Geography of First Additional Languages Teaching: Landscaping the Foundation Phase Years

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of
the Degree to be awarded:

Doctor of Philosophy
School of Education
University of KwaZulu-Natal

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2018

HSS/1324/015D

ABSTRACT

Public schooling in South Africa is comprehensively categorised in terms of geography (rural/urban/township), infrastructure (quintiles 1 to 5), performance (performing and non-performing schools) and many other formal and non-formal categories. These categories have largely been used in reporting learner performances and interventions, yet these categories may have serious implications for teaching and learning and may ultimately impact learner performance. This study explored the teaching of a first additional language (FAL) in different geographical contexts. Research on first additional language teaching has been on the agenda in South Africa, and indeed the world, for several decades now. Interventions have been made in response to systemic findings, yet little success has been noted in terms of advancement to a sustainable degree. As a result, on-going research in this focus area is needed to enrich scholarly debates and the practice of additional language teaching with new insights. This research report alludes to the new insights that were obtained in its quest to determine if there were any significant deviations in the pedagogical practices that primary school teachers employed when teaching a first additional language in different contexts.

The study was underpinned by Bernstein's pedagogic theory and Bourdieu's social topography conceptual framework which is a construct of his field theory. The application of both theoretical lenses mutually contributed to the understanding of the significance of social space for one's shape of pedagogic practice and behaviour. The study employed a qualitative interpretive approach. It was constructed as a multi-case study that involved three Foundation Phase teachers who taught FAL in three geographically different primary schools in the Ilembe, Umlazi and Pinetown Districts. The teachers were purposively sampled. Data were generated by means of multiple data generation methods that included semi-structured interviews, structured observations, post-observation interviews, and document analysis. The data were thematically analysed using content and context analyses, and the results are presented in this thesis as collated key findings.

The findings revealed variances in the manner in which teachers taught FAL. These variances could be linked to that contextual variations clearly influenced the way they taught. The challenges that were identified included lack of departmental officials' support, lack of teachers' knowledge of how to teach a FAL, teachers' attitude towards the teaching of a FAL (which resulted in default teaching that could be related to challenges experienced in each

geographical context). It is argued that these and other challenges were factors that contributed to the differentiated teaching and learning of a FAL in geographically different contexts.

The study contributes to a fresh understanding of how geographical variations influence the teaching and learning of a FAL and how these variations ultimately impact learner performance in the Foundation Phase.

Keywords: *First Additional Language teaching, foundation phase teaching, geographical contexts, pedagogical practices, school categorisation.*

DECLARATION

I, **Patience Jabulile Mzimela (207 522 452),** hereby declare that this thesis is my original work. I have produced this work under the supervision of **Professor Labby Ramrathan** in the School of Education, University of KwaZulu-Natal. I declare that this work has never been submitted to any University for qualification purposes. The studies and work of other authors have been acknowledged through a comprehensive citation and referencing process and by adhering to acceptable and reputable norms for academic writing.

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P.J. Mzimela (Student) Date

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Prof L. Ramrathan (Supervisor) Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late 'mother', Renetta Jali. Without her teachings I would not have been where I am today. I love you, MaMzimela, and you will always be remembered. The morals and selflessness you inculcated in me will always reside within me and your grandchildren till we meet again at Jesus' feet.

Rest in Perfect Peace

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

"I have learnt that no matter
what happens, or how bad it
seems today, life does go on,
and it will be better
tomorrow."

Maya Angelou

I would like to thank and acknowledge the following people for their support and guidance:

- The Lord Almighty for guiding me even when the journey seemed impossible.
- My supervisor, Prof Labby Ramrathan, for his support, supervision and encouragement even during times when the path loomed dark and threatening.
- All my friends from the PhD cohort for your support, even when it appeared that there was no light at the end of the tunnel.
- Jeffery Siphiwe Mkhize. *Ngiyabonga Mzukulu kaGubhela*. What you did for me was beyond the call of duty. *Inkosi ikubusise, ungaphezi nangomuso*!
- The National Research Fund (NRF) for its role in ensuring that I could conduct this research project and conclude it triumphantly.
- My children Mafooh, Nonto, Thabsile and Thabani, for your support and understanding. I must also thank my grandchildren, Thando, Bandile and Ndoniyamanzi. I am sorry that I was not able to give you the attention you deserved while I was on this journey.
- My helper, Snothi. You made my life very easy. You were always there for me.
- The principals and staff of schools where the research was conducted. Thank you for allowing me to pursue my study in your schools and for contributing to the accomplishment of my vision.
- The Department of Basic Education for allowing me to conduct my research study in three of its schools.
- My companion − my BFF − Siphiwe Zondi. Thank you so much for your words of encouragement, Luqa. *Ijazi elibomvu sengilitholile*, without your input in my life this could never have happened.
- Last, but not least, Linda Coertze, my critical reader and language editor. Linda, you are a real star, my dear!

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AFAL	Afrikaans First Additional Language
ANA	Annual National Assessment
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
DoBE	Department of Basic Education
DOE	Department of Education
EFA	Education for All
EFAL	English First Additional Language
FAL	First Additional Language
FP	Foundation Phase
GET	General Education and Training
HL	Home Language
LiEP	Language in Education Policy
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
LTSM	Learner Teacher Support Material
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MT	Mother Tongue
NEPA	National Education Policy Act
NSLA	National Strategy for Learner Attainment
NSLAF	National Strategy for Learner Attainment Framework
NSNP	National School Nutrition Programme
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SAL	Second Additional Language

SASA	South African Schools Act
SMT	School Management Team
SGB	School Governing Body
SES	Socio-economic Status
SACMEQ	Southern and East African Consortium of Monitoring Education Quality
TIMMS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
ZFAL	IsiZulu First Additional Language

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF APPENDICES

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE: SETTING THE SCENE

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEWING THE LITERATURE (PART 1)

3.4 SECTION 3

CHAPTER SIX: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS (PART 1)

CHAPTER SEVEN: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS (PART 2)

CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND THEORISING

CHAPTER ONE

SETTING THE SCENE

1.1 Introduction

This is an introductory chapter that aims to outline the fundamental and significant components of this study. This research study explored the manner in which first additional languages (FALs) were taught in the Foundation Phase of schooling across geographical regions where schools are categorised as rural, urban and township schools. The study endeavoured to determine whether the schools' geographical locations (rural, semi-urban and urban) impacted the manner in which FALs were taught. The study was prompted by the fact that research into the teaching and learning of FALs has been on the agenda in the South African education system, and of the international world, for several decades now. The need to acquire a FAL, and thus the teaching methodologies of such a language, have become widely debated phenomena because learners are introduced to a language that is foreign to them as it is often not spoken in the societies they come from. The South African curriculum policy (DoBE, 2011) advises that schools have to be vigilant when choosing the FAL that they will introduce to their learners. It further states that the introduction of a FAL should not occur at the expense of learners' Home Language (HL). This implies that additive bilingualism should be adopted as an approach to assist learners in learning the new language alongside their HL, as is promoted by the South African Curriculum Policy Statement, better known as CAPS.

In recognition of multilingualism in the South African context, the policy (DoBE, 2011) stipulates that learners in the General Education and Training (GET) band should be taught at least two languages that are recognised as official languages in the South African Constitution (DoBE, 2011). It specifies that one of these languages should be learners' Home Language and any other language can be taught as a First Additional Language. However, because of the dominance of English, most schools in which English is not the home language of the learners choose it as the language to be taught as the first additional language. It is common knowledge in South Africa that English is perceived as the lingua franca of speakers whose HL is not English, and that it is the predominant language that is used for economic and career development (Lenyai, 2013).

The languages that are frequently introduced to learners as FALs are Afrikaans and English. However, South Africa has recently encouraged the promotion and development of indigenous African languages that were previously neglected (Ngcobo, Nkosi, Buthelezi & Ntuli, 2014). Initiatives have therefore been taken by both English and Afrikaans medium schools to introduce an African language such as isiZulu, Sepedi and isiXhosa as a FAL. These languages are usually introduced as subjects that are taught in the curriculum and not as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT), thus they are offered in a limited way and given a back seat (Hugo, 2016; Hugo & Niemann, 2010; Wissing, 2016). However, regardless of the level at which the FAL is taught, schools have to adopt the principle of additive bilingualism. It is therefore of vital importance that school managers understand how the selected FAL is to be taught and how it will fit into the geographical context of a particular school.

This first chapter of this research study is divided into four sections for ease of engagement and comprehension. The first section provides a background to the study. The need for and the teaching of first additional languages in South Africa is discussed, foundation phase (FP) schooling and teaching are defined, and the categorisation of schools in South Africa is explained in this section.

The second section sheds vital light on the statement of the problem and illuminates the reasons for the conceptualisation of this study, the research problem, and the gaps that were identified within the phenomenon that was studied. This chapter also sheds light on the aim and objectives of the study. By delineating the purpose and aim of the study, the reader will be assisted in comprehending the landscape that encompassed the study as well as the rationale for conducting it.

The third section presents the rationale and significance for the study and magnifies the objectives and the research questions that gave impetus to the study.

Section four concludes this chapter by outlining an overview of the chapters that follow. The chapter is concluded with a brief summary.

1.2 Background and Significance of the Study

The study aimed to determine whether the geographical setting (urban/semi-urban/rural) of schools influenced the choice of which First Additional Language (FAL) would be taught in the Foundation Phase, and how this language was taught.

Given South Africa's historical past and the racial divisions in its education system, it is true that, more than 20 years after the abolishment of apartheid, these divisions in education have not yet been fully eradicated. Almost ten years ago, van der Berg (2008) revealed that the quality of education in many black schools had not improved since the country's political transition regardless of the costly resources that had been transferred to a large majority of these schools. In a preliminary analysis of SACMEQ III of South Africa, Spaull (2011) argued that, given the racial dimension of poverty and that the poor are more likely to be black, the latter students on average received an inferior quality of education compared to their white peers. However, the South African curriculum policy does not differentiate between schools according to their settings and contextual backgrounds; instead, it uses a blanket policy for all public schools in South Africa. It is this reality that prompted this investigation as it might pose a threat to the teaching of FALs in schools that are differently located. Therefore, this study's nature of value and valuation (axiology) is to contribute to a fresh understanding of how geographical variations influence the teaching and learning of a FAL and how these variations ultimately impact learner performance in the Foundation Phase at primary school level.

Below is the brief presentation of scanned and reviewed literature of the phenomena entailed in this study. Further and detailed discussions of these phenomena will be presented in Chapter two and Chapter three of this study.

1.2.1 The teaching of First Additional Languages in South Africa

The South African Department of Basic Education has maintained that the teaching and learning of a FAL should be introduced in Grade 1 (DoBE, 2011). When the FAL is introduced, the process should not impede learners' acquisition of skills in the HL, but it should take learners' HL into consideration.

When learners first come to school in Grade R, they have already acquired basic literacy skills in their HL (Hugo, 2013). These basic literacy skills include speaking and listening, therefore these skills need to be nurtured and extended at school through the teaching of reading and writing. The Language in Education Policy (DoE, 1997) requires that there should be strong emphasis on learners' HL as a language of learning and teaching (LoLT) at the first level of FP – i.e., Grade R − as it is the language that learners have already acquired and will cognitively

comprehend. At Grade 1 level, the second language should be introduced as a subject (DoE, 1997; DoBE, 2011). The LiEP (DoE, 1997, p.3) further states that "the School Governing Body (SGB) and the parents have the comprehensive privilege of choosing the school's FAL in fluid consultation with the school management team (SMT)", as was alluded to earlier.

1.2.2 Foundation Phase schooling and teaching

The South African Schools' Act No. 84 of 1996 stipulates that the Foundation Phase is the first phase of the General Education and Training (GET) band. It is quite imperative that solid foundations of schooling are laid at this stage. Generally, Foundation Phase schooling covers Grades R to Grade 3. The early years of schooling are critical for the acquisition of knowledge of concepts, skills, attitudes and values that lay the foundation for lifelong learning (DoE, 2001). Learners who are at this stage of schooling are normally between the ages of 5 and 9 years. The only exceptions are those learners who are compelled to repeat a Grade or who entered school beyond the acceptable age cohort. Three subjects are taught in the Foundation Phase, namely Languages, Life Skills and Mathematics. These subjects are taught in learners' HL for the sake of bridging the gap between already existing knowledge and the unknown. Cummins (2001) states that learners learn easily and effortlessly when taught in their HL because this is the language they have already acquired at home. In Grade 1 two languages are taught, namely the Home Language (HL) and a First Additional Language (FAL). For teaching purposes the languages comprise four components, which are listening and speaking, reading and phonics, handwriting and writing, and language use and structure (or grammar).

1.2.3 School categorisation in South Africa

South Africa is well-known as a country that has defeated the chains of inequality and socio-economic instability on the African continent (Adato, Lund, & Mhlongo, 2007). This has resulted in assertions by Kamwendo (2006) that it is being regarded as "Africa's best ticket out of poverty" (p. 54). Truthfully, this is how South Africa is viewed by outsiders. Spaull (2012) concurs, and declares that South Africa had a political transition in 1994 that may be regarded as amicable when compared to other countries that were striving for neo-Liberalism rights.

Conversely, Adato et al. 2007, p. 248) argue that "South Africa has one of the highest rates of measured inequality in the world." The erstwhile President of South Africa, Dr Nelson

Mandela, referred to inequality in South Africa as "a crime against humanity" (Lemon, 2004, p. 270). It is for this reasons that it is generally acknowledged that the education system in the country is unequal. Spaull (2012) decries the fact that schools in South Africa are categorised according to infrastructure (quintile rankings), financial support (fee paying or non-fee paying), geography (rural, township and urban schools), poverty (feeding scheme) and performance (NSLA or non-NSLA). Spaull (2012, p. 3) further argues that "the links between affluence and educational quality in South Africa can partially be [explained because] the poor receive a far inferior quality of education when compared to their wealthier counterparts". For the purpose of my study's development, aim and purpose, I will direct my focus solely to school categorisation based on geography.

Post-1994, the National Department of Education declared that there would be equal education for learners in South Africa. According to the Education for All Country Progress Report (2013, p. 3) "…there have been considerable efforts to accomplish universal access to primary education throughout the world in recent years." However, this situation is still a challenge in South Africa when the different categories of schools and the infringements or benefits thereof are observed. Lemon (2004, p. 269) reveals that, "for the poor majority, the system offers neither equality of opportunity nor significant redress to compensate for the injustices of apartheid education". Tikly (2006) concludes that the lack of an organised voice within civil society around the education of the poor and underprivileged is likely to have consequences for the future.

1.2.4 Conceptualising the terminology 'Geography'

It was perceived vital based on the milieu of this study to be explicit on the application and use of the terminology 'geography'. 'Geography' was considered in this context as the concept that typifies the spatial variations that different schools are located in. The terminology is used throughout the study as a metaphor that I coined to represent the different geographical locations of schools.

Hence, in this research study, school categorisation based on geography was the phenomenon under exploration. This exploration was prompted by the observation that teaching, learning experiences and challenges that are encountered in these different geographical contexts may not be the same. According to Ntshoe (2009, p. 91), "geographical school zoning as a criterion to categorise schools for admission purposes in the South African system is currently used alongside the categorisation of schools into quintiles". In addition to this, schools in South

Africa are geographically categorised as urban, rural and semi-urban, the latter being those schools that operate in township contexts (Spaull, 2012).

1.2.4.1 Schooling in a rural geographical context

Nkambule, Balfour, Pillay and Moletsane (2011) assert that rural schools are schools that are situated in rural and deep rural areas. 'Rural education' is therefore a term that is used to refer to areas that are more sparsely populated than urban areas and that can be more clearly be understood from a geographical perspective (Medina & Arcilla, 2013). Balfour, Mitchell and Moletsane (2008) state that these schools are located in areas that are usually not well developed or that are developing at a slow pace. As a result of the prevailing condition of poverty in these areas, the process of teaching and learning is mostly affected adversely. It is therefore assumed that the education that is offered in these contexts is different from the education that learners receive in semi-urban or urban contexts. This argument is supported by Nkambule et al. (2011) who posit that, since the end of apartheid in South Africa in 1994, rural development and rural education have remained on the fringes of progress made in improving people's lives.

One of the major challenges that rural schools often encounter is that they do not have electricity, running water and/or access to proper roads. These factors and many others have a major impact on the process of teaching and learning (Rural Education Newsletter, 2009). The newsletter further states that rural schools face challenges that are related to the availability of human resources and the application of appropriate teaching methods because these schools find it difficult to attract suitable teachers due to limited financial resources. As a result, the teaching methods used by poorly trained and qualified teachers are often inappropriate for the particular context in which they are applied (Surty, 2011). It is a common phenomenon that 'good' teachers who received sound training and who have been exposed to various pedagogies are reluctant to teach in these schools because of lack of resources that will disadvantage their careers. Consequently, "…the role of a teacher becomes more challenging and demanding in rural areas because in such areas it is the teacher who is the model, to whom learners look up to for all learning needs" [sic] (Bushan, 2011, p. 47).

In his findings on rural education, Gardiner (2008) refers to the Ministerial Committee on Rural Education (2008) and argues that rural schools are experiencing challenges because they are not regularly visited by departmental officials for assessment and monitoring, as officials are

often unwilling to travel long distances on poorly maintained gravel roads. This oversight is regarded as one of the foundations of poor education delivery in rural areas. In support of this claim, Medina and Arcila (2013, p. 28) also assert that "teachers who work in rural areas face adverse working circumstances and are immersed in conditions of under-qualification, inadequate support and poor remuneration."

1.2.4.2 Schooling in a semi-urban geographical context

In South Africa, it is generally accepted that the term 'semi-urban' is used interchangeably with the concept of 'township'. According to Motseke (2010, p. 117), "…in the South African context, the term 'township' refers to a residential area mainly occupied by Africans". These residential areas are frequently associated with the underprivileged population of South Africa when compared to other residential areas in the country. Mampane and Bouwer (2011) affirm that "these areas have low cost housing developments and schools that are underprivileged because the demographic and socioeconomic distribution of the townships perpetuate racial segregation and a scarcity of resources in their public schools" (p. 115). In recognition of these factors, it is evident that these areas are facing the cold shoulder of economic survival.

Most schools in semi-urban or township contexts face multiple challenges. Working conditions here for teachers of African ethnicity have not been favourable, because they are frequently confronted with overcrowded classrooms, a lack of teaching and learning resources and poor facilities due to the disparities inherited from the apartheid dispensation (Gustafsson & Patel, 2006). These challenges are perpetuated by different socio-economic backgrounds among learners in the same classroom as well as a lack of teaching and learning spaces. These diverse challenges influence the prior knowledge and skills of leaners and the availability and the quality of resources (whether human of infrastructure). Moreover, large numbers of learners have to be accommodated in small classrooms, many learners are ill-disciplined, and teachers are confronted with an administrative overload on daily basis (Nel &Theron, 2005).

The problems teachers experience are also partly caused and certainly exacerbated by conditions external to the schools, such as poor socio-economic conditions, unsupportive and in some instances illiterate parents or caregivers, dysfunctional home environments, and other historical and political challenges (Chisholm, 2005). The prevalence of inequality in South African schools has been a cause for concern among many researchers, because South Africa is regarded as a model for the rest of Africa in terms of a swift shift to democracy (Kamwendo,

2006). In support of this analogy, Spaull (2012) articulates that it is amazing that "…while there was a sharp break in political ideology between the pre- and post-apartheid governments, many of the country's social institutions, such as schools, continue to function as they did under apartheid" (p. 2).

1.2.4.3 Schooling in an urban geographical context

Ntshoe (2009) alludes to the fact that the new South African Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996) prohibits overt and covert discrimination against learners on the basis of race, language, culture and/or religious beliefs. When apartheid was dismantled, education in urban contexts benefitted when previously white schools opened their doors to learners from all racial backgrounds (Msila, 2005). The Constitution of South Africa is fairly consistent with the Freedom Charter of 1955, as it provides that all South Africans should have access to equal education and that the doors of learning shall be open to all. Many urban schools were formally known as Model C schools that were governed by a separate provincial education departments, whereas the department that governed Black schools was known as the Department of Education and Training (Msila, 2005). These former Model C schools accommodated white learners and were funded mainly by the government (80%) and partly by the parents (p. 173). This historical advantage further perpetuated inequality amongst the citizens of South Africa. The historical legacy is still a hard nut to crack as the current government needs to redress these past inequalities.

In the post-apartheid era (1994) in South Africa, the previously racially-defined education departments were abolished in favour of nine provincial Departments of Basic Education which operate under the auspices of a single national Department of Basic Education (Spaull, 2012). Urban schools are highly resourced and learner discipline is generally quite high. However, not all parents can afford to send their children to former Model C schools because high school fees are charged as the government no longer allocates funds for the general running and maintenance of these schools (Lombard, 2007). Personnel provision norms (PPN) allow only a limited number of teachers to be officially employed and paid by the Department. The parents thus have to step up and foot the bill to employ a reasonable number of teachers through their respective governing bodies, which may be as high as 50%, if not higher. Many informed and economically successful parents thus choose to send their children to these 'expensive' schools away from township schools (Msila, 2005). It can be argued that the influx of relatively affluent children to better resourced schools further hinders the advancement and development of

township and/or rural schools because the possible economic advantage of township schools is curtailed when well-to-do parents choose to send their children to urban schools. Msila (2005) asserts that, for these parents, former Model C schools bring hope for the future in the knowledge that their children will be able to engage with a positive learning culture and therefore that they will be well equipped to join the world of work.

This section has attempted to provide a brief overview of the historical challenges faced by the South African schooling system. It has made an explicit discussion on the choices that parents have, the types of schools that serve the youth of South Africa, and the effects that the geographic positioning of schools have in terms of teaching, learning, resources, and infrastructure.

This section was a precursor in an attempt to highlight that the geographic location of a school has visible effects on teaching and learning and to put the research sites into context. The next section looks at how the selected research sites might contribute to the objectives of this study.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

In the Foundation Phase (FP), learners are taught three basic subjects, namely Language, Mathematics and Life Skills. These subjects are strictly taught in learners' mother tongue (MT). Therefore, the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in this phase is learners' MT which is interchangeably referred to as their Home Language (HL). The National Curriculum Policy Statement requires that learners in Grade 1 have to be introduced to a second language, which is formalised as a First Additional Language (FAL) because it is the first language that is added to the language that learners have already acquired and are using as the LoLT (DoBE, 2011). The curriculum policy further states that learners need to build a strong oral foundation in the FAL in Grade 1. When they are in Grade 2 and Grade 3, they learn to read and write in this FAL in preparation for transition from the FAL as the LoLT in Grade 4. This usually occurs when learners have been taught through a LoLT that is different from the one they will be exposed to in Grade 4 and onwards.

In the Foundation Phase of learners' schooling many challenges are encountered by both learners and teachers. Many authors argue that the origin of these challenges can, inter alia, be referred back to the language barriers that young learners experience when they are exposed to

formal schooling practices (Lenyai, 2011; Singh, 2010). This study therefore sought to explore the FAL teaching methodologies of foundation phase teachers in their respective geographical settings. It thus sought to identify and compare the various teaching approaches and strategies that the teachers employed in teaching FAL to FP learners across geographical contexts. The study also endeavoured to compare the provision of facilities that these teachers had access to and determine if they were the same across these geographically different schools. I also wanted to determine if teachers' experiences and challenges impacted their learners differently if the facilities were not similar across the three schools that were located in different contexts.

It needs to be understood that it is policy that the teaching of a FAL in the FP classroom is compulsory and that learners in Grade 1 need to be exposed to multilingualism for language and literacy competency (LiEP, 1997). However, the literature on FAL teaching is clear that the acquisition of a FAL is a complex process and is not uniform for all learners (Lenyai, 2013; Flowerdew, 2008; Schlebusch & Thobedi, 2005). For example, in referring to English as a FAL Lenyai (2013, p. 21) argues that "teachers need to have knowledge of English, a fair knowledge of how to teach English, as well as [a] positive attitude towards teaching the language". Lenyai (2013) also explains the fact that many English teachers in the Foundation Phase are generally not native speakers of English themselves, and argues that this poses a threat to the teaching of FAL. Such a threat demands teachers to learn the English language in order to teach it successfully. This is even more significant when considering that teachers are role models to FAL learners and should therefore be equipped with thorough knowledge of the language. They should also be thoroughly trained in both prescriptive and descriptive fields of the target language (Nel & Swanepoel, 2010). Two other threats also impact FAL acquisition. The first is that learners are exposed to the language only when they are at school; when they are at home they use their MTs with siblings and parents. Secondly, the language is content-based only; there is no exposure whatsoever to literacy other than subject-related concepts. These threats contribute adversely to the prompt and effective learning of a FAL. One can conclude that the teaching and learning of a FAL is indeed a complex phenomenon, as is also suggested by the literature (Hugo, 2008; Fitzpatrick, 2014). The complexity of the acquisition and the teaching of a FAL is multidimensional where teachers on one hand and leaners on the other are faced with various challenges. Moreover, environmental and social factors also impact learners' ability to acquire a FAL successfully at this early phase of their schooling. Such factors are teachers' language backgrounds, learners' home language, the amount of time that

leaners are exposed at school to the FAL, and the lack of exposure to the FAL outside the school environment.

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (generally referred to as CAPS) are the curriculum guidelines that were introduced in South Africa as the 'voice' of curriculum policy in 2011. This curriculum policy was advocated by the Minister of Basic Education, Mrs Angie Motsekga, and it was enacted in 2011. Its prime aim is to redress the inequalities and the divisions of the past and to establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights. The rolling out of CAPS began in 2012, starting with the FP and incorporating the other phases in 2013, 2014 and 2015.

The FP curriculum policy states that these learners need to be taught strictly in their mother tongue as stipulated by the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (DoE, 1997). This language is sometimes referred to as a learner's Home Language (HL). These two terms are used interchangeably as the background meaning is the same. It is during the foundation phase of learners' schooling that it is considered critical for learners' home language to be nurtured and developed through using different strategies for language teaching (Joubert, Bester, & Meyer, 2008). In supporting this perspective, Cummins (2001) emphasises that "mother tongue promotion in the school helps develop not only the mother tongue, but also children's abilities in the majority language" (p. 18). It has been shown worldwide that it is at this stage that learners need to be taught in their mother tongue for language strengthening and development, as it is the language they already know and can cognitively think in. Different countries such as Nigeria, the USA, the United Kingdom and Australia, to mention just a few, have found that the introduction of an additional language at this phase takes its toll if it is not done well (Nel & Swanepoel, 2010; Hugo, 2016). Furthermore, the Department of Basic Education (DoBE) postulates that for learners' mother tongue to be preserved, learners need to be taught in their respective MTs for the first four years of their schooling – i.e., from Grade R to 3 (DoE, 1997 & 2011).

The LiEP (DoE, 1997) emphasises that the School Governing Body (SGB) and the parents are mandated to choose the school's FAL in consultation with the school management team (SMT). This is often the reason why schools teach different FALs, as the language of choice may be any one of South Africa's eleven official languages. However, the reality in South

Africa is that, due to its socio-political history, English and Afrikaans are the predominant languages of choice because they are the two languages of learning and teaching in the higher Grades (Schlebusch & Thobedi, 2005). Experience has also shown that English is the most commonly chosen language as it is the language that is most predominantly used in academic and business contexts.

This section has presented the statement of the problem that provoked the motivation to conduct this study. Basically, the national curriculum policy mandates the teaching of FAL across phases and with its emphasis on ensuring that the additive bilingual approach is adopted from the onset. In spite of its mandate, socio-political aspects that exist in South Africa are not prioritised.

1.4 Purpose and Aim of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore to what extent the geographical categorisation of schools as urban, semi-urban or rural impacted their choice of the First Additional Language that was taught in the Foundation Phase (FP), and the teaching methodologies that were employed to teach these languages. This study thus aimed to determine whether there were any differences in the pedagogical practices that the teachers employed when teaching a First Additional Language in the different contexts under study. The study was necessitated by the various milieus in which teachers function in the Foundation Phase when teaching a First Additional Language and the impact of a school's geography on their pedagogical practices.

1.5 Research Objectives

The objectives for my study were:

i) To understand how teachers conceptualised the teaching of a first additional language in their respective geographical contexts;
ii) to comprehend the methods, strategies and approaches that were used by FP phase teachers in teaching a first additional language in schools their geographically different schools; and
iii) to identify why teachers were teaching the first additional language they were teaching in the FP in the way that they did.

1.6 Research Questions

The research questions for my study were:

i) What are teachers' conceptualisations of teaching a First Additional Language in the geographical contexts in which they operate?
ii) How do teachers teach a FAL in the Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others?
iii) Why do teachers use particular methodologies to teach a FAL in the Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others?

This section has presented the most important aspects of this research study; that is the research objectives and research questions. For the purpose of developing this substantial element of my study, I drew the research questions from the research objectives. Research objectives played a vital role in determining what was to be achieved by the end of this study.

1.7 Rationale for the Study

My interest in conducting this research study emanated from my own personal experiences as a former Foundation Phase teacher for 20 years in a school situated in a rural area. I was later promoted to the position of Head of Department (HOD) in the phase. During those 20 years when I was practising as a teacher, I experienced numerous challenges that were specifically related to the teaching of First Additional Language (FAL). At the school where I taught and at other schools in the vicinity, English was regarded as the FAL, as all the learners were non-native speakers of English using isiZulu as their Home Language (HL). The challenges that the FP teachers experienced in the Ward and across the Circuit ranged from a lack of well-grounded pedagogical knowledge and curriculum engagement to content knowledge of English. These challenges were aggravated by marginalisation and limited provision of teaching and learning resources in some schools, as provisioning was determined by a school's categorisation. For example, schools with higher quintile rankings (4 and 5) received lower funding than those with lower rankings, but the former schools were better equipped with secure facilities to store and reuse these resources.

In affirmation, Yamauchi (2011, p. 147) asserts that "in South Africa, schools' quality is a function of school inputs determined by local resource availability through school fees and government subsidy". This is certainly one of the reasons behind the inequality in education

which then leads to poor strategic planning and lack of schools' enthusiasm for enhancing the teaching of FAL.

I am currently a lecturer at one of the higher education institutions (HEIs) in KwaZulu-Natal. I am involved in the teaching of undergraduate students who are undergoing practical and theoretical knowledge construction programmes through lectures and teaching practice for teaching HL and FAL in the FP. The initial teacher education (ITE) programmes that are being offered do not specify or differentiate between the module content according to the contexts in which each pre-service teacher will teach. Pre-service teachers specialising in FP teaching therefore raised concerns that are related to the teaching of FAL in FP classrooms. One of the concerns that was raised was that schools do not all offer the same first additional language and that the training that is offered would be limited if a school should offer a FAL that is not accessed during teacher training. Concerns have also been raised about the fact that the South African education system is highly categorised. Spaull (2012) affirms that school categorisation is the source of the differentiation of schools and the education that is offered in South Africa.

I developed an interest in conducting research on the teaching of FALs in schools of different geographical locations because the National Research Fund (NRF) initiated a project on school categorisation and the implications thereof. This study was one of the projects that was funded for this purpose. In my interactions with my pre-service students, I noted the frustrations they had to endure during teaching practice periods. They revealed that learners were not interested in learning a FAL as they articulated that they did not understand the language, which was a fundamental cause of their frustration. Hugo (2008, p. 64) affirms that "a report on the language of learning and teaching in all African countries states that in classrooms where children are not taught in their HL, as a rule, only the teacher speaks. The children keep quiet because they do not understand what the teacher is saying". I concur with this argument, and therefore I accepted the challenge in the knowledge that I needed to conduct this study in order to explore teachers' experiences of teaching a FAL in the FP. I also needed to determine what informed their teaching and what teaching methodologies were used.

1.8 Brief Presentation of Research Design and Methodology

This study was projected from a social science perspective; thereby it adopted a qualitative research approach embedded in an interpretivist paradigm where in-depth and detailed data were generated verbally and textually from FP teachers teaching FAL in diverse contexts. Murray and Beglar (2009, p.47) affirm that qualitative approaches are "…particularly well-suited when you are trying to generate new theories or hypotheses, achieve a deep understanding of particular issues and they also involve measures that do not use numerical data". The interpretivist paradigm afforded me the opportunity to understand how the FP teachers set out to understand and interpret the world around them (Cohen et al, 2011; Agger, 2006).

In order to understand the case in-depth, this study adopted case study methodology. Rule and John (2011, p.4) define a case study as "a systematic and in-depth investigation of a particular instance in its context in order to generate knowledge". Due to the milieu of this study where three schools that offered the FAL teaching in FP across diverse geographical locations were selected, therefore a multi-case study (MCS) was adopted with an aim to explore the replication of FAL teaching in their respective FP classrooms. Using the MCS assisted me "in generating an understanding of and insight into a particular instance by providing a thick, rich description of the case and illuminating its relations to its broader context" (Rule & John, 2011, p. 7). Multiple data generation methods were then used to elicit data that were deemed credible and trustworthy. The research methods that were used for data generation included semi-structured interviews, structured observations, post-observation interviews and document analysis.

Purposive sampling was used in order to select the three FP teachers teaching FAL in diverse geographical contexts. Cohen et al. (2011, p. 156) state that purposive sampling includes "hand-picking of the cases by the researcher to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought".

The detailed presentation of research design and methodology is in Chapter five.

1.9 Limitations to the Study

My initial intention was to select a sample of schools where different FALs are taught. The first school that I identified was situated in a context where most learners spoke Afrikaans as their HL. This primary school offered English HL as the LoLT and Afrikaans as a First

Additional Language from Grade 2 to Grade3 to all learners within the school, irrespective of whether learners' HL was Afrikaans or not. The school's uniqueness was based on the fact that they introduced Afrikaans FAL only in Grade 2, as opposed to the curriculum mandate that at least one official language has to be introduced in Grade 1 as a FAL. The consent letter was personally submitted to the school. However, I was denied access to the school as it was stated that they did not allow researchers in the school as it constituted an invasion of property and privacy. This left me with no other option but to approach a neighbouring school where isiZulu was taught as FAL.

The second limitation was that I failed to sample a Grade 1 FAL teacher because all those that were targeted demonstrated unwillingness to partake in the study. However, the dimension of my study was not based on tracking the trend of teaching FALs from Grade 1 to Grade 3. My research study fundamentally focused on how FALs are taught in FP classrooms of schools that are geographically different. Consequently, I managed to sample only two FALs, namely English FAL and IsiZulu FAL. Only Grade 2 and Grade 3 teachers demonstrated willingness to participate in my research study.

In the next section, I present an overview of all the chapters that comprises this study report.

1.10 Overview of Chapters

This section gives a glimpse of the content of the chapters that were develop to give structure to this research report.

Chapter One

This is the first chapter of this research study report. The aim of this chapter is to reveal different elements that were deemed significant in understanding the underlying rationale for conducting this study. The arguments are extended by dividing them into four different sections. The first section outlines the background of the study and the research sites. The discussion illuminates the need for conducting the study that focused on the teaching of a FAL in FP classrooms in geographically different contexts. The second section comprises the statement of the problem and outlines the purpose and aim of the study.This section aims at introducing the topography of the various research sites and their respective milieus. The third section maps the rationale for the study and presents the critical research questions and the

objectives of the study. The fourth section (this section) gives an overview of the chapters of this research report.

Chapter Two

The aim of this chapter is to reveal different fundamentals of the literature that was deliberately studied and reviewed. The study is contextualised within recent literature on school categorisation. Therefore, this chapter focuses on the schooling and school categorisation and different forms of school categorisations with the resultant inequalities that occur. It illuminates the basic education system division into four phases, namely the Foundation Phase, the Intermediate Phase, the Senior Phase and the Further Education and Training Phase. Schooling in the Foundation Phase as an initial formal schooling phase is scrutinised in this chapter with the aim of comprehending its expectations and output. The discourse then focuses on geography as the pivotal concept under the lens in this study. Different forms of geographical locations are highlighted, namely urban, semi-urban and rural school contexts. The discourse distinguishes different teaching and learning experiences in Foundation Phase classrooms in these different geographical locations and the impact they have on teaching and learning processes.

Chapter Three

For ease of reading and reference, the literature review is divided into two sections in this report. This chapter presents the second level of the literature that was reviewed for the completion of this study. This second section presents a summary of the literature that was reviewed on first additional language teaching and learning in Foundation Phase classrooms within geographically different schools. This chapter uncovers various definitions that are related to the concept of a first additional language. It further explains how a FAL should be taught in FP classrooms. The discourse thus deliberately presents the curriculum mandate that guides the teaching of a FAL in South African schools.

Chapter Four

Chapter 4 presents the theoretical framework within which this study was located. Two educational theories are elucidated. The primary theoretical framework addresses teachers' pedagogical practices and how these practices are affected by the context in which teaching and learning occur. The latter theory underscored the conceptual framework in understanding the social topography of teaching in the FP and the implications thereof. Bernstein's theory of pedagogical practices is presented and engaged with insightfully. Understanding teachers' practices plays a pivotal role in unpicking their knowledge of teaching practice. Bourdieu's social topography conceptual framework was also used to shed light on the importance of an understanding of social environment and that the social environment shapes the way things happen within it.

Chapter Five

This chapter centres on an exposition of the research design and methodology that were adopted when the study was conducted. An appropriate research design and suitable methodology are two of the most critical aspects when conducting a social science research study that requires empirical evidence. This chapter thus refers to the paradigmatic orientation of the study and elucidates the multiple case study approach that was adopted. The sampling and data generation processes that were employed are clarified and the comparative analysis approach is explained. By employing theoretical replication, each case study is compared with the others based on the assumption that contradictory results would be obtained. The steps that were followed in analysing the data are listed and explained. This chapter is concluded with a presentation of the ethical considerations that ensured the trustworthiness and credibility of the study.

Chapter Six

This chapter presents the first level of data presentation and analysis. The data related to the different contexts in which the selected FAL teachers operated are analysed and discussed. Context analysis was therefore employed to analyse the data that had been obtained through the use of structured observations and post-observation interviews. Different realities emerged

with reference to the different contexts that the participants engaged in. A single theme and various sub-themes emerged which then allowed for systematic data presentation and analysis.

Chapter Seven

This chapter presents the second level of data presentation and analysis and presents the analysis of the data that were generated during the engagement with the participants by using the content analysis strategy. The data are systematically organised according to themes and sub-themes and categorised using the chosen analytical framework.

Chapter Eight

A summary of the key findings based on each emergent theme is presented in this chapter. These key findings are discussed in terms of the focus of the study, the purpose statement, and the research questions. The findings are theorised in terms of the theoretical framing and the key theoretical constructs.

Chapter Nine

This chapter concludes the report by presenting a culmination of the key elements of the study. The chapter is significant as it reminds the reader of the focus, purpose and research questions that served as the drivers of the study. It also highlights why the research findings are significant and who would benefit from the key results. The chapter is concluded with a list of recommendations that emerged from the research findings.

1.11 Conclusion

A background to the study was presented in this chapter. It was this background that served as a stepping stone for the study as it provided the relevant and focused information that would be a significant driver for the study. The main concepts that were involved in the study were thus illuminated, such as the rationale, aim and purpose of the study. The research questions and objectives in conducting the study were also presented. The pivotal key concepts under

scrutiny, namely school categorisation and geography, were put under a scholarly lens. The second key concept, namely the teaching of a FAL in the FP of schooling, was also introduced. The reader was further introduced to the need to understand teachers' conceptualisation of a FAL and its teaching through using different methods, approaches and strategies in FP classrooms.

The next chapter will present a discussion of related scholarly literature that was reviewed as part of the study. The literature review is divided into two chapters, each elucidating a key research concept. The first literature review chapter reviews first additional language teaching in the FP and the subsequent chapter looks at school categorisation with particular focus on geographical contexts.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEWING THE LITERATURE: FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING

2.1 Introduction

The study's background was discussed in the previous chapter and included the rationale, the aim and the purpose of this study. The research questions and the objectives in conducting this study were also provided. The research questions and the objectives assisted me in theorising and demonstrating the significance of the key concepts that underpinned this study, namely first additional language teaching and school categorisation. The previous chapter thus presented an overview of the study in nine chapters to illuminate the logical progression of the structure of this study report.

Chapter two of the study report reviews of different forms of scholarly (local and international) literature that was researched and subsequently used for coherent and critical arguments that created the foundation for the study. The scholarly literature included peer reviewed articles, research reports, books and online scholarly articles, and other empirically relevant platforms. Vithal and Jansen (2010, p. 14) affirm that the review of literature "…assists in addressing the gaps, silences or weaknesses in the existing knowledge base, and also contributes in some way to our understanding of the world". The purpose of this study was to explore how school categorisation and geographical location or positioning (urban/semi-urban/rural) in particular influenced the choice of the first additional language that would be taught in the Foundation Phase in a school, and how this language was taught. Two key concepts thus underpinned the study, 1) FAL in the FP and 2) school categorisation according to geographical location. The reviewed literature is thus divided into two chapters. Chapter two presents the review of the literature on the teaching of a FAL in the FP as a primary concept, and Chapter three sequentially presents the reviewed literature on school categorisation. I first researched and sorted specific literature on FAL teaching in the FP; however, literature on how a FAL is taught in other phases assisted me in tracking trends and making some links. Based on my review of the literature, six key themes emerged:

i) Background to an articulation of FAL teaching in the FP in South African schools;

ii) maximising FAL teaching through allocated notional times for FP learners;
iii) the conception/acquisition of basic literacy skills in FAL;
iv) teachers' role in the promotion of FAL acquisition in the FP;
v) strategies for teaching a FAL in the FP; and
vi) common stumbling blocks to the effective teaching of a FAL in the FP.

2.2 Background to an Articulation of FAL Teaching in South African Schools

South Africa is a developing country that relies heavily on first world countries like America and the UK for economic development, education transformation and other related policy principles (Christie, 2010; Taylor & Coetzee, 2013). The growth of international markets and technological advancement occur on a global scale, which means that competencies in a global language such as English has become increasingly important. Proficiency in such a language promotes social and economic interactions and integrates individuals into the labour market (Taylor & Coetzee, 2013). It is in this context that the South African National Curriculum Policy is based on, inter alia, the principle of social transformation to redress the inequalities of the past (DoBE, 2011).

During the apartheid era, the National Party's belief system promoted racial segregation (Kamwendo, 2006), generally known as apartheid. This form of segregation that was based on race enforced their ideology through compelling learners to use Afrikaans and/or English as the only languages to be used as the medium of instruction after Grade 3. This gave learners of other ethnicities little opportunity to develop their indigenous languages. Consequently, English was given hegemony although it was the home language of only about 7% of the South African population. Van der Walt and Reuters (2013) reveal that, in spite of having eleven official languages, English and Afrikaans have always enjoyed the status of being a LoLT compared to African languages. This has resulted in many people being linguistically side-lined in their own country. Hugo and Niemann (2010) assert that most teachers are compelled to use English as the medium of instruction although it is also their second or third language.

A new language policy was introduced in 1997, just three years after South Africa had obtained a true democracy. This policy was referred to as the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (DoE, 1997). Its mandate was that children in a multilingual country like South Africa should be taught at least two languages out of eleven official languages; that is, their home language

plus any other official language as an additional language. The policy clearly defined when the second language should be introduced to learners and that this should not occur at the expense of the learners' home language (DoE, 1997; Lenyai, 2013). This process was termed the 'additive bilingual approach' or 'additive bilingualism' (DoE, 1997). If the early introduction of the second language as a language of learning and teaching is not maintained, language loss may occur if the level of proficiency in the HL is not maintained while acquiring the FAL (Du Plessis & Louw, 2008).

Subsequent to the LiEP (DoE, 1997), a new curriculum policy termed the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) was introduced in 2011 by the ruling ANC's Minister of Basic Education, Mrs Angie Motsekga. As a result of the new policy, new terminologies related to language teaching evolved. For example, learners' mother tongue is now referred to as the home language (HL), the second language is referred to as a first additional language (FAL), and the third language as a second additional language (SAL), and so forth. Suitably so, the new curriculum policy is aligned to with the LiEP's mandate through its articulations. To strengthen the LiEP's mandate, CAPS articulates that a FAL should be introduced as early as Grade 1. Secondly, the introduction of an additional language should not occur at the expense of learners' HL. It was from this standpoint that the introduction of FALs in schools provoked a variety of challenges related to their teaching. It is also true that various challenges have been mutually experienced by teachers, learners and parents, which is a fact that prompted my desire to conduct this study.

CAPS (DoBE, 2011) states that learners' HL is to be used as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) from Grades R to three. Furthermore, alongside learners' HL a FAL is to be introduced as a subject from Grade 1 (DoBE, 2011). The decision to introduce the teaching of a FAL in Grade1 is seen as an effort to develop learners' skills in the language so that they are able to use the language effectively as a LoLT when transitioning from Grade 3 to Grade 4. This implies that the policy makers have realised the importance of introducing a FAL early in learners' schooling to enable them to use it efficiently in later years (Hugo, 2013; Zuma & Dempster, 2008). The National Curriculum thus aims at producing learners who will "collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information and communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes" (DoBE, 2011, p. 5). However, this could only be accomplished if learners have competency in every basic literacy skill. Thus CAPS

subdivides the content of every FAL into four skills which are also known as content areas. These skills are to be introduced and developed as standalones that are later integrated. These basic literacy skills are: (a) listening and speaking, (b) reading and phonics, (c) writing and handwriting; and (d) language use (DoBE, 2011).

2.3 Maximising FAL Teaching through Allocated Notional Times for FP Learners

Literacy is a critical aspect of learning in the foundation phase and forms an important foundation for learners' education (Hugo, 2008; Lenyai, 2013; Hugo, 2016). Therefore, it is significant that FP teachers who are teaching a FAL have adequate or at least a fair knowledge of the FAL that they teach (Lenyai, 2013). CAPS articulates this requirement as follows (DoBE, 2011, p. 9):

> "In order to learn an additional language well, one needs as much exposure as possible. Teachers should therefore ensure that learners listen to and read the Additional Language for a wide range of purposes. They need opportunities to listen to the Additional Language for information (e.g., in the news) and for pleasure (e.g., story or song). Even more importantly, they need opportunities to read and view the Additional Language for information (e.g., an explanation with an accompanying diagram), pleasure (e.g., magazine) and literary appreciation."

Moreover, it is very important to understand the notion that most language theorists believe that a home language is acquired, whereas a first additional language is learnt from siblings, teachers, parents and/or society (Krashen, 1987; Hugo, 2016). The fact that learning a FAL is complex can never be overlooked (Lenyai, 2013). However, it is astonishing that there is no single theory that explains how a second language can be learned. Moreover, "there is a limited research that has been conducted on the development of academic language proficiency in a FAL by South African learners, specifically at the FP level" (Jordaan, 2011, p. 519). Maximising the learners' exposure to the target language is significant for non-native language speaking learners, as most second language speakers are only exposed to the language when they are at school during teaching and learning periods (Hugo & Niemann, 2010; Singh, 2010; Hugo, 2013; Hugo, 2016). Krashen (1987) believes that learners need to be exposed to a simple version of the second language where there is no drilling or any mechanism used in order to

learn it. This implies that a learner learns the additional language by using it. However, the input should not be too difficult or too far below the learners' understanding. This notion is termed 'input+1' (Hugo, 2013; Hugo, 2016).

Ayliff (2012, p. 52) asserts that maximising the teaching of a FAL has to concur within the curriculum requirements as "…it aims at producing learners who are grounded in a communicative approach through a text-based approach". The author states that a text-based approach teaches learners to become competent, confident and critical readers, writers, viewers and designers of text. Thus, in maximising adequate teaching time for teaching a FAL in the various FP Grades, CAPS issues time allocations for each basic literacy skill. See Table 2.1 and Table 2.2 below (DoBE, 2011, p. 9):

Table 2.1: Maximum times allocated for FAL teaching

Source: CAPS, 2011

First Additional Language			
	Grade 1	**Grade 2**	**Grade 3**
Listening and speaking	1 hour 30 minutes	1 hour	1 hour
Reading and phonics	1 hour 15 minutes	1 hour 30 minutes	1 hour 30 minutes
Writing and handwriting	15 minutes	30 minutes	1 hour
Language use	-	-	30 minutes
TOTAL	**3 hours per week**	**3 hours per week**	**4 hours per week**

With reference to Table 2.1, listening and speaking skills are regarded as the fundamental skills for the acquisition of literacy skills in Grade 1 and thus receive the highest time allocation. Grade 1 learners have to be exposed to listening and speaking activities as the emphasis in this Grade is on oral communication (Lenyai, 2011). The timetable demonstrates that the time allocated for listening and speaking decreases in Grade 2 and Grade 3. Time allocated for

reading and phonics is least in Grade 1 compared to Grade 2 and Grade 3. In Grade 1, less time is allocated for FAL writing and handwriting skills, but the time is increased gradually in Grades 2 and Grade 3 to encourage progressive acquisition of FAL writing skills. It is also obvious that language use is not taught at all in Grade 1 and Grade 2, but that it is introduced in Grade 3 to equip learners with knowledge on how to use the FAL structures. Pretorius (2014) is of the opinion that learners in Grade 3 need to be introduced to skills that will assist them when they transition to Grade 4, where the FAL becomes the LoLT.

