

EXPLORING THE TEACHING OF
WRITING TO GRADE 8 TO 10
ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL
LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN A
TOWNSHIP SCHOOL: A CASE
STUDY

by

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Master of Education.

Specialization: Language & Media Studies

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Declaration

I, Thato Mopeli, declare that

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Dr Bridget Campbell

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EXPLORING THE TEACHING OF WRITING TO ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN A TOWNSHIP SCHOOL: A CASE STUDY

Abstract

This study explored how English First Additional Language teachers in a South African township school teach writing and why they teach it in this way. The study aimed to answer the following questions: How is writing taught to Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language learners? Why is writing taught in this way to Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language learners? The Socio-cultural Theory underpinned this study. Pertinent literature that guided this study included what is writing, importance of writing, approaches to teaching writing, writing practices, teaching of writing to English First Additional Language learners and English teacher competency to teach writing. Data generation strategies were non-participant observation, semi-structured interviews, and document analysis. The themes that emerged through thematic analysis were approaches to teaching writing, assessment, challenges to English First Additional Language writing, experiences of writing, and the role of Department of Basic Education. The findings acknowledged that the Covid-19 pandemic affected the teaching and learning of writing. The study recommends that there should be more focus on the teaching of writing as this language skill is necessary for learners' academic success.

KEYWORDS: Writing; Teaching of writing; English First Additional Language; Socio-cultural theory

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Introduction

The study aimed to explore how Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language learners were taught writing in a township school. This was done with the intention of understanding how writing was taught and why writing was taught in this way to grade 8 – 10 learners in a particular school. Several studies noted that writing in English FAL had always been a problem for learners who had home languages which were not English (Elola and Oskoz, 2017; Ntombela et al, 2020; Turkben, 2021). Putri and Aminatun (2021) added that such learners' writings were characterized by a series of errors that sometimes affect meaning, and consequently, learners' performance in class.

This chapter firstly outlined the purpose, motivation, and context for this study. The key studies related to this topic were then reviewed. Thereafter, research objectives and questions were presented in conjunction with the overview of the research. The chapter ended with the researcher's stance and organization of the dissertation.

1.2. Rationale/Motivation

The purpose of this study was to explore the teaching of writing to English First Additional Language learners in a township school and to understand why writing was taught in this way. My interest stemmed from my experiences as an English FAL teacher, a marker for both Grade 12 English FAL, and for the module English Education: Foundations for first-year university students. As a Grade 10 English FAL teacher, I observed that learners faced challenges when writing and decided to investigate the teaching of writing at the school where I was currently teaching.

In my 8 years of teaching EFAL, I observed that students made many errors in their writing. These included errors in syntax, where there were problems with tenses, articles, prepositions, with some learners being oblivious to concord errors in their sentences. Spelling, grammar, and punctuation errors were also challenging for the majority of Grade 10 FAL learners. For example, some learners could not use full stops and commas appropriately, not capitalizing the first letter of the sentence, or writing in capital letters only. Other problems included many learners having low levels of vocabulary and the inappropriate use of vocabulary. As a result, some learners faced difficulties expressing themselves in writing and failed to see the difference between writing and speech. Many learners were also not familiar with the features of texts being taught to them. They struggled with the structure of essays, and in some of their

writing products, a marker could not identify the introduction, body, or conclusion. Even when I was assessing transactional writing, like a friendly letter, dialogue, or a diary, the majority of learners showed low levels of understanding the type of language used, tone, and the characteristics of the particular transactional texts.

It was these problems that spurred me, as an English FAL teacher, to conduct this case study on exploring the teaching of writing to Grade 8 to 10 English FAL learners in a specific township school. The study focused specifically on the writing of EFAL learners. Creative writing, as defined by Kumar (2020), was writing conducted in a manner that was not academic or technical but still attracted an audience.

1.3. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to explore the teaching of writing in EFAL classrooms at Grade 8 to 10 levels. This was done to understand how writing was taught in these EFAL classrooms and why writing was taught in that way. Among the four skills of acquiring language, writing was regarded as the most difficult skill to master (Turkben, 2021). As an EFAL teacher, I was not given enough support on writing in school, university, and during teacher development workshops (TDWs). In TDWs, I realized that the subject advisor and lead teachers assumed that teachers could teach writing, hence my interest in finding out how other teachers taught writing.

1.4. Context/ Background

The study is located in a secondary school at Umlazi, KwaZulu Natal, South Africa. The school is a quintile 4 school. Schools in quintiles 4 and 5 are fee-charging schools. According to the South African Schools Act (1996), the factors that determine which quintile a school belongs to, include the surrounding infrastructure and how many homes in the area are made from brick, wood, or iron sheeting. The school is located within a township where there is better infrastructure compared to other townships, hence the quintile 4 classification of the school by the Department of Basic Education. Many learners in the school come from disadvantaged backgrounds and cannot afford to pay school fees. Most learners do not come from the section of Umlazi in which the school is located. Instead, learners from this school come from poor neighbouring semi-rural communities of Malukazi, Folweni, and Nsimbini.

The Department of Basic Education, along with the school principal, is working with relevant stakeholders to downgrade the school to quintile 3 classification – which is a non-fee-paying school. The school also requests a downgrade to quintile 3 so that feeding schemes can be provided for our learners. Despite the surrounding community of the section of Umlazi having better infrastructure, this community has an apparent drug problem that has a negative influence on the school.

This is a secondary school that caters for grades 8 to grade 12, where IsiZulu and English are offered as home language and first additional language respectively. The class average is 60 learners per class.

1.5. Overview of key studies dealing with the topic

This study draws and builds on other research studies that focused on the use of different approaches to teaching writing as well as the use of pedagogical theory like the Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Theory. My study was spearheaded by two pertinent South African studies. These are studies conducted by Ntombela et al. (2020) and Macdonald and Pinheiro (2015). The study by Ntombela et al. (2020) revealed that most teachers use the process approach that is endorsed in the curriculum, and whilst using these approaches, they adopted the strategy of code-switching. In this study, it was concluded that the approach used to teaching writing was influenced by the knowledge and understanding the teacher has of that particular approach.

Macdonald and Pinheiro (2015) conducted a study using the concepts of Zone of Proximal Development and Mediation to teach literature. This study provided a detailed account on how English teachers in South Africa use these concepts of the Socio-Cultural Theory.

1.6. Research objectives and questions

The objectives of this study are:

1. To explore the teaching of writing to grade 8 English First Additional Language learners in a South African township school.
2. To understand why writing is taught in this way to Grade 8 English First Additional Language learners in a South African township school.

Questions asked are:

1. How is writing taught by English First Additional Language teachers in a South African township school in Grade 8 to 10?

2. Why is writing taught in the way it is taught to First Additional Language learners in a South African township school in Grade 8 to 10?

1.7. Delimitations

In South Africa, the First Additional Language (FAL) is an equivalent of English Second Language (ESL). South Africa has 11 official languages and therefore, some learners have a home language and more than one additional language. English FAL is designed for students who do not speak English as their first language. It focuses on developing basic language skills, such as reading, writing, and speaking to help learners communicate effectively in English (CAPS, 2012b).

A township is commonly understood to refer to “the underdeveloped, usually (but not only) urban, residential areas that during Apartheid were reserved for non-whites (Africans, Coloureds and Indians) who lived near or worked in areas that were designated for whites only” (Pernegger and Godehart, 2007, p2). The Oxford English Dictionary (2023) defines a township as a suburb or city of predominantly black people formerly reserved for black occupation during the apartheid era. The school in which the study is set is deep within a township.

1.8. Organization of the dissertation

The dissertation is comprised of five chapters that respond to the two research questions that guide this study. Chapter one provides a brief description of the dissertation and explains the main purpose of this study through the rationale, research question, and objectives of this study. The conclusion outlines this study.

Chapter two begins by placing the study into a context by reviewing national and international studies pertinent to the teaching of writing. The topics reviewed are: What is writing? Importance of writing; approaches to writing; writing practice and teaching of writing to FAL learners, as well as English teacher competency to teach writing. For a theoretical framework, I chose to work with the concept of pedagogy and socio-cultural theory by focusing specifically on the concepts found within this theory. This includes the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO), Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), Mediation, Internalization, and Dynamic Assessment.

Chapter three explains the research design approach and paradigm. The interpretivist research paradigm, case study research and the qualitative research approach were discussed in detail. The methods of data generation were observations, semi-structured interviews, and document analysis. Observations and semi-structured interviews were used to generate information from

participants when participants were teaching EFAL classrooms. The document analysis focused on the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for Grades 7 to 9 and 10 to 12, and rubrics used as reference to how teachers assessed their learners' writing. I then present ethical considerations made, and issues of validity to conclude the methodology chapter.

Chapter four responds to the first two research questions: How is writing taught by English First Additional Language teachers in a township school? Why is writing taught in this way to First Additional Language learners in a township school? In this chapter, I present the findings, in the form of themes that were deduced when I analysed the data generated by means of the field texts.

Chapter five is the last chapter and it focuses on the findings and concludes the dissertation. This is done through outlining the main findings. The main findings are discussed using the objectives of this study. The chapter concludes by giving the implications, limitations, and the final word of this study.

1.10 Conclusion

In this background chapter, I explained the rationale and motivation for the study. I discussed the theoretical framework which underpins the study. I provided key research questions the study aimed to answer. I highlighted the research design and the methodology used to generation data, and the ethical considerations taken into account. The chapter that follows discusses the theoretical framework in-depth, and reviews literature pertinent to this study.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

1.1. Introduction

Chapter One served as an introduction to this dissertation and outlined the development of the research topic, ‘Exploring the teaching of writing to Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language (EFAL) classrooms in a township high school: A case study.’ Questions: 1. How is writing taught by English First Additional Language teachers in a township school? 2. Why is writing taught in this way to First Additional Language learners in a township school? The rationale was then discussed to reaffirm the research purpose of this study. The chapter concluded by outlining the organization of the dissertation.

This chapter focuses on the literature review and the theoretical framework. The literature review focuses on issues around writing and the teaching of writing. The study is underpinned by Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory and the concepts of the more knowledgeable other, the zone of proximal development, mediation, internalization and dynamic assessment.

2.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review discusses what writing is, the importance of writing, approaches to teaching of writing, writing practices, and teaching of writing to EFAL learners. It also looks at English teachers’ competency to teach writing. The literature review draws from local and international studies.

2.2.1. What is writing?

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for English First Additional (FAL) Senior Phase (2012a, p.35) defines writing as “an instrument of communicating that allows learners to create and communicate thoughts and ideas in a coherent manner”. This definition sees writing within the boundaries of the school and as a tool for communicating. Putri and Aminatun (2021), however, view writing as an activity of using language to express ideas in the written form. In a classroom, learners may express themselves through writing, and the written products are then used as a tool through which assessment takes place, and by which the teacher establishes whether learners have understood what has been taught. These include written class activities, assignments, tests, and exams. Writing in the classroom is thus an important aspect for both teachers and learners, where the latter prove, by writing, that they have met the standards required by the teacher and the curriculum.

Writing can be defined as originating and creating a unique verbal construct that is graphically recorded (Wali and Madani, 2020). This definition of writing is befitting for early childhood development where learners are introduced to writing as a unique verbal construct that is graphically recorded (Wali and Madani, 2020). Here, learners are taught how to write by verbalizing what they are writing. For instance, learners say “‘A’ for Apple” and subsequently learn to scribe the letter A. This definition sees writing as nothing more than the words that have been written. This is a very simplistic view of writing as there is more to writing than just mere words which have been transcribed.

Writing is a way of communicating with others (Huang and Zhang, 2020). This further widens the scope of writing, where writing becomes a social construct used as a communicative tool between two or more people. Not only is writing seen as a communicative tool, but also a culturally based tool used for poetry, screenwriting, playwriting, novels, short stories, and so on (Hodges et al, 2016). This definition aligns with the socio-cultural theory that underpins this study, that advocates cultural influence in shaping human cognitive development.

My research uses the definition provided by the CAPS (2012a) document because the language that underlies writing is used as a communication tool, especially in language classrooms where teachers also assess learners’ writing levels. The study also adds to this definition by describing writing as a tool or an activity used to express ideas and feelings, where these ideas or feelings are used as a way of communication or a way of displaying an understanding.

2.2.2. The importance of writing.

There are four elements that entail language acquisition, namely, reading, speaking, listening and writing. Writing is an important skill to learn in language acquisition. The CAPS (2012a) emphasizes writing as an important task for learners to think about grammar and spelling, which speeds up language acquisition. “Learners will also employ the process writing to produce well organized, grammatically correct writing texts” (CAPS, 2012a, p. 37). Teaching writing in English FAL classrooms is a very important part of language teaching. Tan (2011) adds that writing is assumed to be of great importance for academic success since it is the most common tool for the evaluation of students.

Teachers are required to use various approaches to teaching writing, whether they are at a primary school level or at secondary school. After reading through the English Language Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement documents, it is clear that the Department of

Basic Education, along with its language curriculum statements, does not explicitly state why teachers have to teach writing. Harmer (2001) sheds some light on some four reasons of teaching writing to learners.

First, teaching writing functions as reinforcement since students often find it useful to write sentences using language structures and expressions just studied and acquired. Second, it is for language development as the process of writing as a mental activity helps students to learn. These students construct suitable written texts as part of the ongoing learning experience. Third, teaching writing can help identify students' learning styles. This is because, as Khusna and Puspitasari (2020) explains, it is only through writing that the teacher will find that some students are good at picking up language by looking and listening, while others need more time to think and produce a language. The fourth and final reason for teaching writing is that writing is a skill. It is a basic language skill as important as speaking, listening, and reading.

If the teaching of writing is taught effectively using the relevant writing approaches, then learners should acquire the writing skills mentioned by Khusna and Puspitasari (2020). Therefore, there is need for teachers to be aware of some of the approaches to teaching writing that they can use to assist with the teaching and learning of writing in a language classroom.

Outside of the classroom, writing is advantageous to humans. Klimova (2012) underscores the importance of writing to cognitive development, fostering communication, and revealing one's personality. Writing is also advantageous in the workplace as it makes employees lifelong learners (Walsh, 2010). Writing is an important skill that both children and adults need to learn effectively because of its advantages, even outside the school realm.

2.2.3. Approaches to Teaching Writing

This literature section reviews three approaches to teaching writing, namely, the product, process, and genre-based approach. These three approaches have been selected because they are discussed in the CAPS document for English FAL, where the process and genre-based approach were recommended.

2.2.3.1 The Product Approach

Many scholars consider writing as a product, which represents a traditional approach to teaching writing (Badger and White, 2000; Liaghat and Biria, 2018, Ghufon, 2016). Product writing is an approach to teaching writing which focuses on students' final product, or the text they are asked to produce (Liaghat and Biria, 2018). Ghufon (2016) describes this

approach as controlled-to-free approach because of the four steps or stages in a product-oriented approach.

Stage one is to expose learners to a model text within the appropriate genre that is being taught. After reading these model texts, learners analyse the main features of the specific text. What is important with this approach is for learners to have knowledge about the structure of language in the form of text provided by the teacher (Liaghat and Biria, 2018).

The second stage is controlled writing, where, after identifying the general features discussed in the modelling stage, learners practice these features and produce their own texts. Ghufon (2016) makes the point that at this stage, the teacher controls the learners' activity with exercises on grammatical features and related vocabulary. Although this controlled writing does not allow for scaffolding, this does not mean it is not essential for the development of learners' writing.

The next step after controlled writing is organizing ideas in which students write a text like the sample text. At this stage, writing is considered "assisted imitation" in which the learner responds to the stimulation provided by the teacher (Badge and White, 2000, p.157). This assisted imitation can be achieved through scaffolding. Teachers play an important role in this stage by guiding learners through the writing process.

In the fourth and final stage, the learner provides a final product. To show that learners can be fluent and competent users of the language, learners individually use the skills, structures, and vocabulary they have been taught, to produce the product (Ugun and Aziz, 2020). The last stage of this approach is also called free writing because this is where learners write freely on a similar text on their own.

Gholami (2013) describes modelling as being at the centre of the product approach, and notes that "it has always been regarded as a beneficial source for providing feedback to students as well as being an effective teaching tool, if appropriately integrated into the context of writing process" (p.77). Teachers are required to provide feedback and correction of the learners' final product. This is done after learners have written the final product of the target text.

The advantages of the product approach to teaching writing include that it recognises the need for learners to be given linguistic knowledge about texts, and involves imitation as a way in which people learn (Ugun and Aziz, 2020). The disadvantages of this approach, mentioned by Liaghat and Biria (2018), are that process skills are given a relatively minor importance because

focus is on the product and not on mastering the skills towards achieving the product. The knowledge and skills that learners bring to the classroom are undervalued.

It is because of such reasons mentioned above that I believe that teachers in this school were not in favour of this approach to teaching writing. Also, the product approach is neither mentioned nor recommended by the Curriculum for Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for English FAL Senior Phase documents (2012a). In the documents the recommended approaches are the process and the genre-based approach.

2.2.3.2 The Process Approach

The process approach views writing as a gradual process (CAPS, 2012b; Panofsky et al., 2005; Scott, 1996). This entails that the teachers should teach writing one step at a time. Panofsky et al. (2005, p.45) explain that “when writing, learners have to adhere to these steps where there is planning, drafting, revision, editing and then presenting/publishing” and have a chance to put this process into practice.

The Department of Basic Education through the CAPS (2012b) document suggests that teachers should adopt the process approach to teaching writing. CAPS (2012b) endorses this approach because learners are equipped with the necessary linguistic skills and the teacher plays a facilitative role where learners will be “gradually learning to write particular text types independently” (p.11). Under this approach, writing is centred on the learner.

One of the disadvantages of the process approach is that it often regards all writing as being produced by the same set of processes (Hyland, 2004). This monolithic view of writing was first proposed by Badger and White (2000) where, according to them, writing was seen as uniform regardless of what was being written and who was writing. The approach does not consider the type of texts created by the author and the reasons for creating these texts, and provides learners with insufficient input, especially regarding linguistic knowledge, to write successfully.

The above criticism is perhaps more applicable to the South African context where a learner who is not comfortable in speaking English is expected to go through the process of writing in a language that they are not familiar with, on their own. Perhaps it would be ideal to use this approach selectively depending on which genre of text is being taught. The genre-based approach presents an alternative perspective to the teaching of writing.

2.2.3.3 The Genre-Based Approach

The genre-based approach is designed to address the shortcomings of the process approach to writing. The use of genre in teaching writing is considered relatively new. Some components of the genre-based approach are similar to those of the product approach because textual conventions are important when teaching writing using the two approaches. This approach, however, differs from the product approach because it emphasizes that writing varies according to the social context in which it is produced. This is in line with the socio-cultural theory which views learning as socially oriented.

Dirgeyasa (2016, p.34) describes genre in writing as “a kind of writing in which there is a typical style, a particular target of readers and a specific purpose”. In the definition, there are three components of the genre-based approach which are presented. A genre-based approach to writing requires learning of textual conventions, writing based on social situations, and if learners care about their readers, it will encourage them to write with purpose.

Atkinson (2018, p.4) views genre-based approach to writing as an approach which “identifies institutionalized forms of written communication sharing common social purpose, or genre, and seeks to teach their textual conventions”. Just like the previous definition of Dirgeyasa (2016), the genre-based approach is seen as writing with a social purpose. This definition, however, differs to that of Dirgeyasa’s (2016) that reveals that texts are to be taught by their text-style. Learners, like in the product approach, are given a model text through which they are taught its textual conventions. Here, imitation is seen as a way of learning.

Learning through imitation takes place through exploration of different text types. Kim (2012) stresses that learners should be exposed to various texts so that they will be equipped with features of a genre. The exposure of different texts in the same genre makes learners recall the structure and the linguistic features of a text like content, lexis, organisation, grammar, and style (Atkinson, 2018).

There are five cyclical stages that Hyland (2004) identifies in the genre-based approach. These are setting context, modelling, joint construction, independent construction, and comparing. The initial step is setting the context where the teacher assists learners to discover the aims and setting in which a given genre is applied. Modelling guides students to investigate key features of a sample text of the genre. Joint construction offers a teacher-guided or peer guided activities to activate the student understanding of organisational patterns and grammatical features of the

genre. Independent construction allows the teacher to support and monitor independent writing. Comparing helps learners to identify different kinds of features of this genre that have been learned (see Figure 2.1.).

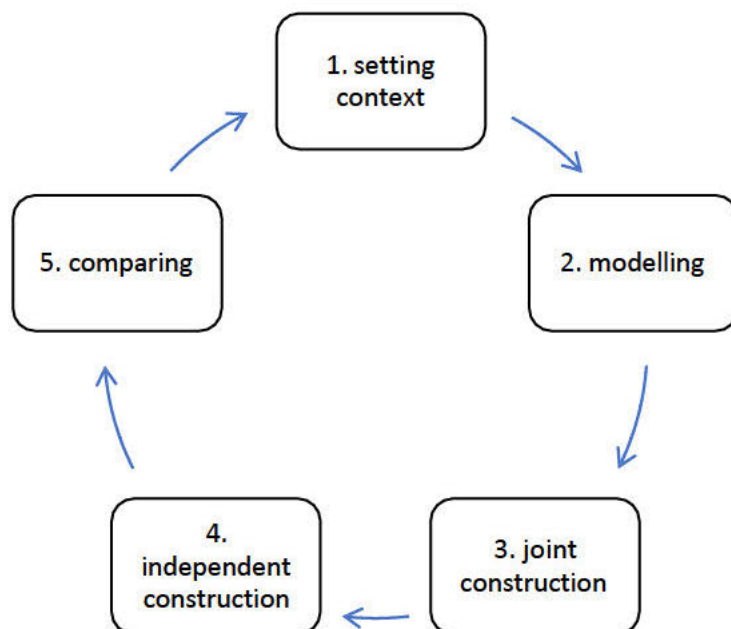


Figure 2.1.: Hyland's (2004) Cycle of the genre-based approach.

Hyland's (2004) cycle is very similar to the three stages mentioned by Martin and Rose (2005). Martin and Rose (2005) established three stages of the genre-based approach in the classroom. In these three stages, there is the deconstruction of text where teachers introduce the sample text. Learners are then assisted to deconstruct the sample text by demonstration, modelling, and discussions about the purposes, structure, and language features. In stage two, there is joint construction of text where learners and teachers work together to construct the text based on the previous sample texts. The teachers direct the learners to focus on the purpose, structure, and language features. In the independent construction phase, the students construct their text independently while the teachers step back. The three stages of genre-based approach presented by Martin and Rose are more comprehensive than Hyland's (2004).

In both cycles of genre-based approach to teaching writing, there is the more knowledgeable other who assists learners to construct the intended text. That is why the socio-cultural theory is relevant to this study. The more knowledgeable other can be a teacher or another more informed learner in the class. In Martin and Rose's (2005) three cycles of genre-based

approach, once the learner begins constructing text independently, the teacher now has to step back and remove the scaffolding.

According to Ajmal and Irfan (2020), the genre-based writing approach engages in the redistribution of literacy resources to allow learners into discourse communities. This approach allows for learners to know the social purpose of the text, the situations in which to use the text, and the potential audience.

This study adopted the three stages of genre-based approach presented by Sari (2019). The stages of genre-based approach used in this study are modelling text, joint construction of a text, and independent construction text. These stages have some practical steps to follow as well. The diagram below presents these:

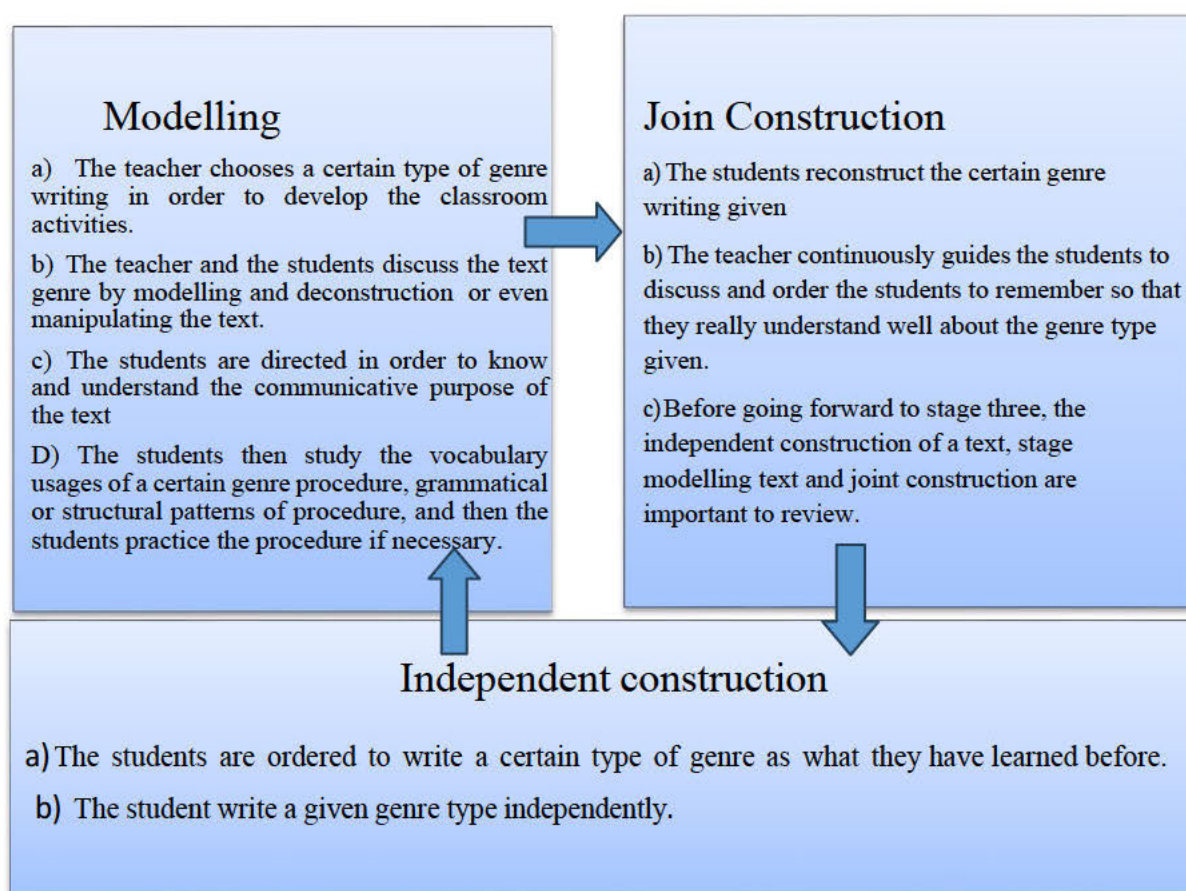


Figure 2.2.: The three stages of the Genre-based approach (Sari, 2019, p33-34).

The cyclical stages of the genre-based approach established by Sari (2019) show a more explicit format of this approach (see Figure 2.2). Each step in this cycle is defined in detail and presents practical stages which could be seen when teachers in my study were teaching. For an example in the modelling stage, Sari (2019) distinguishes the role of both the teacher and the learner during the teaching of writing in this approach. This was not clearly explained in the previous stages of this approach that were elucidated by the previous scholars.

The genre-based approach aims to provide writers with a clear understanding of how target texts are structured, and why they are written the way they are (Negretti and McGrath, 2018). Many genre-based strategies are underpinned by Vygotsky's (1978) social interaction between the teacher and learner.

