



Exploring Grade 3 teachers' writing instructional practices in response to the Department of Basic Education programmes

BY

LUCKY WITNESS LUSHABA

9503200

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Education

In the School of Education
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Pietermaritzburg

January 2021

DECLARATION

I, Lucky Witness Lushaba, declare that


- i. The research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.
- ii. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- iii. This thesis does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
- iv. This thesis does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
 - a) Their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced.
 - b) Where their exact words have been used, then their writing has been placed in italics and inside quotation marks, and referenced.
- v. This thesis does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the thesis and in the References section.

Student Name: Lucky Witness Lushaba

Supervisor: Prof. Carol Bertram

Date: 11 January 2021

Date: 13 January 2021



Signature:



Signature:

ABSTRACT

Writing remains central to effective learning, and it is through writing that learners can express their ideas and thoughts in different subjects across the curriculum. Competency in writing is therefore crucial for learners, especially by Grade 3, which is the end of the Foundation Phase. Despite this, writing continues to be a challenge for the majority of learners in South Africa, especially those writing in English as a first additional language.

This dissertation argues that it is both necessary and possible to teach Grade 3 learners English writing skills irrespective of the curriculum adopted by the Department of Basic Education, Minister of Basic Education, or the context of the school. To be effective teachers of writing, all teachers have to know the different approaches for teaching writing so that whenever the curriculum changes, they will be able to identify the approaches underpinning the new curriculum and be the agents of change in their classroom practice.

A mixed-method approach, mixing quantitative approach and generic qualitative inquiry approach was used to explore Grade 3 teachers' writing instructional practices and how they responded to the Department of Basic Education's programmes, namely *Jika iMfundo* and the Primary School Reading Improvement Programme. Data was collected using a survey, which was distributed via the WhatsApp social messaging platform to 50 teachers in the uMgungundlovu District, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Telephonic interviews were conducted with six Grade 3 teachers. Document analysis of the *Jika iMfundo* teacher toolkit and the Primary School Reading Improvement Programme lesson plans was done to understand the writing approaches underpinning these two programmes.

Findings from this study indicated that teachers use a range of methodologies from *Jika iMfundo*, the Primary School Reading Improvement Programme and Reading to Learn when teaching writing. Before the introduction of the Department of Basic Education's programmes, most teachers in the sample experienced challenges teaching writing because their teacher training did not prepare them for the teaching of writing. Learners lack English vocabulary to use when writing and this was found to be due to most teachers teaching English in isiZulu, thus depriving learners of exposure to English instructions. The study also found that the product approach underpins *Jika iMfundo* while the process approach underpins the Primary School Reading Improvement Programme. The study found that all teachers in the sample adapted the curriculum programmes in various ways, to suit the needs of their learners.

The study concludes by providing recommendations which could be useful to stakeholders concerned about the state of affairs in the education system: the teachers, the Department of Basic Education and Non-Governmental Organisations. There is an urgent need for teachers to be trained in the various approaches for teaching writing. The teaching of writing depends on teachers' understanding of the pedagogical underpinnings of the curriculum and the approaches for teaching writing. The researcher advises teachers of the English language to use English instructions in their classroom interactions and to expose learners to reading activities which will help learners to develop English vocabulary.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following:

To God: Thank you, Lord, for keeping me alive in these trying times, full of uncertainties caused by the spread of COVID 19. It is through your grace that we are still alive. Thank you!

To my supervisor: Prof. Carol Bertram, I do not have enough words to thank you for the intellectual support, encouragement, patience, kindness and inspiration you have shown throughout my study. This work would have been impossible without your commitment and the dedication you have towards your work, you are my role model. May God give you good health and protect you so that more future researchers can benefit from your fountain of knowledge. May God bless your family.

To my wife: Zandile (MaZet) Lushaba, thank you so much for your love, support and encouragement. Your voice of reason and compassion have been my saving grace. Thanks for sharing some of my responsibilities whilst I have been busy with my studies. I owe you a lot. May God grant you good health and prosperity. Love you!

To my children: Minenhle, Andile, Lwandile and Luyanda, thank you for being there for me and never demanding your time. But instead, you would ask, "Are you not going to UKZN today?" This is for you to look up to. I wish that you can aim higher than this, I know you will because "Nothing is impossible with God."

To my "mentors": Dr T. Mgwaba, "Nyath'emnyama..." you have been with me from the beginning providing a voice of hope and reasoning. Your words of encouragement always found a way in my mind, even when the journey looked bleak. Thanks a lot, brother.

Miss (Dr to be) Bongsi Ntombela, you made me see the light. I never imagined myself taking this journey, but you made it so easy and exciting. You inspired me! Thanks a million, Mahlobo!

Reading to Learn South Africa: Thanks a million for your support, training and motivation. Where would I have been, without you? You exposed me to the world of the academics...Thank you so much!

To my family and Church: Thanks for your support and prayers, they kept me sane. God bless you.

To my colleagues: UKZN Class of 2019, Wow! What a healthy working relationship. God bless you. This is not the end of the journey...

To my participants: Thanks a lot for your willingness to participate in this study. Without you, I would not have made it. Thanks a million. God bless you!

ACRONYMS

ACE	Advanced Certificate in Education
ANA	Annual National Assessment
B.Ed.	Bachelor of Education
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements
CK	Content Knowledge
CPTD	Continuing Professional Teacher Development
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DH	Departmental Head
DoE	Department of Education
EFAL	English First Additional Language
GPK	General Pedagogical Knowledge
HoD	Head of Department
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
NPDE	National Professional Diploma in Education
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate in Education
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading and Literacy Studies
PSRIP	Primary School Reading Improvement Programme
RtL	Reading to Learn
SLP	Standardised Lesson Plans
SMT	School Management Team
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	II
ABSTRACT.....	III
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	V
ACRONYMS	VII
TABLE OF CONTENTS	VIII
LIST OF FIGURES	XI
LIST OF TABLES	XII
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	13
1.1 Introduction	13
1.2 Purpose of the study	13
1.3 Rationale.....	14
1.4 The background and context of the study	15
1.5 The research questions	17
1.5.1 Research question one	17
1.5.2 Research question two	17
1.5.3 Research question three	17
1.6 Brief review of related literature	18
1.7 Conceptual framework.....	18
1.7.1 Approaches for teaching writing	19
1.7.2 Teacher agency model.....	20
1.8 Research approach.....	20
1.9 Ethical issues	21
1.10 The guide to the chapters	22
1.11 Chapter summary	22
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	23
2.1 Introduction	23
2.2 Literacy, a global challenge	24
2.3 The South African literacy challenges	26
2.4 Explanations for poor literacy outcomes.....	27
2.5 Instructional practices for teaching writing.....	30
2.6 Approaches for teaching writing	32
2.6.1 The product approach	33

2.6.2 The process approach	34
2.6.3 The genre approach	34
2.6.4 The balanced approach	38
2.7 Principles for teaching writing	38
2.7.1 Writing should be explicitly taught in order to lessen the inequality gap	39
2.7.2 Reading and writing relationship	39
2.7.3 Teacher knowledge needed to teach writing	39
2.8 Pedagogy and curriculum reforms	40
2.9 Conceptual Framework	41
2.10 Teacher agency model.....	42
2.10.1 Past.....	43
2.10.2 Present	44
2.10.3 Future.....	44
2.11 Chapter summary	45
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	46
3.1 Introduction	46
3.2 Research approach and paradigm.....	46
3.2.1 Mixed-method approach.....	46
3.2.2 Pragmatic paradigm.....	48
3.3. Data collection methods and instruments.....	49
3.3.1 Survey.....	50
3.3.2 Interviews	52
3.3.3 Document analysis.....	55
3.4 Sampling and recruitment	56
3.4.1 Survey respondents.....	56
3.4.2 Interview participants	57
3.5 Ethical issues	58
3.6 Trustworthiness	58
3.7 Limitations of the study.....	59
3.8 Chapter summary	60
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS	61
4.1 Introduction	61
4.2 Document analysis	61
4.2.1 Jika iMfundo writing methodology	61
4.2.2 PSRIP writing methodology	64

4.3 Respondents’ biographical details.....	66
4.4 Interview participants.....	68
4.5 Data presentation (Themes)	70
4.6 Chapter summary	86
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION	87
5.1 Introduction	87
5.2 Writing approaches that inform the Jika iMfundo and PSRIP curriculum programmes	87
5.3 Grade 3 teachers’ beliefs about the teaching of writing in EFAL classrooms.....	91
5.4 Grade 3 teachers’ interpretation of DBE programmes (Jika iMfundo and PSRIP)	94
5.5 Implications/impact of the findings.....	99
5.6 Reflections and limitations of the study	99
5.7 Recommendations	100
5.7.1 Teachers must use languages carefully	100
5.7.2 Teachers must know the different writing approaches	101
5.7.3 Teachers need to develop professional knowledge and judgement.....	102
5.8 Conclusion.....	103
REFERENCES.....	104
APPENDICES	113
Appendix A: DBE Permission (Gate keeper)	113
Appendix B: Ethical Clearance Letter	115
Appendix C: Participants’ consent letter one, for the survey together with the Questionnaire	117
Appendix D: Participants’ Consent Letter two, for the interview.....	126
Appendix E: Interview schedule – PSRIP Teachers	129
Appendix F: Interview schedule – Jika iMfundo teachers.....	132
Appendix G: Document analysis checklist (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017).....	135
Appendix H: Turnitin Report	136
Appendix I: Confirmation of editing.....	137

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: The approaches for teaching writing	33
Figure 2: Scaffolding interaction cycle (Reading to Learn, 2015)	37
Figure 3: An ecological approach to agency (Priestley, 2015).....	43
Figure 4: DBE programmes and skills/method for teaching writing	74
Figure 5: Teachers’ feelings about the DBE programmes.....	77

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Study response rate	52
Table 2: Steps followed when creating themes (Adu, 2019)	55
Table 3: Sample of Jika iMfundo Writing lesson instructions (The National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT), 2015, p. 10).....	63
Table 4: Sample of the PSRIP writing instructions (The National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT), 2016, pp. 45-63).	65
Table 5: Demographic profile of the survey respondents	67
Appendix A: DBE Permission (Gate keeper)	113
Appendix B: Ethical Clearance Letter	115
Appendix C: Participants’ consent letter one, for the survey together with the Questionnaire	117
Appendix D: Participants’ Consent Letter two, for the interview	126
Appendix E: Interview schedule – PSRIP Teachers.....	129
Appendix F: Interview schedule – Jika iMfundo teachers.....	132
Appendix G: Document analysis checklist (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017).....	135

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I give a summary of the study undertaken and orientate the reader to the study. This orientation is done by first giving a summary of the focus, purpose, and rationale of this study. Secondly, I elaborate on the background of the study and its context. Next, I clarify the research questions, why I asked such questions and how they assisted in achieving the research purpose. Then, a brief review of related literature is provided with more details to follow in Chapter Two (2). After that, I briefly describe the conceptual framework, which is the lens through which I collected and analysed data. Thereafter, I briefly describe how ethical issues were adhered to in this study and also explained why and how I used the conceptual framework. Finally, I offer a guide to the chapters to follow in the dissertation.

1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to explore selected Grade 3 teachers' self-expressed beliefs and knowledge about how they teach writing in their English First Additional Language (EFAL) classes, and how they describe their responses to two Department of Basic Education (DBE) programmes, namely the *Jika imfundo* programme and the Primary School Reading Improvement Programme (PSRIP). These two DBE programmes provide Grade 3 teachers with guidelines for teaching writing. This study also aims to describe the writing approaches informing these two DBE programmes. This research study does not refer to the technical skills of handwriting, such as how to hold a pen, writing on the line or the direction of writing on the page, from left to right on the page. Rather, this study focuses on the writing opportunities and support given to learners so that they can produce extended writing, longer paragraphs in different genres. Writing is one of the fundamental literacy skills to be developed by all learners (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009). In essence, I work from the premise that teachers, as the more knowledgeable 'others', have a major role to play in scaffolding learners during their writing development (Vygotsky, 1978). This means that, for teachers to fulfil this important task, they need to possess both content knowledge and PCK (Bertram, 2011; Rose, 2008; Shulman, 1987). The role of teachers is to provide learners with these learning opportunities (Hobden & Hobden, 2019).

1.3 Rationale

This study emanated from the poor performance of South Africa's Grade 4 learners in the 2016 Progress in International Reading and Literacy Studies (PIRLS). According to the PIRLS report, about 78% of Grade 4 learners from South African schools cannot read for meaning (Basic Education, 2016; Howie et al., 2017). In a study conducted by the Western Cape Department of Education, writing in the foundation phase was found to be one of the learners' weakest skills (Condy & Blease, 2014).

As a Grade 4 teacher, I have observed that most learners from Grade 3 can hardly produce extended pieces of writing. I have observed this among both learners from the school at which I am employed and among learners who have come from other schools. There is a serious problem regarding learners' writing skills.

Many learners in the Foundation Phase cannot read and write at an age-appropriate level (de Clercq, 2014). These low literacy levels are evident even in the learners' mother tongue (Spaull, van der Berg, Wills, Gustafsson, & Kotze, 2016). In South African schools this problem is worsened by the shift from using the mother tongue as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in the Foundation Phase to EFAL as the LoLT from Grade 4 upwards. In Grade 4, all subjects are taught in English except for the mother tongue that becomes a subject, which can be isiZulu, isiXhosa, Afrikaans or any other South African language (Sibanda, 2017).

Several studies conducted in South African schools (Hoadley, 2012; Hobden & Hobden, 2019; Vinjevold, 1999) have all revealed that Foundation Phase learners are not adequately exposed to writing. This lack of exposure happens as most learners are mainly given less challenging written work with few opportunities to do extended writing and paragraph writing.

A recent study blamed teachers for learners' low literacy development (Hobden & Hobden, 2019), citing their lack of accountability and non-adherence to didactic commitments. This problem is not new, shown by Taylor and Vinjevold's (1999) study which noted that Foundation Phase teachers were not exposing learners to extended writing. One of the reasons given is that most teachers do not have formal qualifications. It is clear, therefore, that without pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), very little effective teaching and learning can take place (Bertram, 2011; Condy & Blease, 2014; Shulman, 1987).

The DBE has intervened by introducing programmes to assist teachers in promoting teaching and learning of literacy. From 2016 we have seen the introduction of *Jika imfundo* in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) primary schools and the PSRIP is implemented in the nine provinces of South Africa. Most South African primary schools have already been introduced to PSRIP. All subject advisors and teachers have been trained in one of these programmes. However, few studies have been conducted to discover how Grade 3 teachers are now teaching writing and how they have responded to these DBE programmes. This study is thus interested in how Grade 3 teachers interpret the DBE curriculum programmes, and in what ways they adapt or adopt the official requirements of these programmes (Blignaut, 2008).

1.4 The background and context of the study

This study was conducted with Grade 3 teachers from KZN in uMgungundlovu District, while Harry Gwala District was used for the pilot study. The socio-economic issues in these districts are mainly characterised by poverty, with most schools relying on state funding. In all South African primary schools, the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in the foundation phase can be any of the eleven official languages. From Grade 4, the LoLT changes to English with any one of the remaining official languages as a subject.

Research shows that the literacy levels in South African schools are in a crisis as learners are not exposed to extended texts in their early schooling years, and teachers are not approaching writing as meaning-making activities (de Clercq, 2014; Ntuli & Pretorius, 2005; Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016; Spaul et al., 2016). Most children complete the Foundation Phase, unable to read and write in their mother tongue (Spaul et al., 2016). This crisis starts from the Foundation Phase (Grade R to Grade 3) and continues through the Intermediate Phase up to Grade 12.

Teaching is a complicated profession because it requires teachers to be able to organise systematic learning. The teacher's role is to design learning programmes. These programmes should “foster the gradual development of competences that cannot be learned in an instance” (Morrow, 2007, p. 107). To be effective in promoting teaching and learning, teachers need to have all knowledge forms from the four knowledge domains: content knowledge (CK), which is knowing the content to be taught; general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), which is understanding different teaching strategies and assessment strategies; context knowledge,

which includes understanding the learners' backgrounds; and PCK, the ability to transfer and make content knowledge understandable to the learners (Bertram, 2011; Jones & Straker, 2006; Shulman, 1987).

Some rural and township school teachers lack proper training on the best literacy instructional practices (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019). A study by Reeves et al. (2008) of 80 foundation phase teachers in Limpopo showed that many teachers did not give attention to other extended writing activities, including the writing of phrases, writing whole sentences and paragraphs. Many teachers said that they did not know how to support their learners appropriately in becoming literate.

As a way to provide more support to teachers, the DBE has provided two different structured programmes for the Foundation Phase. One is the *Jika iMfundo* and the other is the PSRIP. The phrase "*Jika iMfundo*" is an isiZulu expression, which means "to turn education around" (Pillay, 2020, p. 229) in isiZulu, a South African language widely spoken in the province of KZN. The localised programme aimed to change teachers' classroom practice. The main focus of the *Jika iMfundo programme* has always been "on curriculum coverage and the role of leaders at the schools and district levels in strengthening the connections between their work and the core functions of teaching and learning in schools" (Metcalf & Witten, 2019, p. 340). The other aim of the *Jika iMfundo programme* is to increase curriculum coverage which is believed, by proponents of this programme, to be necessary for improving teachers' pedagogical skills and learning outcomes through the use of focussed based learner classroom activities (Pillay, 2020). This programme aims to change teachers' behaviour by providing them with both EFAL and Maths teacher tool kits and lesson plans to enhance teachers' abilities to focus on teaching, classroom activities, reflecting and also reporting on the work covered (Pillay, 2020). The toolkit has methods for teaching different skills from reading to writing. Teachers are therefore guided by the toolkits on how to teach.

From its inception, the PSRIP was a national programme rolled out in all nine provinces of South Africa. PSRIP is only for EFAL (not for Maths). Using PSRIP, teachers teach reading and writing skills following methodologies provided by the programme. PSRIP provides teachers with documents to use in class, ranging from the planner, resource pack, worksheets and a tracker. The planner consists of lesson plans and methods to be used by teachers when teaching different skills such as, listening, speaking reading, writing and phonics. Resource

packs include different resources to be used by the teacher when teaching. These include flashcards, themes of the weeks and some pictures relating to the theme of the week. The worksheets have classwork activities to be used by the teacher when testing learners. The tracker has forms where teachers indicate when they started and completed teaching a topic. It also has a section allowing for teacher reflections about the lesson and how it can be improved. Primary School Reading Improvement Programme aims to capacitate subject advisors and teachers to improve quality learning and to teach in the EFAL classes in both the Foundation Phase and the Intermediate Phase (D.B.E, 2018).

In KZN, it is the EFAL subject advisors who decide on which schools will use *Jika iMfundo* for English and which schools will use PSRIP. Schools cannot use both programmes at the same time. However, in the other provinces all primary schools use PSRIP.

1.5 The research questions

The researcher asked three research questions. These research questions assisted in data collection and informed the choice of data collection instruments. The research questions were:

1.5.1 Research question one

What are the writing approaches that inform *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP curriculum programmes?

To get answers to research question one, I collected data using document analysis in order to understand the writing approaches underpinning these two curriculum programmes.

1.5.2 Research question two

What are Grade 3 teachers' beliefs about the teaching of writing in EFAL classrooms?

To answer research question two, I used a survey and semi-structured telephone interviews to generate data to answer this question.

1.5.3 Research question three

How do Grade 3 teachers interpret DBE programmes (*Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP)?

The focus was on establishing the extent to which teachers adopt or adapt the requirements of these programmes. To answer research question three, I used a survey and the telephone interviews.

1.6 Brief review of related literature

This section provides a brief review of the literature about the state of literacy in most primary schools in South Africa, with a greater focus on the teaching of writing in the foundation phase.

There is an ongoing debate amongst researchers about reasons leading to learners' failures to develop literacy skills (reading and writing) in the foundation phase. Most South African learners lack exposure to reading before starting school (Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016). Research has shown that learners who start school with no reading exposure perform poorly compared to learners who were read to by their parents at home before starting school (Christie & Martin, 1997; Rose, 2008). According to Rose (2008), learners who cannot read cannot write either. Reading is, therefore, a pre-requisite to writing.

Some scholars blame teachers for the learners' low literacy levels since teachers with poor reading skills can hardly be expected to produce good readers (Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016). To solve learners' literacy challenges, we have to develop teachers so that they can effectively scaffold learners' literacy development in the classrooms from reading activities to writing activities (Vygotsky, 1978) and this can be achieved if all teachers understood the different approaches for teaching writing (De Lange, Dippenaar, & Anker, 2018; Ngubane, Ntombela, & Govender, 2020) and were able to use these approaches effectively.

1.7 Conceptual framework

A theory refers to a set of analytical principles and statements designed to shape our opinion, understanding and description of the world or events (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996; Nilsen, 2015; Wacker, 1998). This definition shows the importance of theories as they help the researcher to understand how and why participants behave in a particular manner. The objective of using a conceptual framework is to categorise and define concepts applicable to the study and map relationships among them (Rocco & Plakhotnik, 2009). This study is rooted in two conceptual frameworks: Approaches for teaching writing and the teacher agency model.

1.7.1 Approaches for teaching writing

There are different approaches for teaching writing; the product approach, process approach, genre approach and the balanced approach.

1.7.1.1 The product approach

The product approach is one of the oldest approaches used in teaching writing skills. Its main focus is on highlighting grammar through the use of oratorical drills (Silva, 1990). This approach has been criticised for its focus on the product of writing while neglecting teaching learners how to approach writing (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). This criticism has led to the development of the process approach.

1.7.1.2 The process approach

The process approach supports learners' writing practices through a series of stages, ranging from planning, drafting, editing/ revising and writing the final draft that is published (Tribble, 1996; White & Arndt, 1991). Proponents of the process approach believe that the writing process is just the same irrespective of the type of text written (Tribble, 1996). The process approach has been criticised because it ignores the context and the purpose of writing, which is why the genre approach was developed.

1.7.1.3 The genre approach

The genre approach regards writing as being guided by the context from which it is produced and is determined by the purpose and audience for whom the writing is produced (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993a, 1993b; Martin, 1993). With the genre approach, teachers are supposed to scaffold the learning process so that learners can produce texts similar to the ones read in class. These will be explained in detail in Chapter Two.

1.7.1.4 The balanced approach

The balanced approach synthesises the strengths of the three approaches into one approach (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). This approach includes aspects of the other approaches and is stronger than each of the other approaches individually. More details are provided in Chapter Two.

1.7.2 Teacher agency model

The teacher agency model is used in this study as a lens to understand and explain how teachers responded to the introduction of the DBE programmes. Teachers seldom adopt curriculum requirements as expected by official policy, but usually adopt or adapt these requirements in a range of ways (Blignaut, 2008). In this process of adaptation, teachers show agency.

Teacher agency is not about what the teachers possess, but it is about what they do, using their available resources, structure and environment (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). According to Emirbayer and Mische (1998), teacher agency is a provisional embedded process of social engagement informed by, firstly, the past experiences of teachers helping them to accelerate change. Secondly, it is affected by teachers' current ability to make informed judgements about options with given resources and restrictions and finally, to look towards the future through being able to imagine alternative pedagogical possibilities (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). These act as motivations causing teachers to adjust to change without hesitation.

1.8 Research approach

There are different approaches used by researchers when conducting research. These are quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method approach. Under the quantitative approach, researchers rely heavily on statistics and figures, whereas, under the qualitative approach, researchers use words to make meaning of reality (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). Some researchers use the mixed-method approach, which is a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches within the same study.

This study uses a mixed-method approach. The use of the mixed-method approach shows that quantitative and qualitative approaches need not be seen as binary opposites but as complementary approaches (Cohen et al., 2018; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Through the use of a mixed-method approach, researchers manage to get better results than through either approach used individually (Cohen et al., 2018; Malina, Norreklit, & Selto, 2011).

This study can be located in the pragmatic paradigm because it relies on both quantitative and qualitative philosophies, beliefs, concepts and methods during data collection and analysis (Cohen et al., 2018). Data collection methods used in this study are from both the quantitative and qualitative approaches. The use of a survey represented the quantitative approach. The

questionnaires with closed-ended questions were distributed to the participants using groups on the WhatsApp social media/ messaging platform. Participants of the survey were selected using convenience sampling, due to their ease of access to the researcher (details to follow in Chapter Three). These participants had been teaching Grade 3 in 2019 and were from the uMgungundlovu District in KZN.

The use of interviews represented the qualitative approach. The participants for the telephone interviews were purposively selected. They indicated in the survey that they were willing to participate in the telephone interviews. Six (6) Grade 3 teachers were selected based on their willingness to participate in the study. Three of these participants used *PSRIP*, and three use *Jika iMfundo*. The use of telephone interviews is easy to administer and is cost-effective; This method of data collection was the best option under Covid-19 regulations for maintaining social (physical) distancing. All telephone conversations were audio-recorded using an automatic voice recorder and transcribed verbatim before they were thematically analysed.

The last data collection method used was document analysis. It falls under the qualitative approach. The *Jika iMfundo* and *PSRIP* documents analysed are in the public domain and are used by teachers. The intention of conducting document analyses was to find out which writing approaches inform each programme and to verify if the methods used by the teachers are in accordance with the guidelines provided by these documents.

1.9 Ethical issues

From the inception of this research project, I ensured that I adhered to all the ethical requirements needed from the researcher. Firstly, as my study was going to be conducted with teachers employed by the KwaZulu Natal Department of Basic Education I requested for permission from the gatekeepers, the KZN Department of Basic Education, and permission was granted (refer to Appendix A). Then, I was able to apply for ethical clearance from the UKZN ethical clearance committee and I they gave me permission to proceed with my study (refer to Appendix B). Thereafter, I was able to send the questionnaires to my respondents who were my survey participants (through their WhatsApp group). The first page of the questionnaire had the consent letter to the survey participants (refer to Appendix C and Appendix D). Details on how I adhered to the rest of the ethical issues are in chapter three.

1.10 The guide to the chapters

This dissertation has five chapters. Chapter Two provides a detailed review of related literature about the state of literacy crisis in South African primary schools, with a particular focus on the teaching of writing. Chapter Three provides a detailed explanation of the chosen methodology, paradigm and approach. It also clarifies the sampling strategy, trustworthiness and the ethical issues of the study design. In Chapter Four, there is a detailed presentation of the research findings. Chapter Five is the final chapter in which discussions and conclusions are presented, elaborating on how the research questions were answered.

1.11 Chapter summary

This chapter has highlighted the phenomenon of this study, which is Grade 3 teachers' writing instructional practices in response to DBE programmes. It also highlighted the purpose, rationale and background of this study. This chapter has provided a brief review of the literature on the state of affairs in South African primary schools. It has highlighted teachers' attempts in equipping themselves to address these challenges and how the state has also intervened by introducing *Jika imfundo* and PSRIP as programmes to be used by teachers to improve teaching and learning in primary schools (Metcalf & Witten, 2019; PSRIP, 2016). Next, the research questions were introduced and the conceptual framework was explained. These provided the lenses for data collection and analysis. Thereafter, I gave a brief description on how I adhered to the ethical issues. Finally, a brief guide described the structure of the dissertation; the next chapter presents the literature review.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The teaching profession faces many challenges, several of which are encountered by educators in their classrooms. Ongoing curriculum changes pose significant challenge with the demands of the curriculum requiring educators to cope with change (Soudien, 2003). In fulfilling their roles, as outlined in the Curriculum and Assessments Policy Statement (CAPS) which is the official curriculum, educators are expected to support the literacy development of learners, including teaching learners reading and writing skills (UNESCO, 2003). The ability to read and write is a right not a privilege (Lumsford, Moglen, & Slevin, 1990). The concept, literacy, is vast and covers many aspects. Literacy refers to one's ability to effectively function within a group and being able to read, write and calculate for their personal development and that of the community (Muthwii, 2004). This definition was also echoed by Cope and Kalantzis (2009), where they defined literacy as being able to perform two of the three skills viz. reading, writing and arithmetic.

This chapter highlights the ongoing debate about some of the literacy challenges in South African primary schools with a specific focus on the teaching of writing. As outlined in chapter one, this study does not focus on the technical skills of writing, like handwriting, but it focuses on Grade 3 teachers' reports of how they teach extended writing (the writing of sentences and paragraphs).

