Developing the academic literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans-medium school in the Intermediate Phase

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A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements of the degree Magister Educationis in the Department of Language Education in the Faculty of Education, University of the Western Cape.

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September 2016
Declaration

I declare that Developing the academic literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans-medium school in the Intermediate Phase is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

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Eloise Fortuin September 2016
Acknowledgements

In the journey of completing a thesis, it is easy to feel lonely and overwhelmed. This study and this journey would not have been possible if not for the support and encouragement of the following people.

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Abstract

Developing the academic literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans-medium school in the Intermediate Phase

South Africa in its multilingual state presents many challenges for teachers to achieve the task of developing learners’ academic literacy. Many learners in South Africa either do not have the privilege or access to mother tongue instruction. Thus, in some instances, teachers are faced with the challenge of having to instruct a minority of isiXhosa speaking learners whose mother tongue is different from the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) of the school and the majority of the class. There have been numerous studies that investigate what strategies teachers can use when they share the MT of the learners, such as the use of code-switching. This study looks at teachers who are Afrikaans-speaking and teach in an Afrikaans-medium school, and how they develop the academic literacy of a minority of isiXhosa-speaking learners in Grade 4.

The purpose of the study was:

1) to find out what strategies Afrikaans speaking Grade 4 teachers used to develop the academic literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans medium class in Grade 4;

2) to find out what teachers’ perceptions and attitudes were regarding the teaching of a minority of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans medium class; and

3) to find out what isiXhosa learners’ feelings and attitudes were towards receiving instruction in Afrikaans.
A qualitative approach to data collection was employed through observations of Natural Science lessons, interviews with four Grade 4 teachers, and focus group interviews with 16 isiXhosa-speaking learners over a period of four months.

The findings suggest that teachers were cognizant of the challenges isiXhosa learners faced in an Afrikaans-medium classroom such as having a problem with reading and writing with comprehension, or having difficulty expressing themselves in Afrikaans. However, the teachers did not really employ strategies to help the isiXhosa-speaking learners develop their academic literacy. Instead they made use of “coping strategies” such as peer-to-peer translation. The study concluded that the isiXhosa-speaking learners feel detached from their MT, isiXhosa, and that they would have liked to be able to perform basic literacy tasks such as reading and writing in their MT.

It is recommended that teachers be informed about the relationship between language and learning, and be provided with workshops and training on how to accommodate the isiXhosa-speaking learners in their classrooms with different strategies. It is also recommended that teachers become more cognizant of the affective side of the learners that make them feel more acknowledged in the classrooms.

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Keywords

Academic Literacy

Bilingual education

Intermediate Phase,

Mother Tongue (MT)

Language of learning and teaching (LoLT)

Literacy support strategies
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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning
DBE: Department of Basic Education
ELL: English Language Learner
EMIS: Department of Education Management and Information System
ESL: English Second Language
Ex-DEC: Ex Department of Education and Training
FAL: First Additional Language
GET: General Education and Training
HL: Home Language
LiEP: Language-in-Education-Policy
LoLT: Language of Learning and Teaching
SES: Socio-Economic Status
MT: Mother Tongue
ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Literacy and academic literacy in particular, are essential for academic success. Academic literacy involves higher order and abstract thinking skills and making meaning of concepts as well as subject-specific literacy like scientific or mathematical literacy (Gibbons, 2009; Kaiser, Rynecke & Uys, 2010; Madiba, 2012; van Dyk & van de Poel, 2013; Zwiers, 2008). In South Africa, a heavy task rests on teachers to ensure that learners are academically literate to successfully complete their academic career. One can only assume that in a multilingual classroom, this task might be a bit more challenging, particularly when learners are learning through the medium of a second or third language, e.g. isiXhosa learners learning through the medium of Afrikaans. Cummins (2000a) distinguishes between Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) or “conversational language”, which is an everyday, conversational language proficiency, and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) or “academic language” which is context-reduced language proficiency concerned with formal academic speaking, reading and writing. Teachers assume because learners are orally fluent in terms of BICS that they can cope when learning academic concepts through the medium of that language; however Cummins claimed that while it takes two to three years for second language learners to become fluent in BICS it takes them five to seven years to achieve CALP in the second language. So they might seem able to cope with learning through a second language after two to three years, when they actually need much longer to develop the CALP skills necessary for academic learning. Based on the fact that teachers often fail to make this distinction between BICS and CALP according to Cummins (2000a), it is necessary for teachers to employ certain
strategies to develop the CALP of second language learners. This thesis is therefore concerned with the strategies that Afrikaans-speaking teachers can use to develop the academic literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners when they do not share the same mother tongue. The BICS/ CALP distinction will be elaborated on in Chapter Two.

1.2. Background: outline of the problem

While teaching Grade 4 in a school in the Overberg region, approximately 200km from Cape Town, where the LoLT is Afrikaans and many of the learners come from low socioeconomic backgrounds and working class homes, I experienced that there was a minority of learners in the class who were isiXhosa-speaking. Though some, if not all of these learners were able to speak or converse in Afrikaans with their peers, since they had enough exposure to Afrikaans in the community, they still performed below grade level when it came to formal assessment tasks. It was frustrating to me, and I imagine to those learners as well, because I could see their potential but certain factors such as the work demands for me and the learners, time constraints and lack of support, meant that I was not able to resolve this problem. Therefore, because I did not have the knowledge to understand the reason for the poor performance, or have the necessary skills to resolve it, it has led me to investigate this problem in my research.

1 Mother Tongue (MT) is used to distinguish it from ‘home language’ as used in the curriculum. It is also acknowledged that for many learners, their primary language might not necessarily be learned from their mothers or primary care givers, but MT is used in this thesis to refer to the learners’ primary/ strongest language that they use for communicating at home.
According to Fleisch (2008), the poor performance of learners is most likely not caused solely by the mismatch between mother tongue (MT) and the language of instruction. Learners’ poor performance can either be linked to poverty or low socio-economic status (SES); or the fact that learners have to learn in a second language; or other factors such as lack of resources and poor teaching. However, research evidence shows that SES is one of the strongest predictors of academic success (Fleish, 2008). Children from poor homes tend to be exposed to limited resources materially and linguistically, which could be disadvantageous to literacy and academic achievement. In the case of isiXhosa-speaking learners in this area, they not only have the background of low SES like many of their Afrikaans-speaking peers, but they have the added challenge of learning through a language other than their MT. It should be highlighted that not all the isiXhosa-speaking learners were performing poorly academically and that there were a few who performed very well. It is my assumption, however, that for those learners who were performing poorly, the mismatch between their MT and the LoLT played a big part. Whatever the cause of this is, many of the isiXhosa-speaking learners are falling behind. The fact that there are a lack of isiXhosa speaking teachers in this area, contributes to the problem.

A special service was offered by the school to help these learners, in the form of a Learning Supporter. The Learning Supporter moved between two schools in the particular area where I worked and attended the school two or three days during the week. The Learning Supporter helped these learners in their basic reading and writing skills, such as sounding out basic words such as those learned in Foundation Phase and writing them down. These learners were taken out of the class and supported during a certain part of the day and so missed out on what was happening in the class.
While some of these isiXhosa learners struggled to keep up with their Afrikaans-speaking peers academically, they still progressed to the next grade due to the national policy pertaining to the promotion requirements of the national curriculum of grades R - 12. The policy states that in the General Education and Training (GET) Phase (Grades R-9), “a learner may only be retained once in the phase in order to prevent the learner being retained in a phase for longer than four years” (DBE, 2012, p. 23).

Additionally, in some cases, when isiXhosa-speaking learners reached Grade 7, which is the end of primary school and they had still not shown academic progress, they were sent to a special school in the area. This school catered for learners who were academically challenged or slow. Though this school may cater for cognitively challenged learners, is it necessarily appropriate for second language learners who are just struggling to grasp the language? Will sending them to a special school address their language challenge regarding the content curriculum? Perhaps equipping teachers with the relevant knowledge and strategies on teaching academic literacy to second language learners is a more appropriate response, to address this language issue.

**Language contexts in South African classrooms post 1994**

**The Language-in-Education-Policy**

Prior to 1994, English and Afrikaans were the only official languages. African languages, on the other hand, were unofficial and had little recognition in policies in South Africa. The Apartheid government denied Africans and ‘coloureds’ equal status in areas such as the labour market and
schooling. Before 1976, African learners were supposed to receive mother-tongue instruction for the first eight years of schooling, after which they were supposed to receive instruction in English or Afrikaans. This changed after 1976 due to the student uprising that was triggered by proposed changes to the school language policy in African schools. The proposed change that sparked off the protests was that from Grade 8, learners should learn half their subjects through English and half through Afrikaans. As a result of the student uprising the apartheid government backed down and English was restored as the sole medium of instruction from Grade 5, after an initial period of MT medium of instruction. After 1994, when South Africa was declared a democratic country, nine African languages were also declared official (Republic of South Africa, 1996).