2.2.4. Writing Practices and Teaching of writing to FAL learners

As mentioned earlier, writing is a difficult skill to acquire, and a review on how learners experience writing in their classes is needed. In a study conducted by Turkben (2021) in Turkey, to determine whether students' written expressions meet the basic principles of the process approach, it was found that learners at various levels did not meet the 'good writing' criterion. This comes from the idea that learners view writing as a talent as opposed to a skill that should be learnt. It was also found that teachers in schools talked about process approach when teaching writing, but, in practice they lean more towards the product approach. As a result, learners tend to take too long to begin the process of writing. As mentioned by Elola and Oskoz (2017), learners sometimes begin writing without planning nor drafting. Perhaps, this is a result of the incompetency of teachers to teach writing.

In a study conducted in the United States of America, Hochstetler (2007) found that secondary English teachers failed to teach writing because they lack preparation to teach writing in their training years. Teachers were asked which institution taught them to teach writing, and they all mentioned that they are self-taught after they were inspired by other people. They recalled being taught literature but not specifically writing. Hochstetler (2007) highlights the absence of writing pedagogy in their teacher programs and the presence of self-taught teachers in their writing approach. The study further interviewed lecturers who were involved in teacher training to ascertain whether the syllabus covered writing. It was discovered that teachers were said to have been taught the process approach when it was the product approach. This, as Hochstetler (2007) mentioned, led to teachers breaking down the steps of the process approach while teaching the product. This was evident when the teachers placed more emphasis on the finished

product.

“Some people say they teach process – like concept mapping, making an outline, etc. to put the pieces together and call it rough draft, peer editing, revision, which some people treat that as editing – but that is really just breaking down the product into parts and that is not process. In process you think about how writing evolves...” Hillocks (1995, p7)

The last line from this quote indicates that the learner/writer needs to be cognisant of the steps taking place when undertaking writing. The learner should be focused on the different steps taken when writing, rather than the finished product.

A similar study was conducted in South Africa by Ntombela et al. (2022) who focused on various writing approaches used by teachers in English First Additional Language (FAL) classrooms. The study initially learned that many teachers in English FAL classrooms had limited understanding of the writing approaches, and as such, they sometimes did not maximize these strategies to the benefit of their learners in classrooms. In addition to this, Julius (2015) points out that teachers themselves did not possess high levels of writing skills, thus, affecting their attitudes towards writing and the teaching of writing. As a result, very little writing practices take place in the English FAL classroom.

The CAPS document for English FAL advocates the use of the process approach. This writing approach was the most popular among the five participants in the Ntombela et al. (2020) study. Unlike in the USA, the teachers in South Africa were found to be also using the two approaches - process and genre-based to writing, depending on genre of the text being written. For example, when the narrative essay was taught, process approach was used. When teaching shorter-transactional writing the genre-based approach was used by one of the teachers. One of the teachers used two approaches in various stages of the lesson.

Ntombela et al. (2020) mentioned that teachers of English FAL teachers have limited understanding of the writing approaches. However, in the study teachers were effectively using the two approaches in accordance with the needs of learners thus, contradicting the opening argument. The researchers in this study admit that writing strategies in many classrooms across the world are known, whereas little is known about teaching of writing in South African classroom contexts, especially in secondary schools.

2.2.5. English teacher competency to teach writing

Writing is one of the four basic skills of learning English after reading, listening, and speaking. Writing has been identified as one of the hardest skills when learning English (Sun, 2023).

Writing is a complicated skill to learn, and therefore, it is a complicated skill to teach. This segment looks at the competencies of teachers to teach writing.

Thackeray (2022) states that teachers do not want to teach writing. This is because, as explained by Thackeray (2022), United States of America teachers in primary and secondary school lack confidence, and therefore, spend little time teaching writing. Applebee and Langer (2011) observed writing instruction in 206 schools across the USA. Little writing or teaching of writing was taking place in these classrooms. The most writing that occurred was writing without composing like filling in the blanks, short answer responses, and copying. Applebee and Langer (2011) also found that about 7% of the time was used for teaching writing. This is a clear indication that a large number of teachers avoid teaching writing in class. Perhaps, teachers are not prepared to teach writing in class that is why it is often ignored.

In a study which surveyed United States secondary school teachers on whether they are prepared to teach writing, Graham et al. (2014) found that language teachers were not prepared to teach writing. To understand the competency of teachers to teach writing, one must look at how teachers were taught writing when they were becoming teachers. Graham et al. (2014) believed that teachers were not properly trained for writing at tertiary level. According to Graham et al. (2014), the teachers graduated at their teacher training institutions with a negative attitude towards writing that affected how they taught writing in classrooms. Analysing the way teachers talked about teaching of writing when they were becoming teachers, Kohnen (2019) interviewed early-career teachers on what influenced their writing, and most teachers highlighted it is through practice. They seldom mentioned teachers or the school as their influencers. Thackeray (2022) states that teachers who perceived themselves as good writers were more likely to implement best practices than teachers who perceived themselves as inadequate writers and inadequate teachers of writing. This strongly suggests that teachers were impacted by how they were taught writing in their roles as writing teachers.

A study in the United States of America conducted by Kohnen (2019), when talking about writing, the participants talked mainly in terms of written products not the process. Despite being taught writing at tertiary level, the participants in a study by Kohnen (2019) still felt indecisive and confused about writing because the resources provided during teacher training are different from resources that are offered in the field. This further proves what was found in a study of Graham et al. (2014) that teachers were or are not properly trained to teach writing.

Another study points to teachers' ill-preparedness to teach writing. Hsiang et al. (2016), observing 1 313 Grade 7-9 learners in Chinese language classrooms, found that the teaching of writing was not common in practice, as learners spent little time writing extended writing and it was teachers who were found to be composing the written texts. Again, teachers of these language classrooms laid the blame on their teacher training institutions as being the reason why they avoided teaching writing in classrooms. In the study, Hsiang et al. (2016) discovered that about 21% of teachers noted that the training they received to become teachers was adequate. However, most teachers (62%) described their training in the teaching of writing skills as minimal. Another 13% of teachers admitted to having received no formal preparation to teach writing.

Writing is critical to learners' success in school and beyond, and such statistics demonstrate a global crisis. With the advent of texting, blogging, emailing, and composing on social media, writing is a necessary skill that should be taught regularly with confidence by the teachers of language. Recent findings (Graham et al., 2014; Hsiang et al., 2016; Kohnen, 2019; Thackeray, 2022) suggest that teachers generally find themselves unprepared for writing approaches and classroom techniques they should adopt when teaching writing in the classroom. Most of these studies placed teacher training at the epicentre of this unpreparedness by teachers. Bhowmik and Kim (2022), however, presents a different perspective and asserts that teachers encounter unique challenges when teaching FAL classrooms because of learners' (and their parents') developing English language proficiency and familiarity with the target culture. Earlier, writing has been defined as a difficult skill to learn a language and teach, and therefore, it becomes more difficult to teach learners who are still developing their proficiency.

2.3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

I chose Pedagogy and Socio-cultural theory as theories which underpin this study. Pedagogy was chosen because it places the main theory of this study, Socio-cultural Theory, into context in relation to other methods of teaching. I selected the Socio-cultural Theory because it has several widely accepted concepts which align with this study. Under this theory, the relevant concepts discussed are the More Knowledgeable Other, Zone of Proximal Development, Scaffolding, Mediation, Internalization and Dynamic Assessment.

2.3.1 Pedagogy

Pedagogy is described as a discipline that deals with the theory and practice of teaching (Rutto, 2017). The quality of teaching is dependent on pedagogy, meaning that teachers must

understand and employ relevant pedagogical strategies in their teaching. In implementing pedagogy there are various pedagogical theories.

Pedagogical theories are theories that propose how teaching should be put in practice, and how it will be beneficial to learners' competencies and abilities (Rutto, 2017). A pedagogical theory deals with the nature and structure of educational action, teaching, and upbringing (Runesson, 2015). In other words, pedagogical theories are not just about teaching, but relate to belief and value systems and philosophies of knowledge and political interests (Macleod and Golby, 2003). These Pedagogical theories are therefore, essential for the teacher because, through these theories, teachers enhance their understanding in terms of knowledge and skills of teaching (Kliebard, 2016).

This study discusses two Pedagogical theories, namely: Herbatianism and Learning Strategies.

2.3.1.1. Herbatianism

The Herbatianism theory was named after Johan Frederick Herbart (1776-1841), who is regarded as the father of pedagogy. In his theory, he established five components of pedagogy: Preparation, which involves getting ready for the process of teaching; Presentation, which is the actual teaching; Association as the process of bringing ideas and events together, example memory or imagination; Generalization, which refers to formulation of general concepts from what has occurred during teaching; and Application, which is placing what was learnt into practice (Kliebard, 2016). Herbart stressed the need for teachers to use all these components in their teaching and learning.

2.3.1.2. Learning Theories

There are learning theories which part of pedagogy. Under the learning theories there are theories which include, Behaviourist, Constructivist, and the Cognitive Learning Theories.

The premise that learning, as a component of conditioning, has an impact on behaviour is the foundation of behaviourism, or behaviourist learning theories. Learning occurs through relationships between inputs and responses, a process known as conditioning. The psychology of B.F. Skinner and Ivan Pavlov, who believed that students had blank minds and needed to be taught through experiences, is where behaviourism originated (Abdujabborovich, 2022).

Conditioning is an integral part of this theory, and there are three types of conditioning: classical, operant and observational conditioning.

Ivan Pavlov (1849–1936) developed the theory of classical conditioning from his experiments on a dog. When two stimuli are combined to produce a new learnt response, this type of conditioning takes place. While one stimulus elicits a reaction, the other is neutral. To get the dogs to salivate, Pavlov combined the sound of a bell, a neutral stimulus, with the aroma of food, a natural stimulus (Rutto,2017).

B.F. Skinner coined the Operant conditioning which states that a learning process response is influenced by consequence. Reinforcement or punishment, control the probability of observing a particular reaction. Reinforcement increases reaction, while punishment decreases it. Finally, there is observational learning, which is gaining knowledge by copying the actions of others after seeing how they behave (Foxall, 2021).

The concepts of human memory as it relates to learning is the main subject of Cognitive Learning Theory. This view, in contrast to behaviourism, acknowledges that students possess past knowledge, which is crucial for both teaching and learning.

Constructivist Learning Theories stress active involvement of learners during knowledge construction. The three notable theories under Constructivism are radical, cognitive and social constructivism. According to cognitive constructivism, each person constructs their own concepts via an individual process (Chuang, 2021). This theory emanated from the work of the renowned Swiss psychologist Piaget (1896-1980). Piaget's main focus was constructivism that has to do with the individual and how the individual creates knowledge. Different from the previous theories which rely on behaviour to learn, Piaget believed that individuals can construct knowledge on their own. From this stance, he presented four stages that describe a child's development: sensory-motor, pre-operational, concrete operational and formal operational stage. These stages highlight that learning occurs at different ages in childhood based on logical development.

Radical Constructivism was based on the ideas of Jean Piaget. However, the pioneer of this theory is von Glasersfield (1917-2010). The role of knowledge under this theory is determined by the cognitive needs of a learner. A learner is a creator of his/her knowledge and thus, should focus on their own experiences (von Glasersfield, 1984). Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934), a Soviet psychologist developed Social Constructivism. The main aspect of this theory is the use of

interaction as a form of learning. Learners have to collaborate to make meaning of concepts where a more advanced individual can assist others to understand what they could not understand if there was no assistance. This learning theory gave birth to Socio-Cultural Theory, a theory which underpins this study.

2.3.2. Socio-Cultural Theory

Socio-Cultural Theory is a Social Constructivist theory initiated by a Soviet psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1896 – 1934). Unlike Skinner’s (1963) behaviourism and Piaget’s (1970) Cognitive Development Theory, Vygotsky’s (1978) Socio-Cultural Theory “recognizes the central role those social relationships and culturally constructed artefacts play in organising uniquely human forms of thinking” (Lantolf, 2004, p. 30). These cultural artefacts assist humans when faced with complex problems. Vygotsky (1978) believed that people’s thinking differs dramatically between one culture and the other.

Socio-Cultural Theory brought a new dimension to cognitive development. Vygotsky’s counterparts like Piaget (1962) believed that a child goes through various stages to comprehend the world around them. Skinner (1963) initiated the behaviourist theory which focuses on how environmental interactions influences behaviour. Apart from Vygotsky, none of the above theorists placed culture as being responsible for developing higher-order functions. Learning as a social process was not stressed in Vygotsky’s (1978) Socio-Cultural Theory. This theory sees knowledge as existing inside the head of a human being. Instead, true development is not from the individual to society, but from society to the individual.

Socio-Cultural Theory views human development as a socially mediated process in which children acquire their cultural values, beliefs, and problem-solving strategies through collaborative dialogues with more knowledgeable others (Kozulin et al., 2003). This theory is pertinent to the study because the socio-cultural backgrounds of the learners will influence the way in which they write, learn and progress in the classroom. This is because under the socio-cultural theory, learners do not come into class as empty vessels instead they are knowledgeable beings which are influenced by the way they were taught in previous grades, by peers, parents and the community as well.

A classroom under this theory creates groups for peer instruction, collaboration, and small group instruction. The environment of the classroom, and the design of material to be learned would promote and encourage student interaction and collaboration. When working collaboratively, temporary assistance is provided by the teacher. This is called Scaffolding,

another essential concept under Socio-Cultural Theory. Whilst learning is taking place in the said classroom, Mediation and Internalization become an integral part of cognitive development. The just in time assistance provided needs to be qualified by a just in time assessment as well, to determine whether the learner has gained some form of proficiency. Dynamic assessment consequently becomes a suitable concept for this diagnostic exercise thus benefitting the study.

The tenets of the socio-cultural theory which include the more knowledgeable other, zone of proximal development, scaffolding, mediation, internalization, and dynamic assessment are further discussed in this chapter.

2.3.2.1. The More Knowledgeable Other

Socio-cultural theory is a theory that stresses that learning is socially orientated. Under this theory, interaction plays a crucial role. It is through these interactions that the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO) emerges (Roth and Radshod, 2010). Vygotsky (1978) defines the MKO as any person who has a superior understanding or ability than the learner. Previously, the MKO has been seen as the teacher in class. However, recent studies have clarified that this role can be attained by a more skilled learner in class (Rohde, 2021; DuFour, 2020; Siyepu, 2013; Puntambekar, 2005). Taking into consideration this change on the MKO, Probine and Perry (2021) defines the MKO as any agent who leads the less knowledgeable to greater degree of learning. In my study the MKO was the teacher or/and a more skilled learner. Vygotsky (1978) believed that the MKO can raise learners' competence through the zone of proximal development.

2.3.2.2. The Zone of Proximal Development

The Zone of proximal development or the ZPD as it is widely known, is the “distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peer” (Vygotsky, 1962, p86). The idea is that individuals learn best when working collaboratively with others. According to Puntambekar (2005), through such attempts to collaborate with the more knowledgeable other, learners can learn and internalize new concepts and acquire new skills.

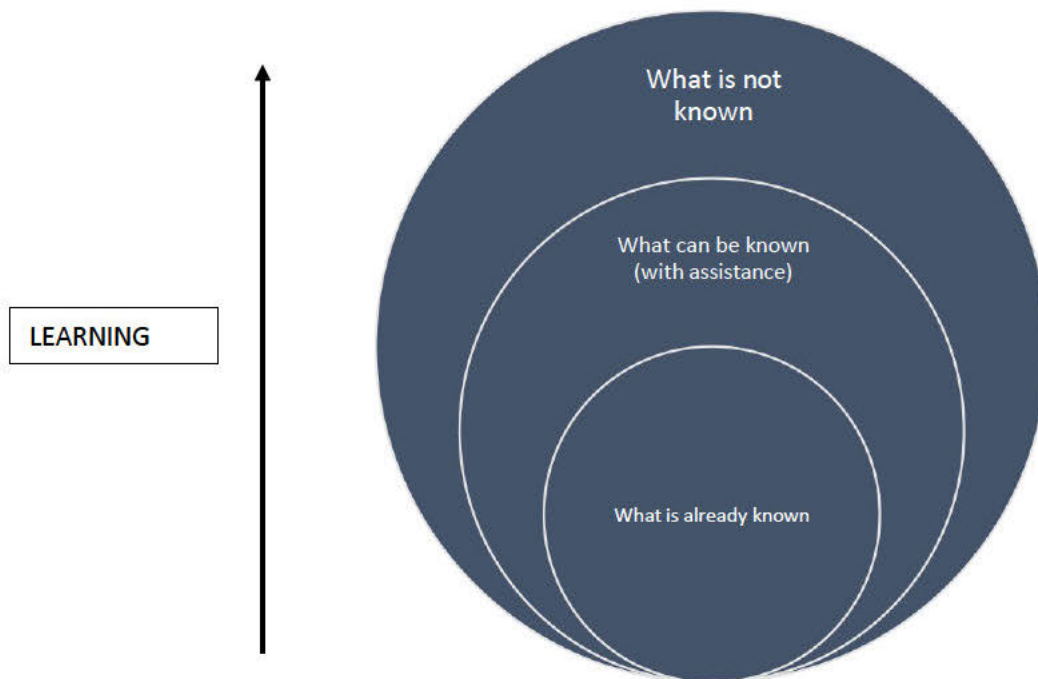


Figure 2.3. The Zone of Proximal Development

Vygotsky (1978) argues that the learning process falls into three categories: what a learner already knows, what can be known with assistance, and what is not known. Learning is therefore, designed from what the learner can do independently based on prior knowledge. Learning is then linked with the already existing knowledge that can be performed with assistance. As learners continue to practice, they can do certain tasks unaided in activities that were earlier performed with assistance. These descriptions of the ZPD prompted me to create the schematic diagram in Figure 2.3. that illustrates the operation of this concept.

Vygotsky (1987) states that children always play a role above their average age as well as above their normal daily behaviour. This is seen by children mimicking being doctors, police, mothers, and fathers when playing. Hence, the Vygotsky's ZPD was derived from observing and theorising play where children operated at their highest cognitive level (Rohde, 2021). In the classrooms like the ones I observed "a teacher identifies a child's ZPD and helps the child stretch beyond it" (Siyepi, 2013, p. 7). In the ZPD, the teacher should know or be aware of the capabilities of the learners in class as this will allow for learners to achieve their maximum potential by completing a set of activities.

In ZPD, it is not only teachers who play a role, but also peer interactions play a very important role. These peer- interactions are secondary to the actions of the teacher. They take the form of shared collaborative learning in the classroom, where learners interact with another learner who

is more advanced in the concept or topic being taught. This type of learner is an example of a more knowledgeable other. The more knowledgeable other is someone who has greater abilities than those of the child (Bruner, 1978). The more knowledgeable other can include a teacher, parent, and peers. However, the more knowledgeable other must be able to interact and communicate learning within the learner's reach. If the interaction is too far from the learner's zone, the learner will not be able to solve the problem even with help. The nature and scope of the role of the more knowledgeable other is also implicit in Vygotsky's ZPD.

A study conducted by DuFour (2020) in Texas, United States of America, which sought personalised learning through the ZPD, found that learners taught within the ZPD achieved comprehension of concepts and topics. In the ZPD learners were seen to develop individually even though they were taught in the same class. This is because the ability to learn and grow was personal (DuFour, 2020). For that reason, working within the ZPD leads to different personal growth from learners even though there is the same desired learning outcome. In class, ZPD is conducted at two levels. The first is at the whole class level, where learners are supported as a whole class. Here, the more knowledgeable other is the teacher. The second level of ZPD is the individual learner level, where the learner is supported either by the teacher or by a more knowledgeable learner in the class (Roth and Radford, 2010). This level of ZPD is practicable using pair or group-work in class, where learners are working in collaboration to achieve a task. This further shows that the ZPD emphasizes social interaction as a way to increase learners' performance in class. This makes the concept aligned with my study because the school being studied has large classes which are suitable for group- and pair-work.

Understanding the ZPD can be helpful for the teachers. In a classroom setting, teachers may, according to Ameri (2020), first assess students to determine their current skill level. This will require the use of dynamic assessment, which will be explained later. Teachers may then decide to expand the skill level by planning and organising their instruction and lessons. For example, the teacher might decide to group a higher skilled learner with a less skilled learner. This will allow for the more skilled learner to find the ZPD of the learner and achieve the actual development of a learner.

In a South African study, MacDonald and Pinheiro (2015) found that teachers are familiar with the ZPD. However, they sometimes misuse it in class. She points out that for the ZPD to be functional, the teacher has to know or be aware of the capabilities of learners taught. Teachers in the study were found assisting learners with activities which they could perform on their

own, and not teaching what the learner has a potential of knowing. This study also found that teachers did not use this concept efficiently because learners were still confused after it had been used by the teacher.

Gredler (2012), a critic of the ZPD, when observing the use of ZPD in the classroom, noticed some of the misunderstandings on this concept. This included the lack of information about the teacher's role in determining the zone in the learner's ZPD. According to Vygotsky (1978), there are four ways that a teacher may determine a learner's ZPD. The emerging functions were (a) to demonstrate the solution to see if the learner can imitate the steps, (b) begin to answer the question to see if the learner can finish it, (c) have the child interact with a more developed learner, and (d) explain the principles of solving the problem, ask leading questions, and analyse the problem for the child. Gredler (2012) questions these functions because the process executed by the child in the ZPD is that of intellectual imitation. "The child understands enough to be able to participate in carrying out the intellectual operation" (Gredler, 2012, p. 118). From this statement, we can notice that intellectual imitation is not synonymous as reaching potential development. Gredler (2012) regards this form of development as the zone of intellectual imitation.

The zone of intellectual imitation is not as widely recognized as the ZPD, and lacks a standardised definition. However, it can be used to describe situations in which a learner imitates the intellectual processes and behaviours of more advanced or competent others in a particular activity.

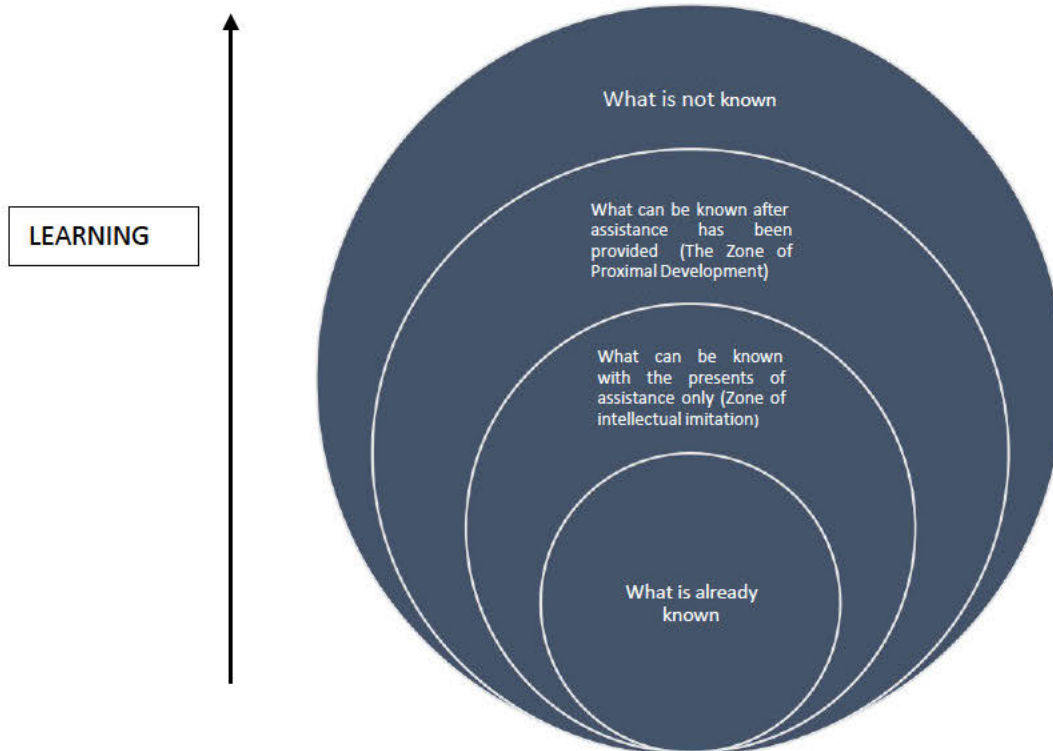


Figure 2.4: The zone of intellectual imitation (Gredler 2012)

The specific zone of intellectual imitation is connected to actual level of development, what the learner can do independently. I have presented an illustration of *Figure 2.4.* to further clarify this distinction. By comparing *Figure 2.3. and 2.4.,* we can see that an extra step has been added in *Figure 2.4.* The steps between ‘what is already known’ and the ‘ZPD’ in *Figure 2.4.* is where the zone of intellectual imitation is located. So, if the teacher sees some form of proficiency, it does not mean that they must stop assisting the learner because the learner might have reached the zone of intellectual imitation. Teachers should then continue assisting the learner until actual development has taken place. Gredler (2012) is alluding that Vygotsky does not clarify nor make any mention of this key step in the ZPD. The ZPD includes activities learners can do unaided after the concept of ZPD has been utilised. Vygotsky might not make specific mention to what Gredler (2012) argued, however these practices are implied in his concept of ZPD. The vagueness of this concept perhaps, was the contributing factor in the study of Macdonald and Pinheiro (2015), where teachers were presumed by the researcher to be misusing the concept of ZPD.

Other misunderstandings that were pointed out by Gredler (2012) comprise the belief that cooperation or collaboration among students is appropriate for addressing learners’ ZPD and focusing on activities that do not address cognitive development. This critic of the ZPD assisted

me in seeing whether teachers are using the ZPD in addressing cognitive development when teaching writing in an English FAL. Teachers, according to Siyepu (2013), may use the ZPD to bridge the gap between what a learner can do without help and what a learner can do with assistance. The bridge that is used between what a learner can do alone and what they can do with assistance is called scaffolding. The following discussion focuses on the concept of scaffolding.

2.3.2.3. Scaffolding

The concept of scaffolding is inspired by Vygotsky's concept of ZPD, and was first introduced in the late 1950's by a psychologist Jerome Bruner (Lantolf, 2004). Scaffolding is an analogy as to scaffold is to use steel scaffolds when supporting a structure (Saye and Brush, 2002). This structure creates temporary assistance for construction workers to go higher up a level. In academia, scaffolding is defined as support provided by a teacher, peer or other resources that enables learners to perform tasks independently (Richardson and Jennifer, 2008). *In Figure 2.3. of the ZPD*, the more knowledgeable other uses scaffolding so that a learner can move from 'what is already known' to 'what is not known' therefore, scaffolding is the supporting structure that aids the learner successfully achieve a task within the ZPD. Scaffolding can help learners accomplish more than what they can accomplish by themselves by providing them with temporary aiding factors.

Saye and Brush (2002) distinguished two types of scaffolding: soft and hard scaffolding. "Soft scaffolding represents the just in time support provided by the teacher or a peer who helps students meaningfully participate in the performance of actions" (Saye and Brush, p. 80). Here, teachers use probing strategies, such as asking questions, that make learners think deeply about a topic and challenge their understanding. Belland et al. (2008) acknowledge that it is difficult to scaffold effectively in large classes where learners have diverse needs. As mentioned earlier, the school where this study was conducted had large classrooms, making it difficult for teachers to use soft scaffolding. Therefore, hard scaffolding is of particular importance in this context.