It is obvious that the policy makers offered flexible times for the teaching of a FAL as they also made provision for minimum teaching time for FALs in FP classrooms. The table below (Table 2.2) displays the minimum FAL teaching times in each Grade and in each literacy component. It is noticeable that times allocated are reduced to be accommodative to learners' learning abilities and unforeseen stumbling blocks to FAL learning and teaching. Although the times allocated for each literacy component are decreased, the DoBE ensures that times for vital skills like listening and speaking are not drastically decreased for they are fundamental skills in the acquisition of FAL skills. Nevertheless, the DoBE emphasises the maximised teaching of FAL in every FP classroom because, as mentioned above, learners need to receive maximum exposure to the language (Taylor & Von Fintel, 2016).

Table 2.2: Minimum times allocated for FAL teaching in the FP

Source: CAPS, 2011

First Additional Language			
	Grade 1	**Grade 2**	**Grade 3**
Listening and speaking	1 hour 30 minutes	45 minutes	1 hour
Reading and phonics	30 minutes	45 minutes	1 hour
Writing and Handwriting	-	30 minutes	30 minutes
Language use	-	-	30 minutes
TOTAL	**2 hours per week**	**2 hours per week**	**3 hours per week**

2.4 Conceptualisation of Basic Literacy Skills in FAL

It is important to understand that no single literacy skill is employed for any language. Linguists like Cummins (1981) and Street (2003) raise the notion that basic literacy skills are similar across languages. In affirmation of this, van der Walt (2009) states that Cummins terms this commonality in languages as 'common underlying proficiency' (CUP). CAPS thus requires that four literacy skills should be taught to and acquired by learners, namely listening and speaking skills, reading and phonics, handwriting and writing, and language structure and use (see the previous section on the background of FAL teaching as well as the section on maximizing FAL teaching). In both sections I referred to the National Curriculum Policy as well the CAPS document as these two documents provide the legislative mandate for the teaching of a FAL in South Africa (DoBE, 2011). Below is an extension of the literature that was reviewed in order to gain comprehensive knowledge of each literacy skill. For the sake of clarity and a better understanding, I discuss each literacy skill in detail. I purposely discuss the listening and speaking skills separately although they are referred to interdependently in the policy document.

2.4.1 Listening as a literacy skill

The National Curriculum policy states that when introducing a FAL to Grade 1 learners, the emphasis should be on oral communication (DoBE, 2011) (see Table 2.1 and Table 2.2 above). Listening and speaking are regarded as the first literacy skills that involve interdependent processes that occur interchangeably. Listening is a fundamental skill that learners acquire first and precedes all other literacy skills. Lenyai (2013) claims that before children learn how to speak and communicate in a FAL, they first acquire listening skills in the target language. Language theorists like Cummins (1976), Krashen (1987) and Ellis (1996) believe that young learners learn the language through imitation. In order to imitate others, they need to have the ability to listen to what they have heard in spoken language. Because this study drew partly from the geographic location of schools and the effects of the categorisation of schools on the teaching and learning of a FAL, Ellis's (1996) argument underpinned mine. Needless to say, most Grade 1 learners start their formal schooling without having been pre-exposed to a FAL. In such cases, teachers play a major role in equipping learners with the necessary skills through the use of appropriate teaching skills and perceptual activities such as storytelling, listening to the radio, and listening to the different sounds that shape the target language (Hugo, 2013).

2.4.2 Speaking as a literacy skill

Hugo (2016, p. 43) asserts that "speaking is the most important of the four language skills, because people who know [a] language are referred to as speakers of that language". This assertion is an indication that the ability to speak involves building the vocabulary of the language and understanding the lexemes involved in that particular language (Lenyai, 2013). These assertions (Hugo, 2016; Lenyai, 2013) confirm that vocabulary building is considered to be the most important factor in acquiring any language, and is thus a significant aspect in learning the FAL.

Furthermore, speaking meaningfully requires that learners construct meaningful sentences which will help them express their opinions, thoughts, feelings and ideas. According to Al Hosni (2014), learners should be exposed to different contexts that will encourage and enrich their speaking skills. These contexts should include opportunities for learners to practise speaking the language and motivating them to use the language without feeling afraid of making mistakes. Foundation Phase teachers can therefore engage learners in different activities such as puppet shows, role play, rhymes and poems, daily news, and stories (DoBE, 2011). Such engagements create a platform for teachers to correct learners in their pronunciation, grammar and sentence construction. Lenyai (2011) also encourages teachers to speak to the learners as this will encourage reciprocal engagement in learning the language. Lenyai (2011) advocates teachers could also minimally code-switch for better understanding of complex terms. Moodley (2010, p. 8) highlights the fact that although code-switching has to be minimally used, however it bears some benefits to learners who are struggling with the target language. The author mentions that code-switching is "promoting additional language acquisition, cognitive and linguistic development, fulfilling pedagogical functions, facilitating teaching, influencing learner behaviour, serving as a communicative strategy, and having psychological benefits for the learners".

2.4.3 Reading and phonics as literacy skills

Singh (2009, p. 93) articulates that "reading is an essential component of early childhood development". Thus, every foundation phase classroom should ensure that a conducive and reading-ready classroom is created to ensure that learners find reading interesting. Maphumulo (2010, p. 20) describes the reading skill as "the making of meaning from print, with an

emphasis on phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency and comprehension". Learners also need to understand the importance of how to decode and encode text that is written in the FAL. Reading contributes to learners' language development and gives learners more exposure to their first additional language. The more reading the learners engage in, the better will be their vocabulary development in the target language (Singh, 2010).

When learners are reading, they are supposed to decode print according to the sound system of a language. When English is taught as a FAL, learners should be taught that the language has forty four (44) phonemes (sound combinations) and twenty six (26) letters of the alphabet which learners have to bear in mind when reading. The teacher has to ensure that learners' oral foundation is strongly enhanced (Ayliff, 2012). Learners should be exposed to simple, understandable constructs in the FAL. Grade 1 learners are considered to be in their emergent literacy stage, which means that the teacher should create ample reading opportunities at an appropriate level. The teacher can do this through reading stories to learners as a way of supporting their literacy development. This in turn provides a solid base for reading and writing in Grades 2 and 3 (Ayliff, 2012).

2.4.4 Writing and handwriting as literacy skills

Bester, Meyer and Evans (2013) assert that there is a difference between handwriting skills and writing skills. The authors explain that handwriting skill is a skill that every learner should possess in order to be able to write letters and numbers correctly and legibly, whereas the writing skill is a skill where learners transfer their thoughts and ideas into words on the page through writing them in writing activities like shared writing, guided writing and independent writing (Joubert, Bester & Meyer, 2008; DoBE, 2011). Therefore, handwriting and writing are not similar skills although the terms are sometimes used interchangeably. Writing skills are essential as they demand that learners be exposed to a great deal of lexemes, phonemes and graphemes in FAL (Thornhill & Hugo, 2013).

Moreover, an ability to express ideas on paper (writing skill), more especially in a foreign language, requires learners to be initially exposed to activities that involve emergent writing. They later progress to shared writing, guided writing and creative writing. These activities can include "transcribing or copying words or simple sentences from the blackboard or a book" (Thornhill & Hugo, 2013, p. 149). However, it is also important that FP teachers know that

there are different stages that learners have to be involved in when they are being taught how to write. Thornhill and Hugo (2013) draw from the Council for the Curriculum, Examination and Assessment (CCEA, 2011) to elaborate on the six stages of teaching writing. The first stage is familiarisation. This involves introducing learners to a variety of writing examples. The second stage is problem solving. This involves explanation and discussion of text genre. The third stage is modelled writing. This involves the teacher writing for learners to demonstrate how writing is done. The fourth stage is shared writing, which involves the teacher writing with the learners. The fifth stage is guided writing, when learners write with the help of the teacher. The last stage is independent writing, which is when learners can write on their own without being assisted by the teacher. According to CAPS (DoBE, 2011), learners also need to learn skills related to drafting, writing and publishing their work in their Home Language. Mastering these skills in the HL assists learners to transfer the skills into their FAL.

The Language in Education Policy (DoE, 1997) document emphasises that the teaching of oral communication should occur in the FAL during the initial years of learning the language. However, learners should also be engaged in academic activities that call for their cognitive development and academic competence. Ayliff (2010) laments the fact that there is a great deal of focus on a communicative or meaning-focused approach in FAL teaching compared to the teaching of expressive language, as it is argued that this has an adverse impact on the acquisition of writing skills for different genres (Ayliff, 2010). Moreover, various authors and language specialists suggest that policy-makers should empower teachers by giving them a methodological syllabus that contains the linguistic forms to be mastered in the FAL (Hugo & Niemann, 2010; Nel & Swanepoel, 2010; Flowerdew, 2008; Hugo, 2016).

2.4.5 Language structures and usage as components of literacy skills

The teaching of a language and its structures and usage is regarded as an advanced literacy skill that requires learners to achieve the necessary basic literacy skills (listening and speaking, reading and viewing, and writing and handwriting) (DoBE, 2011). According to Wissing (2016), mastering the structure and style of a language is a vital skill when learning any additional language. Therefore, “learners who encounter the additional language, should

initially be guided to establish correct language usage and the focus should therefore not be primarily on accurate grammar knowledge" (Wissing, 2016, p. 104).

Learning a language and its structure and usage as a literacy skill involves learners' explicit knowledge of how to use different basic units of that language. This involves using sentences, clauses, phrases, words, morphemes and phonemes correctly (Ball, 2008; DoBE, 2011; Hugo, 2013; & Hugo, 2016). Wissing (2016, p. 111) suggests Crystal's (2003) table to explain the basic units of a language.

Table 2.3: Crystal's table of basic units of a language

Sentences
are used to build
Clauses
are used to build
Phrases
are used to build
Words
are used to build
Morphemes
Are used to build
Phonemes

The National Curriculum Policy (DoBE, 2011, p. 8) states that "learners need to develop a shared language to be able to discuss the language". Hugo (2016) refers to this articulation as 'meta-language' because, if learners are able to discuss the language, they will be able to gain the skills of reflecting on it as well as discussing it through using the basic units of a language and other language aspects like phonics, tenses, adverbs, adjectives, concord, nouns, and other

grammatical aspects that include pronunciation, semantics, syntax, phonetics, morphology and phonology.

The acquisition of a language and knowledge of its distinctive structures and usage are regarded as advanced FAL literacy skills that have to be introduced in Grade 2 and extensively in Grade 3 without any hesitation or delay. Hence, it is vital that learners in Grade 3 be conversant in the target language in order to prepare for transition to the LoLT in Grade 4 (Pretorius, 2014). However, one needs to take cognisance of the fact that "there is no single optimal way of teaching language structures" (Wissing, 2016, p. 104). Hugo (2016) raises the concern that any success in teaching language structures and usage in a FAL depends greatly on the teacher's attitude, creativity, experience, knowledge and competence in the language and the interest and attitude of the learners. In this context, Wissing (2016) states that "teachers need to design learning experiences where learners engage with appropriate language exercises that exacerbate [sic] immersion in the language" (p. 105). This means that language exercises increase learners' immersion in cognitive and meta-cognitive involvement in the FAL.

2.5 Teachers' Roles in the Promotion of the FAL in FP classrooms

Teachers are the transmitters of knowledge. Therefore, the role of the teacher is to teach (Shulman, 1986; Pretorius, 2014; DoE, 2000). Teaching any FAL requires that teachers have subject content knowledge as well as pedagogical knowledge. Shulman (1986) articulates that teaching is impossible if the intersection of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge, which he refers to as the pedagogical content knowledge, does not exist. Mzimela (2012) articulates that it is obvious that this kind of knowledge should be possessed by all teachers, irrespective of learners' age, the subject being taught, and/or the school's context. In support of the claims made by Mzimela (2012) and Shulman (1986), Pretorius (2014) states that the constructors of knowledge should possess a thorough understanding of their learning areas and context.

The teaching of a FAL in the FP in South Africa is mandatory. Therefore, teachers play an extremely significant role in ensuring that efficient teaching of the FAL occurs in FP classrooms. They need to display their expertise by applying appropriate techniques, methods and approaches of teaching the FAL in their classrooms (van der Walt, 2010). The South African Council of Educators (SACE) (DoE, 2000) articulates that teachers play seven

fundamental roles in order to be regarded as ethical practitioners. SACE further crystallises the notion of three additional roles that are closely associated to teaching as a core business of every teacher, which are the following: "a teacher is a mediator of learning, the interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials, and a learning area/subject/discipline or phase specialist" (DoE, 2000, p. 13). This implies that teachers have to ensure that they allocate sufficient time to teach the FAL as stipulated by the National Curriculum Policy (DoBE, 2011). The policy-makers also clearly stipulated the time allocated for the teaching of a FAL in each Grade and in each content area in order to ensure that exposure to the language is sufficient.

Moreover, teachers need to ensure that they engage their learners in FAL lessons that are thoroughly planned and prepared as well as level appropriate. Lenyai (2013) asserts that one of the ingredients for successful FAL teaching in the FP is to thoroughly prepare and plan before teaching. A lesson plan is one of the most essential tools to be used by all teachers as it depicts all the elements and a step-by-step development of a lesson and how assessment will be conducted (DoBE, 2011). Lesson planning also assists in addressing the blind-spot issues that might hinder or accelerate the planned teacher-guided or learner-initiated activities. Morrow (2007, p. 7) asserts that "teachers themselves need to design learning programmes that are sensitive to their learners and responsive to their contexts and develop appropriate resources and other learner support material in order to achieve the nationally mandated learning outcomes".

The teachers' role is also to continuously acknowledge learners' previous knowledge and cultural backgrounds. Vygotsky (1978) highly recommends that learners' backgrounds and stages of development are to serve as a teacher's starting point when a foreign language is taught. Further, Vygotsky argues that "it is imperative to accept society's influence and culture in any person's life" (1999, p. 32) and that these are constructed through the processes of interaction, communication and collaboration between the teacher and learners. Thus, understanding every learner's previous knowledge to develop the additional language is every teacher's primary duty when teaching young learners. This ideology is advanced by Allahyar and Nazari (2012), who affirm that teachers should give learners abundant opportunities to speak in class through putting more emphasis on the stimulation of learners' communication skills in the second language in order to gain an understanding of learners' level of linguistic knowledge. Vygotsky (1978) asserts that teachers should have knowledge of learners' zone of

proximal development (ZPD), as this is the domain where learning can most productively take place (Hugo, 2013). In affirmation of this, Street (2003, p. 77) articulates that "it is imperative to understand the premise that literacy is a social practice, not simply a technical and neutral skill, [and] that it is always embedded in socially constructed epistemological principles".

2.6 Strategies for Teaching a FAL in the FP

The Foundation Phase is typically the first phase of formal schooling in the Basic Education and Training (BET) band. The National Curriculum Policy (DoBE, 2011) stipulates that languages are to be taught in parallel in this phase, namely Home Language (HL) and First Additional Language (FAL). Any language as a subject comprises four components: listening and speaking, reading and phonics, handwriting and writing, and language use and structure (DoBE, 2011).

Various authors have argued that the strategies for teaching a HL are similar to those used for teaching a FAL (Lenyai, 2011; DoBE, 2011; Jordaan, 2011). However, the introduction to the current curriculum policy (CAPS) acknowledges that "teaching an additional language is not the same as teaching a Home Language (HL)" (DoBE, 2011, p. 6). In support of this articulation, Singh (2010) states that this serves as an eye-opener, as teachers have to provide multiple opportunities for learners to hear the spoken word and to take part in informal conversations using the first additional language.

The notion that FP teachers are required to have fair PCK of teaching a FAL can never be overemphasised. However, it is shocking that "there is evidence to suggest that some teachers in South Africa lack the methodological skills to promote the effective learning of an [additional] language" (Jordaan, 2011, p. 519). FAL teachers' methodological skills are of paramount importance when they teach a language that is alien to learners. Hugo and Lenyai (2013) articulate that teaching a FAL is fraught with challenges because learners are exposed to concepts that are sometimes not related to their everyday lives. Secondly, the FAL is mostly only heard and spoken in the classroom for the duration of the lesson, and when learners are at home or on the playground an environment that is conducive for the acquisition of a FAL is not created. This lack of immersion in the target language poses a threat to the effective teaching of the FAL. Moreover, it is an often unpleasant reality that a FAL is taught by a teacher who is not a native speaker of the target language (Du Plessis & Louw, 2008).

Several methods, approaches and strategies need to be applied when a FAL is taught in the FP. However, it is vital to understand that there is no single optimal method of teaching a FAL that is suggested by language theorists (Hugo, 2016). A combination of different teaching methods, approaches and strategies should be applied varyingly for the effective teaching and acquisition of a FAL. Four remarkable FAL teaching strategies, as articulated by Hugo and Lenyai (2013), Hugo (2016), Cummins (2001) and the DoBE (2011), are presented below:

2.6.1 Scaffolding

This is a technique adopted from Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (1978). Vygotsky compares the teaching of a foreign (additional) language to the use of a scaffold that builders use for the construction of a building. Learners learn in the same way a building is constructed (Lenyai, 2013). This means they need to be taught gradually starting from a simplified version of the FAL while at the same time maintaining the notion that the work given to them is challenging in nature. The scaffold (intensified support) is slowly removed as learners begin to exhibit signs of understanding the language while simultaneously offering all the support they might need. Basically, using a scaffolding technique means that the teacher has to teach learners using a developmentally appropriate pedagogy and ensuring that what is being taught to learners is age and knowledge-building appropriate. In affirmation of this argument, Hugo (2013) articulates that scaffolding as a technique that depends greatly on three aspects, namely the learners' age, the learners' existing knowledge, and the learners' background. In consideration of this, "some learners may require stronger scaffolds than others" (p. 45). It is advisable that, when scaffolding is utilised as a technique in teaching a FAL, the repetition method is also incorporated (Hugo, 2013). She continues to allude to the fact that repetition assists in the consolidation of new terms and concepts, but cautions that teachers have to be very vigilant not to overuse repetition as it might lead to leaners' boredom.

2.6.2 Total physical response (TPR)

This is a teaching technique that is highly recommended for the teaching of an additional language, especially when young learners are involved (Hugo, 2016). The total physical response (TPR) technique was developed by James Asher who was a professor in Psychology at San Jose University in 1977. He had a strong belief that learners have good listening abilities. Err (2013, p. 1767) asserts that "learners' role in TPR is to listen and perform what the teacher

says, [while] they monitor and evaluate their own progress". This means that the teacher should ensure that the expressions are coupled with the use of gestures and facial expressions to teach learners an additional language and also to teach them to observe what the teacher is doing. Learners need to be quiet and to listen to what the teacher is saying while observing what s/he is doing. Er (2013) states that when TPR is integrated into routines, the learners will immediately become involved in the language and engaged in reacting to it. Asher's belief is that learners are not to say anything in class when the teacher is teaching them new concepts. However, they will simply stand up and demonstrate if asked to do so by the teacher. The belief is that they will only speak when they are ready to do so. Asher (1977) articulates that the benefit of this method of teaching a FAL is that it does not put pressure on learners to speak the language that they do not know and understand yet.

2.6.3 The communicative language teaching (CLT)

This is the teaching strategy that is regarded by some scholars as effective for the teaching of a FAL if precautionary measures are considered (Moyo, Beukes & Van Rensburg, 2010). It is without a doubt that CLT stimulates communication to take place between the teacher and learners or among learners as peers (DoBE, 2011). The CLT approach allows for the use of the target language without any fear of making mistakes. However, failure to select appropriate content to be communicated during the additional language lesson can result in unintended consequences. In this regard, a thematic approach is often recommended.

Moyo, Beukes and Van Rensburg (2010, p. 26) assert that "the primary role players in classroom interaction are the teacher, the content and the learner, such that there will be teacher-learner interaction, learner-learner interaction and content-learner interaction in the classroom". Such interactions and the effectiveness of CLT rely deeply on the teacher's expertise in applying this approach, as is his/her duty "to provide corrective feedback and correct models to set tasks" (Moyo, Beukes & Van Rensburg, 2010, p. 26). This approach also allows the teacher and learners to 'code-switch' to their HL for better understanding of the conversation and/or content (Abad, 2008). However, Moodley (2010) asserts that code switching is not valued by everybody because although "those who hold a positive attitude towards it value its use because it serves as a communicative strategy that has psychological benefits for the learners, [it may happen that] they will not make the effort to understand the second language [as they] may 'tune out' and wait for translation" (p. 8). But one of the CLT's clear benefits is that it complies with the ideology of learner-centred learning (Lenyai, 2013).

2.6.4 Activating and building on learners' background knowledge of Home Language acquisition

A considerable number of research studies on how learners learn an additional language have been conducted worldwide. There is evidence and persuasive convictions that learners' home language has an impact on how they learn the additional language (Cummins, 2001; Theron & Nel, 2005; Ball, 2008; Moodley, 2010; Hugo & Niemann, 2010; Moyo, Beukes & Van Rensburg, 2010; Evans & Cleghorn, 2010). According to Cummins (2001, p. 17), "the level of development of children's mother tongue is a strong predictor of their second language development". Given this reality, it is thus a convincing argument that when learners are taught in an additional language, they cognitively think and reason in their HL prior to responding to questions or discussions in the FAL (Moodley, 2010). This implies that teachers need to capitalise on such convictions and ensure that they adopt additive bilingualism as stipulated in LiEP (DoE, 1997). Teachers ought to ensure that different cultures are recognised when teaching a FAL, as some challenges are exacerbated by the fact that learners are coming from diverse socio-cultural backgrounds. Ayliff (2010, p. 4) raises the concern that "some challenges are partly caused and certainly exacerbated by conditions external to the schools, such as poor socio-economic conditions, unsupportive and illiterate parents or caregivers, dysfunctional home environments, and historical and political challenges". This is the reason that led Hugo (2013) to advise that teachers use visual materials, demonstrations, graphic organisers, allow for hands-on experience and ensure that verbs in action are demonstrated by doing the action.

2.7 Common Stumbling Blocks in the Way of the Effective Teaching of a FAL in the FP

Arguments and discussions in the media and scholarly literature nationally and internationally have endeavoured to unpick the reasons why some teachers can teach FAL successfully while others cannot. Dippenaar and Peyper (2011) offer a suggestion for the source of the problem as they raise the point that teachers' own language proficiency is pivotal in the successful teaching of any language, particularly a FAL.

Hugo and Niemann (2010) make the point that English is the home language of only about 7% of the South African population, yet it is widely used as the language of teaching and learning, whereas English is also the FAL in most schools nationwide. They declare that "this means that most teachers use English as the medium of instruction although it is also their second or third language" (p. 60). Ayliff (2012, p. 50) also asserts that "English is by far the most commonly chosen first additional language amongst the 91.5% of our population who are not

mother tongue speakers of English". As a result, research has shown that many South African learners lack fluency in their additional language, which is English, because their teachers have an inadequate command of English. It was found that learners would rather keep silent during a FAL lesson than use the language that is foreign to them. This leads to "deficiency in the ability to actually use the language and understand its use in normal communication, whether in the spoken or in the written mode" (Hugo & Niemann, 2010, p. 62). Consequently, learners' aptitude in using the language is confused with their capabilities as they fail to meet the expected standards (Hugo, 2008).

The second stumbling block is that teachers fail to maximise teaching methodologies for effective FAL learning. There is a huge number of learners in South Africa who come from low socio-economic backgrounds where parents are illiterate or have low literacy levels (Pretorius, 2014). These learners are therefore "not exposed to books or regular literacy practices in the home, and home storybook reading in the pre-school years may be entirely absent" (p. 55).

The third stumbling block to effective FAL teaching and learning is that there is a disjuncture between learners' cultural knowledge, social interactions and FAL learning. It is important to also understand that education plays a fundamental role in processes of cultural- and social-class reproduction (Bourdieu, 1984). Some learners come from societies where the significance of a FAL is irrelevant in their culture and identity. Pretorius (2014, p. 55) asserts that "in reality, many children from poor homes attend poorly resourced schools where classrooms are by no means print-rich environments and where reading plays a peripheral role". Experiences in bare, dispossessed classrooms are unsupportive to the learning of an FAL and also put strain on the teachers' attempts to teach a FAL to their learners as their direct encounter with the language is only when they are at school. It has been demonstrated that many second language speaking learners struggle to use FAL adequately and independently. Samuel (2008) laments the fact that "the response to the poor performance of learners is to lay the blame on the doorstep of teachers' deficiency" (p. 55).

Furthermore, Lenyai (2013) suggests what appear to be the most important ingredients for the successful teaching of a FAL in schools in order to alleviate challenges that are often encountered by learners in their efforts to acquire the target language. Although these ingredients for effective FAL teaching have been raised by Lenyai (2013), it is also important

to note that they are not cast in stone as some of the ingredients suggested may not be easily achieved. These ingredients are:

2.7.1 Teachers' knowledge of how to teach a FAL

Teachers often lack knowledge of how to teach a FAL to FP learners. This exacerbates learners' lagging in learning the language. Teachers need to have sufficient and adequate pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) of how to teach an FAL. If lacking, it poses a threat to the acquisition of the FAL by the learners.

2.7.2 Teachers' knowledge of the FAL

In most cases, the FAL is taught by teachers who are not native speakers of that language. However, proper command of that language will assist the teacher to be able to teach it, regardless of the challenges that might be encountered during this process.

2.7.3 Teachers' attitude towards the FAL

It has been shown that teachers' attitude towards the teaching of a FAL plays a vital role in the successful teaching of any FAL. In spite of all the stumbling blocks encountered by learners and parents, teachers need to have a positive attitude towards the teaching of a FAL, as this will alleviate the stress that is often related to the teaching of a language that is alien to learners.

2.7.4 Availability of learning resources

The availability of teaching resources is the cornerstone of every successful teaching effort, irrespective of geographical context. Learners' lack of exposure to adequate and print-rich classrooms is one of the most detrimental causes of lagged learning and mastering of the FAL. Therefore, FP teachers have to ensure that a variety of learning resources that enhance the teaching and learning of FAL is available in their classrooms.

2.7.5 Supportive school environment

Teaching a FAL should be considered the responsibility of all stakeholders in the school community and not only that of the teachers. Such collaboration will minimise the challenges

that are often encountered when a FAL is taught. The school environment should be supportive through its infrastructure and the provision of human, financial and other resources.

2.7.6 Good planning

Good planning results in good teaching. Planning based on the learners' age, Grade, pre-exposure to the language, level of cognitive knowledge and socio-economic backgrounds accelerates better results. FP teachers have to tailor-make their planning on what and how to teach based on their learners' needs.

2.8 Insightful Thoughts on the Teaching of a FAL in the FP

Hugo (2008) asserts that whether learning through one's own language as the LoLT or to learn in additional languages is still an ongoing debate in South Africa. Nonetheless, the teaching of learners in the FP is still calling for exploration as there are different notions of introducing a FAL to learners. In pursuit of information in the literature to comprehend the teaching of a FAL in the FP in more depth, two prolific approaches that are often adopted by schools emerged. These exclude the approach where Afrikaans HL learners are introduced to English as FAL but retain Afrikaans as the LoLT throughout their schooling. Taylor and Coetzee (2013, p. 5) state that there is a *'*straight-for-English' approach and a *'*first language to FAL in the fourth Grade' approach. These two types of schools differ systemically in terms of various observable and unobservable characteristics. The former approach is usually adopted by those schools that are at an advantage of having a population that is overly exposed to English. They often have learners who are proficient in the language and have socio-economic backgrounds and infrastructure that are compatible with the teaching of English. The latter approach is obviously the one that is employed for learners whose HL is not English but who are introduced to it because of the language policy mandate. The latter approach promotes that learners be exposed to all forms of maximised FAL teaching and strategies in order to be proficient in the FAL when they begin Grade 4 where they will be a transitioning to FAL as LoLT. Pretorius (2014, p. 56) states that "the need to develop strong language and literacy skills in the Foundation Phase is critical for supporting the transition to grade 4, even in homogeneous, well-resourced schooling systems where the LoLT is the home language".

Figure 2.1 indicates that the 'first language to FAL' approach as postulated by Taylor and Coetzee (2013) is based on FAL proficiency. The figure signifies an approach where learners are introduced to all FAL skills in order to prepare them for transitioning in Grade 4.

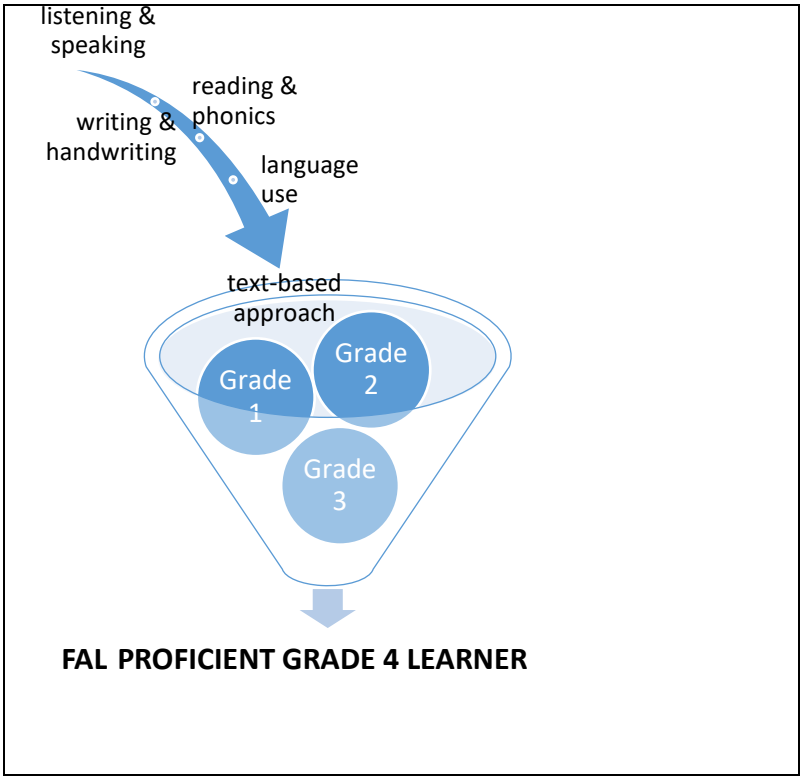

Figure 2.1: The primary goal of teaching FAL in the FP

Source: Author

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter has shed light on key concepts that emerged from the various literature that had been reviewed to illuminate the teaching of a FAL in the FP. The discourse has developed reasons for the introduction and articulation of the teaching FALs in South African schools. Based on the literature that had been reviewed, it became clear that the introduction of FALs was a national mandate to redress the inequalities of the past. The chapter has also stressed the significance of maximising the teaching of a FAL in the FP by adhering to the notional times that were established by the DoBE in order to ensure that all four basic literacy skills are taught appropriately. It was also shown that the teaching of a FAL is a complex process that requires

skilled and proficient teachers. A few of common stumbling blocks that impact the teaching of FAL in different contexts were mentioned, and the importance of acknowledging learners' socio-cultural backgrounds was stresses. Teachers' role and the PCK they need to possess in order to teach a FAL successfully while maintaining learners' HL status were emphasised. The discourse foregrounded some strategies, amongst others, that teachers should use to maximise learners' acquisition of FAL skills in the FP. These strategies relate to the fact that, in some instances, the content that is taught is not related to learners' everyday lives. It was also pointed out that some learners fail to relate to the FAL because they are only exposed to it when they are at school. The literature revealed two main approaches towards the teaching of FAL, which were the 'straight-to-English and the 'first-language-to-FAL' approaches. The latter approach is quite common in schools where learners' HL is not English. An important insight that was gained is that learners are prepared to acquire and be proficient in English because this prepares them for the transition to English as the LoLT in Grade 4.

The next chapter presents the second section of the literature review. The second key concept, namely school categorisation, will be extensively deliberated with reference to both international and national scholarly articles.

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEWING THE LITERATURE

CATEGORISATION OF SCHOOLS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is also based on scholarly literature and develops the study's main arguments that pertain to school categorisation in South Africa. The previous chapter presented the first of two key issues that drove this study, which was the teaching of FALs in foundation phase. A key aspect was how the evolution of politics influenced various language policies in schools. Teachers' role in promoting the teaching of FALs was also discussed with reference to recent literature to substantiate the ideas. Finally, common stumbling blocks that are contributory to the ineffectiveness of the teaching of FALs were listed.

Chapter three sheds light on the various categories that South African public schools are divided into. I have deemed it appropriate to structure the chapter into four sections in accordance with the literature for a better understanding of school categorisation.

The first section of this chapter is based on the conceptualisation of schooling in South Africa as a developing country. This section elucidates the organisation and categorisation of the South African education system. It highlights how schools are lodged together or distinguished from one another and how this differentiation has caused adverse experiences for some citizens.

The second section of this chapter maps out an understanding of school categorisation in South Africa. In this section I bring to light that public schools in South Africa are categorised according to different attributes. I overtly explain school categorisation according to their attributes and illuminate various research findings in this regard.

The third section of this chapter presents arguments pertaining to schools' facilities that either support or mitigate against effective teaching and learning. It is argued that resources are allocated to schools based on their geographical contexts. The literature I reviewed directed me towards an understanding that the facilities and resources that are provided by the government through the DoBE differ according to schools' geographical contexts.

The fourth section of this chapter, which I regard as a cornerstone of the discourse, elucidates new knowledge that has emerged through constant engagement with the literature. The work of researchers such as Spaull (2012, 2013), Spreen and Vally (2006), Adato, Lund and Mhlongo (2007) and Van der Berg (2008) is reviewed in some detail. In essence, they all raise the concern that schools' level of effectiveness is based on their respective geographical contexts, and that this fact impacts the standard of education that is achieved to a great extent.

3.2 Section 1

3.2.1 Conceptualisation of schooling in the South African education system

This section of this chapter sets the scene in my quest to understand the differences that exist in the demarcation of schools in South Africa. I shall endeavour to draw a clear line between private (independent) schools and public (government) schools. Regardless of the successful transition of the country into a new democratic era in South Africa since 1994, this section will present the separation that is evident in education provision still exists and accords a certain privileged sector of society a fair advantage. Spaull (2013, p. 6) raises deep concerns about the education system in South Africa. This author argues that there are in effect two distinct education systems in South Africa; schools (and therefore learners) "are divided by wealth, socio-economic status, geographic location and language". However, where Spaull's argument is reasonable, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa makes provision for such distinctions as Section 29 (3) states that "everyone has a right to establish and maintain at their own expense independent private educational institutions".

The following subsection evaluates the broad classification of schools. It is a precursor to the further breakdown of schools, which is referred to as categorisation.

3.2.2 The status quo of schooling in South Africa

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act No. 108 of 1996 stipulates that schooling should be compulsory for children from the age of seven to fifteen years (DoE, 1996). The Constitution further maintains the fact that all South African children are entitled to receive basic education (Section 29(1) (a) and that they have to be guaranteed quality education irrespective of their socio-economic, socio-cultural, or socio-linguistic backgrounds. Spaull

(2015, p. 34) affirms that 'quality education' can be defined as "the acquisition of the knowledge, skills and values that society deems valuable – usually articulated in the curriculum". Therefore, the basic education policy articulates that schools have to offer quality education from Grade R to Grade 12. In acknowledgement of this articulation, Education for All Country Report (2013) emphasises that basic education is an indispensable condition for meeting other development targets, such as the internationally agreed upon Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The South African basic education system consists of two schooling types: independent schools and public schools (DoE, 2003). These two types of schooling systems are generally determined by the financial means and stability of the parents and the community within which they are located.

3.2.2.1 Private/Independent schools

Independent schools are non-government schools (Fiske & Ladd, 2004). In the South African context, these schools are divided into two categories: those that are subsidised independent schools and those that are non-subsidised independent schools (Fiske & Ladd, 2004). According to the South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996, p. 24):

> "If an independent school's fees are more than 2.5 times the average provincial per capita norms and standards expenditure on public pupils, then it receives no subsidy. Schools with fees below that level continue to obtain a subsidy with the poorest schools obtaining the maximum amount of 60 percent of average provincial per capita (non-teacher) spending on public schools".

Independent schools are sometimes defined as 'private schools (DoE, 1996). Hofmeyr and Lee (2004, p. 144) explain that "an ongoing problem in South Africa is that … the public do not know what the term 'independent' signifies and it is usually necessary to add the term 'private' to ensure understanding". In an attempt to give a precise definition, they cite Kitaev (1999):

> "Private schools include all formal schools that are not public and may be founded, owned, managed and financed by actors other than the state, even in cases where the state provides most of the funding and has considerable control over these schools" (p. 144).

3.2.2.2 Government/ Public schools

Government schools are controlled and managed by the government (Fiske & Ladd, 2004). The government of the Republic of South Africa has mandated the nine provinces of the country to control all public schools and to ensure that quality education, as a basic right, is made accessible to all children (DoE, 1996).

According to SASA (1996), government schools are generally called 'public schools' (DoE, 1996). These schools depend on the government for funding and supplies. Some are entirely dependent on government subsidies while others are partially dependent as they charge school fees to manage and maintain the schools. The Act requires each province to take responsibility for its public schools and to ensure that they are equipped and have enough money to run properly.

Prinsloo (2006) explains that SASA (DoE, 1996) provides that a public school is a legal person ('juristic person') with legal capacity to perform its functions under the Act. Public schools therefore have the legal power to accommodate learners and to ensure that they receive a high and equal standard of education. A school as a 'juristic person' needs to function according to the provisions that are enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (South Africa, 1996a) and SASA (South Africa, 1996b). The Constitution clearly stipulates that education must be accessible to all citizens. Section 29(1) (a & b) of the Bill of Rights that is contained in the South African Constitution (South Africa, 1996) stipulates that "everyone has the right to basic education, including adult basic education and further education, which the state, via reasonable measures, must progressively make available and accessible".

According to SASA (DoE, 1996), there are three different kinds of public schools in South Africa, namely:

- ordinary public schools;
- public schools for learners with special education needs;
- public schools that provide education with a special focus on talent, including sport, performing arts or creative arts.

The three distinctive types of schooling in South Africa denote an education system that is related to the socio-economic status of learners' parents (Motala & Dieltiens, 2008). For instance, it is generally the case that a child that comes from a low socio-economic background will be schooled in under-resourced schools that are normally situated in rural and semi-urban

areas, whereas learners who come from affluent socio-economic backgrounds will be schooled in privileged schools that are normally situated in wealthy urban areas. However, the post-apartheid era has seen a tremendous transformation in this state of affairs as private schools have started to enrol learners irrespective of their socio-economic backgrounds. This trend has opened the door to basic education schooling for all. The fact remains that these schools still charge exorbitant school fees and are thus inaccessible to the children of the man on the street, unless subsidies or bursaries are acquired through learners' high sporting or academic achievements. Conversely, parents who have a low income or are not financially stable are more likely to send their children to public schools in their area where they will receive the type of education that matches their social status (Spaull, 2013).

This first section of this chapter has conceptualised on schooling system in South Africa. It further stated how the schools are separated according to private and public schools. This section served the purpose of shedding light on the two different education systems that exist within the country and how each manages its education system. The next section aims to present the school categorisation of public schools and the quintiling system.

3.3 Section 2

3.3.1 Mapping school categorisation in the South African context

This section will illuminate the reality that public South African schools are extensively categorised. These categories are dictated by schools' academic performance, financial status, geographical zoning, infrastructure and the levels of poverty or affluence depending on the society in which they are located.

South Africa is not the only country that experiences school categorisation. Pienaar and McKay (2014) reveal that countries like New Zealand, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Germany are also the perpetrators of education system differentiation through school categorisation based on class and habitus. According to Lombard (2007) these countries, as well as some countries in the South African Development Community (SADC), base promotion and the status of schools on academic quality, religion, language and social space.

Spaull (2012) coined the phrase "Not all schools are born equal", which exposes the reality of divisions in the South African education system and demonstrates the level of inequality among

its schools. Sadly, after two decades of freedom and democracy in South Africa, education is still the lowest bar on the graph of social and economic improvement. Shepherd (2011, p. 3) states that "despite concerted efforts to equalise the distribution of school resources in the South African education system, a large portion of the system still fails to provide the quality of education needed for sustained economic growth". This oversight is regarded as a driving force for the high level of school categorisation that exists in the country. Spaull (2012) also argues that "any discussion of South African education would be patently incomplete without some reference to the high levels of inequality that plague the country and permeate every element of the schooling system" (p. 35).

During the political transition in 1994, the South Africa government received the mandate to impact the education system and to determine its operations in all public schools. For example, as Spaull (2013, p. 436) asserts, the government has the "means to promote social cohesion, [and therefore] education was prioritised as an area for expansion and reform". The education sector is indeed an influential sector in the South African society as it caters for a very wide spectrum of human concern and human rights.

Surprisingly, schools in South Africa are still broadly categorised. In this context, I agree with Tikly (2006) that a lack of an organised voice in civil society concerning the education of the poor and the underprivileged is likely to have dire consequences for the future. Public schools under the Department of Basic education are being categorised according to infrastructure (quintile rankings), financial position (fee paying or non-fee paying parents), geography (rural, township or urban), poverty level of the community (the need for a feeding scheme) and performance (National Strategy for Learner Attainment [NSLA] or non-National Strategy for Learner Attainment [non-NSLA]). Van der Berg (2008, p. 4) alludes to the fact that "this high degree of inequality between schools is largely a legacy of historical education inequality". In expressing his concern, van der Berg (2008) argues that South Africa has by far the highest recorded values of inequality among schools, followed by Namibia as its closest rival. The values that van der Berg alludes to include teacher-learner ratio and the provision of funds and other necessities that are required to run a school. Spaull (2015) contemplates that it is of vital importance to understand that the Constitution aims for quality education. However, "inequalities in education are pervasive in South Africa, in spite of a Constitution that enshrines formal quality and a policy regime that conforms to global trends" (Christie, 2012, p. 2).

3.3.2 Different attributes of school categorisation in South Africa

3.3.2.1 Infrastructure (quintile rankings)

Public schools are categorised by determining their infrastructure, their socio-economic status (SES) and the zoning category under which they are located. The fundamental intention of this categorisation is to ensure that schools receive equal treatment and allocation of resources as specifically required by a school (DoE, 1998). Ntshoe (2009, p. 86) argues that equal treatment is a fallacy:

> "Even with very clear policy pronouncements, the interpretations of policy and laws are unlikely to be uniformly implemented. Specifically, the school quintile system, as one such instrument intended to equalise the allocation of resources and to address the question of discrimination, has little effect in de-racialising and desegregating schools as it is based on the principle of ability to pay and therefore encourages poor parents to send their children to quintile 1 (no-fees) schools because of financial difficulties"

According to the DoE (1998), there are five quintile rankings. The quintile to which a school is assigned is based on the rates of income, unemployment and illiteracy within the school's catchment area. The ranking of schools thus aims at addressing the inequality among schools by allocating additional official funds and resources to lower ranked schools (Collingridge, 2013; Hall & Gieses, 2008). However, Ntshoe (2009) asserts that it is a mystery why schools in the same location can have different quintile rankings. Hall and Giese (2008, p. 38) concur, and assert that the "quintile system has been misleading parents and schools as there was no communication [regarding] the manner in [which] schools were ranked and how they received their status". Hence, different schools within the same geographical zoning may have different quintile rankings and thus different resources are allocated by the Department of Basic Education. Below is an attempt to paint a picture of why schools are generally categorised according to the quintile system (DoE, 1996):

Quintile 1: Generally, these are schools are found in very impoverished communities where basic living facilities and basic infrastructure are not available. These schools for instance do not have an access road and there is no running water, no electricity and no other modern facilities. These schools include farm schools, under-the-tree schools and mud schools.

Quintile 2: These are schools that are marginalised in that they do not have resources that facilitate effective teaching and learning. These schools may have running water but no electricity. These schools are generally rural and farm schools.

Quintile 3: These are schools that are located in impoverished communities that reside in townships, in rural areas and on farms. These are marginalised schools as they have few resources and poorly trained or qualified educators compared to their urban counterparts.

Quintile 4: These are schools found in places where middle-class society lives such as in townships and urban contexts.

Quintile 5: These schools serve wealthy communities and are usually located in urban areas. The majority are former Model C schools and range from primary to high schools, most of which service wealthy communities. They admit white and black learners not only from the neighbourhood, but also from outside areas. They charge high school fees and black learners whose parents can afford the fees are also enrolled (DoE, 1996). Currently, many of these schools have more black than white learners.

3.3.2.2 Financial status (fee-paying or no fee-paying schools)

Spreen and Vally (2006, p. 355) argue that "the quality of education, particularly in rural and historically disadvantaged communities in South Africa, is also a human rights issue". It is in this context that the equalisation of education has become one of the most highly debated issue in the post-apartheid era in South Africa. For example, the government believes that no school fees should be levied in schools that serve extremely poor communities (DoE, 1998). According to the quintile system, quintiles 1 to 3 are no fee-paying schools. This means that the government allocates funds and salaries for the full running of these schools. Quintile 4 and 5 schools are allocated limited government (taxpayers') funds, hence parents are required to pay school fees if they wish to have their children educated at these schools.

The Department of Basic Education (DoBE) has to exhibit its potential to offer equal education for all by eliminating obstacles that prevent children from attending school. Ntshoe (2009) highlights that one of the most commonly experienced obstacles to accessing and receiving quality education is a lack of money to pay school fees. This compels the DoE to categorise schools into those where school fees are paid and those where the parents are not required to pay school fees. Funds to support all schools, regardless of the size of the subsidies provided, and must be provided by the government. According to DoE (1998, Section 20), the National Norms and Standards for school funding are generated by the state:

> "The State must fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis in order to ensure the proper exercise of the rights of learners to education and the redress of past inequalities in educational provision."

The DoBE applies the quintile system to determine what allocations are made to schools. By law, the Department is supposed to pay for everything that has to do with teaching and learning (e.g., textbooks, stationery, water, lights, telephone), but each provincial education department determines what portion of the pie is allocated to which school and how much can be allocated for what services, such as 10% on municipal services, 8% on maintenance and 45% on teaching and learning support materials such as textbooks (DoE, 2007).

Collingridge (2013) reports that no-fee schools receive a cash amount in lieu of the income they would have received had they been able to charge fees. This money – between 10% and 20% of the total allocation from government – is not subject to the same strict spending restrictions as the rest of the money they get. However, the money a school receives should all be accounted for in annual audited statements.

3.3.2.3 Performance (NSLA or non-NLSA)

One of the goals of the principle of 'Education for All' (EFA) is to produce learners who are performing well through equal and quality education for all (EFA, 2008). Spaull (2013, p. 5) feels that it is worrying that an analysis of every South African dataset of educational achievement shows that there are in effect two different public school systems in South Africa: one system seems to support and generate high flyers and top achievers, and the other does the opposite. However, it is critical to acknowledge that there are several barriers that prevent learners, teachers and schools from developing their full potential. Such challenges need the intervention of the DoBE. In this quest, the 2015 National Strategy for Learner Attainment Framework (NSLAF) was introduced in an attempt to address the challenges faced by a large number of schools.

Schools are categorised in terms of learner performance. Those that meet the expected standards are referred to as complying with the NSLA and those that do not meet the norms are referred to as non-NSLA. They are also generally referred to as performing or non-performing schools, with special reference to the National Senior Certificate results. The main

aim of any intervention is therefore to identify the barriers that are experienced (at individual learner level, teacher and classroom level, school level, and District and systemic level) and to put measures in place to address them effectively through an inter-sectoral and integrated approach (DoBE, 2015).

The National Strategy for Learner Attainment (NSLA) was amended by the Minister of Basic Education, Mrs Angie Motsekga, in November 2014, with the aim of addressing the 2014 Annual National Assessments (ANA) results which revealed that learners in the system were still faced with poor literacy and numeracy skills. The 2015 NSLAF (DoBE, 2015, p. 2) asserts the following:

> "The Basic Education sector has made tremendous progress in meeting the Millennium Development Goals, including providing for education delivery at different spheres of government. One of the challenges for the national and provincial departments of basic education has been to promote and implement changes which lead to improved learner outcomes throughout the basic education system".

3.3.2.4 Poverty (having a feeding scheme at some schools)

The National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) was introduced in 1994 by the government as part of the Reconstruction and Development Programme of the newly founded democratic Republic of South Africa (DoE, 2009). Its main aim was to alleviate poverty and improving the learning capacity of children through feeding them to ensure the better functioning of the brain.

The schools that are included in the NSNP are primary and secondary schools that are ranked as quintile 1 to 3 as these schools are located in marginalised contexts (Qila & Tyilo, 2015). The latter authors state that the purpose of this programme is to serve as an enhancement of primary school learners' ability to learn, to improve their capacity for school attendance and punctuality, and to contribute to the general health development of these children.

3.3.2.5 Geography (urban, semi-urban or rural)

Schools in South Africa are geographically categorised according to the context they are located in namely urban, rural and semi-urban.

Urban schools are those schools that are situated in urban areas. They are generally highly resourced and learner-discipline is generally very high. However, not all parents can afford to send their children to these schools because of high school fees (Lombard, 2007).

