example given above illustrates the lowest change experienced by Jane in the aspect of bilingualism (2b on table 7.6) with only two simple routes of personal reflection on how to create balance between the HL and English during an EFAL lesson.

The exemplars of core and peripheral change of the three teachers in the six figures for the three teachers indicates how personal beliefs and contextual factors contributed to the teachers knowledge change and their practices during their learning period from the ACT programme.

7.7 Chapter summary

Chapter 7 provided responses to research question 3, presented in the form of teachers' stories about 'how' their knowledge changed and graphic presentations on the *'nature'* of teachers' knowledge change using the Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth (IMTPG). Methodologically, I was in a position to apply both the inductive and deductive approaches to analysis. That is, I generated the teachers' stories and my own descriptions from the multiple

data and, deductively examined how their knowledge changed and the nature of knowledge change experienced by the three teachers during their learning period. (See details in the methodology in section 4.7 and 4.8.) The main objective was to present an in-depth description and insights into the extent to which the three teachers acquired knowledge change within the 18 months of learning from the ACT programme.

First, the chapter defined the three domains of teacher knowledge, namely personal, propositional and practical, as applied in this study. Second, the constituents of the analytical tool and the interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth (IMTPG) were described. Third, teachers' stories (views and experiences) on how their knowledge base changed and descriptions on the nature of this knowledge change is provided.

CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION OF THIS STUDY

8.1 Introduction

In this final chapter the main objective is to provide the reader with an explicit summary of the empirical findings and insights from chapter 5, 6 and 7. To achieve this goal, first, I reflect and review on the focus and purpose of the study. This approach offers a clear picture of the extent to which the initial objectives of the study have been attained. In the second section, I have responded to the three sub-questions based on my interpretation of the content analysis about the domains of knowledge and assumptions privileged in the ACT literacy curriculum which promotes effective teaching of EFAL at the FP. This is followed by a summary on the empirical findings to answer the second and third questions on how the three teachers' learning from ACT programme contributed to changes in their FAL pedagogic practices and knowledge base. In the third and fourth sections of the chapter, I offer a discussion on the methodological issues that emerged from the study. Suggestions for future research and my final thought brings this study to a completion.

The next section provides a review of the focus and conceptual frameworks of this study.

8.2 Review on the focus and purpose of this study

From the conceptualisation of this research, it was my desire that the findings contribute to the national concerns about teachers' knowledge base and research focus on effective teacher professional development programmes in South Africa. Thus my mission was to explore the teacher learning of the FP teachers and understand how their learning influences their knowledge base, beliefs and teaching of EFAL. The issue was not to evaluate the ACT programme but understand how these teachers acquired the English literacy knowledge (theory) and recontextualised it in their classroom in a manner that positions them as agents of learning, critical thinkers and effective transmitters of knowledge in this critical foundation phase (Ebrahim et al., 2011). The assumption of lifelong professional learning is to value and acknowledge professionals (in this case teachers) as negotiators of their own learning in order to increase prior knowledge for the purpose of effective daily work, personal contentment and growth.

The principal research aim in this study was to explore the teacher learning of three FP teachers from the ACT programme. This required an understanding of who the FP teachers were, what motivated them to enrol and how their learning impacted their classroom practices. The following broad research question had to be answered in three manageable strands.

What kinds of knowledge do the FP teachers acquire from the ACT programme and how do they apply and recontextualise this knowledge in teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL)?

I generated specific research questions to illuminate what knowledge the teachers acquired and how this learning impacted the teaching of EFAL within the 18 months.

Research question 1: Findings in Chapter 5

What domains of knowledge and assumptions about good literacy teaching are privileged in the ACT curriculum?

Research question 2: Findings in Chapter 6

In what ways has the three teachers' learning from ACT programme contributed to their EFAL pedagogic practices?

Research question 3: Findings in Chapter 7

To what extent does the knowledge acquired by the three teachers reflect a core or peripheral knowledge change?

First, I inductively generated teachers' stories from the multiple sources of data and then deductively analysed the stories using three external languages of description. These analytical tools were: Reed's conceptual framework, principles for teaching FAL and a model for teacher growth which provided categories to analyse the reduced data as described in chapter 4, 5, 6 and 7. Through this complex process, insights were generated regarding the literacy knowledge privileged in the modules, knowledge acquired from the ACT programme, the various ways teachers recontextualised the new knowledge and the factors which influenced teachers' learning.

Research evidence in this field indicates deficiencies in the knowledge base of teaching EFAL or the inadequate professional development of teachers, as the main reasons for the continued poor learner performance in literacy at the FP in South Africa. According to Green et al. (2011), many FP teachers in South Africa are not trained professionally to specialise in the FP pedagogy. Their research work is affirmed by several studies (Department of Basic Education and Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011; Howie et al., 2007; Taylor et al., 2013; Taylor & Taylor, 2013b). Through effective teacher professional development, the

current teacher education policy provides a strategic framework whose goal is to provide every class in South Africa with a highly qualified teacher in 2025 (Department of Basic Education, 2015).

The ACT programme is one of the many interventions to amend this phenomenon and to improve the knowledge base among the practicing teachers. However, little research has been done in the South African context to explore how formal professional development programmes influences the knowledge base of teachers and their classroom practices at the FP. This study offers findings to illustrate how three Grade 2 teachers changed or did not change their EFAL practices, beliefs and knowledge from when they enrolled with the ACT programme to when they completed in 2015.

A survey of South African literature shows that some classroom studies draw from sociology theorists such as Bernstein's code theory (classification and framing). These studies have explored and reviewed independently the classroom pedagogies in primary schools, but have not linked these practices to teacher learning (Ensor & Hoadley, 2004; Hoadley, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008). Studies on FP teacher learning have not fully explored the complexities or how learning influences teachers' practices or the nature of teacher change (Brown et al., 2015). Most of the studies have focused on the quality of FP, B.Ed programmes in higher institutions or on developing contextual PD models for the FP teachers (C. Nel & Adams, 2014; Nomlomo & Desai, 2014). Although Meyer and Abel (2015) main goal was to evaluate how a specific Western Cape Education Department teacher programme, using Harland and Kinder's 1997 model impacted practice, their study does not explore the complexity of teacher learning or the nature of change experienced by the 18 teachers as a result of their learning. However descriptive stories of five teachers stipulates the relationship between school context and teacher professional learning.

I cannot disregard the valuable contributions these studies have made, and my scholarship extends the above knowledge by illustrating the complex interplay between teacher learning and their practices. This was not easily achievable, since conceptual works on theories of teachers change (growth) were insufficient in the South African context. I had to use three analytical tools or frameworks. First, I used the conceptual framework of teacher knowledge by Reed (2009) for content analysis of the key literacy Module 4. Second, the principles of teaching FAL was used to engage with the classroom data, and lastly a model of teacher knowledge growth by Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) engaged with question 3 on the nature of knowledge change experienced by the three teachers. A significant implication of these three

lenses was the ability to explore what and how teachers acquired valuable knowledge from the ACT programme, while being in dialogue with their working context from a socio-cultural perspective. The summaries of these finding are offered in section 8.4 in this chapter. In addition, I did not come across any literature which had applied IMTPG in the South African context. Therefore section 8.7 provides a discussion on the usefulness of this tool but also speculates what may have dismayed many interpretative, qualitative researchers from using this useful tool on teachers' change.

However, before engaging with methodological limitations, I present a summary of the findings in the next section. The summary shows how this study has extended the current knowledge in the field of teacher learning and its impact to pedagogies which is significant in this study.

8.3 Summary on the key findings of this study

In this section I reflect on what was ultimately gained from this research by answering the three research questions. First, I offer the summary findings of research question 1.

8.3.1 What domains of knowledge and assumptions about good literacy teaching are privileged in the ACT curriculum?

The first summary findings focuses on the content analysis of the key literacy module to have an insight into the ACT literacy curriculum. The analysis of the selected texts indicate a strong focus on developing the *know-how* (practical knowledge) where an 'ideal' literacy teacher is to acquire and recontextualise new methodologies for the effective teaching of reading and writing at the FP. The module adopts an emergent literacy approach which suggests that children come to school having developed literacy from their home context in their HL and thus the teacher's role is to facilitate this literacy development (Piasta et al., 2009).