This chapter reviews the relevant literature in order to understand the various debates and concepts relating to the research topic. The chapter begins by highlighting that literacy challenges are a global phenomenon and links it to the South African scenario. It then focuses on teachers' instructional practices for teaching writing, the need for learners to have good writing models and how teachers react to curriculum changes. The latter part of the chapter then presents and explains the conceptual framework about the approaches for teaching writing. Finally, this chapter ends by presenting the teacher agency model to explain why teachers respond to curriculum changes in different ways.

2.2 Literacy, a global challenge

The term literacy has had many definitions. Literacy was described by UNESCO in 1947 as the acquisition of the fundamental aspects of individual development and human rights (Wilson, 1947). A decade later, the definition of being literate evolved and UNESCO in 1958 included the ability to read and write short, simple statements (Jenkins, 1996). This definition meant that those who could not read and write were defined as illiterate. The latest definition of literacy refers to different ways by which children gain access to meaning from literacy material through the use of reading, writing, numeracy and oral language (Frankel, Becker, Rowe, & Pearson, 2016). This definition resonates with the belief that literacy development begins at birth and continues until the time the child is exposed to formal reading and writing instructional practices, at the school level. Early literacy instruction is essential because it is closely linked to learning experiences that lead to educational success at school (Frankel et al., 2016). This study supports UNESCO's 1958 definition that includes writing as an aspect of being literate, which means by teaching Grade 3 learners to be able to write extended texts, we are helping to eradicate illiteracy (Jenkins, 1996). Learners who have not developed age-appropriate literacy skills by the time they complete Grade 3 are at risk of repeating grades later (Snow & Matthews, 2016), as they are not able to read to understand and learn. I am now going to turn to various challenges preventing foundation phase learners from achieving high levels of literacy in various countries.

In South Africa, the literacy problems in the foundation phase include learners who cannot read and write both in their home language and in English, as a first additional language (Pretorius, 2015; Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016). These problems are not unique to South African schools but are a global phenomenon. In the United States of America (USA), studies have shown that extended writing in most schools was not given enough attention and learners were only exposed to the writing of short answers, lists and worksheets (Kiuahara, Graham, & Hawkin, 2009). One of the reasons found to contribute to this shortcoming in the USA was that teachers were not adequately prepared to teach writing (Kiuahara et al., 2009). This inadequacy resulted from inadequate preparations that teachers received from colleges and universities on how to make writing instructional adjustments to support struggling learners. According to the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), about two-thirds of USA learners tested in Grades 4, 8 and 12 were found to be below grade level writing proficiency (Persky, Daane,

& Jin, 2003). As a result, many learners were leaving high school, without the writing skills necessary for success in tertiary institutions and in the workplace.

In California, the front page of *The San Francisco Chronicle* of 16 August 2006 read: "Fewer than half of California's learners can read, write or calculate at grade level nearly a decade after the state began its top-to-bottom overhaul of public education...." (Ribbens, 2008, p. 106). This statement meant that educational changes had little to no impact on teachers' classroom practices. According to Schulze (2015), most teachers in the USA had no English pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), and this led to learners receiving low quality English reading and writing instructions. Pedagogical Content Knowledge refers to knowledge of how to go about teaching what has to be learnt by learners (Shulman, 1987). In a study conducted in the USA, where teachers were capacitated and supported to improve their pedagogical skills, they delivered a highly structured and explicit reading and writing curriculum to the participants. Learners who participated in this programme performed better in reading and writing than those who did not (Stockard, 2011). The concerns about the USA's learners' low levels of writing skills led to the establishment of the National Commission on Writing, and it issued a report in 2003 recommending that writing be made central in the schooling agenda (National Commission on Writing, 2003). This commission also confirmed that the learners' writing competencies were not at the level they should have been.

China also experienced literacy challenges, where their children had reading and writing difficulties (Shu & Liu, 1994). As an intervention, a phonological system was explicitly taught to children in late kindergarten and at the beginning of their first grade (Shu & Liu, 1994; Wu, Li, Anderson, & Li, 2002). This intervention helped learners to recognise Chinese language characters, learn new words and supported them in learning to read and write. Another study was conducted in China-Hong Kong, to investigate the roles of both parent-child shared book reading and the use of morphological training on children's literacy improvement (Chow, McBride-Chang, Cheung, & Chow, 2008). In this study, the findings were that parents' dialogical reading, where the children were encouraged to talk about the stories they had read with their parents, was particularly effective in improving children's vocabulary and reading enjoyment. This study further demonstrated that educational interventions focusing on children's morphological awareness had an impact in improving children's morphological knowledge and this led to learners' overall improvement in reading and writing skills (Nagy et al., 2002).

In Rwanda, a study conducted by Manirabo (2013) revealed learners' literacy challenges, in that they could not read and write in English at appropriate levels when they started Grade 4. These language-related issues were among the challenges leading to a decline in general learner performance in Rwanda. When learners learn a second language for use as the LoLT at school, this affects learners' academic success (Shohamy, 2006). The low levels of academic achievement were also as a result of the fact that most Rwandan teachers had low levels of English language proficiency (Manirabo, 2013; Niyomugabo, 2008). The language issue was a big challenge since teachers were required to teach English, while they were learning it themselves. At that time, the country's English policy expected learners to be able to read and write in English by the end of primary school, but it was impossible, given the context (Republic of Rwanda, 1996).

2.3 The South African literacy challenges

The South African literacy challenges are evident when looking at the low literacy achievements in South African schools, as shown by the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) and Annual National Assessment (ANA) results. The ANAs were annual, national-standardised tests of achievement from Grade 1 up to Grade 9. The main aim of the ANA tests was to provide some standardised indication of learning at the primary grades, allowing for early identification and remediation of learning difficulties (Spaull, 2013a). The implementation of these ANAs ended in 2015. In 2012, Grade 3 learners achieved 52%, while in 2013 they achieved 51%, a drop of 1% and these tests were in their mother tongue. However, the Grade 4 class of 2012 achieved 34%, but the class of 2013 achieved 39%, and these tests were written in EFAL (Motshekga, 2013). These tests revealed that learners performed far below the expected level of 60% (Motshekga, 2013).

The inability of many learners to read and write became clear in 2016 when South African learners participated in the PIRLS. The results of the 2016 PIRLS report revealed that about 78% of South Africa's Grade 4 learners could not read for meaning. It should be noted that the PIRLS tests were conducted in the learners' preferred languages (Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016).

Most South African learners complete Grade 3 with literacy levels far below their age-appropriate levels (de Clercq, 2014; Pretorius, 2015; Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016; Sibanda, 2017). These low literacy levels demonstrate that the state of South African education in the

foundation phase is a disaster. Research shows that learners who have not developed age-appropriate literacy skills by the end of Grade 3 are at a high risk of repeating future grades due to the increased workload in the Intermediate Phase (Snow & Matthews, 2016). The two significant challenges faced by learners in Grade 4 are that learners' workloads increase as they have to take six subjects and the LoLT changes from the mother tongue to English (Sibanda, 2017).

Although one of the educational goals of any education system is to narrow the gap between learners from previously different socio-economic backgrounds, the ANA results have shown different outcomes. The 2014 ANA results showed that the South African education system seems to be maintaining the socio-economic divide since learners from the more affluent schools performed better than learners from under-resourced schools. Because of these educational imbalances, Spaul, said, "Before a child's seventh birthday, one can predict with some precision whether they will inherit the life of chronic poverty and sustained unemployment or dignified life and meaningful work" (Spaul, 2013a, p. 1).

Learners without writing skills are at a disadvantage when written tests are the primary means for assessing learners' progress (Graham, 2008). This poor performance becomes worse because of learners' inability to use writing to support and extend their learning across content classes. The opportunities for attending universities and colleges become minimal where written tests are used to evaluate students' qualifications (Bangert-Drowns, Hurley, & Wilkinson, 2004; Graham & Perin, 2007).

2.4 Explanations for poor literacy outcomes

Research conducted in different South African schools show that the teaching of reading and writing in the foundation phase is limited (Hoadley, 2012; NEEDU, 2016). In the study conducted by the Western Cape Department of Education, to assess the state of literacy in the foundation phase, "writing was found to be one of the learners' weakest skills" (Condy & Blease, 2014, p. 37). There are several explanations for the low literacy levels in South African classrooms.

One explanation is teacher qualifications and weak PCK. Most teachers do not know how to teach reading and writing. Some writers say the literacy problems in South African schools are due to most teachers being underqualified and having weak subject knowledge (Brindle, Graham, Harris, & Hebert, 2016; Fleisch, 2008). As a result, their classroom activities fail to engage learners towards more challenging activities aimed at developing reading and writing skills (Motshekga, 2011; Vinjevold, 1999). Most South African teachers, particularly from rural areas have not been trained to have effective literacy instructional practices (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019; Msibi & Mchunu, 2013). This is worsened by the fact that most rural schools have challenges when it comes to the employment and retention of qualified teachers with good teaching records.

In 2008 a study was conducted by the University of Limpopo using three levels of data collection: at a district level, school level and classroom level (Reeves et al., 2008). At a classroom level, Grade 1–4 teachers from 20 primary schools in five districts were used as participants and data collection focused on these teachers' classroom literacy practices. At the classroom level, data collection instruments used were teacher questionnaires, a focus group interview schedule and a classroom observation schedule. The researchers would visit the school and observe the lessons of the Grade 1–4 teachers. After lesson observations, teachers would complete the questionnaires in the presence of the researchers. These questionnaires included both closed-ended and open-ended questions and were completed by 80 teachers (representing 100%) from the sampled schools. Focus group interviews were also conducted after lesson observations. From this study, the findings were that most teachers were confused about how they, as teachers, could help learners who had difficulties learning to read and write (Reeves et al., 2008). This has been confirmed by (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019, p. 55), where they said, "Many teachers in rural areas are not properly trained and are unfamiliar with the latest trends in teaching methods." Reeves's study revealed that most teachers' reading and writing pedagogy lacked a clear sense of direction. In this study (by Reeves), researchers observed that most teachers were not aware that recognising and writing words and matching pictures to words should also form one aspect of learners' literacy programmes. Besides practising phonics and spelling, teachers did not give attention to other extended writing activities, including the writing of phrases, writing whole sentences and paragraphs (Reeves et al., 2008).

The second explanation relates to the crippling neglect of the essential reading and writing skills, on which the learners' future academic progress depends. Several studies have found that writing in most foundation phase classes is occasional and when practised by learners, hardly ever advance beyond single words or short phrases (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019; Hoadley, 2012; Reeves et al., 2008; Taylor, 2019; Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999).

A further explanation is the language of instruction issue and the transition from the foundation phase to the Intermediate Phase. English First Additional Language is offered as a subject in the foundation phase, and the rest of the subjects are offered in the mother tongue. The successful transition from Grade 3 to Grade 4 is critical in the academic success of the learners. This transition, according to Sibanda (2017), makes learning more difficult for learners from Grade 4 upwards because all subjects are then offered in English, and the mother tongue is then only offered as a subject. Most learners have been found to be lacking literacy skills in the mother tongue (home language) in the Foundation Phase and find it harder to cope when the LoLT is English from Grade 4 (Sibanda, 2017; Spaul, 2013b). This transition stage is worsened by learners' lack of age-appropriate English vocabulary. This insufficient English vocabulary has been highlighted as a severe handicap for second language learners (Sibanda & Baxen, 2018). Teachers have an enormous responsibility of inculcating the massive requisite of English vocabulary in the learners. One of the disadvantages faced by second language speakers is that most English teachers have a low language proficiency level themselves (Krugel & Fourie, 2014; Nel & Muller, 2010; Pineteh, 2014; Sibanda & Baxen, 2018). As a result, these teachers fail to expose learners to sufficient English since their classroom interactions are also mainly in the mother tongue. They have been criticised for depriving learners of adequate exposure to the English language (Dornbrack & Atwood, 2019; Joe, 2010; Sibanda & Baxen, 2018).

One of the essential steps in turning this current situation around is by ensuring that all learners acquire reading and writing skills and that teachers use effective reading and writing instructional practices (De Lange et al., 2018; Graham, 2008). The focus of this study is on Grade 3 teachers' writing instructional practices. However, one cannot overlook the interdependency between reading and writing. Reading is an essential skill upon which writing develops (Rose, 2011; Rose & Martin, 2012). Reading and writing should be taught as intimately related and not separate activities (Halliday & Martin, 1993). This reading and writing relationship mean that learners need to have reading skills and skills on how to learn

from prescribed written texts. This reading development will enable learners to independently learn from reading and also be in a better position to write effectively (Rose, 2005). The curriculum content is transferred and passed on through reading, and its acquirement and attainment are demonstrated through writing (Rose, 2005). Writing is a very complex skill, and it requires a lot of effort and time to master; this happens when learners learn to write well from the foundation phase (Grade R- 3) and continue through to the upper grades (Graham, 2008; Slavin, Madden, & Karweit, 1989). This statement confirms that the skill of writing becomes better through practice and with sustained reading, which helps learners to develop their vocabulary (Graham & Perin, 2007; Reigstad & McAndrew, 1984). Learners need exposure to frequent and sustained writing activities from an early age (Graham & Perin, 2007). There is, therefore, an urgent need to assist learners in developing these necessary literacy skills (reading and writing) in order to master the curriculum content. To be effective at what they do, teachers need to have a repertoire of effective literacy practices to use in the classroom context for the teaching of reading and writing (Louden et al., 2005). This can be achieved if teachers can understand the different approaches for teaching writing and recognise the link between reading and writing (Ngubane et al., 2020).

2.5 Instructional practices for teaching writing

This section focuses on the different models for the teaching of writing. It then provides some suggestions of what can be done to improve the teaching of writing. One key idea is that writing should be explicitly taught, otherwise, the inequality gap widens. Next, I suggest that reading and writing should receive the same level of importance. After that, an explanation of different instructional practices is given and finally, discussions on the teacher knowledge needed to teach writing, is presented.

Instructional practices cover many aspects of what the teacher says or does in the classroom (Muller, Hofmann, Begert, & Cillessen, 2018). Firstly, instructional practices include teacher academic support provided to learners. This support covers answering learners' questions, explaining incorrect answers and taking learners' ideas seriously about how to solve problems (Wentzel, 2009). Secondly, instructional practices include whether the lesson is presented in an academically interesting manner or not (Schiefele, 2009). Examples include using different methods, examples and pictures for explanations and also using real life examples. Finally, instructional practices can also include teachers' abilities to use ability-differentiated

instructions where learners are provided with tasks according to their levels, to keep them focused on academic goals (Rock, Gregg, Ellis, & Gable, 2008; Steenbergen-Hu, Makel, & Olszewski-Kubilius, 2016).

Most teachers tend to avoid teaching writing; some divert to using gap fills where learners are supposed to fill in one-word answers and others use inappropriate methods which do not yield the expected results (Dornbrack & Atwood, 2019; Fleisch, 2008; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pineteh, 2014; Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999). The low levels of writing skills among first additional language learners is of significant concern in the education space (Blease & Condy, 2015; Pineteh, 2014). Teachers' lack of good writing instructional practices or writing pedagogies is one of the causes for these declining levels of writing skills among learners (Bertram, 2011; Blease & Condy, 2015; Brindle et al., 2016). Most teachers have a limited understanding of the different approaches that can be used when teaching or supporting learners to be good writers (Dornbrack & Atwood, 2019; du Plessis & Mestry, 2019). There are different approaches for teaching writing; these will be discussed in detail in the next subsection.

The nature of teacher change is at the core of second language teachers' professional development and practices (Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001). Teachers' beliefs play an important role in the process of change and teacher professional development. This means that changes in teachers' classroom instructional practices are as a result of changes in teachers' beliefs (Hsiang, Graham, & Yang, 2020). Whether teachers adapt, adopt or reject the curriculum changes, it depends on their beliefs and every educational intervention that ignores teachers' beliefs will be doomed to fail because the key to curriculum implementation rests on teachers (Hsiang et al., 2020; Richards et al., 2001; Smit, 2001). That is why in this study I argue that it is important for every teacher to be aware of the different approaches for teaching writing.

Writing is a social activity whereby learners develop and learn writing skills through active participation in their social and cultural context, including their classrooms (Hyland, 2003; Julius, 2013; Vygotsky, 1978). The role of teachers, language teachers in particular, is to present writing as a means of interaction with others within the social context and language teachers should also provide opportunities in the classroom for such articulation of ideas to

take place through writing (Hyland, 2003; Mpiti, 2016). In order for teachers to teach writing effectively, they need to be aware of the different approaches for teaching writing and be able to use them in their classrooms. The following section describes the four approaches to the teaching of writing.

2.6 Approaches for teaching writing

The teaching approaches are the core to effective teaching and learning since they enable the teachers to disseminate knowledge to the learners using various skills and techniques (Leach & Moon, 2008). The different approaches for teaching writing are the product approach, process approach, the genre approach and the balanced approach of teaching writing (Figure 1). These approaches were used in this study for analysing how teachers teach writing and for understanding which approaches underpin *Jika imfundo* and the PSRIP.

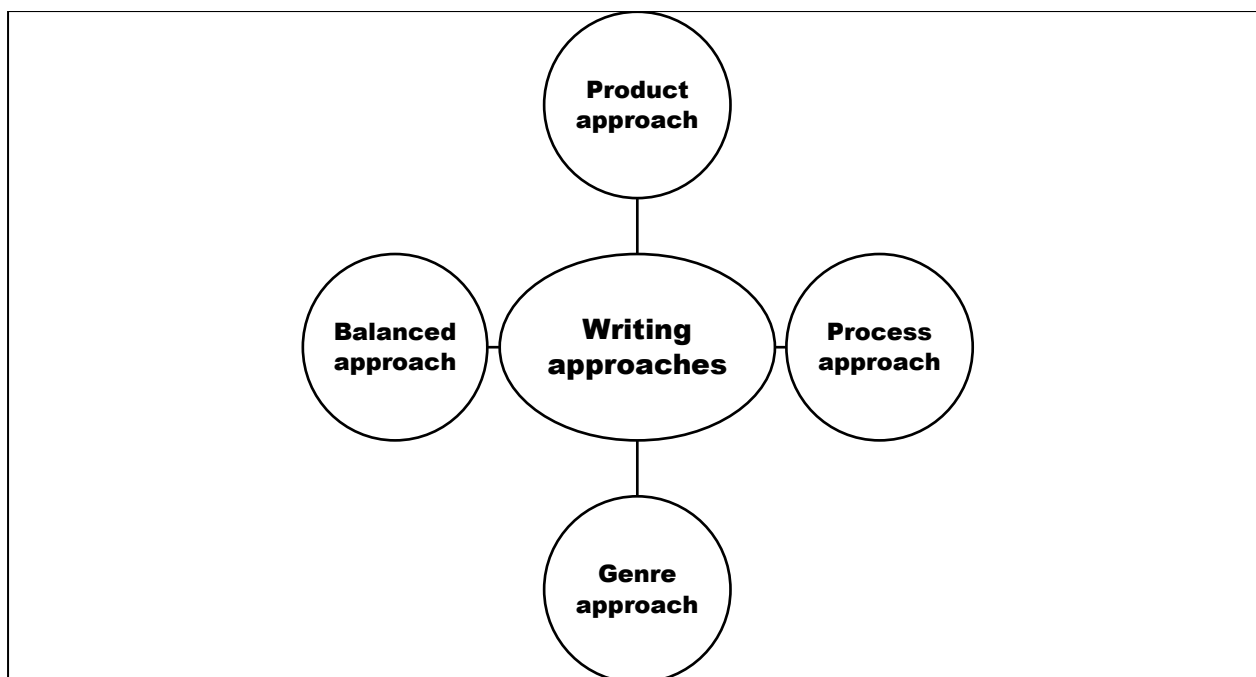


Figure 1: The approaches for teaching writing

2.6.1 The product approach

The product approach is one of the oldest approaches used in teaching writing skills. Its main focus when teaching writing is that learners focus on the writing model provided by the teacher and imitate it as much as possible when writing (Eschholz, 1980; Ngubane et al., 2020; Silva, 1990). Using this approach, teachers believe that learners learn writing through imitating other written texts, and its proponents believe that the more learners write, the more their writing proficiency improves (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). The product approach also focusses on the organisation of the text and its grammatical features rather than the ideas and thoughts presented within the text (Ngubane et al., 2020). Accuracy in grammar, spelling and punctuation is used as a measure of assessing learners' writing. This approach has been criticised for its focus on the use of correct grammatical features, spelling, punctuation and the end-product of writing, while neglecting teaching learners how to approach writing (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). However, some scholars think differently about the product approach, arguing that the product approach recognises that for learners to become efficient writers they need to develop their linguistic skills and competences across different texts (Badger & White, 2000). To do this, teachers are supposed to understand and also use other approaches when teaching writing skills.

2.6.2 The process approach

The process approach supports learners' writing practices through a series of stages ranging from planning, drafting, revising/editing and writing the final draft that is published (Badger & White, 2000; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017; Raimes, 1991; Tribble, 1996; White & Arndt, 1991). The teacher facilitates the writing process by supporting learners' writing development and giving feedback to learners, at each stage of writing, so that they can do self-corrections before moving to the next stage of writing (Ngubane et al., 2020; Tribble, 1996). Different to the product approach, learners in the process approach are not expected to complete and produce a final draft of a text immediately, however, they are expected to follow the writing stages of planning, drafting, revising, editing and writing their final draft/publishing. This is because the process approach assumes that some learners have little knowledge of writing when they enter the classroom and the teacher's role is to scaffold and support the learners' writing development. This support is done through the provision of adequate writing opportunities in the classroom (Hyland, 2003). Before learners can move from stage one to the next stage, the teacher supports each learner and guides them by giving feedback so that they can correct their mistakes before continuing. In this way, learners' writing skills develop as they keep on writing and are given feedback by the teacher (Sun & Feng, 2009). That is why in the process approach learners are encouraged to write more often. The focus is on how learners write as opposed to the end-product (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). The grammatical and language features are only emphasised during the editing stage, which is towards the end of the writing stages. Proponents of the process approach believe that the writing process is the same irrespective of the type of text written (Tribble, 1996). The process approach has been criticised because it ignores the context and the purpose of writing, which is why the genre approach was developed.

2.6.3 The genre approach

Apart from the product and process approaches to teaching writing skills, there is the genre approach which was developed based on Martin's Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) model of language that regards writing as being guided by the context from which it is produced and is determined by the purpose and audience for which writing is produced (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993a; Martin, 1993). At the centre of the genre-based approach is the belief that teachers ought to teach learners the explicit and systematic explanations of the ways in which language functions in social contexts (Blease & Condy, 2015; Martin, 1993; Vygotsky, 1978). This

perspective of writing suggests that learners ought to be introduced to writing for multiple purposes (Graham & Perin, 2007). These writing purposes include: communicating with others through the use of personal letters and notes; entertaining others through writing stories, creating plays and poems; informing others through the use of recipes and describing objects and places; and persuading others by expressing an opinion about controversial topics. Learners should be introduced to writing for these purposes at all grade levels with increasing levels of difficulty per successive grade (Graham & Perin, 2007; Graves, 1983).

Research has shown that learners can acquire more knowledge about writing through reading well-written literature that serves as a model, illustrating characteristics of good writing (Graham, 2008; Martin, 1993; Mgqwashu & Makhathini, 2017; Rose, 2004). Reading, therefore, demonstrates to learners how different texts are written and the different choices of words used to embed meaning and feelings (Graham, 2008) in different texts. The genre approach emphasises the interrelationship between reading and writing. The read texts become the models to be used by learners when they write their own texts (Graham, 2008; Graham & Perin, 2007).

Learners imitate their teachers in many ways. Learners will be more motivated to write if their teachers are enthusiastic about writing and encourage learners to write (Graham & Perin, 2007). This means that the way teachers teach writing reflects their own beliefs and personal competencies of writing. It should be noted that good teachers of writing also show their learners that they are writers by sharing their writing with the learners (Graham, 2008).

During reading, the teacher demonstrates how tenor, mode, and field are used to make meaning in each text. This knowledge is explicitly explained to learners, and it becomes useful when learners are expected to produce their own texts (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993a; Hyland, 2003). When using the genre approach, teachers are supposed to scaffold learners to produce texts similar to the ones read in class. Teachers using the genre-based approach should encourage learners to explore different genres and be able to effectively communicate in different contexts for different audiences and for different purposes (Blease & Condy, 2015; Martin, 1993; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). There is a need for educational pedagogies that can narrow the gap between “the haves”, and “the have nots”, those who can read and those who cannot read in the classrooms (Halliday & Martin, 1993; Mgqwashu, 2019; Rose, 2011). One example of such pedagogies is the Reading to Learn (RtL) pedagogy.

Reading to Learn uses a genre approach to teaching writing. It was started by Rose as a social justice project in an attempt to reverse the social inequalities faced by Australian Pitjantjatjara children, most of whom had dropped out of school (Rose, 2005). Rose's RtL pedagogy was then developed in response to urgent needs, particularly of indigenous and other marginalised learners, to rapidly improve reading and writing for educational access and success (Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2013). Reading to Learn focuses on teaching reading and writing to democratise the classroom, that is, to enable learning and to ensure the meaningful classroom participation of children who come from less advantaged backgrounds and who frequently experience a gap between home literacy practices and school literacy practices (Mgqwashu, 2019).

To develop this methodology, Rose (2005), drew from the three theories, viz, Vygotsky's social learning theory, Halliday's systemic functional linguistic theory and Bernstein's pedagogic discourse. Vygotsky's social learning theory views learning as a social process (Vygotsky, 1978). According to Vygotsky (1978), there are things learners can do on their own but there are those they cannot do unless there is a more knowledgeable other who can provide support or scaffolding until the learners can independently master the tasks on their own. Halliday's systemic functional linguistic theory, views language as being embedded in the social context (Halliday, 1993; Halliday & Martin, 1993). Bernstein's notion of pedagogic discourse is based on the realisation that education can be used to either widen or narrow the gap between the rich and the poor based on what is taught and how it is taught (Bernstein, 1990, 2000). These theories are combined in the Reading to Learn pedagogy to support learners whose literacies do not necessarily parallel those required by the schooling system (Gee 1991). To realise the objectives of the RtL pedagogy, a scaffolding interaction cycle is used (Figure 2). This cycle suggests that, in engaging with written texts, teachers need to ensure that learners are provided with the prompts or the cues necessary to understand the sequence of meanings at the whole text level, paragraph and sentence level and in words, sound/ letter patterns (Mgqwashu, 2019; Rose, 2009).