Hard scaffolding is either a computer or paper based cognitive tool that serves the same scaffolding role as soft scaffolding. This form of scaffolding is based on anticipated students' needs during an open-ended unit (Saye and Brush, 2002). The teacher anticipates what the needs of learners are and then he/she builds a hard scaffold around those needs. Hard scaffolding then represents the teaching resources or aids that a teacher uses in the beginning or during the lesson in order to assist learners. The school, that this study is conducted on, does

have access to hard scaffolding in a form of printed paper and notes. In addition to hard scaffolding, soft scaffolding should not be ignored in the writing classroom. In Land and Zembul-Saul's et al. (2002) study, which explored the assistance of various technology-based scaffolds, it was concluded that hard scaffolds were meant to supplement, not replace soft scaffolding. Therefore, teachers must use both soft and hard scaffolding simultaneously in a class in order for them to use scaffolding effectively in a complex classroom environment where learners have varying needs.

Scaffolding is temporary assistance provided to learners. Ultimately hard and soft scaffolding needs to be removed. Once the learners display some level of independence, the teacher gradually removes scaffolding. This stage of the process is called fading of scaffolding. One of the main purposes of scaffolding is to help learners acquire competency in the scaffolding tasks such that they are able to perform the tasks without assistance (Puntambekar and Hubscher, 2005). Fading of scaffolding is important because it removes the reliance on the MKO and allows for learners to perform tasks without assistance. Scaffolding can fade once learners achieve a certain level of competency. If the learner's performance characteristics indicate that scaffolding is not needed to complete the task, the teacher then removes the soft scaffold (Belland et al., 2008). It is difficult for a teacher to fade a hard scaffold because it is the paper or computer which provides the scaffold. It is up to the learners to see if they no longer need scaffolding. A study was conducted by Koyuncu et al. (2023) on scaffolding children's participation in a second language classroom. Here, scaffolding was described by three distinct characteristics: contingency, fading and transfer of responsibility (Koyuncu et al., 2023). These were the steps which were sought after when scaffolding was taking place in a classroom. For scaffolding to have taken place, Koyuncu et al. (2023) believed these are stages that need to be fulfilled. In this study, Koyuncu et al. (2023) established different types of scaffolding contrary to those in the previously mentioned hard and soft scaffolding by Saye and Brush (2002).

Koyuncu et al. (2023) identified verbal and procedural scaffolding. Under verbal scaffolding, teachers use verbal support as a form of scaffolding. This includes simplifying speech, using questions, providing elicitation, clarification, and feedback. Such scaffolding is mostly effective when teaching young children because at this stage these learners have not reached the stage of reading for understanding. Procedural scaffolding is when teachers provide scaffolding in a form of gestures, teaching tools, and giving learners time to think about problem /question posed. Scaffolding is effective because learners perform better in class after

this concept has been used correctly. Furthermore, the use of scaffolding increases the level of participation and interaction in class (Koyuncu et al., 2023) rendering human development, as explained in the socio-cultural theory, to be presented as socially mediated process (Vygotsky, 1979).

In a study conducted in a school in Utah, USA, researchers Read and Bárcena (2014) presented the Inquiry, Modelling, Shared Writing, Collaborative Writing and Independent Writing (IMSCI) model for teachers when organising scaffolding. IMSCI is an acronym for a series of steps based on the concept of scaffolding. The steps are as follows: Inquiry, Modelling, Shared writing, Collaborative writing, and Independent writing. This model demonstrates how this concept of scaffolding can be used effectively in a classroom setting and it assembles writing instruction in such a way that teachers can exhibit both product and process approaches

In the IMSCI model, learners are required to be engaged in a certain genre. This is followed by an inquiry into a genre with writing instruction. Modelling is where learners start to model to write in that genre. Here learners brainstorm, prewrite, draft, revise and edit the text they have written. In Shared Writing, learners and teachers co-write text in the target genre. Here, teachers can provide scaffolding to learners which are finding difficulties in writing in the target genre (Read and Bárcena, 2014).

Modelling is then followed by the teacher gradually releasing responsibility to learners. Read and Bárcena (2014) concludes this model by identifying that, in this collaborative writing stage, learners work together to produce writing. The ZPD and scaffolding then take place whilst learners are working collaboratively. Due to scaffolding, learners are now ready to engage with writing of their own without the assistance of their peers and the teacher.

The above evidence provides an insight that different scholars have developed diverse methods of scaffolding in a classroom. However, all these different types of scaffolding are superimposed by the characteristics and nature of this concept. The various stages of scaffolding presented are all highlighted by two distinct features that is the immediate support provided by a more skilled individual based on the performance of the learner. Then there is a slow withdrawal of the support once the learner is performing the task unaided. During this stage, the more knowledgeable other has taken the role of a mediator, where there is a mediation of skill to the learner. Mediation is an integral part of the socio-cultural theory.

2.3.2.4. Mediation and Internalization

Vygotsky (1978) argued that human mental functioning is fundamentally a mediated process organised by cultural artefacts, activities, and concepts. This means that a person's cognitive development is influenced by their surrounding environment or culture. Mediation is defined by Tang and Ma (2023, p. 19) "as the interaction between a more knowledgeable other and the learner, which enables the mediator to diagnose emerging abilities through graduated feedback and to gradually hand over control to the learner as they advance in their abilities". Mediation is an integral part of the cognitive development of a learner, especially now that learners are more exposed to technology, social media, and written texts. My study is conducted in a township school where learners are exposed to technology and social-media thus mediation becomes relevant.

Vygotsky (1962) identified three kinds of mediators: material tools, psychological tools, and other human beings. Material tools can vary from tangible things that humans can use to solve complex situations that they might face, to intangible things. Lantolf et al. (2015) makes an example about a person wanting to dig a hole in the ground. The person can use hands to dig like other species. However, a modern human will use a shovel that is more efficient. Through this example, Lantolf et al. (2015) highlights that the object of the activity remains the same whether the person is digging using hands or a tool. In an EFAL classroom this can be seen by a learner using a dictionary or a thesaurus to increase vocabulary when writing. In short, material tools are external aids that learners use to organise their thinking and problem-solving. This means that humans make meaning of the tool no matter what it is, and use it to their advantage. Although people are not directly influenced by the physical world, they rely on tools and activities that inspire them to make meaning of the environment in which they live (Vygotsky, 1979).

According to Lantolf (2004), psychological tools are tools that were meant to mediate the psychological processes of humans. These tools entail that cognitive development benefits from the use of symbolic systems, such as language and other culturally relevant symbols. Symbols are then used by learners to depict and understand difficult concepts (Polly et al., 2017). In an EFAL classroom, psychological tools include cultural artefacts like signs, symbols, texts and language.

Human beings are also seen as mediation tools in socio-cultural theory. This theory recognises that humans play a huge role in cognitive development of learners. Marginson and Dang (2017,

p. 15) add that the true development of thinking “is not from the individual to social, but from the social to the individual”. This further shows reliance on socio-cultural influence in cognitive development of learners. In a classroom, these tools can be applied when learners can find mediation from the more knowledgeable other. In an EFAL classroom, this may include a teacher or a more advanced learner in the class.

Vygotsky (1978) and several scholars (Ameri, 2020; Lantolf, 2015; Koyuncu et al., 2023; Rohde, 2021) believed that, in sociocultural theory, language is the most important part of mediation. Under this theory, language is seen, not only as a way of communication, but also the means of making meaning of the world around you. This makes it a powerful tool for cognitive development and adaptation (McLeod, 2018). The inward or self-directed use of language as a symbolic tool for cognitive regulation is called private speech (Rohde, 2021). Private speech is defined as an individual’s externalising of language for a purpose of maintaining or regaining self-regulation (Lantolf, 2015). The externalising of language under private speech refers to learners speaking out loud in order to solve a difficult concept. Research in private speech has explored its social functions in contexts such as collaborative play and in-class group activities in first additional language classrooms. In an English FAL classroom, learners make meaning of difficult concepts by talking to themselves or by reading aloud. This is done so that they can first internalise the language so they can make meaning of difficult concepts.

At a certain age of the learner, the private speech then changes into inner speech. This means that a learner is now able to think in words. This form of speech is inaudible and, just like the private speech, is directed to self. This form of internalizing language is helpful for intellectual development of the learner (Scott and Palincsar, 2013). Internalization is the process through which cultural artefacts, including language, take on a psychological function (Lantolf, 2015). Internalization is also described as a negotiated process that recognises the relationship of the individual to her/his social environment, and generally carries it into future performance (McLeod, 2018). It is through collaborative learning through various tasks that a learner internalises socially shared experiences. This highlights that interaction plays an important role in learning.

Any cultural function appears twice in the child’s mind; first on a social plane, and then on a psychological plane, and then within a child as an intra-psychological category (Read, 2010). The social plane and psychological plane are also known as the inter-psychological category

that appears between people. When learning writing in the classroom, internalization of language becomes key for English FAL learners.

2.3.2.5. Dynamic Assessment

Concepts of ZPD and scaffolding played a significant role in revolutionising assessment, instruction, and education in general (Scott and Palincsar, 2013). For teachers to identify learners' skills and their potential as required by the pre-mentioned concepts, they need to exploit a kind of interactive assessment like dynamic assessment. This segment focuses on how dynamic assessment under the socio-cultural theory can be implemented. Dynamic assessment is a concept that refers to a method of exploring and discovering the developmental potential of learners through the interaction of assessors and learners in the assessment process (Thackeray, 2022). Daneshfar and Moharami (2018) define dynamic assessment as a method aimed at checking the abilities and learning potential of an individual child. This paper looks at teaching of writing to English FAL learners. Dynamic assessment in a writing classroom has been defined as the intervention of writing strategies, resources and incentives are emphasised to interpret the concrete application of dynamic assessment in different writing processes (Sun, 2023).

Dynamic assessment is a sub-category of the ZPD concept. This means that, for assessments to capture emerging abilities or the ZPD, it is necessary to provide prompts, reminders, and leading questions when learners encounter difficulties and to observe their responsiveness (Vygotsky, 1962). The term dynamic assessment was employed in a study for the purpose of identifying a child's behavioural abnormality applied mostly in fields like language impairment as well as learning difficulties. However, theorists began to widen the use of dynamic assessment practices to second language or First Additional Language assessment and pedagogy (Poehner and Lantolf, 2004).

The CAPS document hints at the use of dynamic assessment in EFAL classrooms. This curriculum statement distinguished between assessment for learning and assessment of learning, which equates to informal and formal assessment respectively. Dynamic assessment is closely linked to assessment for learning because this form of assessment is an integral part of teaching and learning because it is "incorporated in teaching and learning instead of being dealt with as a separate entity" (CAPS, 2012b, p. 118). This concept enriches the socio-cultural theory because it is a developmental process that initially diagnoses a student's learning difficulties. On this basis, mediation is provided to help learners overcome learning problems and realize their potential (Antón and García, 2021). Collaborative learning is an important

feature of socio-cultural theory. Dynamic assessment therefore, focuses on what individuals can do in collaboration with others rather than what they can do alone (Poehner and Yu, 2021). In relation to this, Poehner and Lantolf (2022) described dynamic assessment as being interactive, emphasising the learning process and producing unique information.

Large classes, the one characteristic which described most classrooms in the school I studied, need teachers who assess learners' potential, not only when learners work individually, but also when they work with others. This can be done during the process of ZPD individually, or when they work with the more knowledgeable other in class. To gather further insight on this type of assessment, a distinction between static and dynamic assessment is necessary:

In contrast to traditional and static procedures that focus on the products of assessment, dynamic assessment is concerned with the different ways in which individuals who earned the same score achieved that score. Furthermore, while traditional measures reveal only those abilities that are completely developed, dynamic measures are concerned with how well a learner performs when provided assistance (Scott and Palincsar, 2013, p5).

In static assessment, assessors present learners with testing items and recording the learners' responses to the items. Assessors also record and assess these responses neutrally without any intervention to change, guide, or enhance learner performance. Traditional approaches distinguish between teaching and assessment to a point where it is easy to see a class if learners are being assessed or there is teaching that is taking place. Therefore, we can see that dynamic assessment creates a dichotomy of assessments because, under this type of assessment, teaching and learning are fused together and positioned, highlighted in CAPS document for EFAL (2012a).

It has been discussed that dynamic assessment is highly interactive and process orientated. It is both a teaching and an evaluation method. When learners are faced with difficulties, they are then met with an immediate intervention unlike in the static assessment. Dynamic assessment also helps when teachers are planning an intervention for their learners. This is because, as mentioned by Mao and Lee (2022), dynamic assessment is considered as an overall assessment method that gives the ability to perceive individuals' subconscious. Daneshfar and Maharami (2018) provided a framework on how dynamic assessment can be executed in a classroom. Three stages were presented, namely; pre-test, mediated period, and post-test. In pre-test, the teacher must assess the learner's current performance. From the ZPD concept, this is what the

learner already knows or prior knowledge. Mediated learning experience follows, where teachers help learners develop strategies to solve problems. At this stage, the teacher observes the learners' development. The ZPD is closely linked to this stage of dynamic assessment because learning is designed from what the learner can do independently based from prior knowledge. Then there is the post-test stage where the teacher compares the performance in pre-test and post-test. The teacher also has to assess how the learner has used the strategies.

During the dynamic assessment, the mediator (more knowledgeable other) plays a huge role. When assessing a learner, they engage the learner to examine their performance, draw conclusions, and disclose learner processes, thereby enhancing learning. The mediator concentrates on the learner's involvement with learning process during the interactive moments. What the mediator gathers from this is an indicator of learner failure or ability to achieve something. Therefore, in this assessment strategy, teaching and assessment are not separated from each other. Instead, they are entwined.

2.4. Conclusion

The chapter provided an evaluation and presentation of literature surrounding the issues involved in teaching of writing. This includes the definition of writing and the importance of writing. The literature also revealed different approaches to teaching writing, the writing practices, teaching to EFAL learners, as well as the English teacher's competency to teach writing. What followed is a theoretical framework which reviewed socio-cultural theory, a theory which underpins this study. Chapter three expands upon the research design and methodology of this study.

Chapter 3 - Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction

The previous chapter provided a review of literature and a detailed account of the theory that informs this study. In the dissertation, I adopted a qualitative study approach with the aim to explore the teaching of writing to English first additional language (henceforth EFAL) learners in a township school. I collected and analysed data from interviews, observations, and documents like the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for Senior Phase (SP) and Further Education and Training (FET), learners marked scripts and the rubrics used by the teachers. These methods were selected because I intended to discover the participants' attitudes and insights on teaching writing thereby providing rich descriptions from these participants.

The data of the study were analysed using inductive perspective under the thematic analysis. From the data gathered, several themes and sub-themes emerged and were discussed. EFAL teachers were sampled as participants in the study with pseudonyms used under ethical considerations.

3.2. Research Paradigm

Paradigms represent researchers' beliefs and values about the world, how they define the world, and how they study within it (Kamal, 2019). Khatri (2020) described the term paradigm as a worldview where this view was defined as being the perspective, or thinking or school of thought, or set of shared beliefs that informs the meaning or interpretation of research data (Khatri, 2020, p26). Therefore, the paradigm chosen informs the interpretation of the data collected. This study employed the interpretivist paradigm, which usually looks to understand a particular context, with the core belief being that reality is socially constructed (Willis et al., 2007). The context that I sought to understand was the teaching of writing in this particular South African township school.

The interpretivist paradigm endeavours to understand and interpret what the participant is thinking or the meaning s/he is making of the context (Stahl and King, 2020). This means that every effort is made to try and make meaning of the viewpoint of the participant being observed, rather than the viewpoint of the observer. What I gathered from the EFAL teachers in the form of semi-structured interviews and observation is what contributed most of the data collected.

In this paradigm, the researcher must understand that the data collected is subjective (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006), hence, I understood that the findings of this study cannot be generalised as they are relative to the study location and participants. The paradigm I chose for this study guided me in the research process in terms of the choice of the research design and data collection methods. It also influenced how I analysed data as well as the conclusions I reached on the data gathered.

3.3. Research Approach

I explored the teaching of writing to Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language learners in a township school because the exploration fitted with the qualitative approach. This was a case study, and therefore, the qualitative approach was found to be suitable. Yilmaz (2013, p312) defines qualitative research “as an emergent, inductive, interpretive and naturalistic approach to the study of people, cases, phenomena, social situations and processes in their natural settings in order to reveal in descriptive terms the meanings that people attach to their experiences in the world”. The definition provided best describes my study because this study used a naturalistic approach within a natural setting, observing Grade 8 to 10 EFAL teachers teach writing in their EFAL classrooms.

The qualitative approach can be characterised as a largely-bottom up, grounded and descriptive approach to enquiry (McLeod, 2015). The qualitative approach is defined by its ability to evoke contextual detail and show the experience and subjective perspectives of research (McLeod and O’Connor, 2020). The interpretivist paradigm chosen influenced the choice of the qualitative approach of investigating a phenomenon that is subjective in perspective.

3.4. Research Design

This study used the exploratory research design where the method was a case study. The objective of the study was to develop a full understanding of the case, which is the teaching of writing to EFAL learners in a South African township school. Punch and Oancea (2014, p. 120) define a case as “a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context”. The case in this study was the teaching of writing to Grade 8 to 10 EFAL learners with the site being the school.

There are several definitions of case study research. Wiersma and Jurs (2009) define a case study as an in-depth investigation of something. This could be an organisation, a school, or a school system, to name a few. As defined by Bertram and Christiansen (2014), a case study is a systematic and detailed study of a particular case in its context. A case study can also be

described as an in-depth, systematic study of a single individual, group, community, or other entity in which researchers examine detailed data on multiple variables (Heale and Twycross, 2017). My study aimed to explore how EFAL teachers teach writing, and the latter definition of a case study is pertinent because this was an investigation of 5 teachers in this township school. These definitions are appropriate to my study because the study aimed to look at one case and have a detailed view on how writing is taught and why writing is taught that way by English FAL teachers in grade 8, 9 and 10 in that school.

There are three main types of case studies identified by Cohen et al. (2007). These are: intrinsic case studies, which are undertaken to understand a particular case in question; instrumental case studies, which examine a particular case to gain insight into a theory; and collective case studies, which are groups or individual studies that are undertaken to gain a fuller understanding (Cohen et al., 2007). The intrinsic and instrumental case studies examine one case and then have a thorough understanding of it, whereas the latter type of case study investigates various cases in detail.

My study is an example of an intrinsic case study because it explored the teaching of writing to Grade 8 to 10 English FAL learners in a township school. This means that the study was not concerned with investigating a case to gain insight into a theory nor did it examine multiple instances. Instead, the idea was to explore this case that is being studied in detail using whatever methods and data seem appropriate with the intention of understanding how writing is taught in specific EFAL classrooms in a specific context.

A case study can be explanatory exploratory, or descriptive (Baran and Jones, 2019). The selection of which case study to use relies on the research questions used. To address the research questions: How is writing taught in grade 8 to 10 English EFAL classrooms in a township high school? And Why is writing taught in this way to grade 8 to 10 EFAL classroom in a township high school? an exploratory case study was chosen. The aim was to explore how teachers of EFAL teach writing in a specific context, and why they teach writing this way.

My intention in this study was to get a better understanding of real people - in this, teachers, and real situations, which is the way writing is taught, and why it is taught in this manner. This study thus, provided a unique example of real people in real situations enabling readers to understand how ideas and abstract theories can fit together as indicated by Rule and John, (2011). Thomas (2021) notes that, usually a researcher in a case study looks for real situations

and real people because the researcher aims to capture the reality of the participants' lived experiences and thoughts about a particular situation.

I believe that a case study was relevant to my study because I teach in the school, the natural setting of the participants. It was also convenient as I was free to observe unlike in other schools, and I knew the participants since they were my colleagues. Bertram and Christiansen (2014) state that a case study can be 'naturalistic' meaning that it focuses "on the culture or the way of life of the case and the aim to understand the participants' point of view" (p119). The case study was an appropriate method for comprehending the problem of this study.

This study aimed to understand the case and not generalise its findings. Every case studied is unique, but is, in some respect, like other cases. Punch and Oenceoa (2009, p. 123) notes that "the question is whether we want to see the uniqueness of the case or we want to see the similarities of the case". As much as the case being studied is unique and complex in its own right, its findings can influence how a subsequent study on a similar case can be done. Bertram and Christiansen (2014) call this transferability.

To ensure credibility of the data, I spent significant time interviewing participants and observing their lessons in class, thus, allowing time to build trust with participants and to test whether participants gave responses which were contradictory to what has been observed in class. I considered one case when conducting this study. This was done so that I could have sufficient time observing the participants when they are teaching writing in EFAL classrooms. In making this case study dependable, this paper uses tables and figures to provide a full view of how writing is taught in a South African township school. Appendices, like the ethical clearance, gatekeeper's letter, rubrics, interview questions, checklist for lesson observation, consent and assent forms, have been included to make the case more reliable because of the rich presentation of evidence.

Another strategy used to ensure credibility and dependability is the use of triangulation. Triangulation is described by Natow (2020) as the use of multiple methodological resources. Triangulation is described in the literature as an approach where the researcher uses either multiple methods, several theories, methods of data collection, or different independent researchers to strengthen credibility (Jantoft and Olsen, 2019). This study used multiple methods for data generation for purpose of triangulation. As Merriam and Tisdell (2016, p245) explained: "What someone tells you in an interview can be checked against what you observe on site or what you read about in documents". This study made use of three different data

collection methods, namely, semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis. The semi-structured interviews were used to validate what was observed in a FAL classroom, thus, bringing about confidence in the data collected.

3.5. Data Generation

Case studies recognise and accept that there are many variables operating in a single case, and hence, to capture those variables usually requires more than one tool for data collection and many sources of evidence (Heale and Twycross, 2018). This study employed semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis as the tools for generating data. Wiersma and Jurs (2009) assert that data collection in a qualitative study may be interactive and non-interactive. My data collection was interactive in that I interacted with subjects who were studied, and it was also non-interactive. The semi-structured interview is used as an interactive method and observations. Document analysis was used as a non-interactive method for data generation as the documents analysed guided English teachers when teaching writing to EFAL learners.

3.5.1. Semi-Structured Interviews (SSI)

Interviews are a special type of conversation that researchers use to explore informants' experiences and interpretations of phenomena (Hatch, 2002), and are therefore a way of getting people to provide information through questions. Raslin et al. (2020) define an interview as an interaction between two people on a particular occasion, where one person is the interviewer and the other person is the respondent. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) document for senior phase (2012a, p. 134) defines an interview as “a task of gathering information or a face-to-face discussion between people, directed toward some specific purpose”. According to Best (2021), an interview is a form of conversation, usually involving two people, initiated by the researcher for the purpose of generating data that can be used to support the aims of the research project. This study considered the interview from Best's (2021) perspective, as the primary goal was to collect data that aligned with the research questions of the study.

The case study research design influenced me to choose an interview instead of a questionnaire. Ruslin et al. (2022) adds that in a case study, the researcher does not aim to cover the whole population, but to provide an in-depth picture of a particular area. This study employed the

semi-structured interview because this form of interview merged the elements of an unstructured and structured interview.

In unstructured interviews, participants do not merely choose from a set of response categories (Potter and Hepburn, 2008). Here, participants are given a bit more time to answer the questions without being interrupted by the interviewer. This type of interview allows for the researcher to get full data (Cohen, 2018). In unstructured interviews, interviewers give respondents a problem or a topic and let them explore the topic, and the conversation develops around a problem or a topic (Aksu, 2009). In such interviews, a session does not involve a detailed interview guide. Best (2021) notes that the interviewer asks questions that gradually lead the respondent to give the desired information. When I conducted my interview questions there was limited time for respondents to answer questions because these sessions were held during teachers' free periods. Hence, I timed my interview sessions, including the time for answering each question.

Unstructured interviews also allow interview content to be created spontaneously, potentially making the interviewer experience more personalized. According to Chauhan (2022), this type of interview allows the interviewer to better express qualities such as warmth, receptivity, and social responsiveness than a structured interview. However, the disadvantage of unstructured interviews is that, without guidance from the interviewer, some participants may feel that they need to take more time to answer questions, so they can be time consuming (Bihu, 2020). This shortcoming was an important factor in the decision to utilise some of the features of structured interviews. Interviews were conducted during participants' free time (maximum 1 hour). Due to the limited time to interview participants, it was necessary to employ some elements of structured interviews.

Structured interviewing is a research method in which the interviewer is given a set of closed-ended questions prepared in the form of an interview plan and then reads the questions exactly as they are worded (McLeod, 2014). Structured interviews are less effective in the humanities but are more common in the sciences. This is because the interviewer plans the questions in advance before the interview.

Structured interviews contain more closed-ended questions, like surveys, but the difference is that the interviewer reads the questions to the respondent. This type of interview is common in job interviews where candidates are asked a series of questions. The interview schedule there is in a standardised format, with each respondent being asked the same questions in the same

order. Hartwell (2019) asserts that a structured interview is very easy to replicate as there are fixed sets of closed-ended questions which are easy to quantify, making it easy to test for reliability. It is apparent that structured interviews are quick to conduct and so, many interviews can take place within a short amount of time. It is because of this that I adopted a feature from this form of interview. The time used for conducting interviews is very limited, therefore, I needed to have some degree of structure in my interviews.

As mentioned earlier, interviews are generally flexible in nature, but structured interviews are not as flexible because new questions cannot be asked during the interview session (Hartwell, 2019). One of the major disadvantages of this interview was that it lacked detail as only close questions were asked which generates quantitative data. This is a qualitative study therefore this is where I included features of unstructured interviews.

Both interviewers and applicants can experience greater social acceptance in semi-structured interviews due to their limited monotony, as stated by Conzelmann and Keye (2014). The use of semi-structured interviews in research involves asking a series of structured questions, and then probing more deeply using open ended questions to obtain additional information - like in the unstructured interview. McIntosh and Morse (2015) characterise semi-structured interviews as designed to gather subjective responses from persons regarding a particular situation, and provide respondents with freedom to answer open-ended questions using a considerable amount of time. I believe this is an effective tool for generating data because I wanted to vividly ascertain the interpretations and experiences of English FAL teachers teaching writing, and why they taught writing the way they did in this township school.

Unlike unstructured interviews, semi-structured interviews have some degree of control on how the interview develops. Cohen et al. (2007, p355) explains “topics and issues to be discussed are specified in advance, in outline form; the interviewer decides sequence and working of questions in the course of the interview”. Semi-structured interviews are also flexible, unlike structured interviews where participants answer what they have been asked only. Semi-structured interviews go further than the questions which were prepared before the interview. During the interviews I had a framework of the socio-cultural theory to be explored therefore prepared questions in relation to this theory which underpins my study. Since this is a semi-structured interview, the questions I posed were balanced between main questions, follow ups and probes.

While conducting interviews, it was crucial that I comprehend the spoken and written language, memorise and absorb what was discussed, while retaining research and follow-up points, as

well as the data provided by participants. I had to take notes whenever possible. I used my cell phone as a tape-recorder for the interviews. Once the recording was done, the information was categorised. This was followed by transcribing the data.