The Language-in-Education-Policy (LiEP) (DoE, 1997) which was adopted after 1994 when South Africa was declared a democratic country had to symbolize the new democracy (Madiba, 2012; Moyo, 2001; O’Connor & Geiger, 2009; Tshotsho, 2013). The new Language-in-Education-Policy “recognizes that the country’s cultural diversity is a valuable national asset and therefore, needs to promote multilingualism, the development of official languages, and respect for all languages used in the country” (DoE, 1997, p. 1). Some of the aims of the policy include: “to promote full participation in society and the economy through equitable and meaningful access to education; to pursue the language policy most supportive of general conceptual growth amongst learners, and thus to establish additive multilingualism as an approach to language in education (DoE, 1997, p. 2).

The policy states that the right to choose the language of learning and teaching is vested in the individual and that the parent exercises the language choice on behalf of the minor learner. This
right is qualified by the consideration of reasonable practicability, which can occur when 40 learners in a particular grade in a primary school, or 35 learners in a particular grade in secondary school, demand to be taught in their mother tongue. Where a certain language is not available, learners may request the provincial education department to make provision for instruction in the chosen language (DoE, 1997). This presupposes that teachers have to be competent in at least two or more of the official languages (Moyo, 2001).

1.3. Problem Statement

Mother Tongue (MT) and academic success

Research on the association between mother-tongue education and scholastic achievement points to a good correlation between the two (DBE, 2010, p. 5). When children are not taught in their MT, the development of that language stagnates and their personal and conceptual foundation for learning is undermined. Cummins (2005; 2008), however, argues that it is important that teachers teach for transfer across languages. He refers to the transfer of knowledge as well as language skills. In other words, learners can learn concepts and language skills in their MT, and then transfer those knowledge and skills to the second language. Teaching for transfer across languages can also help students focus on similarities and differences between languages and so develop their language awareness. However, in this case, teachers and learners do not share the same MT, and teachers might not know how to teach for transfer.
Lack of MT instruction

In South Africa, learners who are speakers of African languages such as isiXhosa will not always receive MT instruction. Parents may enroll their children in English or Afrikaans-medium schools for one of the following reasons: perhaps as a result of the economic and academic advantages these two languages gained in the Apartheid era – advantages that were not perceived to be linked to African languages (Tshotsho, 2013); or because, according to Barry (2002), in 1997 Minister Bengu admitted that, although theoretically learners have the right to education in the language of their choice, there are practical considerations that may hamper the choice of language medium and undermine the LiEP.

At a national level, despite isiXhosa becoming an official language after 1994 and it being the second most (20%) spoken home language in South Africa, there existed only 29 single-medium isiXhosa schools in South Africa in 2007 (DBE, 2010). Single-medium schools are defined as schools that use only one medium of instruction for all learners in all grades (DBE, 2010). However, the data provided by this report needs to be read with caution since it does not indicate the type of schools they are – primary or secondary and they may in fact be schools only offering the Foundation Phase. In 2007 only about 27% of Intermediate Phase learners in South Africa were learning in their MT and these would be mainly English and Afrikaans mother tongue speakers. A large proportion of Intermediate Phase learners in South Africa, whose MT was neither English nor Afrikaans, were learning through the medium of these languages (DBE, 2010). It just proves the point that there is a lack of isiXhosa MT instruction in the Intermediate Phase.
The Annual Survey for Ordinary Schools of 2009/2010 (DBE, 2011) provides further evidence. For the purpose of this thesis only data on Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa in the Western Cape is provided. The graph below shows the number of learners by MT and the number of learners learning through their MT as the LoLT. The survey does not include the LoLT data of specific phases and grades in the Western Cape.

Figure 1: Number of learners by MT and number of learners by LoLT in 2010 in the Western Cape

The report states that in 2010, 472 303 learners in the Western Cape had Afrikaans as MT; 273 609 learners had isiXhosa as MT; and 243 105 learners had English as MT. In terms of the LoLT in the Western Cape, 476 470 learners had English as LoLT in 2010; 458 150 learners had Afrikaans as LoLT; and 68 270 learners had isiXhosa has LoLT (DBE, 2011). This shows that in the Western Cape, all English speakers and most Afrikaans speakers are learning through their MT; while most isiXhosa speakers are learning through English or Afrikaans.
In Bredasdorp, a town in the Overberg of the Western Cape, about 200 kilometers outside of Cape Town, Afrikaans is the MT of the majority of people. According to Statistics South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2011), these are the percentages that show the language distribution of Afrikaans, isiXhosa and English in Bredasdorp: 83% of the Bredasdorp population has Afrikaans as MT, 7.54% has isiXhosa as MT, and 4.33% has English as MT. There are two primary schools in Bredasdorp, according to the data provided by the Western Education Department (WCED, 2015). The data reveals that one of the schools offers dual-medium\(^2\) instruction in English and Afrikaans and the school also charges tuition fees when learners enroll, whereas the other school, which is the focus of this research, offers Afrikaans/ English parallel-medium\(^3\) instruction and the school is primarily government-funded. Although the reason was not explored, there are a minority of isiXhosa-speaking learners in this parallel-medium school. Thus, in these schools a language scenario in Grade 4 will exist where isiXhosa MT learners are taught through the medium of Afrikaans with teachers having little or no proficiency in isiXhosa, and some of the isiXhosa learners having little or nor proficiency in Afrikaans.

**Lack of guidance for teachers**

The South African government has not shown commitment to the resourcing of the multilingualism or additive bilingualism model it is promoting, because of a lack of financial and human resources (Barry, 2002, Thotsho, 2013). According to Pluddemann, Mati & Mahlalela-
Thusi (1998), the sudden inflow of African language speaking learners into schools after 1994, which had previously been open to people classified as “whites” or “coloureds” did not make provision for trained isiXhosa-speaking teachers in those schools. Certain situations were then created where teachers could speak English and Afrikaans but hardly any isiXhosa, and most of the learners had either no grasp or a little English proficiency making it almost impossible for them to interact meaningfully. In other cases if teachers and learners speak the same indigenous MT like isiXhosa and are able to teach in isiXhosa, there are not many written resources for learners to become literate in isiXhosa (Tshotsho, 2013).

It seems that the implementation of the LiEP was not clearly outlined which caused confusion among teachers in terms of instruction and assessment. Madiba (2012) argues that the current language curriculum does not promote the transfer of cognitive academic language competencies across languages and grades. According to MacDonald (2008), in some instances there seems to be a theoretical confusion in these curriculum documents on how some aspects of academic literacy should be taught. Academic language is an area of considerable educational concern for isiXhosa learners learning in Afrikaans. Many practitioners as well as researchers attribute these learners’ academic literacy difficulties to a lack of familiarity with academic language (Snow, 2014). This could be a reflection of teachers’ lack of training or theoretical knowledge on how to develop academic literacy in a language scenario where they do not share the same MT as the second language learners.
Assessment

According to Snow (2014), the concept and implications of “equal opportunity” for bilingual or non-mother tongue learners who learn and are assessed in a language other than their MT, requires clarification in the South African context. Children do not come to school with similar cultural experiences and they might not have the same experiences at school, specifically when it comes to their language experiences which form a large part of their knowledge and identity formation. IsiXhosa-speaking learners may have different cultural knowledge and belief systems to that of Afrikaans-speaking learners. Thus we cannot expect assessment to have the same meaning for all learners (Madiba, 2012; Snow, 2014).

As stated in the DBE LoLT report (DBE, 2010), a learner learning only through a second language, like in a straight for English or Afrikaans school, could have negative implications for learners’ academic literacy development, especially in the Intermediate Phase where new subjects and specialized registers are introduced. According to Cummins (2000a), teachers spend twelve years in school focusing largely on expanding learners’ linguistic competence into areas of literacy and helping students acquire the technical language of various content areas such as science, mathematics and social studies. “Whether students go to university and the kind of employment they qualify for, depend very much on how successfully they acquire CALP which is needed to gain academic qualifications and carry out literacy related tasks and activities” (Cummins, 2000a, p. 53). However, in the case of learners learning through an additional language such as isiXhosa learners learning through Afrikaans, they face the double challenge of acquiring the LoLT as well as CALP. However, it is questionable whether teachers in South
Africa have the necessary strategies and resources to help learners acquire this specialized language (Thotsho, 2013).