In a multilingual country like South Africa (see Chapter 3 section 3.2 for the language profiles), it is important for learners to achieve high levels of proficiency in two languages. Thus the module is in line with CAPS and emergent literacy principles, which recommends that children to be taught in their HL at the FP and, learn EFAL through an additive bilingual approach (Lenyai, 2011). However, the module does not explicitly explain this notion and assumes all children are literate in their HL and thus can easily transfer their knowledge to any FAL. This assumption is not true, as not all children are literate in their HL, as some parents want their children to learn in English (see Chapter 3 on the South African school language policy).

The teacher is to acquire the *know how* (practical knowledge) from the Module 4 to help children's literacy development and reading skills as stipulated in CAPS, by teaching phonological awareness; phonics; vocabulary; fluency and comprehension. Minimal explicit theory of these concepts is covered in the module. Detailed conceptual knowledge of the theory and principles of emergent literacy are not explicitly taught. Teachers are also required to use balanced approaches to teaching reading instead of being heavily dependent on only the phonics-based ('Bottom-Up') or the whole language ('Top- Down') approaches for teaching reading.

There is very little opportunity for teachers to develop their own reading and writing competences, or their own knowledge about language structures in the literacy module. The module assumes the teachers' knowledge of phonology, morphology and semantics in both HL and English was in place, as these are not taught explicitly. This propositional knowledge seems to be taken for granted, and there seems to be an assumption that teachers had the *knowing what* domain in place and could 'apply' these concepts in their classrooms easily.

Drawing strongly from social constructivist approaches, the module focuses on practical routines rather explicit conceptual knowledge to inform these routines. (See section 8.5 for explanations of this findings.)

Next is the summary findings of research question two.

8.3.2   In what ways has the three teachers' learning from ACT programme contributed to their EFAL classroom practices?

The second summary illustrates how the three Grade 2 teachers changed their EFAL classroom practices over 18 months, from when they enrolled in the programme to when they completed it. The purpose of exploring the teachers' pedagogic practices was to have an insight into how the ACT programme influenced the participants' (FP teachers) practices of teaching EFAL.

The three FP teachers, although they completed the same course, clearly attained a shift in their classroom practices in different ways by the end of the programme in October 2015. Two of the three teachers (Anne and Lisa) completed the programme rejuvenated and seemed to have developed a deeper understanding of FAL teaching strategies according to the nine principles of teaching FAL (as espoused in the literacy modules). However, Jane seems to have experienced slight knowledge and pedagogical changes in accordance to the lens used.

At the beginning of professional learning with the ACT programme in 2014, teacher Anne's two lessons that were observed at the beginning of learning shows moderate presentations in

relation to the following indicators of the principles of teaching FAL: receptivity to acquiring FAL; natural approaches of acquiring FAL; opportunities/strategies for children to build new vocabulary, support meaningful reading and writing, and a print rich classroom environment. Thus she was already teaching according to many of the principles taught in the module. However weak presentations were observed in three aspects: the development of bilingualism (both lessons); strategies of developing listening and speaking skills (lesson1); and opportunities/strategies used to develop meaningful writing (lesson1). Overall these aspects improved to moderate - strong presentations according to lessons 3 - 6 observation, except one anomaly on the bilingualism principle. This means that the three principles of FAL that were not strongly presented in her practice when she enrolled on the ACT programme, did shift slightly by the end of the programme. Therefore, I argue that Anne made positive, consistent changes and displayed adequate principles of FAL teaching even at the beginning of the programme, with an exception of one anomaly (principles of bilingualism).

Lisa indicated a drastic shift from weak - moderate presentations of the principles in her lessons to moderate - very strong practices as observed in the two lessons in August 2015, in relation to the nine FAL principles. She only had weak presentations on the aspects of development of listening and speaking skills (lesson 4), building vocabulary in FAL (lesson 4), and opportunities/strategies to support reading and word study (lesson 4). The posters and displays in the classroom drastically changed to a very strong presentation by the end of the programme.

According to Lisa during interview 3 in August 2014 (about writing - a weak aspect presentation), learners were not supposed to engage in writing during this particular lesson. However, the Learning Guide (LG 6) suggests in such a scenario, a teacher uses appropriate natural approaches of acquiring EFAL and provides appropriate opportunities to foster meaningful writing as stipulated by CAPS. Similar to the NEEDU National Report 2012, suggestions that learners should be provided with opportunities to write four times a week, including one extended piece of writing (Taylor et al., 2013). So, Lisa should have given the learners some homework on writing on this particular day. In 2015, Lisa during lesson 5 and 6, had definitely planned writing tasks for the learners. On the one hand, maybe Lisa had initially reflected on how to teach writing from CAPS and only managed to put the concepts into practice in 2015 after learning about the same concepts from the ACT programme. On the other hand, Lisa, knew the importance of writing tasks but maybe during lesson 3 for personal

reasons did not give the children any writing work. The assumptions arise due to the fact that writing is a complex skill which needs a knowledgeable and reflective teacher who helps learners according to their abilities and context (Blease & Condy, 2014).

All the six observed lessons for teacher Jane portrayed a moderate - weak presentation of most principles. Opportunities and strategies to support reading, word study and meaningful writing also were poorly presented in lessons 5 and 6 and thus coded as a weak presentation. The findings show that Jane achieved insufficient change according to bilingualism principles, formal teaching of FAL and use of Krashen's hypotheses of FAL acquisition. With regards to a print-rich classroom environment, Jane did not change the classroom environment to promote a more print-rich environment across the 18 months of the study. The old displays on the classroom walls were a clear indication, and were coded as a weak presentation using the principles of teaching FAL.

The analysis of data from the three teacher stories and descriptions led to some insights, which echo with findings from other South African studies cited earlier (Adler & Reed, 2002; Brown et al., 2015; Meyer & Abel, 2015; Taylor et al., 2013; Taylor & Taylor, 2013b). The overall findings show that, by the end of the programme in October 2015, Anne and Lisa clearly changed their knowledge base, pedagogical practices and beliefs about teaching EFAL. Jane did not engage with the principles of FAL teaching sufficiently at the beginning nor at the end of the programme.

This does not mean that Jane did not acquire new knowledge from the ACT programme. According to empirical evidence, teacher learning is a complex process situated in practice and integrated to various systems, structures, teachers' histories and school context (Battey & Franke, 2008). According to this socio-cultural conceptual insight, teachers' identities and contexts brings variation to what teachers take up from the professional activities and how they enact the new ideas in their classrooms (Adler et al., 2002; Shalem & Slonimsky, 2013). These studies highlight how the teachers in rural and township environments struggle with take-up similar to my findings, where Jane (in a rural school) struggled with reading lessons since her own English knowledge base was inadequate. This is similar to a study by Blease and Condy (2014) who explored problems encountered by two multi-grade teachers and learners in the rural schools at the FP in South Africa. Both teachers outlined contextual challenges such as poor transport, parental illiteracy, poor socio-economic background, poor teacher knowledge

base, reading problems, inconsistent strategies and others being a barrier to teaching and learning writing in a multi-grade classroom.

The above mentioned authors' views and findings are similar to the differences in take up and contextual factors of the three teachers in this study. For instance, Anne was a self-motivated person with over ten years' experience at school 1 in an urban setting, using English as LoLT which gave her a contextual advantage (better socio-economic background), unlike Lisa in a township school and Jane in a rural school environment at the start of the ACT programme. Similarly, Lisa was in the same career phase and age bracket as Anne, an enthusiastic learner with a faster conceptual understanding unlike Jane who was older, from a rural school environment and with limited English proficiency and subject knowledge. A detailed discussion of these findings is in section 8.5.

In the next section, using Clark & Hollingsworth's (2002) model on teacher growth, findings from the classroom data are discussed. This summarises the last research question on the nature of the three teacher knowledge change.

8.3.3   To what extent does the teachers' knowledge reflect a core or peripheral change?

The findings in the previous section show that the three teachers changed their pedagogies in different ways during the learning process. In this section I summarise the nature of knowledge change experienced by the three teachers during teacher learning. Understanding the nature of teachers' knowledge change gives insights on the sustainability of the change. This is echoed by other researchers such as Battey and Franke (2008) who conceptualise teacher learning as a slow personal and transformation process embedded in a social-cultural setting.