Semi-urban schools are those schools that are located in semi-urban areas also known as 'townships'. Township life is mostly associated with poverty, crime and violence. Education and resources provision and distribution become compromised and eventually these schools face multiple challenges (Mampane & Bouwer, 2011).

Rural schools are located in rural contexts. These schools are located in areas that are usually not well developed or slowly developing (Balfour et al., 2008). These areas and schools are marginalised and "teachers who work in rural areas face adverse working circumstances and are immersed in conditions of under-qualification, inadequate support and poor remuneration" (Medina & Arcila, 2013, p. 28).

In highlighting the implications of these geographical contexts, Ajayi (2013, p. 444) asserts that "school context is defined as the micro social and socio-political environment of the school setting that interns negotiate to acquire knowledge, skills, and dispositions required of teaching, including students, school policies, curricula, and social institutions". It is generally acknowledged that, in these different contexts, the availability of resources (human, financial and infrastructure) is unequally exhibited as they symbolise schools' contexts. It is thus evident that, although the EFA emphasises equal education for all, "not all schools are born equal" (Spaull, 2012). In support of this argument, Ajayi (2013, p. 445) claims that "education as a human right remains mysterious and has failed to prevent the increasing commodification of education and the attainment of social, economic and environmental justice".

This section has presented the quintiling system of schools that is used in categorising schools according to different levels. It also shed light on different categorisation of schools most importantly based on geographical locations. The next section presents a detailed information regarding the status quo of education that is offered in different geographical zonings, that is rural, semi-urban and urban areas.

3.4 Section 3

3.4.1 Geographical location as an attribute to schools' categorisation

One of the two key concepts in this study is school categorisation that is based on a school's geographical context. Geographical zoning is regarded as a school categorisation indicator as it detects how each school functions and renders its educational services to its community (Van der Berg, 2008). This form of categorisation has become critical because opportunities to access different amenities and resources are unevenly distributed (Yamauchi, 2011).

3.4.2 Understanding geography as a determinant of school categorisation

This study was fundamentally concerned with an exploration of how geography as an indicator for school categorisation (urban/semi-urban/rural) influenced the choice of which first additional language would be taught in the Foundation Phase, and how this language was taught. Lemon (2004, p. 274) argues that, because of the categorisation of schools, some "have suffered setbacks in personnel management, curriculum reform, the construction and maintenance of buildings, and the provision of learning materials". This section of the chapter therefore intends to develop a comprehensive understanding of the categorisation of schools based on geography. I have devised the following table (Table 3.1) to illustrate my perspective of the significant pointers for each geographical context.

Table 3.1: Suggested pointers for geographical school categorisation
Source: Author

CONCEPTS UNDER SCRUTINY	URBAN SCHOOLS	SEMI-URBAN SCHOOLS	RURAL SCHOOLS
School quintile system ranking	Most schools are quintile 4 & 5	Most schools are quintile 3 & 2	Most schools are Quintile 3, 2 &1
Infrastructure	Excellently structured schools with libraries, computer and science laboratories. Some have swimming pools and playing fields for all sporting codes.	Mediocrity is evident. Some of the facilities that are available to their urban counterparts are not evident.	Buildings poorly constructed. Playing fields (if available) are for netball and soccer. Generally there are no libraries, no computer and science

			laboratories, and buildings are not frequently or properly maintained.
Availability of teaching and learning resources	Generally sturdily structured and well equipped buildings and physical facilities that emanate from the apartheid era. The department provides a budget for the procurement of and provision of LTSM.	Most teaching and learning resources are provided by the Department of Basic Education	Some teaching and learning resources are provided by the Department of Basic Education (there is no consistency).
Availability of suitable teachers	Appropriately and some highly qualified teachers. However, in ex-Model C schools up to 50% of the teachers are paid by the Governing Body through funds (school fees) that are generated by fee-paying parents.	Teachers are available, but face multiple challenges related to teaching.	Underqualified and unqualified teachers are willing to teach in this context.
Socio-economic status: learners' backgrounds	Economically successful environment. No racial segregation exists in ex-Model C schools as these schools enroll learners from all race groups. Traditionally Indian and Coloured schools also enroll Black learners, whereas no apartheid-era Black school is known to have enrolled learners form other race groups.	Mainly occupied by Black Africans. Racial segregation and a scarcity of resources are prevalent.	Poverty-stricken families, high level of unemployment, and high illiteracy levels are prevalent.

	They have thus maintained their Black enrollment status.		
Support from officials of the Department of Education	Frequent support is evident in predominantly Black schools, but not in urban ex-Model C schools. Teachers are invited to attend workshops by the DoBE.	Some support is evident as teachers are invited to attend workshops and some moderation sessions at all grade levels and in all Circuits, Districts and Wards.	Difficulty in accessing roads often prevent officials from monitoring schools' functionality.

3.4.3 Education system in schools situated in rural areas

3.4.3.1 Schools' quintile ranking

Schools that are situated in rural areas are generally known as poverty-stricken and deprived schools because of the low density of population and high levels of unemployment. The quintile system attempts to address the uneven distribution of poverty across provinces, with the poorest provinces having the greatest number of learners in quintiles 1 and 2 (Hall & Giese, 2008). Schools in rural contexts are generally known as marginalised, impoverished and lacking of some facilities that will assist them in providing quality education. Such schools are supposed to be receiving more funding from the state because normally these schools are a 'no-fee paying' (DoE, 1998). It is perhaps not surprising that some of these schools operate minimally at a 'zero-fee' level while waiting for the Department of Education to release funds during the financial year.

3.4.3.2 Infrastructure

One of the major challenges that the rural schools often encounter is that they do not have electricity, running water and/or accessible roads. Many school buildings are in disrepair in most are poorly maintained. These factors have a detrimental effect on the processes of teaching and learning (Rural Education Newsletter, 2009; Mukeredzi & Mandrona, 2014). These schools are labelled in the Rural Education Newsletter (2011) as "forgotten schools" because it is noticeable that the roads leading to these schools are difficult to travel. The

communities in these areas experience poverty, unemployment, difficulties to access water and forms of energy, problems with transport, and a scarcity of basic services which ultimately impact the education of their children (Gardiner, 2008).

3.4.3.3 Availability of teaching and learning resources

Schools that are located in rural areas often lack teaching and learning resources. This is sometimes exacerbated by the Department's tardiness in providing teaching and learning resources to these schools. The fact that most rural schools are no-fee-paying schools also leaves the schools with an over-reliance on the state to provide in their needs. It has been witnessed that some schools can't utilise electronic resources such as computers and smart boards because they have no access to electricity. According to Medina and Arcilla (2013), teachers in Colombia are faced with similar adverse situations that compel them to get immune to contexts that deprive them of inadequate support. However, inadequate support results in teaching that is not on a par with what is taught in schools that are situated in other contexts. The literature has revealed that the availability of teaching and learning resources and the equalisation of schools in terms of such provisions is on the Department of Education's agenda towards equating and improving schools (DoBE, 2012; Surty, 2011). However, while resources remain limited, low pass rates in many rural schools compared to the situation in their urban counterparts will remain a reality.

3.4.3.4 Availability of suitably qualified teachers

Surty (2011) states that the limited resources that are available in rural schools cause them to struggle to attract good, suitably qualified teachers. This plight pushes schools to recruit even unqualified teachers in their quest to leave no class unattended. Sharplin (2014) states that this phenomenon is becoming increasingly popular in countries such as Australia and America where this practice is termed "out-of-field teaching" (Sharplin, p. 98) because these teachers are teaching in fields that they did not specialise in. Salojee (2009, p. 5) adds that "the culture of under-qualified and unqualified teachers exist [sic] in many rural schools and this contributes to the poor teaching and poor management of education in rural schools". Another contributing factor is that there is usually a lack of suitable accommodation for teachers. No running water, no electricity, and no network coverage cause them to leave in search of more advanced

schools. These shortages also contribute immensely to teacher absenteeism and lack of commitment due to frustration.

3.4.3.5 Socio-economic status: learners' background

According to van der Berg (2008, p. 8), "the socio-economic status of pupils is an important determinant of learning outcomes". The socio-economic status of learners' parents is thus a significant indicator of rural schools' challenges, marginalisation, backwardness and spatial isolation.

In order to understand rural schools' context, Pillay and Salojee (2012, p. 44) highlight that "it is imperative to start from the premise that a rural school is contextually different from an urban school in its geographical features, its practices, ethos, and economic status". Much of the literature has revealed that it is difficult to articulate what a rural school is; however, using the geographical context of a school can serve as an illuminator of the terminology. Basically, rural areas are usually scarcely populated and experience high levels of unemployment, which in turn lead to poverty and disadvantaged socio-economic conditions that have a vast influence on education.

The many challenges that are persistently experienced by schools in rural contexts are of course saddening. This is intensified by the fact that provisions in the Constitution (RSA, 1996), the South African Schools Act (DoE, 1996) and various education policy documents are not adhered to. They collectively assert that all South African learners should have access to the same quality of learning and teaching, similar facilities, and equal educational opportunities (Gardiner, 2008). This leads to Surty's (2011) affirmation that teachers and learners in rural geographic contexts are at a disadvantage.

3.4.3.6 Support from officials of the Department of Basic Education

For any school to function properly, it is imperative that officials from the Department of Basic Education regularly monitor its functionality for sustainable education. SASA endeavours to ensure that all public schools in South Africa receive equal education and that schools will receive all forms of support. This includes the improvement and monitoring of basic infrastructure and human and financial resources. However, the National Strategy for Learner Attainment (2015) reveals that one of the challenges faced by national and provincial

departments of basic education is to promote and implement changes to improve learner outcomes across the school system (DoBE, 2015).

However, Gardiner (2008) argues that rural schools experience unprecedented challenges as they are not regularly visited by officials for assessment and monitoring purposes. Moreover, officials are often hampered by the need to travel long distances gravel and unsafe roads. Therefore, a lack of support perpetuates the level of challenges related to neglect and isolation.

3.4.4 Education system in schools situated in semi-urban areas

3.4.4.1 Schools' quintile ranking

Semi-urban schools, or township schools, are functioning under conditions that are often unwelcoming and that exacerbate the lack of a sound teaching and learning culture. Moreover, these schools are usually experiencing challenges with discipline, overcrowding, poor attendance of educators and learners, educators not desiring to teach, vandalism, gangsterism, drug abuse, a high drop-out rate, poor academic results, weak leadership, demotivated educators and learners, and the poor state of school buildings, facilities and resources as observable features of a poor culture of teaching and learning (Masitsa, 2005). The lack of funds to maintain school functionality also has a negative impact. Typically, township schools are often wrongfully categorised as this affect their quintile system drastically. Because the ranking system only considers the physical location of the school and does not take into account learner demographics, township schools are feeling the blow (Hall & Giese, 2008). As a result, most township schools are categorised as quintiles 3 and 4. This is the reason that some township schools do not to qualify for 'no-fee' status despite the high rates of poverty and unemployment that are experienced in the community.

3.4.4.2 Infrastructure

Schools that are situated in semi-urban contexts often serve the Black population group and are historically underprivileged (Mampane & Bower, 2011). Some schools often do not have the same infrastructure as their counterparts despite being in the same geographical area. This situation is often caused by the parents' favouritism of one school over another, which then causes one school to have a better infrastructure than its counterparts. In a research study conducted by Mampane and Bower (2011) in two South African township schools, it was revealed that inequality took its toll on the South African education system. They mention in

their report that two schools can be in a same geographical zone but that they operate at different levels in terms of, inter alia, human and financial resources. Learners in these schools generally require a good deal of protection due to the problematic environments in which they live, as not all of them that have the privilege of having safe school buildings and fences.

3.4.4.3 Availability of teaching and learning resources

Masitsa (2011) asserts that semi-urban schools are experiencing teaching and learning challenges that are mostly aggravated by a lack of appropriate teaching and learning resources. The provision of resources to semi-urban schools is not tantamount to the provision for their counterparts in urban area. For example, van der Berg (2008, p. 23) states that "additional resources are important, but it is also important to ensure that they are available in the right combinations and that school and classroom organisation adjusts to use these resources well". The Department of Basic Education has gradually provided teaching and learning resources to these schools, but through constant vandalism these resources are lost and never replaced. The underlying cause is that semi-urban/township schools are located in areas that "are engulfed by poverty, gangsterism, vandalism, poor academic results where facilities and resources are observed to be the observable features of a poor culture of teaching and learning" (Masitsa, 2005, p. 205).

3.4.4.4 Availability of suitably qualified teachers

A pressing issue in township schools is that many parents choose to bus their children to urban schools as they perceive that White teachers will be in charge of their education. This exodus of the more able learners from township schools contributes adversely to the motivation of teachers who teach in these schools. According to Msila (2005, p. 173), parents "do this because they are looking for quality education in former Model C schools". Parents still believe that teachers in township schools do not have the desire to teach which then results in high levels of absenteeism from school. It is also believed that teachers in township schools lack the desire to teach because they are sometimes dealing with learners who are unmotivated. According to Masitsa (2011), it is an every occurrence for teachers to face unmotivated learners who exhibit behaviour which ranges from frustration, boredom, a lack of interest in learning and studying to the fear that they might not be able to succeed. However, Masitsa (2005, p.

206) recommends that to eradicate such challenges, it is "the principals have to make things happen at schools".

3.4.4.5 Socio-economic status: learners' background

Parents' limited (and often zero) contribution to school fees because of their low socio-economic status places most township schools at a disadvantage (Mampane & Bower, 2011). It is a known fact that many parents in townships are unemployed, and when they are employed, it is usually not in a well-paying job. This ultimately results in "a poor quality education for most Black children which denies many learners' access to employment. It also reduces the earning potential and career mobility of those who do get jobs and limits the potential dynamism of South African business" (Spaull, 2013, p. 6). Learners from a low socio-economic background and schools in poverty-stricken areas generally tend to perform much worse in their Grade 12 examination than students from affluent areas (Spaull, 2013 & 2015).

3.4.4.6 Support from officials of the Department of Basic Education

As is required by SASA (DoE, 1996), the Department of Education is committed to providing equal education for all, and support from the DoBE is actually evident in township schools. Departmental officials constantly visit schools in order to ensure that the culture of learning and teaching is adhered to effectively (Fitzpatrick, 2014). Officials also visit township schools in an attempt to prevent parents from sending their children to ex-Model C schools that have demonstrated their ability to promote teaching and learning (Ntshoe, 2009). Masitsa (2005) asserts that the DoBE has to generate the restoration of a culture of learning in township primary and secondary schools in order to make schools function properly. Masitsa (2005) further argues that it is alarming that some of these schools' conditions are indicative of an eroded learning culture and which is a precursor of poor academic performance.

3.4.5 Education system in schools situated in urban areas

3.4.5.1 Schools' quintile ranking

Education has become a major political and policy issue in many Western countries in recent years (Butler & Hamnet, 2007). South Africa is no exception to this phenomenon as its education system has been under the magnifying glass for many years. For some reason,

schools are zoned according to their geographical variations which results in a form of segregation that impacts how schools are treated and provided for by the government. Normally, schools in South Africa that are located in urban contexts are perceived to be offering a better quality of education compared to their counterparts in rural areas (Ntshoe, 2009). These schools are currently known as former Model C schools because of their geopolitical boundaries and their above average socio-economic status. These schools were formerly reserved for White learners coming from both poor and wealthy communities. Many of these schools have the means to offer state-of-the-art education that differs from that which is offered by their counterparts in less affluent schools (Hall & Giese, 2008).

3.4.5.2 Infrastructure

Schools that are situated in urban contexts are located in geographical zones that allow them access to most amenities. Urban schools are usually rated as quintile 4 and 5 schools. Ntshoe (2009) asserts that these schools offer 'high quality education'. This in not because they receive more funds and better support by the DoBE, but because they are fee-paying schools that utilise this income for the day-to-day running of the schools and for the procurement of facilities and materials. In some of these schools parents cannot afford to pay the high school fees, and they then apply for subsidies which are in fact paid by those parents who still pay school fees. However, the more affluent of these schools are attended by learners whose parents can afford high school fees compared to their counterparts who attend schools in other geographical zones. Although quality education is unquantifiable, Sayed and Motala (2012, p. 106) refer to quality education as the kind of education "that satisfies basic learning needs and enriches the lives of learners and their overall experience of living". Unfortunately, this is not the case in all schools across South Africa, as unequal opportunities and dissimilar infrastructure still bar many schools from achieving this ideal.

Yamauchi (2011) states that former Model C schools have a tendency to overprice education by levying high school fees in order to bar other population groups from accessing their schools, as there is a belief that high school fees support high quality of education. However, I must most strongly refute this claim as a visual observation of these ex-Model C schools clearly show that their population demographics show overwhelming percentages of learners of colour. It is a reality in South Africa that urban schools have become a benchmark for quality education and that "geography becomes critical when access to opportunities is distributed

unevenly over space" (Yamauchi, 2011, p. 146). However, in recent times the media have increasingly reported stories of the perseverance and dedication of teachers and learners from rural and township schools that have achieved exceptionally well in the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination and in other fields, often pipping high flying urban learners at the post. Langa (2013) states that despite such differences, there is an increase in the number of better performing schools in rural settings because of parents, learners and community's increased value of embracing education for learning development.

3.4.5.3 Availability of teaching and learning resources

Teaching and learning resources in schools are regarded as the most eminent issue when it comes to their availability, relevance and effectiveness. Due to the high school fees that parents are required to pay as well as support from different stakeholders and sound financial management, many schools in urban contexts can afford to purchase additional state-of-the-art resources to facilitate the teaching and learning processes. Lombard (2007, p. 52) asserts that such schools have "…current information technologies, innovative and specialised programmes, curriculum transformation and links with local enterprise". The availability of these resources and the resultant high academic achievement of learners in these schools often allow them easy access to tertiary education (Spaull, 2013).

3.4.5.4 Availability of suitably teachers

Learners' lack of motivation to study and learn has been greatly associated with the unavailability of suitable teachers (Masitsa, 2008). Lombard (2007) conducted a study in Gauteng Province and found that teachers' commitment to teaching was the category that emerged most strongly as a driver of learner achievement. He found that many parents of colour preferred to bus their children to urban schools because of the positive perceptions of teachers in these schools:

> "[Teachers in urban schools are] 'more dedicated', 'act more responsibly and in the best interest of learners' and 'have a higher regard for discipline because they themselves are disciplined'. Further to this, it was also revealed that parents believed that former Model C educators were more involved in extra-curricular activities which helps to build sound educator/learner relationships" (Lombard, 2007, p. 52).

Urban schools thus ensure that they hire qualified and specialist teachers. Shulman and Armitage (2005) assert that urban schools have the potential to hire better teachers because educators are willing to teach in these schools where they will be exposed to less frustration and fewer challenges than in other schools.

3.4.5.5 Socio-economic status: learners' background

South Africa is not the only country that is anxious about the significance of learners' socio-economic backgrounds when it comes to the provisioning of education. According to Falch, Lujala and Strom (2013), countries like Norway, New Zealand, the United States and the United Kingdom are trapped in this ideology that learners' socio-economic background is the prominent indicator on how the school functions. As a result, "moving house to access quality schooling is found to be a common practice in countries such as New Zealand, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Germany" (Pienaar & McKay, 2014, p. 107).

Normally, learners in urban schools and more especially in former Model C schools come from economically stable backgrounds, although the economic realities of this country have had devastating effects on households where a parent or both parents lost their jobs. But many parents can still afford to pay high school and other additional fees that might be requested by the school (Ntshoe, 2009). It has been alleged that these schools used to raise high school fees as a gatekeeper to prevent learners from low socio-economic backgrounds from being admitted. However, SASA (RSA, 1996) ensures that school gates are open to all South African citizens, and today the population demographics of the majority of ex-Model C schools are truly reflective of a democratic South Africa, more so than that of schools in other geographic areas.

3.4.5.6 Support from officials of the Department of Basic Education

There is a great deal of provision of unequal education in South Africa. Spaull (2012, p. 2) alleges that "…while there was a sharp break in political ideology between the pre- and post-apartheid governments, many of the country's social institutions, such as schools, continued to function as they did under apartheid". Such utterances are a living proof that schools that are located in urban contexts are generally not marginalised compared to their counterparts. Although these schools receive limited manpower and financial support from the Department

of Education to ensure that they function properly, they experience fewer challenges and the culture of learning is supported through parental support financially and otherwise. Fleisch (2004) claims that these schools receive substantive support from the DoBE, which is a claim that my research has shown is a fallacy and not based on sound research. The school fees that are charged and paid are used to appoint SGB teachers. These schools seem thus ensure that there is provisioning of qualified and experienced teachers who work tirelessly and with dedication through sound management of the school fees that are paid by parents as well as other fund-raising initiatives. It is also ensured, through sound management practices, that the allocation of LTSM funds is utilised so that books and materials are ordered and delivered on time. In this context, it must be noted that access to these schools is not as tenuous as it is to schools in deep rural and rural areas, and that the storage of these materials and books is more secure because of a better infrastructure that was inherited from the apartheid years when these schools were well constructed.

This section has presented different attributes that denote how different education systems are affected by the geographical zoning of schools. It clearly indicated how school's quintile ranking, infrastructure, availability of teaching and learning resources, availability of suitably qualified teachers, learners' background and support from officials of the DoBE are influenced by the geographical location. The next section serves as the conclusion of this section. It presents literature that was reviewed on schools' conditions based on their geographical contexts. New knowledge and thoughts on schools' conditions based on their geographical contexts is also presented.

3.5 Section 4

3.5.1 School categorisation as an agent of division

The purpose of this section is to present the realisation that emerged through engagement with the literature on the phenomenon under scrutiny that the categorisation of schools is to perpetuate a disguised division of the population based on academic quality, religion, language and social space (Lombard, 2007).

3.5.2 Emerging new knowledge and thoughts on schools' conditions based on their geographical contexts

The fact that South Africa categorises its schools into different geographical contexts requires deeper reflection on the conditions that contribute to this phenomenon. Dividing schools according to geographical contexts prevails because of different geographical contexts that exist within the country. Studies have revealed a range of factors that impact the categorisation of schools according to geography. These categories have fundamentally been used in reporting on learner performance and the need for interventions (Spaull, 2012; Ntshoe, 2009; DoBE, 2015), yet these categories may have more serious implications for teaching and learning and that may ultimately affect learner performance.

I engaged with diverse literature in my endeavours to position myself within this premise. Consequently, the reviewed literature assisted me in obtaining a deep understanding of the conditions that impact schools categorisation based on geography. It also assisted me in understanding that school categorisation based on geography is a worldwide phenomenon. My engagement with diverse literature also aroused the notion that conceptualising different conditions that impact the nature of the education that is offered in different geographically located schools is imperative. These conditions include infrastructure, political positioning, teacher-learner ratios, socio-economic backgrounds, and teaching and learning conditions.

Infrastructural conditions in refer specifically to the state of school buildings, water supply, electricity, safety and the availability of the necessary mechanisms that denote a well-functioning school. The attainment of a balance among these issues has been of great concern policy makers and education experts alike (Motala, 2011).

It is an undeniable fact that public schools in South Africa are rated according to the geographical zone in which they are located (Ntshoe, 2009). However, to enable the restoration of teaching and learning resources and to ensure that a culture of learning exists in all schools, Masitsa (2005) advises that principals and school management teams (SMTs) of schools should inculcate a sense of ownership among the learners and the community in order to achieve a positive learning culture, irrespective of the condition of a school's infrastructure. Masitsa (2005, p. 206) defines a learning culture as "a positive school atmosphere which creates a

climate [that is] conducive to teaching and learning at school, where everything culminates in good academic performance".

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa is 'the voice of reason' that controls the political affairs of the country. At its inception, the main objective of the Constitution was to eradicate the inequalities of the past and to redress equality among the inhabitants of this country (RSA, 1996).

It is in this context that learners' socio-economic backgrounds and their locations play a tremendous role in influencing schooling space and school performance. Due to political segregation in South Africa during the apartheid era (pre-1994), space served as a determinant for learners' socio-economic background. Christie (2012) articulates that although numerous transformations have been democratically oriented, spatial practices of schooling materially persist for the majority of the population, more especially for Africans who reside in townships and in rural contexts. This notion remains alive in South Africa as there are infinite debates around equity, access to and success in schools. Msila (2014) concludes that these debates are undoubtedly influenced and driven by the socio-economic status of the families of children.

Spaull (2013) highlights that the correlation between education and wealth still manifests in the dualistic nature of the education system in post-apartheid South Africa. Normally, schools that are in urban contexts are enjoying the status of being schools that have had all their needs sorted out. It is accepted that a high percentage of the teachers in these schools are willing to work dedicatedly in spite of adverse and challenging working conditions. However, newly developed policies by the DoBE have caused teachers to find the stress unbearable, and for this reason many opt to resign from their professional duties. For example, township schools are often plagued by overcrowded classrooms due to inappropriate teacher-learner ratios which eventually results in inappropriate practices. Steyn and Kamper (2006) assert that teachers' workloads swell and, due to this, teachers develop uncontrollable stress. Thus, highly qualified teachers with optimum content knowledge resign from teaching or transfer to former Model C schools where workloads are less due to fewer learners per class (Spaull, 2013).

3.6 Conclusion

Various aspects related to school types and school categorisation have been discussed. These aspects were related to the historical background of the education system in South Africa. The

literature that had been reviewed revealed that school types and school categorisation are the predominant determinants of the divisions that persist in the South African education system. It was illuminated that schools that are regarded as marginalised are the ones that are highly impacted by political divisions that exist in any given country. Evidence from the literature revealed that various factors contribute to a school's functionality such as infrastructure, the availability of teaching and learning resources, the availability of dedicated teachers who are suitably qualified and who possess appropriate levels of content knowledge, learners' socio economic status, and the support that the school receives from the DoBE. Collectively, these elements contribute profoundly to the functioning of a school.

The next chapter will present the theoretical framework within which this study was located and from which it was developed. The chapter will further allude to correlated theoretical lenses and their contribution towards the development of the thesis.

CHAPTER FOUR

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 Introduction

The previous two chapters illuminated the literature that had been reviewed and thus served as an introduction to the two key phenomena that were explored; namely school categorisation based on geography and the teaching of first additional languages (FALs) in the foundation phase. These key concepts are undoubtedly significant in developing a rich understanding of the South African education system as well as the contexts in which teaching and learning occur. It is therefore important to understand that the teaching of a first additional language (FAL) serves as a crucial point in understanding the usage of an official language as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT). This study argues that the contexts in which a FP teacher teaches a FAL has an influence on his/her pedagogical practices. The study further proposes that there are predictable influences that impact the manner in which a FAL is taught in respective schools.

To underpin the above arguments, this chapter provides the theoretical framework within which the study was located. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 31) state that "a theory assists in the framing of a research study as it presents a systematic view of the phenomena under study by specifying relations among variables with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena". The theoretical framework and the theoretical constructs of this study were influenced by two schools of thoughts, namely Bernstein's theory of pedagogic practices and the theoretical constructs of Bourdieu's field theory. The former theory assisted me in framing my study within the notion of understanding teachers' knowledge of the content, curriculum and pedagogy of FAL teaching which characterise their pedagogical discourse. The latter theory, namely Bourdieu's concept of social topography, assisted me in designing the study's conceptual framework.

The choice of the theories that were applied was directed by the second phenomenon of the study, namely teaching of a FAL in various geographical contexts. Bourdieu's concept of social topography undoubtedly establishes the relationship between normalisation and the context in which a school is situated. In essence, each school irrespective of the context, has its norms of how they execute school occurrences and management as well as how teachers engage in their professional duties. These are often determined by the social space (topography) the school is situated in. The framings that were selected thus served as the lens through which I was able to target the design of the research study as well as the generation analysis of the data.

Although the study could potentially be framed within numerous theories, I opted to limit it to these two frameworks as they were the most appropriate to assist me in avoiding the generalisation of the data beyond reality. Other schools of thought that could have been used include Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge (1986), Vygotsky's social constructivism theory (1978), and Cummins' theory of second language acquisition (1981). Nonetheless, I decided to give a synopsis of these theories in order to shed light on their articulations and their epistemological underpinnings. This was prompted by the reasoning that these framings ultimately assisted me in developing the literature review of my study.

4.2 Synopsis of Correlated Theoretical Framings

4.2.1 Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge

Lee Shulman's opening statement in his paper that was presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association in Chicago in 1985 contained a paradoxical and provocative statement, as he (1986, p.4) asserted: "He who can, does. He who cannot, teaches". This statement prompted debate to which Shulman (1986) replied that he was very much aware that many teachers and professionals viewed his statement as a "calamitous insult to the profession" (p.4).

It was at that annual meeting that the realisation of the theory of teacher knowledge originated. In this theory, Shulman articulates that "we have to think about the knowledge that grows in the minds of teachers" *(*1986, p.9). He argues that teachers need to have a distinctive body of knowledge that will assist them in unfolding knowledge during the teaching and learning processes. In support of this philosophy, Morrow (2007) asserts that the teacher's duty is to teach, but he concurs with Shulman (1986) that teaching is impossible. He therefore raises his

profound concern that, if this is the case, then teachers find themselves in a bizarre situation (Morrow, 2007). Mzimela (2012) therefore asserts that teachers have a crucial duty to develop the cognitive, physical, social, language, and emotional skills of learners and that it is important to know what is in their minds and how they carry out their duties.

In illumination, Shulman (1986) differentiates the types of knowledge that teachers need to possess. He clearly states that teachers need to accustom themselves to three kinds of knowledge, namely content knowledge, curriculum knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge arguing that "mere content knowledge is likely to be as useless pedagogically as content-free skill" (p.8). Consequently, the vital knowledge that teachers need to possess is pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). PCK is regarded as "the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular aspects of subject matter are organised, adapted and represented for instruction" (Shulman, 1986, p. 9).

Having taken cognisance of Shulman's utterances on teacher knowledge, I also wanted to understand whether teacher knowledge is influenced by the context that they find themselves in. I therefore decided to expand on Shulman's theory in my study because his theory does not proclaim any exploration on the issue of FAL teaching in schools that are geographically diverse. As a matter of fact, Morrow (2007) highlights that "teachers themselves need to design learning programmes that are sensitive to their learners and responsive to their contexts, and develop appropriate resources and other learner support material, in order to achieve the nationally mandated learning outcomes" (p. 7). My interest was prompted by the fact that this deal has been proven to be futile in schools that are located in marginalised and in 'forgotten' areas.

4.2.2 Vygotsky's social constructivism theory

Lev Vygotsky's social constructivism theory (1978) highlights that children are dependent on their culture and society for the acquisition of knowledge. The social constructivism theory has dual perspectives, namely a socio-cultural and a socio-cognitive perspective. These perspectives accentuate the significance of social engagement in a child's cognitive development. Allahyar and Nazari (2012) claim that, from a sociocultural perspective, classroom activities are tied to cognitive development through the premise that learning occurs through social interactions. This suggests that schools as learning institutions have the obligation to integrate and facilitate learning through linking learners' already acquired

knowledge with new knowledge that emanates from more knowledgeable peers and/or teachers. Vygotsky (1978) refers to the gap between existing and new knowledge as the zone of proximal development (ZPD). In essence, teachers need to possess sophisticated knowledge that will guide them to detect learners' already acquired knowledge and the knowledge they require through their teaching and assessment practices.

It can never be denied that schools are social in nature (Vygotsky, 1978). In affirmation of this notion, Collins and Coleman (2008, p. 281) assert that "schools are central to the social geographies of everyday life; they are one of the few institutions that can be found in almost *every* urban and suburban neighbourhood, and with which almost *every* individual has meaningful, sustained contact at one or more points in their lives." Vygotsky's philosophy of capitalising on social engagements for further learning in platforms like schools can never be denied. In support, Allahyar and Nazari (2012) uphold that Vygotsky believes that all higher mental functions are internalised social relationships. Hence, Vygotsky (1978, p. 30) asserts that "socio-cultural theory recognises the central role of social relationships."

After contemplating the focus of my study, I considered underpinning my study's framework on Vygotsky's philosophies of learning a second language as a social interaction. However, the study's landscape drove me into thinking beyond Vygotsky's social constructivism theory and I thus opted for largely related theoretical framings. For this reason, I was compelled to reason beyond Vygotsky's social constructivism theory (1978) because Vygotsky's theory focuses largely on how learners (novices) learn and shape their cognitive and cultural development within a certain society by depending on capable person/s (i.e., more knowledgeable peers, adults or teachers). In this context, my study focused on how FP teachers taught a FAL in the diverse geographical contexts that they found themselves in. In this regard, Vygotsky's theory was not extensive enough to explain the phenomenon that drove my study and the achievement of its objectives.

4.2.3 Cummins' theory of second language acquisition

Jim Cummins' theory of second language acquisition (1976) posits that second language acquisition is highly dependent on the level of home language acquisition and a learner's proficiency in this language (Cummins, 2001). Hugo (2013) and Lenyai (2013) maintain that learning an additional language is a complex process. Besides, there is no comprehensive

analysis that describes whether cognition has any influence on second language acquisition or not (O'Malley & Chamot, 1995). There is great deal of confusion on the manner in which a FAL is acquired. This confusion is related to whether learners' levels of cognitive ability have any influence on how promptly they acquire the target language or whether it is the immersion into the language that supports the prompt learning of the second language. Cummins (2001) believes that, when learners' HL is prioritised, the chances of learning a second language eventually become greater. Supporting this philosophy, Cummins articulates that *"*bilingualism has positive effects on children's linguistic and educational development" (2001, p.77). In addition, O'Malley and Chamot (1995) believe that "second language acquisition ultimately results in automatic language comprehension and production" (p. 2).

In clarifying his philosophy on second language acquisition, Cummins proposes that there are two sets of language skills (1980). These are what are termed the basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). Cummins (1980) explains BICS as the surface skills in a language, for instance the ability to listen (and understand) and speak the language. These skills develop fluently within two years of immersion in the language (Hugo, 2016). Lenyai (2013) asserts that Baker (1996) typifies Cummins' BICS and CALP as an iceberg. The authors articulate that the top part of this 'iceberg' involves speaking, comprehension, vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar. These are the linguistic skills that are patently useful when one has to speak the language at surface level.

However, CALP are the skills that enable one to cope with the academic demands of the language. These demands include subject content, concepts and subject matter related jargon (Hugo, 2013; Hugo & Nieman, 2010). Lenyai (2013) maintains that Baker (1996) exemplifies the underwater part of an iceberg to skills that include analysis and synthesis and subtle language usage such as interpreting meaning, creative writing, and composition.

Although I have considered framing my study within Cummins' second language acquisition theory, I contemplated different aspects that are not clearly defined in his theory. To start with, Cummins does not address issues that are related to schools' diverse contexts in which a second language has to be learnt. Not does the theory considers the influence that school's geographic

context might have on teachers' ability to teach and learners' ability to learn a second language. Secondly, he does not address issues related to learners' socio-economic backgrounds and whether this can have any impact on second language acquisition. Thirdly, Cummins overlooks Vygotsky's (1978) beliefs that learners' socio-cultural backgrounds are imperative in learning a second language as it embodies the assistance of more knowledgeable others (MKO). Lastly, Cummins doesn't clearly indicate how a lack of adequate teaching and learning resources can adversely impact on how a FAL is taught in FP classrooms.

In the contexts of these concerns, Hugo and Nieman's (2010, p. 62) concern whether "ESL teachers in South Africa have progressed from using BICS abilities to using CALP abilities in English" had to be considered, and this contributed to my hesitation in framing my study within Cummins' theoretical perspective of second language learning. However, I have to acknowledge that Cummins' theory assisted me in argument building and in reviewing the literature purposefully and meaningfully.

The above section, presented a snapshot of a correlated theoretical framework that could have been employed in strengthening the foundation of my study. However, due to limited theoretical constructs that did not contain the key aspects that I deemed appropriate for the study, I had to search for additional relevant theories. Below is a presentation of two theoretical frameworks that were deemed appropriate as a framework for my study, namely Bernstein's theory of pedagogic practice and Bourdieu's social topography as a theoretical construct of his field theory.

4.3 Understanding Pedagogic Discourse

The term 'pedagogic discourse' simply describes the relay of pedagogy (Hoadley, 2006; Morais, 2002; Morais & Antunes, 1994), which is basically about how knowledge is transmitted and acquired. Morais (2002, p.559) mentions that Bernstein's pedagogic discourse "is a set of rules that regulate the transmission/acquisition of scientific knowledge". Bernstein designed a model of pedagogic discourse in 1986 which is centred on the '*what'* that is transmitted as educational knowledge and the '*how'* knowledge that is transmitted through the fundamental rules that regulate principles (Bernstein, 2003). These fundamental rules that regulate principles were termed by Bernstein as 'codes' (Bernstein, 1975 & 1990). According

to Sadovnik (1991, p.51), “codes refer to a regulative principle which underlies various message systems, especially [in terms of] curriculum and pedagogy”.

Based on his numerous works, Hoadley (2006) and Morais (2002) argue that, in understanding the normalisation of codes within institutions, Bernstein’s theory of pedagogy is encapsulated in his theorising of pedagogic discourse (Hoadley, 2006). This sound argument steered me into singling out Bernstein’s theory of pedagogic practice as a theoretical framework for my study. I therefore present Bernstein’s pedagogic practice theory below and also describe its relevance to this study.

4.3.1 Bernstein’s theory of pedagogic practices

Basil Bernstein was a British sociologist who developed the theory of pedagogic practices in 1977. Bernstein’s lens focuses on the process and content of what occurs inside classrooms in terms of the ‘how’ and the ‘what’ (Barret, 2007). Bernstein’s main concern is what knowledge does teachers have with regards to their practices and how do they transmit this knowledge they have in the different contexts that they may find themselves in. Therefore, it is important to understand that teachers’ fundamental duty is to teach learners. To do this, they need to know what to teach, what tools are required for effective teaching, and how to teach the content that has to be assimilated. According to Morais (2002, p. 559), Bernstein's theory “has provided concepts to define learning in social contexts and the interactions that occur in them that may be used to create contexts where children are active learners”.

Basically, content needs to be relayed to learners. Each curriculum has subjects and within each subject there is content (subject matter) that is subject specific (DoBE, 2011). Thus, Bernstein (2003) highlights that content and the knowledge of content are inseparable. It is therefore important that every teacher possesses content knowledge because there is a production, distribution and reproduction of official knowledge that is involved (Bernstein, 1990).

According to Shulman (1986), content knowledge refers to the amount and organisation of knowledge per se in the mind of the teacher. Ultimately, in any learning environment there is content that needs to be transmitted to learners; hence, teacher’s content knowledge is essential.

Additionally, Shulman (1986, p.9) asserts that “teachers have to be able to explain why a particular proposition is deemed warranted, why it is worth knowing, and how it relates to other propositions, both within the discipline and without, both in theory and in practice”. In this

instance, FAL teachers in the FP should possess the content knowledge of the FAL they are teaching and also understand its significance and how it relates to other propositions that are articulated by the curriculum on FAL teaching and language policies. Similarly, learners need to adhere to a series of rules. As was explicitly elaborated on in Chapter two of this study, these rules are incorporated in the curriculum (in this case, a FAL). They include learning, materials, pedagogy, instructions, tools, assessments and evaluations.

The figure 4.1 below depicts the didactic design as mentioned by Bernstein (2000). Bernstein's philosophy proposes that there is a didactic triangle that drives teaching and learning in the classroom context. Barret (2007) asserts that the didactic triangle encompasses: a) the content; b) the teacher; and c) the student/learner. The didactic triangle is then surrounded by different entities that contribute towards effective or ineffective teaching and learning. As was mentioned above, these entities include instruction, tools, pedagogy, assessment and evaluation, learning, materials and curriculum.

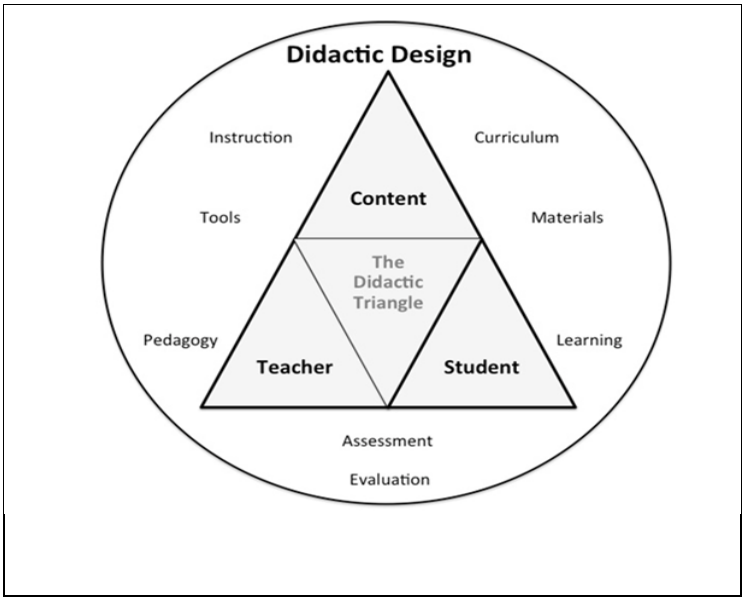

Figure 4.1 Bernstein's didactic design

Source: https://notesfromnina.wordpress.com

In further illumination of this notion, curriculum policy guides the manner in which each FAL content area has to be taught and the resources that can be used to ensure that maximised teaching of each content area takes place. Table 4.1 below depicts the school-based assessment

component in different school phases (DoBE, National Protocol for Assessment, 2011, p. 7). The table shows the percentage for each component of assessment, which comprises formative and summative assessment. Spiller (2012) mentions that "formative assessment is a kind of assessment that is used primarily for development purposes. It is continuous throughout the year or term. Summative assessment on the other hand is a kind of assessment that involves the final grading of learners' learning" (p. 12).

Table 4.1 Components of school-based assessment

Source: National Protocol for Assessment, 2011

PHASE	**SCHOOL-BASED ASSESSMENT COMPONENT** **%**	**END OF YEAR EXAMINATION** **%**
Foundation Phase	100	0
Intermediate Phase	75	25
Senior Phase	40	60
Further Education and Training Phase	25	75

Table 4.1 depicts the components of assessment as has been established by the DoBE (2011) for each phase. The table displays the respective percentage for formative and summative assessment in each phase. Foundation Phase learners ought to be exposed to 100% continuous assessment (i.e., formative assessment) that takes place during teaching and learning engagements. No end-of-the year examinations (i.e., summative assessment) is to be conducted in this phase. In intermediate phase (IP), 75% of continuous assessment has to take place during teaching and learning engagements and only 25% of the summative assessment has to be conducted at the end of the year. The senior phase (SP) is exposed to 40% continuous assessment and 60% summative assessment that occurs as an end-of-the-year examination. In

the further education and training (FET) phase 25% is continuous assessment and 75% is summative assessment which is conducted at the end of the year.

This policy compels teachers to comply with the rules of assessment. The assessment of a FAL in the FP is no exception, as teachers have to continuously conduct assessment of the concepts that need to be acquired during teaching and learning engagements. Teachers are obliged to assess learners' knowledge and comprehension continuously as there are no times set aside for the assessment at the end of the term or year.

4.3.2 Discourse on pedagogic practices in the context of FP

I chose Bernstein's theory as a fundamental discourse on pedagogic practices in the classroom with particular reference to the FP.

I regard Bernstein's (1977) theory of pedagogic practice as imminently relevant to my exploration of how teachers across geographical locations taught a FALs to learners in their respective FP classrooms. According to Mzimela (2012), it is imperative to apprehend that for FP teachers to teach effectively, they need to possess high standards of knowledge on the strategies to be utilised for transmission of the content. This study thus focused the manner in which the selected teachers transmitted their knowledge of FAL to learners through engagements with different pedagogical practices in their respective social contexts. Moreover, an exploration of what informed what they taught was also a premise for my study which was informed by Ivinson and Duveen's (2005) argument that knowledge should be framed appropriately and organised accordingly.

Undoubtedly, teacher knowledge is one of the most significant aspects that are encapsulated in the teaching profession. Knowledge serves as the determinant of every pedagogical engagement that every teacher should implement for effective teaching and learning. Bernstein (2000, p. 10), asserts that "…the notion of pedagogic practice is a fundamental social context through which cultural reproduction-production takes place". In support of this, Ivinson and Duveen (2005) affirm that Bernstein's assertions imply that "for any knowledge to be recognised as legitimate, it needs to be expressed in a form that it is appropriately framed and organised according to institutional codes" (p. 629). The epistemological understanding of this notion depends largely on the context that might in some instances be regarded as a contributing factor to the manner in which teachers transmit knowledge to learners and how teaching and

learning take place. Eraut (1994, p. 2) refers to this as "…situational knowledge which is child specific and situation specific".

Moreover, Shulman (1986) asserts that teachers should have educational context knowledge and curriculum knowledge in order to learn how to teach. This author further articulates that thinking about the knowledge that grows in the minds of teachers is important. This phenomenon therefore needs much attention in social research as teachers' juxtaposition to pedagogic practices is what defines the knowledge they possess. In affirmation of this view, Morrow (2007, p. 7) asserts that, for teachers to gain the desired knowledge, they need to "design learning programmes that are sensitive to their learners and responsive to their contexts".

I endeavoured to present a clear picture of the role that teachers play in ensuring that they promote and maximise the teaching of a FAL in Chapter two. I have to reiterate that teachers need to display expertise in applying appropriate techniques, methods and approaches in teaching a FAL as proposed by van der Walt (2010). When having achieved high levels of expertise, they will be able to design FAL learning programmes that are aligned with CAPS and that are sensitive to their learners and responsive to their schools.

4.3.3 Bernstein's modes of pedagogic practices

Barret (2007, p.274) asserts that "Bernstein's performance and competence pedagogic modes are taken as the starting point for a more complex and balanced description of pedagogic practice". It is of paramount importance to comprehend that classrooms are the platforms of knowledge construction, and FP classrooms are not an exception. Bernstein (2000) affirms that classrooms are social contexts where there must be an interaction between the teacher and the learners and among learners themselves through different plateaus of engagement that promote learning and teaching. Bernstein (2000) further states that there are two modes that underpin pedagogic practices. The first type is referred to as regulative discourse (RD) that regulates how knowledge is transmitted. CAPS (DoBE, 2011) suggests that for teachers to be able to teach a FAL appropriately, different teaching methodologies have to be employed. These teaching methodologies include total physical response (TPR), scaffolding, repetition, a communicative approach and others, as was explicitly discussed in Chapter two of this study.

The second type of pedagogic practice mode is instructional discourse (ID). This is a discourse of competence that refers to what is transmitted (Barret, 2007; Cause, 2010). Teaching a FAL involves four basic literacy skills, namely listening and speaking, reading and phonics, writing and handwriting, and language structure and use. An explicit discussion of these FAL basic literacy skills was presented and discussed in Chapter two.

The implication is that these two discourses need to be well-defined for any successful learning to occur in any classroom. Therefore, it is important to take into account how learners are taught and what they are actually taught in a FAL.

I have attempted to persuasively present the relevance of Bernstein's pedagogic practice for my study and the reasons behind premising it as a theoretical framing of this study.

The second theoretical framework that was deemed relevant for my study is presented below.

4.4 Understanding Bourdieu's Theoretical Perspectives

Pierre Bourdieu was a French sociologist, anthropologist, philosopher and a renowned public intellectual. Navarro (2006, p. 13) honours Bourdieu as "the most innovative and influential social scientist in the history of French social science". The author alludes that "… his name is certainly inscribed alongside the shortlist of social thinkers who proposed models to understand society that are deemed to be part of the classical tradition in the field" (p. 13).

Bourdieu was enormously concerned about human behaviour in various societies. In one of Bourdieu's sociology works, he asked the following question: "How can behaviour be regulated without being the product of obedience to rules?" (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 65). He developed several theories in his era and became known as a renowned public intellectual. The most distinguishable theories he proposed are 'theory of practice' and the 'theory of cultural reproduction' (Olivier, 2015; Navarro, 2006; Gabay-Egozi, 2016; Hesmondhalgh, 2006). In elaborating to his latter theory, Bourdieu offers a theory of cultural production based on his own explicit theoretical vocabulary of habitus, capital and field (Hesmondhalgh, 2006).

I am unpacking these theoretical terminologies prior to directing my focus on the theoretical construct that served as the premise of my study. I acknowledge the necessity of regarding this

as my *terminus a quo* in order to explicate the origin of Bourdieu's field theory and its social topography as the theoretical construct thereof.

4.4.1 Habitus

Ramrathan and Singh (2017) define the theoretical term 'habitus as "a set of attitudes and values which are durable patterns of sociocultural dispositions and practice" (p. 285) whereas, Reed-Danahay (2005) gives a more detailed philosophical explanation of the term:

> "According to Bourdieu, habitus is an internalised, embodied disposition toward the world. It comes into being through inculcation in early childhood, which is not a process of deliberate, formal teaching and learning, but rather one [that is]associated with immersion in a particular socio-cultural milieu, the family and household" (p. 46).