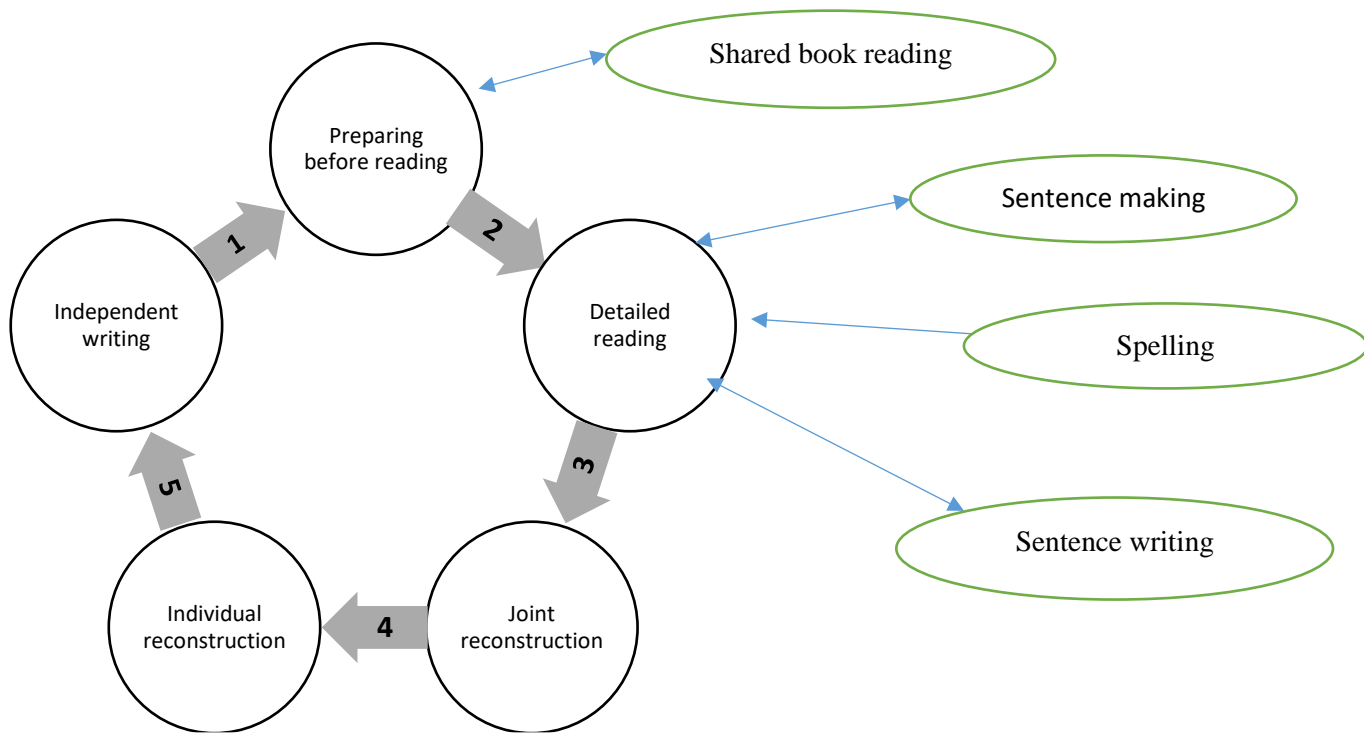


Figure 2: Scaffolding interaction cycle (Reading to Learn, 2015)

According to the RtL pedagogy, writing is taught after detailed reading (Reading to Learn, 2015). Writing begins with the teaching of spelling using words taken from the read text. The teacher guides learners on how to spell words using; onset and rhyme, syllables, prefix and suffix. The learners write the spelling activity and then proceed to a gap-fill using the spelling words as answers. In this way, learners recycle the spelling words more, as a way of reinforcing the ability to spell. Thereafter, the teacher and learners write a story on the board using joint reconstruction. Joint reconstruction is where learners take turns to write the sentences, of the new jointly written story, on the board. The teacher's role is to facilitate and support learners with spelling and remind them of the structure and sequence of the read text. Joint reconstruction is very important as it allows the teacher to show the learners how to write a story. Finally, the teacher then asks learners to write their stories as individuals where they change the characters, setting, problem and the solution. This serves as a way of scaffolding weaker learners. The ultimate goal is to prepare learners who will be able to write independently (Reading to Learn, 2015). Research has shown that learners who complete Grade 3 without developing age-appropriate literacy skills, which are reading and writing, are at high risk of not succeeding academically (Frankel et al., 2016; Snow & Matthews, 2016). The fourth approach, is the balanced approach which follows.

2.6.4 The balanced approach

All three approaches have received quite a number of criticisms hence a need for the fourth approach to teaching writing, using the balanced approach, also called the process/genre approach to teaching writing (which reflects its hybrid nature). The fact is that all three approaches discussed above, have both strengths and weaknesses and should not be seen as binary opposites but as complementary approaches. The advantage of using this balanced approach, is that it synthesises the strengths of the other approaches for classroom implementation (Badger & White, 2000; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). Using this approach, teachers would first make learners aware that writing occurs in a social context and situation, and that every piece of writing has a purpose to achieve. Some texts inform, explain, describe, narrate and others argue. Therefore, the language choice is determined by the text type written (message), purpose and the writer-audience relationship (tone) (Macken-Horarik, 2002; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). Models of different genres can be used to provide learners with specific information about the structure, language, tone and purpose of that genre (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). Having been exposed to the organisation, structure and language used in various texts, learners will then go through a process of multiple drafts (planning, drafting, editing and writing the final draft) instead of submitting a finished product right away. The teachers have a pivotal role to play in scaffolding learners during the writing process in that they constantly give learners feedback and also allow peer-feedback as well (Macken-Horarik, 2002; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). Literature has shown that when teachers do not understand the approaches for teaching writing they become confused and also fail to follow the curriculum requirements (Allen, 2015; Mpiti, 2016).

2.7 Principles for teaching writing

There are a number of principles that can be drawn from the literature about what constitutes good teaching of writing.

2.7.1 Writing should be explicitly taught in order to lessen the inequality gap

The curriculum expectation is that learners should have acquired reading and writing competencies before entering Grade 4, which is a reason why pedagogical practices from Grade 4 ignore the explicit instruction on reading and writing beyond the level of the foundation phase (Rose & Martin, 2012). These implicit reading and writing classroom practices, according to Mgqwashu (2019, p. 71), "favour the elite (mainly white and middle class) and marginalise the majority (mainly black students from rural and township areas)." Learners who benefit are those who, before schooling, have had exposure to reading at home (Mgqwashu & Makhathini, 2017; Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012). In most communities children from literate middle-class families, experience an average of 1 000 hours of parent-child reading before starting school, whereas those from poor and illiterate backgrounds experience little or none (Rose, 2005). These literacy gaps will always exist in our classrooms until teachers become change agents and autonomously seek better pedagogies for the explicit teaching of reading and writing (Calvert, 2016). Teachers have a responsibility to pursue the current struggle to narrow the gap between the learners who can read and write, and those who cannot (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009).

2.7.2 Reading and writing relationship

There is a robust consensus that reading and writing should be taught as two related activities (Halliday & Martin, 1993; Mgqwashu, 2019; Rose, 2005). Reading is a pre-requisite to writing, and no one can write what they cannot read (Rose, 2008). Literacy is, therefore, about the skills one uses to attach meaning to different literacy materials through the use of reading and writing (Frankel et al., 2016). This study focuses more on how writing, as a form of literacy is taught in Grade 3 classes, but recognises that reading is a key part of learning to write.

2.7.3 Teacher knowledge needed to teach writing

For teachers to be effective in what they do, they must possess what Shulman refers to as knowledge domains, like the CK (knowledge of what has to be taught) and PCK (knowledge of how to deliver the teaching) (Shulman, 1987). This means that, as the more knowledgeable 'others', teachers must have these types of knowledge that will enable them to deliver the best writing lessons to their learners. These are (a) knowledge of the subject matter; they must understand the subject matter (such as grammar, genres and paragraphing) and how it links to other subjects before they can teach, and (b) knowledge of how to teach. Teachers must have

a variety of methodologies and approaches to use when teaching writing so that if one method does not work as expected, they can alternate methods because there is no one pedagogy that can be effectively used to teach and support every learner (Louden et al., 2005). Pedagogy is the act of teaching (Alexander, 2000) just as practice is what teachers do (Green, 2009). One can, therefore, say that pedagogy (method) and practice (teaching) go hand in hand just as (Alexander, 2000, p. 12) noted that "teaching refers to an act of using pedagogy (method) X to help the pupils to learn Y".

2.8 Pedagogy and curriculum reforms

The South African schooling system over the last two decades has been characterised by several curriculum changes aimed at improving the quality of basic education (Msibi & Mchunu, 2013; Ramrathan, 2010). These curriculum changes do not only bring changes to the content of what is to be taught but also aim to change the teachers' pedagogy. This sometimes results in mixed reactions among teachers because such changes redefine teaching and what it means to be a teacher (Blignaut, 2008).

In South Africa, we have seen over the last two decades that much of the failure of education has to do with government's apparent preoccupation with curriculum instead of with teacher professionalism (Msibi & Mchunu, 2013). This is based on the traditional view, whose precondition is that the curriculum is to be used because it is believed to be the product of the experts and teachers simply use it by going through the motions dictated by the materials, just as an apprentice operates a machine in an assembly line (McCutcheon, 1988; Msibi & Mchunu, 2013). Contrary to this view, is the deliberationist's view that regards teachers as responsible, dedicated and morally-committed professionals who are able to make well informed decisions about their profession (McCutcheon, 1988; Msibi & Mchunu, 2013). The argument here is that government should focus more on teacher professionalism than with just curriculum (Msibi & Mchunu, 2013). In South Africa, there is a huge gap between curriculum designers ("experts") and curriculum implementers (teachers) (Msibi & Mchunu, 2013).

Recently, from 2016 we have seen the introduction of *Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP in South African primary schools, as described in Chapter One. These two programmes were introduced to assist teachers in teaching reading and writing and came with sets of tools, which describe

and support how teachers should teach and allow for tracking curriculum coverage (Metcalf & Witten, 2019; PSRIP, 2016).

When undergoing curriculum change, most teachers feel as if they have lost the sense of efficiency and the ability to deliver quality teaching and learning; this makes them reluctant to accept any proposed change (Hargreaves, Lieberman, Fullan, & Hopkins, 2000). This is also demonstrated by the fact that change not only affects what teachers do but also affects who they are and what it means to be a teacher (Ball, 2006). The introduction of *Jika imfundo* and the PSRIP brought many changes to the way teachers had been conducting their classroom writing instructional practices. Teachers were taught about how to use the new programmes when teaching writing. The expectation from the DBE is that all teachers have to use and follow these programme requirements and time frames.

The way in which change is brought upon teachers influences how they react to such change. When teachers fail to understand and identify with the proposed curriculum changes or programmes, they resist and reject their application (Fullan, 1993, 2001). For change to be well received, it has to be well introduced in such a way that teachers will see the need for such change and long for its benefits; this allows teachers to use their experiences and knowledge to embrace the changes (Spillane, Reiser, & Reimer, 2002). Research has shown that for change to be successful, teachers require that there be an ongoing supportive environment at the school, circuit and district levels (Moffet, 2000).

Curriculum designers need to know that teachers do not change their classroom instructional practices by being told to do so, but change occurs when teachers' beliefs and pedagogies have been altered in a meaningful way (Fullan, 2001). This occurs when teacher autonomy is restored, where teachers can make informed decisions regarding their profession, and by so doing, they become agents of change (Priestley & Biesta, 2013).

2.9 Conceptual Framework

In general, the word 'theory' refers to a set of analytical principles and statements designed to shape people's opinions, understanding and descriptions of the world or events (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996; Nilsen, 2015; Wacker, 1998). The objective of using a conceptual framework in this study is to categorise and define concepts applicable to the study

and map relationships among them (Rocco & Plakhotnik, 2009). The writing approaches will be used to analyse data on how teachers teach writing. This shows the importance of theories as they help the researcher to understand how and why participants behave in a particular manner. In this study, the teacher agency concepts will be used to explain why teachers responded the way they did to the introduction of *Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP. Hence, this study is informed by two conceptual frameworks: The approaches for teaching writing and the teacher agency model.

The different approaches to writing have already been described (refer to section 2.6 above). These different approaches were used to analyse the curriculum documents to ascertain which approaches to writing each document supported.

2.10 Teacher agency model

The teacher agency model is used in this study as a lens through which to understand and explain how teachers respond to curriculum changes, in particular the requirements of *Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP. Teacher agency is about the teachers' capacity to act within a supportive environment (Chapman, Wright, & Pascoe, 2018; Datnow, 2012; Naidoo, 2012; Priestley, Biesta, & Robinson, 2017). Teachers seldom adopt curriculum requirements as expected by official policy, but usually adapt these requirements in a range of ways (Biesta, 2010; Blignaut, 2008; Datnow, 2012). In this adaptation, teachers show agency. The three-time factors determine teacher's capacity to act (Figure 3).

Figure 3, below, presents a visual model of these time factors in the model (past, present and future) and is described in more detail thereafter. These were used to collect and analyse data on how teachers responded to the introduction of *Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP in their schools – whether they adapted, adopted or rejected the new programmes.

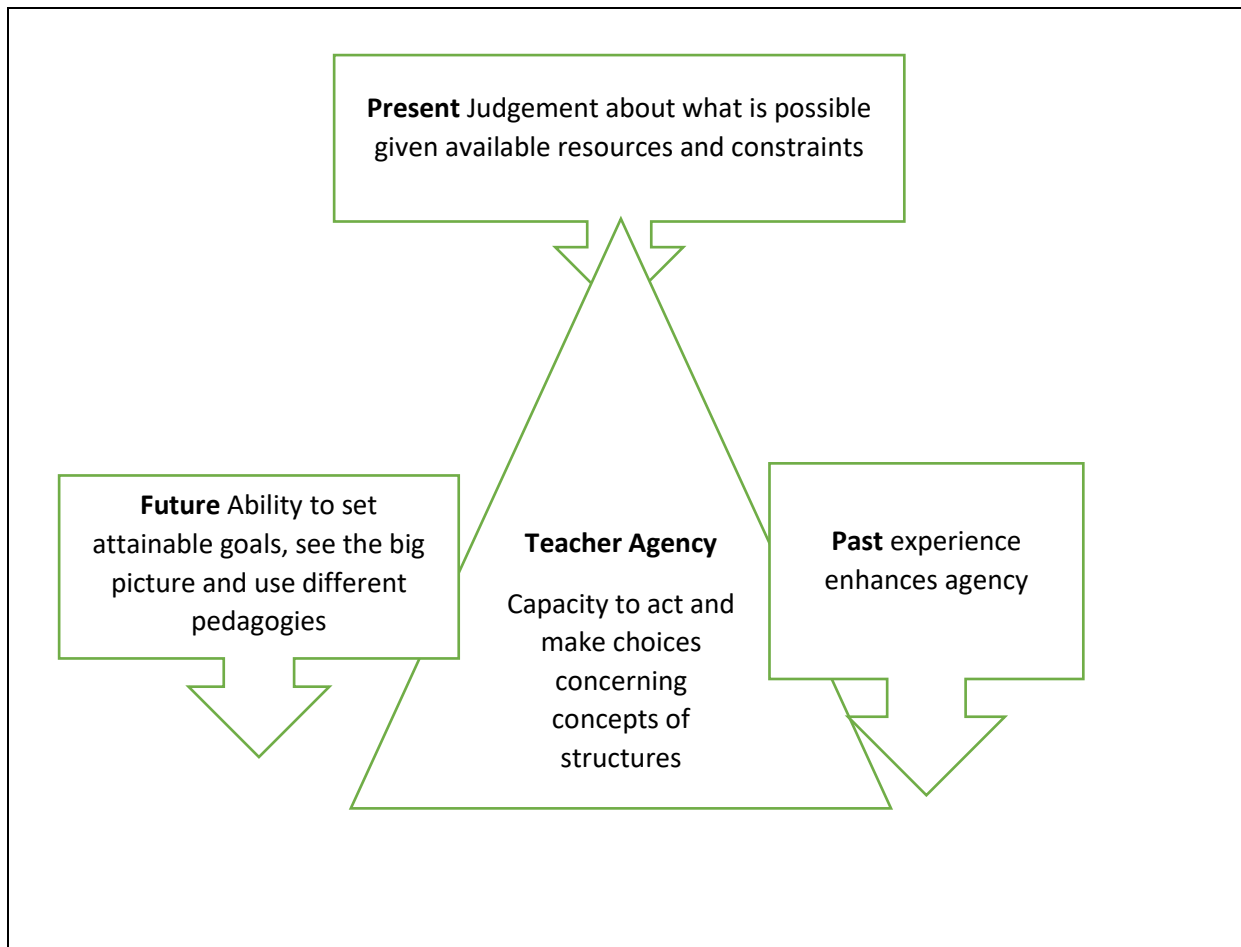


Figure 3: An ecological approach to agency (Priestley, 2015)

2.10.1 Past

The past, as part of the time domains, illustrates how teachers' past experiences are used by teachers when making decisions (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998; Priestley, 2015). One's history of teaching and learning provides a rich experience and a solid foundation for one's identity and ensued agency (Samuel, 1998). When teachers are faced with tough challenges, it is a natural state of mind to find refuge in one's biography, background where one is reminded where they come from and who they are (Sanmuel, 2008) . Teachers' past experiences, therefore, have a great influence on what they do today. This means that the more experienced and educated a person is, the more likely it is for such a person to use agency better than another who is less experienced. This is also determined by teachers' prior experiences and participation in curriculum innovation process, which are vital in teachers' pedagogical thinking and curricular changes (Salminen & Annevirta, 2016). In this study, teachers' past experiences of teaching writing would influence how she or he interprets the requirements of the given curriculum.

2.10.2 Present

Available resources and constraints determine the level of agency teachers can bring now (present). The present is very important in life because it is the only context in which things can be acted upon (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). When responding to the demands and possibilities of the present, teachers are constantly required to either adopt, adapt or reject the changes brought by the ever-changing environment, diverse needs of learners and curriculum transformation demands. Some teachers become upset when they encounter reforms that inform them that their pedagogy that they have been using for years, is wrong (Blignaut, 2007, 2008). When teachers do not identify with the policy or curriculum programme to be implemented, they simply undermine and reject its implementation (Fullan, 1993, 2001). The teachers' school context, the resources in the school (such as a library), their collegial relationships and the supportive nature of the management are all aspects that could inform how the teacher interprets and enacts the given curriculum.

2.10.3 Future

The future represents the teachers' ability to visualise and imagine the future through the incoming change and this is more likely to bring about teacher agency (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). This future dimension is driven by teachers' purpose of bringing about a future that differs from the past and the present. Focussing on the future, teachers' conventional structures of thought and action may be creatively reconfigured in relation to their hopes, fears and desires for the future (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). In this study, teachers operating in the future dimension will have to demonstrate and envisage future success through the proposed change. Teachers are influenced by the future in order to prepare for it. The success of every curriculum change depends on how well equipped teachers are for the future (Biesta & Tedder, 2007; Samuel, 1998)

Teacher agency is not only about the characteristics which teachers possess, but it is about what they do using their available resources, structure and environment (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). According to Emirbayer and Mische (1998), teacher agency has to be understood as a provisional embedded process of social engagement informed by, firstly, the past experiences of teachers helping them to accelerate change. Secondly, it is impacted by teachers' present ability to make informed judgements about options with given resources and restrictions and finally, to look towards the future through being able to imagine alternative pedagogical

possibilities (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). These act as motivations causing teachers to adjust to change without hesitation.

2.11 Chapter summary

The literature review has aimed to provide an understanding of the various debates impacting this research as well as literacy issues relating to Grade 3 teachers' self-expressed writing practices. Firstly, this chapter began by explaining that literacy challenges are both a global and South African phenomenon. Next, it provided explanations for the poor literacy in South African schools. Then it explained some of the instructional practices for teaching writing used by teachers. Thereafter, approaches and principles for teaching writing were discussed. Finally, pedagogy and curriculum reforms and the conceptual framework used was discussed. The conceptual framework used in this study was explained, elaborating on the approaches for teaching writing, used as the lens for collecting and analysing documents and how teachers teach writing. The teacher agency model was used to explain why teachers may react in different ways when it comes to curriculum changes. Teachers' reactions are determined by the past, present and future dimensions and these make them either good or bad change agents. The next chapter focuses on the methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The research methodology provided in this chapter explains how the research project was executed in a way that answered the research questions. In this chapter, I defined the research approach, and the paradigm used in this study. This, in turn, provided the context for explaining the data collection instruments used (document analysis, questionnaires and interviews) in answering the research questions. Thereafter, detailed explanations of the sampling procedure and ethical issues were provided. Finally, I elaborated on the ethical issues specific to this study and how I adhered to them, including how trustworthiness was ensured in this study.

3.2 Research approach and paradigm

When conducting research, researchers use different approaches to answer the research questions. Some use quantitative approaches, relying on scientific methods and produce numerical data, whereas other researchers use qualitative approaches, which are about the researchers' interpretation of phenomena to the level of concepts and statements of facts producing textual data (Cohen et al., 2018; Creswell, 2003). Some researchers use a mixed-method approach, which is a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches in their research. The use of the mixed-method approach is a demonstration that the two traditional approaches (quantitative and qualitative) should not be seen as binary opposites but as complementary approaches (Cohen et al., 2018; Creswell, 2003; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). This study uses the mixed-method approach, by using the language, concepts and methods of both the qualitative approach and quantitative approach within the same study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

3.2.1 Mixed-method approach

The mixed-method approach uses both quantitative and qualitative approaches, thus producing a research outcome that is stronger than either approach individually (Cohen et al., 2018; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Malina et al., 2011). Studies using mixed-method approach must use at least one of the data collection methods from both qualitative and quantitative approaches respectively (Gallivan, 1997). Hence, in this study the use of a survey represented

the quantitative approach and the use of interviews and document analysis represented the qualitative approach.

There are various types of qualitative approaches, including case study (investigating a single case that can be clearly differentiated from other cases), ethnography (focusing on investigating a network social customs, groupings, beliefs and practices that define a “culture”), grounded theory (uses data from the participants to develop an explanation or theory for the process in question developed over time), phenomenology (investigating the lived experiences of individuals in relation to the phenomenon under study and how the internal or cognitive processes triggered attitudes, feelings, beliefs and opinions) and narrative enquiry, which is about investigating one’s history (Cohen et al., 2018; Creswell, 2007; Percy, Kostere, & Kostere, 2015). According to Percy et al. (2015), when the study does not fit into any of the five qualitative approaches, the researcher can use the generic qualitative inquiry approach. This study uses the generic qualitative inquiry approach because it became clear that the other approaches were not appropriate (Percy et al., 2015). In this study the aim is to understand how Grade 3 teachers teach writing in response to the DBE programmes. It is not about how the teachers feel when teaching writing but how the external content (*Jika imfundo* and the PSRIP) has influenced their writing instructional practices. “Generic qualitative inquiry is a useful approach when attempting survey research that includes qualitative elements in a mixed design” (Percy et al., 2015, p. 78).

Data analysis in a mixed-method approach is done in two different ways and this is referred to as a “parallel mixed approach because both qualitative and quantitative (analysis) approaches run simultaneously but independently in addressing research questions.” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 39). In this study, data collected using the questionnaire (Appendix C) was summarised using descriptive statistics created with Google Forms (refer to sub-section 3.4.1.3 below). Data from interviews was transcribed verbatim before analysis was used to find patterns and codes for the formulation of themes (refer to Table 3). Data from document analysis was deductively analysed in relation to the approaches (refer to Appendix G) used when teaching writing (refer to sub-sections 3.4.2.4 and 3.4.3.3 below). In this study, qualitative and quantitative data were independently analysed and presented (Gallivan, 1997). The use of mixed-method approaches has both strengths and weaknesses.

3.3.1.1 Strengths of using a mixed-method approach

The main advantage in using the mixed-method approach in this study is that a survey enabled the researcher to include a much bigger sample thus obtaining breadth of data, while the interviews provided more in-depth data with fewer participants. It should be noted that the Covid-19 social (physical) distancing protocols meant that an online survey was an appropriate tool to use. Numerical data were obtained from the sample of teachers who responded to the questionnaire and such data was further explored through the use of in-depth interviews with teachers from this sample.

The use of a mixed-method approach enables a researcher to use triangulation of data sources and to explore more complex aspects and relations of both the natural and social world (Malina et al., 2011). This offered triangulation as the findings from one approach could be verified using the other approach (Gallivan, 1997) within the same study, context, and timeframe, thus creating the research outcome that is much stronger than would be the case with either method individually (Grammatikopoulos, Zachopoulou, Tsangaridou, Liukkonen, & Pickup, 2008). The use of a mixed-method approach allows for thinking 'in other terms', thus providing new insight and understanding (Malina et al., 2011; Rossman & Wilson, 1984).

3.3.1.2 Weaknesses of using a mixed-method approach

The use of a mixed-method approach is time-consuming when it comes to collecting and analysing two sets of data (Gallivan, 1997). However, in this study, the use of questionnaires created using Google Forms automatically generated descriptive statistics and graphs illustrating participants' responses, which saved time.

3.2.2 Pragmatic paradigm

In the journey of making sense of the world, researchers work from different viewpoints and beliefs. A research paradigm is a system of "logical" ideas about the nature of the world and the researchers' positions which condition their thinking patterns, and their research actions (Bassey, 1999; Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Cohen et al., 2018).

There is an ongoing dispute between the proponents of the positivist paradigm (quantitative) and interpretive and constructivist paradigm (qualitative), about which paradigm is more reliable and valid (Grammatikopoulos et al., 2008; Greene et al., 1989). According to the

positivist paradigm, social observations need to be treated as objective entities just as physical scientists treat the physical phenomenon (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maxwell & Delaney, 2004). Many positivists emphasize that educational researchers must reduce their bias and be emotionally disconnected from the subjects of their research (Grammatikopoulos et al., 2008). On the other hand, the constructivist and interpretive researchers argue that multiple-constructed realities abound, that reasoning flows from specific to general with explanations inductively generated from data (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Their emphasis is on the inseparability of the knower and the known because the subjective knower is the only source of reality (Guba, 1990). The third research paradigm, pragmatism, which uses the mixed-method approach, is not a replacement of either positivist or interpretive/constructive paradigm but it offers a new perspective with strengths from both positivist and interpretive/constructive paradigms alike (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This study can be located in the pragmatic paradigm.

The pragmatic paradigm refers to a worldview that focuses on "what works" rather than what might be considered absolutely and objectively true or real (Cohen et al., 2018). Proponents of this paradigm believe that there is no single social inquiry using a single scientific method that could access truths regarding the real world. Pragmatists regard reality as equally socially constructed and objective (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The pragmatic paradigm helps in enhancing communication between researchers from diverse paradigms in an endeavour to advance understanding (Maxcy, 2003; Watson, 1990). This has shed light on how the two paradigms can be successfully mixed in a singular study (Hoshmand, 2003). The combination of different research approaches offers the best opportunities for answering complex research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Pragmatism offers a direct and beneficial middle position both methodologically and philosophically (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

3.3. Data collection methods and instruments

As a mixed-methods researcher, I could use different data generation techniques, thereby capitalizing on the strengths of different data collection instruments. There is no single

instruction for the data collection method, but during the selection stage, the researcher is guided by the issue of fitness of purpose (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007).

In this section, I present the data collection methods and data collection instruments used. I also address the strengths, weaknesses, and how data is analysed within each data collection method. Data collection methods used in this study consist of an online survey using questionnaires as a data collection instrument, interviews using a semi-structured interview schedule as a data collection instrument, and document analysis.

3.3.1 Survey

A survey is a quantitative data collection method that is structured using a series of written questions given to a sampled population (Cohen et al., 2007, 2018). Surveys are characterized by the collection of quantifiable data from large numbers of people in an organized and systematic way through the use of a representative sample (May, 2011). This sample is a fraction of a large group of individuals from known populations (Cohen et al., 2018). In a survey, questionnaires were used as data collection tools.

3.4.1.1 Questionnaires

In a questionnaire a list of questions is used for the respondents to answer (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020). Questionnaires can either be designed with open-ended questions or closed-ended questions. Open-ended questions allow the respondents to answer the questionnaire in their chosen words appropriate for an answer, whereas closed-ended questions prescribe a variety of responses from which the respondents may choose (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Cohen et al., 2018). The questionnaires in this study only had closed-ended questions (refer to Appendix C). Closed-ended questions are easy to answer and they generate data that is both easy to code and to analyse (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014, 2020; Cohen et al., 2018).

I designed an online version of the questionnaire using Google Forms. This internet software allows the researcher to create the questionnaire and to distribute it via email or WhatsApp message to the participants. Once the respondents complete the questionnaire, they press send and it automatically updates and adds the information to Google Drive database. The software

generates descriptive data showing how many participants responded as well as responses in graphs and Excel document format.

The questionnaire comprised three (3) sections (refer to Appendix C): Section A captured the teachers' biographical information; section B focussed on the teachers' beliefs about writing and responses to the curriculum programmes; and Section C covered how teachers reported their teaching of writing skills and their knowledge and beliefs about teaching writing. The questionnaire can be seen in Appendix A. Teachers' responses to section C reveal what they say they do within the four walls of their classrooms (Wray, Medwell, Poulson, & Fox, 2002).

I first piloted the questionnaire to test its validity (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Cohen et al., 2018). Validity is described as the ability of an instrument to measure what it is intended to measure (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014, 2020; Cohen et al., 2018). Piloting means the testing of data collection instruments (questionnaires) in a trial set before the final data collection instrument (questionnaire) is distributed to the sampled participants (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Rule & John, 2011). Piloting assists in identifying potential misunderstandings and confusing questions, to be amended and simplified before the final tests begin (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Rule & John, 2011).

The questionnaire was piloted using the participants (sample) from Harry Gwala District. This district was selected for piloting because it possesses similar characteristics (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020), to the research district (uMgungundlovu District) in terms of their population distribution and the teachers use isiZulu as their mother tongue/home language in the foundation phase as their LoLT. Piloting helped in identifying errors and ambiguous questions in the questionnaire. Amendments were made to the questionnaire, which was designed in English, before it was distributed to the actual research participants. For instance, the questionnaire I used for piloting had both closed ended and open-ended questions. None of the respondents responded to the section with open ended questions. Having open ended questions therefore did not work. I therefore amended the questionnaire and only used close ended questions for the actual study.