There is a lot of research done on isiXhosa learners and teachers learning and teaching through the medium of English. Probyn (2001; 2009) and Setati, Adler, Reed & Bapoo (2002) found that in schools where the LoLT is English but the learners are isiXhosa mother tongue speakers, teachers use code-switching as a strategy to facilitate learning because they share isiXhosa a MT with the learners. However, if teachers do not speak isiXhosa, this is not a strategy that is available to them. Therefore, my interest is in Afrikaans-medium schools where there is a minority of isiXhosa learners, and how teachers facilitate learning when they do not share the MT of the learners and do not have proficiency in isiXhosa. Little research has been done on this specific language context. Natural Science as a subject is a good example to investigate what strategies teachers use when they do not share the MT of the learners, since Natural Science involves higher order thinking skills and the development of academic literacy skills.

1.4. Aims of Research

1.4.1. To understand teachers’ perceptions and views on developing the Academic Literacy of isiXhosa learners

1.4.2. To understand what Grade 4 isiXhosa learners’ feelings are on being taught Natural Sciences through the medium of Afrikaans as LoLT

1.4.3. To understand how teachers develop the Academic Literacy of isiXhosa learners in an Afrikaans-medium school in Grade 4
1.5. Research Questions

1.5.1. What are teachers’ perceptions, attitudes and views on developing isiXhosa learners’ academic literacy in an Afrikaans-medium school in Grade 4?

1.5.2. What are Grade 4 isiXhosa learners’ perceptions and feelings on being taught Natural Sciences through the medium of Afrikaans as LoLT?

1.5.3. What literacy support strategies, if any, do teachers use to develop the academic literacy of isiXhosa learners in the subject Natural Science?

1.6. Motivation and Importance

My motivation for doing this research and the reason I deem it important and interesting is to address my own ignorance in developing academic literacy of isiXhosa learners who are being taught in Afrikaans; to explore and understand what Afrikaans teachers are currently doing to develop the academic literacy of isiXhosa learners who do not have Afrikaans as MT; and to possibly provide understanding on how teacher-instruction in a multilingual classroom affects the academic literacy development of the minority language group. The interest in this research is based on my personal experience of some of the problems in this kind of context. The possible findings may also contribute to the research area of multilingualism in education.
1.7. Organisation of thesis

The chapters are organized as follows: Chapter Two focuses on the literature review and theoretical framework relevant to the study. It will look at how the literature and research studies relevant to this field have informed my understanding of the research problem, and the research questions and analysis. Chapter Three provides an outline of the research methodology. Data was collected through interviews and classroom observations of four Grade 4 teachers’ science lessons. The observations helped me gain insight into the strategies that teachers used for isiXhosa-speaking learners. The interviews helped me gain insight into the teachers and learners’ attitudes regarding teaching and learning in a context where they do not share the same MT as the learners. Chapter Four provides a presentation and analysis of the findings. Chapter Five provides a discussion of the findings in relation to the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter Two, and provides a conclusion as well as recommendations for teacher development and further study.
CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a conceptual framework for the thesis which is informed by theories and empirical evidence from other research studies. The literature review and theoretical framework is based on: a) theory on language and learning, b) the attitudes of teachers who teach second language learners, c) the attitudes of learners who are taught in a second or third language, and d) teaching strategies of teachers teaching content subjects such as science to second language learners. The concepts will also be discussed in that sequence. International as well as national literature is referred to in this chapter. The international literature specifically informed the theoretical framework which is based on socio-cultural theory. The international literature also provide insight into studies based on teacher and learner attitudes in a second language learning environment, and covers specific scaffolding strategies for the academic literacy of second language learners. The South African literature focuses on the attitudes of teachers and learners, as well as the strategies that teachers have used to help learners who are learning in a second language. It has to be emphasized that the research in South Africa is mainly based on the linguistic scenario where teachers and learners share the same mother tongue. In this study, the linguistic scenario is that teachers and learners do not share the same mother tongue. Studies in South Africa on this type of language mismatch between teachers’ and learners’ MT is limited. Valuable lessons are, nonetheless, learned from the literature. The literature will provide support for the discussion of the findings drawn from the analysis of the data in Chapter Four.
2.2. The theoretical framework: socio-cultural theory

Socio-cultural theory centers on the development of a child; how development takes place and what is needed for that development to take place. A characteristic of Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory is the claim that higher mental functions in the individual have their origins in social life (Vygotsky, 1987; Wertsch, 1992). The term ‘socio-cultural’ therefore refers to the individual learning or cognitive development that happens within social settings and ‘how human mental functioning reflects and constitutes its historical, institutional, and cultural setting’ (Vygotsky, 1987; Wertsch, 1990, p. 115). In other words, socio-cultural theory is about how the social and cultural influences a child is exposed to, influences his or her mental functioning and cognitive development. Gibbons (2006) provides a further comprehensive summary of socio-cultural theory with particular focus on language and dialogue, as well as the concepts within socio-cultural theory which will be discussed below.

Language and thought

Vygotsky’s theory is based on the concept that language is seen as the root of learning (Gibbons, 2006; Vygotsky, 1987). In addition, learning or cognitive development is formed primarily by the vital interactions between a child and a more knowledgeable other like a child’s parents or guardians in the early years, and a teacher once the child goes to school. These interactions between a child and a more knowledgeable other is a means of social interaction and learning, and in the school context in particular, the interaction between the teacher and learner is also based on the acquisition and mastery of language of particular discourses that need to be exercised within the classroom and school (Gibbons, 2006; Vygotsky, 1987). According to Kim
(2007), language acts as psychological tool that helps a learner to form thought as well as a mental function in it. In other words, through words, learners are helped to develop concepts. Language development or language construction, whether it is social language, mental/academic language or emotional language, cannot happen without social interaction. McLeod (2007) adds that language plays two critical roles in cognitive development: it is the main means by which adults transmit information to children; and language itself becomes a very powerful tool of intellectual adaptation. Barnes (1992) also supplements an aspect of the socio-cultural theory by talking about the role of talk during interactions in the classroom.

Exploratory talk and presentational talk

According to Barnes (1992), learning for children can only happen if what they are learning makes sense in relation to their existing schemata. Teachers, therefore, in their interactions with the learners, need to use methods which help learners to ‘work on understanding’ the new knowledge or concepts within or in light of their existing knowledge framework. Barnes (1992) stresses the importance of the learner during teaching and learning, stating that ‘Whatever teaching methods a teacher chooses – question-and-answer or demonstration – it will always be the learner who has to do the learning’ (Barnes, 1992, p. 124). One method of ‘working on understanding’ for learners is, according to Barnes, talk, which he considers the best way for learners to articulate verbally how they should rearrange what they know (their existing knowledge) by either changing what they know already, or to assimilate new knowledge. Barnes distinguishes between two kinds of talk: presentational talk and exploratory talk. The characteristic of presentational talk is that a speaker’s attention is focused on the needs of an audience – transmitting information. The characteristic of exploratory talk is that a speaker is
concerned with exploring his or her ideas and trying to establish or develop an understanding. Both presentational talk and exploratory talk are important during a lesson and it is up to the teacher to decide when each needs to be used (Barnes, 1992). Exploratory talk is important for learners to express their understanding or to ask questions in order to arrange new information and ideas into their existing framework. However, exploratory talk will not occur if learners are not comfortable taking part in such talk, either because of the fear of being made fun of, or being ‘wrong’ or contradicted in their understanding. Presentational talk occurs when learners respond to questions posed by the teacher, based on a topic discussed in class or when they present what has been discussed though exploratory talk – so it could be a group presentation (not just answering the teacher’s questions). Presentational and exploratory talk in relation to the socio-cultural theory are important in social relationships in that they help to represent the purpose and meaning behind words and sentences which is essential to our social environment. The following section will look at the type of interactions that teachers can plan in classrooms – which is essential in socio-cultural theory.

**Planned interactions**

Within socio-cultural theory, education can be seen as the way in which learners are initiated into ways of thinking and making meaning through interactions with the teacher and the different learners in the classroom. Knowledge construction is therefore not an individual process, but a collaborative process between individuals as Gibbons (2006) and Barnes (1992) highlight. For teachers who are teaching second-language learners, their interactions with these learners need to be planned to meet their particular needs. The planned interactions must not only help in the
learning of a second language, but also with the development of knowledge, thought and concepts within a curriculum.