In essence, teachers have their own habitus within schools. They possess a particular 'feel' that enables them to be in touch with their social situation, which is their school. They interpret the situation they find themselves in through the manner in which they understand it. Navarro (2006) asserts that when one has a positive 'feel' about the habitus, it assists one to understand the social environment one finds oneself in. Likewise, they [teachers] devise a set of skills, attitudes and values towards the contexts that they find themselves in and they embody the context in order to sail through without experiencing any detrimental or unbearable consequences. Therefore, this philosophy accentuates the notion that teachers need to network and work collaboratively with others within the school, clusters, wards and districts in order to eliminate such unbearable consequences. In justification of this, Navarro (2006) says that "habitus is especially developed through processes of socialisation and [it] determines a wide range of dispositions that shape individuals in a given society" (p. 16).

4.4.2 Capital

Bourdieu (1986) proposes that "capital is an accumulated labour (in its materialised form or in its 'incorporated,' embodied form) which, when appropriated on a private, exclusive basis by agents or groups of agents, enables them to appropriate social energy in the form of reified or living labour" (p. 46). In fact, capital is "a social relation of power within a family or society which allows individuals to subjectively or objectively embody power to manage that particular family or society" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 47). Therefore, for every family or society there are relations of power that are accumulated in an objectified or embodied form. These power

relations are often related to the structure of that family or society. For instance, in a school structure, the principal is the head of the school and has powers to manage the school together with the School Management Team (SMT). In affirmation, Webb, Schirato and Danaher (2002) assert that the amount of power a person has within the field depends on that person's position within the field and the amount of capital the person possesses.

Nonetheless, there are often some disputes that may evolve over time. These usually emanate from power hierarchies. A leader (in this case a FP teacher) may experience some disputes that are related to his/her teaching style. In most cases, it takes a person a very long time to become a seasoned teacher, therefore, novice FAL teachers may realise that they have the potential to teach in a better manner compared to their senior leader (i.e., a FP HOD). In such manifestations, Bourdieu (1986) warns that "capital takes time to accumulate which, as a potential capacity to produce profits and to reproduce itself in identical or expanded forms, contains a tendency to persist in its being". Capital in other words takes its shape or form within the field (society) following the social order (the rules) that regulates that field. Navarro (2006) states that the capital is exchangeable and "accumulation of different forms of capital creates distinct forms of hierarchies and volumes of power" (p. 17).
Ramrathan and Singh (2017) concur with Navarro (2006) and Gunter (2000) that capital presents itself in several forms. "These include symbolic capital, cultural capital, educational capital and social capital" (Ramrathan & Singh, 2017, p. 286).

4.4.2.1 Symbolic capital

"Symbolic capital is any species of capital that is perceived through socially induced classificatory schemes that position people within a field" (Ramrathan & Singh, 2017, p. 286). These symbolic capitals serve as the resources that are available in networks that an individual might have within an institutionalised engagement. Grenfell and James (2004) mention that symbolic capital can probably be classified according to an individual's societal affiliations, for an example the clan name, family or class which then gives one an advantage to receive particular resources that are not received by others within the same field. These classifications then provide one's symbol and position within the field.

4.4.2.2 Cultural capital

Cultural capital is associated with social class. Bourdieu (2002) defines cultural capital as "the ability to act 'cultured' by embodying the language, accents and mannerisms of elite" (p. 278).

These are "the non-financial social assets that promote social mobility beyond economic means such as education, intellect, style of speech, dress and even physical appearance" (Bourdieu, 1984, p.2). There are three forms of cultural capital that sensitise the basic necessities of acting cultured. These are embodied cultural capital which is about the disposition of mind and body. The second one is the objectified cultural capital which is about goods and the third one is institutionalised cultural capital which is about educational qualifications.

4.4.2.3 Educational capital

Naidoo (2004) asserts that "educational capital which is sometimes termed 'academic capital', is defined as an institutionalised form of cultural capital based on the properties such as prior educational achievement, a 'disposition' to be academic (seen, for example, in manner of speech and writing), and specially designated competencies" (p. 458). In essence, educational capital is based on individuals' family backgrounds, levels of academic development, and the type of academic development one received in order to be classified as a suitable occupant within a certain field.

4.4.2.4 Social capital

Bourdieu (1986) asserts that "social capital is the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition or in other words, to membership in a group" (p. 286). Bourdieu (2002) regards this as "the value one gains from personal connections such as membership in a family, an ethnic association, elite clubs or other solidarity group" (p. 278). Social capital therefore, assists an individual to bring together other individuals in order to extend their network's horizon. This assists in accumulating value, sociability and wealth that contribute towards social acknowledgement which eventually contributes towards their recognition and fame.

4.4.3 Field

The field is Bourdieu's third key theoretical concept. Bourdieu envisages that a field "is a social space that is fundamentally having [containing] its occupants" (1986, p. 50). Moreover, within the field there are boundaries that control it. Public primary schools that are located in different geographical contexts have boundaries that were established by different state bodies that regulated how schools should be operated and how its occupants had to comply with the rules. Currently, Acts are published in government gazettes that determine policies on how schools

have to be governed and managed. To mention, the South African Schools Act (1996) provides rules on how public schools have to be managed by school managers and school governing bodies (SGBs); the South African Educators Norms and Standards (2000) standardise an educational ethos and how teachers have to behave themselves as professionals; Education For All (2013) regulates the admission of learners and the compulsory schooling age.

In addition to these mandates, schools as social fields also have their own tailor-made rules and regulations that set boundaries and regulate school management and governance. It is important to understand that "a field is a metaphor that is used to describe and understand intellectual work. It suggests that there is a particular territory or space with boundaries, [that] activity is structured and [that] entry is controlled" (Gunter, 2000, p. 624).

Ramrathan and Singh (2017) explain that "fields are relatively autonomous and dynamic social spaces that contain historically constituted areas of activities with their own laws of functioning, logic, values and discourses". Likewise, public schools have the autonomy to choose their activities that are aligned with their policies. They also ensure that the school functions according to the expectations of the Department of Basic Education and its mandatory policies.

There are indeed different fields that exist in the universe, as proclaimed in Bourdieu (1986). These include the university field, school field, art history field and literary field. Grenfell and James (2004) articulate that these different ranges of fields are to be understood by the occupants of that particular field. For the premise of this study and its milieu, the focus was only on schools as a social field. In this context, Bush (1995) mentions that the field of educational management is a field of study and practice concerned with the operation of educational organisation.

Figure 4.2 attempts to illustrate a simplified comprehension of Bourdieu's theoretical key concepts.

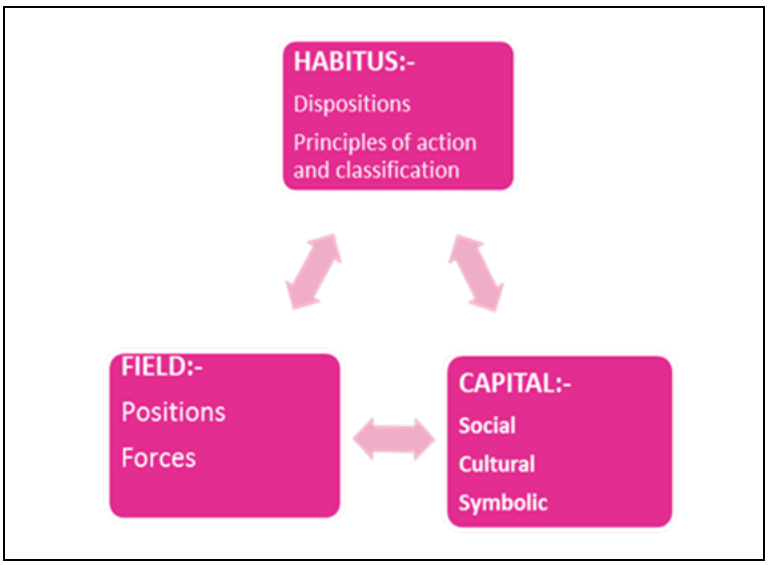

Figure 4.2: Bourdieu's key theoretical concepts
Source: Author

I have presented only a snapshot of Bourdieu's key theoretical concepts above as a detailed engagement with the field theory's evolution and its theoretical constructs will be presented below. Before I do so, I draw attention on Bourdieu's widely highlighted formula:

$$[(\text{habitus}) \times (\text{capital})] + \text{field} = \text{practices}$$

In essence, Bourdieu's formula for understanding his key theoretical concepts rests on the basis that when someone enters the field, habitus and a certain kind of capital shape the practices that occur within that field (Navarro, 2000; Olivier, 2015).

4.5 The Evolution of Bourdieu's Field Theory

From Bourdieu's several theoretical engagements and evolution of different theories, a field theory eventually evolved in 1985 (Gunter, 2000; Grenfell & James, 2004). Bourdieu's field theory is based on the distinction of class and status (Bourdieu, 1996; Hesmondhalgh, 2006). Bourdieu believes that there is consistency of action within a certain field. For Bourdieu, the social environment consists of a multiplicity of social fields in which agents produce practices, compete with one another, and develop social capacities (Rawolle & Lingard, 2008).

In elucidating the field theory, Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992, p. 72) assert that "a field is a configuration of relations between positions objectively defined, in their existence and in the determinations they impose upon the occupants, agents or institutions by their present and potential situation (situs) in the structure of the distribution of species of power (or capital) whose possession commands access to the specific profits that they are at". Further to this, Ramrathan and Singh (2017, p. 284) emphasise the notion to ascertain the field as that it "engenders a complex set of social relations wherein agents will engage their everyday practices". Fields thus embrace "the relations among the totality of relevant individuals and organisational actors in functionally differentiated parts of the society such as education" (Anheier, Gerhards & Romo, 1995, p. 865).

It can never be denied that schools are social in nature where different occupants in different positions occupying this space. Reed-Danahay (2005, p. 11) asserts Bourdieu's position that "social fields are sites of struggle over 'symbolic capital' that are organised around interests such as education, art, politics, and literature". It is imperative to understand that what happens within schools is regulated by the codes as stipulated by Bernstein (1990) and such codes are at some level denoting the symbolic capital associated with a particular society. In essence, the admission of learners to a certain school is channelled by socio-cultural identity and socio-economic background. Olivier (2015) makes reference to Bourdieu's notion of social and cultural capital when he asserts that school education favours those students with higher-class 'habitus', the education system functions in such a way that it reproduces and legitimates class differences and inequalities.

Gabay-Egozi (2016) concurs with Olivier (2015) that schools serve as platforms of transmission and exchange of knowledge, the inculcation of different cultures, identity formation, and distinction of class structure of a society. However, one has to understand that schools also promote the notion of class distinction through teachers who habitually demonstrate their preference to the learners who can effortlessly perform assigned tasks and display pre-acquired knowledge of the concepts.

Evidently, there is a great probability that there is a relationship between how people practise their duties and the context in which those duties have to occur. Through constant engagement with the literature on geographical school categorisation in South Africa and the consequences thereof, it was clear that teachers perform according to the availability of infrastructure, facilities and human resources within a school context. In affirmation of this view, Webb,

Schirato and Danaher (2002, p. 21) assert that Bourdieu "refers to these contexts (discourses, institutions, values, rules and regulations) which produce and transform practices as the cultural field."

I am typifying the concept of the cultural fields of schools as their policies, rules and regulations, categories (geography, quintiles and otherwise), positions (post levels), teaching experience, qualifications and teaching specialisations which exacerbate competition and division between those who qualify and those who do not qualify to perform certain activities. According to Anheier, Gerhards & Romo (1995, p. 860):

> "Within the cultural fields, actors are assumed to compete for social positions. This competition gives rise to social structure, which is understood as a social topology [that] positions actors relative to each other according to the overall amounts and relative combination of capital available to them."

In accordance with this definition, it is patent that FP teachers who teach a FAL within similar contexts are likely to experience similar encounters and challenges as Bourdieu (1989) alludes that "topography is a social space where actors find themselves. The topography is so constructed that agents who occupy similar or neighbouring positions are placed in similar conditions" (p. 17).

It is prudent at this point to remind the reader that this is a social science research study that was located within schools that are geographically different. This requires an understanding that the significance of the school as the field where educational engagements and knowledge exchange occur was paramount.

4.5.1 Discourse on context and geographical zoning

By framing my study within Bourdieu's field theory (1985), I needed to zoom on his theory and elicit social topography which is a theoretical construct of his field theory. This theoretical construct was subsequently used as a conceptual framework for my study. However, I was cognisant of the fact that Bourdieu's field theory has received numerous criticisms from various educational scholars (Ranciere, 2004; Olivier, 2015; Gale & Lingard, 2015; Rawolle & Lingard, 2008) who collectively claim that Bourdieu does not clarify on how local educational fields embody pedagogic qualities and action trajectories. Secondly, Bourdieu is not explicit

about education policies and their relevance. Rawolle and Lingard (2008, p. 729) articulate that regardless of these shortcomings, "his theoretical concepts and methodological approaches can contribute to researching and understanding education policy in the context of globalisation, [thereby] economising it".

Therefore, despite the criticisms, I framed my study within this theory as it was deemed relevant. Ferrare and Apple (2015) strengthened my choice of this perspective through articulating that "Bourdieu's version of field theory has had an impressive impact on the ways that sociologists of education conceptualise educational practices" (p.43).

The study is aimed at exploring teachers' pedagogical practices in different geographical contexts which thus prompted me to look at the different social and symbolic spaces (Bourdieu, 1984) that teachers find themselves in. However, Ferrare and Apple (2015, p. 48) raise a crucial concern:

> "Bourdieu's understanding of field theory suggests that consequential social actions are generated in the relationship between the structured spaces of positions and position-taking that are mediated by a habitus making sense of what appears possible from certain vantage vis-à-vis other positions."

Their argument that, necessitates the scholar's need to understand each social structure assisted me in developing a profound understanding about each field and its social structure.
In this context, Naidoo (2004) states that it is generally acknowledged that social formations are structured around a complex ensemble of social fields in which various forms of social power circulate. Likewise, Ferrare and Apple (2015) articulate that Bourdieu is very concerned about the notion of dominance and subordination that are reproduced through the inculcation of economic, political and cultural power. Obviously, dominance is unavoidable because it is perceived as the normalisation of a particular situation. In this context, Olivier (2008, p. 200) offers the following assertion:

> "Even in the classroom, the dominant definition of the legitimate way of appropriating culture and works of art favours those who have had early access to legitimate culture, in a cultured household, outside of scholastic disciplines, since even within the educational system it devalues scholarly knowledge and interpretation as 'scholastic' or even 'pedantic' in favour of direct experience and simple delight."

The research sites that came under the lens in this study were situated in different geographical contexts with education provision. The first research site was situated in a rural context. Nkambule et al. (2011) refer to schools that are situated in rural contexts as being marginalised. The second research site was situated in a semi-urban (township) context. Masitsa (2011) asserts that township schools are schools that are situated in the township or semi-urban areas. The last research site was an urban school that was located an urban context. Smith (2011) asserts that schools that are situated in urban areas referred to as Model C schools in the apartheid era to which, under normal circumstances, mono-racial White learners were admitted.

It is essential to be reminded that Bourdieu refers to any act of drawing boundaries in geographical locations as reinforcing class boundaries. Indeed, the existence of class boundaries in South Africa on the basis of racial segregation, geographical zoning, language dominance, and otherwise took its toll on the social fabric of this country (Spaull, 2013). Justifiably, South Africa has worked tirelessly after the 1994 elections to ensure that the chains of racial discrimination are defeated. Therefore, so-called 'democracy' was rapidly instituted to redress the inequalities of the past. The education system was primarily targeted as the prioritised field (Prew, 2009; Spaull, 2015 Van der Berg, 2008; Ntshoe, 2009). However, Spaull (2015) insists that there is still evidence that ongoing discrimination occurs which perpetuates social discrimination. In support of Spaull's assurance, Lingard, Rawolle and Taylor (2005, p.760) claim that "Bourdieu sees any social formation as consisting of a hierarchy of multiple, relatively autonomous fields where some are in dominant and others are in subordinate positions". In actual fact, Bourdieu mentions that these multidimensional positioning in social fields are perpetrators of various forms of power influenced by different capitals (social, symbolic and cultural) that play out within that particular space (Ramrathan & Singh, 2016).

4.6 Mapping the Link between Pedagogic Practice and Social Topography in the Teaching of a FAL

It is generally evident that teachers' adoption of pedagogic practices is influenced by the social space (topography) within which they function. It is also imperative that the actors (i.e., teachers who teach a FAL in FP classrooms of schools that are geographically diverse)] have knowledge of the social space they find themselves in. Brodie and Sanni (2014) assert that it is

important to take context seriously. The authors maintain that "a situated position suggests that people learn through making meaning in activity and practice" (p. 191).

It is similarly vital to reiterate that the teaching of a FAL is driven by teachers' attitude towards that language, the PCK they possess to teach the language and the actual knowledge of the language itself (Lenyai, 2013). The absence of these ingredients poses a threat to the effective teaching of the language in different social topographies. Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that some elements of social topography are not conducive to the teaching of a FAL. Take for instance a school that does not have relevant and/or sufficient FAL resources. In such a school, teachers become demotivated and will fail to teach the FAL effectively. Hugo (2008) reveals that "motivation is part of any language teaching and learning [process] because it involves what we feel comfortable with [it]" (p. 72). As a matter of fact, Bernstein (2000) mentions that teachers' pedagogic practices should signify an understanding of 'what' and 'how' they teach different concepts within the subject matters. In this context, Lenyai (2013) highlights, to the need for teachers to possess PCK to be able teach a FAL effectively. Thus teachers' fair knowledge of the target language is imperative, as their ability to transmit knowledge of the language to learners using multiple and appropriate strategies that provoke learners' cognitive abilities plays a vital role as a component of pedagogic practice. Shulman (1986) states that PCK lies at the intersection of pedagogical knowledge (PK) and content knowledge (CK). Therefore, the classroom as social context ought to serve its purpose as a platform where teachers display their PCK.

In concretising the significance of the social topography and the choice of pedagogic practice, Olivier (2015) alludes to Bourdieu's notion of 'social reproduction'. Bourdieu (1984) maintains that parents usually want their children to be educated in a certain way. For instance, 'elite' families want to sustain the cultural reproduction of the 'elite' habitus. It is undeniable that school education favours those learners with higher-class 'habitus'. This has led Martin Prew Director of the Centre for Education Policy Development (CEPD), to assert that "we talk equality but we implement differentiation, so in reality we have a two-tiered school system" (2009, p.3).

It is undeniable that pedagogical practices in privileged schools are different to those of deprived schools. The literature clearly revealed this point and also discloses some important aspects related to this argument (see Chapter three). To validate this argument, Olivier (2015) discloses that the education system functions in such a way that it reproduces and legitimates

class differences and inequalities. Such undertakings need to be condemned because bodies such as EFA (2003), SASA (1996), the Constitution (1996) and others strive towards the equal education for all South African learners, irrespective of their class, gender, colour or creed. Gale and Lingard (2015), in their work based on evoking and provoking Bourdieu's theoretical perspectives, argue that "some middle-class parents make 'against the grain' school choices whereby they enrol their children in state rather than in high-status private schools [are] in the end not immune to the social processes of misrecognition" (p. 6).

In the same vein, Bernstein (2003) articulates that there are of course classifications of pedagogic practice based on the context where the relay of knowledge for cultural production and re-production has to take place. Bernstein (2003, p. 214) maintains the following:

> "It should be borne in mind that principles of classification are always invisibly present in any pedagogic practice in the sense that any context of that practice presupposes a relationship with other contexts [and] other pedagogic practices/communications, either within the institution or external to it" (2003, p. 214).

Likewise, we ought to not overlook that social differences are reproduced through pedagogic practice, as stated by Hoadley (2006). The literature on geographical categorisation of schools clearly illuminate that teaching is context dependent (Ivinson & Duveen, 2005; Medina & Arcilla, 2013; Masitsa, 2008). However, for the efficacy of FAL teaching, one has to consider the different elements that are attached to it. Taylor and Von Fintel (2016) assert that these elements are related to historical disadvantage, socio-economic status, geography, the quality of school management and the quality of teachers.

Another disturbing reality in the South African education system is that there are only two languages that receive attention in becoming the FALs in FP classrooms (Hugo, 2008). Normally, these languages are Afrikaans and English, with the latter receiving more preference as a hegemonic language. As was mentioned in Chapter two of this study, it is only recently that African languages have been considered as appropriate to be used by learners who are non-native speakers, but numerous formidable challenges are attracted to teaching them. In my view, one formidable challenge is the recruitment of competent teachers who are African-native speakers of these languages over and above school's staff complement. Secondly, in a province like Gauteng, more African teachers will have to be employed in one school to cater

for the multiple languages that are spoken by the learners. Thirdly, there will be a lack of resources supplied to schools to cater for the teaching of all the official African languages.

It is indeed imperative to think about the link between pedagogical practices and the social topography of the education system. This becomes more important when one reviews reports from world renowned bodies such as TIMMS and PIRLS. PIRLS is an international body that studies reading literacy and its report is issued every five years. A shocking revelation in its 2016 report is that learners across the globe are not coping with English FAL proficiency in schools where it is taught as FAL because their teachers have a very limited proficiency in English. This concern was foreseen by Nel and Muller (2010) when they asserted the following:

> "Language acts as the basic communication channel for knowledge transfer and learning from the educator to the learner. If the knowledge communication channel is obscured and hindered by limited English proficiency [both on the side of the learner and of the teacher] knowledge transfer cannot be effective" (p. 646).

The worst-case scenario in limited English FAL proficiency is that it limits learners' ability to development academically when English becomes the LoLT in Grade 4. Pretorius (2014) argues that in schools in South Africa where children are taught in an African language in Foundation Phase, "Grade 4 is particularly challenging because this is when English becomes the LoLT" (p. 54). Most of these challenges are exacerbated by learners' lack of oral communication skills and reading for comprehension skills (Pretorius, 2014).

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter has clearly established the rationale for the choice of the two theoretical framings that underpinned my study. Bernstein's theory of pedagogic practice and Bourdieu's social topography conceptual framework assisted me in framing my study and highlighting its significance in the development of a body of knowledge within the two key phenomena that were explored. The correlation of these theories and their mutual dependence created insight into the phenomena and their underpinnings. It was deemed relevant to illuminate the constructs of each theory and to elucidate its relevance to the study. I also acknowledged other correlated theories by intentionally giving a glimpse of them in order to acknowledge the input they brought about in the epistemological understanding of different variables of this research study. Presenting a synopsis of Vygotsky's social constructivism theory assisted me in

comprehending that the theory sheds light on the understanding that learning occurs because of social interactions which might be between the learners and the teacher or among the learners themselves. Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge serves as a fundamental reasoning behind the comprehension that teachers need to possess a certain kind of knowledge in order to transform their classrooms into effective social platforms for effective cognitive development. Further to this, Shulman asserts that teachers need to possess a sophisticated kind of knowledge that encompasses content knowledge, curriculum knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. An extensive review of related literature and the exploration of different theoretical perspectives assisted me in understanding that teachers who function within different social topographies have to unleash the knowledge they possess to teach a FAL effectively. I also acknowledged Cummins' assertions in terms of his second language acquisition perspectives. Cummins declares that it needs to be embraced that the learning of a second language relies heavily on the levels of prior and continuous MT acquisition. He further alludes to the significance of BICS and CALP and how these two concepts should not be confused. Despite not selecting these theories as main theoretical framings of the study, they assisted me in the literature review and the presentation of the discourse in order to substantiate some claims that were made in terms of the development of my study. I then mapped the significance of a correlation among the theoretical framings and their relevance to this study. It became evident that social topography has a profound impact on pedagogic practices (the 'how' and 'what') that teachers apply when relaying knowledge to learners, because different fields call for different pedagogic practices as they are guided by social, symbolic and cultural capital.

The next chapter will present the research design and the methodology that was adopted when conducting this study. The chapter further alludes to the challenges that I experienced and the limitations that impacted this study. I also alluded to the issue of rigour of maintenance in my research and how the research methodology that was selected assisted me in successfully conducting this study and developing the body of knowledge.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the two theoretical framings which served as a guide for my study. The study was propelled by Bernstein's theory of pedagogical practice and Bourdieu's conceptual framework of topography that emanated from his field theory. I perceived these framings to be relevant for my study as they focus on the different pedagogic practices that teachers adopt in their respective contexts when teaching a First Additional Languages to their FP classes. Relevant literature was reviewed and utilised to develop the argument around the phenomenon under study. Hence literature on different aspects involved in the study was scanned and reviewed. Moreover, the different forms of literature that had been reviewed assisted in giving an insightful directive to the study.

Chapter five aims to reveal the route that I undertook when conducting this study. It illuminates the processes and procedures that I adopted to systematically develop this research study in order to explore the teaching of FALs in the FP in schools that were located in geographically different contexts. Two major concepts drive this chapter, namely research design and methodology. I divide this chapter into these two major concepts because it allows for ease of reading and enhanced insight.

The first major concept is the research design. Research design is the "procedures of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative and mixed approaches that provide specific direction and procedures in a research design" (Creswell, 2013, p. 3). These procedures of inquiry assisted me in designing different techniques that were employed in this study. I had to make firm decisions as to what to include and what not to include in my study, as Creswell (2013) clearly articulates that the research design in social science assists the researcher to make informed choices of what to include and what not to include in the study. However, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) and Hart (2009) mutually warn that most research studies are not conducted according to the prepared plans. I was therefore vigilant in the manner in which I developed

the research design as this notion was significant in making choices on how, when, from whom and in which geographical locations I would generate the data.

The second major concept is research methodology. Research methodology is a coherent group of methods that complement one another to deliver data and findings that will reflect the research question and suite the research purpose (Henning, 2004). The three research questions that were developed when conducting my study shed insightful light on establishing the purpose of this research study. The research questions as stated in Chapter one were: i) What are teachers' conceptualisation of teaching a First Additional Language in the geographical contexts in which they operate? ii) How do teachers teach a First Additional Language in Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others? iii) Why do teachers use particular methodologies to teach a FAL in the Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others?

Research methodology is concerned with the production of descriptive data that are generated through people's own written or spoken words and observable behaviours. The research questions thus assisted me in establishing relationships between various parts of the study and in the production of meaningful findings (Taylor, Bogdan & Devault, 2015).

In Chapter one I presented a superficial discussion of research design and methodology. However, in this chapter I intend to provide detailed information in this regard by illuminating the research paradigm, approach and methodology. I shall also highlight limitations and challenges that were experienced when I conducted this study. The relevant details of the participants that were involved in the study and the methods that I used to select them will be discussed. The tools that I used for generating the data as well as ensuring the credibility and trustworthiness of the study will also be referred to extensively.

Figure 5.1 below is a summative illustration of how this research study was designed.

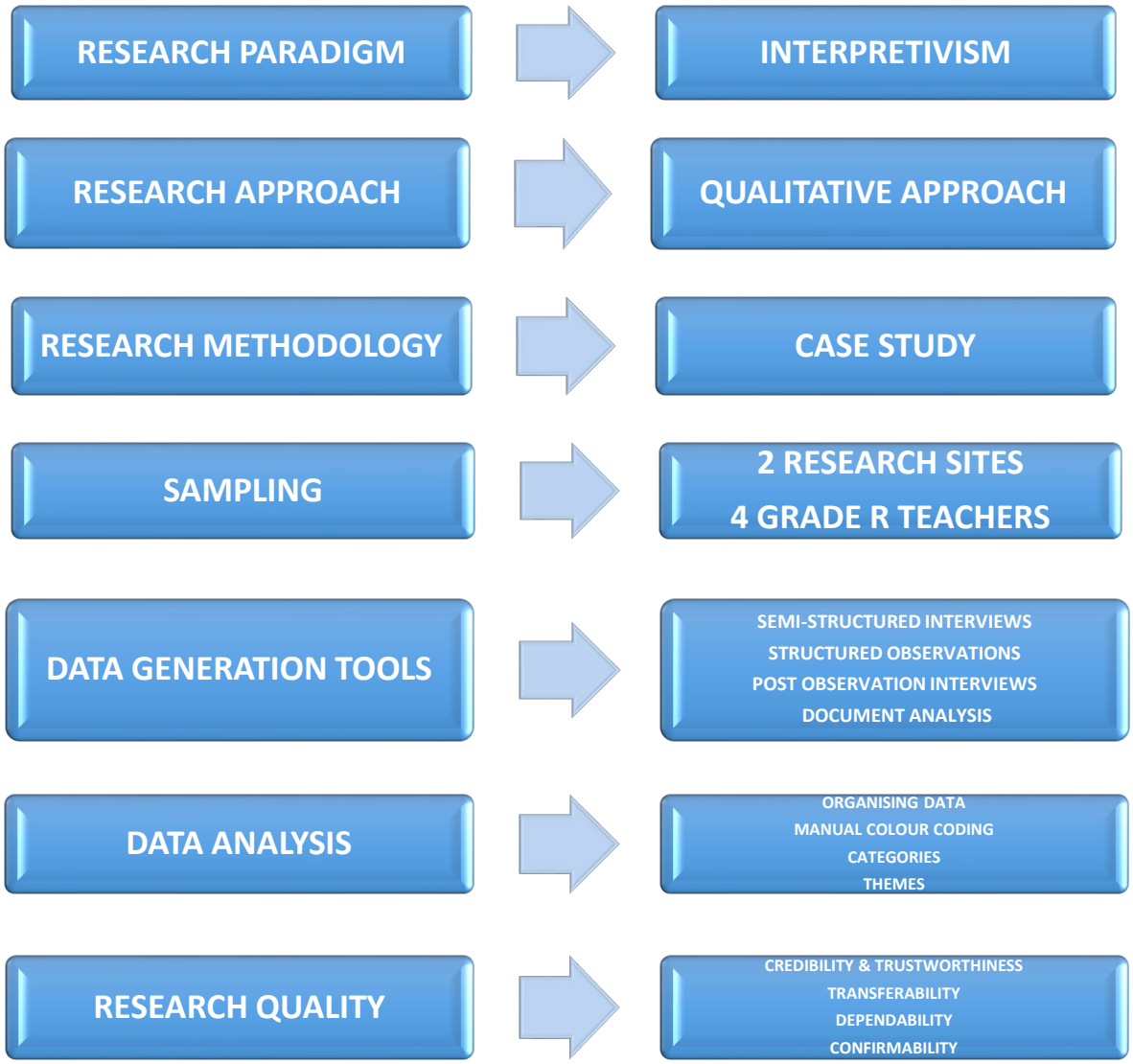

Figure 5.1: Summative illustration of the study design

Source: Author

5.2 Unpacking the Research Design and Methodology Elements

5.2.1 Research paradigm

I chose to embed my research study in an interpretive paradigm. The ontological belief is that an interpretive paradigm is concerned with meaning making and seeks to understand the

interpretations and subjective world of human experience (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Using this paradigm, in-depth and detailed data were generated verbally and textually from foundation phase teachers who taught a First Additional Language in their respective schools in different geographical contexts. These geographical contexts were semi-urban, rural and urban. A naturalistic method was employed to ensure that the data that were generated were genuine and had no predetermined actions. Cohen et al. (2011, p. 17) articulate that "[when] people are deliberate and creative in their actions, they act intentionally and make meanings through their activities".

I opted to use the interpretive paradigm because it enabled me to:

- examine the nature of reality through the eyes of foundation phase teachers who were teaching a FAL. In this regard, it was significant to take note of the argument by Cohen et al. (2009, p. 29) that an interpretive paradigm aims "at understanding the subjective world of human experience";
- gain insight into the pedagogical practices used by FP teachers who taught a FAL in their respective contexts.

It was important to gain knowledge of and insight into the selected FP teachers' philosophies, understandings and practices in attaching meanings to the world within which they functioned. It was also important that my understanding was underpinned by the philosophy that people's focus of interpretation is dependent upon their subjective experiences and how they construct their social world (Maree, 2007). I therefore needed to understand how the teaching of a FAL in FP classrooms manifested in schools that were situated in various geographical contexts.

5.2.2 Research approach

This study was projected from a social science perspective and it thus adopted a qualitative research approach. Marshall and Rossman (2006, p. 1) recommend qualitative research as a "genre that is becoming an increasingly important mode of inquiry for the social sciences and fields such as education". Hence the importance of context is emphasised in qualitative research. It is for this reason that the qualitative research approach allowed me to draw empirical data from a pool of ideas as suggested by Ragin and Amoroso (2011). The textual data were generated through taking field notes and recordings during numerous interviews and

observation sessions. In this manner the real-life settings provided multiple versions of responses from the three participants.

In support of this ideology, McNiel and Chapman (2005) articulate that when the researcher has embedded the study in a qualitative research approach, data always take the form of words rather than numbers and thus the measures that did not involve numerical data were utilised (Murray & Berglar, 2011). This allowed me to "explore and make sense of data in terms of the participants' definition of the situation [and] noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 537).

Because the main purpose of this study was to gain clear and detailed accounts from FP teachers about their pedagogies, strategies and approaches in teaching a FAL in their schools' respective contexts, it was important to obtain in-depth understanding rather than a quantity of perceptions. In affirmation of this view, Murray and Berglar (2009, p. 47) assert that qualitative approaches are "…particularly well-suited when you are trying to generate new theories or hypotheses and achieve a deep understanding of particular issues and they also involve measures that do not use numerical data".

5.2.3 Research methodology

Petty, Thomson and Stew (2012, p. 1) articulate that "research methodology refers to the theoretical, political and philosophical backgrounds to social research and their implications for research practice and for the use of particular research methods". There are multiple kinds of methodologies that can be used in research, which include ethnography, phenomenology, narrative, grounded theory, evaluation research, action research, Hermeneutics, feminism and case study methodologies (Petty et al., 2012). I chose a case study methodology for this particular study in order to understand each case in depth. Rule and John (2011, p. 4) define a case study as "a systematic and in-depth investigation of a particular instance in its context in order to generate knowledge". They further assert that it assists "in generating an understanding of and insight into a particular instance by providing a thick, rich description of the case and illuminating its relations to its broader context" (p. 7). Yin (2009, p. 18) describes a case study as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within a real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident". According to Yin (2011), there are at least three situations that create

relevant opportunities for applying the case study as a research methodology. He signifies the following opportunities as:

i) the kind of research questions that a study is trying to address;
ii) the emphasis of the phenomenon within its real-world context; and
iii) conducting the evaluations.

My study's purpose was to explore how school categorisation according to geographic contexts (urban/semi-urban/rural) influenced the choice of which FAL would be taught in the FP in the respective schools, and how this language was taught in this context. I therefore apprehended that a case study research methodology would be adequate in addressing the research questions and obtaining the objectives of the study. Three research questions (see Chapter one) were formulated to address the phenomena under study. The rationale for using a case study methodology was also spurred by the desire to emphasis the phenomena within their real-world context. Stake (2013) argues as follows:

> "Qualitative understanding of cases requires experiencing the activity of the cases as it occurs in its context [sic] and in a particular situation. The situation is expected to shape the activity as well as the experiences and interpretation of the activity. In choosing a case, we almost always choose to study the situation" (p. 3).

In my quest to adhere to this methodology, I conducted an in-depth exploration of three geographically different schools (urban, rural and semi-urban) in FP classrooms where a FAL was taught. This study qualified for the use of several cases, which Yin (2009) terms "a collective or multi-case study", because my anticipation was based on the assumption that the three different contexts would produce contradictory results (Gray, 2009). I thus aimed to compare and contrast the conclusions that were reached in terms of one case with the results from the other cases (Cohen et al., 2011). A multi-case study (MCS) approach is often regarded as the replication of an experiment as it yields more robustness to the conclusions that are reached (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009).

Bengtsson (1999) distinguishes two different types of multi-case studies. He articulates that the first type is called literal replica. In this type of MCS, the selected cases are similar and the predicted results are similar. The second type is called theoretical replica. In this type of MCS,

cases are selected based on the assumption that they will produce contradictory results. I thus chose a theoretical replica that required comparisons among the three cases based on generated data in order to reach meaningful conclusions.

5.2.4 Sampling of research sites and participants

Sampling is the decision that is made by the researcher in terms of the participants who should be involved in a study (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Different kinds of sampling may be used in qualitative research, such as probability sampling, random sampling, purposive sampling as well as convenience sampling (Punch, 2009). When a researcher decides on a particular sample in order to achieve a certain purpose, then it is known as purposive sampling. Cohen et al. (2011, p. 156) describes purposive sampling as a process whereby researchers "hand-pick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought". Purposive sampling also assists in the selection of specific characteristics that qualify the population to be holders of required data (Maree, 2009). I used purposive sampling by hand-picking a FP teacher who was teaching a FAL in one of three hand-picked geographically different schools. These participants were purposively sampled in order to arrive at an understanding of the phenomena under study from their perspectives. This assisted me in receiving empirical data and avoiding generalising results beyond the FP teachers who were sampled (Cohen et al., 2011).

5.2.4.1 Selection of the research sites

In selecting the research sites, I ensured that I employed qualitative approaches to research. According to Vaismoradi, Turunen & Bondas (2013), qualitative approaches share a similar goal in that they seek to arrive at an understanding of a particular phenomenon from the perspective of those experiencing it. By selecting three schools as cases, one from each geographical context, assisted me in achieving this aim. Stake (2013) asserts that in multi-case research, the cases need to be similar in some ways. The schools and teachers that I selected were similar that they were all public primary schools where a FAL was taught to FP learners. This qualified the study for a multi-case study (MCS). In adhering to ethical requirements, I shall use pseudonyms to refer to the schools and the teachers in order to protect their identities. A detailed biography of these research sites is presented in Chapter six.

5.2.4.2 Selection of participants

The rationale to conduct this study was based on my experiences as a former FP teacher in a school that was situated in a rural area. When the new National Curriculum was introduced in 2012, it was mandated that a FAL should be taught from Grade 1 to Grade 3. During those years, I experienced numerous challenges that were related to the teaching of my school's FAL of choice, which was English. At my school and other schools in the vicinity, English was regarded as the most desirable FAL as all the learners were non-native speakers of English. Their HL was isiZulu which was used at home and when interacting with friends and peers at school. My interest to conduct this study was therefore triggered by these experiences and the challenges that other teachers and I encountered in the FP.

Further to this, I sought to discover how FP teachers were teaching a FAL in their respective geographical zones. I thus wanted to understand whether these teachers used different teaching approaches and strategies and whether the provisions (human and teaching resources) were the same across these geographically different schools. Reflecting on the realities of the investigation, I decided to select a FP teacher who taught a FAL from each geographical location: one from a rural context, one form a semi-urban (township) context, and one from an urban context in order to gain an in-depth understanding of their real-world practices and experiences.

I used the following criteria for the selection of the participants:

i) They had to be FP specialists.

ii) They had to be teaching a FAL in the FP.

iii) Each had to be teaching in a different geographical contexts, namely urban, semi-urban (township) and rural.

iv) They had to have a FP or JP (Junior Primary) qualification.

5.2.5 Data generation methods

Data generation methods are the methods that qualitative and quantitative researchers use in order to elicit data from the research participants. Creswell (2013) asserts that data collection is a series of interrelated activities aimed at gathering good information to answer questions

that might emerge. Based on this philosophy, I used semi-structured interviews, structured observations, post- observation interviews, document analysis and transect walk as data generation tools.

5.2.5.1 Semi-structured interviews

Wahyuni (2012, p. 73) argues that the main feature of a semi-structured interview "is to facilitate the interviewees to share their perspectives, stories and experiences regarding a particular social phenomena being observed by the interviewer". My participants were therefore engaged in semi-structured interviews so that I could interpret their freely offered philosophies and perspectives regarding their attitudes, beliefs and interpretations about the teaching of a FAL in their respective contexts. Cohen et al. (2011) state that semi-structured interviews are ideal for a qualitative study as they allow the researcher and the participants to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live in in an open and natural conversation. Such interviews also allow for deeper probing. A set of questions that also allowed for probing was therefore formulated and contained in an interview schedule. The interviews lasted about 45 minutes each. I had three interview sessions with each participant which allowed me to probe deeper each time for rich and deep data. I encountered each participant separately in initial face-to-face engagements with further engagements through technology such as WhatsApp and Facebook.

5.2.5.2 Structured observations

The participants were also engaged in structured observations which assisted me in gathering data through observations in a naturalistic manner. These structured observations assisted me in observing aspects and occurrences in the classroom that I had pre-planned. Cohen et al. (2011) and Petty et al. (2012) affirm that there is a need for observing live settings through structured observations instead of relying on second-hand accounts. Subsequently, post observation interviews were conducted to clarify uncertainties and to confirm my interpretations of what I had observed as truthful and realistic. This process contributed to the reliability and trustworthiness of the data. The structured observation schedule contained the following aspects that would be observed:

- The introduction of the lesson;

- Lesson development and language usage;
- Guidance of and support to learners;
- Conclusion and assessment strategies;
- Classroom arrangement; and
- Creation of a print-rich and literacy-friendly classroom.

5.2.5.3 Post-observation interviews

After several engagements with the FP respondents and having observed the manner in which they had taught, I engaged each of these teachers in a post-observation interview in order to understand their reasoning behind the way they taught the FAL. Cohen et al. (2011) articulates that post- observation assists the researcher to ask follow-up questions on issues that were observed in their natural context.

5.2.5.4 Document analysis

Document analysis is the method of generating data that originate from documents such as textbooks, articles, notes, minutes of meetings, lesson plan and archives. It may also include items such as "photographs, drawings, pictures and television programmes" (Petty et al., 2012, p. 4). For the purpose of this study, I engaged in scrutinising FAL timetables and slots, work programmes, lesson plans, assessment records, year programmes, text books and other related artefacts. Cohen et al. (2011) state that in qualitative research, document analysis allows the researcher to elicit more textual data, and this assisted me in checking the cohesion between what the teachers were teaching in the FAL in comparison with what they were supposed to teach according to their curriculum mandate. Secondly, it assisted me in diagnosing the root cause of any challenges that the teachers were experiencing when they taught a FAL in their respective contexts.

5.2.5.5 Transect walk

Transect walk is the method of generating data which is described by Bertram and Christiansen (2014) as a powerful method usually used by social science researchers. The authors uphold that the method assists researchers in developing an understanding of the community through actively engaging with its inhabitants. In context, inhabitants in this study were FP teachers purposively sampled.

Transect walk as the data generation method was not regarded as one of the main methods of generating data as it was the case with other four methods used. This was prompted by the fact that the community did not form part of the research study. However, I did transect walk with teachers (participants) for the purpose of understanding the surrounding society and its perceptions in terms of the teaching of FAL.

Table 5.1 illustrates how the data generation methods were used in alignment with the research questions.

Table 5.1: Addressing the RQs with the use of relevant data generation tools

Source: Author

Research Questions	**Data Generation Tools**	**Purpose**
1. What are teachers' conceptualisation of teaching a First Additional Language in the geographical contexts in which they operate?	Semi-structured Interview Schedule	This research question afforded me detailed knowledge of how FP teachers conceptualised FAL teaching.
2. How do teachers teach the FAL in the FP in the school that is geographically different from others?	Semi-structured Interview Schedule Structured Observation Schedule Document Analysis	This research question generated an in-depth understanding of how FP teachers taught the FAL in different geographical contexts
3. Why do teachers use particular methodologies to teach a FAL in the Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others?	Observation Schedule Post Observation Interview Schedule Document Analysis Transect Walk	This question shed light on how the teachers' biographical data served as a directive for the manner in which they taught a FAL in their respective geographical contexts

5.2.6 Data analysis

Data analysis in qualitative study involves formulating a thick description of the phenomenon under study. According to Hart (2009), the analysis of data should be done systematically. In this process the key research questions play a vital role. To initiate the data analysis process, I listened to all the audio-taped voices of my participants. I also frequently read the interview transcripts, the observation reports and the document analysis reports in order to make sense of the data that I had generated. According to Creswell (2013), the researcher should become intimate with the data by reading them over several times in order to make sense of what is revealed at different stages. Finfgeld-Connett (2013) and Wahyuni (2012) also recommend the adoption of content and context analysis strategies when analysing the data. For this reason I also adopted a content analysis strategy in order to analyse the written, verbal and visual documentation that included my field notes and the audio recordings which had been condoned by the participants. I subsequently used a context analysis strategy in order to understand how the FP teachers who taught a FAL in geographically different schools interpreted the contexts they were working in. I ensured that I fully understood the data that were generated by organising, synthesising, and breaking the elements into manageable chunks and searching for patterns in order to discover what was important and what was to be learned, as is articulated by Maree (2007). Merriam (2009) suggests that it is important to present the research data in themes as it allows for elimination of distorted data. Therefore, based on my comprehensive engagement with the generated data, I noted five themes and sub-themes that emerged most predominantly from the data.

These themes are:

i) Observing the research sites
ii) Contextual realities: Input in terms of pedagogic practices
iii) Typifying the ingredients for efficacy in FAL teaching
iv) FAL teaching processes
v) Bridging the gap: FAL resources at school versus resources at home

I used a manual colour coding strategy to identify the codes that later gelled into themes. These colour codes assisted me in collating the data and hence understanding each participant's responses. I collated the data for each data generation tool separately at first, as Cohen et al.

(2011) suggests. The authors argue that working with different data generation tools when analysing data facilitates the trustworthiness of the data and hence the findings.

5.2.7 Quality (rigour) issues in qualitative research

It is imperative that the qualitative researcher considers the issues related to the rigour of the research being conducted. Petty et al. (2012) and Wahyuni (2012) assert that the evaluation of qualitative research requires epistemological assumptions that entail different criteria. The following epistemological assumptions were considered:

5.2.7.1 Credibility and trustworthiness

This study followed an empirical approach and therefore ensuring credibility and trustworthiness was of paramount importance. According to Cohen et al. (2011), trustworthiness in qualitative data might be addressed through honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data that are obtained, the honesty of the participants who are engaged, the extent of triangulation, and the disinterestedness or objectivity of the researcher. In agreeing with these notions of trustworthiness in qualitative research, Petty et al. (2012, p. 4) clarifies that "trustworthiness refers to the confidence or trust one can have of [sic] a study and its findings".

Cohen et al. (2011, p. 179) also state that "credibility is an important key to effective research. If a piece of research is invalid, then it is worthless". Credibility refers to "the degree to which the findings can be trusted or believed by the participants in the study" (Petty et al., 2012, p. 5). In affirmation of this notion, Wahyuni (2012) articulates that the data are reported through the eyes of the participants. Thus, for every research study to be effective, the consideration of credibility and trustworthiness is significant.

It is for this reason that I engaged in multiple methods of data generation, namely semi-structured interviews, structured observations, post-observation interviews, and document analyses. I also considered Maree's (2007) philosophy that if the data are to be trustworthy, engagement with different data generation tools is essential. I thus opted for multiple data generation tools. Maree (2007), Cohen et al. (2011), Merriam (2009) and Rule and John (2011) refer to the engagement with multiple data collection tools as 'triangulation'.

Verification of the data also contributed to the trustworthiness of the findings. After the data had been audio-taped and transcribed, I ensured that I visited the participants in order to let them read the transcripts and listen to their audio-taped voices. This was an essential step in avoiding add-ins and misinterpretations of the data. Cohen et al. (2011) and Merriam (2009) refer to such re-visits as 'member checks'.

5.2.7.2 Transferability

Wahyuni (2012, p. 77) asserts that transferability refers "to the level of applicability of the data to other settings or situations". I managed to comply with the requirement for transferability by ensuring that I present a thick description of the research sites (see Chapter six, section 6.2). Further to that, I managed to present a thick practical and theoretical description of the phenomena under study. For example, I navigate the reader to the biography of the participants that were purposively sampled and I provided a thick description of both phenomena. Although there are some limitations in transferring the findings from the sampled contexts to a wider spectrum, I foresee that careful adjustments to the setting will allow for the transfer of the findings to similar contexts.

5.2.7.3 Dependability

Petty et al. (2012) describe dependability as the extent to which the study could be repeated and variations understood. Social research studies deal with humans and how they interpret the world, therefore the results are prone to changes based on the changes that occur within the settings. Wahyuni (2012, p. 77) advises that "dependability can be achieved by a detailed explanation of the research design and process to enable future researchers to follow a similar research framework". In adherence to this requirement, I took care to explain the research design and processes explicitly (see Figure 5.1 above).

5.2.7.4 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to "the extent to which others can confirm the findings in order to ensure that the results reflect the understandings and experiences of the observed participants rather than the researcher's own preferences" (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 77). I thus used triangulation of the

data in order to ensure that confirmability was achieved. In this context, the use of semi-structured interviews allowed for a comparison of the participants' perspectives, stories and experiences. The use of structured observations and post- observation interviews further allowed the participants and myself extended engagement opportunities to elicit data that reflected their understandings and experiences of the contexts they were teaching in. Document analysis as another data generation tool allowed me the opportunity to compare documentary evidence with the respondents' views and claims and to understand the effective use (or not) by the FP teachers who taught a FAL in this phase.

5.3 Addressing the Element of Bias

Creswell (2013), Cohen et al. (2011) and Petty et al. (2012) state that social science researchers are in danger of becoming biased when they adopt any trend or deviation from the truth in their methods of sampling, data generation, data analysis, interpretation and publication which can result in false conclusions.

In this study, I ensured that there were no deviations or whatsoever through ensuring that I purposively sampled the participants that were FP teachers who taught a FAL in their respective schools that were located in different geographical contexts (see section 5.2.4.).