While conducting these interviews I was aware of interviewer and respondent's bias. Ruslin et al. (2022) identify interviewer and respondent's bias as two main issues relating to handling of interview data. The interviewer may have preconceptions when interviewing and the interviewee may hide some of the information from the researcher because there might be an image they are trying to display. I did not have such issues when I was interviewing my participants because they were my colleagues. To limit interviewer bias, I allowed participants to openly respond to questions freely.

Semi-structured interviews were essential for this study because the participants were interviewed in their natural setting, which is the classroom/school. Responses were guided, to some degree, by the time constraints. The interviews were conducted during school hours when participants were free from their teaching duties. Without interrupting the day-to-day activities of the participants, semi-structured interviews were held once a week for two months. Each session took between 30 minutes to an hour.

A challenge for the interviews in my study was that some participants were reluctant to open up about sensitive information thereby leading to discrepancies in their responses. That is why I decided to use observation as another tool for generating data on the teaching of writing.

3.5.2. Observations

A case study aims to find out what is it like to be in a natural setting. The best possible data collection tool which allows for this action is observation. Schostak (2010) sees observations as techniques that require an in-depth study of everyday life. Hussell (2019) states that observations offer researchers the opportunity to gather live data from naturally occurring situations. My participants were observed in their natural classroom setting so that there was the gathering of live data.

Observing people in their natural setting, not only avoids problems found in self-reported accounts, like interviews and document analysis, but also reveal insights not accessible from other data collection methods (Morgan et al., 2017). The observation instrument in this study was purposefully selected to improve the accuracy and completeness of the case study, and for strengthening the credibility of the research findings. In the study, I observed participants in a classroom as they were teaching writing. There were two sessions for observing five

participants in their classroom in a two-week cycle for a whole month. This means a total of ten (10) lessons per two-week and a maximum of 20 lessons were observed. Participants were observed when they were teaching writing only.

The reason for using observation in this study is that what the participants said in the interview could be corroborated by observation and vice versa. Additionally, as Hussell (2019) pointed out, observations can allow researchers to learn sensitive information from the environment that participants may not have been willing to discuss in interviews. This allowed the data collected during observation to record non-verbal behaviour. The observations captured what was overlooked during the interviews.

Walshe et al. (2012) add to the above-mentioned point that observations allow the researcher to see what people do rather than what they say they do. Morgan (2017) explains this further:

“Systematically observing people in their naturally occurring contexts can reveal much more information than individuals may recall, be aware of, choose to report, or decide is relevant than with other data collection methods” (p1061).

In my study, participants and the learners were seen eventually going back to behaving naturally. It is here that I was able to gather data that was not covered in the interview.

For this research, I adopted the role of a non-participant observer. A non-participant observer is an observer who is not involved in human interaction (Ciesielska, 2018). During observations, I minimised the distraction or influence on the participants’ teaching decisions and routines. I sat in front of the classroom facing learners, assuming a position of neutrality. Where I was seated allowed me to; first ascertain a clear recording of the teachers and learners, and second, to document interactions between the teacher and learner, and amongst learners.

Ciesielska (2018) drew up two distinctive observation techniques, direct and indirect observation. Direct observation is when the observer is looking at the events happening in front of his eyes, whereas indirect observation is remote and relies on recordings of others (Ciesielska, 2018). Since this was a case study, the direct observation was more suitable. In my observations, I documented how EFAL teachers taught writing as the first aim of the observation. My second aim of the observation was heavily influenced by the socio-cultural theory as I documented how the learners respond to how they are taught writing and also their interactions with one another. This was observable when learners were engaging in collaborative learning. My major sources of information from this method of data generation were field notes and audio-recordings of each observed lesson. During each observation, I took

shorthand field notes to answer my first dimension.

Lönngren (2021) states that shorthand note-taking is one strategy for faster note-taking. When taking field notes, I was aware that it is not possible to document everything at the same time. Therefore, the shorthand note taking was crucial for increasing the speed of taking notes during observations. During the observations, I also made annotations of teacher behaviours and actions as well as the behaviour of learners. This was done to capture a complete picture of the EFAL writing classroom. The checklist for lesson observation (see Appendix 5) allowed me to look at learners' interactions and opportunities for socially mediated cognitive development. It also allowed me to have reactions from the observation of what was present and absent from these EFAL classrooms.

Audio-recordings were used as a reference when identifying important teaching events in the classroom. These audio-files, along with field notes, allowed me to make a detailed in-depth analysis of how teachers taught writing in EFAL classrooms and why they taught writing that way. I selected the non-participant observation because, to establish how English FAL teachers taught writing in their classroom, I needed to be passive throughout the lesson and allow the teacher to teach in a way he/she would teach writing even if I was not there. I was aware that my presence in the classroom to some degree altered or influenced how the teacher conducted the lesson and how learners behaved in class. This is sometimes called the 'Hawthorne Effect'.

Wickstrom and Benix (2000) define the term Hawthorne Effect as mostly used to refer to the behaviour-modifying effect of being the subject of social investigation, regardless of the context of the investigation. "The Hawthorne effect or 'observer effect' describes a change in normal behaviour when individuals are aware they are being observed" Demetriou et al (2019, p. 1567). A means of overcoming this problem was engaging in prolonged periods of observation. Participants observed eventually let go of the changed behaviour and started behaving 'normally' when they start to get used to my presence.

3.5.3. Document Analysis

Another mode of generating data I used was document analysis. Here I analysed secondary data, namely: the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement for English First Additional Language in Grade 7-9 and Grade 10-12, and the rubrics (see appendices 8, 9 and 10) that teachers use to assess writing. Document analysis refers to the systematic process of reviewing or analysing documents in both print and electronic formats (Bowen, 2009). Both documents reviewed were published by the South Africa's Department of Basic Education and therefore,

were credible sources of information for exploring the teaching of writing in EFAL classrooms. This was a secondary source analysis that, as Cohen et al. (2018) notes, involves an examination of the interpretations of other authors.

3.5.3.1 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

The CAPS document is a broad policy document for all the recognised subjects in the curriculum of South Africa from grade R to 12. Being an amendment of the 2012 National Curriculum Statement, the CAPS document aimed to standardise education across the country by ensuring consistency in educational standards and standardising curriculum to meet university entry requirements (Ajani, 2021). This study specifically used the CAPS for EFAL for Grade 7-9 and Grade 10-12. CAPS is a document that guides or describes the teaching and learning in schools. This study analysed this document to see how EFAL teachers should teach writing in their classrooms.

According to the CAPS document (2012a), in a two-week cycle (10 hours), there should be 3 hours and 30 minutes of teaching writing in Grade 8 and 9 EFAL classroom. In Grade 10, three hours is allocated for teaching of writing. When looking at the teaching plan in the CAPS document, writing is divided into three categories: essay writing, shorter, and longer transactional writing. Below I summarise the writing texts that should be taught in Grades 8, 9 and 10:

Table 3.1.: Summary of the writing text to be taught

Grade	Term	Essay	Longer Transactional	Shorter Transactional
Grade 8	Term 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Narrative Essay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Magazine Report 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speech • Friendly letter
	Term 2		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview • Dialogue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Directions/instructions • Novel review
	Term 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Argumentative essay • Descriptive essay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dialogue • Letter to the press 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informal letter
	Term 4		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Newspaper article • Journalistic report 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dairy entry
Grade 9	Term 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descriptive essay • Narrative essay • Reflective essay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview • Letter of appreciation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advertisement
	Term 2		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minutes of a meeting • Advertisement review 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diary entry • Agenda of a meeting
	Term 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Narrative essay • Reflective essay • Descriptive essay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Curriculum Vitae • Dialogue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Invitation card • Testament/will
	Term 4		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Letter of application (formal) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Email • Obituary
Grade 10	Term 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Narrative essay • Imaginative essay in response to the 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dialogue • Friendly letter 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poster/ Brochure/ Flyer • Fill in a form

		issues explored in the literary text		
	Term 2		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal recount: describe an amusing incident • Recommendation for a book 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Short paragraph on set work • Advertisement
	Term 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descriptive essay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write an argument. • Letter of complaint • Write a notice of meeting, agenda and minutes of meeting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Email • Invitation • Write an opinion and justify
	Term 4		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Letter to the press • Letter of appreciation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Summary writing

From the summary we can see that, in Grade 8, 9 and 10, essay writing should be taught during the first and third terms only. In the essays recommended, the narrative and descriptive essays are the dominant forms of essays to be taught as compared to the argumentative essay which appears once – Term 3 in Grade 8. When teaching writing, the CAPS (2012a) document recommends that teachers use the process approach to teach writing in all texts taught. However, in some transactional writing, the teaching plan recommended that teachers use the genre-based approach to teaching writing, in conjunction with process approach. This curriculum statement refers to genre-based approach to writing as text-based approach.

The CAPS document (2012a) does not clearly indicate when to use each approach nor does it overtly suggest that both approaches be used simultaneously. For example, in Grade 9 term 3, when writing a Curriculum Vitae, teachers are urged to remind learners of the format of this text, the target audience, purpose, word choice, figurative language, and symbols. There is little mention of the process approach to writing when teaching this transactional text in this curriculum statement.

I intended to get a full picture of how writing is taught under the CAPS document. Assessment is another aspect in which this document provides teachers with a guide. The CAPS (2012b, p. 77) document describes assessment as “a continuous planned process of identifying, gathering and interpreting information about the performance of the learners”. The CAPS document support for dynamic assessment is nuanced, especially when looking at informal assessment. In the previous chapter, dynamic assessment was described as an integration of teaching and assessment, where in a dynamic classroom, you cannot identify whether teaching and assessment is taking place.

The CAPS document provides a similar classroom informal assessment as that of dynamic assessment classroom, “informal assessment may be as simple as stopping during the lesson to observe learners or discuss with learners how learning is progressing” (CAPS, 2012a, p. 119). Here it is seen that teaching and learning was infused with assessment. The document describes this form of learning as assessment for learning, where assessment is also part of learning. The results from informal assessments are not considered for promotion purposes. These results are important for showing how learners are progressing in class thus, assisting in teacher planning, and providing the teacher with a guide creating a task that is within the zone of proximal development of their learners.

Another form of assessment that EFAL teachers should follow is the formal assessment. “All assessment tasks that make up a formal programme of assessment for the year are regarded as formal assessment” (CAPS, 2012b, p. 77). Below are programmes of assessment which depict a clear picture of how assessment should be conducted in Grade 8, 9 and 10.

Table 3.2: Formal Assessment Task Grade 8 (p124).

Formal assessment tasks for term 1		
task 1: oral	task 2: writing	task 3: test 1
Group discussion - visual texts/listening comprehension/(un)prepared speech/forum/group discussion/interview	Narrative/reflective essay Newspaper report/article	Language and comprehension
Formal assessment tasks for term 2		
task 1: oral	task 2: writing	task 8: mid-year examinations
Listening comprehension/giving directions/forum/panel discussion/ debate	Interview/instruction text/story review	Paper 1: Oral Paper 2: Comprehension, language use and literature (2 hr.) Paper 3: Writing - 1 essay and 1 transactional text (1 hr.)

Formal assessment tasks for term 3		
task 1: oral	task 2: writing	task 3: test 1
dialogue/(un)prepared speech/story telling/prepared reading	Descriptive/argumentative essay Informal letter/dialogue	Comprehension and language use
Formal and end-of-the-year assessment tasks for term 4		
task 1: oral	task 2: end-of-the-year examination	
Debate/conversation/group discussion/dialogue	Paper 1: Oral Paper 2: Comprehension, Language and Literature (2 hr.) Paper 3: Writing - 1 essay and 1 transactional text (1 hr.)	

Table 3.3: Formal Assessment Task Grade 9 (p124)

Formal assessment tasks for term 1		
task 1: oral	task 2: writing	task 3: test 1
Prepared reading/conversation	Descriptive/narrative essay Informal letter/review/dialogue	Comprehension and language use
Formal assessment tasks for term 2		
task 1: oral	task 2: writing	task 3: mid-year examination
unprepared reading/forum/group discussion	Review/documentary/notice/agenda and minutes	Paper 1: Oral Paper 2: Comprehension, Language use (2hr) Paper 3: Writing - 1 essay and 1 transactional text (1 hr.) Paper 4: Response to Literature (1hr 30 mins)
Formal assessment tasks for term 3		
task 1: oral	task 2: writing	task 3: test 2
Prepared speech/role play/debate/discussion of CV/will/testament	descriptive/narrative/reflective/argumentative essay Covering letter and CV	Comprehension and language use
Formal and end-of-the-year assessment tasks for term 4		
task 1: oral	task 2: end-of-the-year examination	
debate/interview/conversation/prepared speech/(un) prepared speech/forum/group/panel discussion/listening comprehension/meeting procedures	Paper 1: Oral Paper 2: Comprehension, Language use (2 hr.) Paper 3: Writing - 1 essay and 1 transactional text (1 hr.) Paper 4: Response to Literature (1hr 30 mins)	

Table 3.4: Formal Assessment Task Grade 10 (p80)

Formal assessment tasks in term 1			
task 1	task 2	task 3	task 4
<p>*oral: Listening for comprehension (10)/ prepared speech (20) / one of the following: Prepared reading aloud/ unprepared speech/informal speaking in group (20)</p>	<p>Writing: (50 marks) Grade 10: Narrative/ descriptive/discursive/ Grade 11: Narrative/ descriptive/discursive/ argumentative/reflective</p>	<p>Writing: (30 marks) Longer Transactional writing: Friendly/formal letters (request/complaint/ application/ business) / formal and informal letters to the press/ curriculum vitae and covering letter/obituary/ agenda and minutes of meeting /formal or informal report/ review/newspaper article/magazine article/ dialogue/interview</p>	<p>**test 1: (40 marks) language in context: Comprehension, Summary, Language structures and conventions</p>
Formal assessment tasks in term 2			
task 5	task 6	task 7	
<p>*oral: Listening for comprehension (10)/ prepared speech (20) / One of the following: Prepared reading aloud/ unprepared speech/informal speaking in group (20)</p>	<p>literature: (35 marks) Contextual questions</p>	<p>mid-year examinations: (250 marks) Paper 1 – Language in context (80) Paper 2 – Literature (70) Paper 3 – Writing (Can be written in May/June) (100)</p>	
Formal assessment tasks in term 3			
task 8	task 9	task 10	
<p>*oral: Listening for comprehension (10)/ prepared speech (20) / One of the following: Prepared reading aloud/ unprepared speech/informal speaking in group (20)</p>	<p>Writing: (20 marks) Shorter transactional text: Advertisements/Diary entries/ Postcards/ invitation cards/Filling in forms/ Directions/instructions/Flyers/ Posters/emails</p>	<p>**test 2: language in context: Comprehension, Summary, Language structures and conventions (40 marks) OR Literature: contextual questions (35 marks)</p>	
Formal assessment tasks in term 4			
task 11			
<p>end-of-year examinations: Paper 1 – Language in context (80) Paper 2 – Literature (70) Paper 3 – Writing (100) Paper 4 – Orals* (50)</p> <p>*Oral year mark from cumulative speaking and listening and/or reading. Final mark should include at least one prepared speech task, one listening task and one other, e.g. prepared reading aloud/unprepared speech/informal speaking in group work.</p>			

****test 1** could be set out of **40 marks** or, if more, should be **converted to 40 marks**. While the *Comprehension, Summary, Language structures and conventions* combination is suggested, teachers are urged to design a combination of aspects that fits the character (test programme, time allocation, etc.) of the school.

A test in the Programme of Assessment should not be made up of several smaller tests. Each test should cover a substantial amount of content, should be set for 45-60 minutes, and should reflect the different cognitive levels as set out for exam papers.

In Grade 8, 9, and 10 there are three tasks that should be undertaken as class tests per term. From the three tasks provided, task 2 in every term is reserved for writing. Even though essay writing is taught in two out of four terms, according to the CAPS document, it should be assessed throughout the year. When looking at examination papers, from the three papers that should be conducted in mid-year examination and final examination, paper three is reserved for assessing writing. Just like the teaching plan, the programme of assessment in Grade 8 to 10 also assesses mostly narrative and descriptive essays, where argumentative essays are seldom assessed. EFAL teachers, according to the CAPS (2012b), should adhere to this programme of assessment when conducting formative assessment. The study used this programme of assessment to grasp how assessment should be conducted.

The reviewing of the CAPS document was important for trustworthiness where document analysis intersects with a set of different methods of data collection of this study. This was done to reduce the impact of bias that can exist in the study and to bring-forth another angle that, not only looked at how teachers are influenced by the document, but also how writing should be taught to English FAL learners. When analysing the CAPS document, I looked at how the document guided and assisted English FAL teachers on how to teach writing, especially in complex environments like a township classroom. I also considered whether the document encouraged teachers to use socio-cultural theory – a theory which underpinned this study. This was also supplemented by analysing the rubrics for all these genres of writing. This was done to see whether the teaching and assessment of writing ~~was~~ were in line with the CAPS document, as well as whether it was in line with what the teacher has said in the semi-structured interviews.

3.5.3.2. Assessment Rubrics

The rubrics I selected (Appendices 8, 9 and 10) provided a guide on how to assess an essay, longer transactional, and shorter transactional writing respectively. When looking at the

objectives of this study, assessment rubrics were relevant for providing a complete depiction of how writing is taught. Rubrics are comprehensible sets of criteria for students' work that indicate detailed descriptions of quality for those criteria (Keller et al., 2023). The rubrics used in this study were seen as tools for formative assessment. They were also used to improve the accuracy and efficiency of assessing learners' writing. Rubrics were, not only used for assessment, but also, according to Reddy and Andrade (2010) to communicate their expectations of the final product to learner. Therefore, rubrics provided transparency by clarifying what was expected from learners when they conducted writing of their own.

3.6. Data Analysis

When analysing data, I adopted thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a systematic approach that involves the identification, classification, and interpretation of patterns of meaning within underlying datasets, as defined by Braun and Clarke (2023). There are two different methods of data analysis in thematic analysis; deductive and inductive approaches.

Joffe (2011) explains that the inductive approach to data analysis is a bottom-up approach and is driven by what is in the data. Thus, a deductive approach is a top-down approach in which the researcher introduces a set of concepts, ideas, or themes into the data and uses them to analyse the data. In this study, I used the inductive approach to data analysis because I was open to new themes that emerged from the collected data.

I used data generated in semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis. I also explored other patterns of meaning that appeared during and after generating data. For the purposes of triangulation, this paper adopted the use of multiple approaches in analysing data. Anton (2020) notes that qualitative researchers can take an approach which is both inductive and deductive. In the study, I began by being deductive, starting with a theme, socio-cultural theory, and concepts, like pedagogy, when looking at the data; and then inductively analysing themes emerging as additional data. This study, however, was heavily reliant on the inductive approach to thematic analysis. The themes that emerged were methods to teaching writing (the process, genre-based, process/genre approach), assessment, and the challenges to teaching EFAL writing in this township school.

3.7. Sampling

Since the focus was on collecting rich and in-depth data, the study, then, focused on one school and English teachers in grades 8, 9 and 10. There are five English teachers in these three grades

mentioned above. The five educators belonged to different age groups. These participants were all bilingual speakers of both IsiZulu as their Home Language and English as their First Additional Language. The sampled participants varied as reflected in the table below:

Table 3.5: Sampled Participants

Gender	Age (Category) > 30 (1) 30 < 50 (2) 50 < (3)	Number of years teaching	Pseudonym given	Grade Teaching	Number of learners in the class
Female	3	07	Participant A	Grade 10	68
Female	2	15	Participant B	Grade 10	66
Female	1	02	Participant C	Grade 9	70
Female	2	15	Participant D	Grade 9	67
Male	3	06	Participant E	Grade 8	70
					Average 68 learners per class

Convenience sampling was used when deciding on the case of this study. The school chosen as the site was the same school where I taught English and History. This was convenient because it was much easier to access the case, which is the teaching of writing, and easier to be in contact with the participants whenever there is need. Furthermore, this made the school accommodative on how writing was taught because both teachers and learners were familiar with my presence.

When sampling participants, purposive sampling was used. Bertram and Christiansen (2014) describe purposive sampling as researchers making specific decisions about which people, groups, or objects to include in a sample. This study investigated how English First Additional Language teachers in Grades 8 to 10 teach writing. The reason why I did not include grades 11 and 12 in the study is that learners in these grades were at the exit-level of school, hence teachers wanted to finish the syllabus as quickly as possible to leave time for revision before the end of the third term. Contrary to the grades being researched, teachers used all four terms

for teaching and learning thus, leaving the researcher with more time to gather the necessary data.

3.8. Ethics

Ethical clearance (see Appendix 1) was obtained from the University of KwaZulu-Natal ethical committee (HSSREC/00003528/2021). Participants were not coerced to participate as participation was voluntary. Participants who were willing to participate were made aware of their right to withdraw from the study at any point in time, should they feel uncomfortable during the process of investigation. Responses by participants were treated with confidentiality. Participants signed contracts for participation after everything pertaining to the research had been explained. Full comprehension of details of the research was set as a requirement for signing the informed consent. Participants were informed that they were allowed to withdraw from the study at any time without any repercussions. Pseudonyms (see Table 3.5) were used for participants to ensure anonymity. The name of the school was not disclosed. Before participants were engaged in research activities, they were informed of the significance of the research. During the school parents' meeting, I explained the consent (Appendix 2) and assent (Appendix 3) forms for the parents and learners who were part of the classes I observed. These forms were clearly explained in IsiZulu so that they fully understood what their children were getting into.

3.9. Gate Keeper's Approval (see Appendix 4)

The Gatekeeper in the research environment was the school principal who granted permission to allow the study to take place. This was done by the principal signing an agreement form titled the 'Gatekeeper's approval'.

3.10. Rigour and Trustworthiness

Validity and reliability are understood differently in the interpretivist study as compared to other types of research. Wireman and Jars (2009) admit that traditional research concepts of reliability and validity may cause some difficulties in qualitative research. Some researchers argue that the term validity is not applicable to qualitative research. However, there is a need for some qualifying check or measure for qualitative research. After realising this, qualitative researchers then generated and adopted what they considered to be more appropriate terms such as quality, rigour and trustworthiness (Golafshani, 2003, Cohen et al., 2018). Although validity in a qualitative study is not seen as appropriate by many

scholars, Bertram and Christiansen (2014) however, outlined a few validity concerns in relation to case study. Validity in case studies ensures that the data collected reflect the case and ensures that claims are supported by data, not to be generalised beyond what the case warrants.

Trustworthiness is a concept used for interpretivist research, which suggests whether the findings reflect the reality and lived experiences of the participants. To increase the issues of trustworthiness in my study I used triangulation.

Triangulation refers to the use of multiple methods or data sources in qualitative research to develop a comprehensive understanding of phenomena (Carter et al., 2014). The triangulation used in this study is called method triangulation. Method triangulation involves the use of multiple methods of data collection (Bans-Akutey and Tiimub, 2021). In the study, there was use of semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis. For the study's credibility, it was decided to audio-record interviews and observations. This was to allow another independent researcher to analyse the same data and thus, if the researcher arrives at a similar conclusion, would demonstrate strong evidence.

3.11. Storage of Data

The collected data will be stored in a locked cupboard in my supervisor's office and kept there for five years.

3.12. Limitations

Initially, with document analysis, I wanted to analyse learners' exercise books. However, I decided to analyse the CAPS document because when taking learners' exercise books, it would have seemed as if I was evaluating my colleagues' teaching and assessing abilities and risk resistance from them as participants at a later stage. Initially, when observing learners and teachers in class, they were reluctant to participate in class. However, after more frequent observations, learners began to get used to my presence. The classes observed were large as a result the teachers were inaudible. To remedy this, I decided to position myself strategically in class so that I could audiotape what was said in class.

3.13. Conclusion

This chapter unpacked the methodology of the study. This was a qualitative study which adopted the interpretivist paradigm. An intrinsic case study was used as the research design of this study where semi-structured interviews and observations were chosen as the tools for

Data generation. For triangulation purposes, I also included document analysis as another method of data generation. The data collected was analysed using the thematic analysis and once the data was analysed it was stored in the cupboard of my supervisor for a period of five years. The chapter also gave details of the sampled participants. This was followed by the ethical issues, the gatekeeper's letter, rigour and trustworthiness. The chapter that follows reports on the findings of this study

Chapter 4 – Analysis

4.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, methodological processes on the exploration of teaching writing through a case study were discussed. This chapter responds to my research questions: *How is writing taught in Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language (EFAL) classrooms in a township school? And why is writing taught this way to Grade 8 to 10 EFAL classrooms in a township school?* In this chapter, I analysed the raw data from semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis of the following documents - the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) document for both senior phase, Grade 7-9, and further education and training (FET), Grade 10-12; and from the EFAL question papers and rubrics which were used by EFAL teachers to assess learners writing products.

4.2. Themes

The researcher used the words, phrases, concepts, and sentences that the participants commonly used when recounting their experiences to identify themes. The observation of the teaching of writing yielded themes. The main themes that appeared in the data were:

1. Approaches to teaching writing
2. Assessment
3. Challenges to teaching EFAL writing
4. Experiences of writing
5. Role of the Department of Basic Education (DBE)

This chapter presented data in the order of the themes that emerged in this study. The data was sequenced in this manner for two reasons: firstly, to mirror the order in which these themes appeared in the study, and secondly, to respond to the research questions of this study.

4.2.1. Theme One: The Approaches to Teaching Writing

This segment of the chapter provided a full description of how writing was taught to EFAL learners in this particular township school, looking at the two main approaches of teaching writing; process and genre-based to writing, which emerged in the data.

The data gathered from both observations and semi-structured interviews confirmed that all participants (Participants A, B, C, D and E) taught writing in accordance with the requirements of the EFAL CAPS (2012) document. Throughout the study, none of the participants used the

traditional product approach to teaching writing. The CAPS document makes no mention of the traditional approach; therefore, teachers were in line with the curriculum that regarded the product approach as being a traditional way of teaching writing (Biria and Liaghat, 2018).

Some participants (Participant A and E) were seen applying the process approach, and one was seen adopting the genre-based approach (Participant D), and others used both approaches when teaching writing (Participants B and C) to EFAL learners. Despite participants displaying both the process and genre-based approach when teaching writing, in their responses, however, they all only stated that they used process approach.

When interviewed on how she taught writing, for an example, Participant D stated “I give my learners a chance to bring forth their drafts... I provide continuous feedback on those drafts because I believe learners have to learn writing through the stages: providing drafts, editing and then submitting their final products”. This is an indication of the process approach to writing used by Participant D. However, when I observed her teaching learners how to write a poster, Participant D was seen using the genre-based approach to teaching writing.

Despite Participant D’s discrepancies between her response and her teaching practice, she was still adhering to the expectations of the EFAL CAPS document that states that “writing instruction will usually involve working through the writing process, however not every step of the process will be used on every occasion” (CAPS, 2012a, p. 35). When asked about her knowledge of the different approaches to teaching writing, Participant D explained that she was not well informed about the different approaches used to teach writing.

The ignorance of the approaches by participants in my study is like that of another set of teachers in a South African study by Ntombela et al. (2020). This study discovered that EFAL teachers had limited understanding of the writing approaches when looking at various approaches used by EFAL teachers. Perhaps this is the reason why the participant earlier said she is using the process but in practice showed another approach to teaching writing. Even though she admitted to not being familiar with the approaches, Participant D used the genre-based approach effectively. Participant A was observed teaching essay writing to her Grade 10 EFAL learners. This class consisted of 68 learners. This essay section contributed to the Mid-year Examination Paper 3, and Grade 10 EFAL learners wrote about 150 to 200 words under this section.