Teacher knowledge change is not only slow and transformative in a social setting but is also seen as a complex process where a teacher acquires conceptual knowledge from the external stimuli (for instance the ACT programme) and then re-constructs the knowledge to their classroom practices (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). Teacher change does not comprise of a sudden and 'uniform' shift of teachers beliefs, values, attitudes and practices as a result of attending a professional activity (Battey & Franke, 2008). Teacher change becomes a complex continuous process during one's career as a result of learning from formal and informal experiences which leads to gradual changes in practices and beliefs about teaching.

According to Clarke and Hollingsworth's (2002) model, teacher growth (change) occurs in the teachers' sphere of influence which consists of four domains namely: personal domain, practice domain, domain of consequence and external domain. These IMTPG domains are not equivalent to the personal, propositional and practical domains of teacher knowledge, but linked in this particular study. The connection seems complex but can be inferred as the *nature of change* (core or peripheral) experienced in the four IMTPG measured in terms of personal propositional and practical domains of teacher knowledge. This knowledge change in teachers' individual, practical, or propositional knowledge in any one of the IMTPG domains, leads to change in another domain facilitated by a process of either *reflection* or *enactment* (See details in Chapter Seven section7.3).

The nature of knowledge base changes can be divided into two categories in relation to IMTPG. *Core* change which was consistent with network of growth that engaged with many aspects of the knowledge probably sustainable. *Peripheral* change was a simple (basic) change as a result of engaging with two aspects of knowledge from the ACT programme. The three teachers displayed *peripheral* change or a *core* change at different levels. Anne and Lisa mainly portrayed core changes and limited peripheral changes, according to the IMTPG analytical tool. On the other hand, teacher Jane portrayed a *peripheral* change in most of the IMTPG domains, and the ACT programme seems to have made little difference to her practice. In most of the times observed, she was not able translate what she had learnt from the courses into her classroom. She continued to blame learners and challenges in school. An explanation for these findings are provided in section 8.5.

Thus using the IMTPG, I was in a position to extend some previous studies on teachers' take-up from the professional development programme. For instance, the broad and ambitious project byAdler and Reed (2000) guided me, and had almost similar findings in terms of variation of take up: some teachers take-up only the form and others take-up both the substance and the form of the new practice changed by a professional development programme. A 'form' is the outward strategies or practices without substantive understanding, while 'substance' refers to an understanding of the principles which underpin the new pedagogy.

The next section offers an explanation of teacher learning and discussions on the teacher knowledge base in relation to what was acquired by the three teachers from the ACT programme.

8.4 Complexity theory illuminates teacher learning from ACT programme

In this section I will relate the summary findings to several debates and argument from the scholars about teachers' knowledge base and teacher learning to understand the variations of the teacher change during the learning process. Conceptualising the teacher learning from the ACT programme using the macro-lens of the complexity learning theory provided by Opfer and Pedder in 2011, was considered most appropriate to illuminate the findings presented in section 8.4. This theory relates to the complexities of teacher learning and reiterates that a formal teacher development programme like the ACT programme, may be necessary, but is not sufficient for teachers to change their practices which is the supposition of this study (Opfer & Pedder, 2011).

According to complexity theory (Opfer & Pedder, 2011), teacher learning is influenced by three overlapping and interrelated subsystems, namely: the individual teacher, the PD activity and the school context. The description of these subsystems and the justification for using the complexity theory as the macro-lens, are presented in Chapter 2. I now discuss how these subsystems influenced the three teachers' learning from the ACT programme. I will first look at the individual, followed by the PD activity and lastly the school context.

8.4.1   The individual teachers

The global shift from teacher training and once-off in-service workshops towards teacher learning and more sustained PD programmes, means moving towards developing individual teachers as agents who can acquire new knowledge rather transmitting content knowledge to unknowledgeable teachers (Murris & Verbeek, 2014). This means that a focus on the subject and pedagogical domains of teacher knowledge in any PD activity is not adequate, but that focusing on teachers' prior knowledge, beliefs, career phase, motivation for learning and what they do in classrooms, is crucial. I argue that these are the main factors which influenced the different shifts of the teacher knowledge base as well as their pedagogical practices. I will use some key pointers from the intentions of the literacy modules supported by the findings from the multiple data analysed.

The findings strongly indicate that Anne and Lisa changed their pedagogic practices in a more consistent way and incorporated almost all the principles of teaching FAL, whereas Jane's changes were not consistent. This is an indication that the three teachers gained knowledge and skills from the ACT programme but at different levels. This is because they are different individuals in different contexts (C. Day & Gu, 2007); have different cognitive abilities which determine how each teacher constructs and recontexualiases the new knowledge (Gravani & John, 2004); and their different attitudes towards the professional learning contributes to their commitment (Barr et al., 2016; C. Day & Gu, 2007).

Anne had adequate resources in an urban setting, English was the LoLT in her school and she was using some of the FAL principles even before the ACT programme. Surprisingly, Anne who was already teaching at the level of the FAL principles seemed not to have outshone Lisa who drastically (within 8 months) changed her practices according to the FAL principles and seems to have benefited most from the ACT programme. My understanding is that, teachers who would benefit most from PD programmes are those who already were practicing within the theories and conceptual knowledge of English literacy (Fleisch, 2008).

Anne had prior knowledge in place and thus may have believed in her stable self-efficacy with most of her prior strategies, while Lisa was enthusiastic to make a 'difference' in a township school. In addition Lisa had also enrolled with another PD initiative from an NGO in the province which helped teachers in teaching of phonics at the FP phase, and, unlike Anne, she had attended several DBE workshops on the implementation of the CAPS. So, Lisa's enthusiastic attitude and interest in new knowledge together with a quick grasp of the conceptual knowledge contributed to the drastic knowledge change during the learning process. This echoes with a longitudinal study by C. Day and Gu (2007) who found that the personal, workplace and career phases of a teacher greatly influence teacher learning.

 Jane, the oldest among the three teachers, had moderate - poor presentation of take up from the programme due to multiple factors too: lack of school resources, poverty and the poor socio-economic and literacy background of learners. She blamed IsiZulu as LoLT, and a lack of support (regular follow-up) from the provincial DoE. In addition, Anne and Lisa enthusiastically created rich print environments and embraced the use different learners' activities, unlike Jane who did not change her classroom displays and mostly enacted the

observed lessons within the conventional approaches (teacher centred approaches), during the 18 months.

Therefore, the three teachers' daily instructions and the salient outcomes represent an individualised enactment of the new knowledge or skills acquired from the ACT programme, and also relate to their beliefs, prior knowledge, career phase and other contextual factors (Moats, 2014). The second subsystem of the complexity theory which contributed to the learning is the formal programme – the ACT programme.

8.4.2   The ACT programme

The findings shows that the teachers' change differences can be linked to the objectives, literacy theories and domains of knowledge espoused in the literacy curriculum of the ACT programme. This creates a complex link between the intended learning, the learnt knowledge (actual outcomes) and classroom practices of the teachers which was analysed. First I will present the literacy curriculum represented by Module 4 and 6. The main focus on literacy practical knowledge and conceptual knowledge in the key modules is absolutely necessary, but conceptual knowledge on its own is quite insufficient.

According to the current literature in this field, the nature of '*knowing that*' and '*knowing how*' are too complex to fully engage with in this section, but I will offer the key ideas which relate to this study. Some scholars argue that knowing *how* (practical knowledge*)* is acquired informally at the place work and through experience (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999), which means that professional knowledge is not necessarily based on a deep conceptual knowledge to support effective pedagogical practices but rather that teachers' experiences are paramount. This partly supports Lisa's practice changes which she claimed were not only facilitated by ACT programmes but also an NGO programme and PD initiatives from KwaZulu Natal DoE. However with regard to English teaching, effective classroom practices take place when interpretations are made from a specialised knowledge (Moats, 2014), which does not have to be from the teachers' context but can also be from formal learning (Bertram et al., 2015).

A similar school of thought believes that effective pedagogies are grounded on adequate theoretical and conceptual knowledge (Shalem, 2014a; Shalem & Slonimsky, 2013; Winch et al., 2015). I place myself within this group of authors that suggests knowing how (practical

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knowledge) is underpinned by specific *knowing that* (propositional knowledge). This means that teachers, in order to shift their classroom practices, are significantly influenced by the kind of propositional knowledge and experiences acquired from a formal professional development programme. This is one philosophy the authors of Module 4 (LG4) seemed to have ignored in the literacy curriculum, which has insufficient teaching of conceptual theories and English language structure (propositional knowledge) to support the practical knowledge, the focus of the modules. This implies practicing teachers need both conceptual knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (Shalem, 2014b). So, on the one hand, Module 4 (LG4) seems to have adopted this notion by having a generic body of literacy theories which the student teachers can apply to any HL literacy teaching in South African context. On the other hand, in relation to Shalem's conceptualisation of practical knowledge, it seems as if both literacy modules (LG4 and LG6) did not offer the participants deep *knowing that* conceptual understanding. This contributes to peripheral knowledge change which cannot enable a sustainable shift in teachers' practices, especially in relation to Jane's knowledge change.