The Zone of Proximal Development, Mediation and Scaffolding

There are key concepts used within socio-cultural theory. These are: the zone of proximal development (ZPD), mediation and scaffolding. Mediation of learning happens through scaffolding within the ZPD. To understand how these concepts are related to another, it is important to see what each concept means.

The ZPD is understood to be the zone between what a child can do on his or her own, in other words, independently, and what he can do with the help or support of a more experienced or knowledgeable other. For a second language learner it would most probably include his level of proficiency in and of the L2 and his level of cognition in the L2. With L2 learners, they are faced with learning the context and the ZPD could be described as the gap between what they know and can do on their own and what they know and can do with the help of a more knowledgeable other; but there is the added layer of challenge in terms of how they can express this knowledge in the L2 on their own and what they can do with the help. Doolittle (1995, p. 2) explains it as follows: “…a child’s immediate potential for cognitive growth is bounded on the lower end by that which the child can accomplish on their own and on the upper end by which the child can accomplish with the help of a more knowledgeable other, such as a peer, tutor, or teacher”. In other words, what the child is able to do in collaboration today he will be able to do independently tomorrow. Vygotsky saw the ZPD as the area where the most sensitive instruction
or guidance should be given – allowing the child to develop skills they will then use on their own – developing higher mental functions (Vygotsky, 1987). In order to determine the ZPD, interaction should happen between the teacher and the learner in order for the teacher to determine what the learner can achieve alone and what he/she needs assistance to achieve (Turuk, 2008, p. 257; Vygotsky, 1987). For second language learners, the teachers might start with accessing second language learners’ prior knowledge which they built in their MT, and then extending the ZPD by introducing new concepts that they need to learn.

The term mediation was developed by Vygotsky, who suggested that human activities and human mental functioning are mediated and facilitated by “tools such as writing instruments, clocks or wheels, and semiotic modes of representation such as diagrams, writing systems and language itself” (Gibbons, 2006, p. 25; Vygotsky, 1987). The teacher as mediator of learning implies that the teacher acts as a resource to learners; a teacher acts as a challenger and someone who acts as a mentor to her learners. When a teacher acts as a mediator, she knows how to distinguish between everyday knowledge and school knowledge and she also knows when it is necessary to integrate everyday knowledge into school knowledge. Often learners’ everyday knowledge does not fit with science knowledge and so learners have to accommodate the new knowledge by changing their existing schemata. The mediating teacher also knows the importance of language and when and how to induct them into using academic discourse of specific subjects. Synonyms for mediator are, “go-between”, “intermediary” or “negotiator” to name a few. What this means is that the teacher acts as the “negotiator” of meaning and to bring a common and confirmed understanding of what should be learned and understood in the L2 academically by the L2
learner. The mediator can “mediate” learning through social interactions and planned activities such as reading, writing, group work and demonstrations, for example.

Scaffolding can be defined as the means by which mediation occurs. It is a term developed by Jerome Bruner (1978). It refers to “the steps taken to reduce the degrees of freedom in carrying out some task so that the child can concentrate on the difficult skill he or she is acquiring” (Bruner, 1978, p. 19). The planned interactions in which language and thought are mediated happen through scaffolding. Scaffolding refers more to the specific type of strategies employed by teachers to support L2 learners in acquiring language and knowledge. It means to provide learners with the appropriate assistance for a specific task, either by the teacher herself, or by a more skilled peer. The aim of scaffolding is to model the desired strategy, then shifting the responsibility to the learner and gradually removing the assistance provided to the point where learners can do it independently without the help of a more competent other (Gibbons, 2006; Turuk, 2008; Vygotsky, 1987). According to Gibbons (2006), there are two criteria for scaffolding: firstly, there must be evidence of the learner successfully completing the task with the teacher’s help, and secondly, there must be evidence of the learner achieving competence as a result of the scaffolding experience. As the scaffold or assistance is removed and it is established that the learner has accomplished a specific task independently, the ZPD extends. The ZPD is always extending as learners progress from mastering one task to moving on to the next with the help of a peer. Social interaction is necessary to mediate learning. Thus, language and knowledge acquisition cannot happen without mediation, and mediation happens through scaffolding. Therefore, essential to the ZPD is the need for a more experienced person, like the teacher, to
mediate learning through scaffolding in order for the child (L2 learner) to move to the next desired level (Vygotsky, 1987).

Socio-cultural theory and academic literacy development in a second language

The socio-cultural theory is based on the relationship between language and thought – the language presumably being the MT. Authors specifically refer to the importance of MT in the development of academic literacy (Cummins, 2000; Ferreira, 2011; Gibbons, 2009; Hugo, 2008; Kim 2007; Vacca, Vacca & Mraz, 2011; van Dyk & van de Poel, 2013; Vygotsky, 1987; Zwiers, 2008). According to the DBE LoLT report (DBE, 2010), learning in one’s own language holds various advantages for the learner, including improved learning outcomes, reduced chances of repetition and drop-out rates, and socio-cultural benefits. However, there are many linguistic scenarios in South Africa where it is not feasible to teach all the learners in their MT.

Learning in a second language creates the challenges of learning the second language, as well as learning the knowledge encoded in that language. Heugh (2006, 2011) who is an advocate of MT-education says that when children learn through a language they do not understand they will not manage to understand the concepts or explanations in subjects like Mathematics and Science. Consequently, those learners who are not learning through their MT will fall further behind those learners who are learning through their MT (Heugh, 2006, 2011).

An aspect also worth noticing is the relationship between the LoLT in schools, school quality, and academic performance. Taylor and Coetzee (2013) investigated the extent to which the
language policy of schools contributed to learners’ academic performance. They used the English and Mathematics results from the Annual National Assessment of learners who attended ‘middle-income’ schools, and learners who attended ‘low-income’ schools. The difference between the two types of schools is that in middle-income schools the quality of the school is assumed to be better in terms of parental participation, teacher training and better school functionality. In low-income schools the quality is assumed to be poorer. Learners who attend middle-class schools are usually instructed in English from the beginning of foundation phase; whereas learners who attend low-income schools are instructed in their MT in grades 1, 2 and 3, after which they receive instruction in English from Intermediate Phase onwards. However, Taylor and Coetzee (2013) found that, after controlling the results for socio-economic status, learners who were instructed in their MT in the Foundation Phase, like in the low-income schools, attained better proficiency in English and performed better in Mathematics in the Intermediate Phase. In essence, Taylor and Coetzee (2013) relate their findings to literature which advocates that instruction in the MT leads to better acquisition of a second language as well as subject knowledge.

Therefore, since there are many scenarios in South Africa where learners attend schools which do not allow for MT instruction for all learners and where learners attend straight for English/Afrikaans schools where teachers and learners do not share the same MT, there is a need for research to help teachers develop strategies to help learners cope better in the classrooms. The relationship between the BICS/ CALP distinction and the socio-cultural theory provides a background on how teaching content subjects such as science can be approached in such cases.
Defining BICS and CALP

In chapter one a short description of BICS and CALP was given. The description will be referred to again in this section. Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) refers to a type of talk and language proficiency that learners use in their social surroundings when communicating with others. BICS is context-embedded and not cognitively demanding since it is used within a social context. BICS is usually used in informal conversations or when learners talk to each other face-to-face on the playground, for example. All learners – MT and second language learners – acquire BICS. For second language learners it takes between two to three years to acquire BICS.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) refers to a talk or language proficiency that learners use in formal academic learning. CALP is context-reduced and cognitively demanding since it is used in content subjects and the concepts in the learning material cannot be placed in an immediate context. CALP involves talking, reading and writing about concepts and is needed to be academically successful. CALP needs to be acquired by all learners – MT and second language learners. While CALP takes longer to acquire than BICS for all learners, it takes especially longer for second language learners that is between five and seven years (Cummins, 2000a). The diagram below also shows the difference between BICS and CALP in classroom activities.

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For example, context-embedded language can be used in cognitively undemanding activities like interacting with classmates. It can also be used in cognitively demanding activities in the classroom like when learners are talking in groups about a demonstration or an experiment conducted in the science classroom. The talk or the language used will be exploratory and less formal. Whereas context-reduced language can be used in cognitively undemanding activities like in a telephone conversation where there is no face-to-face interaction. In contrast to writing a science test where the language is academic, but no immediate context is available.
According to Cummins (2000a), it is important to acknowledge and make the distinction between BICS and CALP, because teachers often mistakenly assume that because second language learners are conversationally proficient in the second language, they should not have a problem when it comes to cognitively demanding activities in their second language. This assumption by teachers will be elaborated on in a later section in this chapter.