The lesson here was introduced by the teacher giving handouts to learners on how to write an essay and what is an essay. These handouts served as hard scaffolding, which is the assistance that is anticipated and planned based on the skill set of the learner. Participant A anticipated that her learners might have forgotten how to write an essay and therefore, provided a paper-based cognitive tool – hard scaffolding. The participant chose to use hard scaffolding because, as mentioned in chapter 2, soft scaffolding is demanding when implemented in large classes because it is difficult to ascertain learners' varying abilities in class (Belland et al, 2008). Participant A therefore saw it fit to use hard scaffolding as she was compelled by having a large class (see also Table 3.5 for number of learners in each class).

Assuming that learners knew how to write an essay, Participant A grouped learners in class to remind each other of the components of an essay. During group discussions, a learner was seen assisting his peers who were struggling to recall how to write an essay. Interestingly, the learner used code-switching to explain to his peers what the essay consists of: *I-essay kumele ibe neIntro, iBody kanye neConclusion* (An essay should have an introduction, body and conclusion). The learner used code-switching when relaying information to his peers in class. The use of code-switching, especially in First Additional Language (FAL) classrooms, was effective because it enabled learners to better understand the concepts taught in class (Shinga, 2019). The use of code-switching also indicates that the learner was more comfortable switching to his home language when explaining concepts to his peers. The learner used his home language, which is relative to his culture, in assisting his peers to mediate the writing of an essay. This is an example of the concepts of Vygotsky's (1979) mediation and internalization because the learner has used a cultural artefact, language, to make meaning in class.

Socio-cultural theory recognises that other humans play a huge role in learners' cognitive development (Marginson and Dang, 2016). Participant A adopted the strategy of peer-assessment as an example of humans playing a role in cognitive development. The strategy of peer-assessment indicates that teachers saw learners in the case of the study as mediation tools in class. This was seen when some learners played the role of a More Knowledgeable Other (MKO). A MKO in this study was defined as any individual who poses a better skill to that of a child (DuFour, 2020). The learner who was code-switching in class assumed the role of the MKO and briefly explained each component of an essay entails before being interrupted by the teacher who wrote on the board "The day I will never forget..." Participant A allowed learners to become MKO's in her lesson unlike Participant E and B who assumed this role, thus

rendering their lessons teacher-centred.

Participant A did not spend much time teaching the features of an essay and she is within the curriculum guidelines because as stated by the CAPS (2012a, p.26) document “if learners are writing a familiar text type, they will not need to analyse its structure and language features in so much detail”. This strategy was, however, risky because some learners in class, during the writing stage, asked each other: *How do you write an introduction? And the conclusion?* Other learners answered the questions with ‘*I don’t know*’ and ‘*I don’t remember.*’ A clear indication that learners are not familiar with the features of an essay or perhaps, they have forgotten despite the teacher handing out worksheets to remind them. In this lesson the participant relied on the previous grade teachers having taught this form of writing, and this strategy proved to be unsuccessful because many learners could not recall what they have been taught in the previous grades. Despite the outcome of this strategy, Participant A understood - as does the socio-cultural theory - that these learners do not come to class as blank slates hence the reliance on the previous grade knowledge when teaching.

Participant A continued the lesson by instructing learners to discuss the topic written on the board amongst their groups and share their experiences of the day they will never forget. I observed that the group discussions were not effectively used by the participant in this lesson because, during discussions, the participant sat down and did not facilitate the discussions in each group. It is worth noting that a facilitator teacher can impede learners' development in class. A teacher may disrupt students' conversations and prevent them from being at the centre of the learning process by taking on this role. Additionally, this role takes away groups' autonomy, making them dependent on the teacher. However, the class taught by Participant A needed a teacher who would assume the role of a facilitator because by not assuming this role, this resulted in learners discussing issues which were not part of the lesson. Omidire (2022) validates this that an effective group discussion is expected that teachers play a facilitative role because learners may lead one another astray during a discussion if the MKO is not present to ensure accurate discussions which enhance learning in class.

Another factor on the misuse of group discussions by teachers is that learners were randomly grouped in class. For a more effective group discussion, learners should be strategically positioned in class according to their capabilities (Shamim and Coleman, 2018). Participant A randomly grouped learners and did not consider learners' capabilities in each group. I gathered this because some groups were observed having robust discussions on how to write an essay, while others were discussing issues which were off-topic.

After the group discussion, learners engaged in the writing on their own. This class consisted of 68 learners therefore when giving feedback to learners, Participant A looked at one or two written products per group before the period ended. Participant A seemed eager to see and revise all the written drafts in class but since this was a large class, it was not achievable as this would have been time consuming. When observing large classes, a number of scholars have found that there is little contact between teacher and learner in class (Jokhio et al. 2020: Shamim and Coleman, 2018: Carpenter, 2006: Qualters, 2001). However, these scholars provide rather conflicting viewpoints on the effectiveness of limited contact in class on learners. Aries and Walker (2004) see little contact as having no effect on the learner's performance in class, with Carpenter (2006) stating that learners prefer such classes because they do not favour active learning in class.

Recent scholars on large classes, on the other hand, have refuted this stance on large classes. Instead, these scholars like Jokhio et al (2020), Shamim and Coleman (2018) cited challenges of maintaining discipline, managing group work and providing feedback as negatively influencing learners' performance in class. The latter stance is highlighted in the lesson of participant A where she could not effectively manage group/ pair work in class because of the large number of learners in class. This is also because of the limited one on one contact time she had with learners in class, she was observed as being unable to provide the much-needed immediate feedback to other learners in this lesson.

The subsequent period was an extension of the previously observed essay writing lesson, during which participant A was observed once again. In this lesson, the participant told learners to conduct self-assessment on their written products where learners had to revise their drafts and check for mistakes. Studies have found self-assessment a useful method for learning English because, among other things, it promotes students to study and reflect on their own English learning, fosters critical thinking skills, and grows a sense of autonomy in language acquisition (Jamrus and Razali, 2019). However, second and foreign language speakers are usually disadvantaged when it comes to assessing their own language learning. This is because these learners' judgement of their own work, as explained by Masruria (2021), might be inaccurate due to the interference of the first language conventions. Therefore, Participant A did not display good practice during the writing stage because she taught FAL (second language) learners who were susceptible to inaccuracies because of not being equipped enough to conduct self-assessment.

The rest of Participant A's lesson was reserved for proofreading the written tasks. Here the

participant showed that writing in the process approach does not need to be conducted in a linear fashion because learners were seen going back and forth between the stages of the writing process. Here, the process of writing steps is presented as a cyclical process that facilitates language learning, as new ideas can be introduced, or previous errors missed in the first cycle corrected.

Participant E is another teacher who, in a subtle way, showed the use of the process approach to writing. Participant E was a Grade 8 teacher who was also observed teaching essay writing to Grade 8 EFAL learners. Essay writing is part of Paper 3 in this grade; and learners were expected to write from 180 to 210 words or 4 to 7 paragraphs.

Participant E introduced the lesson by writing the topic “My family” on the board. “What can you talk about in an essay titled My Family?” He asked the class. “Care! Bond! Respect! And support!” learners responded. The participant then drew a mind map on the board with the word “My family” in the middle. All the answers that were presented by the learners were then included in the mind map. This was an opportunity for the participant to engage with each subtopic raised by the learners in class, which, as stated by Bigger (2022), prepared them on how to generate and discuss each idea during the brainstorming phase of this approach. Participant E taught learners how they would organise the ideas generated in the mind map when they began writing. Here, he clarified that each idea from the mind map would make up a paragraph in the body of the essay. For example, care is discussed in paragraph one, bond in paragraph two, and so forth. Participant E continued the lesson by explaining the features of an essay; introduction, body, and conclusion.

When interviewed, Participant E emphasised the mind map as a key feature when planning to write an essay. However, when observed in class, the participant did not teach learners to engage with the ideas that emerged from the mind map during brainstorming. Organising ideas in a mind map differs to engaging with ideas. Engaging ideas involves having a lengthy discussion on that particular idea generated in the mind map, whereas organising ideas is simply stating each idea that will make up the body of the essay. Engaging with each idea would have greatly benefitted learners because it would equip these Grade 8 learners with the skill to visualise their whole essay before they began writing it. By engaging with ideas, learners would have a better understanding of subtopics that they would have added in their mind maps and whether these topics are relevant to the main topic of the essay.

Participant E had to elicit information from the learner by engaging with the ideas that learners

had presented in class. Instead, ideas presented on the topic 'Family' were not discussed as to how they could link with the topic given. This then revealed the participant's efficacy, or lack thereof, in teaching using this approach.

Unlike Participant A, when learners were engaging in writing of their own, Participant E did not allow them to discuss amongst themselves on how to tackle an essay. Instead, when writing was taking place, the participant went around the class assisting learners with their mind maps, explaining the essay topics, and sometimes translating these topics from English to IsiZulu (the home language of these learners). Here, the participant assumed the role of an MKO and scaffolding learners in class using IsiZulu. Just like the learner in Lesson one, Participant E used code-switching to assist learners to explain some of the concepts for learners when he was walking around the class. The participant here tried to remove any barriers that may have been caused by the language because the use of code-switching serves as means of fulfilling both social and learning purposes (Moodley, 2007). I also observed that when the teacher could not attend to all learners in class, he decided to allow learners to discuss on their own, another indication of large classes having an influence on the manner in which the participant is teaching. This then indicates that the teacher did not believe in using group discussions in this particular lesson. Instead, he was forced into using it because of the number of learners he had in class. Therefore, the manner in which this group discussion was handled was expected because this strategy was not planned to be used in this lesson.

In the following period, Participant E allowed for peer- and self-assessment where learners checked other learners' essays for mistakes. Before this was done, the participant told learners to check whether the introduction, body, and conclusion were there, and check spelling and sentence structure. EFAL learners were described earlier in the lesson of Participant A as being unable to conduct such assessments. This was true even in this Participant E's lesson where learners mentioned that they were confused by the term sentence structure. The participant did not provide the necessary explanation for his learners. Instead, he replied by saying "Just check whether the sentence makes sense to you... does it have meaning? If yes, then that sentence is correct". This is a very narrow explanation given to learners on what sentence is a structure.

The above response by the participant did not explain at the level of learners because some learners were heard in class asking each other what a sentence structure is, even after the teacher had defined this concept. The participant here missed an opportunity to use the Zone of Proximal Development concept to provide the necessary scaffolding that would make learners

reach their maximum potential. Participant E was cognisant of what his learners already knew and what they did not know. Hence, with the assistance of the participant, there was an opportunity to assist learners on how to identify a sentence structure and conduct an effective peer-assessment. The participant could have reserved a portion of the lesson to capacitating learners on how they can conduct self- or peer-assessment, specifically looking at their common problems when writing.

Self-assessment can be effective in English learning because it enables learners to become critical thinkers, develop a sense of autonomy in their learning, and learn and reflect on their own English learning (Babaii and Akeh, 2019). It was mentioned earlier that self-assessment in the context of second language poses a danger to learners because the judgement of these learners may be full of inaccuracies. Participant E, therefore, did not effectively use this strategy to his advantage since learners looked as if they were not properly trained to do this task, mainly because there was no guidance like a rubric to make this task easier for learners.

Learners in Participant E's class were told to revise their essays and check for mistakes one last time before writing the final product which would be marked. Here, learners were required to construct their final essays based on the feedback given by their peers. It was expected that some of these essays would be poorly assessed because, as mentioned earlier, some learners were not sure how to give feedback to their peers' written products, and they were not given a tool which could assist them in providing feedback. The rest of the period was then reserved for learners to write their final written essays and submit them to the teacher.

Participants A and E saw writing as a slow process because both participants spent two periods (2 hours) teaching learners how to write an essay using the process approach to teaching writing. Participant E spent more time on the stages that make up the process to writing compared to Participant A. Participant E introduced the notion of brainstorming (which was not presented by Participant A) in his lesson and explained that learners needed to go through the process of planning, drafting, revising, editing/proofreading and presenting when writing. Perhaps, this was because Participant E taught Grade 8 class with learners who are still young and need proper guidance when writing under this approach. Participant A taught Grade 10 learners and presumed that her learners had been taught essay writing using this approach in the previous grades. Assuming one-size fits all skill levels can create knowledge gaps for those who have not mastered the required skills, who then become frustrated and disinterested, and feel lost or confused due to lack of prerequisite skills (Navarro, 2023). This has a negative impact on learners and the overall learning experience.

The difference in learning styles and speeds of learning is another factor that makes presuming learners' skill levels a disadvantage (Gan et al., 2020). Assuming that all learners have mastered certain skills by a certain grade level overlooks the above difference, thus, making it difficult for some learners to keep up in class. Participant A could have provided some form of an informal assessment to tailor the way she taught some groups of learners in her class or foster discussions in class to the level of her learners.

In contrast to Participants A and E, who used the process approach, Participant D relied solely on the genre-based approach when teaching writing. Her reliance on this approach aligned with the EFAL CAPS (2012b) curriculum document for Grade 10-12 that recognises that learners may write texts without drafts. In this approach learners only need to be cognisant of the features that make up that particular genre, and its purpose. The document terms this as the text-based approach. "The text-based approach involves producing different kinds of texts for particular purposes and audiences" (CAPS, 2012a, p. 16). This participant was observed teaching a Grade 9 class of 67 learners. A poster, which forms part of shorter transactional writing, was taught where learners were expected to produce this text in about 90 to 100 words.

As a Grade 9 teacher, Participant D believed that teaching learners by demonstrating the target genre in class was effective because learners would know the features of that text as well as the purpose of the text. In the semi-structured interview, she maintained that her EFAL learners had low proficiency in English characterised by lack of knowledge of the features of various genres. "These learners cannot write a proper structure of an essay nor of a friendly letter... some reside in informal settlements so they struggle when they have to write an address because where they live, they do not have a proper residential address". In addressing this problem, she believed that giving learners handouts in class to copy the features of a text familiarised them to the text conventions of the target genre.

Chapter 2 of this study mentioned three stages of the genre-based approach; modelling, joint construction, and independent construction. Participant D's lesson was analysed through the lens of these stages. When teaching a poster to EFAL learners in class, Participant D began her lesson by asking learners whether smoking was good or bad.

Learner A: "It is very bad Ma'am"

Teacher: "Why is it bad?" teacher

Learner B: "Because it is bad for your lungs, it causes cancer".

Teacher: “Is that the only bad thing that smoking causes?”

Learner C: “My mom also told me it makes your breath smell”, one of the learners answered.

Teacher: “Okay, good.””

Learner C: “Mowubhema Ma’am, uzogcina uyiphara”. (If you smoke ma’am, eventually you will become a drug addict) [Class burst into laughter].

The participant asked these questions because, as the MKO in this class, she wanted to establish the Zone of Proximal Development of her learners and provide the necessary scaffolding. In other words, she wanted to understand how much learners knew about the dangers of smoking. She posed probing questions to elicit more information when answers were presented. The questions served as soft scaffolding where she provided immediate assistance to create more content for learners when designing their posters. The dialogue was an example of a participant using the Zone of Proximal Development to expose learners to the dangers of smoking. It was interesting to note that this was done through a learner centred stance, where learners responded positively, some showing excitement whilst learning this topic. This removed any negative feelings about writing from learners although writing is regarded as a daunting task for EFAL learners (Ntombela et al., 2020). This method of introducing a lesson effectively captured learners’ attention and set the tone for the entire lesson.

Participant D presented a sample poster to the class and showed learners the features of this genre. She explained the purpose of a poster. Modelling, the initial stage of genre-based approach, was illustrated there because the participant had chosen a text to be modelled which addressed the needs of the learners as she was teaching a poster. In this stage of the genre-based approach, teachers play a crucial role in exposing learners to the target genre by learning through the text (Bigger, 2020). Participant D also reminded learners that they needed to keep in mind the target audience, the surrounding community, when designing this poster. This implies that writing varies with the social context in which it is produced. Sari (2019) attests that genre evolves and adapts to context, goals, and audience changes. The genre-based approach, as mentioned by Dirgeyasa (2016), requires that learners write, not just to write, but also to follow a certain convention as the aim is to make the reader recognise the purpose of the text.

Learners were instructed to design a poster on the dangers of smoking regarding what was discussed in class and what they had heard at home. Lantolf et al. (2021) explains that

Vygotsky's Socio-cultural theory notes that social factors influence the development of a learner therefore, Participant D used learners' prior knowledge to create a poster. The participant acknowledged that learners do not come to class as empty vessels, another pertinent stance of the socio-cultural theory, because she asked them to discuss the dangers of smoking as a class.

In the last stage of the genre-based approach, called the independent construction, learners were given time to begin constructing posters with the teacher's supervision. In this phase, the participant demonstrated good practice as she was observed circling the classroom to ensure that learners were following the genre's goal and making use of the proper features of a poster.

While going around the class, the participant assessed whether learners had enough knowledge of the text. Once learners displayed some proficiency in the target genre, the teacher then asked learners to write independently. This was in line with Haerazi et al.'s (2020) stance that teachers play a facilitative role during the joint construction stage. Letting learners write independently when they have shown proficiency is referred to as the removal of scaffolding. Xi and Lantolf (2021) add that, when a learner is fully confident that they can successfully achieve a task on their own and has demonstrated that, then that is the right time for removing scaffolding.

Like Participants A and E, Participant D missed a step when teaching in her approach in class. From observations, I discovered that in Participant D's lesson, learners were not taught how to design a poster. This is a crucial step with the genre-based approach, called the joint construction, where the teacher encourages learners to discuss amongst each other to remember the genre presented (Liu and Chen, 2022). However, this was not detrimental to learners' learning the target genre because learners showed that they were familiar with the features of a poster. None of the learners were found asking each other nor asking the teacher how to write in this genre, indicating that learners needed no assistance. Perhaps, the sample poster provided earlier in the lesson sufficed in assisting learners.

Participants B and C used both the process and genre-based approach to teach in their classrooms, Participant B used the process and genre-based approach, whereas, Participant C used these approaches simultaneously in one lesson. When teaching writing, Participant B said that she placed emphasis on teaching of language structure and conventions: "I'm teaching in a secondary school; therefore, I don't need to teach how to write... instead I teach what to write". The participant believed that learners, especially in Grade 10, should know most of the genres being taught, whether it is an essay or transactional writing. This is a similar stance

taken by Participant A, who taught the same grade.

This study highlighted some of the reasons why this strategy of assuming learners' skill levels is disadvantageous to learners. In addition to that, the Zone of Proximal Development, a concept found in the socio-cultural theory, acknowledges that learners have varying levels of competence in class and therefore, assuming uniformity skills across the class may lead to not taking the learner from the known to the unknown (de Olivier and Athanases, 2017). Participant B could have used another strategy to first diagnose the level of her learners. Participant B suggested that learners are struggling concerning the language structure and conventions therefore should be taught such when writing:

“This is Grade 10 therefore I assume that learners know how to write each genre. Hence, I focus on supplementing their vocabulary by emphasising learners' use of language when writing. ‘Don't just say it was a beautiful day, was it scorching hot? Was it windy? What made the day to be beautiful?’ I instruct them.”

The participant placed more emphasis on the language part of writing at the expense of the features of a genre. Again, the danger in this strategy was assuming that all learners knew the features of each genre being taught, which was not the case as seen in the previous lesson of Participant A. However, it is understandable that Participant B used this strategy of focusing on language because it is important to note that the FAL learners' written products are characterised by persistent errors which affect meaning (Ntombela, 2022). When analysing Grade 10 FAL learners' essay products in a South African school, Daniel et al (2021) identified staggering twelve common language errors, which included incorrect use of pronouns, preposition and articles ('a' and 'an'). It could have been that because of such errors in her own class that Participant B, a Grade 10 teacher, placed extra emphasis on teaching language structures and conventions when teaching writing compared to features of the genre. The EFAL CAPS (CAPS, 2012b) document for Grades 10-12 stresses the need to incorporate language structures and conventions when teaching all aspects of language acquisition, including the teaching of writing. Since learners were struggling in this, Participant B spent a substantial amount of time teaching the language structure and conventions despite the curriculum statement stating that this should not be taught independently.

Participant B was observed teaching a Grade 10 class that had 66 learners for two periods. The participant was teaching writing in a diary in her first lesson and in the second lesson she was teaching essay writing. Learners were to produce 80 to 100 words and 150 – 200 words for the

texts respectively.

When teaching a diary entry, Participant B gave the topic “The day I found out I passed Grade 10” to the class. Learners were given 20 minutes, instructed to write without any structure, and presented to the class by reading out loud. When reading out loud, the teacher focused on the learners’ emotions. This was done so that learners could use more descriptive words when describing their emotions in the diary. The participant explained to learners how to use alternative words when presenting: “A diary entry is a reflective tool that describes what happened in your life, therefore when you are writing I need to see more describing words in your entries”. Learners who were using the words ‘happy’, ‘excited’ and ‘nice’ were therefore, instructed to find synonyms appropriate to how they felt that day. This proved to be effective because learners were seen consulting the English dictionary where they came up with new words thus improving their vocabulary. At this moment, the participant placed value on the language aspect of writing more than the features of a genre.

Participant B explained to the class that the feelings of the past are what make the diary thereby the participant tapped into the learners’ frame of reference. In other words, learners were to use how they felt when they passed Grade 9 to Grade 10 and present these feelings in their entries. The participant did this to ascertain her learners’ current skill levels at being descriptive, the initial step in the Zone of Proximal Development. Learners began writing their diaries and the participant went around the class checking whether the learners had written the correct structure. This is the joint construction phase. The participant did not check the whole class. However, from the few diaries that she saw, she gave learners the go-ahead to start writing on their own. This is the independent construction phase in the genre-based approach. Even at this stage, the participant ensured that the learners were still adhering to the conventions of this genre and also checking for creativity.

Participant B used the genre-based approach when teaching transactional writing in her first lesson of writing. However, when teaching an essay, Participant B used the process approach to teach writing. Participant B began her lesson on teaching an essay by giving learners handouts which consist of six essay topics (see Figure 4.1). These topics given to learners were extracted from the 2017 EFAL Paper 3 Grade 10. The use of this past examination question paper was effective because learners were prepared for the examination style of questioning and the language used in such examination papers.

QUESTION 1

- Write an essay of between 150 and 200 words in length (about ONE page) on ONE of the following topics.
- Write down the NUMBER and TITLE of the essay you have chosen, for example 1.1 I own my future.
- Give your own title if your choice is QUESTION 1.2, 1.7.1 OR 1.7.2.
- Spend approximately 80 minutes on this section.

1.1	I own my future.	[50]
1.2	Write a story that includes the following words: As I entered the room ...	
	NOTE: The words given in the topic MUST be included somewhere in your essay. Provide your own title.	[50]
1.3	What a celebration!	[50]
1.4	We can save this planet by turning waste into wealth.	[50]
1.5	The mystery was finally solved.	[50]
1.6	We live in a world where people care too much about material possessions.	[50]

Figure 4.1. Essay Questions

There are several reasons why this strategy of using past year papers is effective for buttressing the overall performance of learners in class. As mentioned earlier, past year papers give an idea of how the actual exam will look like and provide learners with the foundation to understand the nature of questions, how marks are given, and the overall outline of the examination paper (Glass et al., 2013). As a result, these Grade 10 EFAL learners may come across patterns of content and questions that help them to concentrate on specific topics or types of questions that may arise in the actual examination. The use of past year papers equips learners with the skill of managing their time for each question or section answered, thereby reducing the chance of running out of time (Harada et al., 2023).

In Participant A lesson, learners were to answer this essay question in 60 minutes and not the 80 minutes that is recommended by the CAPS document. This taking of 20 minutes off their writing time inherently preparing these learners to become faster writers - a skill that is needed in other subjects as well.

This strategy also privileges these EFAL learners for objective self-assessment of their written products. By using past year papers, learners can identify areas of weakness in their understanding and work on improving those areas (Harade et al., 2023). This then becomes an effective tool for learners because, after this self-assessment, they can adjust their preparation for the exam based on the insights gained from analysing past papers.

In short, using past year papers prepares learners adequately for the exams and boosts their confidence as they gain a better understanding of exam format and content. Learners also feel more assured and less anxious before the actual exam (Glass et al., 2023). Participant B showed good practice by introducing the past year's paper to her learners because, by simulating exam conditions, learners become better performers, become more confident, and withstand majority of exam-related stress.

The topics given were explained to learners in detail, where code-switching and translation of these topics also occurred. Malebese and Tlali (2020) conducted a study on transforming the teaching of EFAL in a South African school. In this study it was found that EFAL learners relied on teachers' explanations when they were given questions because for these learners, English is often a barrier to learning (Malebese and Tlali 2017). In my study, the participant was cognisant of such issues as seen by spending significant time explaining these topics.

When learners were engaging in their writing, Participant B went around the class checking evidence of planning and seeing whether some learners understood the essay topics. The participant took the drafts, marked them and returned these drafts three days later. This is another indication of large classes influence how EFAL teachers teach in this school. If the class had few learners, the drafts would have been reviewed and given back to learners within the same lesson.

Unlike other participants who relied on self- and peer-assessment, Participant B took it upon herself to review the drafts of learners despite having a large class. As much as this was time consuming, it was effective in making sure the learners meet the standards required by the teacher. Learners were to continue with these drafts at home and submit their final drafts the following day. The participant cited time constraints as the major contributing factor to making learners write their final products at home.

Participant C used both process and genre-based approaches to writing when teaching a friendly letter. The use of such strategy is not new in language teaching. There are several scholars who made mention of participants in their studies using the process/genre approach to writing in classroom (Rahimi and Zhang, 2022: Huang and Zhang, 2020: Sari, 2019: Badger and White, 2000). The process/ genre approach to teaching writing, as Sari (2019) explains, merges the teaching process for creating texts by mentioning the way language functions in a specific audience. This approach is a synthesis of the process and the genre- based approach.

The use of process and the genre-based approach (henceforth referred to as process/genre approach) to teaching writing, by Participant C, is within the curriculum. In the CAPS (2012b), the use of this hybrid approach is nuanced. On page 15 of this CAPS document, an example is provided on how an EFAL teacher may teach an essay. Initially, the example referred to what seems like the genre-based approach, and later, steps found in the writing process are then cited in the same lesson. From these findings, I concluded that this was the process/genre approach. When guiding teachers on the integration of language skills in a two-week cycle, the curriculum statement mentions the use of the process and the genre-based approach in the same lesson. This was mostly seen in the teaching of transactional writing (CAPS, 2012b).

Badger and White (2000) identified three components of the process and genre-based approach as discovery based-learning, teacher led analysis, and the process stage. These three components of a process/genre approach were salient in the lesson of Participant C. Participant C was observed teaching a Grade 9 class which consisted of 70 learners, one of the largest classes from the classes observed. Longer transactional writing from this grade expects learners to produce about 140 to 160 words.

This participant teacher began her lesson by teaching the purpose of a letter because, as she explained, learners no longer write letters outside of the school environment since the advent of Information and Communication Technologies. Explaining the purpose of this genre to learners was part of the discovery-based learning stage because the participant raised the awareness of social purpose and the audience for this genre (Ajmal and Irfan, 2020). Recognising that learning is socially embedded also resonates with the socio-cultural theory.