For instance, the three teachers during the individual interviews in 2015, did not seem to remember the reading approaches (theories) which underpin various reading techniques (strategies). When probed further, I realised they did not have a conceptual understanding of the phonics-based and whole language approaches of reading. However their pedagogies heavily depended on phonics-based tasks during vocabulary building lessons and whole language approach was observed in school 1 and 2. None of three teachers was able to define the term *balanced approach*.

Knowing how is not only 'knowing what to do' in practice but also entails that *knowing what* counts as an authentic practice (Winch, 2013a). Normally an authentic pedagogical practice is embedded in the teachers' conceptual knowledge in the subject, beliefs, their prior knowledge on the subject, the teacher's conceptualisation of the new practice and the ability to make inferences from this propositional knowledge of the subject content. In this vein, the three teachers seemed not to link what they had learnt from the programme or relate the reading theories to what they were doing during the observed EFAL. Therefore, the teachers' practical knowledge in this case was not linked to a theoretical understanding nor given a philosophical underpinning which is acquired formally from a PD programme. In this sense, if teachers acquire practical knowledge grounded in solid theoretical understanding from formal

programmes, they are able to *know what* and *how* to apply the new skills and why it is necessary to take certain types of actions in their classrooms (Winch, 2013b; Winch et al., 2015). Drawing from the works of Shalem and Slonimsky (2013), for a teacher to recontextualise knowledge and also choose appropriate instructions, she must make individual use of propositional knowledge. This *knowing that* of teaching contains academic as well as problem-solving strategies (Winch, 2012, 2013a, 2014). This means that a professional teacher draws on the generalised 'conceptual tiers' (propositional knowledge) to make a specific professional judgement during a particular event (Muller, 2014). For instance, a teacher has to draw from children's development theories (LG2) and principles of teaching EFAL (LG6), to help such a child who is struggling with reading during EFAL lessons at the FP. Such a teacher also utilises principles of emergent literacy (in LG4) to help learners who are fluent in their HL relate their prior knowledge to the EFAL in the South African context (Mbatha, 2014). This illustration correlates with the findings on Lisa's pedagogical changes.

The ACT programme aims to create a critical reflective teacher who does not only think about teaching but also reflects on their beliefs about the subject matter, knowledge base, professional learning, context, norms, challenges, beliefs and regulative relationships. The discussions on the findings provides evidences that, the three teachers acquired new knowledge through enactment and reflection on their beliefs, school experiences and their peers' practices.
The third subsystem of the complexity theory is the school context, which is discussed in the next section.

8.4.3   The school context

School as a factor influencing teacher learning includes school organization factors, such as the teachers' perceptions of the support provided by principals, HOD, colleagues, resources and other management teams during their learning period. Teachers who feel supported may be more inclined to look for opportunities and situations which are helpful in their own development than teachers who do not feel supported (C. Day & Gu, 2007).

Anne was encouraged and supported by her peers from the school. They discussed assignments, challenges and teaching experiences during this period of learning with fellow Grade 2 teachers and more specifically one colleague (a Grade 3 teacher) who also participated in the ACT programme but was not part of this study. Specifically she recalled a colleague who modelled

the 'Reading to Learn' strategies in earlier years which she used during literacy classes. The community discussions, moral support and reflection on teaching strategies may have contributed to Anne's confidence and effective planning of her lessons as observed during the data collection phases. She also appreciated the moral support from the school principal who consistently inquired about her studies, thus increasing her self-confidence and having encouragement to complete the programme. An informal conversation with the hospitable principal during the data collection phases, give some an insights about the school history and her active role in 2011 as a NPDE tutor at UKZN. The school also maintained the structural facilities and the school library, and purchased most of the learning resources as per the allocation of funds from the DBE. All this support seems to have contributed to Anne's enthusiastic and innovative spirit during classroom practice.

Lisa and Jane seemed uncomfortable to talk about school support but during informal conversations, both indicated that the administration supported them and was enthusiastic to support any teacher who enrolled in any professional development courses embedded in the school, especially from the NGO or the provincial Department of Education workshops which offered courses on how to implement the ever-changing school curriculum. Jane expressed her desire to improve her English proficiency since this part was not offered in the ACT modules.

Although I met the two principals in schools 2 and 3 during the first visit, I was not in a position to verify the teachers' information during the subsequent lesson observation phases. Either they were absent or I used to finish my interviews after school hours. Overall the three teachers seemed contented with their working context although, they seemed uncomfortable to discuss any information about the school management.

The data clearly showed the three teachers acquired knowledge from the ACT programme; had different working contexts; had almost similar schooling backgrounds (former African disadvantaged education systems); had similar professional qualification (NPDE); taught the same grade; but their practices and knowledge change were different. This means that the teachers' engagement in other external inputs at the school context prior or during the ACT programme also influenced their knowledge base and practices. For instance, Lisa tried to apply the new knowledge and skills she had learned from a NGO on how to teach phonics effectively and successfully integrated this knowledge with the ACT programme teachings which proved very effective for her practices. This teacher's experience suggested that teacher learning is a

continuous process which comes from various activities (formal or informal) and sources, sometimes from the community and detached from a formal professional programme such as the ACT programme.

The three teachers also mentioned having occasionally attended the provincial Department of Education workshops which were organised to support teachers on how to implement CAPS. This relates to Meyer and Abel (2015) findings about the subject-focused teacher professional programme. South Africa has some of the least knowledgeable primary teachers in sub-Saharan Africa, especially those who work in ill-resourced and poor rural schools. In many instances the provincial DoE activities have tried to improve their subject knowledge through these programmes.

Findings also shows that Lisa's knowledge and belief change was consistent during the 18 months of the programme. Lisa is a self-motivated teacher and has engaged with other external sources of teacher knowledge, both in her school context, DBE workshops, in collaboration with other teachers and formally with the ACT programme. Thus the pedagogical changes in this particular case seems to correlate with the contextual and personal willingness to improve her teaching knowledge and practices.

8.5 The interplay between the three subsystems in ACT teacher learning

The findings, debates and explanations reveals that teachers' knowledge and practices change are not only determined by a single external stimulus like the ACT programme but rather are influenced by an array of factors such as personal experiences, context, routines, values, beliefs and other external stimuli in the teachers' contexts.

As in other South African studies, I found a discrepancy in their own English fluency between Anne (in an urban school) and Lisa (township school) on one hand, and Jane (rural school). Anne and Lisa claimed to have good literacy and English skills and the observation and transcripts confirmed the adequate English fluency of the two teachers. However, this was not the case with Jane who was older and had been in a teaching career longer than the other two teachers. The matter stood out as a challenge not only for teacher Jane, but also affected the learners. They were not able to respond in English to any teachers' questions during EFAL observed lessons. In the interview data Jane expressed what motivated her to enrol with the

ACT programme was to get support not only on how to teach literacy but also to improve her own fluency in English and subsequently confidence in teaching EFAL. Putting together Jane's requests and my classroom observations, the rural schools' administrations should address the issue of teachers' low proficiency in English and lack in the content knowledge of EFAL, rather than have the problem escalate over the years at the FP.

According to Lundgren, Scheckle, and Zinn (2015), the improvement and development of current literacy practices in South Africa is not an easy or linear process. These authors, supported by other key researchers in classroom practices, assert that various factors influence, teacher learning and consequently practice changes. For example, the way in which the teachers interpret what is happening during their literacy lessons, how they react to the process of learning, and how they actually transform the knowledge and implement changes is complex and depends on multiple factors (Hoadley, 2012, 2013). The findings on teacher learning from the ACT programme relate to this argument. The participants came from different working contexts; different prior PD experiences; different career phase; different self-motivation; different beliefs about teaching EFAL and different personal experiences. Altogether these related factors influenced what and how they acquired knowledge and skills from the programme and subsequently the variation of the teachers' take up from this particular PD activity within the 18 months of learning.