It is important to highlight that the original terms BICS and CALP have been met with criticism by several authors (e.g. Edelsky, 1983; Wiley, 1990 in Cummins 2000b) due to its lack of clarity. Cummins (2009) himself also states that the BICS/ CALP distinction has been misunderstood and misrepresented. The criticisms by the aforementioned authors include a lack of clarity in BICS and CALP surrounding the socio-linguistic complexities of language proficiency, and that the BICS/ CALP distinction implies something “simple”. The lack misunderstanding in relation to the critiques also includes the assumed superiority of CALP over BICS.

In response to the critiques Cummins (2000b) has begun to use the terms BICS and CALP interchangeably with the terms “conversational” and “academic” language. He also addresses the critiques (in Cummins, 2000b) and clarifies that the BICS/CALP distinction was developed to highlight the range of cognitive demands and contextual support involved in particular language tasks or activities. Cummins further elaborates that the theory was not meant to suggest that CALP is superior to BICS. The BICS/ CALP distinction was not proposed as an overall language theory, but as a very specific conceptual distinction addressed to specific issues related to the
education of second language learners (Cummins, 2000b, p. 61). The distinction between conversational and academic language is premised, to a great extent, on

“the Vygotskian perspective that language proficiency, whether it be BICS or CALP developed within a matrix of social interaction; that in general, context-embedded communication is more typical of the everyday world outside the classroom, whereas many of the linguistic demands of the classroom reflect the communicative activities that are close to the context-reduced end of the continuum” (Cummins, 2000b, p. 62).

Thus, Cummins (2000b) further clarifies that conversational abilities often develop relatively quickly among immigrant (or second language) learners, because of interpersonal and contextual cues. The mastery of academic functions of language, on the other hand, uses high levels of cognitive involvement and is only minimally supported by contextual and interpersonal cues. The main argument Cummins (2000b) makes through the BICS/ CALP distinction is that there is a difference in social and academic language, and that the social and academic language proficiencies for second language learners in particular, takes a different amount of time to develop and that the development of both proficiencies depend on the contextual cues used in the development of both proficiency. It is based on the difference in interpersonal contextual support that the BICS/ CALP and conversational and academic distinction are based. Like Cummins (2000b), the terms BICS and CALP are used interchangeably with the terms “conversational” and “academic” language in this thesis.
Science can be used as a learning area to explain why CALP is a requirement for all learners. The features of science will be explained below.

**Features of Science language**

Science has a special language and for learners to succeed they need to be scientifically literate. The features and functions of the science language include formulating hypotheses, designing investigations, collecting and interpreting data, drawing conclusions, and communicating results (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994). It also makes use of technical terms or concepts unique to science such as “matter”, “magnetism”, “force”, “energy”, to name a few (Hart & Lee, 2003). Learners must be able to know, understand and apply the concepts of science which are dependent on being literate in terms of speaking, reading and writing in the discourse of science.

**How the BICS/ CALP distinction relates to socio-cultural theory**

Socio-cultural theory refers to how language is used to create thought and for cognitive development. In this particular study it refers to how cognitive development happens through a second language. Socio-cultural theory relates to the BICS/ CALP distinction (in reference to second language learners) in that it shows how teachers mediate learning through scaffolding within the ZPD from BICS (everyday language) to CALP (academic language). An example from a classroom which Gibbons (2006) researched in Australia will be provided, where the teachers could not use the learners’ MT due to the learners having migrant backgrounds or being aboriginal speakers of the indigenous languages in Australia and not having English as their MT. Her example is useful because it representative of the linguistic scenario presented in this

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research, where teachers and learners do not share the same MT. Gibbons (2006) looked at how teachers mediate learning through scaffolding to move second language learners from BICS to CALP.

The argument by Gibbons (2006) and Cummins (2000a) is that for learners to attain CALP (the type of learner talk or proficiency they need to succeed academically), their BICS (learners’ conversational/everyday talk), with the help of additional context-embedding visuals or gestures, needs to be used to make science concepts easier to grasp and that way develop their CALP. For example, if a teacher wants to explain cognitively demanding concepts in science, she could create a context-embedded situation using BICS in which she explains the cognitively demanding concepts using visual aids or demonstrations, for example, while also encouraging ‘learner-talk’ by creating a dialogue with the learners to explain concepts. By using learners’ BICS, the teachers can also help to shift learners to using and developing CALP – when learners’ have to talk and write about the concepts in a situation which is context-reduced.

Although examples of specific scaffolding strategies are provided in later paragraphs, it is important to provide an initial example – by Gibbons (2006, 2009) of how the concepts of mediation, scaffolding and ZPD can be understood in the context of a classroom when teachers have to move learners from using basic interpersonal communication skills where the language produced is context-embedded, to context-reduced classroom situations which requires the development of CALP. She highlights the importance of the nature of the dialogue between
teacher and learners in their building up of CALP in order to articulate the concepts in science - orally and in writing.

**Bridging discourses in a science classroom**

Gibbons (2006) investigated two Grade 6 science classrooms in a school with English second language learners in a low socio-economic working class suburb in Australia. The school took in learners from kindergarten to year six (sixth grade). 90% of the learners had migrant backgrounds ranging between South East Asia, China, Hong Kong and the Philippines. The learners had everyday fluency in day-to-day English, but were not proficient in the academic English. Gibbons (2006) looked at how mediation happened between these learners’ available English abilities and their understanding of science concepts, and how mediation happened from the ‘everyday/informal’ understanding, to the more ‘academic’ language/understanding of science. Teachers in these classrooms used strategies known as mode-shifting to mediate between the different everyday languages of English and science, to the more academic English and science language. So teachers created bridges between four modes. The shift between modes refers to the shift between oral and written language. Mode-shifting is also known as bridging discourses (Gibbons, 2003). By shifting through these modes, the teachers supported the second language learners in terms of familiarizing themselves with the lesson content of science - first orally and then in writing – first in everyday language and then in academic language. Through mode-shifting learners were not forced immediately into understanding and using the expected science concepts in English, but rather the teachers made use of learners’ contributions in their ‘everyday language and understanding’ and then helped them to recast that into the appropriate register for science. The example provided illustrates how a teacher helped learners understand a particular concept or

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to acquire a particular aspect of language which they could not do on their own. The example is shown in the context of a science classroom and the concept that needed to be understood is ‘magnetism’. The learners had to complete a practical task inside the classroom with the guidance of written instructions. The learning was sequenced in stages. The example shows how the teacher sequenced the lesson on ‘magnetism’. The texts in the middle column of the table in Figure 2.2.9. show the language that the learners produced during the different stages. During these stages the lesson proceeded from activities where the language used by learners was context-embedded to context-reduced for example in:

Mode 1: **Recasting by the teacher:** a group was engaged in a practical activity, or discussing a problem (learners use ‘it’ or ‘that’ to refer to the tools in the experiment). Learners gave their contributions of their understanding of a science concept in language they understood and could express themselves in, in other words: everyday language. The teacher then used their contributions and shifted it from everyday language to more specialized language of science.

Mode 2: **Talking about the talk:** making the new register explicit. The learners were reporting back – orally – what they did during the group activity with the magnets using the names of the tools they used (*pins* and *magnet*). The teachers made explicit to the learners that they were learning to use new register in science and therefore would ‘model’ the language of science and encourage the learners to ‘talk like scientists’ using complete sentences. Gibbons (2006) highlights that this was not necessarily considered a ‘shift’, but rather it was brought to
learners’ attention that they needed to use the correct vocabulary when they were explaining or talking about a concept in science.

Mode 3:  *Reminding and handing over:* The learners had to write what they did during the experiment using an informal writing style and the context becomes less embedded.

Mode 4:  *Unpacking written language:* The learners had to write what they learned during the activity in proper scientific register and use the correct vocabulary (e.g. using the word ‘attract’ instead of ‘stuck’).

Figure 3: Example of scaffolding and mediating from BICS to CALP (adapted from Gibbons, 2006, 2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Text: example of talking and writing activity (in bold)</th>
<th>What it shows about language and context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Children talking about a Science experiment as they were conducting it in groups</td>
<td><strong>Learner talk:</strong> ‘Look, <em>it’s</em> making them move. <em>That’s</em> not going.’</td>
<td>Language is dependent on the immediate context – body language, gestures; materials used can be used for communication. If they did not see the objects, we would not know what <em>it</em> referred to.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. (Reporting back to the class (audience) about what they found in the group during the experiment). One of the children informing other children what he/she has learned. Language only had to be used to explain what has happened. He/she could see the audience; but the audience could see the experiment. The speaker had to put themselves in the position of the listener who could physically see the experiment and so had to explain what happened in full – the situation was context reduced i.e. meaning making was not supported by the immediate context.