3.4.1.2 Strengths and weaknesses of using a questionnaire

The main strength of using a questionnaire is that it is easy to administer and is also cost-effective (Cohen et al., 2018). It allows the researcher to collect data from a wide range of

participants (refer to Table 1 for the response rate). However, online questionnaires have some shortcomings in that where there is no network coverage, the participants will not be able to respond. Plus, there is no guarantee that the questionnaire was completed by the intended person and the absence of the researcher can lead to misunderstandings if the language used is not clear and the questions are ambiguous (Cohen et al., 2018; Sarantakos, 2005). The need to minimize this shortcoming was the reason for the piloting of the questionnaire, mentioned above (Cohen et al., 2018). The use of closed-ended questions has been criticised in that it restricts the participants to choose answers provided in the questionnaire without giving them the liberty to express themselves in their chosen words to describe their feelings (Cohen et al., 2018).

Table 1: Study response rate

Total population	Approximately 298 Grade 3 teachers in the district
Sample size	n=50
Total responses	n=31
Usable responses	n=31
Total response rate (%)	62%

3.4.1.3 Data analysis of quantitative data

As explained (in sub-section 3.4.1.2), the use of the Google Forms platform has major advantages when it comes to data analysis since the platform generates descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics refers to the transformation of responses into percentages or into graphs showing how many responded in a similar way (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020). Such statistics “make no inferences or predictions; they simply report what has been found in a variety of ways” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 727).

3.3.2 Interviews

An interview is a method used to collect data and knowledge from individuals through a conversation (Kvale, 1996). Through an interview, interviewees can discuss their perceptions, feelings, and interpretations of a situation in question (Cohen et al., 2018; Kvale, 1996). There are diverse types of interviews: structured, semi-structured, unstructured, and non-directive

interviews. Structured interviews are used to get fixed-range answers by asking mostly closed-ended questions, and don't allow the interviewer to ask probing questions (Bryman, 2001). In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer conducts a conversation in a way he/ she sees fit and the interviewer can ask for an explanation if the answer is not clear (Corbetta, 2003). In an unstructured interview, the interviewer does not follow a detailed interview guide (Cohen et al., 2007; Kvale, 1996). Non-directive interviews have no planning but the interviewer follows what the interviewee has to say and the interviewee leads the conversation, with the interviewer checking for accuracy (Gray, 2004).

In this study, I used semi-structured telephonic interviews. Semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to probe by asking for clarities if the response given is not clear (Cohen et al., 2018). The semi-structured interview schedule was designed using open-ended questions (refer to Appendix E and F). Open-ended questions are not restrictive in that they allow the respondents to answer in their own choice of words (Cohen et al., 2018).

3.4.2.1 Telephonic interviews

The use of telephonic interviews, as opposed to face-to-face interviews, was the best option under the Covid-19 pandemic and lockdown regulations. Through the telephonic interviews, the researcher aimed to deepen the data that was generated from the survey. This enabled the researcher to gather more details about the participants' responses. Six of these Grade 3 teachers were interviewed using semi-structured telephonic interviews and the interviews were audio-recorded using an automatic call recorder, transcribed later. According to Merriam (1998b), audio recording allows the interviewer to focus on understanding the responses and to probe where necessary and then transcribe later. To ensure trustworthiness of the interview transcripts, member checking was done, giving the participants a chance to verify the contents of the transcriptions. Interview transcripts were read many times to identify patterns to be coded manually. The codes were also grouped together to formulate themes.

The description of the interview participants is given in detail in Chapter Four. In keeping with the policy of anonymity as discussed earlier and for reasons associated with the ethical considerations outlined in section 3.6, to follow, individuals are not identified by their real names but pseudonyms are used.

3.4.2.2 Strengths of using telephonic interviews

The use of telephonic interviews was the best option for use during the data collection period because of the previously mentioned Covid-19 national lockdown regulations. While needing to remain indoors and maintain social distancing, while abiding by travel restrictions, through telephonic interviews, I was able to talk to the participants freely without the risk of spreading or contracting Covid-19. Telephonic interviews are easy, cost-effective, and safe to administer (Cohen et al., 2018). Other benefits include the flexibility and convenience in that they can be conducted at times most convenient to the interviewees. The strength of using a semi-structured interview is that it allows the interviewer to ask probing questions so that the respondent can provide in-depth information and clarity when required to do so (Burns, 1999). It can be argued that people feel at ease when they tell you about their personal experiences knowing that the interviewer is not able to see them, but only to hear them. This can provide some form or degree of confidentiality when using telephonic interviews (Cohen et al., 2018).

3.4.2.3 Weaknesses of using telephonic interviews

When interviewing a respondent telephonically, it becomes impossible to establish if the person responding to the questions is the person you intended to interview. Also, the interviewer cannot assess body language when a response is given to a question (Cohen et al., 2018), which reduces the amount of information communicated.

3.4.2.4 Data analysis of interviews

Data from the interviews were transcribed verbatim. I then read the transcripts many times in order to establish codes which were then consolidated to formulate themes.

Thematic inductive analysis is a method used in qualitative research for identifying, analysing and reporting themes (patterns) existing in the collected data (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2014). Thematic analysis describes and plainly organises your dataset in more detail. In this study, I analysed the interview transcripts to formulate themes (Table 2).

I used manual coding in arranging qualitative data. For the interview transcripts I used descriptive focus coding to describe teachers' self-expressed writing instructional practices and how they responded to DBE curriculum programmes. Descriptive focus coding is used to describe what the researcher sees or what is said by the participants, without making any

judgement or interpretations (Adu, 2019). This happened after thorough reading of the interview transcripts with the aim of making sense of available data.

Table 2: Steps followed when creating themes (Adu, 2019)

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6	Step 6
Label research questions	Search for relevant information in the data	Create and define codes	Assign codes to relevant information	Arrange codes alphabetically and sort them	Consolidate the codes, to avoid repetition	Sort codes and then create clusters/themes

3.3.3 Document analysis

The word document refers to an archived source of information, like oral testimonies, writings, archaeological remains or photographs and official sources of information (Caulley, 1983). Document analysis is used as part of a data collection method under the qualitative approach and is helpful since the contemporary world is made through writing and documentation (Prior, 2003). I analysed the *Jika iMfundo* (Table 3) and the PSRIP (Table 4) documents to understand the writing approaches that inform these documents. In analysing these documents, deductive methods were used to link these documents to the writing approaches informing them. I created a checklist with the categories for the writing approaches and matched each document (*Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP) to these categories (Appendix G).

The *Jika iMfundo* programme makes use of two Grade 3 documents per term. These are the tracker and the teacher’s toolkit. The tracker (tracking tool) was not analysed because it contains details of the content to be taught and the timeframe for doing so. This tracking document was not relevant in my study because it is used for monitoring curriculum coverage whereas my study focusses on how teachers teach. The second document is the teacher’s toolkit, 116 pages long. This document contains methodologies on how to teach different skills ranging from, listening and speaking, reading and viewing and writing (The National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT), 2015). I analysed the Term 2 Teacher Toolkit because it is representative of the other documents for the other terms. In this document, the writing activities are repeated every week, throughout the year.

The PSRIP makes use of four Grade 3 documents used per term; the tracker, resource pack, worksheets and lesson planner. The PSRIP tracker gives details of what is to be taught in a term. The resource pack contains pictures and flashcards containing spelling words to be taught in a term. The worksheets include classroom activities and tests to be completed by learners in a term. The lesson planner contains methodologies to be followed by teachers when teaching different skills, like speaking, reading and writing. I only analysed the lesson planner because it has details on how writing is to be taught and I was able to collect data to answer the research question using deductive analysis based on the different approaches for teaching writing.

3.4.3.1 Strengths of using document analysis

The analysis of documents is done to scrutinise and interpret them (Caulley, 1983), and to establish the writing approaches underpinning them. The use of document analysis is cost-effective and saves time since it involves data selection instead of data collection (Bowen, 2009). The *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP documents are in the public domain and are thus readily available to be used as and when needed (Bowen, 2009). Documents as data sources, are stable and are not affected by the presence of the researcher (Merriam, 1998a). Document analysis provides wide coverage, covering a long period of time, numerous events, and various settings (Yin, 1994).

3.4.3.2 Weaknesses of using document analysis

Documents do not always provide enough details to answer research questions because they were produced independently of the research agenda (Bowen, 2009). There is a likelihood of biased selectivity when the researcher fails to collect enough documents needed for the study (Yin, 1994). To minimise this, I used all relevant documents available that may work as teacher lesson planners for the implementation of these DBE programmes.

3.4 Sampling and recruitment

3.4.1 Survey respondents

Teachers were only considered eligible to participate in the study if they had taught Grade 3 in 2019. The teachers who were new to teaching Grade 3 were excluded because the 2020 academic year was affected by Covid-19 before they could engage much with their learners. I designed the questionnaires and the letter of consent to participate in the study and distributed

to the Grade 3 WhatsApp groups (refer to Appendix C). This became the population from which I was going to purposively select participants for the telephone interviews.

The questionnaire, together with the consent letter was distributed to Grade 3 English FAL teachers from uMgungundlovu District. The uMgungundlovu District was chosen for the study due to their relatively good performance in the ANA tests of 2014 where this district was placed in second position (60.4%) after Umlazi District (62.4%) (D.B.E, 2014, p. 92). It was convenient for me to distribute the questionnaire to uMgungundlovu teachers as they had an active WhatsApp group for Grade 3 teachers. This group was created by the subject advisor with the aim of sharing teaching material and communicating with the Grade 3 teachers. The two foundation phase subject advisors from the pilot and study districts provided access to the participants. The subject advisors requested the Grade 3 teachers who were willing (as stated in the consent letter attached to the questionnaire) to participate in the study, to respond to my questionnaire. I forwarded my questionnaire to the subject advisors and they, in turn, distributed them in the Grade 3 WhatsApp groups.

To monitor the distribution of my questionnaire in the WhatsApp group, I nominated trusted teachers from each district as informants. Their role was to inform me as soon as the questionnaire was distributed. These “informants” played a major role in providing the number of teachers in the WhatsApp group, without revealing their personal details. This information was important to obtain so that I could calculate the total number of participants to whom the questionnaire was sent, in order to work out the response rate later.

3.4.2 Interview participants

Of the 31 survey respondents, eight indicated willingness to participate in telephone interviews. They did this by writing their names and cell numbers in the questionnaire, after being informed that this was not compulsory. Willingness to participate in a study is one of the ethical requirements (Cohen et al., 2018; Resnik, 2011). Of the eight interview candidates, three were using *Jika iMfundo* and five (5) were using the PSRIP. Two of the PSRIP candidates were used for piloting the interview questions. Six teachers participated in the actual telephonic interviews which made up the main study (three using *Jika iMfundo* and three using the PSRIP). All my interview participants had IsiZulu as their mother tongue.

3.5 Ethical issues

During every step of the research process, I ensured that ethics was given careful consideration. The “understanding of ethical principles and procedures assists a researcher in preventing abuses that could occur and helps outline his or her responsibilities” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 58). I gave utmost priority to the three ethical principles: autonomy, non-maleficence, and beneficence (Bell, 1999; Cohen et al., 2007).

The autonomy of every participant was respected by obtaining consent. Firstly, I obtained permission from the gatekeepers, the KZN Department of Education (refer to Appendix A), to conduct my research among teachers from KZN schools. Next, I applied for and received ethical clearance from University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) Ethics Committee – Reference number HSSREC/00000971/2020 (refer to Appendix B). Then I approached my participants, through their subject advisors (refer to sub-section 3.4.1.1) to complete the questionnaires. The questionnaires included a consent letter, explaining the rights of the participants (refer to Appendix C).

Non-maleficence is the principle that deals with the issues of protecting the participants from harm. Firstly, I assured my participants that the information received would be kept confidential at all times. I assured them that their identities will never be disclosed to anyone. To ensure anonymity, I used pseudonyms in the study.

Beneficence was adhered to by undertaking to do the research carefully and providing the participants with a copy of the research findings which could be read and reflected upon.

3.6 Trustworthiness

In this section, I briefly explain how I maintained trustworthiness throughout the study. Since this is a mixed-method study, I had to rely on the concepts from both quantitative and qualitative methods.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, I piloted (for details refer to 3.4.1.1) it using a small sample before administering it to the actual sample. This enabled me to identify misunderstandings in my questionnaires and to correct them before the actual study started (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Cohen et al., 2018). This assisted in eliminating possible threats to validity. Validity is defined as the "appropriateness of interpretations, inferences, and

actions that we make" (Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 143). This means that with validity more focus is on the point of whether an item measures or describes what it was meant to describe. Irrespective of the research method used, it is vital for the researcher to "assess the extent of reliability and validity of the study" (Bell, 1999, p. 103).

To strengthen trustworthiness in the use of interviews and document analysis I had to maintain credibility, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility is a measure of how plausible and credible the research findings are as drawn from the participants' original views. To ensure credibility in this study, triangulation was used by using a mixed-method approach, member-checking and piloting of data collection instruments (Cohen et al., 2018; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Dependability is about the evaluation of the findings and if they are supported by data collected from the participants (Cohen et al., 2018). In this study, dependability was ensured through transcribing the interviews verbatim, translated where necessary, and to be kept in safe storage for at least three years. Confirmability is based on whether the findings of the research project can be confirmed by other researchers undertaking the same study in another context (Cohen et al., 2018; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I first prepared the interview schedule which assisted in ensuring that I asked my participants similar questions. I also used an automatic call recorder to record my conversations during the interviews and these were transcribed later (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020). As previously mentioned, I also piloted my interview questions by interviewing two participants who had indicated willingness to be interviewed. I piloted the telephone interviews to test how the questions were interpreted.

To minimise bias in my study, I used triangulation, through the use of three different data collection instruments, the survey, the telephonic interviews and the document analysis (Bertram & Christiansen, 2020; Cohen et al., 2018).

3.7 Limitations of the study

The first limitation of my study is the sample size and the fact that the sample was not randomly selected. I only sampled the Grade 3 teachers to whom I had access thus the survey data can only be generalised to the participants who completed the survey. The second limitation concerns data collection methods used. Due to Covid-19, I could only use data collection methods that enabled social distancing. It was not possible to conduct classroom observations

to actually observe how teachers teach writing in practice, thus the study relies only on the teachers' self-reported data.

3.8 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I elaborated on the purpose of the study, the research approach, and paradigm, highlighting their strengths and weaknesses. I then gave a detailed explanation of the data collection methods and instruments used and also highlighted their strengths and weaknesses. This allowed me to elaborate on the sampling procedures used and ethical issues. Thereafter, I elaborated on the steps I followed to ensure the trustworthiness of my research. Finally, I listed the limitations of my study. The next chapter presents the findings of the research,

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present and analyse the research findings which emerged from both quantitative and qualitative data collected through a survey (questionnaires), semi-structured telephonic interviews and document analysis. I collected data using surveys, and semi-structured interviews from a group of teachers from uMgungundlovu District.

In this chapter, I first present the document analysis of the *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP documents. Next, I explain the survey response rate and respondents' biographical information. Then, I describe the interview participants, and this leads to a brief description of data analysis criteria and methods for identifying themes. Finally, I present both quantitative and qualitative data under the identified themes.

4.2 Document analysis

One of the research objectives of this study was to understand which writing approaches inform the *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP curriculum documents. To find answers, as explained in Chapter Three, the documents analysed were the *Jika iMfundo's* teacher toolkit and the PSRIP lesson planner for term 2 (two). These documents were representative of documents for the other school terms and were produced for wide circulation in all public schools in KZN (for more details refer to sub-section 3.4.3.4). I analysed these documents to identify the writing approaches they support, using four approaches which are described in the literature. The documents were analysed using deductive reasoning. Deductive reasoning begins with the general principles/theories or rules and links them to the activities or applications (Prince & Felder, 2006). In this study, I used the four writing approaches to categorise what the documents require regarding the teaching of writing. By analysing what the documents instruct teachers to do when teaching writing, I was able to identify which writing approach/ approaches underpinned these writing instructions.

4.2.1 Jika iMfundo writing methodology

My analysis of the *Jika iMfundo* writing methodology, (Table 3) revealed that the focus of the *Jika iMfundo* writing lessons is on supporting learners to be able to write paragraphs, using

punctuations and spelling common words correctly. This gives learners writing opportunities where they create their sentences, using the model provided by the teacher on the board. The use of a paragraph model, to be used by learners when writing is one of the elements most prevalent in the product approach (refer to sub-section 2.8.1) of writing where the focus is mainly on the final product instead of the process followed when writing (Fatemi, Vahedi, & Seyyedrezaie, 2014; Ngubane et al., 2020). This data shows that *Jika iMfundo* expects teachers to use the product approach when teaching writing.

Table 3: Sample of Jika iMfundo Writing lesson instructions (The National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT), 2015, p. 10).

Jika iMfundo writing methodology for Term 2 week 1

Activity 2	Writing
Time	30 Minutes
CONTENT/CONCEPTS/SKILLS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writes a paragraph of four to six sentences on a familiar topic Uses punctuation already taught in Home Language Spells common words correctly and attempts to spell unfamiliar words using phonic knowledge Builds own word bank and personal dictionary
RESOURCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing books, crayons and pencils
ACTIVITY DESCRIPTION	
<p><u>Focus of the lesson:</u> Writes a paragraph of four sentences using punctuation correctly and spelling common words correctly.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prepare the learners for the lesson. They must have writing books, crayons and pencils on their desks. Tell the class about different things that you like about school and why you like them. Write four sentences on the board about what you like and why you like these things. For example: I like to come to school because I enjoy teaching you. I also like break when I can eat my food. I enjoy eating peanut butter sandwiches. I like going home because I am tired after a day at school. Read your paragraph with the learners. Tell them that this is a paragraph. It has one main idea-what I like about school. All the sentences are about what I like about school. Ask a few learners to tell the class what they like about school. Then say: Write a paragraph of four sentences about things you like about school. Draw a picture underneath your sentences to show what you like. Remind the learners to punctuate their sentences correctly. Tell the learners if they don't know how to spell a word, they must bring their personal dictionaries to you, and you will write the word in them. Walk around and help learners when necessary. Take in the books and mark the learners' work. Explain the homework to the learners and check that they know what to do. Reflect on the lesson. 	

4.2.2 PSRIP writing methodology

The PSRIP lesson plan documents expect the teachers to follow the same writing routine every week. There are four writing activities per week, on Monday, Tuesday, Thursday and Friday (refer to Table 4 below). These activities are performed as follows: planning and drafting on Monday and Tuesday, editing on Thursday, where the teacher gives learners a checklist to use when editing their work. During editing, learners check if they have used the correct punctuation, correct spelling and capital letters where needed. On Friday, learners produce a final draft for publishing and sharing. Each writing activity has a topic that is the same for the week. This topic guides teachers on what is to be written and for what purpose. Topics differ from week to week. It is worth noting that for the three days (Monday, Tuesday and Friday) learners are guided on how to write using a frame (gap-fill), and learners use this frame as a writing model.

The above activities and tasks indicate that the PSRIP follows the different stages of writing (referred to in the documents as tasks) and this shows that the PSRIP documents support the process approach for teaching writing (refer to sub-section 2.6.2).

My analysis of the PSRIP documents revealed that by only using the gap fill activities, PSRIP does not offer Grade 3 learners enough writing opportunities where they (learners) can learn to create their sentences.

Table 4: Sample of the PSRIP writing instructions (The National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT), 2016, pp. 45-63).

PSRIP Writing methodology for Term 2 Week 1

<u>Week 1 : Monday: Writing (15 minutes)</u>	
Topic	Write a paragraph about a time you practised and practised something new.
Task	Planning & Drafting
Writing Frame	I wanted to learn... I practised and practised... It was...
<u>Week 1: Tuesday: 15 minutes)</u>	
Topic	Write a paragraph about a time you practised and practised something new.
Task	Planning & Drafting
Writing Frame	I kept on... Finally... I felt...because...
<u>Week 1: Thursday: Writing (15 minutes)</u>	
Topic	Write a paragraph about a time you practised and practised something new.
Task	Editing
Write the following checklist on the board or photocopy for learners. I used capital letters. I used punctuations (.?!) I read my sentences out aloud. I checked my spelling. (I circled words I need help with)	
<u>Week 1: Friday: Writing (15 minutes)</u>	
Topic	Write a paragraph about a time you practised and practised something new.
Writing Frame	I wanted to learn... I practised and practised ... It was... I kept on... Finally... I felt... because...
Task	Publishing and Sharing

Tables 3 and 4 above, give a clear distinction on the writing instructions of *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP. These two documents differ on how writing should be taught, with PSRIP paying more attention to the writing stages which are used to support learners before they produce the final product. In contrast, *Jika iMfundo* pays more attention to the use of correct punctuations, capital letters, spelling and the end product of writing.

These two documents are similar in that they require teachers to provide learners with the theoretical knowledge of writing, like grammar (language rules), sentences and paragraphs. However, the PSRIP goes further through providing a supportive and collaborative instructional learning environment within which learners get adequate time to work through the process of writing, as Silva (1990) once said about the role of teachers in the process approach:

the teacher's role is to facilitate students to develop workable strategies for getting started (helping students to find topics, generate ideas, information, focus and plan structure and procedure), for drafting (encouraging students to do multiple drafts), and for editing (attending to vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar and mechanics) (p.15).

The major difference between the PSRIP and *Jika iMfundo* is that the PSRIP only uses gap-fills (fill in the missing words) throughout the writing lessons. For example, I wanted to learn... I kept on... Learners are not given a chance to start their own sentences but only fill in one-word answers using the frame provided, a practice discouraged by many (Blease & Condy, 2015; Brindle et al., 2016). However, *Jika iMfundo* allows learners to create their own sentences emulating the model provided by the teacher.

Neither of these documents show signs of supporting the genre approach and the balanced approach. I noted that neither *Jika iMfundo* nor the PSRIP makes the relationship between reading and writing explicit.

4.3 Respondents' biographical details

Of the 50 questionnaires distributed, 31 were completed and submitted (refer to sub-section 3.5.1). The following table indicates the demographic profile of the 31 survey respondents, covering questions 1–8 of the questionnaire.

Table 5: Demographic profile of the survey respondents

<u>Profile</u>	<u>Options</u>					
<i>Gender</i>	<i>Females</i>	<i>Males</i>				<i>Total No</i>
n=	31	0				31
<i>Age (years)</i>	<i>20–30</i>	<i>31–40</i>	<i>41–50</i>	<i>51 and above</i>		
n=	4	8	10	9		31
<i>Years of teaching Grade 3</i>	<i>0–5</i>	<i>6–15</i>	<i>16–25</i>	<i>26 and above</i>		
n=	12	11	4	4		31
<i>Highest formal qualifications</i>	<i>Matric</i>	<i>Diploma</i>	<i>Degree</i>	<i>Honours</i>	<i>Masters</i>	
n=	1	3	13	12	2	31
<i>Educational qualifications</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>Teaching certificate or diploma</i>	<i>ACE/A CT</i>	<i>PGCE</i>	<i>B Ed Degree</i>	
n=	1	4	5	5	16	31
<i>Post Level</i>	<i>PL 1</i>	<i>D.H/HOD</i>	<i>Deputy. Principal</i>	<i>Principal</i>		
n=	23	3	1	4		31
<i>Programme used now</i>	<i>Jika iMfundo</i>	<i>PSRIP</i>				
n=	19	12				31
<i>Writing methodology used before</i>	<i>Reading to Learn methodology</i>	<i>Foundations for learning methodology</i>	<i>Taught like I was taught when I was in Grade 3</i>	<i>Had no formal methodology</i>	<i>Used Jika iMfundo</i>	
n=	4	9	4	5	9	31

The above findings show that all of the respondents were females. This data shows that there were less youthful teachers in the sample, and most were middle-aged (41–50 years). This data indicates that most teachers, 12 (38.7%) in this sample, had taught Grade 3 for a period of fewer than five years. The majority of the respondents, 13 (41.9%) had undergraduate degrees, and one (3.2%) only had Grade 12. This data shows that most of the sampled teachers (96.8%) are qualified teachers. However, it is concerning to realise that in 2020, there is a teacher who teaches with only a matric certificate. A majority 23 (74%) out of 31 respondents were post level 1 (PL1), educators. The data shows that 4 (12.9%) of the sampled teachers were principals. The majority of the respondents, 19 (61.3%) used *Jika iMfundo*, while 12 (38.7%) used the PSRIP. Data from the survey shows that most teachers (83.87%) said that they had writing pedagogies before the introduction of *Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP. However, it is worrisome to note that 5 (16.13%) of 31 teachers reported that they had no methodology to use when teaching writing, before the introduction of the two DBE programmes.

Literature has shown that the numbers of male teachers in the foundation phase are increasing steadily (Mukuna & Mutsotso, 2011), however, the findings from this study confirm that the dominance of women is still prevalent in the foundation phase (Petersen, 2014). This female dominance in the foundation phase is underpinned by the perception that teaching in the foundation phase is regarded by many teachers as another form of ‘childcare’ (Petersen, 2014). This is not a South African problem only since in Tanzania, teaching in the lower primary level was regarded as a low-status job meant for female teachers only (Akyeampong, Pryor, Westbrook, & Lussier, 2011). It can happen that these beliefs are still existing today but this relates to the sample not the whole teacher population in South Africa.

Another concern from the above data, is pertaining to the high number of foundation phase teachers (from the sample) who are approaching the retirement age. The recruitment of young qualified teachers to join the foundation phase is needed.

4.4 Interview participants

Eight (8) of the 31 teachers who completed the survey indicated their willingness to participate in the telephone interview. Of the eight interview candidates, three were using the *Jika iMfundo* programme, and five were using the PSRIP. Two of the PSRIP candidates were used for piloting the interview questions. Six teachers participated in the actual telephonic interviews

(3 using *Jika iMfundo* and 3 using the PSRIP). I am now giving a brief description of the interview participants. In keeping with the policy of anonymity and ethical considerations, I identified these individuals using pseudonyms instead of using the participants' real names.

4.4.1 The three Jika iMfundo participants

As indicated above (4.4) three of the participants were using *Jika iMfundo* and they indicated willing to participate in an interview. These were Zoleka, Ntebo and Thobi. They possessed different characteristics in terms of teaching experience, educational qualification and the writing pedagogies they were using before being introduced to *Jika iMfundo*.

(a) Zoleka

Zoleka had been teaching Grade 3 for 11 years and held a B. Ed. degree which is a formal teacher qualification from a South African university. Before being introduced to *Jika iMfundo* Zoleka was teaching writing using the Molteno Project Programme. The Molteno Project was a non-governmental organisation that specialised in the teaching and learning of language skills in most African countries (Makgamatha & Masehela, 2005).

(b) Ntebo

Ntebo had taught Grade 3 for about 25 years. She held a B. Ed. degree and B. Ed. Honours degree which is a post-graduate degree. Ntebo was a school principal. Before being introduced to *Jika iMfundo*, Ntebo was teaching writing using Foundations for Learning.

(c) Thobi

Thobi had taught Grade 3 for three years. She held a teachers' diploma in education and an Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE). She reported teaching using *Jika iMfundo*. Before being introduced to *Jika iMfundo*, Thobi was using the RtL methodology.

4.4.2 The five PSRIP participants

The five candidates using PSRIP were Amanda, Norma, Hellen, Mara and Zodwa. Of these five candidates, Amanda and Hellen were selected for the pilot study. The remaining three candidates (Norma, Zodwa and Mara) participated in the telephonic interviews which formed the actual study.

(a) Norma

Norma had taught Grade 3 for the past 13 years. She held a B. Ed. Degree and a Masters' degree. She was using Reading to Learn methodology before being introduced to PSRIP. She was a post level one (1) teacher.

(b) Zodwa

Zodwa had taught Grade 3 for the past five years. She held a B. Ed. degree and B. Ed. honours. Before using PSRIP, Zodwa has been using the RtL methodology.

(c) Mara

Mara had taught Grade 3 for the past sixteen (16) years. She held a PGCE teaching qualification and the B. Ed. honours degree. Before using the PSRIP, Mara was using *Jika imfundo*.

4.5 Data presentation (Themes)

This section presents an inductive analysis of data gathered from the questionnaires and the interview transcripts. I present findings from both quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously using themes structured as sub-sections below. The following themes are presented: Teachers support learners' writing by modelling stories; teachers' understanding of writing pedagogies; teachers' experiences of shifting to new writing pedagogy; challenges faced by learners in their writing classes; and how teachers adapt the DBE programmes to meet classroom challenges.