Secondly, I ensured that I triangulated the data and that the data generation tools I used complemented the research questions. Multiple data generation tools were used which included semi-structured interviews, structured observations, post-observation interviews and document analysis (Table 5.1 above).

Thirdly, I ensured that I avoid deviation from the reality through presenting an extensive explanation of how the generated data were to be analysed and presented (see section 5.7). Finally, I ensured that the interpretations of the data and the presentation of my research study are coherent and that they comply with expectations for work of this nature in order to avoid false conclusions that are beyond reality (see Chapter eight and Chapter nine).

5.4 Limitations in the Research Design

In conducting this study form a social science perspective, numerous limitations and challenges were more likely to be experienced because an interpretivist as well as an epistemological standing was adopted (Bryman, 2015). Because my study was embedded in an interpretivist paradigm, the participants were invited to describe their own interpretations of the contexts within which they functioned as FAL teachers. Therefore, the main limitations that arose were related to its nature as a qualitative and interpretive case study. The following limitations were discerned:

- My study was a multi-case study that involved three schools from different geographical contexts in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The findings from each case were compared in totality and the data that were produced had to be saturated in order to make meaningful conclusions. The possibility of comparing findings that had been raised before was evident.
- Case studies do not lead to statistical generalisations because of small samples that can lead to misleading results (Bailey, 2007). In my study only three teachers from three geographically different schools in the province of KwaZulu-Natal were sampled. Therefore, the findings may not be generalised to occurrences across the province and to other provinces within the country.
- The conclusions that were drawn by the participants were participant-dependent because they were based on how these specific teachers interpreted the situations they found themselves in.
- The use of multiple data generation tools (semi-structured interviews, observation, post-observation interviews and document analysis) did not assure the elicitation of techniques that are most appropriate for all studies of this nature. More and different data generation tools and a wider scope of the study could have been used to elicit data that may be generalised.

5.5 Ethical Considerations

To adhere to the ethical considerations that steer a study of this nature, I initially applied for ethical clearance from the University of KwaZulu-Natal Ethical Clearance Committee to conduct the study under the College of Humanities (Appendix C). I then requested permission

from the Department of Basic Education offices in Pietermaritzburg to conduct a research study in three of its schools within the Kwazulu-Natal province (Appendix F). I also submitted consent letters to the principals of the sampled schools to conduct my research study in their schools (Appendix E). Lastly, I also wrote consent letters to the sampled participants requesting them to participate in my research study (Appendix D). The contents of these consent letters included the assurance that their names and schools would not be divulged under any circumstances; instead, pseudonyms would to be used to protect their identities (Creswell, 2013). I also assured the participants that they were allowed to withdraw from the study should the need arise without denting their identity or autonomy.

5.6 Conclusion

I regard this chapter as one of the most important chapters of my study because it elucidates the route that I took when I conducted this study. I therefore addressed the crucial aspects that are related to social research. I had to be sensitive to the research methodology that I chose because if it had been ineffective it would have impacted negatively on the success of this study. I also presented the sampling methods that I had used when selecting the research sites and the study participants. I illuminated the importance of trustworthy and valid data that would be generated by the use of multiple data generation tools. Because this social science research project involved humans, I had to ensure that I complied with the University's, schools' and the DoBE's ethical considerations. I concluded the chapter by addressing the limitations that evolved when I conducted the study.

The following chapter will present the first level of data presentation and analysis. The data that are presented in Chapter six were generated by means of structured observations and post-observation data generation methods. These data generation methods were used to understand how the contexts of the schools differed from one another and how the sampled participants' experiences were different in these contexts. To achieve this aim, a context data analysis strategy was used to analyse the data.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS (PART 1):

SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the research design and methodology that I used when developing this research study. Chapter five explicitly presented the research paradigm, the research approach and how the participants were selected for the purpose of generating empirical data. The methodology, multiple methods of data generation, generation processes as well as data analysis processes appropriate to my study were identified. By adhering to these processes, the alignment of these aspects with the study's title, purpose and research questions was ensured.

This study report comprises two data presentation and analysis chapters that elucidate context analysis and content analysis. Wahyuni (2012) defines context analysis as the research technique that is used to analyse the targeted natural settings within any environment. Whereas, content analysis is one of the most important research techniques that systematically analyse written, verbal and/or visual documentation (Finfgeld-Connett, 2013). This chapter marks the commencement of data analysis and presentation produced during the data generation period that lasted for six months in which context analysis strategy was used. Chapter 7 will present the data that were analysed according to the content analysis strategy.

Using the context data analysis strategy assisted me in understanding the situation in each school within each geographical context. I concur with Wahyuni (2012) that the context is unique and therefore different from others, although they might be similar features that become noticeable under scrutiny. The latter author further alludes to the fact that a particular context is best understood and interpreted by its inhabitants. In using the context data analysis strategy, I intended to understand and compare how FP teachers who taught a FAL in differently located schools understood and interpreted the contexts that they found themselves in.

My decision was driven by the fact that I had to envisage the effect of each context on how the targeted FAL was taught. My decision to align the data with Chisholm's (2004) notion of situational analysis was therefore significant as I appropriated the situations and evaluated their impact on people's behaviour.

As a point of departure, I considered Merriam's (2009) argument that "the practical goal of data analysis is to find answers to your research questions" (p.203). The author underscores his utterances by advising that it is important to take into consideration the study's purpose statement and the research questions in the data analysis process. As a reminder, the purpose of my study was to determine whether school categorisation in terms of geography (urban/semi-urban/rural) influenced what and how teachers taught a FAL. The research questions that gave impetus to the study are the following:

i) What are teachers' conceptualisation of teaching a First Additional Language in the geographical contexts in which they operate?
ii) How do teachers teach the FAL in the FP in the school that is geographically different from others?
iii) Why do teachers use particular methodologies to teach a First Additional Language in the Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others?

All three schools that were sampled across the three geographical contexts operated in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. The three FP teachers from each of the geographical context raised their frustrations related to the teaching of the targeted FAL in their schools. It was patently obvious that these frustrations were relevant to the context in which the FAL had to be taught. During my engagements with the participants, I noted that the teachers from the township and rural contexts were most adversely affected by high levels of frustrations and unwelcoming environments compared to their counterpart who was teaching in an urban context.

In profiling the research sites, I have to commence by giving a detailed background of each research site. The communities that these schools are situated in and the community's involvement in the schools' functioning and governance. The realisation that education is at the core of social advancement with all its inherent complications has long been established (Nkomo, Weber & Amsterdam, 2009). As a result, this notion has engraved the belief that the

environment in which a school is located has a huge impact on the quality of education that is offered at the schools. The literature has shown that geographical constraints have globally pulled learners into different kinds of education offerings with different variables. These variables include matriculation rate, learner-teacher ratios and quintile rankings (Nkomo et al. 2009; Pienaar & Mc Kay, 2014; Spaull, 2015).

I also give descriptive information regarding purposively sampled teacher biographical data who taught a FAL in three geographical context. Each participant taught in a school that was respectively located in a rural, semi-urban or urban context.
Pseudonyms are used in this report to refer to the teachers in order to conceal their true identity and ensure their confidentiality. .

It was through constant engagements with the participants and through observations and post observation interviews that I realised that their biographies had a great impact on how they taught the targeted FAL in their classrooms. I was also convinced that the contexts under which they taught had a profound influence on their methodology of teaching the FAL in their respective classrooms. This realisation caused me to concur with Spaull (2013) that education in South Africa is differentiated in such a way that some schools are operating under conditions that are detrimental to teaching and learning whereas others are located in areas that are highly sophisticated.

The participants' biographical data served to provide a clear biographical picture of the sampled participants. By revealing each participant's professional and contextual position, I was assisted in understanding their philosophical cognition in detail. One of the teachers purposively sampled was a Head of Department (HOD) at the FP and the two others were post 1 level teachers. I realise the necessity to mention that I did not have any preconceived reasons for selecting the HOD as one of the participants. (The selection of participants and the limitations experienced had been explained in Chapter 1). Getting hold of the HOD as one of the participants was anticipated as adding trustworthiness to the data to be generated. It is without doubt that for the teacher to be promoted as the HOD entails profound experience and knowledge of the particular department. Therefore, such experience and knowledge were anticipated to be instrumental in the development of this study.

Table 6.1 provides a thumbnail sketch of the participants' biographical data

Table 6.1: Biographical data of the participants

Source: Author

TEACHER'S NAME	TEACHER'S HOME LANGUAGE	FAL TAUGHT	GRADE TAUGHT	NO. OF LEARNERS IN CLASS	SCHOOL CONTEXT	POST LEVEL	TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN FP	TEACHING QUALIFICATIONS
Xoliswa	IsiZulu	English	Gr. 3	32	Rural	PL 1	10 years	JPTD, HED (JPS), B.ED (Hnrs)
Yolanda	IsiXhosa	IsiZulu	Gr. 3	25	Urban	PL 2	$2^{1/2}$ years	B. Education (ECD/FP)
Zanele	IsiZulu	English	Gr. 2	48	Semi-urban	PL 1	13 years	NPDE, ACE (SLDM)

I will also present the status quo of FP learning spaces across geographical contexts. Finally, present the learners' biographical data as the essential factors that denote how teaching and learning of FALs had to take place in each classroom.

6.2 Conception of the Study's Contexts

This research study was conducted in three geographically different primary schools in FP classes where a FAL was taught. It is important to reiterate that for the sake of anonymity, each school is given a pseudonym. Table 6.2 presents a thumbnail sketch of the biography of each research site.

Table 6.2 Biography of research sites

Source: Author

NAME OF SCHOOL	DISTRICT	GEOGRAP-HICAL CONTEXT	QUINTILE RANKING	LEARNERS' HOME LANGUAGE	FAL TAUGHT IN FP
Ndoniyamanzi Primary School	Ilembe District	Rural area	2	Isizulu	English
Ziphelele Primary School	Pinetown District	Semi-urban area	3	Isizulu	English
Just Wannabe Primary School	Umbumbulu District	Urban area	5	Afrikaans IsiXhosa English Portuguese SeSotho	Isizulu

6.2.1 The geographical location: Rural Area

6.2.1.1 The background of the research site

For the purpose of this study, this first research site is called Ndoniyamanzi Primary School. It was a fully functional quintile 2 public school situated in a rural geographical context. It is located in Ndwedwe Circuit in the Ilembe District. A huge percentage of schools under this circuit are situated in rural contexts and there is evidence that they are experiencing some marginalisation. Although the school was categorised under Section 20 financial norms and standards provisioning, it was evident that vital teaching and learning resources were lacking. Schools under Section 20 need to procure their teaching and learning resources from the Department of Basic Education, as was determined as far back as 1996 (DoE, 1996). The participating teachers, irrespective of their geographical context, jointly lamented that the Department of Basic Education (DBE) did not deliver most of the resources they would order and when it did, it occurred usually very late in the academic year. Balfour et al. (2008, p.98)

articulate that schools that "schools that procure LTSM from the DoBE often experience a shortage of resources because of unviable roads to travel on for resource delivery". I noticed that the unviable road in this particular community was contributing towards the ordeal as it was patently obvious that it is uneasy to travel when it rained. This then caused the DoBE vehicles to get stuck on the muddy roads and not reach their destinations. Secondly, teachers raised the fact that they receive limited financial support from the parents as the school is categorised as a "no-fee school" and no fundraising initiatives organised by the school seem to succeed as most parents are unemployed and rely heavily on the state's social grants. They concluded by articulating that they are aware that such limitations are harmfully contributing towards the teaching and learning processes. In affirmation of these articulations, Singh (2009) states that in disadvantaged and poor schools where there is a lack of additional financial support, it is generally impossible for teachers to make the classrooms conducive to learning.

This site was a fully-fledged with three phases, namely the; Foundation Phase (FP), Intermediate Phase (IP) and Senior Phase (SP). The school offered Grade R to Grade 7 classes and 140 learners were enrolled at the time of the study. There was a single section for each grade as the learner enrolment was very low because of the sparsely populated community within the vicinity. The learners and teachers in the school shared the same HL which was isiZulu which was also the LoLT in the FP. Grade R learners were taught strictly taught in their HL only across all FP subjects (Languages, Life Skills and Mathematics) and no FAL was introduced in this grade. From Grade 1 to Grade 3, learners used their HL as the LoLT alongside English First Additional Language (EFAL) which was introduced as a subject and not the LoLT. Therefore, learners in Grades 1 to 3 are taught 4 subjects; that is, Languages (isiZulu HL and English FAL), Life Skills and Mathematics. However, learners transition to English as LoLT from Grade 4. English as LoLT is used from Grades 4 to 7 when Mathematics, Natural Sciences, Technology, Social Sciences, Economic Management Sciences area taught. In addition to these subjects, Languages (EFAL and isiZulu HL) are also taught as subjects.

The school claimed to have adopted an additive bilingual approach as stipulated in LiEP (1997) and CAPS (2011). This means that EFAL should have been gradually introduced in Grade 1 with an emphasis on oral communication progressing to Grades 2 and Grade 3.

6.2.1.2 The status quo of and the impact of community within the sampled school

This research site was located in an environment that was categorised as a rural geographical zone. During the period of my visits to the research site, I applied transect walk data generation method in order to understand the surrounding society and its perceptions in term of the teaching of FAL.

This was prompted by the philosophy that parental involvement in any form of education is paramount. However, I was grateful to learn from the participating teacher that parents were enthusiastic to see their children able to learn and speak English because they realised that it was a significant language in the labour markets and further studies. However, the teacher also informed me that parents were shying away from involving themselves in their children's education. Parents in this community were said to believe that their children's learning was the state's duty.

I walked around the school together with the participant and checked the homesteads that surrounded it. The houses were sparsely located between them. Dusty roads leading to the cluster of houses and one shop which was a general dealer were quiet and gloomy. Without conducting a formal survey, it was obvious that the level of unemployment in the area was extremely high as numerous adults were noticed roaming the dusty streets. Only a few observed ploughing fields and herding livestock. Their level of education seemed to be low as they were not exposed to any forms of educational recreations such as library, sports fields or computer hubs, as none were observed. The learners were also not exposed to different forms of environmental print that would facilitate language immersion such as billboards, newspapers, posters and/or electronic graphics written in English. I was informed by the participating teacher that most of the learners in this school were taken care of by their grandparents as their biological parents had moved to the city in search of employment while other had passed on because of pandemic illnesses. My observation of parents and their children revealed that some learners' parents were teenagers who were still of school-going age.

My observation and perceptions were confirmed by Teacher Xoliswa (pseudonym) who stated that most of the school's learners' parents were unemployed and illiterate. She expressed her frustration with this state of affairs by saying that it posed a tremendous impact on the children's education as parents and/or guardians often failed to assist their children with EFAL activities and/or the homework given to them. She informed me that many learners did not even progress as far as the senior phase of schooling. Falch et al. (2013) affirm this state of affairs by stating that in terms of parental education and income, learners from disadvantaged backgrounds are more likely to drop-out of school at an early age than their affluent

counterparts. My observation and the information I received categorised this research site as a deprived context in my mind.

6.2.1.3 The biographical data of Teacher Xoliswa

Teacher Xoliswa was a Grade 3 teacher in a school situated in a rural context. Teacher Xoliswa and her learners' HL was isiZulu. Teacher Xoliswa had never taught in any context other than a rural one. There was only one Grade 3 class in this school, with 32 learners. She had taught for 10 years in the FP. However, she had 22 years of teaching experience. Teacher Xoliswa started teaching a Grade 1 class in 2005 to 2014. It was the first year of teaching Grade 3 in 2015. In Teacher Xoliswa's school, the parents and the SMT chose English as a FAL because learners used isiZulu as their HL. English is introduced in Grade 1 as a subject and not as a LoLT. This means that learners are taught in English only when it is a FAL period, and they learn all other subjects in their HL. Teacher Xoliswa attended workshops organised by the DoBE to gain more knowledge on how to teach a FAL in the FP using different strategies.

6.2.1.4 Teaching qualifications and post level

Teacher Xoliswa had an Honours Degree which she had obtained in 2013 from South African university. Her initial teaching qualification is a Junior Primary Diploma which she obtained in 1993 from one of the then colleges of Education in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). She specialised in Junior Primary Studies that gave her a teaching licence to teach in the FP which was formerly termed Junior Primary (JP) level. When Teacher Xoliswa was employed, she could not get a post in JP and was compelled to teach in the Senior Primary (SP) level. At the time of study, she was a post level 1 teacher in spite of her long experience as a teacher. The reason that her career stagnated in terms of promotion was because her school had a very low number of learners which qualified it to have one HOD and a principal as the members of the SMT.

6.2.1.5 The status quo of the learning space and learner biographies

Teacher Xoliswa's classroom had ample space but was shabby in appearance. It did not look inviting and some of the windows were broken. The paint on the walls had tarnished which made the room look unattractive. There were traces of dust brought by the wind that often blew inside the classroom during rainy and windy days. However, the classroom was appropriately arranged using the minimal available furniture which included teacher's desk and chair, a

broken and unlockable cupboard, and some learners' desks. The classroom's space allowed the teacher and the learners to move freely. There were rows of desks neatly arranged and a chalkboard on the front wall. Different charts of poor quality and durability were pasted on the walls and there was a time table for English First Additional Language teaching on a wall. There were very scanty charts, some which had been developed by teacher Xoliswa herself. There were some other charts that had been supplied by the DoBE. The charts supplied by DoBE appeared in better condition than those developed by Teacher Xoliswa. Teacher Xoliswa raised the concern that she did not have enough resources to facilitate the development of the FAL as the school did not supply them with charts and Koki pens. She had to buy resources using her own money. The charts hung on the walls showed different concepts namely opposite words, days of the week, months of the year, the alphabets, and a birthday chart. Very few English books were found in the makeshift library corner.

The learners in Teacher Xoliswa's class came from poor socio-economic backgrounds. Because most parents were reportedly illiterate, the learners were often unable to grasp FAL literacy concepts as rapidly as they should. They came from homes and a community where isiZulu was the only spoken language. This lack of exposure to English and environmental print prohibited the learners' exposure to additional sites of learning the FAL.

6.2.2 The geographical location: Semi-urban Area

6.2.2.1 The background of the research site

The second research site is referred to as Ziphelele Primary School. It was a fully functional quintile 3 public school situated in a semi-urban/township geographical context. It fell under the Pinetown District as it was situated in the Mafukuzela-Gandhi Circuit. The school was situated in a context that was predominantly occupied by Africans. Motseke (2010) states that these residential areas are said to be underprivileged when compared to other parts of the country. The school was situated in an area where a combination of informal settlements and a township dominated. The school was under Section 21 financial norms and standards provisioning. The Section 21 schools receive funding for teaching and learning resources from the DoBE which is deposited straight into the school's bank accounts. The availability of teaching and learning resources was evident though not sufficient. The teacher from this sampled school expressed gratitude to the School Management Team's (SMT) and School

Governing Body's (SGB) dedication in ensuring that purchases for all required teaching and learning resources took place and were delivered timeously.

The research site was a fully-fledged primary school with three phases, namely the Foundation Phase, Intermediate Phase and Senior Phase. Schooling started from Grade R to Grade 7 and learner enrolment was bursting with 1986 learners at the time of the study. There was no other school in the vicinity and as a result the classrooms were overcrowded and there was a dire shortage of teachers. Pienaar and McKay (2014) affirm that the status of township schools is characterised by too few and under-qualified teachers, poor physical resources (such as libraries), and poor school management systems.

Learners and teachers were native isiZulu speakers although there was a handful of other learners who were not native speakers of isiZulu as their parents had settled in the area to ensure proximity to work environments in Durban and surrounding areas.

In this school, learners' HL (isiZulu) is used as the LoLT from Grade R to Grade 3 and an FAL (English) was moderately introduced alongside isiZulu as a subject from Grade R. The teacher claimed that learners' adaptation to their FAL became faster when it was introduced in Grade R than in Grade 1. In Grade 4, there was transition to English as the LoLT and isiZulu as a MT subject. English was retained as a FAL subject despite its status as the LoLT.

6.2.2.2 The status quo of and the impact of community within the sampled school

This research site was located in a semi-urban or township context, as it is affectionately known in South Africa. Due to that educational opportunities that have long been recognised to be class related as stipulated by Butler and Hamnett (2007), learners from township contexts are assumed to suffer the harshest blow. Learners in this research site reside predominantly in Reconstruction and Development Plan (RDP) houses and others lived in poorly constructed shacks. It is imperative to note that in South Africa poverty-stricken people usually live in these areas. Their living conditions are associated with crime and violence and are equated to 'war zones', because the safety of residents is constantly compromised (Mampane & Bouwer, 2011).

I realised that the learners' safety was compromised from the manner in which the school was vandalised. I observed that the school had once been fenced for learners' protection, but it was stripped bare by looters. Access to school by outsiders was dangerously compromised as they entered the school premises as they desired. The attendance register and the participating teacher revealed that most of the learners were often absent from school as unprecedented community strikes for municipal services often took their toll. Such actions result in learners missing their classes. It was obvious that the community did not display any concern about their children missing classes and they also refrained from attending teacher-parent meetings. Teacher Zanele (pseudonym) stated that parents who attended teacher-parent meeting were often those who were SGB members. It was revealed that excuses for non-attendance were usually based on the fact that parents were working during the week. However, in addressing this state of affair, the principal organised meetings on weekends but the same fate was experienced. The other revelation from the interview conducted was that learners sometimes absented themselves from school when their parents had to collect social grants because they had to accompany them to the collection points.

6.2.2.3 The biographical data of Teacher Zanele

Teacher Zanele was a Grade 2 teacher in a school situated in a semi-urban (township) context. Her Home Language was isiZulu. She stated that she had started teaching in 2002 in a deep rural context. It was through her constant application for transfer that she eventually got a post in a township. Teacher Zanele taught Grade 2, but she had taught different FP grades for the past thirteen years. In this school there were four Grade 2 sections. There were 48 learners in Teacher Zanele's class, which was overcrowded. Other sections were also observed to be highly overcrowded.

In Teacher Zanele's school learners were introduced to English FAL in Grade 1. English FAL was introduced as a subject and not as the LoLT. This means that all subjects namely Language, Life Skills and Mathematic were taught in the learners' HL, which was isiZulu. Teacher Zanele stated that the DoBE and their Cluster's working committee organised some workshops and training sessions that capacitated them on how to teach FAL in the FP.

6.2.2.4 Teaching qualifications and post level

Teacher Zanele held a National Professional Teacher's Diploma (NPDE) which she had obtained from one of the prestigious universities in KZN. She started teaching in the FP as a privately paid teacher because she was unqualified. When there was a call from the Department

of Basic Education that all unqualified teachers with more than five years' teaching experience had to register for the course, she grabbed the opportunity. She had also obtained the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) specialising in Foundation Phase teaching. She was currently doing her first year part time Honours degree at one of the universities in KZN. Teacher Zanele was a post level 1 teacher.

6.2.2.5 The status quo of learning space and learner biographies

Teacher Zanele's classroom was well arranged in spite of being overcrowded. Some learners were sitting in threes at a desk meant for two learners. There was minimum space available for moving around in between the desks when the learners were working in groups. In the front there was teacher's desk and chair. It was noticed that the teacher had difficulty in moving around as the desks were so close to one another. Some of the windows were broken and the door was unlockable, which allowed for access by outsiders. Different kinds of FAL teaching and learning resources were available however, many were very old and had faded. The DoBE supplied the school with resources to facilitate FAL teaching. However, due to high levels of vandalism, most of these resources had been vandalised or had been stolen. A reading corner had been created, although it was not conducive for reading. There was children's literature and some books were written in English (although not many). I also noticed that there was a timetable with FAL periods on the wall.

Learners in Teacher Zanele's class came from diverse backgrounds, and some came from unsafe homes and a poor socio-economic background because of the high rate of unemployment. Despite such drawbacks, some learners had additional exposure to English through television sets at home where they watched cartoons and other television programmes presented in English. They were also exposed to different visual stimuli in English in the environment such as billboards and posters. Although English could be regarded as a foreign language to the learners, their situation appeared much better compared to that of learners in the rural contexts.

6.2.3. The geographical location: Urban Area

6.2.3.1 The background of the research site

The third and last research site is referred to as Just Wannabe Primary School. It was a fully functional quintile 5 public school situated in an urban geographical context. This was a school

that had been formally categorised as a Model C school as was previously explained in an earlier section. The school fell under the Umlazi District in the Umbumbulu Circuit.

This research site was adequately resourced. All forms of teaching and learning resources that facilitated exceptionally high levels of education were available. Apart from being a Section 21 school (as the Act stipulates), the school received high cash injections from parents in the form of high school fees, fundraising initiatives and other forms of donations. Lombard (2007) asserts that it is a sad reality that it not all parents who can afford to send their children to these schools because of the high school fees that are levied. It is a fallacy to suggest that these high school fees are levied "to keep Black learners out" as suggested by Lombard (2007), as was testified by the race distribution of learners at this school. In fact, parents of all race groups at this school dug deep into their pockets to ensure the appointment of sufficient and suitably qualified teachers by the School Governing Body (SGB).

The research site was a fully-fledged primary school with three phases, namely the Foundation Phase, Intermediate Phase and Senior Phase. It offered Pre-grade R to Grade 7 and had 650 learners at the time of the study. It was situated in a multi-lingual and multi-racial area that was predominantly populated by White Afrikaans speaking people. The learners in this school had different Home Languages that included isiZulu, isiXhosa, Sesotho, English, Afrikaans, Portuguese and French.

The school conducted a survey in 2013 in which they asked the parents to select the FAL they wanted their children to learn, as it was practically impossible to offer more than one FAL at the school. The survey limited to 10 South African official languages excluding English which was already used as its LoLT from Pre-Grade R to grade 7. The number of parents who wanted their children to be taught isiZulu as an FAL outnumbered all the other languages. The school held a parents' meeting and the majority welcomed isiZulu as their children's' FAL regardless of the fact that it was also HL to some learners. The school had initially offered Afrikaans as the FAL, thus a pilot project to introduce isiZulu as the FAL had to be phased in from Grade 1 in 2013. This means that in 2014, two grades and in 2015 three grades were taught in isiZulu as the FAL. In this manner, all learners in the FP were taught isiZulu as their FAL while other subsequent grades still taught in Afrikaans as a FAL. The school engaged in a strategy to gradually transform the language profile of each grade.

6.2.3.2 The status quo of and the impact of community within the sampled school

The school that was located in the urban context, being a former Model C school with learners of all races coming from elite families, clearly seemed to be at an advantage in the geographical context under study. These advantages seemed to have been inherited by a new breed of affluent, multi-racial South Africans from the sociocultural, socio-economic, political and financial gains prior to democracy 1994. Many of these resembled the school's neighbourhood and its inhabitants that appeared well-off and content.

As a result of my observations, I regarded this research site as a privileged context compared to its counterparts in the rural and semi-urban contexts, with the rural context being the worst on the equation. Given that this research site proved to have a highly maintained culture of learning and teaching, parents were to be applauded for being instrumental in caring for their children's academic and social development. They appeared to be highly concerned about the functioning of the school by taking precautionary measures to ensure the school's well-being. During time spent in the school, Teacher Yolanda (pseudonym) stated that precautionary measures such as implementing the neighbourhood watch initiative, the 24/7 surveillance cameras to ensure the community's safety against burglary and vandalism was ensured by the community and SGB. I concur with Collins and Coleman (2008) that the reality that the school reflects the broad characteristics of the neighbourhood can never be ignored.

My observation and communication with the participant revealed numerous facts about the school's wellbeing and parental involvement. I realised that most of the resources that were utilised by the school had been procured not as an effort by the DoBE to advantage such schools, but that they were procured as a result of the unstinting efforts and by the parents and the community and that high school fees, donations and hard work had replaced Departmental funding. It was evident that these sacrifices assisted tremendously in the teaching of isiZulu as the FAL of choice in the FP. Although schools in rural and semi-urban areas receive the same (and even higher) allocations for LTSM as schools such as these, it was evident that the DoBE was able to focus on schools of this calibre by providing them with many of the teaching and learning resources that are required. Although the reasons for this were not within the scope of this study, it can only be surmised that rural and semi-urban schools may be hampered in the procurement of LTSM due to ineffective administrative strategies, poor

infrastructure, and the inability of school leadership teams to adhere to procurement requirements (DoBE, 2014).

In response to such unequal educational provisions for whatever reasons, Spaull (2015) laments that the dualistic South African education system perpetuates divisions among its citizenry and sadly, that the race remains the distinguishing factor between the haves and the have-nots. In my view, Spaull's argument is one-sided and based on incomplete research. If he had investigated the school population distribution at former Model C schools where English is the LoLT, he would have observed - as I had- that these schools generally reflect the racial integration of our country's dream for a democratic society. However, what is real and debilitating is that this desirable form of integration occurs only in the top echelons of our society where the above average financial resources of parents (Black, Indian, Coloured, White or others) determine the enrolment of learners, regardless of their race. Therefore, the eradication of poverty, and not racial divides, seems the predominant challenge that is faced by society and government.

6.2.3.3 The biographical data of Teacher Yolanda

Teacher Yolanda was a Grade 3 teacher in a school situated in an urban context. Her Home Language was isiXhosa. She had never taught in context other than an urban one. There were five Grade 3 sections in this school 25 learners in each class. Teacher Yolanda's class had 25 learners of different race groups that includes Black, White, Coloured, Indian and a few learners of foreign origins. She had been teaching for the past 3 years, started in 2013. She had taught Grade 1 learners and proceeded with her learners to Grade 2 and Grade 3 in 2015 (the time of the study). Learners in Teacher Yolanda's school came from diverse linguistic backgrounds which included isiZulu, English, Afrikaans, isiXhosa, Sesotho and French. However, isiZulu received preference as the FAL to be taught in the FP. IsiZulu was introduced from Grade 1 as a subject and not as the LoLT. Thus, all the other subjects, namely Life Skills, Language and Mathematics were taught in English. Teacher Yolanda had recently been promoted as a FP HOD which then qualified her to be a member of SMT. Teacher Yolanda was relatively a novice teacher however, through constant engagement in numerous workshops that were organised by the DoBE, Ward and the school she had developed tremendously in as far as teaching the FAL was concerned.

6.2.3.4 Teaching qualifications and post level

Teacher Yolanda held a Bachelor of Education degree which she had obtained from one of the prestigious universities in KZN in 2012. She did her initial teacher education degree specialising in Early Childhood Education and the Foundation Phase. She had engaged in advancing her profession by enrolling for an Honours Degree at the university where she had obtained her undergraduate degree.

6.2.3.5 The status quo of learning space and learner biographies

Teacher Yolanda's classroom had ample space, as she taught only 25 learners in her classroom. The learners were seated comfortably on their individual chairs and at their tables as the classroom was not overcrowded and the learners could move freely when required. Teacher Yolanda's classroom was clean as there was general staff that cleaned the school and the classrooms. In her classroom there was a smart board with a traditional chalkboard beside it. In the front there was a teacher's desk on which sat a laptop that was connected to a smart board. The walls had been freshly painted in bright colour. The windows and the doors were always closed to allow for the effective functioning of the air conditioner. There were different charts on the walls displaying different concepts. There was also a big cupboard where other resources were stored. At the back of the classroom there was a tap and basin where learners washed their hands after completion of tasks such as creative art. Different kinds of resources were available, including electronic resources, for example a radio, a television and a video player. Each learner had an allocated pigeon hole where they keep their materials such as exercise books, workbooks, pencils and crayons and other learning resources. The reading corner was comfortably furnished with bean bags and a carpet for learners' relaxing reading sessions.

Compared to their counterparts in the rural and township schools, the learners in Teacher Yolanda's class experienced the other side of the coin. In spite of learning isiZulu as a FAL, they had strong support structures at home as their parents and siblings reportedly supportive of their learning in a language other than their HL. Parents were fully involved in their children's learning by assisting them with homework and other LoLT and FAL activities. The learners in Teacher Yolanda's class were far better off compared to learners in Teacher Xoliswa's and Teacher Zanele's classes. In a nutshell, they had a strong second site of learning.

6.3 Emerging Theme and Sub-themes

This section illuminates the main theme and its sub-themes that emerged from the context analysis strategy that had been employed. Themes or categories as referred to by Murray and Berglar (2011), Merriam (2009) and Cohen et al. (2011) are meaningful segments of data that have been meaningfully arranged to find the recurring regularities in them. The first main theme is presented here for the sake of the development of my discourse.

6.3.1 Observing the sites of learning

6.3.1.1 Broken crayons do colour

This sub-theme emerged from the analysis of the data that had been generated during my engagement with the participants. I must admit that it was not easy to define an overarching theme that best suited my reflection on the participants' utterances. However, by carefully treading through the maze of data to understand their responses, I managed to develop a theme that was sensitive to their perceptions and interpretations.

I term this theme 'broken crayons do colour' which is a strong metaphor that depicts the reality of teaching a FAL in FP classrooms. This metaphor derived from the concept that crayons are mostly used for creating an image by colouring in and making it look beautiful and attractive. However, many crayons are broken in the process; but regardless of their imperfect condition, they still have the capacity to perform duty they were initially meant to perform. Moreover, each colour is unique yet is an essential part of making the image come to life.

This metaphor relates to FAL teachers who, in different geographical contexts have different experiences. These teachers have to teach a FAL irrespective of the challenging encounters they often face along the way. They often experience challenges related to learners' socio-economic backgrounds, language diversity, multi-lingualism, lack or insufficient teaching resources, and teaching foreign language that doesn't relate to learners' social lives (Hugo, 2016). However, teaching a FAL in the FP is a national mandate that may not be ignored or sidelined. From this broad theme, I then formulated three sub-themes that aim to address each encounter of teachers' FAL journey in the FP in detail.

6.3.1.2 An (un-) welcoming infrastructure

During my engagements with the participants, I was greatly concerned to gain an understanding of how the availability of, or lack of the school infrastructure facilitated or debilitated the teaching of the FAL in the FP. By infrastructure I mean the structure and state of the buildings, safety within the school, the conduciveness of classrooms towards learning and teaching, and financial support from the DoBE and other stakeholders, such as parents, the community and commercial businesses. The participants from the three geographical contexts were asked the same questions which tried to elicit their perceptions on whether the infrastructure impacted their ability to teach a FAL in the FP I wanted to understand whether they perceived that teaching a FAL could be affected by the physical context in which the school was located.

Please note, in the interest of authenticity, that the transcribed comments of the respondents are presented verbatim in the following sections and in the next chapter.

Teacher Xoliswa said: *"Yes, awu Ma'am… there are lots of differences. Here in rural areas we are neglected.* (I then asked who was neglecting them, as I wanted to gain more insight into her claims) *The Department of Education is neglecting us. Just have a look at how my classroom looks. It is dirty and has no security, I can't leave anything here. Schools in urban areas have enough resources because they have safe school buildings and classrooms. In fact, they have lockable cupboards where they can keep their resources and all other things needed for effective teaching."*

Teacher Zanele revealed her understanding of the differences in schools due to their geographical context by stating the following: *"Oh…yes of course…absolutely…there is a difference. We are not like those urban schools and of course we are not like those rural schools. Iyo…* (uttering a sigh). *Urban schools have everything. They do not have overcrowded classes like us here. Even the learners that they teach can afford to buy anything that is needed at school. Wuuuu….these learners can't even afford to pay school fees. Just imagine R80 for the whole year. Tell me how the school is going to function without money? Worse, learners here come to school when they feel like coming. This is affecting the teaching of First Additional Language because when they come back they have forgotten everything they learned."*

Teacher Yolanda's school context afforded her an advantaged position. It was patent that she experiences very minimal challenges related to infrastructure. However, I wanted to understand her point of view and whether she was aware that there were some schools that operated at a detrimental level. *"Yes, awu…the difference is huge…awu, it is huge and I have seen it. My house is in a township, next to my house there's a school…a primary school. Those township schools are built in an environment that is not conducive for the children to learn in. The environment is not good at all because these schools do not have enough safety measures for children as many of them do not have security guards at the gate, people get in and out as they please."*

The data revealed that teachers faced different context-related challenges in their respective geographical areas. It is reasonable to argue that such challenges prevent them from producing the best of their abilities in teaching a FAL. To some degree, security was a strong feature across the three schools. Clearly, the teachers valued security at school, particularly in terms of teaching and learning resources. In rural and semi-urban contexts, the fear of loss of teaching and learning resources suggests that they will be further disadvantaged if those valuable resources are lost. They hold on to the little that they have so as not to be further disadvantaged. However, in a sampled urban school, teachers are privileged to have 24/7 security, which means that their valuable teaching resources are generally safe.

Msila (2014, p.341) states that "many dysfunctional schools are the ones situated in the townships whilst functional schools are situated in former white areas". This claim was corroborated by the teachers' responses to the interview questions. The perception exists that ex-Model C schools enjoy the benefits of having schools with high levels of competence and that they experience minimal challenges (Ntshoe, 2009). This has led Spaull (2013) to assert that in spite of many years of democracy, South Africa still experiences "two-world schools" (p. 9). Van der Berg (2008), Ntshoe (2008) and Spaull (2013) also allude that it is very disappointing that South Africa fails to equalise the distribution of resources for sustainable economic growth. As a result, "children in poor schools are exposed to conditions that have a negative impact on growing children compared to their [affluent] counterparts" (Msila, 2014, p. 341).

6.3.1.3 (Un-) favourable learning spaces

Morrow (2007) states that a favourable and learning-friendly learning space is at the heart of any teaching and learning process. This implies that the learning space should be welcoming and should add value to the efforts of learners. Teachers should create classrooms that display that is a home away from home. Morrow (2007) further alludes to the fact that "teachers themselves need to design learning programmes [and create learning spaces] that are sensitive to their learners and responsive to their contexts and develop appropriate resources and other learner support material, in order to achieve the nationally mandated learning outcomes" (p. 8). These and other similar comments prompted me to allude to the status quo of each participants' classroom as it is used as a learning space. This aspect was probed in order to understand whether any differences existed, and why.

I found it overwhelming to note that teachers were trying their best to be accommodative and to ensuring that teaching actually did take place despite unfavourable learning spaces.
Teacher Xoliswa offered the following comments: "*We do not have enough resources, more especially here in the deep rural areas. Look (bheka nje), we do not have anything and can you see these books? Look* (showing me the books - few in number) *this is what I have, nothing else. The department has provided us with these books. There is nothing to teach, they are just silent. Really, Ma'am, just silent. There's nothing else…eeeh… we do not get enough support from the department. But I need to confess, I saw a little bit of change this year. Some resources for teaching English FAL were delivered. At least these books are going to help us in a way. How can you compare us with those schools in urban areas? Wuuuu….never Ma'am!! Those teachers have beautiful schools, look at this classroom…* (pointing)… *I can't even keep my things in this class, it is not safe…mmm…everyone has access, even the hooligans."*

Teacher Xoliswa expressed her frustration that their school did not have electricity. I asked her why she felt that the absence of electricity affected her teaching, to which she responded as follows: *"Sometimes a lesson demands that learners see what you are teaching them; things like TV where they can see people talking in English. Even when you want to make some worksheets…you can't. We usually make copies in town and have to pay from our own pockets. Nobody pays it back because parents are poor."*

I scrutinised the learners' homework books for any monitoring by the parents. I found that for half of the class, homework was often not done and no apparent reason was given by a parent/caregiver to explain the reason for this non-compliance. The teacher stated: *"There is no parental involvement here…it is difficult, really. Very few parents are monitoring whether their children have written down their homework, but with the rest there is nothing. This is affecting the teaching of the FAL as I have to push and pull all by myself."*

In contrast, I observed that **Teacher Yolanda's** classroom was well equipped and tidy. She said: *"Working here is different. We have everything that we want. Learners are paying high school fees and we have a number of companies sponsoring our school which then makes it easier for us to buy everything we need."*

Teacher Zanele on the other hand was extremely concerned about the level of burglaries, which was a fear that contributed to her sense of dispossession as she had to cope in a classroom that could never be regarded as a conducive learning space. According to Masitsa (2005), most township schools have lost the learning culture. By learning culture, Masitsa (2005, p. 206) means "a positive school atmosphere, which creates a climate that is conducive to teaching and learning at school, where everything culminates in good academic performance".

Teacher Zanele's frustrations were related to the lack of learning culture in learners and the school community at large. She said: *"Most of the resources that are provided by the Department of Education are stolen by people from the community. When you paste a resource on the wall, you won't find it the following day because everyone has access to the school buildings. Other hooligans even steal the chairs and tables that are used by the learners…eeeh* (showing some frustration)*…it is difficult, you can never make this classroom a space that is conducive to learning."*

Figure 6.1 depicts the differences that existed in the respective learning sites.

*Research Site **1*** *Research Site 2* *Research Site 3*

Figure 6.1: Illustration of the physical learning spaces in the three research sites

Source: Author

The photograph in Figure 6.1 show the different learning spaces of the sampled schools that were in different geographically areas. The picture of the first research site is of Teacher Xoliswa's classroom. It is evident that the classroom would not be conducive to learning. Furniture is lacking which makes it difficult to teach and learn. The photograph of the second research site displays Teacher Zanele's classroom. The picture shows how vandalism affected the school. Her classroom is left with very few items of furniture and teaching and learning resources. The last picture is of the third research site and displays Teacher Yolanda's classroom. This classroom is conducive to learning, as it is well taken care of and is welcoming to learners so that teaching and learning can take place.

6.3.1.4 (Lack of) adequate financial resources

I was also concerned about the financial status of the respective schools and I thus wanted to gain insight into whether some of the challenges the teachers experienced were somehow related to a lack of financial support and financial constraints.

Teacher Zanele felt the pressure of lack of financial support and offered to following comments: "*Learners here are failing to pay the school fees. The school fee is just R80 per year. What is also hurting is that, the resources are destroyed and stolen by outsiders as the school's fence was destroyed by hooligans".*

Teacher Yolanda found that adequate resources in her school favoured her teaching experience. They did not experience any burglaries because of a high level of security comprising, surveillance cameras, an intercom at the entrance gate, and security personnel that were available at the school on a twenty four hour basis. Moreover, learners' parents religiously paid their school fees on a monthly basis probably fearing that, if they did not, their child might lose his/her place in the school.

Conversely, **Teacher Xoliswa** bemoaned the deprived financial state at her school: *"Learners do not pay school fees as our school is a 'no-fee school'. We became a no-fee paying school because the community is poor here, most of them are unemployed, and so they rely on social grants. This is badly affecting us as we have to wait for the delivery of resource by the Department of Education. It is really bad because sometimes deliveries are made very late. Our school is operating out of nothing; there is no money."*

It was patently clear that the school in rural the context experienced severe challenges related to a lack of affluence among community members, tardiness by the DoBE to supply resources, and a lack of financial support from other stakeholders. This is corroborated by Gardiner (2008), who states that schools in rural contexts depend exclusively on the financial provisioning that is made by the DoBE, as most parents are unemployed. Surty (2011) affirms that learners' home background in terms of socio-economic status is an important determinant of educational outcomes. Spreen and Vally (2006) proclaim that it is amazing that "desperate poverty and deprivation of 'substantive freedom' is [still] experienced by inhabitants of South Africa" (p. 353). This kind of deprivation was proven to be experienced by those who reside in non-elite areas. As a result, the education of the children is the most affected fraternity of divisive demographic reality.

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented an extensive analysis the data with the focus on context analysis. I applied manual data colour coding in order to trace the similarities and differences in the data that had been generated. This strategy assisted me in presenting undistorted data. Moreover, by comparing the three research sites and the participants' biographies assisted me in contemplating and comprehending how the diverse geographical zones played their role as deterministic factors in FAL pedagogical practices. My engagements with the participants thus

assisted me in understanding the impact of social topography on their physical surroundings which, in turn, impacted their pedagogical practices.

The next chapter presents the second part of the analysis of the data presentation.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS (PART 2):

FAL PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the first level of data analysis using a context analysis strategy. In Chapter seven, I present the second part of data analysis using the content analysis.

By using content analysis, I intended to "portray reality by discovering meanings from the textual data" (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 76). As a result, I generated and documented written field notes data during semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and document analysis. Moreover, audio-taped data were also generated through voice recordings during the interview sessions. My technique in order to understand the generated data resonated with Creswell's (2013) suggestion that notes and transcriptions should be understood by reading them several times in order to make sense of the data that were generated at different stages.

I was flooded with a data overload, which then compelled me to systematically sift through and analyse the data through a reduction process. I want to remind the reader that the data that are presented and analysed in this chapter are related to FAL pedagogic practices. This guided me to focus on the three features of content analysis as articulated by Shreier (2014), as this type of analysis:

- reduces data, in a systematic and flexible manner;
- is highly systematic;
- typically combines varying portions of concept-driven and data-driven categories within any one coding frame.

In ensured that I systematically reduce the data by developing the themes that were related to the generated data. I also ensured that I manually arrange data according to their similarities through cutting and pasting the similarities and lining up the differences next to the identified similarities. I decided on deliberating on this initiative in order to avoid unnecessary omissions and recurrences. These engagements immensely assisted me to systematically manage the data analysis as mentioned by Shreier (2014) above. I further ensured that I combine varying

portions of concept-driven and data-driven categories through analysing and corresponding these to the FAL teachers' understandings of pedagogical practices in the classrooms of schools that are geographically different. Moreover, I ensured that I persuasively draw the elements of data generated and apply them accordingly. The formulation of a thick description around the phenomena regulating this study was ensured by landscaping the teaching of the FAL across geographical contexts and comparing the contradictory results as anticipated in theoretical replica. From those comprehensive engagements with the data, different themes emerged.
The themes that emerged from my engagements are presented in the following sections:

7.2 Emerging Themes

The data were generated by using multiple data generation tools namely, interviews, observations, post-observation interviews, document analysis and transect walk which was unplanned for was used at a later stage. Nevertheless, transect walk was later used to generate data from the observed different community behaviours. Cohen et al. (2011) suggest that working with different data generation tools when analysing data facilitates the trustworthiness of the data and their analysis. The generated data assisted me in formulating a thick description of the two phenomena under exploration, namely different geographical contexts and FAL teaching. An analysis of the first phenomenon geographical context) was presented in the previous chapter.

Table 7.1 on the following page presents a summary of the themes that emerged from the data by means of content analysis.

Table 7.1: Emerging themes from the second level of data analysis

Source: Author

THEMES	SUB-THEMES
Contextual realities: input in terms of pedagogic practices	-Contextual variation and pedagogy in the teaching of a FAL - Professional development engagements: Workshops and seminars organised by the DoBE and other role-players

Typifying the ingredients for efficacy in FAL teaching	-Teachers' FAL pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) -Maximising exposure to the FAL -Teaching FAL basic literacy skills -Confluence of factors influencing the teaching of a FAL
FAL teaching processes	- Planning versus Actual Teaching -Availability of resources to accelerate planning for the FAL teaching
Bridging the gap: FAL resources at school versus resources at home	- Learners' background and exposure to a FAL -Enhancements and interventions in relation to educational resources external to the classrooms

Merriam (2009, p. 213) highlights two facts that are extremely important when categorising data into themes:

> "Firstly, categories should be sensitising. The naming of the category should be as sensitive as possible to what is in the data. Secondly, categories should be conceptually congruent. This means that the same level of abstraction should characterise all categories at the same level."

In developing the themes and sub-themes that emerged from the data, I ensured that I religiously complied with these two factors as suggested by Merriam (2009). I thus ensured that I sensitised the categories and used congruent concepts in order to avoid distorting the categorised data. In developing the themes and making sense of the data, I consolidated, reduced and interpreted what the participants had pronounced and what I had observed and read in the documents that had been at my disposal.

7.2.1 Contextual realities: Input in terms of pedagogic practices

It is imperative to understand that the concept 'contextual realities' is an umbrella term for a number of influences that exist within a particular environment. Lombard (2007, p. 50) asserts that:

> "By contextual realities, one has to understand a number of aspects entailed within it. This means the degree of parental involvement, kind of teachers whether qualified or unqualified, standard of education, educator-learner ratio, the creation of a sound competitive environment, constructive learning environment, and lastly, teachers and learners showing mutual respect."

It is evident that the context in some instances can be regarded as a contributing factor to the manner in which teachers transmit knowledge to learners. As a result, their pedagogical practices can be largely affected by the context in which they find themselves (Ivinson & Duveen, 2005). In essence, the teachers' role is to teach. However, Shulman's utterances that "teaching is complex" (1986, p. 8) needs a denser analysis in understanding the contextual realities and how they actually impact the manner in which teachers teach.

As postulated by Lombard (2007), contextual realities can never be understood as a single term. This implies that teachers find themselves in these contexts that are comprised of a variety of aspects. It is undeniable that schools in semi-urban contexts are historically underprivileged and that vandalism is taking its toll (Mampane & Bower, 2011), whereas, schools in urban areas are continuously provided with suitable and sufficient teaching and learning resources (Ntshoe, 2009). Moreover, these schools have the facilities to secure these resources for continuous use, which in essence saves the Department exorbitant amounts of money. By implication, schools that are wrecked by persistent vandalism and lack of secure lock-up facilities are consistently deprived of teaching and learning resources (Medina, 2013; Surty, 2011; Rural Newsletter, 2011), which in turn places a heavy financial burden on the Department that it patently cannot fulfil.