Learners were given an exemplar friendly letter to copy the features of this genre. Components such as the address, salutation, and the body of a letter were discussed. These practices are encouraged in the genre-based approach (Rahimi and Zhang, 2022) where teachers demonstrate the target genre and the learners studied the features of the genre in detail. The language structure of this genre was also taught here looking at the tone and register used in a friendly letter. The teacher-led analysis stage is highlighted here because learners learn the rhetorical structures of this genre through modelling (Badger and Whiter, 2000).

The task “Write a letter to your friend who does not like your genre of music; Persuade him/her to attend a concert with you” was written on the board. Before learners began the writing of their own, Participant C emphasised the four stages of writing: planning, drafting, revising, and presenting. Here, we see the lesson is taking a turn towards the process approach. This is the

process stage of the process/genre approach. When planning, learners were told to discuss the topic in pairs. Here they had to unpack the topic by ensuring that they understood all aspects of the question, highlight keywords, identify the purpose of the topic and the audience. Learners were enabled to take up the role of an MKO just like the previous lesson of Participant A.

Encouraging peer learning and collaboration enables learners to assume the role of the MKO. This approach used by Participant C aimed to create a sense of working together and include other learners in class. In Participant A's class, this was observed by allowing learners to bring forth their own experiences, some knowledge and perspectives into the discussions. This is in line with the idea of socially constructed learning that is emphasised in the socio-cultural theory because, in this class, importance was placed on peer interaction and knowledge sharing.

Given the influence of large classes, Participant C allowed more advanced learners in class to identify their peers' zone of proximal development, consequently increasing the potential knowledge of other learners. These interactions facilitated by Participant C enhanced problem solving in class. This is an example of a Vygotskian class that uses collaborative learning as a strategy. Subsequently, learners were instructed to design a mind map on their own where they identified factors that may persuade their friends to go to the concert. Participant C engaged with the mind map unlike Participant E who did not encourage learners to unpack the ideas that they came up with during when planning.

When drafting the letter, Participant C told learners that the mind map would form a guide on the body of the friendly letter. Therefore, the main points of the letter are to be derived from the planning stage. The participant embraced the use of the Point, Evidence, Explanation and Link (PEEL) method when her learners were writing. She reminded her learners in class of this method "*kuPEEL method kunoP for Point, E for Evidence, omunye uE for Explanation mese kuba uL wokuLinker neparagraph elandelayo*" (in PEEL method there is P for point, E for Evidence, another E for Explanation and then an L for Linking with the following paragraph). The learners looked as if they had been taught this method because it did not take much time for them to understand what was discussed by the teacher. The use of this method was beneficial because the PEEL method had been recognised as an excellent technique to learner structuring their paragraphs, thereby providing compelling and detailed pieces of writing (McKnight, 2021). As a result, learners became better writers.

Just like in the class of Participant E, there was the use of code switching in this class. There are numerous benefits to this, including allowing for a more inclusive environment,

accommodating individuals from diverse language backgrounds, and encouraging better communication in class (Muzeya, 2023). This was in line with the socio-cultural theory that recognises the cultural influence of learners in class, and that learners come from different backgrounds that should be accommodated when teaching.

Learners asked their peers to revise their friendly letter. In Participant E’s class, learners were confused as to how to conduct peer-assessment, largely because there was no form of guidance as to how they could conduct the assessment. Participant C anticipated these challenges of peer-assessment and placed at the back of the exemplar friendly letter handouts, a checklist (see Figure 4.2.) for learners to use when revising the friendly letter. Peer-assessment aimed at enabling learners to monitor their learning (Meletiadu, 2021) and this was made possible through the participant providing a guide on how to assess. Therefore, the checklist for editing a friendly letter was relevant to this lesson because learners were not expected to give marks on the written products. Instead, they were supposed to provide written feedback to assist their peers when writing their final products.

ANNEXURE: EDITING CHECKLIST – Friendly/ Formal Letter

Criteria	Yes/No
Address correctly positioned	
Appropriate salutation	
Good introduction	
Sentences properly constructed, including capital letters and full stops	
Correct style, tone and register (is the language appropriate for a friendly/formal letter?)	
Has the letter been correctly concluded	
Correct word count (140 to 160 words)	
Planning crossed out	
Final friendly/formal letter written in pen	

Figure 4.2. The Checklist for the Formal/Friendly Letter

This checklist provided a guide on how learners could go on about giving feedback to other learners’ written products. The checklist is in line with the genre-based approach because learners were to provide feedback, mostly on the features of the friendly letter (looking at the

first two criteria in the checklist) and considering the audience when writing (in the checklist this was revealed by checking whether the language used is appropriate).

Perhaps, this would have been more effective if the participant supplemented this checklist with a longer transactional writing rubric (see Appendix 10) because learners would familiarise themselves using the rubrics and get to know the expectations that the teacher had for them when writing. However, it is important to note that the participant might not have wanted to do this because rubrics have sometimes been regarded as rigid, unworkable and a disservice to learners' written products (Mohan, 2021) and therefore, could have preferred a checklist on the level of her learners. Learners are not experts when it comes to assessment, therefore, rubrics can prove to be difficult to decipher when conducting peer-assessment.

When the participant was asked why she did not use the rubrics, she provided a response which was in line with Mohan (2021) above argument:

The language used in the rubrics is a bit above the level of my learners, it would be a futile exercise to give them rubrics as a tool in class. The aim is to provide feedback whereas rubrics assess with the intention to give a mark and that is something that I do not want to do in my class... because some learners are very sensitive on how many marks they have received in each task. So the checklist is very suitable for my style of teaching which does not expose my learners to judgement from other learners.

From this response it is clear that Participant C was concerned more about giving learners feedback than merely allocating marks in this task. The participant showed good practice as feedback is key for learner development, especially in classroom tasks where there is assessment for learning (CAPS, 2012b). It is key because information about the performance is provided through feedback to gain insights and suggest ways to improve, whereas marks give quantitative evaluations of your work that do not really pin point areas of improvement (Glass et al., 2013). Therefore, by learners giving feedback to their peers' work in class, the participant allowed them to identify their strengths and weaknesses when writing.

Once the learners were done giving feedback to their peers' written work, they revised and edited their work. This was done until the end of the period where learners submitted their final work to the teacher, to be assessed.

Discussion on observed Lessons 1 to 6

What I gathered from these findings is that EFAL teachers in this township school use the

writing approaches based on various factors. Participants in my study adopted each approach based on the text that they were teaching. When teaching essay writing, for an example, all the participants who were teaching this genre (Participants A, B, and E) were observed using the process approach, and transactional writing was taught through the use of genre-based approach. Upon further investigation, I also gleaned that it was also the rubric for each genre (see appendices 8 and 9) that inspired participants to select an approach (the analysis on rubrics will be thoroughly discussed later). In this study, there was no participant who explicitly said that they were influenced by rubrics when deciding an approach to teaching writing. However, there was a link between the rubrics and the approaches used by participants in this study. Some rubrics gave credit on the steps of writing indicating the process approach, and others credited the learner based on the genre of the product written, embracing the genre-based approach. The latter rubrics sought to assess the written products that showed distinctive features as displayed by their organisation, rhetoric structure, linguistic features, and purpose (Dirgeyasa, 2016), whereas the former focused on the steps used to produce the written work, from planning to proofreading.

The way each approach was used in class varied based on which grade the participant was teaching. Participants A and E were prime examples of this, where they both used the process approach. However, the way it was applied in class differed. Participant A was a Grade 10 teacher, and she taught using the process approach but skipped some of the components that made up process writing. The curriculum statement permits this practice. Participant E, on the contrary, explained each step that made up the process to writing in detail.

Some participants also taught within the framework of the socio-cultural theory, a theory which underpins this study. The participants saw humans as tools for mediation in class. Participant A encouraged group discussions in class where a learner was seen assisting his peers on how to write an essay. Participants used material tools in class like worksheets to mediate learning as seen by Participant C when demonstrating an exemplar friendly letter, and by Participant D demonstrating a prototype of a poster.

In seeing the extent to which learners showed that they were able to write on their own, assessment on the teaching of writing emerged as another theme to be discussed.

4.2.2. Theme Two: Assessment

Assessment is an important aspect of teaching, and therefore, when looking at the teaching of writing to EFAL classrooms, assessment is worth mentioning. Assessment is defined as

continuous organised process of collecting information on learner competence in different ways (CAPS, 2012b). In the data collected from the observations and document analysis, assessment appeared in many forms; peer, formative, and summative assessment.

Three out of five participants (Participants A, C, and E) conducted assessment while teaching in class. Peer-assessment was a popular strategy used by the participating teachers. As mentioned earlier, the participants taught large classes, and peer-assessment saved time (Ashenafi, 2017) since it was learners who assessed other learners in class considering the high teacher-learner ratio. Peer-assessment has also been regarded as an effective strategy in making learners actively engaged in the process of learning (Topping, 2017). By assessing their peers' work, they too learnt from the mistakes of others (Li and Yao, 2020). However, during peer-assessment in Participant E's class, some learners were not actively involved. Instead, they were discussing topics which were not part of the lesson. The expectation from the teachers was that peer-assessment enhanced learners' understanding of writing, just like it did in the study of Meletiadou (2021). In that study, revisions initiated by the teacher were less effective than peer-assessment. In my study, I found that peer-assessment was not as effective because some teachers, like Participant E, used this strategy, not because they planned prior to the lesson, but because they were compelled by having large classes.

Despite FAL learners being regarded as ill-equipped to self- and peer-assess, as a non-participant observer, I picked up other factors that contributed to the ineffectiveness of peer-assessment in my study. It was apparent that learners were not taught how to assess each other. Participant E told learners to peer-assess and did not teach them how they should go on about peer-assessing. Participant E did not provide a benchmark to guide these learners when assessing. Usually, teachers make use of tools like rubrics as a guide to assess (Meletiadou, 2021), hence it would have been easier for learners if they too had been given rubrics as a guide when assessing their peers' written product. As mentioned earlier, as a form of guide when assessing, Participant E simply told learners to check for language structures and conventions, which was not sufficient for learners to become competent assessors.

Participant C provided a guide to her Grade 9 learners in the form of a checklist (see Figure 4.2.). When submitting their final drafts, learners had to attach this checklist and the participant used this guide as reference when marking. This shows that the participant had trust in the learners' feedback when assessing. The checklist was also evidence that learners were going through all the stages of the process approach, unlike Participants A and E who wanted evidence of planning in form of mind maps and the final product only. The checklist assessed

the components of the process approach which were ignored by other teachers in the study because the checklist also shed light on whether the learners edited and revised their work using the feedback provided by their peers. This highlighted the concept of Dynamic Assessment that is concerned with how well a learner performs when assisted (Scott and Palincsar, 2013).

Scott and Palincsar (2013) described Dynamic Assessment as assessment and teaching infused in one lesson. A classroom where Dynamic Assessment is taking place is seen by whether assessment or learning is taking place (Mohan, 2021). Participants B and D were observed displaying this concept in class. When learners were engaging in collaborative writing, Participant D went around assessing some of the learners' work, and also re-teaching them on where they lacked. When teaching a diary, Participant B assessed learners' written products while learners were busy writing. During this process, Participant B was, however, not able to attend to all the learners in class. This should not have been a challenge for the participant because, when used effectively, the Dynamic Assessment allows for the MKO to assess learners in class and the MKO can be a more advanced learner (Rohde, 2021). Therefore, Participant B could have used more advanced learners in class to assess their peers' work like Participant C did in class.

All the teachers observed conducted formative assessment in class that helped both teachers and learners in areas of improvement (Mohan, 2021). However, only Participant B conducted what looked like summative assessment on writing. There are many contributing factors to this lack of assessment on writing. Firstly, all five participants stated that they no longer used the Programme of Assessment (POA) provided by the CAPS (2012b) document. Instead, they used newer versions of the POA (see Figure 4.3, 4.4. and 4.5) which were provided by lead educators and subject advisors. In addition, I conducted observations and semi-structured interviews for a duration of a month in the second term and none of the participating teachers included writing as part of formal tasks in this term. This is despite all the POAs including writing as summative assessment in this term. I was able to identify the reason for this lack of assessment.

The advent of the Corona Virus 19 (COVID-19) made teachers not assess writing in the first two terms even though their POAs instructed them to do so. This was largely because of the limited contact time that the participants had with learners during this period (Soudien et al., 2022). The advice given by the Department of Basic Education during the height of COVID-19 to not assess writing was still maintained even after schools seemingly got back to normal. As a result, participants in this school spent very little time teaching writing because they knew this aspect of language skill would not be assessed formally. This is alarming given the

importance that writing has in language acquisition, as well as to the academic success of a learner (Tan, 2011). Moreover, there are other disadvantages of not assessing learners in class.

Assessment, as mentioned earlier, allows learners to receive feedback on their written products. Therefore, by learners not being assessed on writing means that learners would not be cognisant of their strengths and weaknesses. Participants can also gain from assessing learners because they can determine the effectiveness of their teaching methods (Tosuncuoglu, 2018). Without regular assessment, participants will not know which aspects of writing they need to improve. From my experience as an EFAL teacher, assessment motivates learners. When learners know that they will be assessed on a particular task, they tend to become more actively involved in class and stay focused. It is because of these reasons that I believe that assessment on writing should have been immediately re-introduced once the government had allowed for full contact in schools.

KWAZULU-NATAL PROVINCE EDUCATION REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA		2023-2024 PROGRAMME OF ASSESSMENT					
		ENGLISH: GRADES 8 – 9					
		SENIOR PHASE: FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE					
GRADE	SCHOOL - BASED ASSESSMENT	TERM	TASK	MARK	PROJECTED DATE	DATE COMPLETED	
8	60%	1	Task 1 starts	Oral Read aloud			
		1	Task 2	Writing Essay	30		
		1	Task 3	Response to texts	60		
		2	Task 1 ends	Oral Read Aloud	20		
		2	Task 4	Writing Transactional writing	10		
		2	Task 5	June controlled test Response to texts	60		
		3	Task 6	Writing Creative Writing	50		
		3	Task 7 starts	Oral Presentation of project			
			Task 8	Literature	30		
			40%	4	Task 7 ends	Oral Presentation of project	20
		4	Task 9	Writing Transactional writing	10		
		4	Task 10	Response to texts	60		

Figure 4.3.: The Programme of Assessment for Grade 8 EFAL

GRADE	TERM	TASK	MARK	PROJECTED DATE	DATE COMPLETED
9	SCHOOL - BASED ASSESSMENT 60%	1 Task 1 starts	Oral Read aloud		
		1 Task 2	Writing Essay	40	
		1 Task 3	Response to texts	70	
		2 Task 1 ends	Oral Read Aloud	20	
		2 Task 4	Writing Transactional writing	20	
		2 Task 5	June controlled test Response to texts	70	
		3 Task 6	Writing Creative Writing	50	
		3 Task 7 starts	Oral Presentation of project		
		Task 8	Literature	30	
		EXAMINATION 40%	4 Task 7 ends	Oral Presentation of project	20
4 Task 9	Writing Transactional writing		20		
4 Task 10	Response to texts		70		

Figure 4.4.: The Programme of Assessment for Grade 9 English FAL

GRADE: 10

File contents:

- Annual Teaching Plan
- Programme of Assessment
- Assessment Tasks and memoranda
- Record sheets containing learners' marks for each Assessment Task
- Official Languages: First Additional Language Examination Guidelines Grade 12 (2017)
- Any intervention that is planned by the teacher to assist learners especially those who are experiencing barriers to learning

TASK NO.	DESCRIPTION / TOPICS	TOTAL MARKS	Tick when completed
TERM 1			
01	Oral: Listening (Instructions + assessment rubric + analysis of performance)	10	✓
02	Writing: Essay (Topics + instructions + assessment rubric + analysis of performance) (Cluster moderates sample scripts)	50	✓
03	Test 1: Lang. (Question paper + assessment rubric/memo + analysis of performance) (Cluster moderates a sample of scripts)	40	✓
TERM 2			
04	Oral: Prepared Speech (Instructions + assessment rubric + analysis of performance)	20	✓
05	Literature Assignment (Topics/questions + instructions + assessment rubric/memo + analysis of performance)	35	✓
06	Mid-year Examinations (Question papers + assessment rubrics/memo + analysis of performance) Paper 1-80 marks Paper 2-70 marks (Cluster moderates Paper 2 Literature Paper)	150	✓
TERM 3			
07	Oral: Unprepared Speech / Prepared reading / Informal speaking (Conversation) (Instructions + assessment rubric + analysis of performance)	20	✓
08	Writing: Longer Transactional Writing (List of topics + instructions to learners + assessment rubrics + analysis of performance)	30	✓
TERM 4			
09	November Examinations (Question papers + assessment rubrics/memo + analysis of performance) (Papers 1,2,3 & 4)	300	
School Moderation of scripts / performance	Writing, Task No 2	Language, Task No 3	Task No 6 (Paper 2 Literature)
Dept. Head / Moderator			
Signature			
Date			

Figure 4.5.: The Grade 10 English FAL Programme of Assessment.

It would be an oversight to blame the pandemic for the lack of teaching and assessment of writing. Teachers have been given the same POAs on a yearly basis since 2019 (before the arrival of COVID-19). The newer versions of POAs already had fewer tasks as compared to

the POA designed by the CAPS document. Even prior to COVID-19, there were studies which found that writing is not taught enough in schools (Kohnen, 2019; Graham et al., 2014). The COVID-19 therefore exacerbated an already declining trend in the teaching of writing.

All participants except for Participant A did not include writing in their summative assessment. Participant A conducted what seemed like summative assessment (see figure 4.6.). The participant made learners write a paper under exam conditions. Learners were given 2 hours to write the paper with an invigilator present. This was regarded as a mock exam because it was not recorded in the South African School Administration Management System (SA-SAMS) which records all summative assessments. Therefore, this form of assessment can be regarded as informal because it does not influence the learners' progression to the next grade (CAPS, 2012b). When asked why she did this, Participant A cited the dangers of not assessing learners on writing:

I also teach Grade 12 [in this school]; therefore, I know that these Grade 10 learners will become incompetent if I don't make them get used to being assessed to writing even though the programme of assessment states otherwise. In Grade 12 the curriculum and the number of assessment tasks are the same as before the pandemic so I see that the current Grade 12 learners struggle when they have to write extended texts. And this is the exact reason why I assess these Grade 10 learners.

What Participant A stated is what was found in the study of Hsiang et al. (2016) when observing 1 313 Grade 7-9 Chinese language learners, that learners spent little time writing extended writing and therefore, found it difficult to write at the later grades. Participant A recognises that these practices of teaching less writing to EFAL learners had ripple effect on learners when they were in Grade 12, just like in the study of Hsiang et al. (2016), and decided to teach it even though it was not recommended at the time. As mentioned by Tosuncuoglu (2018), assessment prepares learners for assessment tasks that they will encounter in the upcoming grades. Without regular assessment on writing, EFAL learners can face difficulties in their writing in the following grades where assessment is much more demanding.

Participant A also mentioned COVID-19 in her decision to give this informal task to her learners. The COVID-19 pandemic created learning losses because of school closures and some of the learning skills created over time had been wiped out (Soudien et al., 2022). The participant saw that her current group of Grade 12 learners was struggling in extended writing and had to fix this problem with her current Grade 10 learners while she still had time.

It is noteworthy that these Grade 10 EFAL learners taught by Participant B began their secondary school experience when the COVID-19 began in South Africa in the year 2020. Now they were in Grade 10, and for the first time at secondary school, they were experiencing full contact learning. It is expected that, during this period, learners became less skilled writers. Therefore, extra tasks and activities would prove useful in the future.

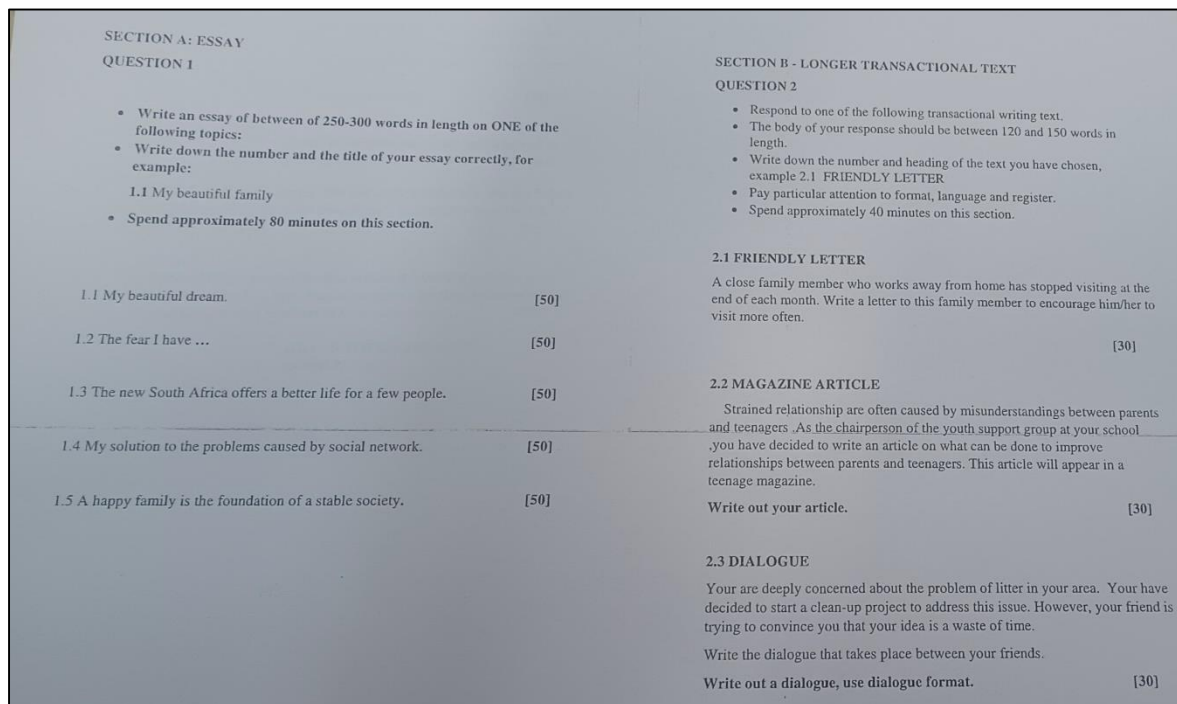


Figure 4.6.: An extract of the question paper used for writing in Grade 10 EFAL

The mock examination given to learners (see Figure 4.6) was out of 100 marks, and learners were to answer one essay question, one shorter transactional writing, and one longer transactional writing within the duration of 2 hours and 30 minutes. In such papers, “there should be a balance between short and long texts, and writing for different purposes” (CAPS, 2012b, p37). The question paper tested all aspects of extended writing as per the requirement of the curriculum.

When marking the essay question of 50 marks, there is an assessment rubric for essay (see Appendix 8). From the 50 marks, 30 marks are given to content and planning, 15 marks are for language, style and editing, then, 5 marks are for structure. Under content and planning, the teacher should give credit for planning. However, this requirement was not clearly stated in this criterion, thus, leaving the teacher with no guide on how to allocate marks for evidence of planning. Longer transactional texts were to be marked using the assessment rubric for longer transactional (see Appendix 9) which is for 30 marks and shorter transactional texts to be

marked using the assessment rubric for shorter transactional (see Appendix 10).

The rubric for the essay advocates both the process and genre-based approach. It advocates process because planning, editing and structure of an essay are credited. That is why Participants A and E used the process approach when teaching an essay. It also advocates genre-based approach because the transactional writing (shorter and longer) leans towards the genre approach. This is because, when unpacking the criterion “content, planning and format”, the participants should credit the learners for the knowledge of the features of the type of texts that are being taught. In the assessment rubric of an essay, there is no mention of this requirement. Participant B alluded to these findings by stating that, when assessing transactional writing, she does not really look for evidence of planning. Instead, she looks at the features and whether the text did meet the purpose of this transactional writing. This is good practice because the aim of transactional writing is writing to get things done, to influence a particular audience, or to do something (Harper and Vered, 2017). The participant looked for these features when assessing under this approach.

4.2.3. Theme Three: Challenges to teaching English First Additional Language writing

Thus far, this chapter has looked at the teaching of writing and assessment in the EFAL classroom. Participants mentioned that when they are teaching writing to EFAL learners there are challenges. From the semi-structured interviews and observation, the salient patterns that emerged on the challenges of teaching writing were low levels of proficiency and large classes.

All the participants made mention of their learners’ low levels of proficiency as their biggest challenge when teaching writing. Participant A provided worksheets for learners, reminding them how to write an essay. Learners were found having difficulties to make meaning from the handouts. Despite being given handouts in class, learners were asking each other how to write an essay. They also expected the participant to read and explain the handouts on how to write an essay. This observation validates the participants’ claim of low proficiency levels among these learners.

Participant C had a similar incident where she spent about a quarter of the lesson explaining and translating each topic in class. The biggest cause of the low proficiency levels in learners was English as a barrier to learning. This was seen by all the participants, including learners, using IsiZulu when explaining difficult tasks in class. Shay and Moore (2017), focusing on

South African students coming to terms with the demand of university for the first time, found that, since African students learn through English as the medium of instruction from primary school rather than their mother tongue, this often results in students having neither sufficient conceptual foundation in their language nor sufficient writing proficiency in English. Even though this study focused on university students, a similar predicament is experienced by high school learners in my study. It is difficult for teachers to fix this problem as it is, not only learners who have difficulties in this language, but also parents (Kim, 2023). This means learners do not receive the necessary support when writing tasks in English, even at home.

Participant D identified the low levels of proficiency caused by the culture of learning: “There is little to no culture of learning at home from these learners. This then makes them lazy and don’t want to write because they see writing as a difficult task”. The participant admitted that writing was a difficult task but encouraged her learners to practice writing more often, even at home, to become better writers. One of the possible solutions to these low levels of teaching include tailoring teaching methods to accommodate the different learning styles in class. The zone of proximal development is a perfect tool for doing this because a teacher can place a suitable scaffolding to assist certain groups of learners. Therefore, in addressing these low proficiency levels, a teacher should practice flexibility in their teaching by adopting learner-centred approaches.

Time was another factor which has been identified as the biggest challenge as to why participants taught in this way. Despite spending less allocated time when teaching writing (see Table 4.1.), participants felt that they did not have enough time for teaching writing. When asked about this: “I feel like it is easier to teach Paper 3 which is reserved for extended writing, as compared to teaching literature where learners have to read and analyse different literatures” (Participant A). Participant E adds to this, “teaching language is by far the most difficult part of teaching English FAL because learners never know what will be on the paper. With extended writing learners just have to know the various texts that’s all”. These participants viewed writing as extended writing only. This is a narrow view of writing because writing appears in all aspects of language teaching. In all papers, Paper 1, 2 and 3, teachers assess learners’ written products, and for learners to pass in this subject they have to be competent writers.

Time constraints influenced teachers to use different strategies in class. Participant E initially took it upon himself to review his learners’ written products. However, after seeing that he did

not have enough time to assess all the learners' drafts in class, he decided to let learners review each other's work in class. It took Participant B about three days to give feedback to her learners' drafts.