Learner talk: ‘We found out that pins stuck on the magnet... Then we tried to... Next we,...’

Language is more explicit. The speaker now has to use the names of the objects (pins, magnet) and some specific verbs (stuck)

3. The same learner has now written about what the group has found out. The text was at more distance from text 1. The learners had to write what their experiment was about in everyday language.

Learner writing: ‘Our experiment was to find out... We have found out...’

Language becomes increasingly explicit. Context has to be explained now. Our experiment was to find out...

(Learners wrote about the experiment that they conducted)
During the stages, the teacher mediated learners’ responses and scaffolded their language so that they were able to reformulate their ideas and language into more academic language, in other words move them along the BICS-CALP continuum. What the table above does not include is how the ZPD was extended. The learners’ ZPD was determined in Mode 1, when the teacher started from the oral scaffolding task during which a shared understanding, through group work, was reached of the concepts learned in the previous lesson. The ZPD was extended as the learners applied and used the concepts learned in the activity during the lesson, during stage 2 and 3, to a writing activity at the end of the lesson, stage 4, during which they had explain their comprehension of the activity in written form, individually – without the immediate assistance of the teacher. The teacher provided the scaffolding in the stage of whole class talk to make sense of the experiment – she intervened at various points while a learner was presenting, to model scientific language, to ask probing questions, and encouraging to help the learner to rephrase her answers – sometimes by keeping the rest of the class quiet so that the learner could have the space to express her ideas – the teacher was actually holding the floor for the learner – usually in

Example of academic writing from encyclopedia:

‘A magnet is a piece of metal… It is able to attract’

(Learners did not actually reach reach this stage in the classroom in this example)
classroom interactions (or in social conversation) if a learner hesitates then another learner will chip in and take over if the teacher does not protect the learner.

This section covered the theoretical framework which was informed by socio-cultural theory and the BICS/ CALP distinction and the notion of exploratory and presentational talk. An initial example of how the theoretical concepts could be applied in a science classroom for second language learners was also provided. The following section will look at previous research findings. The international literature on teacher attitudes towards the teaching of second language learners, learner attitudes towards the LoLT; and additional strategies to Gibbons’ bridging discourses, that teachers employ to teach content subjects to second language learners, will be discussed first.

2.3. International literature on teacher attitudes, learner attitudes and teaching strategies

The linguistic situation in this research is that of a minority of learners whose MT is different to the official LoLT of the school and the teacher’s MT. This linguistic situation is similar to that of immigrant children in Europe, the United Kingdom or North America. Much of the theory and research of bilingualism in education has been done in these contexts. According to Biseth (2008, p.2), ‘In most Western European countries, many of which are monolingual, there are immigrants and refugees from all over the world who are often expected to adopt the dominant language, while their own minority language is given a low status’. In many African countries, like South Africa, however, a former colonial language, like Afrikaans, is used as the official language and given a higher status than the indigenous African languages, despite the African languages being
spoken by the majority (Biseth, 2008). Therefore, although many African languages like isiXhosa are spoken by a majority (in number) of the population, English, which is spoken by a minority (in number) in South Africa, is given a higher status than isiXhosa in classrooms. Much of the research on bilingualism in South Africa is based on a language context where teachers and learners share a national majority language (in number), but are teaching and learning through a national minority language which has a higher status like English and Afrikaans. However, in this research, the context is similar to that of immigrant children in Europe and North America in that a minority of learners in the school is learning through a language which has a higher status and which is the MT of the majority of learners and teachers in the school. Therefore, international literature with the abovementioned context was drawn upon. It is important to note that in my research the linguistic situation is dissimilar to that depicted in international literature, because the minority of learners who do not share the MT of the majority of learners and teachers in the school, form part a linguistic majority in the broader society.

The international literature on attitudes and strategies show that teachers’ assumptions on second language learning and development often influence their classroom attitudes towards second language learners which also influence their strategies. These attitudes and strategies could also be as a result of the language policies or approaches to bilingual situations in schools.
2.3.1. Attitudes towards teaching second language learners

‘Teacher attitudes’ can be defined in terms of affective factors which refer to emotional involvement such as feelings, the relationship with learners, and the emotional ties between language and culture (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). ‘Teacher attitudes’ towards second language learners can be looked at as being positive, negative or neutral when it comes to the development of second language learners’ cognitive abilities (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). What the literature points out clearly is the assumptions being made about second language learners’ language and literacy abilities. These assumptions may influence teachers’ attitudes towards second language learners in their classrooms.

Assumptions that inform teachers’ attitudes

Two assumptions in particular are made very explicit in the literature. The first assumption pointed out in the literature is that teachers and schools think that because learners are able to speak a second language and communicate with others on a social level, learners are able to acquire knowledge in that second language as well (Gibbons, 2009; Hugo, 2008; Kaiser, Rynecke & Uys, 2010; Layton, 2013). Zwiers (2008) points out that schools assume that learners are academically proficient because they are fluent in the social and everyday uses of English and then place large numbers of learners in a mainstream classroom without proper language support. But based on Gibbons (2009) work about English second language learners, it cannot be assumed that learners will simply ‘pick up’ what they need to know, because it is unlikely that their development of academic literacy skills will happen in a mainstream classroom without proper support. Second language learners may appear proficient and academically successful in the
LoLT during the first three years of schooling, but the effects of being instructed in a second language catches up in later grades when learners have to use the LoLT for cognitive processes, e.g. when the learners go from *learning to read* (in the LoLT) in the foundation phase, *to reading to learn* (in the LoLT) in the Intermediate and Senior Phases. Chall, Jacobs & Baldwin (1990) coined a term for the challenges in the fourth grade as, “the 4\textsuperscript{th} year slump”, stating that learners go from reading easily in Grades 1-3, but performing poorly when having to use those reading skills to acquire new and increasingly demanding words and texts in the fourth grade. According to Chall, Jacobs & Baldwin, the “4\textsuperscript{th} year slump” may be due to ‘an undetected lack of fluency and automaticity’ (1990, p. 86).

Thus, the arguments by Cummins (2000a) and Chall, Jacobs & Baldwin (1990) show three things: 1) It takes second language learners five to seven years to achieve cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), and therefore, they need to be supported continually by their teachers to achieve CALP; 2) it should not be assumed that because learners appear to be fluent in a second language, they should not have a problem in academic tasks; and 3) MT education in the first three years of schooling can lead to better academic achievement in the second language in later grades. However, since MT instruction is not an option in my particular research context, there are ways in which skills or knowledge in the MT can be accessed by the teacher, which will be showed in the section on international research on teaching strategies.

A second assumption of teachers highlighted by Cummins (1996) is the fact that teachers often assume that learners’ MT is a problem in the development of cognitive skills in the second or
target language. Such learners are often subjected to ‘English-only’- and submersion/ “sink-or-swim” programmes. In submersion programmes and in classes in which the teacher does not share the learners’ MT, learners are forced to accept instruction through the dominant language. In these cases the learner runs the risk of having to replace the MT with that of the LoLT. Cummins (1996, 2000a) highlights how important it is to not see learners’ MT as a problem, but rather as their right as well as a resource in the classroom. He stresses the importance of this validation and acknowledgement of learners’ MT in the school so that second language learners’ identities will affirmed in the schools, instead of them being a product of unequal power relations because of language. This could be done by something simple such as making notice boards available in the MT of all learners, to name an example.

Based on the views expressed by Cummins (1996, 2000a, 2007) language policies in schools can move towards collaborative power relations, where the school and the teachers are concerned with working together with the learners in order to empower them and achieve more academically. How learners’ MT can be used as a resource to reaffirm learners’ identity in the classroom will be elaborated on in the section on teacher strategies.

2.3.2. Learner attitudes towards the LoLT

‘Learner attitudes’ can be defined in terms of affective factors which refer to emotional involvement, the relationship with the teacher and peers in the classroom, and the emotional ties between language and culture (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993), and language and school. ‘Learner attitudes’ towards the LoLT can also be looked at as being positive, negative or neutral when it
comes to learning in the second language and participating in classroom activities (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993).