7.2.1.1 Contextual variations and pedagogy in the teaching of FAL

After I had observed **Teacher Yolanda** teaching writing skills to her Grade 3 learners, I asked her a question based on how she was teaching writing skills in her isiZulu FAL (ZFAL) lesson. I also wanted to know whether the location that her school was in facilitated her learners' development of writing skills.

Teacher Yolanda demonstrated her satisfaction with her school's location by stating the following: *"Our school has an aftercare facility. I ensure that those learners who do not understand during the lessons are given extra time to work on aspects they found difficult. We are very lucky in our school because some parents, more especially retired teachers, come to assist us with after care classes. This really makes our work easier as learners cooperate and learn faster when taught by their parents. Ja…they are understanding faster. This really facilitates my teaching and makes it less complex. Eeeh* (demonstrating gratification)…*we are very pleased about the level of parental involvement here. In that lesson you observed I wanted my learners to develop their writing skills through creating an advert. Their choice of words is the one that demonstrates how good they are in writing. CAPS tells us that writing as one of the literacy components should be taught. They need to know how to be creative, isn't it? They need to also know how to speak using the language. All in all I was teaching speaking, listening and writing simultaneously".*

Subsequent to the observed lesson on writing skills, I observed **Teacher Yolanda** teaching a lesson on phonemic awareness skills. I was keen to understand whether the extensive parental involvement assisted her in the application of transformative pedagogy when teaching phonics. She expressed her feelings through stating that: *"I usually explore different teaching methods when I am teaching the content area for the first time. I often realise that my learners encounter challenges with sounds and they often confuse isiZulu sounds with English…For example they sound 'u' as 'a'. However, after giving them homework, they come back more knowledgeable and interested in learning different sounds encompassed in the given words as homework."* She continued to say that: *"This helps me a lot because I apply other teaching methodologies, for example where learners work in groups to do word attacks whilst I attend to the other group which might be grappling with words spelling."*

Considering Teacher Yolanda's assertions, it became patently clear that for the teachers where parental involvement is evident, exploring other transformative teaching methodologies is feasible as Hugo (2016) advises that teachers need to explore other teaching methodologies for teaching different concepts other than those suggested by CAPS. The author affirms that when teachers engage learners in more learner-centred and enthusiastic methods of teaching contribute immensely to their cognitive abilities and rapid language development.

Teacher Xoliswa obviously understood that she needed to put extra effort when teaching her learners. There was verification that the shortage of teaching and learning resources in her classroom hampered her pedagogical practices. It was also clear that her learners had very limited, if any, to no exposure to English FAL (EFAL) beyond the classroom. In spite of her attempts to repeat concepts by constantly codeswitching and ensuring that she used a comprehensible input as advised by Krashen (1978), her endeavours were in vain. She said the following: *"They are failing to name parts of the body in English, this is really frustrating. I have to point at the parts of the body and repeat myself and ask them to say after me. It is really time consuming. Anyway, what can I do? Unfortunately, the curriculum is the same all over and the scope of work is the same and those tasks we have to finish per term are the same as for those children in urban areas."*

In a research study conducted by Medina and Arcilla (2013) in a rural area in Colombia, the findings revealed that there was a clear historic difference between urban and rural systems of education. The authors allude to the fact that there is a great need to pay attention to addressing the issues of teaching in rural contexts. This was also evident when I was with Teacher Xoliswa in her classroom. I realised that her pedagogical practices were down-graded by the context she was finding herself in. She had a long teaching experience and this had exposed her to different experiences and teaching approaches, but she had no control over the situation.
It was however gratifying to hear her saying the following: *"My learners' Home Language is isiZulu. We do a lot of activities in English; we sing, I dramatise to them through using gestures, and they also recite some rhymes in English…Oooo….they like them so much. They have to write, read and do phonics. It becomes so difficult for my learners who do not understand at all, but I sometimes ask their peers to teach them how to recite a rhyme for instance. It's a pity because they are now in Grade 3, but there are many who are still struggling with the language, but we will get there."*

Medina and Arcilla (2013) state that "teachers in rural areas are put at a disadvantage whereby opportunities to learn the language are diminished and the learners' progress is measured with that of learners in urban areas" (p. 28). When I was observing Teacher Xoliswa teaching her first lesson, I realised that she was teaching a lesson that was far below Grade 3 learners' expected level. In amazement, I checked her lesson plan and the EFAL CAPS document as part of the document analysis. I realised that what she was teaching was not aligned to CAPS expectations.

During the post-observation interview I questioned Teacher Xoliswa about what I had observed during her "body parts" lesson. This was her response:
"I had to teach them this lesson on body parts. It is so easy for them, I know that. But I wanted to teach them another lesson that is related to body parts…err…so far other aspects are difficult to some of them. There are those who don't even know what an 'eye' is in English, so they have to touch it and I need to say 'eye- iso'. This is really time-consuming as I have to spend more time on the concepts that are not entailed in the main lesson."

I asked her why she thought it was necessary to teach this lesson because I had observed that most of the learners had not experienced any challenges during this lesson, thus I speculated that it was too easy. She stated that: *"In fact, this was supposed to be an introduction to the main lesson, but I was compelled to use it as a main lesson because I had to remind them about some other words that they might have been forgotten. Tomorrow, I will then introduce the lesson that I was supposed to teach today. Yes, the curriculum guideline states that we need to teach this, but in preparation for other lessons linked to body parts.* [She then reverted to isiZulu.] *Kunzima kwesinye isikhathi bakithi, lezi zingane azijwayeli ukukhuluma ngesiNgisi* (It is difficult at other times as learners do not get used to speaking in English)*".*

Teacher Xoliswa expressed her frustration of teaching the EFAL by stating that: *"Ma'am I am compelled to teach the way I did. Teaching here is always leading me to change my planned teaching methodology. I am now stuck in this repetitive method of teaching and it is now like I am drilling my learners. I do not want to drill them, I want them to understand what they learn. Really Ma'am that is not what I wanted to do, I wanted to scaffold them to the next lesson…but I couldn't. So I had to alter the teaching method in order to allow them to learn something…at least."*

As a policy, the DoBE is obligated to fill and balance the gap between advantaged and disadvantaged schools by providing resources, updating infrastructure and ensuring that the functionality of all schools is uninterrupted. However, due to the geographical zoning of some schools, they operate under difficult conditions as they have to suffer the blow of a lack of resources, lack of learners' exposure to the FAL, a lack of a competitive learning atmosphere and a lack of parental involvement in their children's learning.

I had observed Teacher Zanele teaching reading skills to her learners. She started by using self-made phonic card that displayed the sound 'h'. She asked learners to give her all the words that start with a letter 'h' namely, house, hat, hippopotamus, heavy, happy and others. Almost all learners in her classroom did not struggle with giving her the words. However, few learners were noticed to be struggling with the words. Teacher Zanele wrote words on the chalkboard and asked the struggling learners to read the words. After reading them she asked which letter was at the beginning of the written words. The learners responded correctly.

While geographic and teaching contexts are diverse, I noticed that teacher Zanele realised the need to 'modify' teaching methodologies that are beneficial to her learners' comprehension of the EFAL as compared to Teacher Xoliswa who demonstrated frustrations as she had to drill her learners to afford them an opportunity to comprehend on the concepts being taught, if there was any.

Teacher Zanele stated that: *"I now understand these learners well. I always change the manner in which I introduce the lesson as some learners face challenges. However, I scaffold the teaching of a lesson by teaching what is simple first and gradually move to the complex. In this case, I taught word recognition and sounding in preparation for story reading. Ma'am I think you have realised that the sounds I picked to teach were in the story we read. It becomes very difficult for my learners to read a story without explaining single words to them first."*

However, Teacher Zanele is sometimes discouraged by the challenges she experience when teaching EFAL to her learners. She raised the fact that: *"Most of these learners are always absent, if not they come late without any proper explanation. This is affecting the teaching of EFAL because when they come back they have forgotten almost everything. I have to be honest, it is not all of them but the number of those who are often absent is high. This is usually caused by community strikes for municipality services and sometimes the transport they use for coming to school doesn't arrive on time"*.

Masitsa (2005, p. 207) laments the fact that "the conditions in township schools are indicative of an eroded learning culture and are a precursor of poor academic performance". I observed that in Teacher Zanele's class some learners were not paying attention when she was teaching. She said:

"I have learnt that those who are not paying attention should sit here at the front, I have to ensure that I demonstrate first and thereafter let them say after me. This is so difficult because some of them just keep quiet; worse, they don't even do their homework at home because their parents are working and they come home late and do not assist their children with EFAL homework. This is causing us to learn a single concept for a longer time than stipulated in CAPS."

From the data I found that there are various challenges that the teaching and learning contexts place on teachers who are then required to adapt their teaching pedagogies to resonate with the challenges that the contexts bring into the classroom. As it was also found that teachers from supportive contexts also find it difficult to teach a FAL, but that additional support is available to the teacher. Hence teaching a FAL is challenging for all teachers irrespective of the geographic site of teaching and the contextual realities that influence teaching and learning. In concurrence, Prew (2009) asserts that parents need to play their role in assisting teachers to teach their children in order to prevent challenges that are beyond teachers' understanding.

Furthermore, the data revealed that in spite of the contextual variations and the curriculum requirements, the teachers use their agencies in informing their pedagogies to the contextual realities, thereby centring the role of teachers in making curriculum decisions, teaching decisions and supportive decisions. The confidence in these decisions has been developed over time an in tune with the contextual realities that influence school education and teaching of a FAL.

The data that were generated and analysed, revealed that education offered to South African children is not similar.

7.2.1.2 Professional development engagements: Workshops and seminars organised by DoBE and other role-players

At some stage after the new curriculum had been instituted in 2011, the Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motsekga summoned an improvement in the implementation of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (DoBE, 2011). The improvement in

policy implementation was largely based on constant workshops and seminars that were solely aiming to revise and improve the implementation of the policy and its mandate. Therefore, quite a number of seminars and workshops were held nationwide.

Workshops and seminars on First Additional Language teaching were the most prominent as there were new deliberations pertaining to the teaching of FAL. The articulation of FAL teaching was mostly based on additive bilingualism. Thus, learners are granted an opportunity to learn in their HL and transfer their literacy skills to the FAL when they are taught in this language. This practice is based on the notion that "a FAL takes advantage of learners' literacy skills in their home language" (DoBE, 2011, p. 8).

One of the interview questions was based on whether teachers had attended any workshops on FAL teaching to equip them with content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and curriculum knowledge. I also wanted to gain insight of the level of adequacy of those workshops for teachers' professional development. **Teacher Zanele** stated the following:
"Yes, we do attend those workshops on English First Additional Language teaching organised by the Department. Sometimes we attend workshops organised by Toyota Teach. We also have a cluster working committee that also organises some, once a term. We also have some other onsite workshops, but it is very difficult sometimes to implement the strategies that they teach us. It is sad because there is a mismatch between what they teach us to do and the actual hands-on teaching. For instance you use the communicative approach which demands that there is a communication between the learners and teacher or between the learners themselves. But because they do not have those skills… (eeeh)*…they are not that fluent in English, so they opt to be silent and then I always fail to meet the lesson's outcomes. What is sad in this school is that there is a lack of sharing of teaching methods -each teacher teaches in her own way. If we could just sit down and discuss the possible methods that can be used to teach certain skills, I think that can lessen these challenges. I am new in this school, sometimes I just fear to ask many questions. We do have a HOD but even kwayena* [even her] *she just teaches anything…in fact in our school we does not share teaching methods. But, they always complain that classes are too overcrowded so it becomes better if you teach in isiZulu because they understand faster as compared to when they are taught in English because it is foreign to learners. Another thing is we do not hold meetings regularly where we discuss the curriculum, it only happens once at the beginning of every term."*

Conversely, **Teacher Yolanda's** experience supported her teaching to a great extent. She stated this as follows: *"We always hold workshops, at most we hold them twice a week. We work collaboratively as FP teachers teaching ZFAL. We plan together and even discuss possible strategies to be used for teaching each concept. Although it is sometimes difficult to teach other concepts, the support that we receive from the SMT is great. I thank them and the dedicated parents that we overcome some challenges related to the teaching of isiZulu First Additional Language".*

Teacher Xoliswa revealed that she had attended a number of workshops. However, there were still many challenges that she faced regarding the teaching of EFAL. *"The Department is organising some workshops, but ey…it is difficult. Our learners are not having any exposure to English, it is only when they are here at school that they listen to the language being spoken".* I was then curious to know whether the manner she taught the lesson was based on the way they were capacitated on teaching different concepts and content areas. *"No, it is not. The Department sends facilitators to teach us how to teach each concept. It is so sad that they have never taught in rural contexts, they are just theorising. It is something different when you teach…learners just stare at you and keep quiet."*

The data revealed that teachers are exposed to and have attended workshops on teaching FAL. These workshops are facilitated largely by the Department of Basic Education and in one of the participating schools there is additional training support organised by the school. The major concern related to these workshops is that they are theoretical and devoid of contextual variations. From the data it seems that the teachers evaluate the kinds of training support they receive and make appropriate pedagogical decisions based on the relevance to the realities of their contexts. This means that these teachers exercise their professional agencies to determine what works and what does not work for their teaching practices. Their pedagogical processes are largely determined by the understanding of the turbulences created by the challenges of their teaching and learning contexts. Such turbulences include overcrowding, learners' limited exposure to FAL, lack of parental involvement, language diversity and in most cases insufficient or lack of teaching and learning resources. These turbulences are not engaged with during the workshop sessions as facilitators of such training interventions do not have the insights, experiences and examples of how to teach in diverse learning contexts. The strategies for teaching FAL, as presented through these training sessions, are uniform across which then

perpetuate teachers and learners' frustrations as reality of the context does not match the curriculum expectations and requirements.

7.2.2 Typifying the ingredients for efficacy in FAL teaching

The notion that teaching a FAL is complex and can never be overemphasised as proficiency in any second language is a complex process that takes many years (Hugo, 2008). However, Lenyai (2013) states that because teaching a FAL is mandatory, the implementation of sound teaching methodologies can never be bypassed. In affirmation, Flowerdew (2008) highlights what seems to be suggestions for efficacy in FAL teaching in order to combat the challenges that are often experienced in the teaching of a FAL. As mentioned in Chapter two , various authors' assert that teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, extended learners' exposure to the FAL through maximising FAL teaching, and the attitude that teachers have towards the teaching of a FAL can serve as ingredients for efficacy in FAL teaching.

7.2.2.1 Teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK)

Teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is the intersection between pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge (Shulman, 1986). In elaboration, Shuman explains that pedagogical knowledge is the knowledge of teaching methods (pedagogy) that teachers possess for teaching a particular subject-matter, whereas, content knowledge is the knowledge of content entailed in each subject matter. As a matter of fact, all FALs have their own content areas and teachers need to possess knowledge of how to teach specific FALs (DoBE, 2011). Teachers need to be trained to prepare them by acquainting them with the kills that enable them to teach a FAL (Nel & Muller, 2010). Remarkably, this is not the case in South Africa as most FAL teachers are not native speakers of those languages. This means that their efficacy in FAL teaching is compromised.

At some stage during the data generation period, I observed the participants while they were teaching a FAL lesson in their classrooms. I realised that some of them lacked the necessary PCK for teaching a FAL. It was patent that they had mastered the content and also knew very well what to teach as the FAL curriculum document provides some guidelines on what and how to teach a FAL in the FP. However, while teachers used their professional agency in teaching FAL, alternate methods of teaching FAL content seemed to be limited as some were observed following some elements of traditional teaching methods. Teachers from less privileged contexts were notably observed as still following traditional teaching methods

compared to their affluent counterparts. De Clercq (2013) believes that to change and improve teacher knowledge, practice, behaviour and mind-set remains a difficult challenge in the South African context.

The literature reveals that the teaching of a FAL becomes undeniably difficult if it is done by teachers whose HL is different from the targeted FAL (Hugo, 2018; Taylor & Von Fintel, 2016). This is exacerbated by the fact that each language has its own typical phonological structure where the pronunciation of words, spelling, intonation and word stress are different from those of other languages. Therefore, Nel and Muller (2010) call on institutions of higher education to collaborate with the DoBE in order to strengthen intensive training programmes for teachers because teachers' practical knowledge base is gained when it is grounded in theory and principles and informed by a knowledge base of effective language and content teaching appropriate to the stage of a programme and the teachers' development" (p. 637).

I was also taken by surprise when in the post-observation interviews, the teachers revealed that they just taught in a way in which they are compelled to teach. **Teacher Zanele** revealed that the following: *"Aay Ma'am, I just teach because I have to teach. Otherwise, I wouldn't teach this English because our learners are struggling."* Such an assertion coupled with the by frustrations that teachers often experience, makes the teaching of a FAL even more complex due to a lack of and ability to apply PCK. The situation manifested itself as beyond control in **Teacher Xoliswa's** school, as she blatantly said: *"Really, it is frustrating to teach EFAL, I don't know….*eeeh*…maybe I am the one who doesn't know how to help my learners to understand English."* In Teacher Yolanda's case, her frustrations of teaching ZFAL were not as many as those of her counterparts from the deprived contexts. She commented as follows: *"Yes, sometimes it is difficult, but I give praise to the cluster workshops that we always have. They have equipped me with the necessary knowledge of teaching ZFAL although I am still in the process of learning".*

Teaching FAL requires sound knowledge of what is to be taught and how it is to be taught. While some participants indicated that they know what is to be taught, but that their teaching of this content is troubling them. The "do-what-I-can" sentiments prevail in the teaching methods. A further issue about teaching a FAL is what the literature says about FAL teaching which these participating teachers tend to ignore or do not focus on, and that is the specific ways in which a FAL is to be taught. These include pronunciation of words, spelling, intonation

and word stress, suggesting that teaching FAL is a generic activity rather than a specific content related pedagogy. Surty (2011) maintains that some teachers from deprived areas lack the necessary knowledge for teaching a FAL because their schools fail to attract better trained, better qualified, and better experienced teachers to implement these specific ways of teaching a FAL.

However, although Surty's (2011) assertion may be true in some respect, my data revealed that even well qualified and experienced teachers found teaching a FAL in a rural context an uphill battle. I strongly argue that the main reasons for this can be found in systemic flaws and a curriculum that exerts unrealistic demands on FP teachers in a FAL classroom. The most important barrier that was alluded to in the data, is an imbalanced and insensitive curriculum (CAPS) that for example does not allow sufficient time for review and reinforcement in FAL teaching, which seems a simple issue but is in fact a crucial oversight.

7.2.2.2 Maximising exposure to FAL

Maximising exposure to FAL is the second ingredient for successful teaching of a FAL as suggested by Lenyai (2013). As mentioned in Chapter two, maximising the teaching of a FAL means that learners have to be afforded extended opportunities of being exposed to the FAL through constant activities that demand their total immersion to the language either in spoken or written form. Some South African learners, more especially African learners who are introduced to EFAL in Grade 1 (African-language-first-English-later approach) often encounter challenges academically. These barriers to learning are often associated with language. To affirm these perceptions, Hugo (2008, p. 65) asserts that "English as a language of learning is proving to be a barrier for many learners in the country". Hugo (2008, p. 64) continues by claiming the following:

> "A major consequence of this is that many learners in South African schools are not taught through the medium of their first language and their English language abilities are often not sufficiently well developed to make a success of their academic years at school or even tertiary level."

Observations such as the one above prompted policy makers to emphasise that language lesson periods should provide opportunities to support children with barriers to learning, enrichment for those who are doing well, appropriate assessment activities, and time to write (DoBE, 2011). However, it is my urgent contention that these demands on paper are 'pie in

the sky' as long as the government, through the various Department of Education, deny both teachers and learners access to appropriate and sufficient teaching and learning materials. It is acknowledged that a firm policy is in place that makes provision for procurement of LTSM by all schools in the country, but to ensure that these materials are available in a sustainable manner, secure storage and control facilities should be provided. The cry that "there is no money to build more classrooms and storage facilities!" should be replaced with: "Make a plan!" One such plan is to approach shipping companies that are in possession of thousands of secure storage containers. Such containers can be donated and transported to rural schools by transport companies that may only too willing to contribute to the education of learners in this small way. All it requires is the will to succeed and a telephone call or two.

I observed FAL time slots in class timetables in order to determine whether learners received optimal exposure to the FAL. The timetables were perfectly composed as in accordance with curriculum policy requirements. The timetables were pasted on the walls to serve the purpose of reminding the teacher and learners about lesson times. However, none of the teachers complained with these times by adhering to the allocated times for teaching the FAL. When asked about this, **Teacher Yolanda** said: *"I like to comply with the times allocated but these learners take long to finish the task given to them. In that way, I end up with very little time to teach ZFAL as I have to teach other subjects as well".*

Teacher Yolanda and **Teacher Xoliswa** gave totally a different reasons for their failure to comply with the requirement to maximise FAL teaching. They claimed that it was because their learners lacked exposure to environmental print once they were outside their classroom. **Teacher Xoliswa** said: *"My learners fail to express themselves in English. I always support them to communicate in English during EFAL lessons"* On the other hand, Teacher Yolanda's learners had some exposure to environmental print and other electronic devices but sometimes found it difficult to communicate in English in the EFAL lesson. **Teacher Yolanda** said: *"I wish my learners could all have exposure to the environmental print. I notice some improvement to those who have. But, others reside in shacks, so their exposure is very limited."*

The data suggests that learners are not exposed or given opportunities to engage in FAL outside of the lesson. This means that there is little to no opportunities for learners to practice the FAL

within the school timetable. Outside of the school campus there is little to no opportunities for learners to practice or experience FAL engagement. The outcome is that the entire teaching and learning of FAL is located in the lessons taught and the limitations associated with the contextual realities of the teaching and learning context. These opportunities (or lack thereof) is that which compromises the teachers' abilities to develop competence of FAL in learners.

7.2.2.3 Teaching FAL basic literacy skills

The basic literacy skills that are taught in a FAL are similar to those taught in HL (DoBE, 2011). As was mentioned in Chapter two, teaching a FAL is a complex process, thus the similarity of basic literacy skills assists learners to "transfer many literacy skills from their home language [to the target language]" (DoBE, 2011, p. 8). In affirmation of this belief, Hugo (2016) states that techniques and methods for teaching HL should be applied when learning an additional language.

The National Curriculum Policy on FAL teaching (DoBE, 2011) mandates that in FP classrooms, four basic FAL literacy skills are to be taught. As was mentioned in Chapter two, the basic literacy skills are listening and speaking, reading and phonics, writing and handwriting, and language structure and use which is regarded as an advanced skill of learning any language.

During the data generation period, I observed the participants teaching different lessons that encompassed the teaching of different literacy skills to their learners. When asked about the techniques and methods they used when teaching the literacy skills, **Teacher Xoliswa** said: *"I sometimes do not focus on listening and speaking skills because my learners just keep quiet during the lesson and can't communicate in English, and only to find that in most cases I sometimes do not meet the lesson outcomes. I always try to teach the listening and speaking skills and use the available resources to engage them in activities that require them to communicate with me and each other. But I experience a great deal of challenges when I have to teach them language structure and use. It becomes a nightmare…I am very worried because they have to be in Grade 4 next year... they don't cope at all. But when I teach them other skills like writing and handwriting, my learners cooperate (though not fully and to the required level) because they do not feel the pressure to speak. I also teach them reading and phonics but they struggle with understanding as they lack vocabulary"*.

Teacher Yolanda's experience with teaching basic literacy skills was different as she said that: *"I do not focus much on teaching listening and speaking skills because most of my learners have acquired those skills. By the way, their parents are teaching them how to communicate using isiZulu. But I concentrate more on teaching reading and phonics because they often confuse the sound-spelling relationships of isiZulu and English. Oh Ma'am…I also teach them writing and handwriting skills although some of them struggle a bit with writing skills, they are really trying…hahaha (laughing)".*

Teacher Zanele said: *"I focus mostly on oral communication but I have introduced my learners to reading and phonics activities. Some of them can read single words and I then introduce them to sentence writing using the words they have learnt. However, others are still struggling with listening and speaking as they have limited vocabulary which also affects their writing and handwriting skills".*

The data suggest that the teaching of all four basic literacy as mandated by the curriculum document does not occur in FP classrooms. It was revealed from the three FP teachers sampled that the prioritisation of basic literacy skills' teaching was context related. They had found ways of prioritising some literacy skills over the other because of the situations that they found themselves in.

7.2.2.4 Confluence of factors influencing the teaching of a FAL

The literature suggests that there are several factors that come to bear on how teachers teach. These factors include teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic factors, learner-related and teacher-related issues, curriculum-related and schools institutionalised codes that regulate what happens in schools. Hugo (2013) declares that both teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have an impact on their attitudes towards the teaching of a FAL and that this eventually impacts on their pedagogic practices. Positive motivation definitely result in positive performance, and vice versa.

This philosophy was confirmed by the participating teachers in response to the question related to whether their frustrations for teaching a FAL were related to the attitude they have towards FAL teaching.

Teacher Zanele had this to say: "*I get happy when I realise that those learners who were struggling with the language have grasped some concepts."*

Teacher Yolanda's case was different and had this to say: *"My learners get interested to learn isiZulu more especially those who are not isiZulu speaking."*
Teacher Xoliswa in avoidance of this question said: *"My learners are struggling. I think they have to be taught the EFAL when they are in higher grades."*
To address the learners' motivation to learn an additional language, Hugo (2008, p. 64) asserts that "child's personality, interest, aptitude for languages and motivation all interact in acquiring a second language" which often manifest in the way they would engage in learning. The author further states that the teacher's motivation is related to teachers' understanding of reality as compared to the expectations (Hugo 2008; Hugo, 2016) and the disjuncture between reality and expectation accentuates that challenges. Nel and Swanepoel (2010) raise the concern that some of these expectations are curriculum-related as the department's expectations of FAL teaching are often unrealistic.

Bernstein (1990) draws attention to the fact that schools have their own institutionalised codes within which both the regulative and instructional discourses have to be maintained. This implies that "any pedagogic practice at school level is the activation of a pedagogic code that, in its turn, is the institutionalisation of the school's elaborated orientation through specific values of classification and framing" (Morais, 2002, p. 560). The confluence of these challenges have been noted in the teachers' responses to teaching FAL.

I asked the participants probing question to understand their take on the teaching of a FAL. I also wanted to understand their conceptualisation of FAL teaching and further determine the attitudes they have towards the teaching of a FAL. **Teacher Xoliswa** said *"I love English more especially because it is the language that is used in Grade 4 for teaching and learning. I also love it because it is the language that our learners will use when they are at tertiary level. But what disappoints me is that our learners are very slow in learning the language and we do not have enough resources to spur them on to further learning. Another thing is that this prevents interactive learning as learners wait for me to speak."*

Teacher Yolanda said: *"The turnoff in teaching ZFAL is that sometimes I use incorrect words as it is closely related to my Home Language, which is isiXhosa. Otherwise I don't have any problems as we receive all the support from parents and the SMT".*

Teacher Zanele's assertions were not similar to those of Teacher Xoliswa's and Teacher Yolanda's. She was clearly more frustrated, as she stated that: *"I teach English because I am compelled to teach it. There is nothing I can do. My learners have to know it because when they are in Grade 4 they will have challenges in learning other subjects. So, I have to force them to communicate and be part of learning."*

The positive attitudes (*I love English)*, the instructional discourse (*because it is the language that is used in grade 4)*, learner-related issues (*learners are very slow in learning),* teacher-related issues (*sometimes I use incorrect words as it is closely related to my Home Language which is isiXhosa)* and the curriculum demands (*My learners have to know it because when they are in grade 4)* are some, amongst many others, come together in teaching a FAL. The teacher, then has to identify these factors, make sense of them and adapt their teaching practices to facilitate teaching and learning of FAL. The pedagogical practices are, therefore, constituted by this confluence of factors. The confluence nature suggests that no one factor can be isolated and identified as influencing the pedagogical practices of teaching FAL. Rather, the togetherness of these factors influence each other within the teaching and learning context, which the teachers would have to make sense of and direct their pedagogical practices.

Teachers, then, are still the beacons of hope for FAL teaching and learning in South African schools. Of course there are unbearable language challenges that are related to historical disadvantage, socio-economic status, geography, the quality of school management and the quality of teachers in South Africa" as posited by Taylor and Coetzee, (2013, p. 3). Nonetheless, the participants demonstrated their beliefs and resilience in teaching a FAL in order to allow their learners the opportunity to progress. It was also patent that their attitudes towards the language had not driven them to avoid teaching the language. Instead, they had devised measures to allow them to be responsive to the topography. This corroborates Ramrathan and Singh's (2017) assertion that teachers are socialised into their roles and competencies within their fields which therefore becomes an accepted way of life.

7.2.3 The variety of planning processes: Resisting the challenges

The axiom that "failing to plan is planning to fail" can never be underestimated when it comes to the teaching of any subject. Van der Walt and Ruiters (2011) assert that planning serves as the point of departure for any teaching and learning engagement. In affirmation, Wissing, Hugo and Sebate (2016, p. 5) explain that "it is important to plan, design, execute and reflect upon

all teaching and learning experiences against the background of all learners' developmental stages". Therefore, the planning process includes quite a number of variables that contribute to its success and acceleration. This process includes taking into cognisance the subject to be taught, the PCK that the teacher possesses in order to teach the subject, the learners' age and grade, and their socio-cultural and socio-cognitive backgrounds as well as other related entities.

Ayliff (2012, p. 52) asserts that "in order to learn an additional language well, one needs as much exposure as possible. Teachers should therefore ensure that learners listen to and read the Additional Language for a wide range of purposes." In this context, teachers' planning for the teaching of a FAL should adhere to these expectations as the importance of communication during the initial stages of learning an additional language is vital.

7.2.3.1 Planning versus actual teaching

Planning plays a tremendous role in every teachers' life as good teaching abides by good planning. The term 'planning' encapsulates numerous activities that are to be performed by teachers in their classrooms. According to Met (1994, p.160):

> "Effective teachers plan with precision, identifying what they and their learners will be doing in each part of the lesson, anticipating areas that may cause difficulty and ensuring that time and materials needed for the lesson will be available".

I analysed the work programmes that contained the teachers' their long, medium and short-term planning and lesson objectives. I further scrutinised their lesson plans with the aim of determining whether they were aligning CAPS expectations and the systemic organisation of work to be done in the classrooms. I discovered diverse issues and concerns related to planning of lesson in each of the different geographical context. Although some practices were similar, variations occurred across the three schools. For example, there was in some instances mismatch between curriculum expectations and what the teacher was actually planning for teaching. Secondly, I discovered that there was no alignment between the actual teaching and the content that was to be taught in that term, month or week which were planned for. Thirdly, I discovered that teachers' planning was vastly different from what they were actually teaching. Lastly, I discovered that they were not adhering to the time table and the time allocated for

teaching each concept under each content area which contributed immensely on they planned for teaching and this resulted to the submission of fabricated lesson plans to the HOD's and/or principal.

After scrutinising and analysing Teacher Zanele's documents, I asked her whether she had any concerns regarding what she was currently teaching in terms of the curriculum expectations. **Teacher Zanele** responded: "*I do plan all the time using the CAPS documents that were provided by the Department. But I have the problem that I fail to ensure that I stick to those expectations. For instance, it takes me longer to teach just a single concept as my learners are sometimes struggling to grasp certain words".*
Although Teacher Zanele had access to some resources for teaching EFAL, many had been destroyed due to vandalism which then compelled her to delay the teaching of those concepts until such resources were recovered. *"I have to skip that scope of work and come back to it later when I have improvised on how to teach it."*

Teacher Xoliswa was deeply concerned about the level of absenteeism which derailed the content to be covered in each lesson as she had to wait for learners to return to school. She said: *"Normally, when it is the day to collect social grants, half of the class does not come to school. So, you find that what you planned to teach is stalled and has to be taught on another day when learners are back. This disrupts the whole process and I am afraid that I don't meet the deadlines. Sometimes I just rewrite the lesson plan and submit it as is for the sake of submitting it to the HOD."*

Surty (2011) reveals a reality about learners in rural contexts. He asserts that "these learners are at a disadvantage compared to their urban and township counterparts" (p. 8). In essence, it is their socio-economic backgrounds that are indoctrinating them to have the perspective that receiving social grant is more important than going to school as they are living in "typically remote and relatively underdeveloped areas" (Surty, 2011, p. 8).

Conversely, the situation in Teacher Yolanda's classroom was not similar to that of the other two teachers. **Teacher Yolanda's** planning was in alignment with CAPS expectations. However, she did not always comply with the timetable and concepts that had to be taught in each time slot. *"I am compelled to teach isiZulu in the morning…hahaha* [laughing]. *I know it is wrong because the time table does not say so. I realise that my learners are more active and*

willing to learn in the morning. I have also realised that they are keen to learn the language while they are still fresh from home and remembering some of the words that they have learnt at home."

The data revealed that the teachers often faced situations that were beyond their control. Teaching a FAL is indeed complex (Lenyai, 2013). This presupposes that teachers are justified when they devise mechanisms that assist them in addressing and overcoming their everyday encounters. However, it was evident that they understood that teaching is characterised by practice. Morrow (2007, p. 14) articulates that "teaching is a practice of organising systemic learning and relocate [sic] it at the heart of how they think, plan and organise the classroom practice". Noticeably, a great deal of mismatch between planning and actual teaching was experienced by the teachers in disadvantaged contexts. However, their deviations were never in their own interest, but always in that of their learners, which I found commendable.

7.2.3.2 Availability of resources to accelerate planning for FAL teaching

I also asked questions which probed the teachers' conceptualisation of FAL teaching in their respective schools. I wanted to gain insight into how they prepared for the maximised teaching of a FAL lessons according to curriculum mandate and also how they managed their time and utilised the resources they had to teach FAL. It was concerned with the fact that I found that in spite of the unstinting efforts by the teachers to ensuring that the FAL was taught effectively some obstacles were inescapable.

Teacher Xoliswa complained about the limited support by the Department of Basic Education and articulated that it was the foremost cause of their failure to plan and teach a FAL effectively. Gardiner (2008) claims that some schools are exposed to an element of neglect and isolation, officials fail to monitor and assess teaching practices in these schools.

In this context, **Teacher Xoliswa** stated that: "*I do plan on how I will teach the English FAL lesson. Although it is such a taxing exercise, I do not have an alternative. I do not have sufficient materials like different textbooks to use for planning. Sometimes I find that what the*

policy document suggests to be taught is far above my learners' cognitive ability. Aaaa… [showing some concern about the reality of the situation].

Teacher Xoliswa also demonstrated her concern based on time allocated for teaching each content area. *"Even when I plan I need to consult different documents and consult with other teachers from other schools to check on how to teach certain concepts. For an example; which materials to use for planning for a reading lesson that takes 1 hour 30 minutes whereas I still need to explain to learners what each word means and how to pronounce it and how to spell it?*

Teacher Xoliswa's frustration was an actual indication that teaching FAL to learners who are marginalised (Balfour et al., 2008 and Medina & Arcila, 2013). There was an indication that she often deviated from what was supposed to be taught because of the lack of resources to accelerate her planning for FAL teaching.

Teacher Yolanda's was totally different from Teacher Xoliswa's experience. She stated that: *"Although I do not have all necessary resources for FAL planning, but I improvise."* She stated that: "*We have a problem with the curriculum documents from the Department of Education. There are no documents on isiZulu as a First Additional Language. We end up developing our own, and no one is ever certain whether what we are teaching is correct or not. Fortunately, here in our ward there are three schools that have isiZulu as a First Additional Language so we always have meetings for planning. I think that we need more training on FAL teaching and also have CAPS approved structure for teaching isiZulu FAL supplied to us and how each activity must be planned for and how it is to be taught".*

The issue of teaching resources also emerged as one of the variables that adversely impacted how the teachers planned for the teaching of the FAL. It was patent that **Teacher Zanele** lacked vital resources that would facilitate her planning. It came to light that the DoBE had indeed provided these resources but that most had been vandalized or stolen. She stated that: *"Look at my classroom…look at my cupboard…* [showing me that it can't be locked]. *I put all my stuff here. But the following day it is all gone. All the useful documents that were delivered by the Department are all gone. This really makes my planning difficult…how am I going to prepare for the lessons if I do not have the resources? Unfortunately our school is not fenced, so everyone has access. This is really demotivating as I am now failing to meet the deadlines."* Regardless of her struggles, I learned that Teacher Zanele had strategised on how to resist the

challenges that were related to vandalism and theft of her teaching resources. *"I have learnt how to survive here…eeh (*giving a sigh) *I have just realised that my colleagues' stuff are always safe. They have never shared with me how they manage to keep their teaching resources safe from vandalism or being stolen…Maybe it is because I am a post level 1…and new in this school…hahaha* (laughing). *I have now learnt that I have to keep everything at home. I have a bag that I carry everyday with the resources that I need for that day in order to teach effectively. I realised that almost all of us are doing that."*

Such comments confirmed that education and resource provision and distribution becomes compromised in township schools and eventually schools face multiple challenges (Mampane & Bouwer, 2011). It became patently clear that the contexts within which schools are located do influence resource provisioning for teachers to teach their lessons – being in contexts that are riddled with crime would deprive teachers of needed resources. Teachers then had understood the realities of their environment and found strategies to protect resources so that they can stick to their plans and facilitate teaching and learning within a planned process.

The pictures below, Figure 7.1 exhibits the DoBE curriculum policy documents that participating teachers used a as the guidelines for the teaching of ZFAL and EFAL. It is significant to note that these CAPS documents suggest possible resources to assist teachers in teaching the content required, the availability and accessibility of such suggestions are limited and sometimes non-existence. Hence teachers are then expected to find alternatives or teach without these resources and this compromises the planning – implementation divide.

Figure 7.1: FAL Curriculum Policy documents

Source: www.departmentofeducation.gov.

7.2.4 Bridging the gap: FAL resources at school versus resources at home

This is the final theme that emerged from the data. It is vital to note that Cummins (2000) asserts that teachers need to be aware that language is the cornerstone of all learning. In a nutshell, without language proficiency no learning can take place. However, it becomes complex when another language is added whilst learners have not yet mastered their HL (Lenyai, 2013). Most research studies in the field reveal that the most common learning barriers are related to the early years and language problems that were encountered at this stage (Hugo, 2016; Flowerdew, 2008; Joubert, Bester & Meyer, 2008). In affirmation, Mroz (2006, p. 46) indicates that "the effects of early language problems persist in disadvantaging children educationally, socially and emotionally, long after the initial difficulty is recognised".

7.2.4.1 Learners' background and exposure to a FAL

It was patently clear that learners, more especially those from deprived contexts, were minimally exposed to the FAL in forms such as environmental print that is written in target language. Environmental print is written texts that children see in their immediate surroundings such as bill boards, advertisements, cartoons, food packaging and clothing labels (The

Handbook for Teaching Reading in the Early Grades, DoE, 2008). Limited exposure to such stimuli accumulates the problems that are often encountered by learners in extending their FAL knowledge beyond the classroom.

Teacher Xoliswa asserted this point as follows: *"These learners are coming from poor family backgrounds. Most of them are born by teenagers who are not working and some of them are school going. So, they do not have money to buy resources to help their children to learn English at home…just simple things like magazines…they can't afford. Again, they are also battling with English themselves…tell me how are they going to help their children?"* She continued to state the following: *"But I have started to encourage them to read English books at home. I have now started to give them books to read at home. I give them books written in simple English with pictures and a word next to it. I see a very slow improvement to those who actually read those books at home."*

In **Teacher Zanele's** classroom, some learners were exposed to English when they were at home. This was because some of them had television at home and they watched different programmes that were broadcasted in English In a probing question related to her learners' exposure to English outside the classroom, **Teacher Zanele** said the following: *"Yes some of them have television at home, more especially those who live in the township. You often hear them using some extracts from the cartoons and movies they watch. They use them even when they are outside the classroom with their friends. I have decided to have at least 20 minutes remedial interventions after school to those that I often see struggling with the language."*

In Teacher Yolanda's classroom there was a quite a huge number of learners who were beginning to grasp basic concepts in isiZulu. Teacher Yolanda extended her gratitude to the parents who were ensuring that their learners learnt the language even when they were home. *"Some parents ensure that their children receive an extended learning of isiZulu through requesting the work programmes that we use for teaching isiZulu FAL. They ensure that they reinforce whatever that we have learnt on that particular day."*

I realised that an extended learning of the additional language by watching television at home and communication between the parents and teachers about the targeted language work programmes is significant in developing the learners' language proficiency. I also contemplated on the fact that "English is not an easy language to master as a result of its

numerous historical influences, it is considered an irregular language which needs input from all parties involved in its learning" (Hugo, 2016, p.6). Therefore, the notion that teaching FAL relies on the support of the external environment to reinforce learning that happens in class can never be overemphasised.

The environment from which the learners come from are differentiated – this is expected as urban contexts have several forms of environment print that can support the class learnings. Parents in urbanised contexts are also known to be more interested in their children's learning (Smith, 2011) and do provide the external environmental support, while rural contexts have minimal environmental prints to support extended learnings. In addition parental involvement in such areas are minimal (DoBE, 2017).

The data showed that it was evident that lack of parental involvement in children's learning was a fundamental cause of failure to understand the idiomatic and grammatical aspects that are entailed in FAL learning.
Furthermore, if parents are shying away from assisting their children to learn the FAL, they eventually fail to provide any educational resources at home that will bridge the gap between what has been learnt at school and what needs to be learnt at home.

7.2.4.2 Enhancements and interventions in relation to educational resources external to the classrooms

Through my numerous engagements with the FP teachers, it was evident that they did not experience the same challenges related to learners' extended learning of FAL at home and from other surrounding areas.

Teacher Yolanda explained her experience in this regards as follows: *"The advantage that we have here is that because parents are very much interested in isiZulu they buy extra resources to be used at home by their children. You won't believe how much they spend in ensuring that their children learn isiZulu. They buy even junior laptops and different discs with isiZulu language videos and word training. These word training activities show how the word is spelt, pronounced and also its meaning. They are rich…they have money and they also ensure that they come to school during parents' meetings to discuss their children's progress and ask which other possible resources they could buy".*

Teacher Yolanda demonstrated how heartening it is to have parents who take responsibility for their children's learning and who also ensure that they provide resources for their children to enhance their learning outside the classroom. *"It makes my duty easier and enjoyable as sometimes we learn about something they have already learnt at home.""*.

Teacher Zanele's experiences were quite different. "*My class is overcrowded; I know that there are no resources that they have at home to extend on what we learnt in class. Most of them are living in shacks; their parents are unemployed and even those who are employed come home very late and are too exhausted to help their children. Usually, they come to school with their homework not done, then it is obvious that most of them do not have resources to assist them with their English work. But at least I am glad that some of them watch cartoons…at least they do have that exposure…hahaha* [laughing]*."*

In disadvantaged contexts, the provision of educational resources is somehow not viable. **Teacher Xoliswa** said: *"Parents are very happy that their children learn English at school. Mmm…they think that when their children can speak English that will give them an opportunity to find better jobs. They said they were very worried that they can't speak English and they do not want their children to experience the same. Unfortunately, they can't provide any resources at home that can assist their children to learn English better. So, I teach one thing at a time…I can't do otherwise. But, what I like about my class is that they like to learn in English, and they like it when they have to learn new words in English".*

The data supported the notion that teaching a FAL requires integration of several areas of knowledge and practice (DoBE, 2011; Pretorius, 2014; Hugo, 2016). Clearly, regardless of all the challenges that FP teachers face they ought to devise some strategies that will assist their learners in acquiring maximum exposure to the targeted language, both at school and at home. Learners' maximised exposure to their FAL is vital, more especially if the FAL is English because "English language proficiency influences life's [opportunities] through its influence on educational success" (Taylor & Coetzee, 2013, p. 2). Furthermore, I realised that it is vital to consider Krashen's (1987) articulation that young learners' need to be exposed to a simpler version of the second language where there is no drilling or any mechanism used in in order to learn it.

7.3 Summary

As a result of comprehensive engagements with three FP teachers who taught a FAL in geographically different contexts, a thick body of data was generated that was analysed thematically. Six broad themes numerous and sub-themes emerged which were arranged in order to sensitise the categories. In this section I presented what I deem to be the most insightful findings regarding the teaching of a FAL in the FP in geographically different schools.

My engagements with the participants suggest that teachers' pedagogical practices are greatly influenced by the context in which they teach. One emerging theme is that, despite adverse circumstances, teachers of a FAL keep the torch burning in order to ensure that teaching of FAL occurs regardless of the circumstances. In South Africa, schools are not equal despite being in the same country. There is evidence that some schools utilise the better financial, and human resources that they receive from the DoBE better than their counterparts, while they also inherited better infrastructure from the previous dispensation. For instance, the teachers raised the point that some schools, more especially those in urban contexts, received financial support from the Department to run and manage aftercare facilities that assist in homework supervision. However, this is a misconception as no ex-Model C school receives funds from the DoBE for these facilities. The funds are raised by the fees that parents pay. Also, there is a great deal of parental involvement in some schools which is supportive of learning. Whereas, in deprived contexts, schools located in semi-urban and rural areas, there is evidence of a lack of learning culture, absenteeism, influence of communities on learners (e.g., municipal strikes that are more readily attended than schools), and imbalances and oversights in the CAPS curriculum. All these challenges further disadvantage learners and teachers and the school community at large.

The findings also revealed that security was a strong feature in schools across the three geographical areas. All the teachers valued the provision of security systems at their respective schools, particularly in terms of teaching and learning resources. In rural and semi-rural contexts, teachers fear the loss of teaching and learning resources because their learners will be further disadvantaged if this situation is perpetuated. They are determined to hold on to the little that they had so as not to be further disadvantaged.

The findings also revealed that planning for effective teaching was crucial factor in effective FAL teaching. Teaching in a variety of contexts poses planning constraints related to various school contexts. In some instance, teachers committed themselves in planning for effective teaching as good teaching relies on good planning; however, contextual factors seemed to prevent them from planning to achieve the necessary outcomes. Clearly, this either led to a laid-back attitude or frustrations that prompted teachers to submit fabricated planning documents as the challenges and expectations seemed too great. They eventually adopted different strategies and techniques that would support what they believed would be acceptable teaching. However, in the urban context where the teacher was privileged in terms of access to teaching and learning resources, they were able to plan effectively and achieve outcomes that allowed their learners to be pro-active actors within the social topography which would reciprocally assist them to always be on top of the game.

The data also revealed that innovative teaching methods were generated and adopted through effected collaboration in their respective cluster structures. This augmented the limited support they received from the DoBE. It was patently clear that the teachers would form their own support groups where they discussed issues pertaining to FAL teaching. These self-regulated workshops and seminars contributed to addressing the challenges they experienced and provided solutions through alternative teaching methods that would engender a discourse of hope among the learners instead of boredom and a sense of dispossession. The self-regulated seminars and workshops addressed issues pertaining to equipping teachers with more pedagogical content knowledge in the teaching of a FAL. They were also guided in developing and using teaching and learning resources to maximise the teaching of the FAL. In this way, issues of demotivation were addressed in order to avoid adverse confluence of factors influencing the teaching of the FAL which is significantly exacerbated by unavoidable challenges.

7.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented a discussion of the data that had been obtained by means of multiple data generation tools. Semi-structured interviews, structured observations, post-observation interviews, transect walk, and document analysis played a vital role in assisting me to elicit data that were credible and trustworthy. I meticulously recorded the data by means of verbatim transcriptions of the recorded interviews, and, field notes and later analysed them thematically.

Five broad themes (including the one in Chapter six) emerged which assisted me in arranging and thus understanding the data. Numerous sub-themes emerged from the initially identified themes which assisted in sensitising the categories. Evidence-based assertions from the participants were presented related to each theme and sub-theme under analysis. The findings were also evidenced based on transect walks, observations, and document analysis that had been conducted during the six-months-data-generation period. As mentioned in Chapter five, my engagements assisted me in achieving rigour in my research study through complying with credibility and trustworthiness issues which is an essential process in avoiding add-ins and misinterpretations of the data.

The next chapter correlates with this current chapter as it focuses on the key findings that were presented in this chapter. Chapter eight intends to discuss the key findings in terms of the research focus, purpose and research questions. The findings are ultimately framed within Bernstein's theory of pedagogic practice and Bourdieu's social topography conceptual framework which comprised the theoretical construct of his field theory. Correlated literature will also be used to embed the key findings within these theories.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND THEORISING

8.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the most significant data and the analyses thereof. The data were obtained from in-depth engagements with three foundation phase teachers who taught a FAL in their respective schools in geographically different contexts.

This chapter, presents a discussion of the key findings that emanated from the previous chapter. The findings are embedded in two theoretical framings, namely, Bourdieu's social topography as the conceptual framework from his field theory (1985) and Bernstein's theory of pedagogical practices (1977). Remarkably so, these theoretical underpinnings are mutually congruent in addressing the notion that an individual's behaviour and experiences are largely determined and affected by social space and the society's conduct and attitudes.