4.5.1 Teachers support learners' writing by modelling stories

When asked what they believe should be done about learners who progress to Grade 3 without mastering the writing skills, all survey respondents (31) stated that Grade 3 learners without writing skills must be supported until they can write. This data shows teachers' beliefs and willingness in promoting the teaching and learning of writing skills. They did not think that the learners should be ignored, nor should just progress to the next grade.

Data from the survey were triangulated through the use of interview data. Interview participants were asked how they support learners who cannot write in Grade 3. The participants' answers reflected their beliefs and self-expressed writing instructional practices. It was interesting to note the variety of responses received based on how they supported learners in the writing journey. There were no significant differences between the *Jika imfundo* and the PSRIP participants' answers when it came to how they helped learners to write. Below is Norma's

explanation of how she supports learners through reading activities and by modelling writing on the board:

Ahh, I expose them to reading stories. By telling them stories written by other people, it's for them to see how words are written. This [story]telling helps them when they write their stories; they have this vocabulary from the stories they have read and is also familiar to them. I start by helping my learners to write the story on the board so that they can have a feel of how to write a story.

This response indicates the belief that for learners to be able to write, they must first be exposed to reading, since no one can write what they cannot read (Martin, 1993; Rimensberger, 2014; Rose & Martin, 2012). Norma then shows learners, on the board, how to write meaningful sentences and paragraphs. This was also supported by Nondu's response when asked how she helps learners who cannot write. She said, ***"What I do in my classroom is to model."*** Sbahle also said something similar about modelling when she said:

When you want to teach the writing of a story, start by reading a story with them and show them the features of a story like a title, setting, characters, problem and solution. Do this using a story they have. They have to know who did what, where and when. Learning takes place when the teacher shows them how this [writing is done], not just telling them what to do.

It is worth noting that Sbahle places emphasis on the teacher's role in showing learners how to write not just telling them to write. Zodwa, in the following quotation, takes it further by indicating that she supports learners according to their needs:

I give them activities where they change the original story we were reading in class. Sometimes they change characters here and there. But I won't say it helps all of them, but it helps most of my learners. Learners are not the same; some of them still require more support.

Zodwa's response is an indication of the problems in EFAL classes, where learners are struggling to construct sentences, and she supports them by giving them simplified tasks so that everyone can write something at his/her level.

Nandi's response shows the relationship between reading and writing and how she supports those who cannot do both:

Those who cannot read are hard to support because he who cannot read won't be able to write. Reading leads to writing, and these are pairs going hand to hand. Sometimes I give struggling learners [a] few or just one sentence to work with. I then remove some words from the sentences leaving gaps to fill. Learners start by filling in the missing words.

According to Nandi, it is not easy to support a learner who cannot read and write. Nandi then gives learners gap-fill activities as a start to prepare them for complicated tasks. Similarly, so, Zoleka said the same about supporting learners who cannot write, ***“This is a challenge for me. I normally give these learners work for the previous grade until they can master it.”*** It is interesting to note that these two participants agree that supporting learners who cannot read and write is not a comfortable experience.

Nondu had the following to say about supporting learners who cannot write, ***“When you teach them, you first model for learners, tell them the difference between words, sentences and paragraphs.”*** Nondu also emphasised the importance of modelling. She went further by emphasising the need for teaching learners so that they can have more English words (vocabulary), sentences (words combined to make meaningful sentences) and paragraphs (sentences written one after the other to expand the message from the main sentence).

4.5.2 Teachers' understanding of writing pedagogies

This section presents information about the teachers' writing pedagogies which they were using before the DBE intervention as well as their rating of the new programmes compared to their old writing pedagogies.

The respondents had to answer if they had any methodology to use when teaching writing, before the introduction of the new DBE programmes (*Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP). Five of the survey respondents (16.13%) said that they never had a specific methodology to use when teaching writing. This lack of writing methodology is problematic, considering that about 97% of the survey respondents had teacher qualifications. Also, the high rate of qualified teachers

in the research sample could be that the post-apartheid government's intervention in upgrading underqualified teachers by offering the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) and the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) has paid off (Fleisch, 2008; Reeves & Robinson, 2014).

Interview participants were asked if their teacher training prepared them for how to teach writing. It was surprising to find that four out of six participants indicated that their teacher training did not prepare them to teach writing. This lack of writing pedagogy confirmed what the literature said about teachers who could not teach writing because their teacher training did not give them skills to do so (Brindle et al., 2016; Dornbrack & Atwood, 2019; Reeves et al., 2008; Schulze, 2015).

In the survey, teachers had to answer if the DBE programmes (*Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP), are providing them with skills and methods to use when teaching writing. Three of the survey respondents (9.7%) said No, and three (9.7%) selected Not Sure, while most agreed that the programmes did provide them with skills and methods (Figure 4).

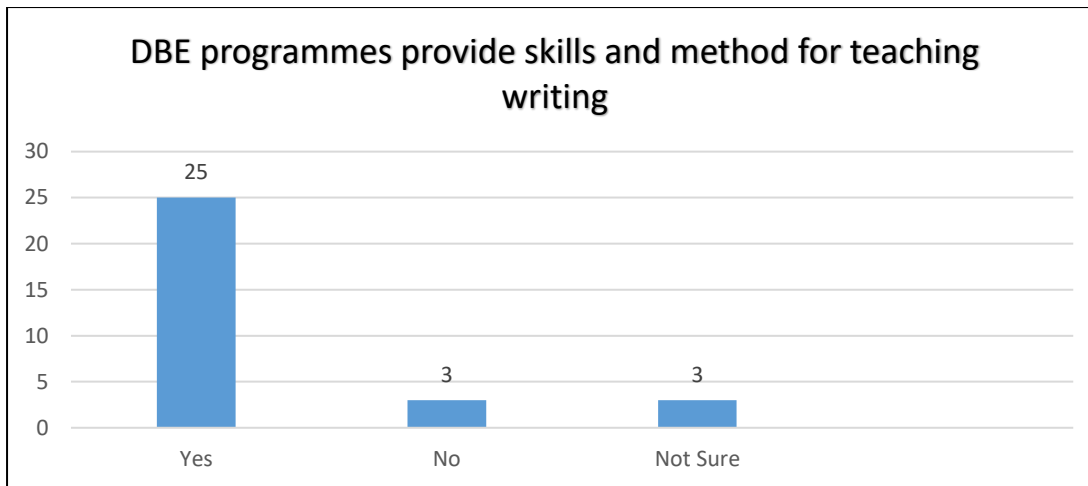


Figure 4: DBE programmes and skills/method for teaching writing

The above survey data indicated that most of the survey respondents agreed that the DBE programmes provided them with skills and methods for teaching writing. Whenever there are DBE workshops for either *Jika iMfundo* or the PSRIP, all Grade 3 teachers are released from their schools so that they can attend these workshops. The workshops cover all skills to be taught by teachers, from listening and speaking, reading and phonics, to writing and language use.

Interview participants were asked to explain how the new programmes (*Jika iMfundo* or the PSRIP) want them to teach writing. The participants’ answers would demonstrate their understanding of the new methodology requirements when it comes to the teaching of writing. The responses are presented here separately, starting with teachers using *Jika iMfundo* and then teachers using the PSRIP. The following three teachers used *Jika iMfundo*. Their responses were similar in that they all focussed on planning writing lessons using modelling.

Ntebo had this to say about how she teaches writing, **“*Jika iMfundo expects us to model to the learners. You first show learners how writing is done, and after that, they write imitating the story done in class.*”** Ntebo’s explanation indicates that she uses modelling as a way of guiding learners to be good writers. Using this methodology, the teacher shows learners a model of the story the learners should emulate when writing. This description reflects the product approach to teaching writing (refer to sub-section 2.6.1) as explained in the literature (Ngubane et al., 2020; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017)

Thobi's response linked reading and writing: ***“with Jika iMfundo, we read a story first and then guide learners to start writing, imitating the story read.”*** Like in Ntebo's response, Thobi's response emphasised the importance of the use of a model that will be used by learners when writing their stories. The emphasis in Thobi's reaction is about reading the story as a starting point and guiding learners to write, imitating the story read in class, which is an example of the product approach as explained in the literature (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017; Silva, 1990).

On the other hand, Zoleka talk about using pictures to stimulate writing:

Jika iMfundo gives us conversation posters where learners are encouraged to discuss stories from the big books, with pictures. Using Jika iMfundo, we put [up] a conversation poster with pictures. Learners look at the pictures and then write what is happening in those pictures.

This explanation indicates that the teacher uses pictures when teaching writing and learners write sentences describing what the images are about. This approach is more aligned to the product approach and the genre approach (refer to sub-section 2.6.3).

The following three respondents were using PSRIP, and they explained the writing process in the same way.

Norma had this to say about how she teaches writing using PSRIP:

PSRIP writing is based on the story read, but we are expected to let learners complete the sentences using a frame. I would write a sentence and leave blank lines where they will complete over those lines on their own. I give them an example by completing the sentence, and I draw lines where I would fill in words and write over those lines. When I am done demonstrating, I rub off the board and give them a chance and let learners write using their creativity, but on their own.

In this explanation, Norma uses a frame (gap-fill) when introducing her learners to writing, but she starts by showing learners how to complete such sentences. Norma further explains the different stages of writing she uses when teaching learners to write short stories:

When it comes to writing short stories, I guide them to plan first about what to write. I check their planning and comment on it before they do the first draft. They can't do the first draft without me checking their planning first. Then they edit and revise their work using the editing checklist before writing the final draft.

This explanation provided by Norma is clear to follow and indicates that she understands that the PSRIP uses the different stages of writing viz; planning, first draft, editing and publishing/ writing the final draft. Zodwa also shared Norma's explanation as she paid more attention to the writing stages followed when using PSRIP:

With PSRIP, you first give them a writing frame. You then ask them to do the first draft and give it to you for marking and give them feedback. Next, they correct their mistakes and bring to the teacher again; then they edit their work before writing the final draft. After writing the final draft, they share and read their final work in the class because they must practice sharing and reading what they've written.

Zodwa's explanation had content and was clear about her method for teaching writing in class. Zodwa and Ntebo's sentiments were also shared by Mara when she explained how she teaches writing:

PSRIP wants learners to know words and phonics. Learners are expected to learn these word sounds from the story. During writing, learners are guided through the use of planning, first draft, editing and revising for the final draft. Writing follows this sequence and learners cannot move to the next step of writing without presenting their work to the teacher for comments and feedback first.

This response gives a clue on steps followed when teaching writing.

Having looked at these three explanations by teachers using PSRIP, it became clear that these are steps followed by someone using the process approach when it comes to the teaching of writing as per literature (Fatemi et al., 2014; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017; White & Arndt, 1991). Thus, the teachers seem to be following the requirements of the PSRIP faithfully, which requires the process approach.

4.5.3 Teachers' experiences of shifting to a new pedagogy

As all human beings do when it comes to reactions to change, teachers experience curriculum change in different ways. As a result, some adapt, adopt or reject change altogether depending on many factors like life experiences, level of education and perspective of the envisaged change (Biesta & Tedder, 2007; Fullan, 1993; Msibi & Mchunu, 2013; Spillane et al., 2002).

In the survey, teachers had to rate how they felt about the new DBE programmes they were using and also to give reasons as to why they felt so about it. Figure 5 shows how they responded:

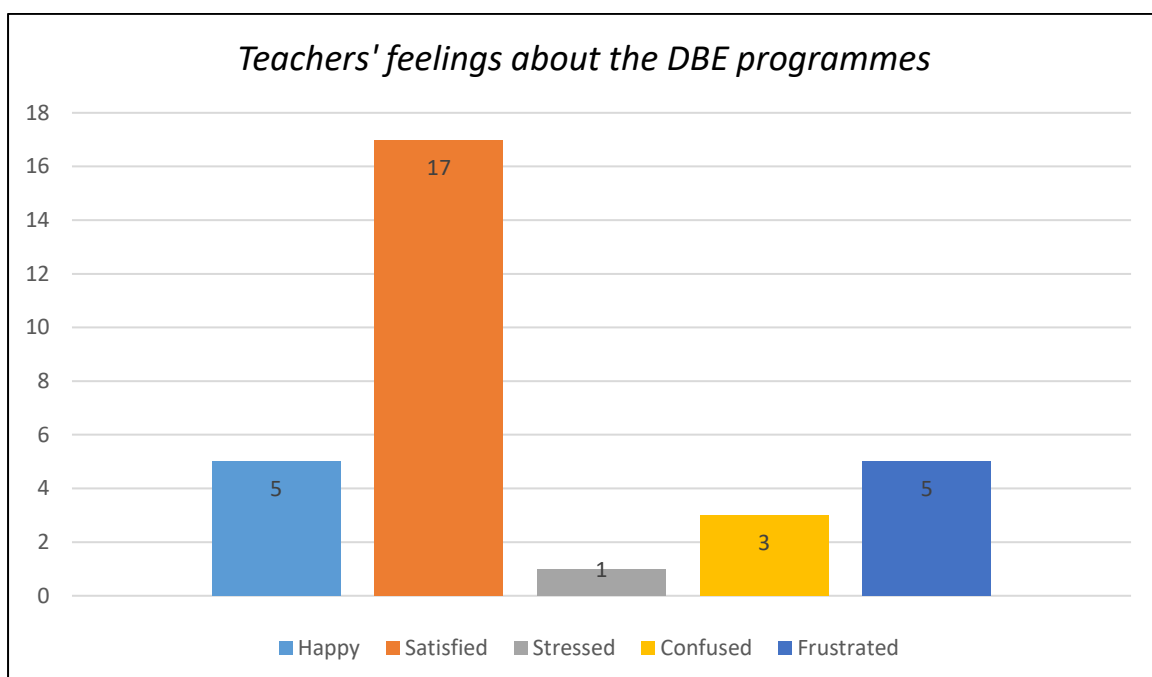


Figure 5: Teachers' feelings about the DBE programmes

The above table shows that 22 respondents were happy or satisfied with the DBE programmes. However, nine respondents were either stressed, confused or frustrated about the new programmes. Teachers become stressed when the curriculum implementation is not possible. This happens in the present time dimension and it determines how teachers react, either they adapt or they reject the new curriculum (Fullan, 1993, 2001).

I compared the teachers' responses based on the writing methodology they were using before the introduction of either *Jika iMfundo* or the PSRIP. I identified some patterns in the way teachers responded among those who were using the RtL Methodology before being introduced

to the PSRIP and also from those who were using *Jika iMfundo* before being introduced to the PSRIP.

Two of the survey respondents using PSRIP, one selected **“frustrated”** and the other selected **“stressed”** and they gave the same reason of feeling in this way. They reasoned that **“PSRIP assumes that learners already have enough English vocabulary as a resource for writing.”** In this response, teachers are acknowledging that learners lack English vocabulary to use when writing. One respondent who was using *Jika iMfundo* selected **“not happy”**. She said she was not happy about *Jika iMfundo* because the methodology she was using before (RtL) provided more direction and guidance on how writing should be taught, compared to *Jika iMfundo*. This response compares the RtL writing methodology and *Jika iMfundo* writing methods and the respondent felt that RtL was better than *Jika iMfundo* in its writing methodology.

On the contrary, the survey respondent who had no formal methodology for teaching writing before being introduced to *Jika iMfundo*, selected **“happy”** and the reasons for being happy was that it **“Offered steps on how to teach writing.”**

Teachers who previously had teaching methodologies compared the new method to their old ones. They became **“frustrated”** or **“stressed”** which was different to the teacher who never had any pedagogy for teaching writing. She found the introduction of *Jika iMfundo* was helpful and made her **“happy”**.

One respondent was using *Jika iMfundo* before their school was introduced to the PSRIP. In the survey, she selected **“frustrated”**, and the reason for feeling like this was that **“PSRIP assumes that learners already have enough English vocabulary as a resource for writing.”** Learners start writing activities when they have not received enough preparation nor been exposed to enough language to use. When learners fail to write, teachers become frustrated, more especially when the new methodology fails to support such learners.

I had to triangulate the above survey responses through the use of interview questions. The interview participants were asked to **“Explain how the writing methodology of *Jika iMfundo* or the PSRIP differ from the one they were using before.”**

Comparing PSRIP and RtL methodology, Norma stated that ***“PSRIP expect[s] learners to start writing on the first day of the week.”*** Whereas, ***“Using RtL I can show learners how to write, we then write a story together on the board and at the same time, I assist them in building their vocabulary. Using RtL, I teach everything using the same text, e.g. grammar, tenses, punctuations and even the structure of a story.”*** Norma’s response is in line with the cause of frustration highlighted by the survey respondents when they said that PSRIP assumes that learners already have enough English vocabulary as a resource for writing.

Similarly, Zodwa stated that ***“PSRIP wants learners to complete sentences using a frame, not to start their own stories like with RtL.”*** She believes that when learners complete a frame, they are denied opportunities to create their own sentences. She went further stating that:

With RtL, there are many activities done to support learners like cutting sentences into words or word groups and making sentences again. PSRIP doesn't want learners to explore all of these. Learners, in PSRIP are just prescribed with stuff [frame/gap-fill to complete], and you know because we are teachers, we always use RtL here and there because you can see that PSRIP doesn't want children to be able to explore themselves in writing.

This response indicates Zodwa’s judgement of PSRIP and she thinks RtL methodology is more effective when it comes to the teaching of writing. It appears that she still uses aspects of RtL where these are useful.

Mara’s comparison of the PSRIP and *Jika iMfundo* writing pedagogy:

PSRIP is different from Jika iMfundo. PSRIP focuses on guiding learners in the writing process and [does] not let them do things on their own. The process starts with planning, first draft, editing and final draft. I don't remember any methodology brought by Jika iMfundo. All I remember is that Jika iMfundo had tracking tools to monitor curriculum coverage. Under Jika iMfundo, we had to teach the way we were teaching before, but we had to cover everything from the CAPS requirements. I can't recall any particular Jika iMfundo methodology.

Mara explains why *Jika iMfundo* teachers struggled to explain how *Jika iMfundo* expects them to teach writing. When comparing the responses, there are significant differences in terms of clarity and demonstration of understanding between the two sets of data provided. *Jika iMfundo* participants could not clearly articulate the *Jika iMfundo* writing pedagogy. Still, they concentrated on using modelling as a way of teaching writing, whereas the PSRIP participants were able to give a step-by-step guide on the PSRIP writing pedagogy. This data seems to indicate that the PSRIP gives a clearer guide to teachers on writing methodology, but it does not provide teachers with strategies to use in order to develop learners' vocabulary.

4.5.4 Challenges faced by learners in their writing classes

The majority of learners in EFAL classes come from communities in which English is not used often, and learners have little or no exposure to print media; most learners have never been to libraries (Pineteh, 2014; Pretorius, 2015; Verbeek, 2010). Thus, it may be surprising that 71% (22 out of 31) of respondents indicated that their learners' extended writing skills were at an average level. However, 9.6% (3 out of 31) respondents said that their learners had poor extended writing skills.

The interviews helped to deepen my understanding of the causes for learners' poor writing skills. Interview participants were asked the following question: "*What are the challenges that your learners face in writing extended texts in English?*" This question required teachers to describe and reflect on their learners' writing practices.

Five of the six participants indicated in an interview that their learners could not write well because they lacked English vocabulary. Norma's comments about learners' vocabulary challenges support this assertion, "***Their English vocabulary is minimal. So, for them to write effectively, they need to have a rich vocabulary.***" The vocabulary problem was also echoed by Mara when she stated that, "***When our children learn English writing, we find that they lack English vocabulary.***" Similarly, Thobi had the following to say about the lack of English vocabulary among learners:

Writing sentences is problematic since our learners have limited vocabulary. They don't have enough English words to use when writing. As a result, they battle to construct sentences since you need English words to form English sentences.

This, was also stated by Zoleka when she emphasised that, ***“Our learners have limited English vocabulary.”*** This data has shown how essential vocabulary is to process of writing process.

Data from the interviews have revealed two main reasons for learners’ lack of English vocabulary: Teachers’ overuse of the mother tongue instructions during English classes and learners having reading problems. Teachers’ overuse of mother tongue instructions during English classes was cited by three out of six interview participants as the primary contributor to the learners’ lack of English vocabulary. Most Grade 3 teachers use mother tongue when teaching the second language, English in this case.

Norma’s explanation on why teachers overuse the mother tongue during English classes is that teachers have a flawed belief that, ***“When you speak English to young learners, they won’t understand.”*** This leads to teachers, ***“Conducting their English lessons using mainly the mother tongue and a little bit of English.”*** Ntebo described this teaching practice as, ***“Teaching English in isiZulu and code-switching to English because that is what is happening most of the time.”*** Mara added to this debate by stating that, ***“Every time they [teachers] say a word in English they also say it in isiZulu which is a direct translation, not code-switching.”*** Ntebo pointed out that the reason why teachers teach English in isiZulu is that ***“Teachers themselves are struggling with the language.”*** Ntebo’s explanation is a cause for concern when those who are entrusted to teach English, are found to be wanting as well. This over-use of mother tongue instructions has dire consequences, which we now turn to.

Norma viewed the over-use of the mother tongue in English classes as ***“Depriving learners an opportunity to grasp the use of the second language.”*** Learners only get exposure to English during the English lessons, so by not using English in those classes, children miss the opportunity to learn and practise the language. Ntebo commented that this is ***“Depriving our learners since they do not get the richness of the English language.”*** Mara also added by saying that this over-use of mother tongue deprives, ***“Learners’ exposure to real English.”*** As a result, Norma said that when learners have to write, they ***“write mixing English and***

isiZulu." In this way, learners are replicating what happens in their classes and they have no experience in using English only.

All the participants said that most learners are having reading problems, and emphasised the importance of reading in improving vocabulary and writing skills. Norma, Ntebo and Zodwa agreed that **"By reading more stories, learners develop vocabulary and their writing skills also improves."** Those learners who have reading problems also have writing problems; hence Ntebo said **"it is hard to support learners who cannot write if they cannot read as well."** This writing problem is because, according to Ntebo and Zodwa, **"Those who cannot read won't be able to write too."** This statement posits reading as a pre-requisite to writing.

This data is supported by the literature that the lack of vocabulary is the leading cause of most learners' poor writing skills (Bester, Meyer, Evans, & Phatudi, 2015; Blease & Condy, 2015; Chow et al., 2008; Cope & Kalantzis, 2009; Gunning, 2005). It also supports literature about the interconnectedness between reading and writing (Hoadley, 2012; Reading to Learn, 2015; Reeves et al., 2008; Rose, 2004; Wessels & Van den Berg, 1999).

4.5.5 How teachers adapt the DBE programmes to meet classroom challenges

When survey respondents were asked to rate the DBE programmes they were using, 29 out of 31 stated that the DBE programmes assume that learners in Grade 3 already have basic knowledge and skills needed to write sentences and paragraphs. A majority, 20 out of 31 agreed that the DBE programmes require learners to do many activities in a short space of time. A total of 16 (out of 31) respondents stated that they always use some of the activities from the DBE programmes, according to their learners' needs. It is concerning to note that when asked to describe a good Grade 3 teacher, two respondents said that she or he must be **"someone who follows the curriculum programme requirements even when it does not benefit learners."**

Interview participants were asked if they use the DBE programmes as they are or whether they adapt them. All participants indicated that they adapt their curriculum programmes for various reasons.

For example, Zodwa's stated that, **"I use PSRIP method, but I have seen that it has gaps."** She went further in highlighting that:

Sometimes you even think that this PSRIP method was developed by people who have never been teachers, who have never been in a classroom learning environment and who do not know how children learn...They [curriculum designers] never asked for the teachers' opinion as well. Had they asked for teachers' opinion, or if they had been into the classrooms to look at the real-life situation, they were never going to prescribe such!

This comment by Zodwa is an indication of someone unimpressed with the new methodology and the imposed curriculum, where teachers had no contribution to its development (Biesta & Tedder, 2007; Datnow, 2012; Msibi & Mchunu, 2013).

As a result, Zodwa concluded that **"I use PSRIP method, but as a teacher, I also use RtL methodology to support my learners when they write."** This statement shows that where the new methodology fails, Zodwa resorts to using her old methods. These sentiments were also attested by Norma when she said, **"I adapt it [PSRIP] for the benefit of my learners."** This adaptation according to Norma emanates from the fact that PSRIP

Expects learners to start writing on the first day of the week. On the first day, our learners have to complete the sentences. But they simply write my example. Others even write mixing English and isiZulu [words]. When it comes to writing, it's either they write my example, or they write something you cannot read, words that do not exist and are irrelevant.

As a result, Norma stated that **"For effective teaching of writing, I choose a relevant story to use, and I use RtL writing methodology for the teaching of writing."** This statement demonstrates that teachers need to have various approaches for teaching writing so that if one method fails, you use another one. Norma concluded by stating that, **"I have been using RtL for years, and I know the successes of RtL."** Norma's statement indicates the reason as to why Norma uses RtL when teaching writing; she has used it for a long time and has found it to be a successful method.

The other challenge raised by five out of six interview participants was the issue of time frames stipulated by both *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP, respectively. Zoleka had this to say about time allocations, "**learners fail to cope and to finish work within the limited time we have.**" She went on to complain about the prescriptive nature of *Jika iMfundo*:

Jika iMfundo instructs teachers to do class activities following [in] the stipulated timeframes. These time frames are limiting our classroom engagements, how we teach and how to support struggling learners. When following JM [Jika iMfundo] religiously, you end up neglecting the slow learners.

As a result of these challenges, Zoleka explained that:

As a senior teacher, I know my learners. My learners operate at different levels. I move according to their pace. This means that I adapt it [the Jika iMfundo curriculum] so that I can give my learners time to learn and practice what we are learning. The aim is for me to teach, not just tick boxes in a tracker. As a teacher, you know your class, and you have to take what works for you and in your environment.

This data indicates the teacher uses her experience in making decisions pertaining to what is best for her learners, in pursuit of teaching and learning.

Thobi had this to say about the issue of time and tracking of curriculum coverage:

Jika iMfundo has a lot of work to be covered and has trackers to see if we are completing the work in the stipulated time. In most cases, it is impossible to cover everything as expected. Remember, we work with kids, not computers, and these kids operate at different levels. The big question is what I have to do as an educator, who took an oath that "I will treat my learners as if they were my own." How can I ignore the reality that most of my learners are left behind? Who[m] must I please? The curriculum designers or my profession? I trained to be a teacher, not the abider that ignores her line of duty in pursuit of satisfying the education officials.

This statement indicates the frustration teachers have regarding their work and the monitoring tools compromising their profession. Thobi added, "***The disadvantage of being tracked is that you rush to match the pace set, and in the process, many learners are left behind.***" As a result of these challenges, Thobi concluded by reiterating that:

I adapt Jika iMfundo both in terms of time frames and content that I teach. This adaptation helps me to have a peaceful sleep knowing that I have done justice (ubulungiswa) to help my kids, not just blind compliance to Jika iMfundo and its rush, rush (shesha, shesha) pace. I use my experience in using different methods in supporting struggling learners, and this helps my learners.

This statement shows that Thobi is willing to try against all odds, even if it means going against prescribed policy, to promote teaching and learning. This statement was also echoed by Mara when she stated that:

I know my learners. I can be behind in terms of curriculum coverage as long as my learners will benefit from my actions. Learners must learn because learning is more important than completing the trackers and the monitoring tools. I have always made adaptations, I do now and will ever [always] do. I am not a robot that is programmed to work in a fixed way, no, no, no!

This demonstrates teachers' classroom experience and why they adapt the curriculum in a way that they think will benefit their learners. In support of her learners, Mara also stated, "***I adapt PSRIP methodology here and there. I do this because our learners are not the same, and they operate at different levels. I have to differentiate the curriculum to support my learners.***" This statement shows that Mara teaches the same content but at different levels to cater for all her learners.

Ntebo had this to say against tracking tools:

The tracking tools are used to see that you are teaching using [the material] the way they want. You, as a teacher, are being trapped to use one strategy, and you are monitored and tracked.