Other empirical case studies in South African claim similar results, for example (Brown et al., 2015; Meyer & Abel, 2015). The teachers in these studies took new ideas or knowledge from the PD initiatives differently according to their context, individual positioning and prior knowledge base. On the same note, a study in South African context by Adler et al. (2002) denotes similar factors to have influenced teachers' take up: biographical information of the teachers such as confidence, qualification, reflective ability, grade level, subject knowledge base, access to resources, school support and the external stimuli. This too speaks to researchers in developed countries who have noted teachers' identities, beliefs and contexts impacting practice changes in mathematics, reading and the sciences (Battey & Franke, 2008; Moats, 2009b, 2014).

Although the ACT programme created more opportunities for teachers to change their practices from constructivist approaches, barriers that are intrinsic such as career phase and self-

motivation and any other challenges to teachers' beliefs about the new knowledge and skills, limited their efforts for instance in the case of Jane. Although culture and contextual factors influence practices, teachers may also choose, within their limits, the new knowledge or practices which are suitable to them. This internal regulation provides teachers with a chance to approve or discard a new instructional changes as Lisa did.

In summary, the factors which influenced teacher learning of this particular study is diagrammatically represented in Figure 8.1.
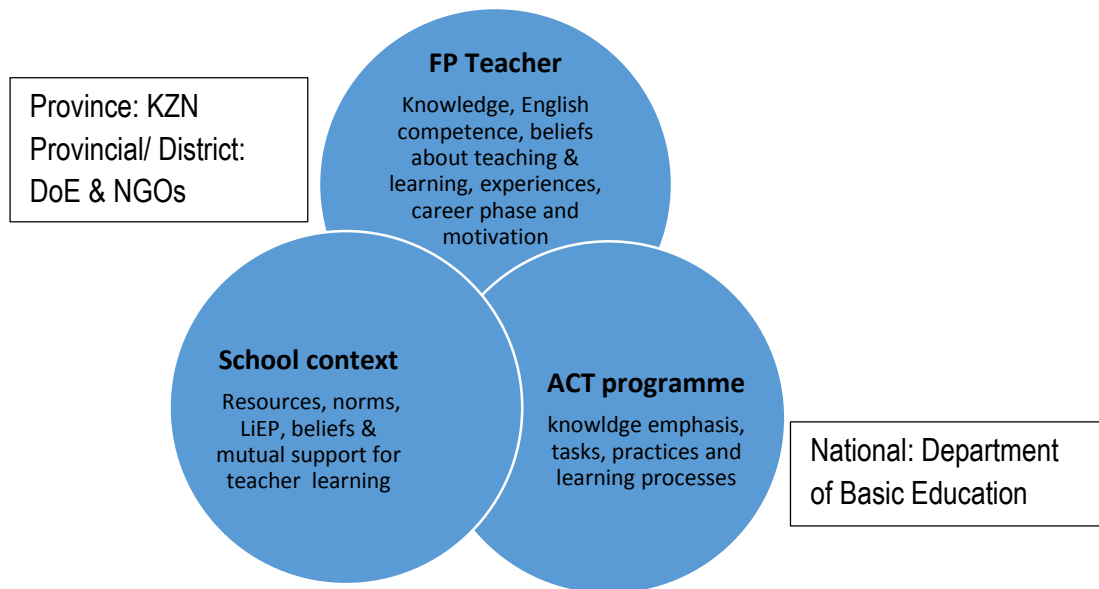
Figure 8.1: An illustration on how complexity theory explains teacher learning from the ACT programme

Teacher learning from the ACT programme took different forms and was an individual and social process, influenced by several factors which work together for a common goal, such as the school context and various initiatives from government and NGOs interrelated as summarised in figure 8.1.

The next section reviews the methodologies and theories which impacted on the findings of this study.

8.6 Reflection on theories and the methodologies used in this study

The focus of this study was on the kind of learning experienced by three foundation phase teachers as a result of learning from the ACT programme in UKZN. Overall, the study takes an interpretivist approach where I observed the participants in the real EFAL teaching context. This gave me an opportunity to appreciate, identify and verify various factors and inferences

(or complexities) of teacher learning as discussed in the findings chapters. I purposively selected the three Grade 2 teachers from a large group of 173 teachers who had enrolled on the ACT programme offered at UKZN in the 2014–2015 academic period. The methodologies used are detailed in Chapter 4. The main intention of this section is to scrutinise the appropriateness and effectiveness of the theories and methodologies that were used in this study.

According to (Wagner et al., 2012, p. 229), when using inductive and deductive approaches, the researcher may use codes already identified from other studies or may apply codes based on his/her specific knowledge. My decision to generate teachers' stories and deductively analyse the data proved most valuable in terms of producing in-depth findings as mentioned in section 8.2. First, Reed's conceptual framework defined the domains of knowledge privileged in the key literacy module. Second, the FAL teaching principles showed the teachers' knowledge shift and how the new knowledge was applied in the classroom. Lastly, IMTPG provided new insights into the nature of teacher knowledge change using two categories: *the core change and the Peripheral change.* This was crucial since teachers' change is personal and contextual in nature. Overall, the inductive and deductive approaches in this study gave me a platform to contribute to the existing knowledge about teachers learning in this specific context and ensured that I stayed true and close to my data and the epistemological and theoretical influences.

However, using three different analytical tools from the outset was challenging. Initially I did not set out with a clearly articulated macro-theoretical framework but eventually I settled for the complexity learning theory with the notion of teacher learning teaching as a complex process. After the first data collection phase, I realised the analysis process was complicated and I brought on board three analytical lenses to engage with the multiple sources of data. This turned out to be a slow and complex process. I had to keep on revising and writing my findings to simplify the concepts as much as possible.

For instance, to understand the *nature* of knowledge change, IMTPG proved significant and useful. However, I had to be creative and open to different thinking, to explore and analyse the complexities surrounding the practicing teachers' viewpoints as learners from the ACT programme. This proved to be a challenging task. I constantly felt the need to follow a system or a way that would provide me with a linear structure even though teacher learning is a complex process. Specifically, I felt constrained by the IMTPG theoretical components (the

four domains), their inflexibility during the time of analysis as there was no prior study using this model in this context.

The literature on analysis using IMTPG is from the developed countries contexts and there was no previous research in South African using similar analytical tools to guide my analysis. Creating analytic categories from the domains of IMTPG and the principles of teaching FAL was a time-consuming task. However, it was a necessity to understand the multiple data which had been collected over 18 months.

Nevertheless, if I were to do a similar study in the future, I would frame my research questions differently but still use the IMTPG to explore the *how* and the *nature* of teacher knowledge change over a longer period of time. In addition, teacher learning and change studies are complex and to clearly understand the complexities, future studies would need to apply mixed methods and appropriate computer software to generate findings with the IMTPG. This would increase the accuracy level of interacting relationships and would control multiple influences to a reasonable research level (Adey et al., 2004).

Reflecting on the literacy module 4 content analysis, I realised the seven domains of teacher knowledge from Reed's conceptual framework are not presented in a distinct manner but greatly overlap in the whole LG4. Therefore I coded some texts in more than one domain. This meant that several reviews of the coding stage were necessary to reduce chances of errors. Maybe the use of Nvivo software in the future would ease the analysis process by identifying the domains of knowledge in such learning materials.

The module design does not also translate the IsiZulu sentences for the non-IsiZulu readers thus limiting the use of the material to the KZN province. It is only on page 54 where 5 bulleted sentences are translated in English. I had to get a translator during the transcription time. So if I was to do this research again, I would change the scope of the study and also analyse the other two literacy modules (LG 6 and LG 7) in detail, to gather more data on the literacy curriculum. Reflecting on methodologies and theories used in this study gives me some kind of satisfaction, after almost four years of reading secondary sources, three data collection phases, writing and re-writing drafts of this dissertation. My consolation came from Mouton (2012) advice as I wrote this dissertation. He indicates that, "a good dissertation or thesis literally means putting together a coherent, logical, clear and persuasive argument which involves repetitive reading

and writing, many drafts and a great deal of effort and frustration". Thus novice researchers should not discouraged by research even though it is time-consuming and emotionally draining.

The methodologies managed to answer the three research questions and established further research possibilities in the field of teacher learning of the FP teachers in South Africa particularly in KwaZulu-Natal province.

The next section provides a number suggestions in relation to the findings of this study.