According to Zwiers (2008), teachers need to acknowledge that when it comes to the development of academic literacy of second language learners, language plays a vital role, if not the most important role. If they do not recognize that, it could lead to consequences such as poor learner achievement, stagnated cognitive development, low self-esteem, and learner and teacher frustration. Gibbons (2009, p. 4) says that in this increasingly language-dense environment, some second language learners may hit a language wall; the abstraction of the language and its subject-specific nature create a barrier that denies students access to full understanding of the subject-related concepts. According to Zwiers (2008, p. 2) “basic immersion is not enough for many second language students and they do not just naturally pick up academic language as easily as they pick up other types of social language.” Therefore, as Cummins (2000a) says, teachers need to be able to make the distinction between BICS and CALP and recognize that second language learners’ language and literacy abilities are not always on the expected grade level, and that their social language abilities are not an indicator of what they can do academically.

2.3.3. Teaching strategies to develop the academic literacy of second language learners

‘Teaching strategies’ can be defined as the ways or methods in which a classroom teacher facilitates the lesson content or conveys the lesson content to learners. In this case ‘teaching strategies’ refers to the ways in which a content teacher uses methods in the classroom to help second language learners develop their academic literacy skills. The next section will look at the
strategies that have been investigated by researchers. In light of the discussion of the assumptions that inform teachers’ attitudes, Cummins (1996) emphasizes the need for acknowledging the learner’s MT and by viewing the second language learners’ MT as a resource instead of a problem for affirmation of identity and for cognitive development. Cummins (2008) call this ‘teaching for transfer’, whereby the skills and knowledge that the child learned in his or her MT is accessed by the teacher and and become useful when learning a second language and learning through a second language.

Using the MT as a resource for learning content in a second language

The international literature is focused on the value of the first language in learning a second language as well as learning content subjects through a second language (August, Artzi & Mazrum, 2010; Cummins, 2000a; Edwards, 2015; Gibbons, 2003; 2006; 2009; Lin, 2015). The arguments they make are based on the idea that language teaching and practice in schools have, in the past, been an indicator of coercive power relations which deny the minority language child’s identity. In contexts such as schools in the United States, Spanish is seen as the minority language in a context where English is mainly used as the LoLT. In South Africa, however, although isiXhosa as an ‘indigenous’ language was given a minority status pre-1994, it is a national majority language because it is the second largest MT after isiZulu. Although it became an official language post 1994, however, isiXhosa is still not fully used as a LoLT in schools, and can therefore, still be considered as a ‘minority’ language in schools. English second language learners’ success or failure in schools such as those schools in which the learners’ MT might be Spanish, is a result of the interactions in classrooms. Therefore, it is argued for teachers’ classroom practices to change into collaborative and neutral practices (August, Artzi & Mazrum,
Such practices will access learners’ linguistic and cultural identities which are usually shaped by their mother tongues, in order for second language learners to ‘see’ themselves in the curriculum and the content and ‘relate’ it to what is they are expected to learn. The way in which teachers can use learners’ everyday language as a resource in the classroom is shown in the studies discussed in the next section.

**Mode shifting/ bridging discourses**

Mode shifting or bridging discourses have been discussed in a previous section (Figure 3) in this chapter, where an example from Gibbons (2006, 2009) was given where she showed how teachers in a science classroom helped learners shift between the different modes of BICS and CALP, orally and in writing. Mode shifting will not be elaborated on again, but the example can be referred to as a useful strategy in classrooms where the teacher does not share the learners’ MT, but can use their skills built up in their MT, as a resource for developing academic literacy.

**Teaching for transfer**

Cummins (2008) promotes the idea that when teaching second language learners, monolingual approaches like teaching only in the target language (the LoLT), or keeping languages separate will not always lead to better acquisition of the second language, and will not lead to better cognitive development in the second language either. According to Cummins (2008), bilingual strategies need to be implemented in classes that complement monolingual strategies, because although surface aspects of different languages are separate, there is a ‘common underlying
language proficiency’ – i.e. there are common aspects across languages – so a child who can read in their MT does not have to learn to read from scratch when learning to read in a second language e.g. they already know how printed language works; but this applies more strongly when the two languages are similar e.g. have the same script; and some languages have the same word stems which make them easier to learn. This means that it is easier for a child to learn to read first in their MT and then transfer that knowledge of how to read when learning to read in another language; also knowledge/cognitive skills that are encoded in the child’s MT can be transferred to a second language: both language skills and subject knowledge - can be transferred.

For example, for Spanish MT students who are enrolled in a dual language Spanish-English bilingual programme in the USA, Spanish instruction that develops learners’ reading and writing in Spanish is developing cognitive and linguistic skills in not only Spanish, but also English which is the majority language (Cummins, 2008). Cummins says that this common underlying proficiency makes possible the transfer of cognitive academic or literacy-related proficiency from one language to another.

Cummins (2008, p. 70) provided an example of how the recognition and use of the MT of a grade 7 girl (Madiha), who immigrated to Canada from Pakistan, led to better linguistic and cognitive acquisition in the LoLT of the school. Madiha was teamed up by the Grade 7 teacher with two learners (Sulmana and Kanta) who had moved to Toronto, Canada in Grade 4. Madiha’s MT was Urdu, as was Sulmana and Kanta’s. Sulmana and Kanta could also speak English. The three girls collaboratively worked on a 20 page book which covered themes in Social Studies and English in the mainstream Grade 7/8 classroom. The three girls discussed their ideas for the book mainly in Urdu, but wrote in English with support from their teacher. After the final draft of the book, the
book was also translated to English. Madiha was provided with the opportunity to use her MT and prior knowledge built through her MT as resources in the subjects of Social Studies and English, and had the opportunity to work collaboratively with the teachers and more knowledgeable (or linguistically capable) others (Sulmana and Kanta). Thus, what this example shows is that Madiha’s identity was acknowledged, while at the same time developing her cognitive and linguistic skills in Social Studies and English (LoLT). What the example also shows is that grouping learners together with the same MT instead of separating them is a good strategy for purposes such as translation as well as producing multilingual texts together.

Quality English and Science Teaching (QUEST)

In light of the above discussion, it is important to acknowledge learners’ prior abilities and contributions and use them as resources to develop their academic literacy. This is what is advocated by August, Artzi and Mazrum (2010). They looked at what makes effective science instruction for English Language Learners (ELLs), as well as on the role of first language knowledge in science learning. They designed an intervention study called QUEST (Quality English and Science Teaching) to develop the science knowledge and academic language of ELLs and their English proficient classmates in the middle grades (6-8). Five sixth-grade science teachers in five middle schools in Rio Grade Texas participated. The QUEST intervention required the teachers to use scaffolding techniques to promote ELL understanding of academic content: these included teachers making use of visuals usually used in science, as well as illustrations of vocabulary concepts. Teachers had to encourage ELLs to express their own ideas and build on their experiences they had relating to science, and guide them to use more sophisticated levels of understanding and registers. This was done through ‘instructional
conversations’ between the teacher and the learners, which would help conceptual knowledge and oral proficiency development. This is similar to Gibbons’ (2003) ‘recasting’ and ‘mode-shifting’ strategies. In the QUEST intervention, learners with very limited English proficiency were encouraged to respond in their first language and have a classmate interpret their responses in English. Post-test results of students who had received the intervention showed statistically significant improvement over those who had not received it for both science knowledge and vocabulary. This type of intervention reaffirms the importance of having a collaborative teaching style, where learners’ language abilities and their contributions are valued in the classroom in order to better their own academic literacy.

**Integrated provision**

Edwards (2015) makes a similar case for ‘learner contributions’ when she examined the nature of provision for second language learners, particularly for Roma children in Croatia. She looked at how arrangements in education with regard to second language learning have changed over time. Arrangements have moved from subtractive language learning (“sink or swim”) for second language learners, where they simply had to learn the target language or the LoLT with little or no additional help, to more mainstream language learning where second language learners’ first languages are validated and used as resources for learning a second language and learning content through a second language. Examples of such mainstream language learning are ‘additive bilingual education’, where learners receive instruction in their MT while the second language is being learned (Edwards, 2015; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2006), or, ‘special support’, where learners are kept separate for a limited period of time and receives tuition added to their linguistic needs in education. Edwards (2015) discusses the pedagogy of integrated provision, where more

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attention was given to strategies that utilise learners’ background information to develop lessons content, as well as involving enquiry-based activities involving discussion and small group tasks. Her argument is that in order to learn a language, learners need to participate in its meaningful use. Therefore, as the previous authors have highlighted, importance is attached to building on a foundation of previous learning and drawing on experiences and languages that children bring with them to school. Successful academic language learning programmes therefore need to be developed on teaching styles that cater to the needs of the second language learner, and build on the experiences that children bring with them to school rather than replacing them.