Tracking and curriculum monitoring is adequate, but it must not confine teachers into thinking that they can use one method to teach all children in their classrooms. When asked if she uses *Jika iMfundo* as it requires her to do, Ntebo had this to say:

I don't, and I most definitely not [won't]. I adapt it, and when I write in my tracker, I would say, "I used this strategy, but because my learners did not grasp [it], I had to incorporate other methods that I know will help my learners". Learners must learn. I have to go the extra mile to help my learners, so I adapt the Jika iMfundo methodology a lot. I want my learners to pass.

This statement indicates that Ntebo uses different teaching methods to cater for the diverse needs of her learners. Ntebo had a piece of advice for teachers as change agents in that, "***as a teacher you use your initiative, 'this is what the department gave to me, but this is how I can improve it'.***" This data indicates that teachers in pursuit of teaching and learning end up adapting the curriculum to support their learners. Some teachers resort to using their old pedagogies when the new pedagogies fail.

4.6 Chapter summary

This chapter presented findings and data analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data collected through survey, semi-structured telephonic interviews and document analysis. A total of 31 out of 50 questionnaires were returned and the descriptive statistics were analysed to draw summary statistics of the data. Document analysis was done using both the *Jika iMfundo* teacher toolkit and the PSRIP lesson plans for Term 2. These documents were analysed to understand which writing approaches they support, either the product approach, process approach, the genre approach or the balanced approach. Interview transcripts were coded and grouped to make themes. Data was presented starting with document analysis and then both quantitative (questionnaires) and qualitative (interview transcripts) data were presented under respective themes. The next chapter presents the discussion, recommendations and conclusion.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

Since there are so many approaches for teaching writing, no teacher should have to struggle when it comes to the teaching of writing in Grade 3 English first additional (EFAL) classes. With a clear understanding of the different writing approaches, teachers should be able to make well-informed curriculum implementation decisions to enhance teaching and learning, and in so doing, they will demonstrate that they are agents of change.

In this chapter, I present a discussion of the findings drawn from the data presented in Chapter Four. I discuss these research findings relating them to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. The discussion is based on the three research questions of this study, which are stated below. I also elaborate on the implications of the findings. Next, I give the reflections and limitations of the study. After that, I offer recommendations and suggestions for future research and finally, the conclusion.

The following three research questions guide the discussion of the findings in this chapter:

- 1) What are the writing approaches that inform *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP curriculum programmes?
- 2) What are Grade 3 teachers' beliefs about the teaching of writing in EFAL classrooms?
- 3) How do Grade 3 teachers interpret DBE programmes (*Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP)?

5.2 Writing approaches that inform the *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP curriculum programmes

Document analysis was conducted using the *Jika iMfundo* teacher toolkit and the PSRIP lesson plans for English FAL, term two, in order to identify the writing approaches, they support. In this analysis, I used the four writing approaches (product, process, genre approach and the balanced approach) to categorise the documents' requirements regarding the teaching of writing.

The findings of this study, as shown in Chapter Four, were that *Jika iMfundo* requires teachers to teach writing using a writing model, which is a product approach. The teacher writes this

writing model on the board. Learners read it together with the teacher. The teacher uses this writing model as a guide to teaching learners how to construct paragraphs. The teacher emphasises that each paragraph must have one topic sentence/ idea, and the following sentences are used to support the main idea. In this way, learners in a *Jika iMfundo* class get exposed to reading a written sample (paragraph) before they can attempt writing their own. Learners who have not been taught about paragraph writing rules, end up writing paragraphs with unrelated sentences, thus creating confusion for the readers. Learners, therefore, emulate the writing model written by the teacher on the board. Whilst the learners are writing, the teacher walks around the class, supporting those who may experience writing problems. When learners have finished writing, the teacher collects their exercise books and marks the writing task.

When analysing the *Jika iMfundo* writing instructions, I noted that *Jika iMfundo* writing instructions emphasise that learners must use the correct punctuations and spelling when writing (Ngubane et al., 2020; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). This suggests that *Jika iMfundo* wants learners to be perfect writers (with efficient linguistic writing skills) not just confident writers (Badger & White, 2000). It can be argued, however, that some learners can end up being demotivated to write when they engage in learning to write and striving to be perfect writers at the same time. Other writing approaches, like the process and genre approach, do not emphasise the use of correct spelling from the beginning stages of writing but focus on it towards the end of the writing process. This is done in order to familiarise learners with free-writing so that they can be confident writers before they become perfect writers.

These writing instructions demonstrate that *Jika iMfundo* is informed by the product approach, as per explanations provided in the literature reviewed on how to identify this approach (Fatemi et al., 2014; Ngubane et al., 2020).

I analysed the PSRIP document to understand the writing approach it supports. As shown in Chapter Four, PSRIP guides teachers to follow the writing processes when teaching writing. These processes in the PSRIP are referred to as tasks. These tasks serve as a guide to support learners in developing writing skills. The PSRIP teaches learners that they cannot write without planning first. Therefore, planning is the first task done by learners. Planning helps learners to know what to write and how to start writing. Learners who do not plan before writing are less likely to produce good written texts. PSRIP, therefore, teaches learners the importance of

planning before drafting. The next task is drafting. It is through drafting that learners start putting sentences together to form paragraphs. Learners are encouraged to put their thoughts on paper without worrying too much about spelling and punctuations. This is done to encourage learners to be confident writers before they can be perfect writers. These stages of writing demonstrate that the PSRIP provides scaffolding to all learners as if they are poor writers. Most participants indicated that PSRIP assumes that learners already have the vocabulary to use when writing. However, when scrutinising the PSRIP writing instructions, it becomes clear that learners are treated as if they do not possess writing skills and are supported in every step of the writing process and are given feedback after each stage of writing.

Learners using PSRIP are given a day in the school week where they focus on editing their written work. When editing, learners move from being writers to being objective readers of their written work. When doing this, they check for the spelling, grammar and punctuation errors. This writing process is similar to the emphasis given by the product approach on the use of the correct spelling and punctuations. However, the difference is that PSRIP does not focus on language issues from the beginning but allows learners to initiate the writing process without being intimidated by editing. This allows learners to embrace the writing journey without fear of making errors as the focus is on learning to write, not on assessing the writing.

The final stage of the PSRIP is where, after editing their written work, learners start writing the final draft that will be submitted to the teacher for marking. These writing stages provide learners with enough writing opportunities to learn writing within a supportive environment. Learners would miss out on a great deal if they were merely expected to write without this kind of support in their writing journey.

The above findings indicate that PSRIP has a set of fixed instructions guiding teachers on how they should go about when teaching writing. These instructions indicate that the process approach underpins the PSRIP documents and is consistent with what literature says about the process approach (Badger & White, 2000; Ngubane et al., 2020; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017).

The PSRIP uses the writing stages to be followed by learners when writing, and this indicates that the PSRIP gives learners more writing opportunities. However, teachers in this study said that most learners struggle to write sentences because they have a limited vocabulary. Therefore, it is the teachers' role to support every learner and expose them to reading, as reading

is vital in increasing one's vocabulary. Teachers also have to give learners more opportunities to write until they are able to write effectively. This statement is consistent with literature about the process approach (Hyland, 2003; Ngubane et al., 2020; Nunan, 1999; Raimes, 1991).

The *Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP approaches are similar in that they provide learners with the grammar (language rules), sentences and paragraphs writing skills. However, the PSRIP goes further through providing support and a collaborative instructional learning environment within which learners are afforded adequate time to work through the process of writing, and the teacher plays a role of being a facilitator in this learning process (Silva, 1990).

Implications for using the writing approaches

This is a small study, the findings of which cannot be generalised. However, the implications of using either the product approach or the process approach may have a bearing on teachers' writing instructional practices and their learners writing practices. Consider, for example, the process approach focuses on the process of text construction and many dimensions underlying writing. Learners using the process approach gain a lot in that they are supported at every stage of writing. They get immediate feedback so that they can correct their mistakes and misunderstandings before writing the final version. Usually, the final product has fewer errors than the first draft. On the other hand, the product approach is about learners' writing imitating the pattern provided by the teacher. Without this pattern, learners cannot write. The product approach deprives learners of being creative when writing because they are to follow the pattern provided, and there is less expectation for learners' creativity. Learners using the product approach, pay more attention to language rules like punctuation and spelling instead of the writing process. The focus on the language proficiency is regarded as a significant benefit for learners under the product approach as it makes learners improve their proficiency and become better writers (Badger & White, 2000; Ngubane et al., 2020). I, therefore, argue that teachers ought to be clear and knowledgeable about the different approaches before they can start implementing them, in order to know the strengths and weaknesses of each approach.

It should be noted that most of the interview participants indicated that they did not have a writing pedagogy before the introduction of the DBE programmes (*Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP) and most of the respondents said that the DBE programmes provide them with skills

and methods for teaching writing. This implies that this intervention (introduction of *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP) by the DBE has proven beneficial in supporting teachers to be able to teach writing. However, there is no evidence yet as to how successful these approaches are in terms of improving learner achievement.

Different studies conducted in Turkey (2009–2012) among second-language speakers, found that writing skills of learners who used the process approach improved as compared to those who used other writing approaches (Bayat, 2014). Another study that was conducted in 2012 among 74 students from Turkey's Akdeniz University found that the process writing approach affected writing success in a positive and statistically significant way (Bayat, 2014). This study also found that with the process approach, the likelihood of students producing poorly-written texts at the end of the writing process decreased considerably (Bayat, 2014). Lessons using the process writing approach also decreased students' negative views about writing (Bayat, 2014).

As shown in Chapter Two, the different approaches for teaching writing ought not to be seen as binary opposites but as complementary approaches. By synthesising the strengths of each approach, teachers will effectively teach writing in their English classes (Macken-Horarik, 2002; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017). There is a possibility that if all teachers can have a clear understanding of all the approaches for teaching writing, they will be able to implement the curriculum requirements better. As shown in literature, where one method fails teachers can use other methods without leaving the learners confused (Allen, 2015; Dornbrack & Atwood, 2019; Mpiti, 2016).

5.3 Grade 3 teachers' beliefs about the teaching of writing in EFAL classrooms

In order to be able to fulfil their classroom obligations, teachers should have beliefs supported by some evidence and theory of literacy. For a researcher, it is important to understand teacher beliefs because these beliefs often inform teachers' classroom practices (Hsiang et al., 2020; Richards et al., 2001). It was important in this study for the participants to express their beliefs about the teaching of writing in Grade 3 EFAL classes. For example, data from this study have shown that all teachers, both from the survey and interviews, indicated that learners who cannot write, must be supported until they can write.

The participants in this study said that teachers have a huge role to play in supporting learners' development of English writing skills. In this supportive relationship, all teachers who use *Jika iMfundo programme* said that they model writing and also expose learners to reading different texts. The curriculum's intention is for learners to reach high-level competency in English by the end of Grade 3 and they should be able to read and write well in English (Department of Basic Education, 2011). Learners who fail to develop these writing skills are at a disadvantage compared to their counterparts since most assessment tasks are conducted using writing. That is why teachers must not neglect learners who have not yet developed and mastered writing skills. Instead, teachers ought to scaffold the learning process by using effective writing pedagogies or approaches so that every learner can benefit in the classroom writing instructional practices (Mgqwashu & Makhathini, 2017; Rose, 2011; Rose & Martin, 2013). It is important to note that teachers' writing instructional practices also reflect their beliefs and competencies in writing (Fullan, 2001; Graham & Perin, 2007).

Data from this study also revealed teachers' beliefs about the importance of reading in that most teachers said that reading has a direct impact on learners' writing abilities. Research has shown that in order for learners to be able to write well, they have to be able to read well and to read with comprehension (Frankel et al., 2016; Nagy et al., 2002; Rose, 2011; Rose & Martin, 2012; Shu & Liu, 1994). This suggests that educational programmes that fail to foreground reading as a tool to enhance writing skills, will not motivate learners to be writers but instead will frustrate them (Cayir, 2017; Ivanic, 2004). For example, most interview participants argued that learners ought to be exposed to reading so that their writing skills can also improve. This argument by participants expressed teachers' beliefs regarding the interconnectedness between reading and writing. There is evidence in the literature showing that learners who cannot read cannot write as well (Mgqwashu & Makhathini, 2017; Sibanda & Baxen, 2018; Snow & Matthews, 2016; Spaul et al., 2016). It is through reading that learners get first-hand exposure to written material and how language is used to create meaning.

Ideally, supporting learners to be readers does not only rest with the teacher but is a collective effort where both teachers and parents have a role to play. However, since this is not always the case in most South African communities, the teacher has a responsibility to do so in the classroom. Learners who have had reading exposure before school-going age, have greater chances of success at school compared to those who had little or none (Martin, 2014;

Mgqwashu, 2019; Nagy et al., 2002; Rose, 2011; Rose & Martin, 2012; Snow & Matthews, 2016; Stockard, 2011).

This study revealed that although all teachers believed that they had to support learners who could not write, most teachers had no methodology for teaching writing until the introduction of *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP programmes. Although most of the participants had teacher qualifications, they stated that their teacher training did not prepare them for the teaching of writing. This situation is supported by a study done by Reed on Intermediate Phase teacher education in five institutions (Reed, 2014). This study has shown that some teacher training institutions do not pay much attention to teaching and assessing writing pedagogies.

When it came to the teaching of writing, the typical expression of the participants was that it is imperative. However, they differed on how they go about teaching learners to write sentences and paragraphs. All of the participants indicated that they follow the methodology provided by either the *Jika iMfundo* or PSRIP programmes. The following findings illustrate that some teachers use the product approach and others the process approach when teaching writing.

Teachers who were using *Jika iMfundo* revealed that when supporting learners, they use a writing model to teach writing and learners write emulating this model (Badger & White, 2000; Graham, 2008; Ngubane et al., 2020). As stated in the literature review chapter (2.6.1), this shows that *Jika iMfundo* writing programme is underpinned by the product approach.

PSRIP teachers indicated that when teaching writing, they guide learners to follow the writing stages starting with planning, drafting, editing and publishing. In this way, they give learners feedback after each stage so that learners can self-correct before moving to the next stage of writing. This is in line with literature about the process approach (Badger & White, 2000; Ngubane et al., 2020; Nordin & Mohammad, 2017; Sun & Feng, 2009; Tribble, 1996).

There were a few teachers who believed that *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP did not provide them with enough skills to support struggling learners. As a result, these teachers, who had been trained to use the RtL methodology, used this (RtL methodology) to support struggling learners in their classrooms. According to these teachers, RtL provides a clear link between reading and

writing. It also provides more clarity and steps to follow when scaffolding the learning process for learners who have reading challenges.

The results from this study have shown that, although teachers believe that learners should be supported until they can write, the major challenge is that most learners lack sufficient English vocabulary. For learners to be able to construct sentences (writing extended texts), they need to possess a rich English vocabulary, which is not the case in most Grade 3 classes (Sibanda & Baxen, 2018). By exposing learners to extensive reading, learners can develop good reading habits and also increase their English vocabulary, more especially as they encounter unknown words during the reading process (Krashen, 1989; Liu & Zhang, 2018). How much a learner reads and is read to determines how much English vocabulary gains they will make (Sibanda & Baxen, 2018). Learners who do not read, are less likely to develop English vocabulary, especially if English is not the language spoken at home. Vocabulary is vital in writing, and the more vocabulary one has, the better and the easier it becomes to construct sentences and paragraphs. Learners with limited vocabulary struggle when they have to construct sentences. Teachers need to know the skills to use in helping learners gain more English vocabulary. Instead of constructing English sentences, teachers in this study have shown that learners end up writing in a mixture of English and isiZulu. These findings indicate serious challenges that exist in most English second language classes.

5.4 Grade 3 teachers' interpretation of DBE programmes (Jika iMfundo and PSRIP)

Teachers react and interpret curriculum changes in various ways. In this study, I also intended to understand how Grade 3 teachers interpret the DBE programmes like *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP. All interview participants indicated that they do not follow the *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP's standardised lesson plans (SLPs) as they are but instead adapt them in terms of time (when to teach) and content (what to teach). In South Africa, the last two decades have been characterised by government's focus on curriculum reforms with less attention on teacher professionalism (Msibi & Mchunu, 2013). This government's obsession seems to be based on the traditional view that focussed more on the importance of the official curriculum than teachers who implement it (Msibi & Mchunu, 2013; Ramatlapana & Makonye, 2012). To ensure uniformity in implementing both *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP curriculum programmes, teachers are provided with SLPs guiding them on what to teach and how to teach (Fleisch, 2016; Shalem, De Clercq, Steinberg, & Koornhof, 2018). The use of SLPs has received

criticism in that it takes away teachers' autonomy and turns them into mere technicians as the teachers only have to implement the SLPs as they are (Msibi & Mchunu, 2013; Ramatlapana & Makonye, 2012; Shalem et al., 2018).

During data analysis, I used inductive analysis to make meaning of how teachers interpreted and responded to the introduction of the DBE programmes (*Jika imfundo* and the PSRIP) in their schools. The discussion resonated from the teacher agency model's three-time factors (present, past and future) reflecting how teachers, as agents of change, respond to curriculum changes (Priestley, 2015). In this study, I used these three-time factors to understand the participants' self-expressed reactions towards the DBE programmes. Firstly, agency is always acted on in the present (present-time factor) based on what is possible or making the impossible possible. Next, teachers' agency is always oriented towards the future possibilities (future-time factors) by setting of goals. Teachers who can see and imagine possibilities in the envisaged curriculum are likely to achieve agency more readily than those who do not. Finally, teachers' agency is influenced by their experiences (past-time factor). When faced with challenges, teachers use their experiences to find solutions.

The respondents were asked if they always follow the DBE programmes as required; 16 out of 31 respondents said that they adapt the activities according to learners' needs. The interview participants also attested to this as they all stated that they adapt the DBE programmes for various reasons; for example, to accommodate slow learners, who require more time to complete classwork. Learners operate at different levels some require tailor-made teaching methods so that they can understand what the teacher presents. Teachers' actions are guided by their past, present and future time factors. Teachers either adapt or adopt the curriculum implementation.

Teacher professionalism and teacher agency

There is a relationship between being a professional and teacher agency. Teacher agency involved being in control of or governing one's professional practice (Campbell, 2012). This means that to be considered a professional, one must display agency in a field (teaching in this case). This statement concurs with Naidoo (2012), where she described agency as teachers' capacity to analyse, interpret and adapt or reform using their autonomy. In their professional practice, teachers need to have autonomy and be in control of what and how they teach (Msibi

& Mchunu, 2013; Priestley, 2015; Priestley & Biesta, 2013; Priestley, Edwards, Priestley, & Miller, 2012). For example, findings have shown that the DBE programmes, *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP dictate what must be taught and by when, thus limiting adaptability and flexibility in the teaching and learning process.

Teachers stated that they had no say in the development of the *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP curriculum programmes and their time frames are so limited that if teachers were to abide by them, they would leave the majority of their learners behind. These curriculum programmes were all endorsed by all teacher unions before they were implemented. This shows that there is sometimes lack of communication between teachers and their unions. The teachers' concerns are valid since teachers have to enact the curriculum, but it is found to be impractical and has gaps which prevent its application. This demonstrates what happens in the present time dimension when teachers are putting the curriculum into action but find it not fully applicable, and it leads teachers to adapt it so that learning can take place (Campbell, 2012; Datnow, 2012). This supports the argument that there is tension between curriculum expectations and curriculum implementation (Blignaut, 2008; Chapman et al., 2018; Datnow, 2012).

Adoption and adaption as aspects of teacher agency

Jika iMfundo and the PSRIP have a curriculum structure that specifies what has to be taught, by when, and how. *Jika iMfundo* has been adopted in KwaZulu-Natal, and PSRIP has been adopted nationwide as the programmes earmarked to bring about change in primary education. However, these programmes have not been adopted by choice; hence many teachers indicated that they are not happy about their structure and implementation. For example, most teachers in this study stated that these programmes have too much to be covered in a short space of time (emphasising quantity over quality). Teachers also indicated that they are tracked and monitored to see if they are teaching according to these programmes and time frames. This, strips the teachers of their autonomy and professional judgment. This concern is demonstrated in literature which pushes against prescriptive curricula (Biesta, 2010; Priestley et al., 2012).

Note, for example; all participants indicated that they adapt the curriculum to support learners. This adaptation emanates from the challenges faced by the teachers in their classrooms. Curriculum adaptation, according to the participants, happens in terms of time frames and the content to be taught. Participants indicated that the skills to be taught were not abandoned.

However, time allocations were, introducing an adjustment to the implementation of a policy, to suit its purpose in this context. This adaptation happens due to challenges in the present time dimension. This is supported by literature that put teachers in the driver's seat of teaching and learning (Biesta & Tedder, 2007; Emirbayer & Mische, 1998; Msibi & Mchunu, 2013).

Lack of consideration for curriculum implementers

Teachers are not mere curriculum implementers but are also meant to portray professionalism and exhibit their specialised knowledge and skills in order to ensure implementation. However, research has shown that when teacher autonomy is removed, de-professionalisation occurs and teachers become less effective in their practice (Biesta, 2010; Campbell, 2012; Gleeson & Gunter, 2001). However, in this study, most interview participants, who had writing pedagogies they were using before the introduction of either the *Jika iMfundo* or PSRIP programmes stated that they reverted to using their old methodologies when the new ones (pedagogies) failed. This switch to the old methodologies demonstrates agency as the teachers used what they knew to work (experience based on the past-time factor). This demonstrates the use of the past-time factor. Data from this study have shown, for example, interview participants who were using the RtL Methodology continued doing so when teaching writing. These RtL practitioners did this because their experiences (past-time dimension) of RtL had proven that writing is taught better and more effectively using the RtL methodology than with the new programmes. As change agents, they used their experiences to form judgements and to decide on what they had to do, for the best possible outcomes.

Most of the interview participants indicated that their teacher training did not prepare them for the teaching of writing. That is why three out of six participants stated that they voluntarily attended the RtL self-funded course to learn how to teach writing. These RtL practitioners indicated that they were happy and felt that they were mastering teaching writing to their learners. When *Jika iMfundo* and the PSRIP were introduced to them, they tried teaching writing following the new methodology but realised that it was not helping the learners. As a result, these RtL practitioners returned to using the RtL methods when teaching writing. This action by RtL practitioners is an indication of teacher agency emanating from the past-time dimension. In this case, teachers use their experience and make informed decisions on how to teach or respond to the new programmes. Most participants used words like, "As an experienced teacher..., as a senior teacher..., I know my learners..." These statements show

how teachers use their past experiences when making decisions about their practice. *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP programmes were praised mainly by teachers who had no pedagogy but those who had, stated that these programmes have huge gaps and are too highly structured in terms of time and content to be covered.

Quality over quantity

The interview participants stated that the DBE programmes demand that teachers teach many aspects in a short time. Some participants highlighted that *Jika iMfundo* wants them to ensure curriculum coverage, and they are tracked to ensure that they cover everything from the curriculum document (CAPS). From this data, one can infer that according to the participants, the DBE programmes are deemed to favour quantity over quality. For example, some participants used words like, "I know my learners...", "I cannot leave them behind...", "I want my learners to learn...", "I cannot ignore my oath as a teacher...I promised that I would treat my learners as if they were my kids...", "I have to teach, not to rush in order to tick the boxes..." These extracts demonstrate the challenges faced by teachers in the "present-time dimension", thus compelling them to adapt the curriculum programmes in order to help their learners.

As for the teachers, quality is measured by the outcomes and the results. For example, some interview participants stated that they want their learners to pass. They want their learners to achieve to the best of their abilities so that they will not experience problems in Grade 4. Some even revealed that they do not want Grade 4 teachers to complain that Grade 3 teachers are not teaching well. These statements by teachers reveal their plans for the future and their projections as highlighted by the "future-time dimension". Because of these plans, desires and vision for something (the better future of their learners), then teachers act decisively to achieve that vision and in so doing they demonstrate that they are agents of change (Engelbrecht, 2013).

A one-size-fits-all curriculum is not ideal for the South African context, where there is a diverse learner population. The highly structured curriculum programmes like *Jika iMfundo* and PSRIP are not ideal for all South African schools and are seen by some teachers to be impractical. The majority of the interview participants stated that they adapt and modify the curriculum to suit their learners. This is a clear demonstration of teacher agency as teachers make a judgement of their situation so that learners can benefit from the curriculum (Campbell, 2012).

Findings from this study have shown that the present conditions make teachers exercise agency when faced with different contextual conditions and these responses occur in order to enhance effective teaching and learning (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). Participants in this study have expressed different concerns and interpretations of the DBE programmes. Most participants indicated that DBE programmes are time-confining as they dictate what teachers have to do and by when. By dictating the specific ‘what and when’ aspects of teaching, teachers are automatically and forcefully stripped of their autonomy as professionals (Msibi & Mchunu, 2013; Priestley et al., 2017). Teacher autonomy is part of teacher agency as it gives back teachers’ professionalism and the capacity to act in their line of duty (Priestley & Biesta, 2013). As professionals, teachers need to have all forms of knowledge (CK, PCK and GPK) in order to make professional judgements. Hence, the argument in this study is that teachers need to understand different approaches to teaching writing and be able to use them in a complementary way whereby the strengths of one approach complement the weaknesses of another approach.

5.5 Implications/impact of the findings

The following implications arise from this study:

- Reading needs to be prioritised in South African schools in order for both reading and writing to be strengthened. Reading is vital as it develops learners’ vocabulary which they need to be able to write.
- Teachers of English must develop themselves and make it their priority that they improve their English communication skills; and
- Teacher education institutions must revisit their curriculum to ensure that they include effective writing pedagogy for Foundation Phase teachers.

5.6 Reflections and limitations of the study

At the beginning of my research project, I wanted to hold face-to-face interviews and include classroom observations too. However, due to national Covid-19 regulations, the data collection methods had to allow for social distancing, namely survey, telephone interviews and document analysis. I also intended selecting participants from the three districts, Ugu, Harry Gwala and uMgungundlovu. However, due to distribution challenges, I decided to use Harry Gwala District for the survey pilot study and uMgungundlovu District for the actual study.

This study had some limitations. The first limitation pertains to data collection methods. In this study, I used questionnaires and telephonic interviews to collect data. As indicated previously, classroom observations were not possible due to restrictions. In the event that I been able to carry out classroom observations; I would have gained more in-depth data on the teachers' witnessed instructional practices, instead of relying on self-reports. Also, the study focussed on writing in English classes, more data would have been obtained if I had included other subjects as well, because writing is not only done in English classes.

To better understand the implications of these results, future studies could address the issue of reading approaches across the curriculum (from different subjects) and also use classroom observation as an additional data collection instrument to confirm data from the questionnaires and interviews.

5.7 Recommendations

I am going to discuss my recommendations and for these recommendations to be successful, they must receive buy-in from various stakeholders at different levels of an educational structure. My recommendations are that teachers must use languages carefully; teachers should know the different writing approaches and teachers need to develop professional knowledge and judgement.

5.7.1 Teachers must use languages carefully

Teachers of English should be encouraged to use the LoLT as much as possible. I am aware of the benefits of using the mother tongue instructions in the foundation phase. I am also aware of the benefits of switch-coding and trans-languaging as well. However, during English lessons, English language teachers need to expose learners to English use. This can be achieved through English teachers' instructional practices, where learners will be exposed to the English language and develop a wide vocabulary. I recommend that in their classroom interaction, English teachers must use English as the LoLT. Most of these learners come from backgrounds where English is not spoken at home. Their only hope is that they will learn it at school. Teachers should not deprive learners of the richness of the English language.

Teacher training institutions have a role to play in that they should emphasise to new teachers that there is no language that is more important than the mother tongue of the learners to develop cognitive thinking skills. However, teachers need to develop skills of teaching English and encouraging learners to participate in English classes without fear of being judged and laughed at when trying to speak the new language.

When the subject advisors are conducting English language workshops, they must lead by example, and speak in English and ensure that all interaction is also in English. In this way, they will be sending the message that all teachers should get used to using English as a means of communication for teaching and learning in English classes. However, I am not ignoring code-switching and trans-languaging as other forms of communication in second language classes.

The SMT is accountable for everything that happens within the school. I recommend that the issue of language use be taken seriously. The SMTs (led by the school principals) should encourage teachers to speak English during staff meetings and during English lessons.

When teachers send a learner to another teacher, they should encourage the child to communicate in English as well. When talking among themselves, teachers should also use English. In so doing they will demonstrate to learners that English is a medium of communication.