8.7 Implications of this study

This study has identified and analysed what the three FP teachers acquired from the formal ACT programme and how their learning relates to their classroom practice. The implications of this study address the issue of the theory-practice divide, policy and future research. The key points are discussed in this section.

1. The need for responsive teacher learning initiatives.

Findings suggest that PD programmes play a more active role in boosting the FP teachers' professional needs based on specific workplace conditions. One approach to achieve this is through administering a needs assessment for all teachers especially in the rural areas schools, multi-grade and farm schools, some township schools and any other disadvantaged schools in the country. Such investigation would allow teacher learning providers and the government authorities to gain insight into the specific needs and challenges of the teachers in their workplace. The nature and level of support could then be selected with these needs in mind. Such a survey would also focus not so much about learning to teach for the classroom but more specifically about also individual growth in the teaching, based on a paradigm that builds professional self-sufficient and lifelong learners among teachers.

2. Professional learning with follow-up support.

Lisa's and Jane's stories concur with the researchers' suggestions for follow-up support after the teacher learning process. The ACT facilitators can organise for follow-up sessions after teachers complete the course to help them put the new knowledge into practice. Mixed mode programmes like ACT have been a valuable educational goal in the South African context (Bantwini, 2010). However, it is time to evaluate the PD programmes (in relation to the global shift to lifelong learning) and to develop effective support systems such as on-going engagement through contextual professional learning communities. For instance, in the literacy

area, the teaching of writing should be more prioritised and the content included in such a PD supportive system.

3. Creating better workplace support.

Findings from this study is an 'eye opener' into different schools backgrounds, settings and philosophies which exist in relation to the South African national quintile school systems discussed in Chapter 6. There is a need for PD programmes to develop broader learning modules tailored to meet the different scales, sizes and types of schooling contexts (urban, rural, resourced etcetera). The findings from this study reveal that different school quintiles determine the kind of support or collaboration the practicing teachers receives during any professional development period. This study clearly highlights that teachers from schools which are better resourced and in urban areas received better support from the school context than teachers in the rural areas.

4. The literacy knowledge base for teachers to enhance teachers' proficiency in the English language.

Several findings in South Africa as highlighted in Chapters 1 and 2, including this study, confirm that some FP teachers have poor subject knowledge and low English proficiency to teach EFAL effectively (Green et al., 2011). From this point of view, the current DBE professional development initiatives could take a more active role and collaborate with higher institutions to equip the unqualified teachers with specialised knowledge. This would enhance their own abilities to enable effective teaching of the EFAL and increase their self-confidence. The providers should offer short courses on a regular basis in the school contexts either by knowledgeable and accredited NGOs or consultants, the district or provincial DoE. In addition, such professional support should be easily accessible and affordable to all teachers. Several studies, in the recent times on PD interventions which support teachers, have reported a positive influence on teachers' professional growth, which in turn impacts their pedagogical practice positively (Lundgren et al., 2015).

8.8 Opportunities for future studies

Exploring the nature of teacher learning from the different provincial PD initiatives within a range of South African school contexts, is one of opportunities for future research. A gap in

research studies has been identified in this area. Further studies would provide valuable insights into existing and innovative supportive programmes that can contribute to improving FP teachers' knowledge base and subsequently better EFAL pedagogies

Teachers in this study indicated that school supportive measures are important during the PD process or during their career life. However two teachers seemed uncomfortable with discussing school support. A gap exists in the research which has explored this field in South Africa. Several studies support PD models which promote teachers' personal commitment and efficiency and contextual factors or school conditions to understand the complexities of teacher learning. An exploratory study on the input of schools and specifically PD programmes or how PD curriculum designs incorporates the school context would be valuable in understanding professional learning for teachers.

So, further research to explore effective post-PD support initiatives to encourage teachers' retention of the acquired knowledge and practice are highly recommended. Further research is required to clearly understand the knowledge base of teaching of EFAL and its relation to effective pedagogies and teachers' beliefs. Continued research should investigate the relationship between teacher learning and the specific knowledge domains espoused in the ACT programme curriculum. Such progression will allow researchers to understand the kinds of knowledge offered by PD programmes and the extent to which the learning influences the quality of the teachers, as well as their classroom practices.

Although my findings were drawn from a limited sample (typical of a case study), they emphasise the importance of taking into account the complexities of the teacher learning of practising teachers when designing PD programmes. Research shows that the generalisation of findings from a case study such as this one, is a problem, but still the findings enable an in-depth study of specific cases (Rule & John, 2011; Yin, 2009). In fact, I belong to the camp of researchers who asserts that, through case studies (like my study), previous longitudinal studies can be validated on small contextual scales (Rule & John, 2015). Thus, I support more case studies which will link teacher learning, teacher knowledge and teacher change. This give a deeper understanding of the complexities of teacher learning and its impact on practice.

8.9 My final thought - the conclusion of this study

The learning experiences of the three FP teachers discussed in this dissertation suggest a formal programme like ACT is insufficient to bring about effective and sustainable improvements in teaching and learning in the South Africa context. It is also clear that teacher change in pedagogies is influenced by multiple factors such as the teachers' enthusiasm, career phase, the formal PD programme, other PD activities, and the school context. The model of conceptualizing teacher learning provided by Opfer and Pedder was useful in explaining these findings and reiterated the same notions about formal PD programmes and teacher change Indeed, the results suggest that Anne and Lisa benefited most from ACT programme since they had favourable contextual conditions, unlike Jane. On a positive note, the three teachers demonstrated some growth in their knowledge during the learning process.

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APENDICES

Appendix 1: Request letter for an alteration to the ethical clearance ref. HSS/1327/01

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL, PRIVATE BAG X01 SCOTTSVILLE, 3201
SOUTH AFRICA
TEL: 27 31 260 5349/ 6189   E-MAIL: BertramC@ukzn.ac.za

28 November 2013

The Chairperson
Humanities Research Ethics Committee
Westville campus

Dear sir/madam

Request for alterations to Protocol reference number: HSS/1327/012M
Project title: Exploring knowledge and learning of the Advanced Certificate in Teaching (ACT) Foundation Phase students

Dr Mukeredzi received ethical clearance approval for this study in December 2012 (see attached letter). We would like to apply to make the following alterations.

Ms Faith Kimathi (213553257) is a PhD student who will collect data within this project. Her proposal has been approved and she plans to begin data collection in 2014. So we request that you add her name as an investigator.
She will also include a new data collection method, namely to observe three Foundation Phase teachers in their classrooms at the beginning of their studies on the ACT programme (in February 2014), in September 2014 and in May 2015. She will also video record these lessons for analysis afterwards, so there is no observation schedule necessary.
Ms Kimathi is supervised by Dr Carol Bertram.

Yours sincerely

Dr Carol Bertram (Project leader)
Dr Tabitha Mukeredzi (Co-leader)
School of Education
Pietermaritzburg campus

Appendix 2: University of KwaZulu-Natal ethical clearance ref. HSS/0098/014D

UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL ™

INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

06 May 2014

Mrs Faith K Kimathi (213553257)
School of Education
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Protocol reference number: HSS/0098/014D
Project title: Professional learning of Foundation Phase teachers in the Advanced Certificate in Teaching (CAT)

Dear Mrs Kimathi,

Full Approval – Expedited Application

With regards to your response to our letter dated 07 April 2014, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol have been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

cc Supervisor: Dr Carol Bertram
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor P Morojele
cc School Administrator: Mr Thobo Mthembu

Appendix 3: Ethical clearance to conduct research in the KZN DoE institutions

education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar	Tel: 033 341 8610	Ref.:2/4/8/1/102

Mrs FK Kimathi
Pietermaritzburg Campus School of Education
Private Bag X01
Scottsville
3209

Dear Mrs Kimathi

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **"PROFESSIONAL LEARNING OF FOUNDATION PHASE TEACHERS IN THE ADVANCED CERTIFICATE IN TEACHING (ACT)"**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the Intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 April 2014 to 30 March 2015.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Mr. Alwar at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report / dissertation / thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Director-Resources Planning, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to schools and institutions in KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

Nkosinathi S.P. Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education
Date: 25 April 2014

Appendix 4: Gatekeepers letter to the school administration

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

INYUVESI YAKWAZULU-NATALI

GATEKEEPERS LETTER1-SCHOOL AUTHORITY

1. Study title: *Professional learning of selected Foundation Phase (FP) teachers in Advanced Certificate of Teaching (ACT)*

2. Invitation paragraph

Your school has being invited to take part in this educational study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please read the following information carefully and discuss it with the FP teacher(s) enrolled in the ACT programme and members of the school. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

3. What is the purpose of the study?

This study is intended to explore the kind of knowledge the FP teachers will acquire from the ACT programme in 2014-2015 in UKZN, the learning process and consequently investigate how this learning may impact on the FP teachers' classroom practices.