The ratio between the teacher and the learner as per the requirement of the DBE is 1:40 (DOE, 2007). However, teachers in this school had an average of 68 learners per class. This is 23 learners extra in each class, with other classes having even more learners. Large classes, therefore, contribute to the challenges that the participants have in this school.

In my study, two main challenges emerged because of large classes, these included: teachers not knowing the needs of learners in class and difficulty in managing group discussions.

Large classes are regarded as the biggest challenge in making teachers give the necessary assistance or attention to learners in class (Whisenhunt, 2019) and not giving enough attention to learners influences not knowing the needs of the learners. Indeed, in my study this was evidently seen when Participant E was checking the mind maps of learners in class, he looked at a few mind maps and instructed learners to go ahead with writing based on those few mind maps checked. A similar practice was observed in Participant B's class, where she gave attention to a few learners when looking at their drafts and then assumed the whole class was ready to begin writing their final drafts. This practice left other learners disadvantaged in class.

In both participants' lessons (Participants E and B), it was the learners seated at the front of the class who were attended to, and the rest were ignored. As a result, learners seated at the back of the class became disinterested in the lesson and decided to discuss issues unrelated to the lesson. This was a common practice from learners who were ignored in the classes I observed. The lesson of both these participants was not as effective because there were some learners appeared not knowing what is being taught thus effecting their writing skills.

Some participants anticipated the challenge of large classes. Participant C is an example of such a teacher who tried to overcome the challenges of large classes. This teacher used collaborative learning as a tool to address the needs of learners. She instructed learners to conduct peer-assessment. The more knowledgeable learners assessed the written products of their peers, and the not so knowledgeable learners were assisted by the assessment checklist that was given to them earlier in the lesson.

Participants A and D tried to attend to the needs of learners in class as well. Both participants gave handouts in class which served to anticipate where learners needed assistance. Participant D even went on to supplement these handouts with whole-class discussions. Whole-class discussions are also difficult to maintain in large classes (Lin et al., 2022). However, the discussions in Participant D's lesson were very structured and looked like a debriefing session where learners actively engaged in synthesising ideas on the dangers of smoking and understanding the features of a poster. This practice was effective because it assisted learners internalize what was being taught in class.

In my study, Participants A and E were observed as poorly managing group discussions in class. Unfortunately, because of time, I did not manage to ask these participants on this practice, however, Whisenhunt (2019) notes that managing group discussions in large classes is a challenge to most teachers. Group discussions are an effective tool when used in class since they are learner-centred. However, when they are not used correctly, they tend to make the class disruptive (Lin et al., 2022). Some factors were spotted as the contributing to the failure of this strategy in class. Even though both participants told learners of the number of participants in a group, the participants did not assign roles in the group or check whether learners had assumed any roles in their groups. The assigning of roles in each group during group discussions was effective because it allowed for more involvement of learners in the group. Since learners know their duties, they are more likely to make their group a success.

Another factor in the failure of these group discussions in large classes was that both participants were not active throughout the group discussions. Participants were, not only seen as MKO's, but also as active mediators of learning. Vygotsky (1962) identified three tools which helps learners to mediate knowledge in class; material tools, psychological tools, and human beings. During group-discussions, both participants did not go around the class noting how discussions were going, thus missing the opportunities to become human mediators in class. This practice made learners disruptive in class and not follow the lesson objectives.

We have seen under Theme one that participating teachers in this school taught EFAL in different ways. They preferred different approaches for teaching similar texts. In understanding why teachers taught writing this way, two main themes emerged; experiences of writing, and the role of the Department of Basic Education.

4.2.4. Theme Four: Experiences of writing

The data gathered indicates that participating teachers taught writing from the way they are influenced by their experiences of writing. This includes the feelings towards writing and the experiences that teachers had when they were in school and at university.

4.2.4.1. EFAL Teachers' Feelings Towards Writing and the Teaching of Writing

"...why do you have to conduct a study on writing...?" Participant E.

In ascertaining the feelings towards writing and the teaching of writing the following questions were asked to participants:

- *As a teacher, how do you feel about teaching writing?*
- *How do you feel about the way you were taught writing at secondary school and at University/College?*

Various studies have pointed out that writing is a difficult task, hence, language teachers are reluctant to teach writing (Sun, 2023: Thackeray, 2022: Graham et al., 2014: Applebee and Langer, 2011). This was been the case in my study as well. Teaching of writing from EFAL teachers in my study was very minimal. In a two-week cycle (10 hours), the curriculum expects EFAL teachers to teach writing for 3 hours and 30 minutes (approximately 4 periods) to Grade 7 to 9 learners, and 3 hours to Grade 10 to 12 learners. I observed teachers for a period of about a month (25 days). The time allocated for teaching writing in those 25 days versus the actual teaching of writing by EFAL teachers showed huge discrepancies. The findings are tabulated below:

Table 4.1.: Time Spent Teaching Writing

Teacher	Time Allocated for Teaching of Writing, according to the curriculum, in 25 periods observed.	Actual Time Spent Teaching Writing	Approx. % of the actual time spent teaching writing
Participant A	6 hours	2 hours	30%

Participant B	6 hours	2 hours	30%
Participant C	7 hours	1 hour	14%
Participant D	7 hours	1 hour	14%
Participant E	7 hours	2 hours	28%

The table above reveals that there is a dearth in teaching of writing to EFAL learners in this township school. The most time spent teaching writing was seen from Participants A and B, who used about 30% of allocated time for teaching of writing. Participants with this higher percentage of teaching time spent a maximum of two periods teaching writing in the month observed whilst teaching.

The least time spent teaching writing was from Participant C and D who spent about 14% of the allocated time for teaching of writing. The other time was spent teaching other language skills and content like listening, speaking, and reading. Though the percentage of time used teaching writing is relatively higher than the 7% of teachers in the United States of America (Applebee and Langer 2011), these findings still show a serious concern regarding the teaching of writing because this is not the home language of the learners. More time was needed to teach all the language acquisition skills based on the requirements of the curriculum.

In a South African study by Ntombela et al. (2020), where various writing approaches used by EFAL teachers were investigated, it was found that teachers were not keen on teaching writing. The EFAL teachers I investigated displayed similar characteristics. Participant C, for instance, had a lesson where, according to the syllabus (see Table 3.1.), learners were supposed to write a review of an advertisement. Learners instead, were instructed to make an oral presentation of various products as advertisements in class. The curriculum statement does allow for integration of language skills in a two-week cycle: “in the teaching of an oral interview, for example, learners can read written text and they can later be required to produce a written interview” (CAPS, 2012b, p. 55). However, Participant C did not integrate writing with speaking, but speaking was the only skill taught. This is because no written products were requested in these oral presentations. Rather, learners made presentations in class without any written evidence.

Graham et al. (2014) notes the feelings towards writing that made teachers to avoid teaching of writing. From all the participants interviews' it is only Participants A and B who said they enjoyed teaching writing. The rest of the participants displayed negative attitudes towards writing. Thackeray (2022) posits that such teachers do not like teaching writing because they lack confidence as was the case in my study: "I felt that writing was challenging for me at secondary school and at tertiary level therefore I don't like aspects of teaching that may expose my inadequacies in front of my learners" (Participant E). Participant E had negative feelings towards writing that were deeply rooted in him (since secondary school). When I was preparing to conduct the interview, the participant asked me: "Out of all the aspects of language, why do you have to conduct a study on writing?" This showed the negative attitude towards writing by the Participant because he felt I could have looked at other language acquisition skills like reading or speaking.

The other participant who spent little time teaching writing was Participant C. This participant described teaching writing as difficult: "I find teaching writing difficult because learners that I am teaching have low levels of writing proficiency". The participant cited low levels of proficiency of EFAL learners, a challenge discussed under Theme three, as an influence on how they felt about writing. My findings had similar results to those of Graham et al. (2014) because teachers who stated that they enjoyed writing and the teaching of writing spent more time teaching writing than their colleagues, and those who were not comfortable with writing were seen spending little time. Therefore, the feelings that the participating teachers had towards writing influenced how they taught writing to EFAL learners in this township school. The feelings could be linked to how these teachers were taught writing when they were at secondary school and at college/university.

4.2.4.2. EFAL teachers' experiences of writing at school and college/university

To establish the EFAL teachers' experiences of writing at school and college/university the following questions were asked to participants:

- *How were you taught writing as a learner at school?*
- *Does the way you were taught writing influence the way you are teaching writing now? If so, in what ways?*
- *How were you taught to teach writing at university/college?*

The data gathered in this study shows that participants' experiences of writing were influenced by how they were taught writing. All the participating teachers did not recall their experiences of writing when they were at primary level. The findings analysed here come from teachers' writing experiences when they were at secondary school and university/college training to become teachers.

Participants B, C, and D were positively influenced by their experiences of writing where they taught writing like how they were taught writing when they were at secondary school. Participant B's memory of her writing experience focused on increasing the vocabulary through writing. Her teacher at secondary school made sure before writing learners had enough vocabulary. Common words used in class were given antonyms and synonyms, and sometimes idioms were added. This is very similar to how Participant B conducted her lesson where she instructed learners to use their dictionary to find synonyms to words that she deemed vague.

Like Participant B, Participant D was positively influenced by her writing experiences to teach writing the way she does. In her responses, she explained that she grew up in the rural areas, and exposure to the English language was very minimal. Her teacher was aware of such challenges when she came to class and therefore, relied heavily on visual presentation when teaching:

“I remember when my teacher taught us how to write an article from a magazine. She brought an IsiZulu and English magazine to class. She firstly demonstrated the IsiZulu article. Here we looked at the features of this article, the purpose of it and explained each feature using IsiZulu, our home language. It made so much sense since we could see this newspaper article in class and its features in our own language. When she presented the English article, we already knew the features and type of language used in this genre. We were now confident on how to write a newspaper article. If my teacher did not demonstrate an article in class, I don't think any of us would have understood this text”.

The memory of Participant D's writing experience had a huge influence on how she teaches writing. The switch from IsiZulu to English texts when teaching influenced Participant D to allow learners to give answers in both languages in class, and to explain difficult concepts by code-switching (even though this was observed in non-writing classes). Her teacher knew that she taught rural learners and had to demonstrate in class. Participant D shared a similar sentiment where, as mentioned earlier, she taught learners who resided in informal settlements, therefore, demonstrating texts, like formal/informal letter, was effective. In addition to that, the participant was observed teaching a poster by firstly demonstrating an already designed poster

in class, further displaying her teacher's influence.

Participant D was influenced, not only on how she taught in class, but also what approach to use when teaching writing in class. As a strong believer in the genre-based approach, Participant D gave a detailed memory of what seemed like a genre-based approach used by her teacher when she was a learner. In her class, she was seen teaching using this approach as well.

Participant C did not want to solely point to her writing experiences as the only factor influencing the way she taught writing. When asked about her writing experiences influencing her teaching, she took a long pause, and said:

“To some extent I guess, my experiences of writing differed depending on what was being taught in class. For an example when teaching essay writing, there would be a need to design a spider diagram to show evidence of planning. Whereas for transactional writing most teachers did not want any proof of planning. I also feel like the needs of learners are the most influential to how I teach.”

Participant C gave a rather ambivalent response, but agreed that she was, though in a subtle way, influenced by her writing experiences on how she taught writing. I believe Participant C was greatly influenced by her experiences of writing even though she did not overtly express it. This is because Participant C was one of the teachers, other than Participant B, who used both the process and genre-based approach when teaching writing. This shows that the participant was adequately exposed to both approaches. To further prove this, when observed teaching writing in class, she used the hybrid process/genre approach which is a combination of the characteristics of the process approach and the genre-based approach.

When Participant C was asked about the use of this hybrid approach to teaching writing, she expressed that she did this involuntarily: “I have looked at how learners respond to various ways of teaching writing and I have thus tried to use a strategy that caters for my learners”. This version of Participant C uncovered the implications of the process/genre approach. Within these approaches, learners enjoyed themselves because the teacher was responsive to their needs and interests (Rahimi and Zhang, 2022). Perhaps, the reluctance to accept that she was influenced by her writing experiences to teach writing is embedded in her role as a responsive teacher.

The role assumed by Participant C is also highlighted in the socio-cultural theory because the participant was always ahead of the learners. This is done using suitable cultural artefacts for learners to reach their full learning potential. His practices exhibited social constructivism, a theory that birthed the socio-cultural theory, because this theory “puts the learners’ efforts to understand at the centre of the educational enterprise” (Amineh and Asl, 2022).

Not all participants were positively influenced by their writing experiences as the ones mentioned above. A study was conducted by Evans et al. (2014) where 43 teachers were interviewed on how they were influenced by the way they were taught writing at school. Findings showed that about 95% (41 out of 43) of the teachers stated that they were not influenced by their writing experiences. In my study, my findings were different from the findings in study of Evans et al. (2014) for two reasons. Firstly, there were no teachers who were not, in some way, influenced by their writing experiences; and secondly, the participants were either positively influenced or negatively influenced. Participants A and E were negatively influenced by their writing experiences on how they taught writing. Interestingly both participants belonged in the third category of the age group of 50 years old and above (see Table 3.5. for the age group of participants). It is most likely that they attended secondary school about 30 years ago when teachers used traditional methods of teaching which were characterised by one sided interaction and teachers are the only source of information (Serroukh and Serroukh, 2022).

Participant A mentioned that the way she was taught writing heavily influenced her to make her learners experience writing differently to how she experienced it. She claimed that her English secondary school teachers influenced this stance on teaching of writing because the way they taught was not effective in class. Instead, it caused more damage where her teacher focused mainly on the final product and not on the process of writing. She recalls:

“The teacher would sit in front of the class and we would queue as learners so that our teacher can read our written products. If your work does not meet the criteria or is not in line with what she has taught in class, she would make you go back and rewrite. The problem with this is that she did not provide any feedback as to what is wrong on what you have written. We were therefore on our own in discovering areas of improvement”.

Due to the teacher-centred nature of these classes, Participant A sought to implement modern, learner-centred teaching methods. Even though this participant was trying to become a better teacher, she, however, displayed some elements of how she was taught as a learner. Contrary

to her responses in the semi-structured interviews, Participant A was observed, struggling to administer group discussions. The strategy of group work/discussion is usually ignored by teachers who use traditional methods because these discussions are regarded as disruptive and noisy in class (Lin et al., 2022). Participant A tried not to be this type of teacher by enabling learners to discuss in class. However, she exhibited traditional teacher attitudes during group discussion because she was observed sitting in front of the class and not engaging with each group when learners interacted.

Unexpectedly, despite these challenges, Participant A showed that she enjoyed writing by being the teacher who recorded the most time spent writing (see Table 4.1.). In the interview she expressed that she enjoyed writing and teaching of writing. Participant E is another participant who enjoyed teaching writing despite being negatively influenced by his writing experiences. What is noteworthy is that, this participant recorded the second most time teaching writing of two hours.

Participant E described his writing experience as being ‘unpleasant’:

“My teacher addressed us only in English in class even though she knew some of us were struggling to understand difficult concepts in this language. She wanted us to learn English at the expense of our home language. I did not like that and therefore felt unpleasant when I have to attend an English class. It was when I was in Standard 10, now called Grade 12, which experienced a teacher who appreciated us as learners in class. It is this teacher who ignited the enthusiasm to become a better English teacher to my learners”

Participant E initially displayed negative attitude towards his writing experiences because his teacher used subtractive bilingualism where they had to disregard their home language when learning English. The participating teacher was observed using additive bilingualism in the form of code-switching to explain difficult concepts in class. This was in line with the socio-cultural theory because the participant used a culturally suitable artefact to scaffold learners’ learning potential. Vygotsky (1978) adds that, under this theory, language was key to learners making meaning around them. The use of code-switching therefore, meant that learners in Participant E’s class got to internalize difficult concepts where language took on a psychological function. This strategy was effective because children who can speak more than one language in class benefit academically as long as both languages are nurtured and developed to their fullest (Kim, 2023).

All the participants expressed that they thought that they were not, in anyway, influenced by the way they were taught writing at University/College. Participants offered varying reasons, with some opting to not answer this question altogether. From all the participants, Participant B was the one who provided a clear reason why writing at University/College had no influence on how she taught writing: “The way I was taught writing at varsity [University] is not influential on how I teach because writing at University was challenging and also academic writing is not really used at secondary school”. A similar response was given by Participant C who explained that she was not influenced by her writing experiences at University/College as well. However, she remembered studying about the different approaches to writing, “these [approaches] were not really seen during lectures largely because we were now introduced to academic writing but I did study about the different approaches to teaching writing”. Participant A said she was a correspondence student and therefore, taught herself writing at University/College. This writing experience was similar to that of teachers in Hochstetler’s (2007) study conducted in the United States of America where teacher training programmes were explored in relation to the teaching of writing. In this study, Hochstetler (2007) found that there was an absence of writing pedagogy in teacher programmes. Instead, teachers taught themselves their writing approaches. Participants D and E stated that they did not recall any influence coming from their tertiary training.

None of the teachers thought that they were influenced by the teaching of writing at tertiary level. The lack of influence from the university/college was not a worrying factor because, as mentioned by most teachers, at tertiary level they had to adopt a new style of writing which is academic writing. Academic writing is rarely used, if not used at all, in South African EFAL classrooms. Even the curriculum statement makes no mention of academic writing. Perhaps this is, in a way, an influence on how these participants taught writing.

4.2.5. Theme five: Role of the Department of Basic Education (DBE)

The data below was gathered through consolidating the revised Programmes of Assessment (see Figures 4.3.,4.4. and 4.5.) and the responses from participants to the following interview questions:

- *What is emphasised at Teacher Development Workshops (TDW)?*
- *What writing support, if any, is given at TDW?*

The data gathered from the participating teachers showed that the Department of Basic Education (DBE) was influential on the teaching of writing to EFAL classes. There were three factors that emerged from the data that show the influence of the DBE, these were: Teacher Development Workshop (TDW), teacher training at entry level and the changing of the POAs.

4.2.5.1. Teacher Development Workshops

None of the participants received any form of training relating to the teaching of writing in the TDWs. “In my first few years as a teacher, I was only trained on how to perfect the teaching of literature not teaching of writing” (Participant C). “I don’t recall receiving any form of training on the teaching of writing during workshops, maybe I did receive it when I was marking for NSC Grade 12 English Paper 3. Even then I was not taught how to teach writing, instead I was taught how to assess it” (Participant B). These findings show that the teaching of writing was neglected in EFAL. When teachers were asked about the teaching of writing being neglected, four out of the five participants did not know the precise reason behind this decision. The one teacher, Participant E, who responded to this question gave a rather worrying response. The teacher believed that the need to focus on teaching writing was not necessary: “When looking at all the examination papers that these learners write, from paper 1, which is language and comprehension, paper 2, literature, and paper 3, extended writing; it is paper three that they excel in, so I believe lead teachers do not see the need to train teachers on teaching of writing”. Participant D viewed writing as synonymous with paper three (extended writing). This is a wrong way of looking at writing because writing occurs in all subjects and in all three English papers, whether it is a language paper or it is a literature paper. All EFAL examinations (Papers 1, 2, and 3) assess learners’ written products. Therefore, learners are judged based on how well they can answer or express themselves through writing. Hence, learners need to be taught how to write so that they can excel across all papers and all subjects, not only in extended writing.

4.2.5.2. Teacher Training for Entry Level Teachers

All participants stated that they received no formal training to teach writing when they began their careers. Instead, from the semi-structured interviews, teachers stated that they relied on the training that they received when they were being trained to become teachers. “I feel like I needed some form of training on how to teach writing when I was a novice [teacher] because I felt like I was thrown in the deep end when I have to teach this aspect of the subject” (Participant C). Participant D also highlighted the need for teachers to be trained on teaching

writing:

“...I understand if workshops [TDWs] don’t emphasise the teaching of writing, but when young language teachers enter this career, they need to train them. You see for the examinations; novice teachers are trained on how to invigilate. For marking, novice teachers are trained on how to mark. Now why are teachers not trained on teaching of writing because this is a complex aspect of the subject?”

This was concerning because there were teachers like Participant A who were self-taught. Participant A admitted that she taught herself how to write and relied heavily on the way she was taught writing at in high school. Not that correspondent teachers are incapable of teaching writing; however, it is essential, not for such teachers only, but all teachers to standardise the methods of teaching writing when they enter the career of teaching. This is because there is a gap between theory and practice.

The DBE, as mentioned earlier, reduced the number of tasks that learners undertook when the whole world was affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. However, the writing tasks were negatively affected the most by this change of POA. When looking at all the POAs in the grades relevant to this study (see Figure 4.7.), it is apparent that there were huge losses in the assessment of writing. All these grades had almost half the writing tasks being reduced in their POAs, with Grade 9 being the most notable with four writing tasks removed from eight tasks that were there before.

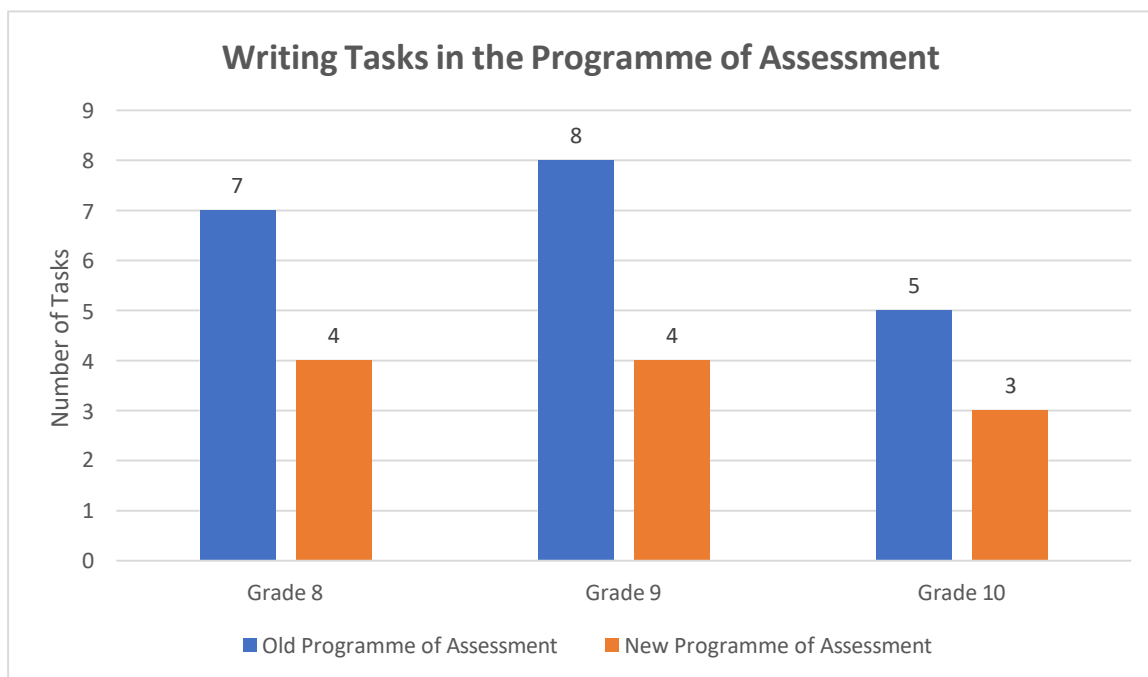


Figure 4.7: A bar graph that demonstrates the number of writing tasks in Grade 8, 9 and 10.

I believe that the DBE is largely responsible for EFAL teachers in my study to hardly teach writing in their lessons. This is because little to no assistance is given on the teaching of writing to entry level teachers, there are no TDW which deal with the teaching of writing, and the POAs assigned to teachers show a declining trend on the assessment of writing.

4.3. Conclusion

Chapter 4 analysed the findings from semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and document analysis. The main objective was to determine how teachers taught writing to EFAL learners in a particular secondary school. It engaged with why writing was taught in this manner to EFAL learners. In presenting the data, I reported that teachers employ the process and the genre-based approaches as suggested by the curriculum statement, where large classes appeared to be the biggest challenge to teaching writing. After teaching writing, teachers in this study used various methods of assessment in so doing showing the decline in teaching and assessing writing in EFAL. Several reasons emerged for this decline, which included the feelings that teachers had towards writing, the way they were taught writing at secondary school, and the Department of Education's subject specialist/advisors neglecting the teaching of writing, even before the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Chapter 5 – Discussion and Conclusions

5.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the teaching of writing to Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in a township school. The study answered the questions: 1. How is writing taught by English First Additional Language teachers in a South African township school in Grades 8 to 10? and 2. Why is writing taught in this way to First Additional Language learners in a South African township school in Grades 8 to 10? The findings generated in this chapter address the main themes that emerged from the data. The themes are approaches to teaching writing, assessment, challenges to teaching EFAL writing, experiences of writing and role of the Department of Basic Education.

Themes were grouped based on the objective of this study: How is writing taught to EFAL learners and why is writing taught this way to EFAL learners.

5.2. Main Findings

The main findings of this study were presented and shaped by the research objectives. The objectives of this study set out to explore the teaching of writing to Grade 8 to 10 EFAL learners in a township school. Additionally, the study was set to understand why writing was taught in this way to Grade 8 to 10 EFAL learners in a township school. The findings in the previous chapter address the objectives of this study. This is because the emerging themes responded to the dissertation research questions.

5.2.1. To explore the teaching of writing to grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language learners in a township school

One of the key findings revealed in the data collected is that the teaching of writing to EFAL learners is very minimal. Participants were not teaching writing as often as expected in this study. The way they taught writing was similar in terms of using approaches for certain genres in class but was different in how they used these approaches to EFAL learners in class. Participants in this study used different approaches to teaching writing therefore, approaches to teaching of writing emerged as a theme. None of the participant teachers used the traditional product approach, which is the traditional method of teaching not recommended by the curriculum statement. Participants used either the process or the genre-based approach to teaching, with others preferring to use both approaches when teaching writing.

Participants showed that they were familiar with the process and genre-based approaches to writing. However, they were not really sure how they were labelled. Despite not knowing how to name them, some brought out the better of these two approaches when teaching writing in class. Participants used these approaches differently. Factors like the grade being taught influenced this as all Grade 10 teachers assumed their learners were taught these approaches before and did not see the need to re-teach the role of learners in these again. However, this proved ineffective because many of the learners had forgotten what they had been taught in the previous grades.

Most participants believed in learners working collaboratively and applied the strategy of group discussions. This strategy was unproductive for some participants because it was misused in class. Some participants, however, effectively used the whole class discussions where sometimes, IsiZulu, the home language of these learners, was used. The second theme of assessment of writing revealed that writing was not continuously assessed in EFAL classrooms in this township school. Assessment in these EFAL classrooms appeared as self-, peer- and formative-assessment. Self- and peer-assessment were the preferred methods used by most participants. Despite studies uncovering that EFAL learners are not prepared for such assessment, some participants effectively use this form of assessment in their lessons. Summative assessment did not appear in all the observations held in these EFAL classrooms. The Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) document that guides teachers when teaching and assessing EFAL has been disregarded when assessing. Instead, participants were given Programmes of Assessments (POA) which had fewer writing assessment tasks because of the advent of the Corona Virus-19.