One of the interview participants indicated that as a principal she has noted that most teachers in her school struggle to speak English. This is because English is not the mother tongue for most of the EFAL teachers. However, it is the duty and responsibility of every teacher to develop him/herself in English proficiency. The more one uses the English language, the more effectively they will be able to use the language. Teachers and learners must also develop reading habits. The more one reads books, the more vocabulary they will acquire.

5.7.2 Teachers must know the different writing approaches

During teacher education, it should be a necessity that teachers know the different approaches for teaching writing. Teachers should also be given autonomy to choose the most appropriate approach to use depending on their context and the level of the learners.

Teacher education institutions have much to do in shaping the trajectory of our education system. They should revisit their training content and focus on capacitating future teachers with approaches for teaching reading and writing. Future teachers should demonstrate an understanding and application of the reading and writing approaches before they complete their studies. This is the core of teaching and learning.

The subject advisors should conduct workshops where they have to teach all teachers about the different approaches for teaching writing. This means that subject advisors themselves have to know these approaches too and be clear about their strengths and weaknesses.

School Management Teams should have ongoing open discussion sessions with all educators within the school where they discuss challenges they face when teaching writing. This should be the platform for sharing good practice and where challenges are tackled within the professional learning community (PLC). This should help in clarifying hidden misunderstandings about the writing approaches.

Departmental Heads should encourage teachers to be agents of change in their classrooms. Subject teachers should not be afraid to have networks with lead teachers, subject advisors and neighbouring schools so that they can reach out for support whenever they may feel they need it.

5.7.3 Teachers need to develop professional knowledge and judgement

The DBE must continue treating teachers as professionals. The use of structured lesson plans (SLP) is receiving mixed reactions with some praising it in that it provides most teachers with guidance on what to teach and how to teach it (Shalem et al., 2018). However, the opponents of the use of SLP believe that through the compulsory use of structured lesson plans, teachers are deprived of opportunities to think. Teachers are told what, when and how to teach. This happens although learners have diverse learner needs, which may not be met as a result of the highly structured nature of the curriculum. A one-size-fits-all approach does not benefit the majority of our learners and teachers. I recommend that teachers should be supported so that they develop professional knowledge and professional judgement so that they can use the SLP in a flexible way.

The admission criteria for prospective educators into teacher training institutions should be of high standards like that of doctors and lawyers. They must have good English proficiency as an admission requirement. Teaching should not be considered an easy career choice to pursue. The pass rate for teachers should be of a high standard to ensure that highly competent educators are filtered into schools, thus ensuring quality teaching and learning.

The teacher development section and subject advisors should instil the culture of individual responsibility when it comes to issues of continuing professional teacher development (CPTD).

Teachers must recognise themselves as professionals who are able to use their agency to improve learning in their classrooms. It should be every teacher's goal to develop excellent English communication skills as well as pedagogies to teach writing, as needed.

5.8 Conclusion

Both literature and findings from this study have shown that teachers' writing instructional practices have a direct bearing on whether learners can master the skill of writing or risk falling into academic gloom. Moreover, there is a need for all teachers, Grade 3 EFAL teachers, in particular, to have a clear understanding of the different approaches for teaching writing. Failing this, they will be contributing to the infringement of the learners' rights, as the ability to write is a right, not a privilege.

REFERENCES

- Adu, P. (2019). *A step-by-step guide to qualitative data coding*. Oxford: Routledge.
- Akyeampong, K., Pryor, J., Westbrook, J., & Lussier, K. (2011). *Teacher preparation and continuing professional development in Africa: learning to teach early reading and mathematics*. Brighton: Centre for International Education, University of Sussex.
- Alexander, R. (2000). *Culture and pedagogy: international comparison in primary education*. London: Blackwell.
- Allen, D. M. (2015). *Writing pedagogy of the news report genre across the intermediate phase in one school*. (Master of Education). Cape Peninsula University of Technology, South Africa.
- Badger, R., & White, G. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 54(2), 153-160.
- Ball, S. J. (2006). *Education policy and social class: The selected works of Stephen J. Ball*. London: Psychology Press.
- Bangert-Drowns, R. L., Hurley, M. M., & Wilkinson, B. (2004). The effects of school-based writing-to-learn interventions on academic achievement: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 74, 29-58.
- Basic Education. (2016). *PIRLS 2016: Progress In International Reading Literacy Study*. Pretoria: University of Pretoria
- Bassey, M. (1999). *Case study research in educational settings*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Bayat, N. (2014). The effect of the process writing approach on writing success and anxiety. *Educational Sciences*, 14(3), 1133-1141.
- Bell, J. (1999). *Doing your research project*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Bernstein, B. (1990). *The structuring of pedagogic discourse*. London: Routledge.
- Bernstein, B. (2000). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: Theory, research, critique*. London: Rowman and Littlefield.
- Bertram, C. (2011). What does research say about teacher learning and teacher knowledge? Implications for professional development in South Africa. *Journal of Education*, 52, 3-26.
- Bertram, C., & Christiansen, I. (2014). *Understanding research: an introduction to reading research* (1st ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Bertram, C., & Christiansen, I. (2020). *Understanding research: an introduction to reading research* (2nd ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Bester, M., Meyer, E., Evans, R., & Phatudi, N. (2015). *Literacy in the foundation phase* (3rd ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Biesta, G. J. J. (2010). *Good education in an age of measurement: ethics, politics, democracy*. London: Paradigm Publishers.
- Biesta, G. J. J., & Tedder, M. (2007). "Agency and learning in the life course: towards an ecological perspective". *Studies in the Education of Adults*, 39(2), 132-149.
- Blease, B., & Condy, J. (2015). Teaching writing in two rural multigrade classes in the Western Cape. *Reading and Writing*, 6(1), 1-9g.
- Blignaut, S. (2007). The policy-practice dichotomy: Can we straddle the divide? *Perspectives in Education*, 25(4), 49-61.
- Blignaut, S. (2008). Teachers' sense-making and enactment of curriculum policy. *Journal of Education*, 43(1), 101-125.
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative reasearch method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27-40. doi:10.3316/QRJ0902027
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2014). *Successful qualitative research*. London: SAGE.
- Brindle, M., Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Hebert, M. (2016). Third and fourth grade teacher's classroom practices in writing: A national survey. *Reading and Writing*, 29(5), 929-954.

- Bryman, A. (2001). *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burns, A. (1999). *Collaborative action research for English language teachers*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Calvert, L. (2016). The power teacher agency. *The Learning Professional*, 37(2), 51-56.
- Campbell, E. (2012). Teacher agency in curriculum contexts. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 42(2), 183-190.
- Caulley, D. N. (1983). Document analysis in program evaluation. *Evaluation and Program Planning: An International Journal*, 6(1), 19-29.
- Cayir, A. (2017). Primary school pre-service teachers' self-assessed competency level of teaching how to read in Turkey. *Academic Journal*, 12(17), 855-859.
- Chapman, S., Wright, P. R., & Pascoe, R. (2018). Arts curriculum implementation: "Adopt and adapt" as policy translation. *Arts Education Policy Review*, 119(1), 12-25.
- Chow, B. W. Y., McBride-Chang, C., Cheung, H., & Chow, C. S. L. (2008). Dialogic reading and morphology training in Chinese children: Effects on language and literacy. *Developmental Psychology*, 44, 233-244.
- Christie, F., & Martin, J. R. (1997). *Genres and institutions: Social practices in the workplace and school*. London: Cassell.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research methods in education* (8 ed.). OXON: Routledge.
- Condy, J., & Blease, B. (2014). What challenges do foundation phase teachers experience when teaching writing in rural multigrade classes? *South African Journal of Childhood Education*, 4(2), 36-56.
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (1993a). Background to genre teaching. In B. Cope & M. Kalantzis (Eds.), *The powers of literacy: A genre approach to teaching writing*. London: Falmer Press.
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (1993b). *The powers of literacy: a genre approach to teaching writing*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (2009). "Multiliteracies": New literacies, new learning, pedagogies. *An international Journal*, 4(3), 164-195. doi:10.1080/15544800903076044
- Corbetta, P. (2003). *Social Research Theory, methods and techniques*. London: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE.
- D.B.E. (2014). *Department of Basic Education Report on the Annual National Assessments of 2014*. Pretoria.
- D.B.E. (2018). *Primary School Reading Improvement Programme focusing on improving reading in English First Additional Language*. Retrieved from
- Datnow, A. (2012). Teacher agency in educational reform: Lessons from social networks research. *American Journal of Education*, 119(1), 193-201.
- de Clercq, F. (2014). Improving teachers' practice in poorly performing primary schools: The trial of the GPLMS intervention in Gauteng. *Education as Change*, 18(2), 303-318.
- De Lange, M., Dippenaar, H., & Anker, J. (2018). Shared writing as first phase in writing instruction of intermediate phase Afrikaans Home Language learners. *Per Linguam: a Journal of Language Learning=Per Linguam: Tydskrif vir Taalaanler*, 34(1), 33-46.
- Department of Basic Education. (2011). *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS): English First Additional Language (Foundation Phase)*. Pretoria: Government Printing Works
- Department of Basic Education. (2016). *PIRLS 2016: Progress in International Reading Literacy Study*. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.
- Dornbrack, J., & Atwood, M. (2019). Teaching writing in the FET phase. *Literacy Association of South Africa*, viewed 21 November 2019, from <https://litasa.org.za/assets/Download/Dornbrack.pdf>.

- du Plessis, P., & Mestry, R. (2019). Teachers in rural schools- a challenge for South Africa. *South African Journal of Education, 39*(1), 51-59.
- Emirbayer, M., & Mische, A. (1998). What is agency? *American journal of sociology, 103*(4), 962-1023.
- Engelbrecht, A. (2013). Multi-level teaching: an introduction. In A. Engelbrecht & H. Swanepoel (Eds.), *Embracing diversity through multi-level teaching*. Cape Town: Juta and Company Ltd.
- Eschholz, P. A. (1980). The prose models approach: Using products in the process. *Eight approaches to teaching composition, 5*, 21-36.
- Fatemi, A. H., Vahedi, V. S., & Seyyedrezaie, Z. S. (2014). The effects of top-down/ bottom-up processing and field-dependent/ field-independent cognitive style on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 4*(4), 686-693.
- Fleisch, B. (2008). *Primary education in crisis: Why South African school children underachieve in reading and mathematics*. Cape Town: Juta & Co.
- Fleisch, B. (2016). System-wide improvement at the instructional core: Changing reading teaching in South Africa. *Journal of Educational Change, 17*(4), 437-451.
- Flower, L. S., & Hayes, J. R. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *College Composition and Communication, 32*(4), 365-387.
- Frankel, K., Becker, B., Rowe, M., & Pearson, D. (2016). From "what is reading?" to what is literacy? *Journal of Education, 196*(3), 7-18.
- Frankfort-Nachmias, C., & Nachmias, D. (1996). *Research methods in the Social Sciences*. London: Arnold.
- Fullan, M. (1993). *Change forces: Probing the depth of educational reform*. London: Falmer Press.
- Fullan, M. (2001). *The new meaning of educational change* (3rd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gallivan, M. (1997). Value in triangulation: a comparison of two approaches for combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *In Information systems and qualitative research, 5*, 417-443.
- Gleeson, D., & Gunter, H. (2001). The performing school and the modernisation of teachers. In D. Gleeson & C. Husbands (Eds.), *The performing school: managing, teaching and learning in a performance culture* (pp. 139-158). London: Routledge Falmer.
- Graham, S. (2008). *Effective writing instruction for all students*. United States of America: Renaissance Learning.
- Graham, S., & Perin, D. (2007). *Writing next: Effective strategies to improve writing of adolescents in middle and high schools* Retrieved from Washington, DC:
- Grammatikopoulos, V., Zachopoulou, E., Tsangaridou, N., Liukkonen, J., & Pickup, I. (2008). Applying a mixed method design to evaluate training seminars within an early childhood education project. *Evaluation & Research in Education, 21*(1), 4-17.
- Graves, D. (1983). *Writing: Teachers and children at work*. London: Heinemann Educational.
- Gray, D. E. (2004). *Doing research in the real world*. London: Sage Publications.
- Green, B. (2009). Introduction: understanding and researching professional practice. In B. Green (Ed.), *Understanding and researching professional practice* (pp. 1-18). The Netherlands: Brill.
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Towards a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation design. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 11*, 255-274.
- Guba, E. G. (1990). The alternative paradigm dialog. In E. G. Guba (Ed.), *The paradigm dialog* (pp. 17-27). Newbury Park: Sage.
- Gunning, T. G. (2005). *Creating literacy instruction for all students* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1993). Towards a language-based theory of learning. *Linguistics and Education, 5*(2), 93-116.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Martin, J. R. (1993). *Writing science: Literacy and discursive power*. London: Falmer.
- Hargreaves, A., Lieberman, A., Fullan, M., & Hopkins, S. (2000). *International handbook of educational change*. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

- Hoadley, U. (2012). What do we know about teaching and learning in South African Primary Schools? *Education as Change*, 16(2), 187-202.
- Hobden, P., & Hobden, S. (2019). Learner's written work: An overview of quality, quantity and focus in South African Primary Schools. In N. Spaul & J. Jansen (Eds.), *South African Schooling: The enigma of inequality* (pp. 205-224). Switzerland: Springer.
- Hoshmand, L. T. (2003). Can lessons of history and logical analysis ensure progress in psychological science. *Theory and Psychology*, 13, 39-44.
- Howie, S. J., Combrinck, C., Tshela, M., Roux, K., McLeod Palane, N., & Mokoena, G. (2017). *PIRLS 2016: South African highlights report*. Centre for Evaluation and Assessment (CEA).
- Hsiang, T., Graham, S., & Yang, Y. M. (2020). Teachers' practices and beliefs about teaching writing: a comprehensive survey of grades 1 to 3 teachers. *Interdisciplinary Journal*, 33, 2511-2548. doi:10.1007/s11145-020-10050-4
- Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 17-29.
- Ivanic, R. (2004). Discourses of writing and learning to write. *Language and Education*, 18(3), 220-245.
- Jenkins, C. (1996). ALA youth service librarians and the care-UNESCO Children's Book Fund: selecting the "right book" for children in cold war America *Libraries & Culture*, 31(1), 209-234.
- Joe, A. (2010). The quality and frequency of encounters with vocabulary in an English for academic purposes programme. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 22(1), 117-138.
- Johnson, R. B., & Christensen, L. (2012). *Educational research, quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. United Kingdom: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.
- Jones, M., & Straker, K. (2006). What informs mentors' practice when working with trainees and newly qualified teachers? An investigation into mentors' professional knowledge base. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 32(2), 165-184.
- Julius, L. H. (2013). *Teaching writing to Grade 5 English language learners in two Grahamstown East Schools, South Africa: A case study*. Master's dissertation. Rhodes University,
- Kiuhara, S., Graham, S., & Hawkin, L. (2009). Teaching writing to high school students: A national survey. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101, 136-160.
- Krashen, S. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73(4), 440-464.
- Krugel, R., & Fourie, J. E. (2014). Concerns for the language skills of South African learners and their teachers. *International Journal of Education Sciences*, 7(1), 219-228.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews*. London: Sage.
- Leach, J., & Moon, B. (2008). *The power of pedagogy*. London: Sage.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Liu, J., & Zhang, J. (2018). The effects of extensive reading on English vocabulary learning: A meta-analysis. *English Language Teaching*, 11(6), 1-15.
- Louden, W., Rohl, M., Barratt Pugh, C., Brown, C., Cairney, T., Elderfield, J., & Rowe, K. (2005). *In teachers' hands: effective literacy teaching practices in early years of schooling. Monitoring Learning*, 2. Australia: Edith Cowan University.
- Lumsford, A. A., Moglen, H., & Slevin, J. (1990). *The right to literacy*. New York: The Modern Language Association of America.
- Macken-Horarik, M. (2002). Something to shoot for: a systemic functional approach to teaching genre in secondary school science. In A. M. Johns (Ed.), *Genre in the classroom* (pp. 17-42). Mahwah: Erlbaum.
- Makgamatha, M. M., & Masehela, K. (2005). *Impact study of the Molteno Project Programmes: Grade 2 main study: Final*. HSRC Research Outputs.
- Malina, M. A., Norreklit, H. S., & Selto, F. H. (2011). Lessons learned: advantages and disadvantages of mixed method research. *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management*, 8(1), 59-71.

- Manirabo, S. (2013). *Attitudes and motivation of teacher training college teachers and students towards english learning and use as medium of instruction in Rwanda*. University of Witwatersrand
Johannesburg.
- Martin, J. R. (1993). Genre and literacy: modelling context in educational linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 13, 141-172.
- Martin, J. R. (2014). Teaching/ learning: The yin and yang of language development from home through school. *Linguistics & the Human Sciences*, 10(1), 49-68.
- Maxcy, S. J. (2003). Pragmatic threads in mixed methods research in the social sciences: The search for multiple modes of inquiry and the end of the philosophy of formalism. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 51-89). Thousands Oaks: Sage.
- Maxwell, S. E., & Delaney, H. D. (2004). *Designing experiments and analyzing data* Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- May, T. (2011). *Social research issues, methods and process* (4th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill Open University Press.
- McCutcheon, G. (1988). Curriculum and the work of the teacher. In L. E. Beyer & M. W. Apple (Eds.), *The curriculum: problems, politics and possibilities* (pp. 191-203). Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998a). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998b). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Metcalfe, M., & Witten, A. (2019). Taking change to scale: Lessons from the Jika iMfundo campaign for overcoming inequalities in schools. In N. Spaul & J. D. Jansen (Eds.), *South African Schooling: The enigma of inequality* (pp. 337-351). Switzerland: Springer.
- Mgqwashu, E. M. (2019). Education for public good in the age of coloniality: Implications for pedagogy. *Journal of Decolonising Disciplines*, 1(1), 64-81. doi:10.35293/2664-3405/2019v1n1a5
- Mgqwashu, E. M., & Makhathini, B. (2017). Transforming primary school teachers' perceptions of the 'place' of teaching reading: the role of Reading to Learn methodology. *The Independent Journal of Teaching and Learning*, 12(1), 30-49.
- Moffet, C. A. (2000). Sustaining change: The answers are blowing in the wind. *Educational Leadership*, 57(7), 35-38.
- Morrow, W. (2007). *Learning to teach in South Africa*. Pretoria: HSRC Press.
- Motshekga, A. (2011). *Curriculum news. Improving the quality of learning and teaching, strengthening curriculum implementation from 2010 and beyond*, 3. Retrieved from Pretoria:
- Motshekga, A. (2013). *Statement on the release of Annual National Assessments Results for 2013*. Retrieved from Pretoria:
- Mpiti, T. (2016). *Teachers' and learners' experiences of learners' writing in English first additional language: a case study of isiXhosa and Afrikaans learners*. (Doctoral dissertation). University of Fort Hare, South Africa.
- Msibi, T., & Mchunu, S. (2013). The knot of curriculum and teacher professionalism in post-apartheid South Africa. *Education as Change*, 17(1), 19-35.
- Mukuna, T. E., & Mutsotso, S. N. (2011). Gender inequalities in early childhood development education teaching profession in Kenya. *Educational Research*, 2(13), 1876-1885.
- Muller, C. M., Hofmann, V., Begert, T., & Cillessen, A. H. (2018). Peer influence on disruptive classroom behavior depends on teachers' instructional practice. *Journal of applied developmental psychology*, 56, 99-108.
- Muthwii, M. J. (2004). Language planning and literacy in Kenya: Living with unresolved paradoxes. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 5(1), 34-50.

- Nagy, W., Kuo-Kealoha, A., Wu, X., Li, W., Anderson, R. C., & Chen, X. (2002). The role of morphological awareness in learning to read Chinese. In W. Li, J. S. Gaffney, & J. L. Packard (Eds.), *Chinese language acquisition: Theoretical and pedagogical issues* (pp. 59-86). Norwell: Kluwer.
- Naidoo, M. (2012). *Teacher identity and practice in the context of curriculum reform*. Unpublished dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban.
- National Commission on Writing. (2003). The neglected "R": The need for a writing revolution. Retrieved April 23, 2008, from http://www.writingcommission.org/prod_downloads/writingcom/neglect-edr.pdf.
- NEEDU. (2016). *National Education Evaluation and Development Unit and Quality Learning and Teaching Campaign (QLTC) Progress Reports*. Pretoria: National Education Evaluation and Development Unit.
- Nel, N., & Muller, H. (2010). Using English as a second language of instruction: Concerns and needs of primary school in South Africa. *South African Journal of Education, 30*(4), 635-650.
- Nelson Mandela Foundation. (2005). *Emerging voices: A report on education in South African rural communities*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.
- Ngubane, N. I., Ntombela, B., & Govender, S. (2020). Writing approaches and strategies used by teachers in selected South African English First Additional Language classrooms. *Reading & Writing- Journal of the Reading Association of South Africa, 11*(1), 1-8.
- Nilsen, P. (2015). Making sense of implementation theories, models and frameworks. *Implementation Science, 10*(53). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1186/s13012-015-0242-0>
- Niyomugabo, C. (2008). *La glottopolitique du KIE/ Rwanda: contribution a une sociolinguistique educative*. University of Rouen.
- Nordin, S., & Mohammad, N. (2017). The best of two approaches: process/ genre-based approach to teaching writing. *The English Teacher, 35*, 75-85.
- Ntuli, D., & Pretorius, E. J. (2005). Laying foundations for academic language competence: The effects of storybook reading on Zulu language, literacy and discourse development. *Southern African Linguistic and Applied Language Studies, 23*(1), 91-109.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching & learning*. New York, NY: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Percy, W. H., Kostere, K., & Kostere, S. (2015). Generic Qualitative Research in Psychology. *The Qualitative Report, 20*(2), 76-85.
- Persky, H. R., Daane, M. C., & Jin, Y. (2003). The nation's report card: Writing 2002. (NCES 2003-529). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics.
- Petersen, N. (2014). The 'good', the 'bad' and the 'ugly'? Views on male teachers in foundation phase education. *South African Journal of Education, 34*(1), 1-13.
- Pillay, V. (2020). Jika iMfundo: a South African study of turning education around' through improved curriculum coverage. *Professional Development in Education, 46*(2), 229-244.
- Pineteh, A. (2014). The academic writing challenges of undergraduate students: A South African case study. *International Journal of Higher Education, 3*(1), 12-22.
- Pretorius, E. J. (2015). Failure to launch: Matching language policy with literacy accomplishment in South African schools. *International Journal for the Sociology of Language, 234*, 47-76.
- Pretorius, E. J., & Klapwijk, N. M. (2016). Reading comprehension in South African schools: Are teachers getting it, and getting it right? *A Journal for Language Learning, 32*(1).
- Priestley, M. (2015). Teacher agency. What is it and why does it matter. 3 September 2015. *British Research Association blog*. Retrieved from <https://www.bera.ac.uk/blog/teacher-agency-what-is-it-and-why-does-it-matter>.
- Priestley, M., Biesta, G., & Robinson, S. (2017). *Teacher agency: An ecological approach*. London: Bloomsbury Academic.
- Priestley, M., & Biesta, G. J. J. (2013). Teachers as 'agents of change': Teacher agency and emerging of curriculum. In M. Priestley & G. J. J. Biesta (Eds.), *Reinventing the curriculum: new trends in curriculum policy and practice* (pp. 187-206). London: Bloomsbury Academic.

- Priestley, M., Edwards, R., Priestley, A., & Miller, K. (2012). Teacher agency in curriculum making: Agents of change and spaces for manoeuvre. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 42(2), 191-214.
- Prince, M., & Felder, R. M. (2006). Inductive teaching and learning methods: Definitions, comparisons, and research bases. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 95(2), 123-138.
- Prior, L. (2003). *Using documents in social research*. London: Sage Publications.
- PSRIP. (2016). *Primary School Reading Improvement Programme: Grade 3 Lesson Plan*. Pretoria: National Education Collaboration Trust
- Raimes, A. (1991). Out of the woods: Emerging traditions in the teaching of writing. *TESOL quarterly*, 25(3), 407-430.
- Ramatlapana, K., & Makonye, J. P. (2012). From too much freedom to too much restriction: The case of teacher autonomy from National Curriculum Statement (NCS) to Curriculum and Assessment Statement (CAPS). *African Education Review*, 9(1), 7-25. doi:10.1080/18146627.2012.753185
- Ramrathan, L. (2010). From response to theorizing: Curriculum genesis in South Africa from the perspective of critical incident autoethnography. In W. F. Pinar (Ed.), *Curriculum studies in South Africa. Intellectual histories and present circumstances*. Palgrave MacMillan: New York.
- Reading to Learn, S. A. (2015). *Teacher training manuals*, . Pietermaritzburg: RtL SA.
- Reed, Y. (2014). *Initial teacher education research project: Report on English courses for intermediate phase student teachers at five universities*. Johannesburg: JET Education Services.
- Reeves, C., Heugh, K., Prinsloo, C. H., Macdonald, C., Netshitangani, T., Alidou, H., & Herbst, D. (2008). *Evaluation of literacy teaching in primary schools of Limpopo Province*. Retrieved from *Limpopo: South Africa*.
- Reeves, C., & Robinson, M. (2014). Assumptions underpinning the conceptualisation of preprofessional learning in teacher education. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 28(1), 236-253.
- Reigstad, T. J., & McAndrew, D. A. (1984). Training tutors for writing conferences.
- Republic of Rwanda. (1996). *Official Gazette of the Republic of Rwanda, No 3*. Kigali: Government Press
- Resnik, D. B. (2011). What is Ethics in Research & Why is it Important? . from Retrieved July 20, 2014 from <http://www.niehs.nih.gov/research/resources/bioethics/whatis/>
- Ribbens, I. R. (2008). Hypnotised by Gutenberg: A report on the reading habits of some learners in academia. *Journal of Language Teaching*, 42(2), 105-122.
- Richards, J. C., Gallo, P. B., & Renandya, W. A. (2001). Exploring teachers' beliefs and the processes of change. *The PAC Journal*, 1(1), 41-62.
- Rimensberger, N. (2014). Reading is very important, but...: Taking stock of South African student teachers' reading habits. *Reading & Writing-Journal of Reading Association of South Africa*, 5(1), 1-9.
- Rocco, T. S., & Plakhotnik, M. S. (2009). Literature reviews, conceptual frameworks, and theoretical frameworks: Terms, functions, and distinctions. *Human Resource Development Review*, 8(1), 120-130.
- Rock, M. I., Gregg, M., Ellis, E., & Gable, R. A. (2008). REACH: A framework for differentiating classroom instruction. Preventing school failure. *Alternative education for children and youth*, 52, 31-47.
- Rose, D. (2004). "Sequencing and pacing of the hidden curriculum: How indigenous children are left out of the chain". In J. Muller, A. Morais, & B. Davies (Eds.), *Reading Bernstein, Researching Bernstein* (pp. 91-107). London: Routledge Falmer.
- Rose, D. (2005). Democratising the classroom: A literacy pedagogy for the new generation. In D. Francis and V. Wedekind (Ed). *Journal of Education*, 37, 131-167.
- Rose, D. (2008). 'Writing a linguistic mastery: The development of genre-based literacy pedagogy'. In D. Myhill, D. Beard, M. Nystrand, & J. Riley (Eds.), *Handbook of Writing Development* (pp. 151-166). London: Sage.
- Rose, D. (2009). *Beyond literacy: Building an intergrated pedagogic genre*. Paper presented at the Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics, Brisbane.