These two main theoretical underpinnings, are enhanced by other theories that correlated with my study. By engaging in this process I acknowledge their relevance to and the benefits (more especially in term of the literature review and literature development) that they brought to the development of this study. These additional theories are Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge (1986), Vygotsky's social constructivism theory (1978) and Cummins' theory of second language acquisition (1976). These theories, though not absolutely relevant to the key aspects of my study, also assisted me in getting an imperative understanding of the phenomena that were explored by the study. Shulman (1986) maintains that teachers need to possess a typical body of knowledge that will assist them when transmitting knowledge to learners. The social constructivism theory therefore presents the vital fact that learning is social in nature, and therefore there is a great need to embrace society and its influences on learning. The final theory, which is the second language acquisition theory, proclaims that because learning second language is a complex process, it is important to acknowledge learners' HL proficiency for effective learning of the additional language.

8.2 Discussion of Outcomes

This section intends to discuss the key findings that were introduced in the previous chapter. The primary aim of this section is to shed light on the existing body of knowledge of teaching FALs in geographically different contexts. Further to that, it reveals areas that might require new insights in order to address identified gaps and weaknesses from the existing body of knowledge in order for us to better understand the teaching of FALs across geographical contexts. In order to achieve these aims, key findings are extensively discussed in relation to the study's research questions.

The outcomes from the data as presented and analysed in the previous chapter revealed that there is a huge difference in the manner in which schools operate and also in how FALs are taught in the FP geographically different schools. It is vital to reiterate that the geographical context of a school is the primary driver for the categorisation of schools across South Africa (Ntshoe, 2009). The findings confirmed that the geographical location of schools, and hence their categorisation as such, adversely impacts the teaching and learning of FALs. The adverse impacts were shown to be manifested especially in deprived schools compared to privileged schools, as the former schools receive minimal opportunities for teaching and learning compared to their more advantaged counterparts. In affirming this, Yamauchi (2011) upholds that geography becomes critical when access to opportunities is distributed unevenly over space.

The findings also revealed that teachers opt to teach in a manner that is responsive to the contexts that they find themselves in. This notion undeniably corresponds with assertions that are contained in Bourdieu's social topography. Bourdieu (1985) asserts that a field is a social space that fundamentally impacts its occupants who have powers to manage it through the application of instructional codes relative to their interpretation of the field.

Below is a discussion of the key findings and my theorisation of these with reference to the theoretical framework of the study. Each key finding and its correlated findings which serve as significant constructs of each finding are discussed in detail.

8.2.1 Spatial variations as a pointer for FAL teaching

At the time that I discovered that learning spaces varies according to the context in which a school is located, it started making sense that the external environment impacts to classroom conductivity. This insight is encapsulated in Bourdieu's (1989) field theoretical construct which proposes that a bigger field influences what is available or not available in particular (smaller) field.

This implies that spatial variations impact on the manner in which FALs are taught in FP classrooms. As spatial variation is a pointer for FAL teaching, it follows that social space is the cornerstone of all teaching and learning experiences that occur at any school in any given context. For example, in the current study two participants expressed the concern that they received minimum support from the DoBE because they are in marginalised rural or semi-urban schools. It was revealed that the DoBE personnel gave limited attention to deprived schools and in ensuring that the teaching of FALs occurred mandated by the curriculum policy document. The participants revealed that this had resulted in the failure to effectively maximise the teaching of the respective FALs that they taught as there were very few facilities that assisted them in effective teaching. Medina and Arcila (2013) argue that teachers in such disadvantaged situations face adverse working circumstances and are immersed in conditions where, even when some of them are under-qualified, they receive inadequate support from the DoBE personnel. Poor remuneration packages for School Governing Body (SGB) paid teachers was also cited as factor that caused demotivation and depression among some teachers.

Bourdieu's (1985) social topography construct purports that the social positions of the occupants of a particular space are relative to similarity and dissimilarity of social relations. This construct finds resonance with schools that are located in rural and township contexts as they are regarded as underprivileged and lack some of the significant facilities to enable effective functioning of such schools. Christie (2012) states that lack of pivotal facilities in these schools causes the teaching of FALs to suffer an enormous blow. However, the same cannot be said about urban schools (particularly former Model C schools) which are regarded as privileged. In fact, in this kind of school, parents generally embrace the importance of education by actively engaging themselves in their children's education and to ensure that they

receive the intended education standards as stated by Ntshoe (2009). Hence the social positioning is linked more to geographic location of the school and its importance in respect of the expectations for the community. For example, in rural and township areas, there may be importance (parents want their children to learn English so that they can access the economy) but the material support is lacking due to its socio-economic situations.

Ajayi (2013) asserts that the privileged position of some schools is undeniably shared phenomenon in most developing and developed countries due to government's failure to eliminate inequalities within societies and in the education fraternity. The author asserts that this situation is exacerbated by numerous factors which include socio-economic status, a mismatch between curricula and learners' backgrounds, and teachers' knowledge-base of teaching. This situation is evident in South Africa's education system.

Scholarly findings (Lemon, 2004; Spaull, 2015) suggest that privileged schools have all the facilities that are needed to prepare and develop learners' technological knowledge and skills through current information technologies, innovative and specialised programmes, and curriculum transformations. Compared to underprivileged schools, this places these schools in a highly advantaged position (Lombard, 2007). Consequently, urban teachers find it easier to teach FAL activities using videos and other modern electronic devices compared to teachers who have to teach in marginalised context.

Bernstein's theory of pedagogic practice (1977) explains the notion of the classification of schools by means of using different codes. Bernstein believes that pedagogic practices are a fundamental social context through which cultural reproduction-production can take place. In essence, Bernstein believes that learning in any social context and the interactions that occur within these contexts have to be used to create contexts where children are active learners. The theory thus reiterates that social space plays a significant role in denoting how pedagogic practices are to be conducted and strengthened. This notion therefore, suggests that social space is significant in shaping one's behaviour. Ramrathan and Singh (2017) argue that Bourdieu believes that there is a socialised way of life within a particular field.

My discussion will zoom in on each finding and interrelated findings will be illuminated on a case–by-case basis. My decision was driven by the understanding that each interrelated finding has its own significance which cannot be fully explored if it is incorporated within the key finding. My discussion will focus on FAL teaching across contexts and learners' biographies as the origin of differences.

8.2.1.1 FAL teaching in different geographical contexts

As was mentioned earlier, the findings revealed that the teaching of FALs in FP classrooms of schools that were geographically different was dissimilar.

This implies that different geographical contexts impact the teaching of FALs in the FP differently despite the fact that the National Curriculum Policy on FAL teaching mandates schools across the country to ensure similar teaching and outcomes for FALs. The finding thus suggests that the four basic FAL literacy skills that are to be taught in the FP may in some cases not occur correctly or efficiently. In order to better understand the implications of this finding, I shall divide the four basic literacy skills according to the findings related to each literacy skill:

- *Listening and speaking skills*

The participants revealed that they spent extended periods of time in ensuring that they exposed learners to listening and speaking activities. The findings revealed that, across all three geographical contexts, the teaching listening and speaking skills occurred. However, the structured observations that I conducted revealed that these teachers lacked proper and stabilised monitoring of learning and the development of these skills.

This finding suggests that there was a relatively optimum development of listening and speaking skills in the classrooms some different and appropriate resources were available and used. Lenyai (2011) suggests that involving learners in listening and speaking activities encourages reciprocal learning of the FAL.

However, it was also revealed that teachers from the more privileged context preferred to engage learners in additional FAL activities rather than in listening and speaking activities. This was encouraged by the fact that most of their learners were eloquent in speaking and listening to the FAL because of receiving extended learning experiences in the language outside their classroom. As a matter of fact, teachers' duties became easier in this context compared to

the teaching of other FAL literacy skills. However, their counterparts from deprived contexts preferred to engage their learners in FAL literacy skills other than listening and speaking. This attempt was triggered by the challenges they encountered as their learners tended to keep quiet during listening and speaking activities due to their inability to understand and converse in FAL. In a related research, Hugo (2008) found that limited speaking was associated with lack of vocabulary. This finding resonates with the fact that a lack of exposure to the target language outside the classroom, i.e., the so called second site of learning, poses a threat to the development of proper vocabulary acquisition.

- *Reading and phonics skills*

Cummins (2016), Hugo (2016) and Pretorius (2014) unanimously assert that learning to read is a complex exercise, which turns out to be more complex when one has to read a foreign or additional language. In relation to this notion, the findings revealed that the majority of learners experienced difficulty in reading and phonics activities. Surprisingly, this finding was similar across the three geographical contexts. Nonetheless, learners from the less privileged contexts proved to be at the bottom of the bar. This finding resonates with PIRLS 2011 assessment results (Pretorius, 2014) which revealed that learners' reading achievements in South Africa were very low.

This finding confirms that the teaching of FAL reading and phonics in the FP is complex and echoes Hugo's (2010) findings in a study that explored teachers' battle to teach reading. Hugo (2010) asserts that teachers' knowledge of teaching reading and phonics in a FAL needs urgent attention in order to combat learners' failure to read in the target language, as this has resulted in many South African young learners experiencing difficulty in reading generally.

- *Writing and handwriting skills*

As mentioned in Chapter two, handwriting skills for HL and FAL are similar, and thus my exploration did not focus on this skill. Nonetheless, it is significant to consider Thornhill and Hugo's (2013) assertions that, in order to teach writing skills, learners need to be exposed to a great deal of lexemes, phonemes and graphemes. As this was the case, the findings resonate with this notion as it was evident that learners across the geographical contexts experienced challenges related to reading as a result of a lack of vocabulary and other related encoding and decoding skills. It was also obvious that learners were lacking good writing skills which was

emanating from their lack of reading skills which included lexemes, phonemes and graphemes. Remarkably, all the participants harnessed this challenge as a source of learners' inability to read in the FAL.

The findings suggest that teachers are failing to bridge the gap between what learners already know and what they do not know. It was evidenced that learners from less privileged contexts were not afforded opportunities of developing their writing skills outside the school as a result of a lack of second sites of learning, as previously mentioned. This prevented them from making sense of what they had learnt, thus leading to a lack of reinforcement of concepts comprehension. Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD) was proved to be non-existent. In many occurrences it was clear that out of the three teachers observed (more especially the ones from the less privileged contexts) demonstrated lack of knowledge of how to connect the lesson with the previous one in order to determine what learners already know from what they do not know. In order to address the connection of the unknown and the known, Thornhill and Hugo (2013) suggest that teachers need to scaffold learners' writing skills through assisting them with initial writing engagements and lead them to more complex writing activities when they demonstrate their acquisition of initial writing skills.

- *Language structure and use skills*

Borrowing from Bernstein's concepts of pedagogic practice modes, namely; regulative discourse (RD) and instructional discourse (ID), it was clear that the participants were incapable of teaching language structure and use as a FAL content area. This finding suggests that the teachers in all three geographical contexts lacked knowledge of strategies that regulate the teaching of a FAL language structure and its use (RD). Secondly, the findings suggest that the FAL teachers lack knowledge of how to transmit the content of language structures and use to learners (ID). Wissing (2016) refers to language structure and its use as an advanced and sophisticated literacy skill.

However, despite the teachers' lack of competence in teaching this skill in the intended way, they adapted and found ways to manage the teaching of the FAL resulting in them teaching what they can and not what is expected of them as directed by CAPS. Their tacit knowledge as teachers brings confidence in them to teach this advanced and sophisticated skill accordingly.

Undoubtedly, this resonates with Colman and Place's (2013) assertions that no literacy skill can operate in isolation, as language proficiency encompasses them all.

8.2.1.2 Learners' biographies as the cause of distinction

All learners in any school and classroom have different biographies that comprise their socio-economic backgrounds, and socio-cultural backgrounds, language diversity, language exposure, multi-lingualism, motivation and/or lack of motivation to learn the FAL, age, stage of HL development, and other related factors (Smith, 2011). In spite of these diverse elements that impact learners' lives, teachers are obligated to teach FALs as mandated by CAPS. The findings revealed that learners' biographies were the origin of the differences that were encountered in the three schools in terms of learners' ability to learn and acquire FAL skills.

This finding resonates with Spaull's (2013) assertions that South Africa is one of the countries that have a dualistic education system. The data showed that learners' biographies were significantly related to their home and societal backgrounds. Their biographies also influenced the choice of school available to them. I found that FAL teachers from the more deprived contexts had adverse experiences related to their learners' biographies compared to those teachers from the more advantaged context. Van der Berg (2013) maintains that learners' home background is the single most important factor that influences education outcomes. This suggests that teachers that work in underprivileged contexts are more exposed to adverse experiences because biographies of their learners are derived from dispossession and poverty.

This idea is supported by Bourdieu's notion of society and social practices. Bourdieu (2002) affirms that the accumulation of differentiated capitals (symbolic, cultural, educational and social) is the source of differences within what he terms 'the field'. In support of Bourdieu's (2002) view, Ramrathan and Singh (2016) explain that symbolic capital is perceived through socially induced classificatory schemes that position people within a field. It is undeniable, that the geographical locations largely conform to this classification scheme. Although the DoBE is obligated to fill the gaps between advantaged and disadvantaged schools by providing resources, updating infrastructure and ensuring that the functionality of the schools is

uninterrupted, the differences are still profound. For example, the findings revealed that, due to geographical zoning, rural and semi-urban schools operated under difficult conditions as they had to bear the brunt of overcrowding, vandalism, and theft and violence. These factors were especially prevalent in township schools.

This constructs resonates with the philosophy that learners from marginalised contexts will often experience more challenges of learning a FAL compared to those learners from privileged context. This suggests that the existence of the dualistic education system in South Africa perpetuates the differences that currently existing exist in the schooling system.

8.2.2 Swimming against the tide: Exposure to environmental print

The suggestion that teachers in marginalised schools are 'swimming against the tide' exemplifies the cocktail of challenges that they often face when teaching a FAL, as many factors prevent them from teaching such a language effectively. The findings revealed that sampled teachers from township and rural schools had to harness greater efforts of resilience to combat the challenges related to the teaching of the FAL in their classrooms compared to their sampled urban counterpart. It was shown that their challenges were exacerbated by the obligation to develop strategies that assisted them to survive in spite of their disadvantaged contexts that are unsupportive of the teaching of a FAL. The participants acknowledged that FAL teaching should be enhanced by learners' exposure to environmental print, the availability of resources, and other conditions that should be conducive to the teaching of a FAL. However, it was patently clear that learners from underprivileged backgrounds were not exposed to environmental print. Their lack of exposure to such stimuli disadvantaged them as they were inadvertently prevented from learning outside the classroom. In fact, all learning was confined into the classroom setting and only occurred during FAL lesson periods. It was thus concluded that sampled teachers in disadvantaged schools chose to lower the standard of their FAL teaching in order to cater for learners who experienced difficulty in understanding and using the language, particularly because they were not exposed to second sites where they could imbibe and learn the language.

Other challenges that these teachers experienced related to overcrowded classrooms and tensions in securing and protecting resources. Bernstein's (1977) theory of pedagogic practices purports that classrooms are social contexts where interaction between the teacher and the

learners and among learners themselves must occur through different plateaus of engagement that promote teaching and learning. Unfortunately, this was not evidenced in the underprivileged schools where the teachers in certain instances opted for outdoor activities in order to allow for interaction to take place. The problem that was envisaged with this practice was that the learners were not proficient enough in the FAL to engage in informal and natural conversations away from the teacher's influence, and that they would thus merely revert to conversing in their mother tongue, which would be a missed opportunity for FAL teaching and learning.

With respect to securing and protecting resources, I realised that the teachers from the underprivileged contexts were battling to protect their resources as the little they had would often be stolen and sometimes destroyed by outsiders. This occurred due to a lack of safety measures in the schools and served as a drawback and invalidation of their endeavours to sustain a great amount of resources to facilitate their FAL teaching. However, the more privileged schools had facilities to ensure that resources were secure as they had 24/7 surveillance cameras and guard protection. This revealed a vast gap between privileged and unprivileged schools in securing and protecting teaching and learning resources. It also implies that more funds have to be made available to underprivileged schools, as ex-Model C schools are able to retain and disseminate their LTSM for a number of years, whereas these materials have to be more regularly replaced on an annual basis in rural and township schools. In this context, Bourdieu's field theory (1985) echoes that autonomy within any field has to be valued. This provides the pre-conditions for full resistance against challenges that might come into force to destabilise that field.

By zooming in on this key finding, two correlated sub-themes were illuminated and deemed fit for discussion. These sub-themes are 1) difficulty in implementing appropriate teaching strategies, and 2) First Additional Language curriculum expectations are often unrealistic. The following discussion aims at illuminating on these sub-themes mentioned:

8.2.2.1 The difficulty in implementing appropriate teaching strategies

The research question *"Why do teachers use particular methodologies to teach a FAL in the Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others?*" generated the following findings.

I found that FP teachers across the three geographical contexts were often experiencing difficulty in implementing effective methodologies to teaching the FAL in their classrooms. As a result, they engaged in defaulting to do-what-I-can methods as a means of either escaping or coping with reality. The findings revealed that the DoBE's promised Canaan was not as full of milk and honey as anticipated by teachers.

In response to this question, the participants described teaching strategies as those teaching activities that encapsulate methods of teaching a FAL that assist learners in achieving the desired outcomes. However, they realised that achieving the desired outcomes was overshadowed by the difficulties they experienced. These difficulties were aggravated by the notion encapsulated in CAPS that the teaching of an additional language is not the same as teaching a home language (DBE, 2011). This finding suggests that adverse experiences contribute to the fact that teachers adopt a 'do-what-I-can' attitude.

Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge (1986) allowed me to understand the kinds of knowledge that teachers have to possess irrespective of the context they find themselves in. Shulman maintains that, amongst other types of knowledge that teachers have to possess, they need content knowledge, curriculum knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Based on the typical knowledge that teachers have to possess, they have to implement strategies that are context relative. In essence, the context plays a tremendous part in determining what teachers have to say; and what they have to say plays a part in determining the context (Allahyar & Nazari, 2012).

The findings revealed that even teachers from a privileged context may face difficulties in implementing appropriate teaching methods. However, it was evident that although they encounter various challenges, the rate of difficulty is not tantamount to that which teachers in marginalised contexts experience. In support of this realisation, Ferrare and Apple (2015) articulate that Bourdieu (1985) demonstrates that one's position in the field is associated with a finite range of strategies and meanings, such as the adoption of certain approaches that assist one within the dominant system of hierarchisation. In essence, one within any field needs to embrace the adaptation skills that will allow one to cope with all the encounters within the field. The field as Bourdieu (1985) states is comprised of different hierarchies that are determined by one's habitus, therefore, teachers' adaptation of the 'do-what-I-can' attitude affords them the opportunity to survive in those fields [contexts].

Clearly there are no 'blanket pedagogical practices' that have to be used across different contexts as each context has its own unique needs. However, it is significant to note that despite what and how the FAL is to be taught, FP teachers default to what they can possibly do to teach the FAL. I therefore concur with Singh (2010) that FAL teachers have to provide multiple opportunities for learners to hear the spoken words and take part in informal conversations using the FAL in their respective social spaces.

8.2.2.2 FAL curriculum expectations are too high

Most participants alluded to the fact that teaching a FAL came with high expectations from the DoBE and the FAL curriculum per se. The teaching of a FAL is curriculum mandated and different content areas and stages of language teaching are explicitly pointed out. The literature suggests that teachers have to engage learners in communicative approaches during their initial encounters with the FAL. Teaching strategies have to progress to other grades to the extent where the expected level of academic proficiency has been attained in the language (Al Hosni, 2014; Taylor & Von Fintel, 2016).

However, the participants' concerns were based on the fact that this 'one-size-fits-all' kind of policy does not take into account that schools are located in different contexts, and the teachers' perceptions therefore was that the expectations were too high. This finding suggests that this high level of dissatisfaction with the curriculum negatively impacts teachers' motivation and willingness to 'pull out all the stops' in teaching the FAL. The most outstanding point of dissatisfaction among the participants' views was that the curriculum's expectations are too high and difficult to achieve if the teaching of a FAL is to occur under disadvantaged conditions. It was revealed that teachers' frustrations were exacerbated by the fact that the curriculum policy stipulates that FP learners should obtain 50% in their HL in order to be regarded as competent and to be promoted to the next grade. As a result, teachers' focus shifts to complying with this regulation at the expense of the FAL.

Vygotsky (1978), as a social constructivist, considered that the ability to write and/or speak a language is a powerful cognitive tool for any language development. From the analysed data, I found that teachers did not understand the notion that while they were teaching a FAL, the ultimate goal was that learners should be able to use the language cognitively for communication, intellectual activities as well as for evaluation purposes. For instance, the

participant who taught isiZulu as a FAL believed that she was teaching the language for superficial knowledge only as there would be no academic engagements for learners beyond the classroom context. As a result, she ensured that the teaching of ZFAL was primarily communicative. In this case, the significance of the subject's outcomes as a FAL for multilingual purposes was questioned.

The findings suggest that teachers' perceptions about the curriculum's expectations are double-pronged. Teachers from the underprivileged contexts perceived curriculum expectations as too high because they worked in disadvantaged contexts where the teaching of a FAL does not reach the optimal attention it deserves. As mentioned in previous sections, these teachers made allusions about their adverse FAL teaching experiences that hindered them in achieving the learning outcomes as stipulated by the curriculum per grade and per content area. The findings also revealed that the teachers' disapproval of the curriculum's articulations occurred across contexts.

However, their more advantaged counterpart's perception was that the curriculum's articulations have to be based on the fact that learners are required to be literate in their HL, which in her case was taught as a FAL. In this context, the teacher argued that teaching of a HL as a FAL should be discouraged. Everybody understands that English is a hegemonic language that opens academic and economic doors in South Africa and the world. Secondly, there is a nationwide awareness that most learners' HL are confined to their home and social environments and are sadly not used as a LoLT in 'straight-for-English' schools.

The participants' views responded to one of this study's research questions which was related to what teachers' conceptualisations of teaching a FAL in their geographical contexts entailed. Tantamount to this discourse, I discovered that it was that teachers should teach their learners in a manner that will develop their FAL skills, knowledge and values as indicated in the CAPS document for FAL teaching (DoBE, 2011). In essence, their listening, speaking, reading, writing and language usage skills should be developed simultaneously and congruously, and not in isolation from one another.

8.2.3 Lack of collegiality as a challenge in FAL teaching

Collegiality means "cooperative relationships among colleagues" (Shah, 2012, p. 131). A further clarity on collegiality is alluded to in the Norms and Standards for Educators (DoE, 2000). The policy clearly articulates the importance of collegiality among teachers, learners and the school community. It further states that teachers' collegiality is important for their own professional growth, development and job satisfaction. The findings revealed that the teaching of a FAL was negatively impacted by a lack of collegiality among teachers in less privileged schools (See Chapter seven, 7.2.1.2). Whereas, in a more privileged school, it was realised that teachers relied on cluster support within their immediate context where they discussed and supported each other in teaching and resources development and use.

I then to scrutinised how teachers' lack of collegiality impacted their teaching of the FAL of choices, and it was revealed that teachers within the same school and same phase employed different methods to teach the FAL and that each FAL teacher used her own discretion in her teaching practices. The FAL curriculum policy sets guidelines on how each content area should be taught (DBE, 2011). However, it was found that FAL teachers did not collaborate or address their concerns and challenges collectively, except when they attended workshops, which was patently not often enough.

The findings suggests that collegial collaboration assists teachers in discussing the challenges that they encounter when teaching a FAL and how these challenges can be addressed. However, lack of collegiality further exacerbates these challenges, more especially so in deprived contexts where necessary resources to facilitate the teaching of a FAL are lacking. Shah (2012) maintains that a strong and healthy collegial relationship among teachers is regarded as an essential component of school effectiveness and teacher competence.

In order to have an extensive and more focused discussion on this finding, I had to further break it down into two sub-topics. This decision is meant for a better understanding of FAL teachers' lack of collegiality and refers to: 1) a lack of sharing FAL teaching methods; and 2) time-consuming repetitive teaching.

8.2.3.1 A lack of sharing of FAL teaching methods

Borrowing from Bourdieu's concept of habitus, I found that some of the challenges in teaching a FAL were related to a lack of sharing of teaching methods. Bourdieu (1984) states that the habitus comprises beliefs, values, cultural understandings and ways of behaving. Bourdieu further states that the limits to all these entities are set by the historical and social conditions of their production.

The literature shows that the teachers, more especially the novice teachers and those who had not long ago joined the school are often scared to seek help from their seniors on how to teach effectively (Mroz, 2006; Morrow, 2007). This attitude prevents them from asking for assistance. My data revealed that, because of the differences in positions in terms of seniority and teaching experience within the schools, some teachers were treated differently than others (See Chapter seven, 7.2.3.2). Such differentiated treatment is frowned upon as the DoBE tries to curb it through measures that encourage collegiality whereby more knowledgeable teachers have to assist junior teachers who have joined the system (DBE, 2000). This articulation is expected to have a positive impact on the organisational commitment of all role-players concerned (Morrow, 2007). Furthermore, it is important to take into account that FAL is new as a core subject in schools (official implementation of FAL teaching in FP was in 2012) and the expectations of teachers, parents, learners and DoE are unachievable due to the nature of learners, the nature of the teaching context, the nature of the curriculum and the curriculum intentions of developing functional literacy in FAL. Therefore, sharing of FAL teaching methods is deemed paramount.

The lack of sharing of teaching methods was particularly evident in less privileged contexts compared to urban contexts. Basically, it is significant to share the FAL teaching methods so as to work towards alleviating the challenges that junior teachers might experience. It is also vital to consider that Bourdieu asserts that habitus is strongly connected to the field (Walther, 2014). As mentioned in Chapter four, Bourdieu's formula (habitus) × (capital)] + field = practices is very important in understanding such difficulties.

Clearly, the attitudes and behaviour that the teachers exhibit within a school context serve as a paramount aspect for alleviating any challenges that might be experienced. In this case, the finding suggest that if experienced teachers could commit themselves to sharing their experiences and FAL teaching methods, the challenges for less experienced teachers will be minimised and ultimately eradicated.

8.2.3.2 The time-consuming nature of repetitive teaching

The findings revealed that unnecessary repetitive FAL teaching occurred as a result of a failure to plan and thus pace the necessary instruction. This key finding was based on the fact that the participants felt that teachers often engaged in repetitive teaching and they found this time-consuming (See Chapter seven, 7.2.2.2). This practice slows down the pace of learning a FAL. Borrowing from Bernstein's (2002) notion of framing and pacing, the study revealed that there was no control over the time for FAL acquisition. The findings revealed that appropriate pacing as per curriculum policy provisions favoured the teacher from the privileged context and that the learners in her classroom had opportunities for extended learning through a second site of learning as most of them had literate and supportive parents. Conversely, the teachers from the more deprived contexts faced the harsh blow of marginalisation which derailed them from the usual and more effective methodologies of teaching a FAL.

The findings also suggest that some FP teachers failed to fully engage their learners in the lessons, which then led to undesirable outcomes for each content area. It was found that these teachers tended to lead the lesson which resulted in limited learner participation and interaction which, in turn, stilted learners' own learning. This form of teacher-centred learning is considered as the traditionalist perspective towards teaching (Morrow, 2007). Morais (2002) echoes Bernstein's (1977) constructs of pedagogic practice stating that learning in social contexts is regulated by institutionalised codes. Guidelines set by curriculum policy documents are therefore regarded as codes that regulate how teachers have to teach a FAL in the FP. These guidelines also highlight that importance an interactive process of teaching and learning and the creation of contexts in which children become active learners. The study corroborates this theory, and strongly suggests that learners need to be active agents of their own learning, which eliminates repetitive teaching.

As a matter of fact, the repetitive teaching of FAL lessons in the three geographical contexts was found to be aggravated by the following facts:

- *Teaching and managing FAL teaching*

The sampled teachers from marginalised contexts (rural and semi-urban) lacked knowledge of how to teach and manage progression in FAL teaching. They thus engaged themselves in repetitive teaching in an attempt to make learners understand the concepts that had been taught before, without ascertaining whether these concepts had in fact been internalised. In so doing, they eventually found themselves behind schedule and could not complete the work programme and assessment programmes of FAL per term and per grade. Ultimately, this resulted in the fact that they could not meet the deadlines.

- *Attitude towards FAL teaching*

The sampled teachers' relatively luke-warm attitude towards the FAL was revealed as one of the challenges that resulted in teachers to repetitive teaching. A positive attitude towards any target language always results in learners' speedy understanding of the concepts whereas a teachers' less than enthusiastic attitude results into a cocktail of challenges. The findings suggest that the sampled teachers' relatively negative attitude was prompted by the realisation that learners needed extended exposure to the FAL in order to learn it, whereas time allocated by the curriculum for a FAL learning does not permit such enhancement. Their despondent attitude was also affected by the fact that the learners failed and even refused to use the language to learn it in spite of all the efforts they had implemented to engage with the FAL. Ultimately, this resulted in teachers' frustrations and depression. However, these teachers must be commended for their perseverance, as they admitted to spending extended periods of time in an attempt to inculcate different literacy skills in the learners. These teachers need to also be commended for their realisation that teaching the FAL is interdependent. The findings revealed that the teaching of the FAL is dependent on the teacher, learners, the context (environment) and the support outside the school in order for it to be effectively taught.

- *Learners' absenteeism*

It was evident that the rate of absenteeism in the rural and particularly in the township school was inordinately high. The reasons for this are unprecedented municipal strikes, social grant payment days and other related occurrences. These occurrences often distract from the general functioning of schools and other government entities. Learners' absenteeism is also related to the lack of a learning culture among both parents and learners, who ignore the significance of uninterrupted school attendance. When a huge percentage of learners is regularly absent, teachers have to repeat lessons to detriment of well-attending learners who become bored and frustrated. They have to look helplessly on as the tide of tardiness, arrogance and lack of discipline sweeps learners into the gutter of academic mediocracy from which many will never escape.

- *Lack of second sites of learning*

The findings revealed that learners from less privileged sampled research sites usually lacked second sites of learning. In essence, the process of learning and teaching only occurred at school with the teacher as the source of information and knowledge construction. When learners were at home, there was no one to bridge the gap between what had been learned at school and what had to be learned at home. In such instances, the teachers were compelled to repeat what they had taught previously to make links with the current lessons. This finding revealed that these learners often failed to recall what had been learned previously, which then compelled the teachers to repeat what they had already taught. This was found to be fundamental contributory factor to repetitive teaching, resulting to time consumption and failure to meet deadlines. In spite of all these challenges, the FAL teachers as mediators of all learning ensured that the teaching of FAL occurred by becoming resilient to challenges.

8.2.3.3 Cluster collaboration becoming more sensitive

The data revealed that the DoBE does not organise sufficient workshops and seminars to capacitate FP teachers on how to teach FALs. It was also revealed according to the sampled FP teachers that the nature of the teaching of a FAL as one of 'trial-and-error' as they were compelled to apply their own strategies of teaching a FAL. If the attempted method proved not to be working, another method was attempted almost haphazardly. This challenge seemed to

be exacerbated by the fact that the DoBE seldom organised platforms for development. Therefore, by borrowing from Bernstein's theory of pedagogic practice (1977), I must reiterate the significance of collaboration among teachers in their learning spaces for improved *what to teach* and *how to teach* in the classroom. In conjunction to Bernstein's school of thought, Barret (2007) strongly discourages the "throw and catch analogy to teaching" (p. 289). The analogy represents the fact that teachers wait for the Department of Education to throw instructions at them on how to teach, instead of collaborating and designing strategies that are relative to their contexts. Placing this realisation in context, Samuel (2008, p. 6) states that teachers have become "agents to be changed instead of agents of change".

However, despite the DoBE's limited call for FAL teachers to attend workshops and training sessions, the teachers reported that they found cluster collaboration to bear insightful engagements. Cluster (or small group) collaboration has been shown to be sensitive to teachers' knowledge construction and development. It was revealed that teachers were aware of the need to organise their own workshops in clusters where they worked collaboratively towards capacitating one another in terms of the strategies of teaching a FAL. It was also revealed that FP teachers tackled different issues related to FAL teaching during these workshops such as lesson planning, how to use the CAPS document, how to pace FAL teaching, appropriate resources to be used to achieve effective teaching of FAL, and developmental assessment strategies.

The findings also suggest that the teachers understood collaborative teaching strategies need to be context relevant. They also argued that the transformation of the bureaucracy in education needed to be effected as soon as possible. Samuel (2008) suggests that the policies and other operational stipulations that are available to restrict teachers' operation and reasoning, call on teachers to devise their own tools that will break the chains of being accountable to the employer only. In affirmation, Barret (2007) asserts that teachers need to avoid to taking up ideas as there is evidence that some teachers perceive those ideas differently. For the improvement of the teaching practices, the latter author suggests that teachers need to adopt and domesticate progressive ideas into their notion of practice.

8.2.4 Parental involvement in the learning of a FAL and the impact of homework

The Early Grade Study (EGRS) reveals that parental involvement is a hugely deterministic factor in a child's learning outcomes (DoBE, 2017). In this regard, the study revealed that parents from deprived contexts did not engage in their children's learning. It was revealed that numerous factors contributed towards lack of parental involvement in their children's learning and their ability or willingness to assist with homework activities. For example, when learners were given homework, it was unlikely that they would do it because some parents worked and arrived home late when their children were already asleep. Illiterate parents would be unable to help their children with their work, especially in English. Also, some learners' parents were very young and some were still attending school, and they thus failed to assist their children with homework as they had their own. Clearly, mechanisms need to be developed to involve parents in rural and township areas in their children's education needs. (DBE, 2017).

The above findings could be framed within Vygotsky's notion of learning as being society driven. Vygotsky (1978) regards society as most significant factor for less knowledgeable others to understand and make sense of what is being learned. Allahyar and Nazari (2012) highlight the fact that, according to Vygotsky, the shift of control in the child's (less knowledgeable other) activities happens as a result of ZPD. This suggests that more knowledgeable others, in this case parents, need to scaffold learners from what they do not know to what they should be knowing.

In light of this notion, Singh, Mbokodi and Msila (2004) bemoan the fact most parents with low socioeconomic status tend to exonerate themselves from becoming involved in their children's education. The authors further state that "no matter which class a learner belongs to, it is a critical commonplace that parental involvement is crucial" (p. 301).

The finding suggests that parents need to be agents of support for their children's learning as children are biologically understood as investing their passion and trust in them. In particular, any human's learning is societal-based. Therefore, society at large ought to involve itself in the education of children. As a matter of fact, parental involvement facilitates children's progress at school and support their individualised needs through assistance with homework and other related activities.

8.3 Positioning the Key Findings under the Theoretical Lens

By interweaving Bernstein's pedagogic practice theory and Bourdieu's social topography theoretical construct, I was inexorably directed towards the development study. The latter scholar's theoretical musings served as a vital component in my contemplations of how the study's key findings could be positioned under the theoretical lens as it became increasingly important to merge these theoretical underpinnings with the findings of the study in order to illuminate a new theoretical construct. The theory which I term 'the theory of biographical tides' then evolved from the study's key findings. This will be explained shortly.

The key findings as presented and discussed above revealed that, numerous factors are related to a school's effectiveness. Christie et al. (2007) assert that these factors include:

- high expectations of the learners/students;
- positive teacher attitudes;
- order and discipline in the school;
- a well organised curriculum; and
- rewards and incentives.

Despite the fact that these authors (2007) deterministic factors for effective school functioning seem general and relate to the study that they conducted, their relevance to the theoretical underpinnings and key findings of this study was profound. This is because most of these factors also emerged from the key findings of the current study, although focused on the teaching of FALs across geographical contexts.

For example, I appropriate the high expectations associated with the learning of a FAL as one of the key findings. This finding emerged as a barrier to learning because high expectations for FAL acquisition are juxtaposed to different and often debilitating learner biographies in the classroom. Learners, more especially those who are keen to learn the language, often ensure inadvertently that they engage with a wide variety of reading materials in order to widen their language proficiency. However, practices like this and others to be sustainable, teachers' positive attitude towards teaching the language is pivotal. Lenyai (2013) asserts that teaching a second language to learners is very complex and this complexity is impacted by learners' level of exposure to the language, their age, their stage of development, and their willingness to learn the language, which collectively comprise intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Christie et al. (2007) consider the order and discipline in a school as a most important even imperative deterministic factor for schools' effective functioning. Bourdieu (1983) asserts that the internalisation of field-specific rules enables relevant agents to anticipate future tendencies and opportunities. Therefore, a key finding was that the future tendencies of and opportunities for teaching and learning a FAL were highly dependent on the order and discipline within the school. In this context, the finding that the sampled schools located in deprived contexts tend to encounter more challenges related to the teaching of a FALs compared to their advantaged counterparts deserves deeper scrutiny. Msila (2014, p. 341) states that "many dysfunctional schools are the ones situated in the townships whilst functional schools are situated in former white areas".

The findings also revealed that curriculum expectations play a vital role in determining how education ought to take place in each learning space. Christie et al. (2007) mention that the curriculum has to be well organised and inclusive of all learners. However, the 'one-size-fits-all' nature of the curriculum was criticised and debunked by the participants. Clearly, they found it astonishing that curriculum policy positioned all learners in all contexts under the same umbrella, regardless of diverse socio-economic and other factors that impact the provision of education in schools. Adding to their criticism was the issue of unreasonably high curriculum expectations. Too high expectations were deemed responsible for pushing teachers towards the edge and changing their attitude towards the teaching of the FAL of choices. FAL teachers often find themselves trapped in situations that brand them as incompetent, whereas unreasonably high curriculum expectations and the difficult contexts in which teaching and learning have to occur are the real villains accountable. In support of this view, Surty (2011) argues that teachers in deprived contexts work in unwelcoming contexts, yet they are resilient despite the cocktail of challenges that they experience. The latter author concurs with Christie et al. (2007) that a system of incentives and rewards could serve as a token of appreciation and encouragement for teachers who are committed to working in deprived contexts.

Returning to my thesis statement which I term 'the theory of biographical tides' and to explain its relevance to the teaching of a FAL in the FP in diverse schools, there is a need to elaborate on its constructs. To this purpose, the construct are segmented and the relevance of each segment is discussed individually. The individualised discussions are coupled with graphic presentations to enhance the reader's understanding.

8.3.1 The foundation phase teacher as a beacon

The teacher's job is to teach (Shulman, 1986). I found it imperative to recall Morrow's conceptualisation of the term 'teacher' based on Shulman's assertion to contemplate the concept of 'teacher' and the roles attached to them.

> "Teaching is impossible. If we simply add together all that is expected of a typical teacher and take note of the circumstances in which those activities are to be carried out, the sum makes greater demands than any individual can possibly fulfil" (Morrow, 2007, p. 4).

Having said that, there is a great deal of misunderstanding of teachers' role and duties, more specifically those of FP teachers. It is imperative to understand that FP teachers secure the foundation upon which the rest of the schooling sector is built (Petersen & Petker, 2011). These remarkable teachers operate in the niche where an extensive learning journey commences. In fact, they hold the key that will unlock the potential of each learner in their care. (Pertesen & Petker, 2011).

However, it is imperative to recall that teachers are curriculum implementers (DoE, 2000). They are obligated to teach learners despite the working conditions they find themselves in. Unfortunately, in developing countries like South Africa, it is a common practice to recruit unqualified teachers especially in FP (DoE, 2000). In many instances, schools are compelled to recruit teachers to teach in areas that they did not specialise in for the sake of having someone in front of the learners (Sharplin, 2014). Petersen and Petker (2011) raise the concern that FP teachers should be specialist teachers who demonstrate passion for young learners' learning and education escalation.

Commonly, the teacher is the interrupter of the norm to unlock possibilities in their learners. Teachers' duty is to give direction in term of curriculum expectations and to provide learners with knowledge and the desire to explore. Because FAL teachers are at the forefront of equipping learners with the knowledge and skills to communicate and to further their studies in a language that is often not their own. I propose that a lighthouse best represents the positioning of these teacher in the educational context.

To be precise, these FAL teachers cast their 'light' as beacons of hope. They give hope to learners (and the community at large) as more knowledgeable others, transmitters of

knowledge, and as professionals. The South African Council for Educators (SACE) (DoE, 2000) alludes to seven roles that a teacher plays, which are:

- interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials;
- learning mediator;
- leader, administrator and manager;
- scholar, researcher and lifelong learner;
- community, citizenship and pastoral mediator;
- learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist

Below a graphic representation of a teacher who stands as firmly as a lighthouse is presented.

> "A lighthouse is a tower with a bright light at the top called beacon, located at an important or dangerous place regarding navigation (travel over water). The two main purposes of a lighthouse are to serve as a navigational aid to warn boats of dangerous areas. It is like a traffic sign on the sea" [sic] (Wikipedia).

In context, I typify a foundation phase teacher as a beacon. The teacher serves as a navigational aid in assisting the FP learners to learn a FAL. The teacher's duty is to introduce the FAL to Grade 1 learners and to ensure that oral communication skills are attained by the end of their first phase of exposure to the language. The skills that need to be acquired include listening and speaking skills. In Grade 2, the teacher ensures that other basic literacy skills are acquired by learners, which are reading and phonics, writing and handwriting. In Grade 3, language structures and use are introduced to prepare the learner for successful transitioning to Grade 4. The teacher's duties are to teach all basic FAL literacy skills irrespective of an adverse teaching contexts. In essence, the FP teacher's duties are to give illuminations and guidance where the learning of a FAL becomes unclear.

Figure 8.1: The FP teacher as a beacon of enlightenment and hope

Source: Author

8.3.2 Teachers' perceptions of learner biographies as indicative of FAL teaching and learning

Foundation phase learners are young persons who are exposed to formal teaching and learning at the initial stage of schooling (DoBE, 2011). Generally, these learners come to school with the intention of gaining knowledge. One of the curriculum's mandates is that FP learners have to be taught an additional language, over and above their home language. However, as these learners come from different home backgrounds from which they cannot be divorced in the teaching and learning processes that they are exposed to. I regard the teachers' perceptions of learners' backgrounds as pivotal to their educational journey and I thus refer to them as 'biographies'. These biographies are comprised of different dimensions which are as follows:

8.3.2.1 Learners' socio-economic status

Scholarly arguments insist that learners' socio economic status denotes the nature of their schooling. For example, Spaull (2015) raises the concern that learners from affluent socio-economic environment usually receive high quality education as their parents can afford to enrol them in schools that are expensive and offer high quality education. In contrast, the parents of learners from poor socio-economic settings enrol them in schools where low quality education seems to prevail. Spaull refers to the latter phenomenon as 'a poverty trap'. This view was corroborated by the findings it was revealed that learners from more affluent communities usually learn a FAL with ease as they have access to different resources to facilitate their FAL learning. However, learners with a low socio-economic status struggle to learn simple concepts in a FAL as their parents fail to provide different learning resources at home. The findings also revealed that learners from poor or deprived socio-economic backgrounds receive minimal exposure to environmental print, which deprives of opportunities to learn a FAL rapidly.

8.3.2.2 Language diversity

Language diversity is regarded as one of the dimensions of learners' biographies. The findings revealed that learners in one classroom can have multiple home languages. Nonetheless, the teacher teaches only one FAL irrespective of the learners' language backgrounds.

8.3.2.3 Insufficient teaching and learning resources

It was evident that some learning spaces were not conducive to learning as they were found to be negatively impacted by insufficient teaching and learning resources. However, the teaching of a FAL has to proceed regardless of contextual factors that hinder the process. In this study, it was found that some learners came from backgrounds where the learning of a FAL only occurred in the classroom only. These learners' experiences added to the feeling of dispossession that permeated the FAL classrooms they were wrongly labelled as academic incompetent.

8.3.2.4 Foreign language learning

Generally, most FP learners who are exposed to a FAL experience it as a foreign language, they usually come into contact with the language only at school during lesson periods. This increases the challenges that they face as they cannot relate to the language from a basis of social interaction. It is imperative to note that the findings revealed that learners from deprived

contexts experienced a feeling of alienation from the FAL, whereas their urban counterparts were more familiar with the target language due to both incidental and social interactions.

8.3.2.5 Lack of a second site of learning

Limited second site of learning was found to be a key barrier to the acquisition of the FAL. A second site of learning simply refers to sites of learning other than the classroom such as home, library or learning hubs in local communities (Hugo, 2016). Second sites of learning often miraculously alleviate the challenges that learners experience in acquiring FAL skills. The reason is that learners receive extended exposure to the target language instead of being dependent on a teacher for instruction at school.

Figure 8.2 typifies learner biographies as waves. The waves of the sea resemble different learner biographies that they bring with them to school and into their foundation phase classrooms where they are predominantly exposed to the FAL. The metaphor suggests that FAL teachers 'wash' over their learners in order to teach them a FAL. If the learners are unable to 'surf' these waves by using extended and prior skills that they learnt, their surfing experience becomes enjoyable and they become increasingly competent with every wave that they ride. However, if their basic 'surfing' skills are incomplete, these waves tend to overwhelm and drown them before they are able to learn to swim.

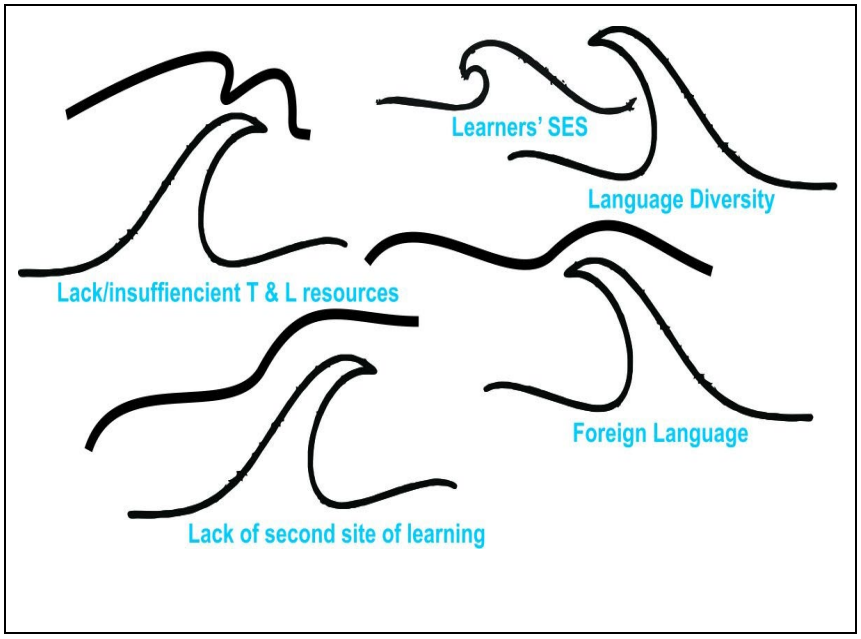

Figure 8.2: Learners' biographies support or threaten their ability to 'ride' the waves of FAL acquisition

Source: Author

8.3.3 The emergence of the conceptual model: The conceptual model of biographical tides

The conceptual model transpired as a result of merging the lighthouse (teacher) and the waves (learner biographies) conceptions. It became evident that the teaching of a FAL requires teachers who will stand firm irrespective of their learners' different biographies. Clearly, learners' diverse backgrounds and contexts impacted their ability in diverse pedagogical contexts to learn and immerse themselves in a FAL.

My deliberations on the existence of different geographical contexts and their attributes in impacting FAL learning, as well as their relevance to the theoretical constructs of the theory of biographical tides gave further impetus and direction to the study. The graphic presentation in Figure 8.3 illustrates that teachers need to stand firm in providing learners with pedagogical content knowledge. Whether they stand in important or dangerous locations, teachers need to provide navigational aid to all their learners in the same way, as a typical lighthouse does. The beacon on top has to be brightly illuminating for all learners, irrespective of their backgrounds. Although different contexts are associated with different context related challenges, teachers

need to devise and adopt creative strategies in order to withstand the challenges that threaten to crumble their firm foothold. Therefore, regardless of spatial variations, their pedagogical practices should be aligned with constructive FAL teaching practice.