4. Why have this school been chosen?

The school has been chosen because one of the FP teachers in this school has enrolled in the ACT programme this year. **She is part of a large group enrolled in the ACT programme which replaced the ACE programme in 2013.** I believe the FP teachers in this group will help us understand the kind of knowledge they have brought to the ACT programme, their expectations from the learning programme and also help us to understand the actual knowledge they will acquire from the programme. This will help the UKZN improve the mode of delivery and also inform the DOE on the kind of teacher knowledge acquired from the programme for the purposes of improving teaching and learning at the foundation phase in South Africa.

I am proposing to hold six or more sessions with the participating FP teachers within a period of two years with the consent of the school authority to:

- Have classroom observations or video record some of the English literacy lessons

- To hold one-on-one interviews with the participating teachers after the classroom observation schedule at their convenient time

- I will also analyse some assignments given to the ACT programme tutors with the teachers' permission.

5. Does the whole school have to take part?

No, it is up to the Grade two teacher(s) to decide whether or not to take part. If she decides to take part, I will give you this information sheet to keep and I will ask you to sign a consent form. If she decides to take part, she is still free to withdraw at any time if it becomes impossible

to continue to participant. Withdrawal from the study **will not** have any negative consequences for her learning from the ACT programme.

6. What will happen to the FP teachers who participant in this research?

The study will take place in KZN province. I will mostly ask questions to individual teachers in their schools. The interview will last between one to two hours. **I will observe & video record some of her EFAL lessons with your consent and audio record the interviews/discussions with the teacher' consent. I will also jot down some notes**. During the data collection period, I will also occasionally re-examine the collected data with the participating teachers to confirm the recorded interviews or classroom video tapes.

The study's time period is from January 2014 to June 2016. The data collection exercise however is scheduled from February 2014.

8. What will happen to the results of the research study?

The teacher or school names and contacts addresses will be kept confidential. The final research report will be made available at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The results of this study may also be presented at a conference and published in a journal. I will not write teachers' name or address in any report or document.

9. Who is organising and funding the research? The University of KwaZulu-Natal and myself.

10. Who has reviewed the study?

My supervisor, Dr Carol Bertram, School of Education at the University of KwaZulu-Natal

11. Contact(s) for Further Information

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research project please contact:

- HSSREC Research Office contact P. Mohun Tel: 032 260 4557 Email: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za
- UKZN College of Humanities Research office contact Ms P Ximba, Tel: 031 260 3587, Email: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za)
- Dr Carol Bertram, my supervisor at Tel: 033 260 5349, Email: BertramC@ukzn.ac.za
- Faith Kimathi, the researcher at cell: 0839429253, Email: fkkananu@gmail.com

N.B. Please sign this attached slip if you consent the school to be participate in the study

I …………………………………….….... **(School authority/Principal do consent** Faith Kimathi to carry on with the data gathering in relation to research project).

On behave of the school I/We do consent to the following:

Methods	I/We do consent	I/We do not consent
Observation of EFAL lessons		
Video recording of EFAL lessons		
Teachers' oral interviews		
Informal conversations/field notes		

Audio recording of teachers' interviews		

I/We understand that my/our real names **will not be used in any public report**, unless authorized by our/myself and that I/we are free to withdraw from the study at any time, without any consequences for my/our status at the university or in the community.

…………………………………….   …………………………..

Signature of School Authority   **Date**

....
          ....   **School**
                    Cell No.

Appendix 5: Teachers' informed consent letter

TEACHERS' INFORMED CONSENT   24-01-2014

Dear participants,

My name is Faith Kimathi, a PHD student in the School of Education, PMB campus, University of KZN. I would like to invite you to participate in my study project: *Exploring the professional learning of selected Foundation Phase (FP) teachers from Advanced Certificate in Teaching (ACT) programme*. The project involves **gathering data from FP teachers enrolled in the ACT programme in February 2014.** The study aims to explore the kinds of professional knowledge a FP teacher learns from the ACT programme, *how* they learn and the impacts this learning may have on the teachers' beliefs and EFAL teaching.

This information is intended to assist in curriculum and delivery improvement of the ACT programme. You will be making a contribution in this regard by participating in my research project. However, please remember participation is **completely voluntary and will not** influence your learning performance from the ACT programme in any manner. **With your consent I will observe two EFAL lessons in two consecutive days per visit and then audio record one follow-up interview**. The information you provide shall be treated in strict confidence and for the purpose of research only. Thus, your identity or schools' names shall remain anonymous.

 Please indicate on the table below (by **ticking** as applicable) and then fill in your full names and sign this consent form if you are willing to participate in my research.

Instruments	I do consent	I do not consent	Period-2014	Period-2015
Observations of literacy lessons				
Video record literacy lessons				
Interviews to be audio recorded				
Informal conversations/ field notes				

 I …... (Full names of participant) learning at............................ (ACT Learning centre) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project and therefore do *consent Faith Kimathi to carry on with the data gathering in relation to research project.* I **do consent** to participate in this phase of research. I, also understand that my identity will remain anonymous and I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at anytime I should desire.

………………………………….   …………………………..
Signature of the participant   Date

....

Teaching School   Cell

For any other information may contact:
- Faith Kimathi, The researcher at cell: 0839429253, Email: fkkananu@gmail.com
- Dr Carol Bertram, my supervisor at Tel: 033 260 5349, Email: BertramC@ukzn.ac.za
- UKZN College of Humanities Research Office contact Ms P Ximba, Tel: 031 260 3587, Email: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za)
- HSSREC Research Office contact P. Mohun Tel: 032 260 4557 Email: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Appendix 6: Teachers' interview during Phase 1 & 2 in February and August 2014

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Teachers' interview 1 & 2, during data collection phase 1 & 2- February 2014 and August 2014

Introductory comment
I am interested in exploring the kinds of classroom practices associated with teaching children how to read and write in Grade 2. However, I do not have FP teaching background and would like you to answer some general questions which will help me understand your classroom practices more clearly. Please answer all the following questions in this paper. There are no right or wrong answers. Each teacher's practices and beliefs of teaching will be relevant and valuable to my research.
Please note: All. This interview **will not affect** your learning in the ACT programme and answers will remain confidential.

Part A: Foundation Phase Teacher Background information

1. Gender

    Male ☐   Female ☐

2. Age

    20 – 29 years ☐   40 – 49 years ☐

    30 - 39 years ☐   50   years ☐

3. How long have you been a foundation phase teacher?

    1 - 5 years ☐   6 - 10 years ☐

    11 – 20 years ☐   20 + years ☐

4. How long have you been teaching Grade 2?

    1 - 5 years ☐   6 - 10 years ☐

    11 – 20 years ☐   20 + years ☐

5. How many children do you teach in your class?

    10 - 20 ☐   21 - 30 ☐

    31 - 40 ☐   41+ ☐

6. How many times have you attended training workshops about teaching literacy (reading and writing) in the last 2 years?

    None ☐   1 – 2 times ☐

3– 4 times ☐   5+ times ☐

7. Have you ever taught any other Grade at Foundation Phase? Please specify:Grade
    _____   Number of years: _____

8. What qualifications do you currently have?

Qualifications	Institution/School	Year
Matric Certificate		
Teacher training certificate (2 years)		
Teacher training certificate (1 years)		
A degree		
Other (Specify)		

Part B: FP teacher' knowledge in reading and writing

1. What do you remember learning in English literacy & how did you learn to read and write as a FP learner?

2. In what ways has your early learning as a FP learner, impacted the ways in which you teach EFAL in Grade 2?

3. How would you describe your reading and writing proficiency as a FP teacher? Probe:

4. What and how often you read for pleasure?

Part C: FP teacher' beliefs and perceptions about teaching reading and writing at Grade 2

1. Can you describe what you think an ideal literacy lesson looks like? **Probe**: What resources would you use, what would learners do, what would the outcome be etc.?