The most recognisable theme from these findings was the challenges to teaching writing to EFAL learners. The theme of challenges formed two main challenges to teaching of writing: low proficiency levels of learners and large classes. Grade 8, 9 and 10 EFAL learners in this school were described by their teachers to have low levels of proficiency because English is not the mother tongue of these learners. Therefore, language became a barrier to learning that is why participants resorted to code-switching in class. All the participant teachers taught classes that were well above the recommended teacher-to-learner ratio, and they all encountered challenges when teaching these large classes. Participants could not use their teaching strategies effectively in class because of large classes. When faced with the challenge of large classes, the participants therefore allowed for group discussions to take place where, not only the teacher, but learners also assumed the role of a More Knowledgeable Other

(MKO). Here learners were allowed to be at the centre of their learning. To supplement the efficacy of these group discussions some teachers provided scaffolding for their learners in a form of asking Socratic questions and provided handouts that assisted in achieving the task. Majority of the teachers allowed for collaborate learning which is line with the socio-cultural theory, a theory that underpins this study.

Participants could not attend to all the learners in class which led to difficulties in establishing the varying needs of their learners in class. Therefore, the strategy of collaborative learning permitted learners to reach their Zone of Proximal Development without the intervention of a teacher. There was also a participant who managed to nullify the challenge of large classes by training her learners to become competent assessors who then helped the teacher to diagnose the needs of other learners in class. This teacher displayed the concept of Dynamic Assessment where teaching and assessment were infused in one lesson.

5.2.2. To understand why writing is taught in this way to Grade 8 to 10 EFAL learners in a township school.

The initial findings pointed to a dearth in teaching writing to EFAL learners in this township school. The study's second objective aimed at understanding the reasons why writing was taught in this way to EFAL learners. In addressing this objective, the findings revealed that participants teach EFAL to Grade 8 to 10 learners because of the teachers' experiences of writing and the role of the Department of Basic Education (DBE). These two factors, influenced how my participants taught writing, formed the last two themes of this study.

The way the participants taught writing to EFAL learners was largely influenced by their writing experiences at secondary school when they were learners. The experiences included the feelings that these participant teachers had towards writing. The findings illustrated a distinct tendency where those who felt positive about writing they were found teaching writing more often and, on the contrary, those who felt negative about writing were observed not teaching writing as often. The study of Graham et al. (2014) yielded similar findings. All the participants, however, taught writing more often than teachers in other parts of the world like the English teachers in the United States of America as reported in the study of Applebee and Langer (2011) and those in China in the study of Hsiang (2016). However, this is a worrying factor as 30 percent of the allocated time was the highest time spent by a participant teacher teaching writing.

In the theme experiences of writing, I also gathered that how participants were taught writing

at secondary school has a huge impact on their teaching of writing. The participants were found to be either positively or negatively influenced by the way they were taught writing. Those who were taught writing assimilated their writing experiences and those who were negatively affected tried to teach differently to how they were taught writing. What was intriguing in these findings is that participants who were negatively affected by their writing experiences found writing to be a pleasure and spent relatively more time teaching writing when compared to other teachers. All participants thought that the writing experiences encountered at universities and colleges did not influence how they taught writing. This could be because of the discrepancies in the writing style between secondary school and tertiary.

The role of the DBE emerged as a theme which influenced how EFAL teachers teach writing to Grade 8 to 10 EFAL learners in this school. The DBE influenced the participants through the lack of training novice teachers on how to teach writing, implementation of Teacher Development Workshops (TDW) for teaching writing and the change of the Programs of Assessment (POA). All the participants maintained that there was no training the DBE offered them when they began their teaching careers. Instead, it was assumed that they were ready to teach this aspect of EFAL. Some participants believed they were not ready to teach writing early in their careers. Therefore, these teachers did not want to teach writing as often as required by the curriculum. None of the participating teachers recall having a TDW that emphasized the teaching of writing, instead, it was other components of language acquisition that were looked at like speaking and reading. This made teachers feel as if they are not ready to teach writing thereby having negative feelings about the teaching of writing. Another contributing factor to the lack of teaching writing was reducing the number of assessment tasks in the revised POAs. These were given to teachers after the advent of the Corona Virus 19, and with close to half the writing tasks being removed. This led to teachers opting to not teach writing often because it was rarely included as summative assessment.

Learners in this school were described by their teachers as having low proficiency levels in the target language which is English. Participants understood this challenge and also knew that language, as also mentioned in the socio-cultural theory, is a powerful cultural artefact for learning. These participants therefore made use of the strategy of code-switching where they were seen switching codes from English to IsiZulu – the home language of these learners. Here we can see that challenges that were faced in class also influenced participants to teach in this way because even learners were allowed to code-switch when necessary. This then reveals that learning in this school is not disconnected from society and its culture.

5.3 Conclusions

This study was underpinned by the socio-cultural theory. The use of this theory in this study was essential because it is the foundation for teaching EFAL learners. It is because this theory was made a frame of reference by all the participants in different ways, despite not a single participant outrightly mentioning this theory. Participants were able to demonstrate the use of the Zone of Proximal Development by establishing the abilities of learners before they begin their lessons. Participants used scaffolding in a form of teaching aids and using other learners who assumed the role of a More Knowledgeable Other. The static method of assessing was disregarded, and participants were observed assessing while teaching at the same time, indicating the Dynamic Assessment in practice.

This study and its findings are embedded within the education system. EFAL teachers' lessons were analysed through the lens of the CAPS document, which is a guide to teachers. This document encourages the teaching of writing in all aspects of EFAL teaching whether it is speaking, reading, or listening. However, the introduction of the revised documents, like the revised POAs, after the COVID-19, had a detrimental effect on the teaching of writing.

The advent of COVID-19 made the DBE reduce the number of writing tasks. This is despite the learners having full contact with learning and teaching. It is therefore, befitting for the DBE to increase the number of writing tasks as stated in the CAPS document.

Large classes were a huge challenge for all the participants in this study. The participating teachers had classes well above the acceptable teacher-to-learner ratio. As a researcher, I experienced this and I have also seen this problem in neighbouring schools. Learners are greatly disadvantaged by large classes because teachers cannot attend to all their varying needs in class. The DBE has to enforce the recommended teacher-to-learner ratio as this, not only benefits learners, but also benefits teachers of writing.

The findings revealed that participants were reluctant to teach writing because of their experiences when they were taught writing. The DBE needs to induct novice teachers on how to teach writing and conduct Teacher Development Workshops (TDWs) which emphasise the teaching of writing. This can encourage teachers to teach writing and end a generation of teachers who feel intimidated by teaching writing. All participating teachers who were asked on the approaches of writing revealed that they were unfamiliar with them and yet were using some in the classroom. Therefore, the inductions and workshops on teaching of writing may prove to be effective in teachers mastering the teaching of writing.

5.4. Limitations of the study

The first limitation was that Participants E and F withdrew from the study when I began observing them. They felt threatened that I would assess how they teach and comment to colleagues about their teaching style. The participants were told they were free to withdraw from the research whenever they wished to. I explained the consent form which stated that they would not be disadvantaged in any way. Fortunately, out of the two teachers, Participant E later accepted to be part of the study again.

Another limitation was that classes were large and audiotaping sometimes became inaudible because of the noise made by other learners in class. I had very limited time to observe participants because of two reasons. Firstly, these lessons observed were conducted during school hours where I also had classes. Secondly, there was very little teaching of writing that took place during this term from all teachers. It was difficult to interview participants during school hours because they had to attend to the needs of the school, and after school, they had other personal commitments. Therefore, I decided to conduct a series of short interviews to make sure all the interview questions were answered.

5.5. Final Word

The study explored the teaching of writing from Grade 8 to 10 EFAL learners in a township school. EFAL teachers in this same township school teach writing in different ways because of several influences on their teaching of writing. Drawing from the case study research and interpretivism this research explored the teaching of writing to Grade 8 to 10 EFAL learners. It also managed to understand why writing was taught this way to EFAL learners, where it was discovered that participants were influenced by challenges - like large classes and low proficiency of learners - feelings towards writing, their writing experiences at secondary school, lack of teacher development workshops on writing and changing of programmes of assessment were the main factors that added to why participants teach writing differently to these Grade 8 to 10 EFAL learners. This study contributes to the ongoing discourse on the teaching of writing to EFAL learners in a township school.

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APPENDICES:

Appendix 1:



07 December 2021

Thato Mopeli (213528627)
School Of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear T Mopeli,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00003528/2021

Project title: EXPLORING THE TEACHING OF WRITING TO GRADE 8 TO 10 ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS IN A TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL: A CASE STUDY

Degree: Masters

Approval Notification - Expedited Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application received on 18 October 2021 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and the protocol has been granted FULL APPROVAL.

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

This approval is valid until 07 December 2022.

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

All research conducted during the COVID-19 period must adhere to the national and UKZN guidelines.

HSSREC is registered with the South African National Research Ethics Council (REC-040414-040).

Yours sincerely,

Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

/dd

Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Postal Address: Private Bag XS4001, Durban, 4000, South Africa

Telephone: +27 (0)31 260 8350 / 1557/3581 Email: hsrec@ukzn.ac.za Website: <http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research/Ethics>

Founding Campuses:

Edgewood

Howard College

Medlcol School

Pietermaritzburg

Westville

INSPIRING GREATNES

Appendix 2: Sample of Gate Keeper's Letter



Dear Sir/Madam

I, Thato Mopeli, am currently undertaking research for the purpose of completing a Master of Education degree at the University of KwaZulu Natal.

For my intended research, I wish to use grade 8, 9 and 10 teachers of English at your school as participants for the study. The title of my research project is:

Exploring the Teaching of Writing to Grade 8 to 10 English FAL Classrooms in a Township School: A Case Study.

The study aims to

1. To explore the teaching of writing to grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language learners in a township school.
2. To understand why writing is taught in this way to Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language learners in a township school.

This school has been chosen because I teach here and I am familiar with the teachers who will be participants in the study. In this study, teachers, as participants, will be asked to participate in two tasks. Namely, interviews and class observations. These two activities will be conducted during and after English lessons.

All data will be stored in a locked cupboard and after analysis will be kept in a locked cupboard in my supervisor's office. After a period of five years, the data will be shredded and disposed of.

In this study, the name of the teachers and the name of the school will be protected by the use of pseudonyms.

For more information regarding the study, you may contact my supervisor Dr B. Campbell on (031) 260 3468 or email her on campbell@ukzn.ac.za.

Details of UKZN's Humanities and Social Sciences ethics administration:

Research office, Westville campus

Govan Mbeki building

P/Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

Tel: 27 31 2604557 Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

I, (Full name of Gatekeeper)
hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research
project. I consent to grant this researcher permission to undertake research at this institution.

SIGNATURE OF GATEKEEPER

DATE

.....

.....

SCHOOL STAMP

Appendix 3:



Parental Consent Form For A Child to Participate in a Research Study

NAME(S) OF RESEARCHER: THATO MOPELI

Study Title:

Exploring the Teaching of Writing to Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language Classrooms in a Township School: A Case Study.

This research study is about the teaching of writing to learners in the school that your child is attending. We ask your permission for your child to take part in this research study, because they will be part of the class that is being observed. This consent form tells you why we are doing the study and what will happen if your child joins the study.

Research studies help us to answer questions that may improve our understanding of human behavior, attitudes, beliefs, and interactions. Taking part in a research study is voluntary. You are free to say yes or no. We will only include your child in this study if you give us your permission first by signing this consent form.

Why is this study being done?

The purpose of this research is to explore the teaching of writing to grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language classrooms in a township high school. Also to understand why writing is taught in this way to Grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language classrooms in a township high school?

HOW MANY CHILDREN WILL BE IN THIS STUDY?

About 200 learners (divided into 4 classes) will take part in this study.

What will happen if my child takes part in this study?

If you agree, your child will come to class and where there will be audiotapes carefully placed in class to record the how the teacher is teaching learners in class. There will be no taking of pictures nor there will be any videos recorded in class.

How long will my child be in the study?

Your child will be in the study for a total of 4 hours over 4 weeks.

Can my child stop being in the study?

Yes, your child can stop being in the study at any time without giving a reason. Just tell the researcher or the teacher right away if your child wants to stop taking part.

ARE THERE ANY BENEFITS TO TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

There might be no direct benefit to your child from taking part in this study. However, the information we learn from your child during this study may help us learn more about how teachers teach writing to English FAL learners like your child.

WILL INFORMATION ABOUT MY CHILD BE KEPT PRIVATE?

The information we collect about your child will be stored in the researcher's electronic/computer or paper files. Computer files are protected with a password and the computer is in a locked office that only study team members can open. Paper files are kept in a locked drawer in a locked office that only study team members can open.

We will do our best to make sure that your child's personal information from this study is kept private, but we cannot guarantee total privacy. We may give out your child's personal information if the law requires it. If we publish the results of this study or present them at scientific meetings, we will not use your child's name or other personal information.

The information we collect from the teachers for this study will not be used or shared with other investigators for future research studies. This applies even if we remove all information that could identify your child from their information.

WILL I OR MY CHILD BE PAID FOR TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

You and your child will not be paid for taking part in this study.

WHO CAN I CALL IF I HAVE QUESTIONS, CONCERNS, OR COMPLAINTS?

For more information regarding the study, you may contact my supervisor Dr B. Campbell on (031) 260 3468 or email her on campbell@ukzn.ac.za.

Details of UKZN's Humanities and Social Sciences ethics administration:

Research office, Westville campus

Govan Mbeki building

P/Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

Tel: 27 31 2604557 Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

We will give you a copy of this consent form. Please keep it where you can find it easily. It will help you to remember what we discussed today.

Signature of Parent/Guardian

What are my child's rights as a study participant?

Taking part in this study is voluntary. If you and child do decide to take part, you both have the right to change your mind and drop out of the study at any time. Whatever your and your child's decision, there will be no penalty to either of you in any way.

We will tell you about any new information discovered during this study that might affect your child's health, welfare, or change your mind about them taking part.

Consent to Participate in Research

By signing my name below, I confirm the following:

- I have read/had read to me this entire consent form.
- All of my questions were answered to my satisfaction.
- The study's purpose, procedures/activities, potential risks and possible benefits were explained to me.
- I voluntarily agree to allow my child take part in this research study. I have been told that my child can stop taking part at any time.

--	--

Subject's Signature	Date
Signature of Witness (if applicable)*	Date

*A witness is required when a participant is competent to provide consent but is blind, or cannot read or write.

Appendix 4: Assent for participating in a research study



ASSENT FOR PARTICIPATING IN A RESEARCH STUDY

Project Title: EXPLORING THE TEACHING OF WRITING TO GRADE 8 TO 10 ENGLISH FAL CLASSROOMS IN A TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL: A CASE STUDY

To be read to children under the age of 18 years

Why am I here?

Sometimes when we want to find out something, we ask people to join something called a project. In this project we will ask your teachers to participate in activities focused on your own development and learning.

This study will give us a chance to see how teachers teach you writing and why they teach you writing in the way that they are teaching you.

What will happen to me?

If you want to be part of our study you will spend some time with us when observing teachers in your classroom. This will be done at two different times when we come to your school per week. The questions and activities will be about you and your teachers. You will not be asked any questions during the observation in class.

If you agree, we would like to take audiotapes of you during some of the project activities. People will be able to hear your voice during discussions, as well as reports we write about the project. However, we will not tell anyone your name.

Will the project hurt?

No, the project will not hurt. The questions and activities will be directed to your teachers only. All of their answers will be kept private.

What if I have any questions?

You can ask any questions you have about the study. If you have questions later that you do not think of now you can phone 0658925159 (researcher) or you can ask me around as you see me in the premises of the school.

Do my parents/guardians know about this project?

This study was explained to your parents/guardians and they said you could be part of the study if you want to. You can talk this over with them before you decide if you want to be in the study or not.

Do I have to be in the project?

You do not have to be in this project. No one will be upset if you do not want to do this. If you do not want to be in the project, you just have to tell us. You can say yes no and if you change your mind later you do not have to be part of the project anymore. It is up to you.

(a) Writing your name on this page means that you **agree to be in the project** and that you **know what will happen to you** in this study. If you decide to quit the project all you have to do is tell the person in charge.

Signature of learner

Date

Signature of Researcher

Date

(b) Writing your name here means that you agree that **we can take audio footage of you** during the project and share these audiotapes during discussions, as well as reports we write about the project. We will not share your name with the people who hear your voices. If you decide that we should rather not take audiotapes of you in the project, all you have to do is tell the person in charge.

Signature of learner

Date

Signature of Researcher

Date

Appendix 5: Interview Questions

Semi Structured Interview Questions

My participants and I will be hosting semi structured interviews which will be guided by the following questions:

1. How were you taught writing as a learner?
2. How do you teach writing?
3. Does the way you were taught writing influence the way you are teaching writing now? If so in what ways?
4. What aspects of teaching writing do you battle with?
5. As a teacher, how do you feel about teaching writing?
6. What challenges do you encounter when teaching writing?
7. How do you overcome challenges faced when teaching writing?
8. How were you taught to teach writing?
9. How do you feel about the way you were taught writing at secondary school and at University/College?
10. How would you improve the way you are teaching writing now?
11. How do you remediate learners' errors?
12. What is emphasized at TDW?
13. What writing support, if any, is given at TDW?

Appendix 6: Language Editing Certificate



Dr Jabulani Sibanda
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16 January 2024

LANG AGE EDITING CIJ:RTIFICATE

LA GUAGE EDITING DECLARATION

I confirm that J have proofread and edited the **Dissertation** detailed below, using the Windows 'Tracking' System to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the author(s) to action.

DETAILS OF WORK COMPLETED

Language Editing and Critical Reading

Document Type: Dissertation
Title: Exploring the Teaching of Writing to Grade 8 to JO English First Additional Language Learners in a Township School: A Case Study

CLIE T'S DETAILS

Author: Thato Mopeli
Student No: 213528627
Affiliation: University of KwaZulu-Natal

EDITOR'S DETAILS

Dr Jabulani Sibanda
PhD English Education

SARS Tax number
3153156165

Although the greatest care was taken in editing this document, the final responsibility for the product rests with the author(s).

SIGNATURE

[REDACTED]

DATE

17.01.2024

This certificate confirms the language editing I have done in my personal capacity and not on behalf of SPU

Appendix 7: Checklist for lesson observation.

Exploring the teaching of writing in grade 8 to 10 English First Additional Language classrooms in a township high school: a case study

Class Observed: _____

Teacher observed (pseudonym): _____

Date: _____

Number of Pupils: _____

Criteria	Yes	No	Observation
1. Is it a learner-centred lesson?			
2. Is it a teacher-centred lesson?			
3. Were appropriate teaching writing methods used?			
4. Were multiple methods of teaching writing used in one lesson?			
5. Was the content and format clearly taught to learners?			
6. Was interaction amongst learners encouraged?			
7. Were the methods of teaching writing used in line with the CAPS document?			
8. Did learners appear interested in the lesson?			
9. Were learners engaged?			
10. Did the teacher encounter any challenges when teaching writing?			
11. Was the teacher enthusiastic? 12.			
13. Did the teacher walk around and engage with learners?			
14. Were learners assessed on their writing?			
15. Is the assessment in line with the teaching writing method/s used in the lesson?			

16. Did learners appear to acquire new writing skills from this/these method/s?			
17. What can be improved upon?			

Criteria		Exceptional	Skilful	Moderate	Elementary	Inadequate
CONTENT & PLANNING (Response and ideas) Organisation of ideas for planning; Awareness of purpose, audience and context 30 MARKS	Upper level	28–30 -Outstanding/Striking response beyond normal expectations -Intelligent, thought-provoking and mature ideas -Exceptionally well organised and coherent (connected), including introduction, body and conclusion/ending	22–24 -Very well-crafted response - Fully relevant and interesting ideas with evidence of maturity -Very well organised and coherent (connected), including introduction, body and conclusion/ending	16–18 -Satisfactory response -Ideas are reasonably coherent and convincing -Reasonably organised and coherent, including introduction, body and conclusion/ending	10–12 -Inconsistently coherent response -Unclear ideas and unoriginal - Little evidence of organisation and coherence	4-6 -Totally irrelevant response -Confused and unfocused ideas -Vague and repetitive -Unorganised and incoherent
	Lower level	25–27 -Excellent response but lacks the exceptionally striking qualities of the outstanding essay -Mature and intelligent ideas -Skilfully organised and coherent (connected), including introduction, body and conclusion/ending	19–21 -Well-crafted response - Relevant and interesting ideas -Well organised and coherent (connected), including introduction, body and conclusion	13–15 -Satisfactory response but some lapses in clarity -Ideas are fairly coherent and convincing -Some degree of organisation and coherence, including introduction, body and conclusion	7–9 -Largely irrelevant response -Ideas tend to be disconnected and confusing - Hardly any evidence of organisation and coherence	0–3 -No attempt to respond to the topic -Completely irrelevant and inappropriate -Unfocused and muddled
LANGUAGE, STYLE & EDITING Tone, register, style, vocabulary appropriate to purpose/effect and context; Word choice; Language use and conventions, punctuation, grammar, spelling 15 MARKS	Upper level	14–15 -Tone, register, style and vocabulary highly appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Language confident, exceptionally impressive -Compelling and rhetorically effective in tone -Virtually error-free in grammar and spelling -Very skilfully crafted	11–12 -Tone, register, style and vocabulary very appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Language is effective and a consistently appropriate tone is used -Largely error-free in grammar and spelling -Very well crafted	8–9 -Tone, register, style and vocabulary appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Appropriate use of language to convey meaning -Tone is appropriate -Rhetorical devices used to enhance content	5–6 -Tone, register, style and vocabulary less appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Very basic use of language -Tone and diction are inappropriate -Very limited vocabulary	0–3 -Language incomprehensible -Tone, register, style and vocabulary not appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make comprehension impossible
	Lower level	13 -Language excellent and rhetorically effective in tone -Virtually error-free in grammar and spelling -Skilfully crafted	10 -Language engaging and generally effective -Appropriate and effective tone -Few errors in grammar and spelling -Well crafted	7 -Adequate use of language with some inconsistencies -Tone generally appropriate and limited use of rhetorical devices	4 -Inadequate use of language -Little or no variety in sentence -Exceptionally limited vocabulary	
STRUCTURE Features of text; Paragraph development and sentence construction 5 MARKS		5 -Excellent development of topic -Exceptional detail -Sentences, paragraphs exceptionally well-constructed	4 -Logical development of details -Coherent -Sentences, paragraphs logical, varied	3 -Relevant details developed - Sentences, paragraphs wellconstructed -Essay still makes sense	2 -Some valid points -Sentences and paragraphs faulty -Essay still makes some sense	0–1 -Necessary points lacking - Sentences and paragraphs faulty -Essay does not sense

Appendix 8: ASSESSMENT RUBRIC FOR ESSAY – FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE [50 MARKS]

Criteria	Exceptional	Skilful	Moderate	Elementary	Inadequate
CONTENT, PLANNING & FORMAT Response and ideas; Organisation of ideas for planning; Purpose, audience, features/conventions and context 18 MARKS	15–18	11–14	8–10	5–7	0–4
	-Outstanding response beyond normal expectations -Intelligent and mature ideas -Extensive knowledge of features of the type of text -Writing maintains focus - Coherence in content and ideas -Highly elaborated and all details support the topic -Appropriate and accurate format	-Very good response demonstrating good knowledge of features of the type of text -Maintains focus – no digressions -Coherent in content and ideas, very well elaborated and details support topic -Appropriate format with minor inaccuracies	-Adequate response demonstrating knowledge of features of the type of text -Not completely focused -Some digressions - Reasonably coherent in content and ideas -Some details support the topic -Generally appropriate format but with some inaccuracies	-Basic response demonstrating some knowledge of features of the type of text -Some focus but writing digresses -Not always coherent in content and ideas -Few details support the topic -Necessary rules of format vaguely applied -Some critical oversights	-Response reveals no knowledge of features of the type of text -Meaning obscure with major digressions -Not coherent in content and ideas -Very few details support the topic - Necessary rules of format not applied
LANGUAGE, STYLE & EDITING Tone, register, style, purpose/effect, audience and context; Language use and conventions; Word choice; Punctuation and spelling 12 MARKS	10–12	8–9	6–7	4–5	0–3
	-Tone, register, style and vocabulary highly appropriate to purpose, audience and context - Grammatically accurate and wellconstructed -Virtually error-free	-Tone, register, style and vocabulary very appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Generally grammatically accurate and well-constructed - Very good vocabulary -Mostly free of errors	-Tone, register, style and vocabulary appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Some grammatical errors -Adequate vocabulary - Errors do not impede meaning	-Tone, register, style and vocabulary less appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Inaccurate grammar with numerous errors -Limited vocabulary -Meaning obscured	-Tone, register, style and vocabulary do not correspond to purpose, audience and context - Error-ridden and confused -Vocabulary not suitable for purpose -Meaning seriously impaired

Appendix 9: ASSESSMENT RUBRIC FOR LONGER TRANSACTIONAL TEXT – FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE [30 MARKS]

Criteria	Exceptional	Skilful	Moderate	Elementary	Inadequate
<p>CONTENT, PLANNING & FORMAT</p> <p>Response and ideas; Organisation of ideas; Features/conventions and context</p> <p>12 MARKS</p>	<p>10–12</p> <p>-Outstanding response beyond normal expectations -Intelligent and mature ideas -Extensive knowledge of features of the type of text -Writing maintains focus - Coherence in content and ideas -Highly elaborated and all details support the topic -Appropriate and accurate format</p>	<p>8–9</p> <p>-Very good response demonstrating good knowledge of features of the type of text -Maintains focus – no digressions -Coherent in content and ideas, very well elaborated and details support topic -Appropriate format with minor inaccuracies</p>	<p>6–7</p> <p>-Adequate response, demonstrating knowledge of features of the type of text -Not completely focused -Some digressions - Reasonably coherent in content and ideas -Some details support the topic -Generally appropriate format but with some inaccuracies</p>	<p>4–5</p> <p>-Basic response, demonstrating some knowledge of features of the type of text -Some focus but writing digresses -Not always coherent in content and ideas -Few details support the topic -Necessary rules of format vaguely applied -Some critical oversights</p>	<p>0–3</p> <p>-Response reveals no knowledge of features of the type of text -Meaning obscure with major digressions -Not coherent in content and ideas -Very few details support the topic - Necessary rules of format not applied</p>
<p>LANGUAGE, STYLE & EDITING</p> <p>Tone, register, style, vocabulary appropriate to purpose and context; Language use and conventions; Word choice; Punctuation and spelling</p> <p>8 MARKS</p>	<p>7–8</p> <p>-Tone, register, style and vocabulary highly appropriate to purpose, audience and context - Grammatically accurate and wellconstructed -Virtually error-free</p>	<p>5–6</p> <p>-Tone, register, style and vocabulary very appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Generally grammatically accurate and well-constructed - Very good vocabulary -Mostly free of errors</p>	<p>4</p> <p>-Tone, register, style and vocabulary appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Some grammatical errors -Adequate vocabulary - Errors do not impede meaning</p>	<p>3</p> <p>-Tone, register, style and vocabulary less appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Inaccurate grammar with numerous errors -Limited vocabulary -Meaning obscured</p>	<p>0–2</p> <p>-Tone, register, style and vocabulary do not correspond to purpose, audience and context - Error-ridden and confused -Vocabulary not suitable for purpose -Meaning seriously impaired</p>

Appendix 10: ASSESSMENT RUBRIC FOR SHORTER TRANSACTIONAL TEXT – FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE [20 MARKS]

Appendix 11: Turnit-in report

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