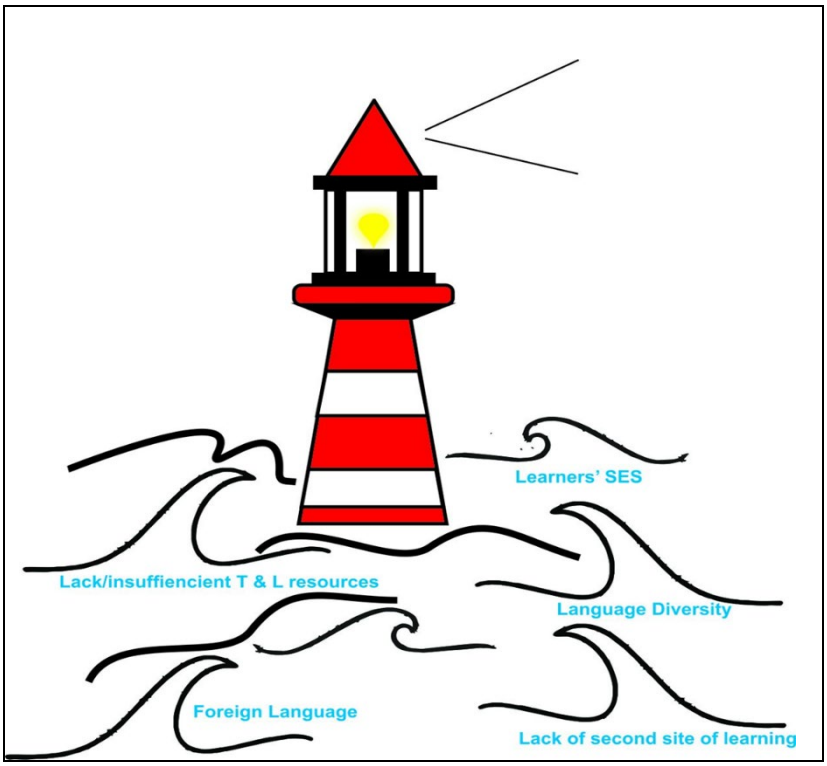

Figure 8.3: The graphic representation of conceptual model: The conceptual model of biographical tides

Source: Author

8.4 Conclusion

I consider this chapter the cornerstone of my study because it illuminates the emergence of my newly developed conceptual model from the basis of various other theoretical constructs. The emerging conceptual model elucidates the significance of the teacher as a beacon of hope among learners' various biographies. It is argued that each learner has a unique biography and that, collectively, these diverse biographies impact the process of the teaching and learning of a FAL in a variety of contexts in different ways. Five main learner biographies were mentioned. The most critical was the diverse socio-economic status of learners' home environments. This biography was regarded as the main indicator of the quality of education that learners will

receive in any given context. The findings revealed that learners from affluent socio-economic status usually receive high quality education as their parents can afford this. Conversely, learners from low socio-economic status receive low quality education which makes them victims of poverty trap. However, regardless of learners' socio-economic conditions, the teacher has to stand as a beacon of hope and teach them equally. The other learner biographies mentioned and discussed were learners' language diversity, foreign language learning, a lack of second site of learning, and lastly, a lack of or insufficient teaching and learning resources at home.

The first and second levels of data presentation and analysis were presented in Chapters seven and eight where the findings were presented and analysed. This chapter consolidated the findings in order to propose the newly developed conceptual model as mentioned above.

The next chapter marks the culmination of my study. There will be a flash back to the overarching aim of the study and it will respond to the three research questions that regulated the study. Recommendations and a call for further explorations of the phenomena under investigation will be presented.

CHAPTER NINE

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the discussion of the key findings in relation to the theoretical underpinnings of this study. Bernstein's theory of pedagogic practice and Bourdieu's social topography which is the construct of his field theory, framed the findings. The development of this chapter emanates from the key findings that emerged from the data that were presented and analysed in Chapter six and Chapter seven of this study.

The presentation of the key findings is regulated by the responses to the three key research questions that elicited credible, truthful and appropriate data for this study. In essence, all the research questions crafted for this study assisted me in drawing conclusions based on the new insights that will contribute to the already existing body of knowledge about the teaching of FAL in foundation phase classrooms. The discussion of the key findings that was presented in the previous chapter assisted me in strengthening the conclusions that I was able to draw.

My extensive engagements in developing this research study enabled me to represent my thesis in a graphic model that illuminates the theoretical constructs of biographical tides. The model demonstrates how a teacher is required to stand as a beacon of hope in diverse foundation phase environments (See figure 8.3 in Chapter 8). I clarify unconditionally that the sampled teachers have to withstand the challenges that jeopardise the teaching of FALs in their FP classrooms regardless of the geographical differences among schools of various categories. The model further represents learners' biographies and their impact on learning a FAL as mandated by CAPS in the South African basic education system. These biographies incorporate learners' socio-economic backgrounds, language diversity, a lack of or insufficient teaching and learning resources, FAL being foreign language that learners cannot relate to in their social lives, and the absence of second site of learning for many learners from less advantaged backgrounds. As part of the culmination of my study, I must remind the reader of its significant features. First, the purpose of this study was to explore how school categorisation in terms of geographical location (urban/semi-urban/rural) influenced the choice of which FAL would be taught in the

FP of the school., how the FAL was taught and reasons for these methodological choices. To serve as a point of departure, I had to initially understand the FP participants' conceptualisation of FAL teaching. I therefore, used a multi-case study (MCS) approach. Bengtsson (1999) believes that there are two types of replica, namely lateral replica and theoretical replica. Because one of the intentions of conducting this study was to evaluate and compare each case in its totality with the others, I had to adopt a theoretical replication approach, which assisted me in comparing different landscapes where the findings were assumed to produce outcomes that were contradictory. By employing theoretical replication, I was required to analyse and compare each case in totality by using saturated data before I could make any significant conclusions.

Because this was a qualitative research study, the data were textual and no numerical data were involved. The adoption of triangulation as a multi-dimensional strategy of data production contributed immensely to the illumination of the data. As a matter of fact, using semi-structured interviews, transect walk, structured observations, post observation interviews and document analysis assisted me to elicit credible, trustworthy, dependable data. Moreover, the use of constant specifications in purposively sampling the participants assisted me in selecting participants who possessed first-hand experience of teaching a FAL in the FP. The inclusion criteria required that the participants had to be foundation phase specialists who were teaching a FAL at the time of the study. Moreover, each had to be teaching in a different geographical context, namely urban, semi-urban (township) and rural. I also required a foundation phase or junior primary qualification a minimum requirement for their inclusion.

Since my study's focus was on the two phenomena, namely FALs teaching in a geographical context, I underpinned my study with Bernstein's theory of pedagogic practices (1977) and Bourdieu's social topography as the theoretical constructs of his field theory (1985). My choice was driven by the fact that teacher knowledge and the implementation of pedagogic practices are mostly influenced by the contexts in which teachers function. Social space is therefore decisive in terms of how teachers teach a FAL in their classrooms. In concurrence with this notion, Allayar and Nazari (2012) articulate that context plays a part in determining what the teachers say, and what they say plays a part in determining the context. The chosen theoretical framework assisted in shedding light on the dualistic model of education that is offered in South Africa. The theories also assisted in elucidating the fact that pedagogical practices in different

geographically located schools are different. These differences are often caused and maintained by differences in the nature and standard of the facilities that are available and provided to schools. The availability of resources and schools' ability to utilise these resources sustainably also determine how teaching and learning engagements will take place, as learners' socio-economic status, language diversity, safety within the school, and financial support also impact the educational potential of a school. In essence, South Africa has a 'two-world' schooling system (Spaull, 2015) that favours some and disadvantages many.

The multiple dimensions of literature that were reviewed for the purpose of developing this research study revealed diverse realities in the South African education system. In light of the milieu of this study, I allude to these realities in the context of each phenomenon that was positioned under the lens. In the first instance, the literature revealed that teaching a FAL is complex. This complexity is exacerbated by a number of issues such as the fact that the teaching of a FAL often occurs only in the classroom where subject-related concepts are learnt. As a result, learners are unable to relate to the target language as it is a foreign language in their social communication with their peers, siblings and parents. Secondly, the findings revealed that the manner in which FP teachers teach a FAL relies heavily on the attitude they have towards teaching the language. FAL teachers' attitude is predominantly based on the favourable or unfavourable conditions under which they work, their knowledge or lack of knowledge about how to apply alternative strategies that will alleviate the challenges related to the teaching of the FALs and the availability or lack of resources that will enhance and support a culture of learning and teaching. If these elements are available, they reciprocally allow learners to develop positive attitudes towards learning if they are engaged in learning situations that spur them to desire to learn their FAL.

On the other hand, school categorisation according to geographical contexts is a significant deterministic factor in the effective teaching of a FAL in a school. The literature reveals that schools are categorised geographically as rural, urban and semi-urban. In general, rural and semi-urban schools are deemed underprivileged schools with minimal facilities and, in some instances, no facilities at all. Conversely, urban schools are deemed advantaged as they have many resources that promote and support the effective teaching and learning of a FAL. However, is unfortunate that highly resourced schools come at a price (Lemon, 2004; Spaull,

2015) and parents who cannot afford to enrol their children in any of these schools are compelled to take them to less resourced and cheaper schools that tend to offer lower quality education. As a result, "intergenerational poverty will persist, as poorly resourced schools do not sufficiently equip learners with the knowledge and skills required to access the world of work and/or tertiary education" (Pienaar & McKay, 2014, p. 108). It was also revealed that the infrastructure in these categories of schools is grossly dissimilar regardless of this country's democratic government that promotes the agenda of equal access to education. It is thus reiterated that the type of education that learners receive in these diverse schools, reinforces social inequality and marginalisation.

It was imperative to understand that each of the three contexts that comprised the study sites was unique and different from the others and that they would be best understood and interpreted by their respective inhabitants. Bearing this notion in mind, context data analysis was adopted to analyse the data that had been generated by means of multiple data generation tools. Context data analysis (Wahyuni, 2012) is used to analyse the natural settings of any environment. Thus the FP teachers' experiences of the FALs they taught were interpreted in relation to the contexts of which they were inhabitants and their interpretations were received through multiple data generation techniques. Clearly, the teachers' perceptions revealed that teaching in their respective geographical contexts generated diverse experiences and the application of different pedagogical practices that were relevant to each context.

The second data analysis technique that was employed was content analysis. This form of analysis was considered useful as I was able to analyse written, verbal and visual documents that generated appropriate data. It allowed for systematic portrayal of the reality through a discovery of meanings that FAL teachers might attach to their practice. Employing these data analysis techniques was considered useful in generating an understanding of teachers' pedagogical practices are that determined by the social spaces or fields.

The revelations that were elucidated gave escalation to a deep understanding of FAL teachers' various encounters and the methodologies that they employed. One of revelations was that the teachers experienced difficulty in pacing their teaching and the learning processes for FAL learners. It seemed that the teachers failed to use the curriculum documents in a manner that would allow correct pacing of FAL teaching and learning. Secondly, the teachers from the rural and semi-rural contexts tended to default to particular method of teaching the FAL, which

deviated from those that are suggested by the curriculum on FAL teaching. Thus, to survive in deprived teaching contexts, these teachers applied their own methods of teaching FAL in order to generate understanding and skills acquisition by their learners. Thirdly, most learners in the two underprivileged contexts were not exposed to the FAL outside the classroom – the so-called second site of learning. It was revealed that their sole encounter with the FAL was in the classrooms as the target language (English) was not spoken at home or used in the areas where they resided.

The following research questions guided my study:

i) What are teachers' conceptualisations of teaching a First Additional Language in the geographical contexts in which they operate?
ii) How do teachers teach the FAL in the FP in the school that is geographically different from others?
iii) Why do teachers use particular methodologies to teach a FAL in the Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others?

9.2 Responses to the Research Questions

This research study aimed to understand whether geographical context impacts the teaching of a FAL in the FP in schools that are geographically diverse. The study therefore had to respond to the three research questions that were deemed significant as drivers of the exploration. Two key concepts, namely first additional language teaching and schools' geographical contexts, were under the lens. Various forms of literature on these key phenomena were reviewed to further illuminate the phenomenon under study.

The data that were presented in Chapter six revealed multiple realities about the teaching of FALs in geographically different schools. Multiple dimensions of FAL teaching in geographically located schools were analysed and discussed in Chapter six and Chapter seven. Chapter eight ensured that the data was framed within the theoretical backdrop that had been selected for this study.

The following section presents the findings in relation to each research question:

9.2.1 Research Question No. 1

What are teachers' conceptualisations of teaching a First Additional Language in the geographical contexts in which they operate?

The study revealed that FP teachers from different geographical contexts had different conceptualisations of FAL teaching and learning as their conceptualisations were largely determined by different experiences and challenges that were encountered on a daily basis in these diverse contexts. The study also realised that many challenges were beyond the teachers' jurisdiction as most of them appeared to be context related.

The fact that good teaching rests on good planning can never be overemphasised (Taylor & Von Fintel, 2016). It was evident that the FP teachers encountered challenges when they planned their FAL lessons. The core driver of these challenges emanated from curriculum expectations that were too high. For example, the CAPS document explicitly presented the required time norms for the teaching of a FAL in order to maximise learners' exposure to the target language. Singh (2010) affirms that learners need to immerse themselves in the target language in order to increase their proficiency in it. This requirement for immersion certainly calls for learners' maximised exposure to the language. If the norm times are not met, it is a clear indication that the efficient teaching of the FAL is questionable.

Another curriculum requirement is that teachers need to develop teaching, learning and assessment plans in the form of well-designed lesson, remedial and assessment plans. These plans should demonstrate how each lesson will be taught, how remedial work will be done where necessary, and how assessment will be conducted. For instance, a lesson plan should indicate which concept is to be taught, which learner support material will be used in that particular lesson, and how these materials will be used to accelerate learners' understanding of the language. Remedial planning on the other hand should depict areas that remediation, how it will be conducted, and who the target learners are. Lastly, planning should also depict how the learning outcomes (medium and short term) will be reached after the FAL lesson has been taught (DoBE, 2011).

It was clear that some teachers, more especially those from the deprived contexts, lacked the knowledge and skills in order to plan using the curriculum documents presented by the DoBE.

This inability to plan appropriately for FAL teaching was aggravated by a lack of capacity building workshops organised by the DoBE and/or role-players. A teacher's knowledge of how to plan for effective teaching depends on the level of training and the qualifications achieved (de Clercq, 2013). The fact that these teachers were all appropriately qualified, yet failed to plan effectively, thus places a question mark over their training experiences.
The reality was that the teachers felt compelled to submit fabricated lesson and assessment plans to their superiors (senior teacher, HOD and/or principal) which depicted the work that was supposed to be done in that term, month or week for monitoring and filing purposes. However, the actual work that they were teaching at the time was not the same as the work in their lesson plans. This indicated a mismatch between what the teachers were actually teaching and the curriculum's expectations.

This finding may have various explanations. One is that teachers feel the need to deviate from the expectations of the curriculum in order to address the real needs of their learners. Teachers, and not the curriculum, know the real needs of learners. Thy thus teach devising methodologies that allow them to face their challenges in an effort to normalise the situation. Essentially, they submit completed and accurate documentation that is required for the teaching and assessment of a FAL but in reality they teach something different.

Another disturbing finding related to this research question was lack of effective literacy skills teaching as a basis of FAL proficiency. Teaching basic FAL literacy skills serves as the cornerstone of learners' acquisition of the language (Hugo, 2016). As mentioned in the previous chapters, basic literacy skills are listening, speaking, reading, phonic, writing and handwriting skills (DBE, 2011). Therefore, this first research question's aim was to understand teachers' conception of teaching FAL basic literacy skills.

It was found that the teacher from the more privileged school tended to ignore the teaching of listening and speaking skills and opted for the teaching of the other basic literacy skills. This was exacerbated by the fact that she seemed to rely heavily on the inputs of second sites language development to capacitate her learners with these skills. The teachers from the more deprived contexts seemed to be unenthusiastic about teaching listening and speaking skills because their learners had limited exposure to the FAL, and thus they failed to express themselves in the target language. The learners thus remained silent during speaking and listening activities, or persisted in speaking their MT. This is corroborated by Campbell and

Walsh (2010), who argue that non-native speakers of a language often feel too inhibited to speak it once they become aware that this language is the major concern of the conversation. This was probably the reason why the teachers engaged learners predominantly in handwriting and writing skills, as such activities demand less conversation. However, it was clear that these learners were not capable of writing proficiently either.

Another finding was that reading and phonic activities were also considered as too demanding as most learners struggled with lexemes, graphemes, phonemic awareness and pronunciation. Hugo (2008) regards learners' failure to read as the most experienced learning barrier across contexts and nationwide. In affirmation, Singh (2010) states that learners' inability to read often wrongly labels them as performing below expectations, whereas learning barrier is acquiring a foreign language have to be held responsible. It was evident that in this study that where learners lacked reading and phonics skills, other basic literacy skills such as writing, language structure and use were also adversely affected.

9.2.2 Research Question No.2

How do teachers teach a First Additional Language in the Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others?

The central focus of this research question was to understand how FP teachers who worked in different contexts taught FAL. The study thus sought to understand which different methodologies teachers adopted in order to maximise learners' exposure to a FAL.

The first objective was to determine how they incorporated the use of resources in their lessons in order to accelerate learners' understanding of different concepts. According to Hugo (2016), resources are regarded as important tools in engaging learners in a lesson in order to capture their attention and fast-track their comprehension. Generally, teachers have to use a wide variety of resources to stimulate learners' active engagement in FAL lessons. However, this was not the case in the rural and township schools. The teacher in the rural schools, in particular, did not have a wide range of resources to stimulate learners' understanding of the FAL she taught. It is argued that this factor is one of the reasons why rural schools remain at the bottom of the bar in terms of language proficiency development. Surty (2011) states that schools in rural contexts are characterised by a number of factors that negatively influence the delivery of quality education. This study found that the school in semi-urban context, although classified as underprivileged, was in a better position in terms of resource provisioning. This

was probably because the DoBE was able to deliver various resources to the schools as LTSM provisioning. However, because of high rates of theft and vandalism in this school, most of those resources were missing. Sadly, the township school's exposure to crime enhanced learners' vulnerability as the teaching and learning of the FAL was negatively affected by thefts and vandalisms. Masitsa (2008) mentions that the theft of teaching and learning resources is a global problem, but that township schools seem to be experiencing such high rate of theft that it has gone beyond control. Masitsa (2008), Mampane and Bouwer (2011) further state that such high rates of theft and vandalism are caused by the fact that not only learners, but members of the community lack a culture of learning. Rather, they have embraced a culture of destruction and vandalism in their own selfish interests.

The school in urban context was able to protect the resources they had procured by ensuring that a high level of security was maintained. Security guards and electronic devices, such as cameras and an intercom system, were utilised as the school could raise sufficient school fees from fee-paying parents of all races to procure these devices which are not supplied by the DoBE.

The above finding suggests that tensions may exist between disadvantaged schools and the DoBE, as teachers from urban contexts are able to ensure the safe-keeping of resources whereas, teachers in semi-urban contexts have to protect the little they have from vandalism. This tension may be exacerbated by the marginalisation of schools located in rural contexts that have no resources to protect or secure because minimal resources are delivered to these schools and, in some instances, the resources that do get delivered are not relevant to the teaching of all FAL concepts. The DoBE seems to blame the rurality of schools as a reason for its failure to deliver the resources, as roads are often impassable and in a poor condition.

Whatever the reason, the availability or lack of suitable resources was shown to be a main indicator of the effective teaching or not of a FAL. When using appropriate resources, learners' interest and comprehension are stimulated. Their skills acquisition is thus enhanced through the reinforcement of concepts in a non-boring, interesting and engaging manner. In essence, the availability of resources serves as a directive to guide teachers towards effective FAL teaching in their classrooms.

The findings also revealed that, due to a lack of teaching and learning resources in some contexts, the application of recommended teaching techniques proved to be futile. It was revealed that, in the disadvantaged contexts, where learners did not receive any exposure to the FAL other than in the classroom, some teaching methodologies were difficult to apply. For example, in instances where the teachers needed to activate and build on learners' HL to teach different concepts, they tended to use a particular method of teaching that would make the learners understand what was being taught without any extensive engagements in distinguishing between what learners already knew and did not know. Vygotsky (1978) refers to this field of prior knowledge as the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) which serves as a vital element in denoting what needs to be taught and how much time can be spent on teaching a particular concept. Furthermore, the ZPD allows teachers to understand and select suitable methods of teaching a FAL that contribute to learners' knowledge acquisition.

The findings revealed that the teachers in all three contexts consistently used codeswitching. This showed that the essence of the teaching of different concepts was often flawed. It was also patent that teachers were still adopting a traditionalist method of teaching in that they adopted teacher-centred approach as which enabled them to control what the learners should be taught and ultimately know. The teacher-centred approach has long been discouraged by the DoBE as it deprives learners from embracing their own learning. Moreover, repetitive teaching rather than reinforcement was discovered to be one of the drawbacks of teaching a FAL in the deprived contexts. This was used because learners were often absent from school due to a number of reasons such as municipal strikes, collecting social grants from the collection centres or simply staying away from school because of a lack of learning culture. To accommodate these tardy learners, the teachers tended to repeat what they had already taught, which was obviously boring and not stimulating for those diligent learners who attended school regularly.

9.2.3 Research Question No.3

Why do teachers use particular methodologies to teach a First Additional Language in the Foundation Phase in a school that is geographically different from others?

The main aim of this question was to understand why FP teachers taught the target FAL the way the way they did – i.e. I needed to determine if the context had anything to do with the methodology for FAL teaching. The data revealed that different mechanisms were used by the teachers in the different schools, thus geographical context compelled teachers to teach in a certain way.

It was found that the teachers sometimes opted for teaching methods that served as a quick fix for the challenges that the learners faced when exposed to a FAL It was mainly because the teachers perceived the curriculum expectations as too high for their learners' capabilities that such quick fix methods were used to assist them in completing the work programme for that particular grade. Default methods of teaching are teacher-specific and often context relative. It was patent that of default methods were employed predominantly in the deprived contexts. These default methods were not depicted in the teachers' lesson plans, became evident through my observation and document analysis engagements. Different mechanisms such as learners' different biographies, contextual variations, and a lack of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge may be explained as the variables that contributed to their choice of default teaching methods.

It was also revealed that the schools in the deprived contexts experienced difficulties in ensuring the maximum exposure of learners to the selected FAL. The underlying cause for this was found to be a lack of environmental print in the form of billboards, food packaging, television and other educational engagements that are required in the acquisition of a FAL. The learners in the rural area were exposed to very minimal environmental print. Because I was also informed of a lack of or minimal parental involvement in this area, I argue that the pace at which the learners learnt the language was negatively impacted. For this reason, teachers' ability to adopt and utilise innovative teaching techniques was seriously impeded.

Spaull (2015) maintains that learners in deprived contexts receive low quality education as a result of the unavailability of resources and facilities that promote knowledge production and enthusiasm. Consequently, teachers in deprived contexts have developed a 'do-what-I-can' attitude towards the teaching of FALs, whereas their advantaged counterparts are exposed to many facilities that enable them to explore different methods of teaching a FAL. For instance, the availability of different electronic resources such as video machines, television and, smartboards afford them many opportunities to teach FAL concepts effectively.

9.3 Significance of the Study

The study employed a multi-case study approach that was conducted in three different geographically located public primary schools in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. The three geographical contexts were rural, semi-urban (township) and urban. FP teaching of a FAL was put under the lens. The findings of the study will contribute to the existing body of knowledge related to the teaching of FALs in the FP as per the CAPS mandate. It is further envisaged that the study will contribute to debates on the influence of spatial variations on teachers' pedagogic practices. Lastly, it will contribute to the teaching of FALs in different geographical contexts and may serve to alleviate tensions and challenges that exist in differentiated learning in the FP.

The theoretical constructs that devolved from the theoretical lens to the key findings were employed as a contribution towards other empirical studies that had been conducted globally on FAL teaching in the FP. The study thus built on previous empirical studies in order to map and compare the influence of geographical contexts on the teaching of FALs in the FP. Various recommendations regarding the teaching of a FAL in different geographical contexts are offered as a means of drawing policy-makers, policy-deliverers, parents and other stakeholders' attention. The study revealed that an extended focus by all relevant stakeholders is required in order to ensure that the teaching of FALs takes place effectively, especially in the FP where the introduction of FALs occurs.

9.3.1 Equitable allocation and distribution of resources

There is undeniable evidence that schools in South Africa receive differentiated allocation of resources and other teaching facilities. A wide range of literature that was reviewed and the data that were produced showed that educational provisioning in South African public primary schools is not standardised (Adato et al*.,* 2007; Nkomo et al., 2009; Christie, 2012; Pienaar & McKay, 2014; Spaull, 2015). Clearly the allocation of resources (human, financial, teaching and learning) is determined by the context in which a school is located. Some scholars argue that these deterministic factors include socio-cultural, socio-economic, ethnic and political conditions in the vicinity of the school (Medina & Arcila, 2013). In the post-apartheid era (i.e., after 1994) the DoE, later the DoBE, designed the quintile system which is aimed at addressing the inequalities of the past. However, by categorising schools according to the quintile system

the differences that exist in schools are somehow perpetuated. In support of this realisation, Ntshoe (2009) asserts that the classification of schools according to quintiles has proven to be futile as schools within the same neighbourhood could receive differentiated allocations of resources as they are classified under different quintiles. It is therefore necessary to briefly discuss the elements that determine the necessity of presenting the allocation and distribution of resources.

9.3.1.1 Human resources

The term 'human resources' in this context is used to refer to FP teachers, parents and guardians.

It was observed that the sampled teachers in marginalised contexts did not know how to effectively teach FAL in the FP. It is therefore recommended that the DoBE ensures that monitored workshops and seminars occur more regularly to enhance teachers' training in terms of FAL teaching skills. Regular and focused training sessions will contribute greatly to teachers' pedagogic content knowledge (PCK) and will build their skills in applying different techniques when teaching a FAL. These monitored workshops should also capacitate teachers with knowledge of how to design FAL learning programmes that are sensitive to their learners' diverse needs and responsive to their contexts (Morrow, 2007).

It is also recommended that the DoBE devises means for the equitable allocation and distribution of suitably qualified FAL teachers to all schools, irrespective of their contexts. In affirmation of this proposal, Surty (2011) asserts that most teachers are attracted to working conditions that are favourable and professional friendly. If the DoBE ensures that teachers in underprivileged contexts also receive appropriate facilities such as those that exist in privileged contexts, the challenges faced by these teachers will be curbed. Possibilities for transformation exist, if only the DoBE and different stakeholders would collectively address this challenge. This recommendation addresses the many differences that exist across contexts, because the collaboration of all stakeholders will ensure appropriate provisioning in all schools that will in turn attract suitably qualified teachers who are motivated to all geographical contexts.

It was revealed that parents and guardians are important agents in the promotion of learners' acquisition of a FAL as they should assist their children with their homework. Parents and

guardians therefore need to close the gap between school and home experiences (DoBE, 2017). However, it was clear that parents in underprivileged contexts were not involved in assisting their children to learn a FAL, whereas those in the more privileged context were supportive by procuring FAL resources that elevated the learning of the FAL in the home. Moreover, they reportedly reserved time for assisting their children with their homework. The lack of similar encounters in the underprivileged contexts was reportedly related to the fact that some parents were illiterate whilst others worked long hours and arrived home late when their children were already asleep. It was also reported that some parents were teenagers who also had to attend to their school work.

In light of these findings, it is recommended that parents across geographical contexts be equipped with knowledge of how to assist their children with school, that they are informed of importance of learning at school as well as at home, and that they are made aware that they play an important role in bridging the gap between home and school.

9.3.1.2 Financial resources

Financial resources determine the functioning and infrastructure of a school (Christie et al*.,* 2007). It was witnessed that when a school was in possession of adequate financial resources, resources for academic support became more available, and vice versa. The study revealed that the schools in the different geographical contexts had access to different financial resources. In the advantaged contexts the school had significant access additional funds that were generated by high school fees that were paid by the parents of all race groups. This placed this school in an advantaged position in term of infrastructure, staff provisioning, the availability of technology, and sport facilities. However, in the underprivileged school low financial resources coupled with the presumed mismanagement of resources and LTSM procurement strategies placed them at a disadvantage. In affirmation, Adato et al. (2007) states that it is very unfortunate that South Africa is regarded worldwide a developing country with one of the highest rates of measured inequality.

Unfortunately, inequalities seem to affect the education system's functionality, which is further exacerbated by the quintile categorisation of schools. (Spaull, 2017; Hall & Gieses, 2008).

The quintile system that was incorporated to support and subsidise low performing and struggling schools seems to be ineffective, as funds simply do not reach these schools or, if they do, may be mismanaged or misappropriated. However, there is evidence that some of these schools were wrongly categorised while others did not receive the resources that they should

have received tantamount to their quintile ranking. Almost ten years ago, Ntshoe (2009) reasoned that there was a need to devise mechanisms that would address the unjust categorisation of schools according to quintiles. According to Collingridge (2013),

> "Learners in 1, 2 and 3 [quintile ranked schools] got a much bigger subsidy from the government (of R1 010 this year - 2013) compared with learners in quintile 4 schools who got an average half of that (R505 in 2013) and learners in quintile 5 who got roughly only 10% of that (R174 in 2013). Quintile 4 and 5 schools were expected to supplement their state allocation through the charging of school fees and fund-raising" (p. 1).

With reference to Collingridge's information, the question may be posed: How was the R1 010 per learner in 2013 (which was obviously increased in subsequent years) appropriated to support teaching and learning in poorest of the schools, as this money did not include the salaries of teachers? In the context of the information revealed by this study regarding the nebulous expenditure of funds provided by the government to low-ranking schools, the study recommends that education personnel physically visit these disadvantaged schools for an availability of infrastructure assessment in order to ensure that proper provisioning of various resources is effected accordingly. It also recommend that underprivileged schools become the DoBE's first priority in ensuring effective functioning and promotion of FAL teaching and learning through ensuring that all learning spaces are conducive to the learning of the selected FAL, and that funds are appropriately allocated by school management teams for this purpose.

9.3.1.3 Teaching and learning resources

Lenyai (2013) points out that for any effective teaching of FAL to occur, there is a significant need for teaching and learning resources that are age, phase and language development appropriate in order to maximise the teaching of a FAL. Teaching and learning resources are an integral part of every classroom, and therefore this need can never be overemphasised.

It emerged from the study that the provisioning of various teaching and learning resources was different across the three geographical contexts. It was shown that various factors contributed to the differentiated provisioning of teaching and learning resources. The fundamental factor is that it appeared as if the DoBE neglected the provisioning FAL teaching and learning resources to the schools that were located in rural and township contexts compared to their support of other schools. However, the Draft National Policy for the provisioning and

management of learning and teaching support material (2014, p. 1) clearly stipulates that LTSM provisioning is meant for all learners and for all teachers:

> "The policy ensures production and selection of quality LTSM, and makes such available to all learners in public schools. Every learner and teacher must have access to the minimum set of core materials."

Therefore, to ensure that LTSMs reach disadvantaged schools, the policy makes provision for a centralised and decentralised procurement system. Clearly, all schools are compelled to order LTSM. Observations showed, however, that the 'recording and safe keeping" requirements were non-existent at the disadvantaged schools. The Policy (2014, p. 1) states:

> "For recording and safe keeping: - When LTSM is delivered to the school, titles and quantities must be entered into school's textbook inventory. The books must be stamped and given a unique number. All LTSM must be kept safely in a storeroom whilst not in use."

It is a travesty that the DoBE has never assured that remote and disadvantaged schools are supported in complying with this requirement by the Policy. Moreover, it appears that it is not the fact that some schools function in advantaged and privileged conditions that cause division in the educational outcomes of learners, but the fact that authorities fail to focus on their mandate to apply the available financial resources to support and uplift these schools to achieve the potential of their learners.

Spaull (2015) voices the concern that inequalities in educational outcomes between wealthy learners and poorer learners are already large and firmly entrenched as a result of the unequal provisioning of facilities. In endorsement of what the study found about the availability of teaching and learning resources, Van der Berg (2008) asserts that it is very unfortunate that poor schools have poor teaching and learning resources as this makes learning extremely difficult.

The study thus recommends the eradication of "two-world schools" as they exist within one country, as hypothesised by Spaull (2012). This process should not promote the destruction of highly functioning schools in the country as is advocated by the voices of certain political factions; rather, existing policies and strategies should collaborate to uplift those in need by

emulating the high level of managerial skills that ensure the sustainability of numerous well-functioning schools, rich or poor, in the country.

The study thus recommends that the provisioning of teaching and learning resources be identically managed across contexts and that their safekeeping be assured. It became an obvious fact that some schools in underprivileged contexts do not have electricity, yet most technological resources require electricity in order to operate. The study suggests that the South African government should prioritise electrification projects to underprivileged contexts in order to ensure the provision of equal education for all its citizens, as is mentioned in the Country Progress Report (DoBE, 2013). In essence, it is imperative to consider that learners' performance is strongly influenced by the context that they come from (Christie et al., 2007).

9.3.2 The call for the establishment of accommodative FAL policies

Since the transformation of the South African education system in 1994, numerous policies have been advocated and implemented in order to address the inequalities that existed during the apartheid era - before 1994 (Fitzpatrick, 2014). However, various policies are not accommodative of the different contexts that impact education. In fact, many 'one-size-fits-all' policies, such as CAPS, indirectly and directly contribute to the differences that persist in the South African education system (Van der Berg, 2008). I also realised that the FAL curriculum policy in particular, is not accommodative of learners' different biographies and, geographical zonings, nor of the availability of various resources in schools and teachers' knowledge.

The study therefore proposes that the South African curriculum policy be reviewed to render it accommodative to the different contexts in which schools are located. For example, I noted that common assessment activities for all learners (i.e., the Annual National Assessment [ANA] initiatives), were similar for all learners across geographical contexts. It is no wonder that this initiative was strongly contested by teachers as learners from rural contexts were more adversely affected by contextual circumstances than their counterparts in advantaged contexts, who also did not escape the injustices and controversies that accompanied this assessment project. I therefore strongly support the idea that because learners in rural contexts are marginalised, the expectation of FAL curriculum policy ought not to be lowered in some instances. For example, extended time should be allocated to the FP for FAL acquisition because it is only the classroom that they are exposed to the target language.

I also strongly propose that learners in disadvantaged contexts, where they are hardly exposed to any environmental print, a second site of learning or parental involvement, be allowed to use the FAL as a subject from Grade 1 to Grade 4, and that the FAL be transformed to LoLT only when they are in Grade 5. This proposal is grounded on the fact that such learners should be given extended opportunities to build and strengthen their FAL proficiency for four years instead of three, as stipulated in CAPS. This will allow these learners sufficient time to strengthen their proficiency in the HL as the study has shown that learners are introduced to a FAL whilst they are still struggling with their HL mastery.

Should the above recommendation not be feasible, I recommend that the FAL policy makes provision for compulsory collaboration of teachers of the FP exit point (Grade 3) and the receiving intermediate phase teachers (Grade 4) to discuss learners' progress in the FAL and to share ideas on how the Grade 3 teacher can prepare the learners for transitioning to Grade 4. According to Pretorius (2014), this is a very crucial stage when extensive support is required by all role players. Such will be feasible if teachers receive sufficient training that will ultimately result in knowledge development. Such comprehensive knowledge will assist teachers in understanding *what* needs to be taught and *how* it should be taught. As mentioned in previous chapters, Bernstein (2003) maintains that there are two modes that underpin pedagogic practices, namely regulative discourse (RD) that regulates '*how'* knowledge is transmitted, and instructional discourse (ID) that regulates '*what'* teachers should teach.

9.4 Conclusion

In summary, this qualitative multi-case study which adopted a theoretical replica yielded significant and further exploration of facts about the teaching of first additional languages in FP classrooms in schools that were located in geographically different areas. This concluding section of the study marks the culmination of the intensive journey that I embarked on in my efforts to understand and illuminate the topic under the exploration. The exploration of FAL teaching was conducted in a rural, semi-urban and urban contexts respectively. The semi-urban context is affectionately known as 'township' in South Africa. Significant findings were generated that will assist in addressing vital issues related to the teaching of a FAL in the FP classrooms. Some insightful findings call for further investigations across a wider scope and in areas that could only be peripherally illuminated in this study. One such finding pertains to the procurement and management of LTSM and the policy that guides this provisioning to schools,

because the availability of these resources is vital for effective teaching of a FAL, regardless of the context.

The study envisaged spatial variation as the cornerstone of all learning. Therefore, I recommend that further studies be conducted on the influence of spatial variation on pedagogical practices. It is reasonable to argue that the school community is obligated to uplift its education standards; however, it is a known fact that context particularly in traditional and poor societies, elicits resistance to transformation. However, it can never be denied that a particular context determines its occupants' performance and competence.

The different themes that emerged from the study served to enlighten my reflections on how teachers teach a FAL in geographically different schools. In view of these themes, it became evident that the various dimensions involved in each context contributed greatly to how teachers executed their pedagogical practices. It was clearly demonstrated that the teaching of a FAL is not only influenced by the school's context per se, but by other contextual factors that come into force as well. Learners' biographies were determined as one of the most important factors that contribute to FAL learning and teaching. As a matter of fact, further studies should be conducted to address the proposed model of learners' biographies comprehensively and to establish the influence these biographies have on FAL acquisition. Accommodative policies also emerged as a dimension that should contribute towards the effective teaching and learning of a FAL. I acknowledge that many national policies have been advocated to address issues related to inequality in education; however, the fact remains that policy implementers (normally teachers) are flooded with policies that are not context sensitive. National policies tend to approach reality from a 'one-size-fits-all' perspective, which is a travesty of the need to recognise diversity, particularly in the context of the education of young children. I therefore propose that further research be conducted in this regard. It is strongly suggested that further studies explore the impact of policies, more especially curriculum policies, on the teaching of a FAL in the FP.

While the study design and methodology increasingly illuminated the significance of the study as I progressed, the two theoretical lenses that underpinned this exploration assisted me in developing a sense of understanding, and therefore of ownership, of the phenomena that were elucidated. Bernstein's theory of pedagogic practice (1977) and Bourdieu's social topography (1985) construct from his field theory provided not only a lens, but a magnifying glass that

validated this study as a reliable discourse that will contribute significantly to scholarly debate on and investigations into FAL teaching. However, other correlated theories such as Shulman's teacher knowledge theory (1986), Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (1978) and Cummins' theory of second language acquisition (1976) played a tremendous role in the development of theoretical underpinnings that gave impetus to the study. The emergence of my own conceptual model and theoretical construct of biographical tides as an overarching contemplation of what is actually occurring in schools was a result of my own investigation coupled with these theoretical underpinnings.

In closing, I must reiterate that the work that FAL teachers do in the FAL under often impossibly difficult conditions and in the face of apparent insurmountable obstacles can only be commended. This study taught me to respect and appreciate their unstinting efforts, and I salute them as the true beacons of light that stand at the beginning of numerous young children's lives.

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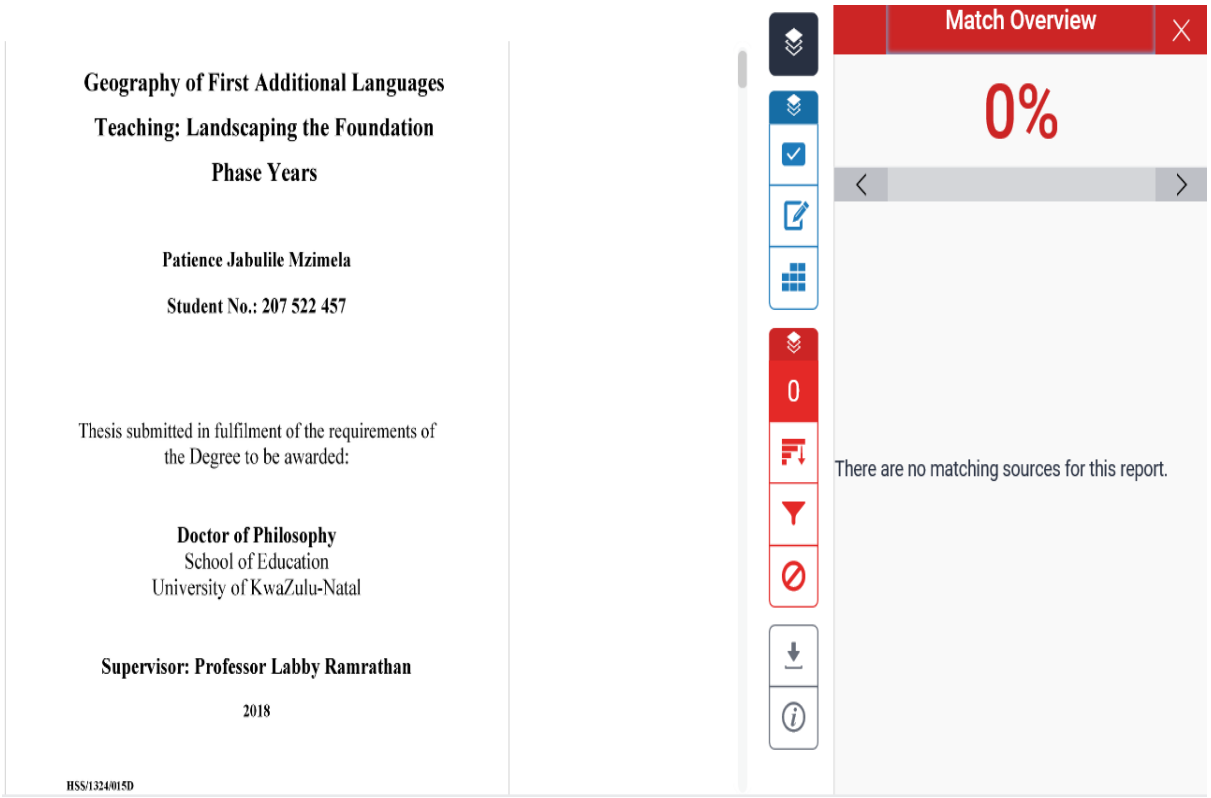
APPENDIX A



Geography of First Additional Languages Teaching: Landscaping the Foundation Phase Years

Patience Jabulile Mzimela

Student No.: 207 522 457

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the Degree to be awarded:

Doctor of Philosophy
School of Education
University of KwaZulu-Natal

Supervisor: Professor Labby Ramrathan

2018

HSS/1324/015D

Match Overview

0%

There are no matching sources for this report.

APPENDIX B

RESEARCH SKILLS DEVELOPMENT SERVICES cc

DECLARATION OF PROOFREADING

CC reg. no CK /16841/23 **Name: N.D. Coertze** Cell: 0833440706 **Postal Address:** **P.O. Box 5432** **Winklespruit, 4145**	**Tax ref. no. 9249/355/20/8** **Residential Address:** **8 Dreyer Street** **Panorama Park** **Illovo Beach**

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I, NICOLINA D. COERTZE, declare that I meticulously perused the thesis manuscript referred to below. I have, to the best of my knowledge, identified typographic, syntactic, idiomatic, spelling, grammar, punctuation, and any additional errors or stylistic discrepancies that may have been missed during the initial editing stage. I noted these discrepancies and made recommendations to the author for their review and correction using the Word tracking system. Where any suggestions were incisive, I advised the author to refer these to her Supervisor for attention and review. I further declare that I have proofread this manuscript in compliance with the general criteria that apply to language editors and that I remained within my brief as agreed by email correspondence with the author at all times.

SURNAME	**Mzimela** **Student No.: 207 522 457**
FULL NAMES	**Patience Jabulile**
PROPOSED QUALIFICATION	**Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)**
DEPARTMENT	**Teacher Development Studies (TDS)**
TERTIARY INSTITUTION	**University of KwaZulu-Natal**
POSTAL ADDRESS	**7 Briscoe Place, Amanzimtoti, 4126**
OFFICE NUMBER	**031-2603807**
EMAIL ADDRESS	**mzimelaj@ukzn.ac.za**
NAME OF SUPERVISOR	**Prof. L. Ramrathan**
REFERENCING STYLE	**APA60**

TITLE (thesis)	**Geography of First Additional Languages Teaching: Landscaping the foundation phases.**

Respectfully submitted on 15 November 2017

[redacted]

N.D. COERTZE
B.A (English and History), THED, B.Ed. (Hons.)

SACE registration number: 1082433
Date of Certification: 17/12/2003

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI YAKWAZULU-NATALI

22 January 2016

Ms Patience Jabulile Mzimela 207522452
School of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Mrs Mzimela

Protocol reference number: HSS/1324/015D
Project title: Geography of First Additional Languages teaching: Landscaping the Foundation Phase years

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 18 September 2015, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL.**

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

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

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

[redacted]

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

Cc Supervisor: Professor L Ramrathan
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor P Morojele
Cc School Administrator: Ms T Khumalo

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)
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APPENDIX D

7 Briscoe Place

Amanzimtoti

4126

18 February 2015

Informed Consent

Dear Research Participant

I hereby write this letter to request your permission to be the participant in my research study that I will conduct in your school. Kindly receive hereof a brief description on how the research will be conducted:

I am a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. One of the requirements for the fulfillment of this degree is to conduct a research and compile a thesis. The topic for my research project: **Geography of First Additional Languages teaching: Landscaping the Foundation Phase years.**

The purpose of this study is to explore how school categorisation through its geography (urban/semi-urban/rural) influences what First Additional Language(s) (FALs) is taught in the Foundation Phase classrooms, how these are taught and what explains what and how these are taught.

This study is aiming to understand different kinds of pedagogies and challenges that you as Foundation Phase teachers encounter as far as the teaching of First Additional Languages as per school's curriculum choices are concerned. This will serve the purpose of informing my practice and knowledge in this area of teaching as a lecturer at the University. Furthermore, this study will afford me, policy makers and other departmental officials the opportunity to understand how First Additional Languages are taught across schools based on their geography.

Data will be collected through the use of semi-structured interviews. This will involve asking you open-ended questions which will be audio-taped, if agreed to by yourself. The interview would be approximately for an hour, and could be split if you desire. It will take place at a time and place more convenient for you and would not disrupt your normal responsibilities as a teacher in your school. Secondly, observations during teaching will be conducted in order to get an understanding of how you teach FAL in your particular context. Details of the observation will be discussed with you prior to the observation taking place. Analysis of documents will be conducted, this includes; your lesson plans, class timetable, school's language policy and assessment strategies you use to assess your learners.

It is important for you as a participant to understand that:

a) Your identity and your school will never be exposed. Pseudonyms will be used when writing this report.

b) If during the research study you feel like withdrawing due to certain circumstances, you are at liberty to do so.

c) In cases where you don't want to answer questions posed, you are free to remain silent.

The information that will be collected will be used for research purposes only.

Kindly receive my contact details as well as my Supervisor's:

Patience Jabulile Mzimela: 073 324 8883/mzimelaj@ukzn.ac.za

Supervisor: Prof. Labby Ramrathan: 031 260 8065/ ramrathanp@ukzn.ac.za

School of Education & Development

Edgewood Campus

University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN)

Yours faithfully

P.J. Mzimela

Student No.: 207 522 452

You can also contact our research office at the following contact process:

P. Mohun

HSSREC Research Office

Tel: 031 260 4557 Email: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

CONSENT FORM

I …… (Name and surname in full), hereby give consent to be the participant on a study based on: **Geography of First Additional Languages teaching: Landscaping the Foundation Phase years.**

I fully understand that I am permitted to withdraw from this project if need arises.

	Willing	**Not Willing**
Audio Equipment		
Photographic Equipment		
Video Equipment		

Signature ……

Date …….

APPENDIX E

No. 7 Briscoe Place

Amanzimtoti

4126

18 February 2015

The Principal

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR A PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL

I hereby write this letter to request the permission to conduct a research study in your school. Kindly receive hereof the details of how the study will be conducted:

I am a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. One of the requirements for the fulfillment of this degree is to conduct a research study and compile a thesis. My dissertation topic is: **Geography of First Additional Languages teaching: Landscaping the Foundation Phase years.**

The purpose of this study is to explore how school categorisation through its geography (urban/semi-urban/rural) influences what First Additional Language(s) (FALs) is taught in the Foundation Phase classrooms, how these are taught and what explains what and how these are taught.

This study is aiming to understand different kinds of pedagogies, encounters and challenges that your Foundation Phase teachers encounter as far as the teaching of First Additional Languages as per school's curriculum choices are concerned. This will serve the purpose of informing my practice and knowledge in this area of teaching as a lecturer at the University. Furthermore, this study will afford me, policy makers and other departmental officials the opportunity to understand how First Additional Languages are taught across schools based on their geography.

Data will be collected through the use of semi-structured interviews. This will involve asking one of your Grade Three teachers teaching a First Additional Language (FAL) open-ended questions which will be audio-taped, if agreed to by the participant. Secondly, observations during teaching will be conducted in order to get an understanding of how the selected teacher teaches FAL in your particular school context. Analysis of documents will be conducted, this includes; lesson plans, class timetable, school's language policy and assessment strategies that are used to assess your learners.

The research activities would not impact on the school operations. Times of interviews and classroom observations will be negotiated with the selected participant.

I solemnly promise that any information that will be provided during this study will remain confidential and that it will only be used for research purposes only.

Kindly receive my contact details as well as my Supervisor's:

Patience Jabulile Mzimela: 073 324 8882/ mzimelaj@ukzn.ac.za

Supervisor: Prof. Labby Ramrathan: 031 260 8065/ ramrathanp@ukzn.ac.za

School of Education & Development

Edgewood Campus

University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN)

You may also contact the Research Office through:

P. Mohun

HSSREC Research Office

Tel: 031 260 4557 Email: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Yours faithfully

P.J. Mzimela (207 522 452)

APPENDIX F

education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Nomangisi Ngubane Tel: 033 392 1004 Ref.:2/4/8/337

Ms PJ Mzimela
No. 7 Briscoe Place
AMANZIMTOTI
4126

Dear Ms Mzimela

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **"GEOGRAPHY OF FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGES TEACHING: LANDSCAPING THE FOUNDATION PHASE YEARS"**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 February 2015 to 01 February 2016.
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 Connie Kehologile 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:

Pinetown District Ilembe District Umlazi District

[redacted]

Nkosinathi S.P. Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education
Date: 05 January 2015

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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