- Rose, D. (2011). Beating educational inequality with an integrated reading pedagogy. In F. Christie & A. Simpson (Eds.), *Literacy and social responsibility* (pp. 101-115). London and Oakville: Equinox.
- Rose, D., & Martin, J. R. (2012). *Learning to write, reading to learn: Genre, knowledge and pedagogy of the Sydney School*. London: Equinox.
- Rose, D., & Martin, J. R. (2013). Intervening in context of schooling. In J. Flowerden (Ed.), *Discourse in context: Contemporary applied linguistics Volume 3* (pp. 273-300). London: Bloomsbury Academic.
- Rossmann, G. B., & Wilson, B. L. (1984). Numbers and words: Combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single large-scale evaluation study". *Evolution Review*, 9(5), 627-643.
- Rule, P., & John, V. (2011). *Your guide to case study research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Salminen, J., & Annevirta, T. (2016). Curriculum and teachers' pedagogical thinking when planning for teaching. *Euro-JCS*, 3(1), 387-406.
- Samuel, M. (1998). *Words, lives and music: On becoming a teacher of English*. Durban: University of Durban-Westville.
- Sanmuel, M. (2008). Accountability to whom? For what? Teacher identity and the Force Field Model of teacher development. *Perspectives in Education*, 26(2), 3-16.
- Sarantakos, S. (2005). *Social research* (3rd ed.). Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Schiefele, U. (2009). Situational and individual interest. In K. R. Wentzel & A. Wigfield (Eds.), *A handbook of motivation at school* (pp. 197-222). New York: Routledge.
- Schulze, J. (2015). Academic language, english language learners and Systemic Functional Linguistics: Connecting theory and practice in teacher education. *CATESOL Journal*, 27(1), 109-130.
- Shalem, Y., De Clercq, F., Steinberg, C., & Koornhof, H. (2018). Teacher autonomy in times of standardised lesson plans: The case of a Primary School Language and Mathematics Intervention in South Africa. *Journal of Educational Change*, 19(2), 205-222.
- Shohamy, E. (2006). *Language Policy: Hidden agendas and new approaches*. New York: Routledge.
- Shu, H., & Liu, B. (1994). The role of pinyin on young primary school children's early reading. *Psychological Development and Education (Children)*, 13, 11-15.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Education Review*, 57, 1-22.
- Sibanda, J. (2017). Language at the Grade three and four interface: The theory-policy-practice nexus. *South African Journal of Education*, 37(2), 1-10.
- Sibanda, J., & Baxen, J. (2018). Third- Grade English second language teachers' vocabulary development practices. *South African Journal of Childhood Education*, 8(1), 1-9.
- Silva, T. (1990). Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues, and directions in ESL. In M. H. Long & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Second language writing* (pp. 11-22). United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Slavin, R., Madden, N., & Karweit, N. (1989). Effective programs for students at risk: Conclusions for practice and policy. In R. Slavin, N. Karweit, & N. Madden (Eds.), *Effective programs for students at risk* (pp. 21-54). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Smit, B. (2001). How primary school teachers experience education policy change in South Africa? *Perspectives in Education*, 19(3), 67-83.
- Snow, C. E., & Matthews, T. J. (2016). Reading and language in early grades. *Future Children*, 26(1), 57-74.
- Soudien, C. (2003). Notions of teacher professionalism in the context of a racially divided society. In K. Lewin, M. Samuel, & Y. Sayed (Eds.), *Changing patterns of teacher education in South Africa: Policy practice and prospects* (pp. 273-283). Sandtown: Heinemann.
- Spaull, N. (2013a). Poverty and privilege: Primary school inequality in South Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 33(5), 436-447.
- Spaull, N. (2013b). *South Africa's education crisis: The quality of education in South Africa 1994-2011*. Johannesburg: Centre for Development and Enterprise.

- Spaull, N., van der Berg, S., Wills, G., Gustafsson, M., & Kotze, J. (2016). *Laying firm foundations, getting reading right* Retrieved from Stellenbosch: South Africa:
- Spillane, J. P., Reiser, B. J., & Reimer, T. (2002). Policy implementation and cognition: Reframing and refocusing implementation research. *Review of Educational Research, 72*(3), 387-431.
- Steenbergen-Hu, S., Makel, M. C., & Olszewski-Kubilius, P. (2016). What one hundred years of research says about the effects of ability grouping and acceleration on K-12 students' academic achievement: Findings of two second-order meta-analyses. *Review of Educational Research, 86*, 849-899.
- Stockard, J. (2011). Increasing reading skills in rural areas: An analysis of three school districts. *Journal of Research in Rural Education, 26*(8), 1-19.
- Sun, C., & Feng, G. (2009). Process approach to teaching writing applied in different teaching models. *English Language Teaching, 2*(1), 150-155.
- Taylor, N. (2019). Teacher knowledge in South Africa. . In N. Spaull & J. Jansen (Eds.), *South African schooling: The enigma of inequality* (pp. 263-282). New York: Springer Nature.
- Taylor, N., & Vinjevoold, P. (1999). *Getting learning right: Report on the President's Education Initiative Project*. Johannesburg: Joint Education Trust.
- The National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT). (2015). *Jika iMfundo Teacher Toolkit Grdae 3 English First Additional Language Term 2*. Parktown: The World Horse
- The National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT). (2016). *Primary School Reading Improvement Programme Grade 3 Term 2 Lesson Plan*. Centurion: NECT
- Tribble, C. (1996). *Writing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- UNESCO. (2003). *Literacy: A UNESCO perspective*. Paris: UNESCO Publications Board.
- Verbeek, D. C. (2010). *Teaching reading for meaning? A case study of the initial teaching of reading in a mainstream South African School*. University of KwaZulu Natal. Pietermaritzburg.
- Vinjevoold, P. (1999). Learning materials. In N. Taylor & P. Vinjevoold (Eds.), *Report on the President's Education Initiative Project* (pp. 163-184). Johannesburg: Joint Education Trust.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, M.A: Havard University Press.
- Wacker, J. G. (1998). A definition of theory: research guidelines for different theory-building research methods in operations management. *Journal of Operations Management, 16*, 361-385.
- Watson, W. (1990). Types of pluralism. *The Monist, 73*(3), 350-367.
- Wentzel, K. R. (2009). Students' relationships with teachers as motivational contexts. In K. R. Wentzel & A. Wigfield (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation at school* (pp. 301-322). New York: Routledge.
- Wessels, M., & Van den Berg, R. (1999). *Practical guide to facilitating language learning: Methods, activities and techniques for OBE*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- White, R., & Arndt, V. (1991). *Process writing*. Harlow: Longman.
- Wilson, H. E. (1947). The development of UNESCO. *Int'l Conciliation, 25*, 295.
- Wray, D., Medwell, J., Poulson, L., & Fox, R. (2002). *Teaching literacy effectively in the primary school*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Wu, X., Li, H., Anderson, R. C., & Li, W. (2002). The role of pinyin in Chinese children's shared book reading. *Psychological Science (China), 25*, 548-639.
- Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: DBE Permission (Gate keeper)



education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Phindile Duma
Ref.:2/4/8/4137

Tel: 033 392 1063

Mr LW Lushaba
24 Combrink Road
RidgePark
PIETERMARITZBURG
3201

Dear Mr Lushaba

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **“EXPLORING GRADE 3 TEACHERS’ WRITING INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES IN RESPONSE TO DBE PROGRAMMES”**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.


Dr. EV Nzama
Head of Department: Education
Date: 15 June 2020

...Leading Social Compact and Economic Emancipation
Through a Revolutionary Education for All...

4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the Intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 15 June 2020 to 01 July 2022.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Miss Phindile Duma at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report/dissertation/thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Office of the HOD, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to schools and institutions in KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

**UGU DISTRICT
DISTRICT**

HARRY GWALA DISTRICT

UMGUNGUNDLOVU

Appendix B: Ethical Clearance Letter

12 May 2020

Mr Lucky Witness Lushaba (9503200)
School Of Education
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mr Lushaba,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00000971/2020

New Project title: Exploring Grade 3 teachers' writing instructional practices in response to the DBE programs

Degree: Masters

Approval Notification – Amendment Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application and request for an amendment received on 12 May 2020 has now been approved as follows:

- Change in data collection method
- Change in title

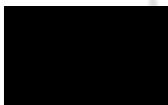
Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form; Title of the Project, Location of the Study must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

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

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.

Yours faithfully







Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

/dd

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
UKZN Research Ethics Office Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Tel: +27 31 280 8350 / 4957 / 3587

Website: <http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/>

Founding Campuses:  Edgewood  Howard College  Medical School  Pietermaritzburg  Westville

INSPIRING GREATNESS

Appendix C: Participants' consent letter one, for the survey together with the Questionnaire

Consent Letter

This survey is conducted by Lucky W. Lushaba who is doing Masters in the University of KwaZulu-Natal. You have been selected to participate in this study because you have been teaching Grade 3 English First Additional Language in 2019. This study aims to find out how Grade 3 teachers teach extended writing and how they have responded to the Department of Basic Education (DBE) programmes like *Jika iMfundo* and Primary School Reading Improvement Programme (PSRIP).

Your participation in this study is voluntary and I will not share your responses with anyone. To ensure that I cannot identify you and keep your responses confidential, I do not need you to write your name and cell number anywhere in this survey. However, if you are willing to be part of the six (6) Grade 3 teachers who will participate in a 30-45 minutes telephonic interview, you can give me your name and cell number in question 25. I can assure you that your personal details will never be shared with anyone but will only be used to contact you for a telephonic interview.

If you have any questions about this study please contact me: Lucky Lushaba on 079 144 8395 or email me on 9503200@stu.ukzn.ac.za

By completing this questionnaire, it means that you have given consent to participate in this study. You can withdraw at any stage if you so wish.

Information gathered from this survey will assist in formulating proposals about the kind of support teachers need, to be good teachers of writing.

NB! This questionnaire will take about 20-30 minutes of your time.

*** Required**

Section A

1. Gender

Female

Male

2. Your age

20 – 30 years

31 – 40 years

41 – 50 years

51 years and above

3. Number of years teaching Grade 3.

0 – 5

6 – 15

16 – 25

26 and above

4. Your highest formal qualification

Matric (Grade 12/ Standard 10)

Diploma

Degree

Honours

Masters

PhD

5. Your education qualification

Teaching Diploma

ACE

PGCE

B. Ed Degree

B.Paed Degree

Other

6. If you selected Other, in Question 5, name your qualification in the space below.

Your answer

7. Your post level

PL 1 Teacher

D.H (HOD)

Deputy Principal

Principal

8. Which programme does your school use?

Jika iMfundo

PSRIP

9. Before your school was selected to use this DBE programme, which teaching method were you using for the teaching of extended writing?

Foundations for learning methodology

Reading to Learn methodology

I taught like I was taught when I was in Grade 3

Other

10. If selected Other, in question 9, name the methodology you were using.

Your answer

Section B

11. How do you feel about the DBE programme that you use in your school?

Satisfied

Frustrated

Confused

Other

12. If you chose Other, in Question 11, Please name your feeling in the space below.

Your answer

13. Rate the following statements about the DBE programme you are using in your school. *

Agree

Disagree

Not sure

13.1 It gives me a clear direction on how to teach.

13.2 It provides too much prescription and does not allow any flexibility.

13.3 It requires too much administration from the teacher.

13.4 It requires learners to do too many activities in a short space of time.

13.5 It assumes that the learners already have the basic knowledge and skills needed in order to write sentences and paragraphs.

14. Which of the following statements best describe how you use the DBE programme in your school? *

Always

Sometimes

Often

Never

14.1 I only use what is useful in the DBE programme and leave out the rest.

14.2 I only use some of the activities given in the programme, according to my learners' needs.

14.3 I always restructure the timing of the activities and don't follow the set guidelines.

14.4 I follow the exact timing-line and activities that are given in the DBE programme.

14.5 I do not use the DBE programme at all, I use the teaching methods I have always been using.

15. How can you describe your learners' extended writing skills (like writing sentences and paragraphs) in English FAL? *

Poor

Average

Good

Excellent

16. What do you think should be done with the learners who are progressed to Grade 3 without mastering extended writing skills? They must be *

Supported until they can write

Ignored

Progressed every year

17. Which of the following text types do you teach to your learners to write? *

Stories

Recipes

Explanations

Poems

Other

18. How often do your learners write extended writing activities?

Once a week

Once in two weeks

Once a month

Once per term

Never

19. Choose the best options that describe what a good Grade 3 teacher must be like in order to support all learners.... *

Agree

Disagree

Not sure

19.1 Knowledgeable about how to teach extended writing skills.

19.2 Posses extended writing skills himself/herself.

19.3 Willing to go the extra mile in his/her class and provide feedback on learners' work.

19.4 Able to let his/her learners to interact and do peer support of writing.

19.5 Confident enough to make decisions that benefit learners' writing development.

19.6 Someone who follows what the curriculum programme requires even when it does not benefit learners.

19.7 Enjoys reading and shows learners that reading is fun.

Section C

20. Which of the following statements best reflect your beliefs about the development of extended writing? *

Agree

Disagree

Not sure

20.1 It is important that learners consider social context and situation when writing texts.

20.2 By imitating other written texts learners can improve their extended writing skills.

20.3 When learning to write, putting your ideas on paper is more important than worrying about spelling and grammar mistakes.

20.4 Learners must always write using the correct spelling and grammar

20.5 Learners must be made aware that writing is done to achieve a particular purpose.

20.6 Story writing is important because it stimulates learners' creativity and imagination.

20.7 Learners must know that tone and style of writing changes depending on who you are writing to.

21. How often do you use the following activities when you introduce your learners to extended writing skills? *

Always

Sometimes

Seldom

Never

21.1 Introduce learners to phonics (letter sounds) first.

21.2 Teach spelling using segmenting and blending.

21.3 Teach grammar rules.

21.4 Show learners how different texts are structured.

21.5 Engage learners in 'word find' activities.

21.6 Read a short text in detail to show learners how it is structured.

22. How important are the following activities in supporting learners to be good writers? *

Very important

Quite important

Not important

Not sure

22.1 Show them the importance of planning before writing.

22.2 Use a picture as a stimulus for creative writing.

22.3 Use brainstorming to find words you are going to use when writing.

22.4 Teach sentence writing using a passage from the text read.

22.5 Show learners how to write, by modelling writing on the board.

22.6 Give learners guidelines (a frame) to use when writing.

22.7 Give learners a checklist to follow when editing their written work.

22.8 Give learners opportunities to read their edited work before writing the final draft.

23. Which of the following activities do you think are important for learners to develop extended writing skills? *

Very important

Quite important

Not important

Not sure

23.1 Learners practise using cohesive devices/ connecting words to join sentences.

23.2 Learners construct different types of sentences, like simple, compound and complex sentences.

23.3 Learners compare their mother tongue structure to the English first additional language structure.

23.4 Learners use different forms of verbs when writing.

23.5 Learners practise extended writing using the structure of the text that was read in the class.

23.6 After writing the first draft, learners submit their work to the teacher for marking and feedback before learners can move to the next stage of writing.

24. Are you willing to participate in a 30-45-minute-long telephone interview?

Yes

No

25. If Your answer (in question 24) is Yes, please supply your name and cell number.

Your answer

Submit

Never submit passwords through Google Forms.

This content is neither created nor endorsed by Google. [Report Abuse](#) - [Terms of Service](#) - [Privacy Policy](#)

Appendix D: Participants' Consent Letter two, for the interview

24 Combrink Road
RidgePark
Pietermaritzburg
3201
25 May 2020

Dear Grade 3 Teacher

REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH PROJECT

My name is Lucky Witness Lushaba (Student No. 9503200) a Masters (MEd) student in the School of Education at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg campus). As part of the requirement for this degree, I am required to conduct interviews with Grade 3 teachers. Thank you for indicating, in a questionnaire that you are willing to participate in the telephonic interview. The title of my study is: **“Exploring Grade 3 teachers’ writing instructional practices in response to the DBE programmes.”**

The aim and purpose of this research study is to find out how Grade 3 teachers teach writing (extended writing) and how the DBE programmes (*Jika imfundo* or PSRIP) have influenced their teaching practice. As a participant, you will be interviewed telephonically at a time that is convenient to you. Follow-up interviews may be conducted if necessary. Each interview will be voice-recorded. The duration of an interview will be about 30 to 45 minutes.

This study will not involve any risks and/or discomfort to teachers. Also, the study will not provide direct benefits for teachers.

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact me, my supervisor or the UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

My contact number

Email: lushabal@vodamail.co.za Cell: 079 144 8395

Supervisor

My supervisor is Prof. Carol Bertram who is located at the School of Education, Pietermaritzburg campus of University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Telephone 033 260 5349, Email address: BertramC@ukzn.ac.za

UKZN Research Office

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Participation in this research study is voluntary and teachers may withdraw participation at any point. In the event of refusal/withdrawal of participation, teachers will not be penalized. There are no consequences for teachers if they withdraw from the study.

No costs will be incurred by teachers as a result of participation in the study and there are no incentives or reimbursements for participation in the study.

All names of participants will be changed and pseudonyms will be used so that the participants remain anonymous. Information provided by teachers will remain confidential and will not be shared with anyone else. Data generated through telephone interviews will be stored in my supervisor's office, at the School of Education, Pietermaritzburg campus for five years, and will thereafter be destroyed.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours in Education

Lucky Witness Lushaba

DECLARATION OF CONSENT

I, _____ (Name of the teacher) have been informed about the study entitled: **Exploring Grade 3 teachers' writing instructional practices in response to the DBE programmes** by Lucky Witness Lushaba.

I understand the purpose and procedures of the study.

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I am usually entitled to.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study. I understand that I may contact the researcher at (079 144 8395).

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557 - Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Additional consent, where applicable

I hereby provide consent to: (Please put a X next to your response)

Being interviewed (telephonically)	Yes	No
------------------------------------	-----	----

Signature of the teacher

Date

Appendix E: Interview schedule – PSRIP Teachers

1. For how long have you been teaching English First Additional Language in Grade 3?

IsiZulu: Usuyifundise isikhathi esingakanani i- English First Additional Language kwa Grade 3?

2. When you were training to become a teacher, were you trained on how to teach writing?

a. If yes, can you explain the methodology that you were taught to teach writing?

IsiZulu: Ngenkathi uqeqeshelwa ukuba u-Teacher, Wafundiswa indlela ongayisebenzisa uma ufundisa ukubhala?

A Uma wafundiswa, ungachaza ukuthi kwathiwa ukufundise kanjani ukubhala?

3. Do you think it is important for Grade 3 learners to write extended texts in English? If yes, why? If no, why not?

IsiZulu: Ngokucabanga kwakho, ngakube kubalulekile yini ukuthi abafundi bakwa-Grade 3 bakwazi ukubhala imisho nama –paragraphs ngesingisi? Uma uthi Yebo, chaza ukuthi kubaluleke ngani? Uma uthi Qha, chaza ukuthi kungani kungabalulekile.

4. What are the challenges that your learners face in writing extended texts in English?

IsiZulu: Yiziphi izinselelo abafundi bakho ababhekana nazo uma bebhala imisho noma ama-paragraphs?

5. How do you support your learners to write an extended text, such as a story?

IsiZulu: Ubalekelela kanjani abafundi bakho ekubhaleni imisho nama-paragraphs noma izindaba (stories)?

6. Explain what knowledge and skills you think learners must have **before** they can write extended texts.

IsiZulu: Chaza ukuthi yiluphi ulwazi namakhono ocabanga ukuthi abafundi kumele babe nawo ngaphambi kokuthi bakwazi ukubhala imisho nama paragraphs?

7. I know that you attended PSRIP training. How would you explain how PSRIP wants you to teach writing?

IsiZulu: Ngiyazi ukuthi wafundiswa ngo-PSRIP. Ngokuchaza kwakho, ungathi u-PSRIP ufuna nikufundise kanjani ukubhala imisho nama-paragraphs?

8. Explain how the writing methodology of PSRIP programme differs from the methodology you were using before.

IsiZulu: Chaza ukuthi indlela yokufundisa ukubhala (imisho noma ama-paragraphs) ngokuka PSRIP yehluka kanjani kunendlela obufundisa ngayo ukubhala engakafiki u-PSRIP?

9. Explain some of the challenges you face when using PSRIP methodology in your class.

IsiZulu: Chaza ezinye zezinselelo oke ubhekane nazo uma ufundisa abafundi ukubhala ngokwendlela yakwa PSRIP.

10. Do you use the PSRIP exactly as it requires you to do so, or do you adapt it? If so, how do you adapt it?

IsiZulu: Uma ufundisa abafundi ukubhala, ngabe ulandela indlela yakwa PSRIP njengoba injalo noma uyayi-guqula lapha nalaphaya? Uma uyiguqula, Ukwenzelani lokho?

11. Look at this text that a Grade 3 learner has written.

What kinds of feedback would you give to this learner? Start with the most important feedback to the least important. (Probe: how do you think this text can be improved?)

IsiZulu: Bheka lesigatshana sendaba ebhalwe umfundi wakwa- Grade 3.

Emuva kokufunda lendaba, yiziphi izeluleko ongamnika zona lomfundi? Qala ngezeluleko ezibaluleke kakhulu ugcine ngezingabalulekile kakhulu.

Not that far from where I was
standing, in the swamp, I though
I heard a strange gurgling
noise. Mandy had frozen and
was looking at the swamp. I
wanted to yell "run" but my
throat was dry. Suddenly a
yellow slime ^{appeared} in the
water, then a red dot in
the water. I whispered
"The great scream pastime"
"swamp water snake."
Mandy nodded then she
whispered "Back away slowly" we
climbed and hid behind some
rocks. Soon the gurgling sound
got fainter then it was
gone. We rowed back in our
boat and never came.

Appendix F: Interview schedule – Jika iMfundo teachers

1. For how long have you been teaching English First Additional Language in Grade 3?

IsiZulu: Usuyifundise isikhathi esingakanani i- English First Additional Language kwa Grade 3?

2. When you were training to become a teacher, were you trained on how to teach writing?

a. If yes, can you explain the methodology that you were taught to teach writing?

IsiZulu: Ngenkathi uqeqeshelwa ukuba u-Teacher, Wafundiswa indlela ongayisebenzisa uma ufundisa ukubhala?

a. Uma wafundiswa, ungachaza ukuthi kwathiwa ukufundise kanjani ukubhala?

3. Do you think it is important for Grade 3 learners to write extended texts in English? If yes, why? If no, why not?

IsiZulu: Ngokucabanga kwakho, ngakube kubalulekile yini ukuthi abafundi bakwa-Grade 3 bakwazi ukubhala imisho nama –paragraphs ngesingisi? Uma uthi Yebo, chaza ukuthi kubaluleke ngani? Uma uthi Qha, chaza ukuthi kungani kungabalulekile.

4. What are the challenges that your learners face in writing extended texts in English?

IsiZulu: Yiziphi izinselelo abafundi bakho ababhekana nazo uma bebhala imisho noma ama-paragraphs?

5. How do you support your learners to write an extended text, such as a story?

IsiZulu: Ubalekelela kanjani abafundi bakho ekubhaleni imisho nama-paragraphs noma izindaba (stories)?

6. Explain what knowledge and skills you think learners must have **before** they can write extended texts.

IsiZulu: Chaza ukuthi yiluphi ulwazi namakhono ocabanga ukuthi abafundi kumele babe nawo ngaphambi kokuthi bakwazi ukubhala imisho nama paragraphs?

7. I know that you attended *Jika iMfundo* (JM) training. How would you explain how JM wants you to teach extended writing?

IsiZulu: Ngiyazi ukuthi wafundiswa ngo-Jika iMfundo (JM). Ngokuchaza kwakho, ungathi u-Jika iMfundo ufuna nikufundise kanjani ukubhala imisho nama-paragraphs?

8. Explain how the writing methodology of JM differs from the methodology you were using before.

IsiZulu: Chaza ukuthi indlela yokufundisa ukubhala (imisho noma ama-paragraphs) ngokuka Jika iMfundo yehluka kanjani kunendlela obufundisa ngayo ukubhala engakafiki u Jika iMfundo.

9. Explain some of the challenges you face when using *Jika iMfundo* methodology in your class.

IsiZulu: Chaza ezinye zezinselelo oke ubhekane nazo uma ufundisa abafundi ukubhala ngokwendlela yakwa Jika iMfundo.

10. Do you use the JM exactly as it requires you to do so, or do you adapt it? If so, how do you adapt it?

IsiZulu: Uma ufundisa abafundi ukubhala, ngabe ulandela indlela yakwa Jika iMfundo njengoba injalo noma uyayi-guqula lapha nalaphaya? Uma uyiguqula, Ukwenzelani lokho?

11. Look at this text that a Grade 3 learner has written.

What kinds of feedback would you give to this learner? Start with the most important feedback to the least important. (Probe: how do you think this text can be improved?)

IsiZulu: Bheka lesigatshana sendaba ebhalwe umfundi wakwa- Grade 3.

Emuva kokufunda lendaba, yiziphi izeluleko ongamnika zona lomfundi? Qala ngezeluleko ezibaluleke kakhulu ugcine ngezingabalulekile kakhulu.

Not that far from where I was
standing, in the swamp. I though
I heard a strange gurgling
noise. Mandy had frozen and
was looking at the swamp. I
wanted to yell "run" but my
throat was dry. Suddenly a
yellow slime ^{appeared} just on the
water, then a red dot in
the water. I whispered
"The great scream pastime"
"swamp water snake."
Mandy nodded then she
whispered "Back away slowly" we
did and hid behind some
rocks. Soon the gurgling sound
got fainter then it was
gone. We rowed back in our
boat and never came.

Appendix G: Document analysis checklist (Nordin & Mohammad, 2017)

Writing Approach	Teaching of writing	<i>Jika iMfundo</i>	PSRIP	RtL	Comments
Product Approach	Focuses on grammatical features, e.g spelling, punctuations and grammar.				
	Writing accuracy is important				
	Teacher uses a writing model/ sample to be followed by learners when writing.				
	Learners to produce written texts similar to the model used in class.				
	The focus is on the product of writing.				
Writing Approach	Teaching of writing	<i>Jika iMfundo</i>	PSRIP	RtL	Comments
Process Approach	Focus of writing instruction is on following the writing steps/how to write.				
	During writing learners follow the writing stages: planning, revising, drafting, editing, publishing.				
	Teacher check learners' work after each stage and gives them feedback.				
	Learners do self- corrections after getting teacher's feedback.				
	Teacher marks the final draft/ published and awards marks on it.				
Writing Approach	Teaching of writing	<i>Jika iMfundo</i>	PSRIP	RtL	Comments
Genre Approach	Teachers explicitly teach learners how language functions in social context.				
	Learners are encouraged to explore texts from different genres.				
	Language used is guided by purpose and audience				
	Teacher scaffolds learners through interactive and collaborative writing activities.				
	Focus on the Reading and writing relationship.				
Writing Approach	Teaching of writing	<i>Jika iMfundo</i>	PSRIP	RtL	Comments
Balanced Approach	Learners made aware that writing occur in a certain context to achieve a certain purpose.				
	Learners exposed to different genres to identify writer-audience relationship and mode.				
	During writing, learners follow planning, drafting, editing and publishing stages of writing.				
	Learners receive feedback after each stage of writing.				

Appendix H: Turnitin Report

Congratulations - your submission is complete! This is your digital receipt. You can print a copy of this receipt from within the Document Viewer.

Author:
Lucky Lushaba

Assignment title:
Draft chapters 2020

Submission title:
Lucky Lushaba Dissertation 25 Jan

File name:
Lucky Lushaba Disertation 25.docx

File size:
348K

Page count:
90

Word count:
31190

Character count:
168206

Submission date:
25-Jan-2021 02:05AM (UTC+0200)

Submission ID:
1263309585

« Page 1 »



Lucky Lushaba | Lucky Lushaba Dissertation 25 Jan

Match Overview
✕

10%

	Match	
1	Submitted to University... Student Paper	1% >
2	rw.org.za Internet Source	1% >
3	researchspace.ukzn.ac... Internet Source	<1% >
4	nect.org.za Internet Source	<1% >
5	vital.seals.ac.za8080 Internet Source	<1% >
6	hdl.handle.net Internet Source	<1% >
7	iiespace.iie.ac.za Internet Source	<1% >

Appendix I: Confirmation of editing

Geraldine Coertze
Independent Communications Consultant
Language Practitioner -
English Language Academic Editor

Confirmation of Academic Editing

Author: Lucky Witness Lushaba

Date: 24 January 2021

Document type: Masters dissertation

Discipline: Education

Academic supervisor: Prof. Carol Bertram

Institution: University of KwaZulu-Natal

Dissertation title: Exploring Grade 3 teachers' writing instructional practices in response to the Department of Basic Education programmes

This document serves to confirm that the above dissertation was language edited during January 2021. Besides this, assistance was provided with the Table of Contents, List of Figures, List of Tables and with checking the format of the reference list.

The document was returned to the author with tracked changes and comments. It was the responsibility of the author to accept or reject changes and to attend to issues raised in the comments. The final, corrected version of the document was not proofread, although assistance was provided with final layout.


Ms Geraldine Coertze
Communications Consultant

Address: Pelham, Pietermaritzburg

Email: gericoe@gmail.com

Cell: +2782 620 2266

Individual member: South African Translators' Association
Associate member: Professional Editors' Guild (SA)
Entry-level member: Chartered Institute of Editing and Proofreading (UK)
Full member: South African Communication Association
Highest qualification: MSocSc (CCMS), UKZN