2. What makes today's lesson a good EFAL lesson? **Probe.**

3. What do you think is the role of a teacher in a typical English literacy lesson in Grade2?

4. What is the role of the learners in a typical English lesson in Grade 2?

5. How do you use the physical environment to enhance effective reading and writing practices?

6. What are the main challenges that you face when teaching children how to read and write? Probe about challenges faced when teaching EFAL.

7. **Part D: Teacher learning from the ACT programme**

    1. Why did you enrol with the ACT programme?

    2. What do you anticipate to learn about teaching reading and writing from the ACT programme?

Appendix 7: Video stimulated interview during Phase 2, in August 2014

VIDEO STIMULATED INTERVIEWS DURING PHASE 2, AUGUST 2014

VENUE: **DATES:**

Introductory comment
Once again, thank you so much for allowing me to sit and observe your lessons over the two days. Although we have had time to chat informally during school breaks, I would now like to follow up more carefully with you on your teaching as we go through the video clips together. I would also like to know what you have learnt from the ACT programme so far and whether it has impacted on your EFAL teaching in anyway.

This research is not linked in any way to the formal programme and your participation **will not** impact on your formal achievement. As mentioned earlier, your names will be kept confidential. I would like to audio record this interview and so pseudonyms or made-up numbers will be used to identify who is speaking whenever necessary. The interview will not take more than an hour and a half. You are free to withdraw from this process at any time if you wish to.

Are there any questions about the nature of the interview?

Questions
In relation to the lesson, my goal was find whether, and in what ways classroom practices and teachers' beliefs have been enhanced as a result of learning from the ACT programme.

Part A: Classroom pedagogies

1. Tell me about the purpose of today's English literacy lesson. Probe: What did you hope that the learners would learn?

2. Why did you select that particular content? Probe: Have you done any other lesson involving this content? What made you think the children were ready for this content today?

3. Why did you organise the lesson in that particular way?

4. Why did you use those particular teaching strategies or reading approach?

5. What other reading approaches and strategies could you have used? Probe further.

6. How will you follow up this lesson? How will you revise this content? When will you move on?

Part B: Classroom space

1. I saw lots of instructional charts and posters on your classroom walls. Probe: Why do you have these posters on classroom walls? How do you use each of these charts or poster during a typical English literacy lesson?

2. I saw the children were seated in groups / in rows. Probe: Why do you arrange your classroom in that particular pattern? How does this enhance the children's learning?

7. Do you change the patterns of pupils seating arrangement? And why?

Thank you very much for the feedback

Appendix 8: Video stimulated interview during Phase 3, in October 2015

TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE CHANGE IN ENGLISH LITERACY

Video stimulated interview with the FP Teachers during Phase 3, October 2015

Introductory comment,
Thank you for allowing me once again to video record your English literacy lessons over the two days. This is the last phase of our data collection for this project. So, I take this opportunity to thank you for the hospitality and cooperation we have received from you as a participant for the 18months. Today, I would like to know what you have learnt from the ACT programme so far and whether it has impacted on your beliefs and teaching EFAL in any way for the 18months.

This research is not linked in any way to the ACT programme learners' performance and therefore participation **will not** impact on your formal achievement. All issues of confidentiality remain as mentioned in the earlier phases of data collection.

 My goal during this interview was to <u>probe</u> and gather more insights on what or how the teachers changed or did not change their EFAL practices and beliefs as a result of learning from ACT programme.

Classroom pedagogies questions

Tell me about the purpose of today's English literacy lesson, probe on:

- What did you expect the learners to learn from today's English lesson?

- Discuss with the teacher specific video clips e.g. Why did you do these particular activities? We can see that you started the lesson by….**(Discuss how the teacher developed the lesson)**

- Have you always structured your lesson like this? **(May refer to Feb and Sept 2014 lessons).**

- Did the ACT programme help you to articulate (become coherent/communicate better) what you were doing in class? How?

- Why different tasks do during the lesson **(may refer to Aug 2014 lesson)?** Some students wrote sentences from the chalkboard, others did individual reading, others constructing their own sentences…. **(especially with Teacher Anne)**

- In Feb 2014 **(e.g. Teacher Jane)** did a group discussion which did not go well, what is the ACT programme stand on how and when to use group work?

- How is today's lesson fitting (appropriate) to the current CAPS themes on literacy teaching for this week/term?

- How does today's lesson relate to the emergency literacy knowledge, concepts and skills **or** describe some of the principles of emergency literacy or FAL teaching principles you have learnt from Module 4 or 6 which are reflected in today's lesson or any other EFAL lesson?
- Will you repeat this lesson again? If yes when will you know it's time to move to the next topic? If no, how will you help the weak learners?

- Were you happy with the amount of work covered the time you spent teaching literacy today.
- Was your teaching pace alright for all the learners in your class? Or was your speed of teaching all right for the <u>learners of different abilities</u>? **(Maybe show one video clip)**
- Last time you repeated the concepts several times to emphasis what you were teaching. Did the ACT programme help you articulate on this approach of teaching?

Teacher knowledge questions

- Last time you told me that you enrolled with ACT programme to …..What specifically have you learnt the ACT programme?
- Last time you said an ideal good English lesson is when…. Has the ACT programme helped you articulate what an ideal good English lesson is?
- What should a teacher know to conduct an ideal good literacy lesson?
- Has the ACT programme helped you improve on how to organise the learning activities during the lesson? How?
- Tell me how the ACT programme helped you overcome challenges on **when** and **how** to use the DBE workbooks. Are the learners involved more in working/or writing in the DBE workbooks or busy books?
- I realised during the lessons correct responses from individual learners or whole class was rewarded by a collective chorus or a round applause (clapping hands). Have I interpreted the feedback patterns correctively?
- What else have you learnt from the programme regarding these rewards and getting feedbacks from the learners?

Reading approaches

- You used guided and shared reading strategies in Feb and August 2014. Have you changed these reading strategies? If yes explain?

- There are 3 main approaches of reading teachers are encouraged to use - phonics approaches, whole language approaches and balanced approaches. How did the ACT programme help you articulate these approaches?

Classroom Environment (Observe the kind of changes in classroom displays)

- The learners in your class are seated in groups / in rows. Have you changed the seating arrangement of the pupils within this year? And Why?
- I can see the class does/doesn't have library. How often and what kind of children literacy books do you use? **OR** how often and what kind of books do you read to the children? **OR** What do the children read and how often?

Thank you for the feedback

Appendix 9: A Sample of Assessment Tasks from the ACT Programme

A Sample of Assessment Tasks from the ACT Programme

FP ACT 1: Child Development

Assignment 1 (15% weighting – short assignment)

Using the Circle of Courage model (this model states that children have four 'spirits' – the spirit of belonging, of mastery, or generosity and of independence). Identify four children in your class. Write down if these children have strong spirits or broken or distorted spirits. For example, a child with a strong spirit of belonging, would be trusting, with a distorted spirit of belonging would be overly dependent, and with a broken spirit of belonging, would be distrustful). Explain why you say this.
Use some of the suggested activities for mending broken spirits and reflect on their implementation.
Write down some of the resistance and resilience factors at play in these children's lives. Use literature to support your argument.

Task

Write two children's storybooks of 9 – 10 pages each. Each page should have 2 – 3 sentences and pictures. Message of one book should be moral values and the other reflecting resilience and courage.

Assignment 2 (25% weighting - long assignment)

Part A.
Using the developmental standards in the NELDS (National early learning development standards) non-formally assess a grade R child that you know.

Part B.
Identify a child each in Grades R, 1, 2, 3 and carry out a series of activities with them (e.g. throwing and catching and running and stopping). Note down the similarities and difference between the different children.

Part C.
Choose two young children, and carry out the following tasks of classification, conservation of number and seriation. Note how each child responds to the task and what Piagetian stage the child is in.

Part D
Collect a sample of children's drawings. Use what you have learnt about the emergence of drawing and writing and describe the drawings in terms of scribbling, pre-symbolism, symbolism and realism.

Appendix 10: The dissertation's language editor confirmation letter

Editing Confirmation

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06/02/2017

Report on thesis by: Faith Kananu Kimathi

Thesis Title: Professional learning of foundation phase teachers in the advanced
certificate in teaching (ACT) programme

This serves to confirm that the abovementioned thesis was language edited by a member of the KZN Language Institute's professional English language editing team. The document was returned with tracked changes, suggested corrections and queries, which the author was responsible to attend to.

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