**Content and language integrated learning (CLIL)**

The value of learners’ first language in learning academic language is also highlighted by Lin (2015). She makes an argument in relation to the Content and Language Integrated Learning model (CLIL) which is associated with ‘linguistic purism’ (Lin, 2015). The model is based on learning subject content and the second language simultaneously through the target language. Lin (2015) makes the argument that teachers should also make use of learners MT when using the principles of the CLIL. She calls for multimodal and multilingual classroom practices that scaffold students’ learning of both content and language within the CLIL approach. Lin (2015) proposed a framework in which teachers can use resources which include learners’ MT, the target language (LoLT), everyday and academic, oral and written language varieties and registers, visuals and modalities. She explored whether and how teachers made use of different linguistic resources as proposed in the framework, to overcome the potential barriers of learning the target language and academic content simultaneously in CLIL in the Hong Kong context. For teachers in this context it created challenges, because although accessing learners’ mother tongue in the
CLIL context helped, it reduced learners’ learning of the L2, which goes against the principles of the CLIL. This brings into question whether it is still considered CLIL since CLIL is based primarily on learning through the LoLT and not the learners’ MT. It also highlights the challenges in implementing the CLIL model. Although the strategy proposed by Lin (2015) could be a meaningful way to develop academic literacy, it would require teachers to have proficiency or knowledge in the learners’ MT, which the teachers in this study did not have. However, the teachers might use similar strategies as those proposed by Cummins (2008) in ‘teaching for transfer’, where learners could be encouraged to use their MT in group work and discussions, and where more proficient learners could translate what was said.

**Complementary language model**

The accessing of learners’ different linguistic resources is advocated in the complementary language model. The complementary language use model is informed by researchers such as Garcia (2009) who advocates the simultaneous use of learners’ linguistic repertoires. This is similar to what Lin (2015) is talking about in her approach to the CLIL model. The simultaneous use of learners’ linguistic repertoires include all the language varieties the learner is exposed to at home and in school; instead of keeping all languages separate, e.g. school language and social language. It also means adopting a heteroglossic linguistic framework as opposed to a monoglossic linguistic framework. In other words, teachers and learners use languages in classroom they find most comfortable. This relates to the notion of “translanguaging” (Garcia, 2009). The challenge in this study’s context is that teachers and learners do not share the same MT and teachers would therefore not be able to make use of the isiXhosa learners’ linguistic resources. In addition, if adopting a heteroglossic linguistic framework only referred to learners
being able to understand scientific concepts and be able to explain them orally, it would seem feasible, but it would be challenging to use such a linguistic framework when it came to the writing aspect of scientific concepts since assessing learners’ written comprehension of the science concepts would depend on common, acceptable criteria for formal academic writing.

The international literature on strategies that can be implemented by teachers teaching English second language learners can be summed up as follows: it is advocated by researchers that when teachers implement strategies, they must access the English language learners’ MT and their everyday language to build on their academic language and prior experiences. It is also important to bridge the gap between everyday knowledge and school knowledge. This can be achieved by shifting between context-embedded classroom situations to context-reduced classroom situations. Context-embedded classroom situations refer to the accessing of learners’ oral, everyday language which is used in conjunction with visual aids, facial expressions and demonstrations, in order to access the learners’ understanding of a concept in science. The context-embedded situation is then shifted to a context-reduced classroom situation where the teacher mediates the learning process by scaffolding learning activities through, for example modeling the vocabulary of science, to scaffold learners into applying their understanding of the science concepts in written, academic language without additional teaching aids, facial expressions and prompting from the teacher.
The specific strategies that the literature highlighted:

- Teaching for transfer: applying strategies where learners with the same MT can translate for each other and create multilingual texts together.

- Mode-shift from everyday language to school language, and mode-shift from oral to written language

- Value learners’ contributions to the content lessons in their everyday understanding, talking in a conversational manner, and allow learners to use their MT to explain their understanding and allowing someone else to translate it to the rest of the class like in the QUEST intervention model.

- Implement a pedagogy of integrated provision, where learners are given background information to the content that needs to be learned in a lesson and which they can enquire about in discussions and small group talks

The international literature provided a theoretical framework for the research which was informed by the socio-cultural theory, presentational and exploratory talk, and the BICS/ CALP distinction. The review of the international literature also examined what strategies can be used in contexts where the target language is English and how teachers can mediate language and content learning. The following section will look at the South African literature on teachers’ attitudes towards second language learners, second language learners’ attitude towards the LoLT and the strategies that teachers employ.
2.4. South African literature on attitudes and strategies

In South Africa, there are some contexts where the teachers are not proficient in the learners’ MT and the learners are not proficient in the LoLT of the school. This review of the South African literature will also focus on teachers’ attitudes towards teaching second language learners and second language learners’ attitudes towards the LoLT. The teachers in this case might have English or Afrikaans as a MT which will often be the LoLT of the school, and the learners might have isiXhosa or another African language as a MT, for example. The literature will also look at the classroom strategies that the teachers implement to help second language learners. However, it appears that these classroom strategies are seen as ‘coping strategies’ and not necessarily literacy development strategies. In addition, research has been done in South Africa to investigate the effectiveness of certain language programmes to help teachers teaching second language learners.

2.4.1. Teacher attitudes towards second language learners

A study by Pluddemann, Mati & Mahlalela-Thusi (1998) investigated the problems that arose in multilingual classrooms in primary schools in the Western Cape. After 1994 many isiXhosa-speaking learners were admitted to formerly ‘coloured’ schools where the LoLT was Afrikaans and the teachers were Afrikaans-speaking as well. The researchers found that teachers expressed frustration at situations in which they could not communicate effectively with the majority of their learners who were isiXhosa. They found that where a teacher only had phrase-proficiency in isiXhosa, and the learner knew only enough English or Afrikaans to follow basic instructions, the interaction between the teacher and the learner was stunted.
A study by Theron & Nel (2005) in which they investigated the needs and perceptions of South African Grade 4 teachers teaching English second language learners (ESLLs), found that the teachers’ perceptions of the ESL learner was intrinsic to understanding the teachers’ support for the ESL learner. In the study, 70% of the teachers sampled expressed the opinion that ESL learners did not necessarily perform poorly academically due to intellectual barriers, but rather because of language barriers. However, the authors offered the possibility that all ESL learners’ poor performance could not be attributed due to the language barriers created by the LoLT, but that there could be a possibility of other learning difficulties leading to poor academic achievement. 30% of the teachers in the study attributed ESL learners’ poor academic achievement to the fact that they did not have the intellectual aptitude to achieve academic success. These teachers, according to the researchers, assumed that intelligence was a prerequisite for successful learning. One of the challenges highlighted in this study was that 62% of the learners had poor to very poor parental support, and that teachers felt they could not provide the individual attention that was needed to improve ESL learners’ achievements in English.

According to Hugo (2008), teachers may not always understand the reasons why learners grapple with English language problems, and what can be done to support learners in gaining academic language proficiency in a second language. Hugo (2008) aimed to gain insight into the opinions of teachers in primary schools about the language abilities of the English second language (ESL) learners in their classrooms. She found that most of the teachers, who participated in the research, were unprepared and held uninformed views about ESL learners’ literacy learning.
O’Connor & Geiger (2009) investigated the challenges facing teachers working with English second or other language (ESOL) learners in the Cape Metropolitan area. According to O’Connor & Geiger (2009, p. 260), in spite of teachers feeling sympathy towards ESOL learners, teachers felt frustrated working with them, because of heavy workloads. In addition, teachers reported having to teach on diverse language and academic levels because of the presence of learners with better English abilities.

The South African literature on teachers’ attitudes towards second language learners revealed that teachers felt frustrated when they could not communicate with the learners due to the mismatch in MT between the teachers and the learners. The literature also revealed that teachers were aware that in cases where second language learners performed poorly academically, it was not necessarily due to an intellectual problem, but because they did not have a proper grasp on the language of learning and teaching. Therefore, teachers showed sympathy when they were working with second language learners. The literature highlighted that teachers held uninformed views of second language learners and found it difficult to teach learners with diverse language abilities. Therefore, the studies that were discussed revealed the issue of teachers being untrained and unaware of suitable instructional strategies when teaching second language learners. The next section looks at studies on second language learners’ attitudes towards the LoLT when the LoLT is not their MT.
2.4.2. Learner attitudes towards the LoLT

According to the teachers in Hugo’s (2008) study, poor comprehension was found to be the main concern among ESL learners. They added that ESL learners tended to become easily frustrated when they did not understand what was being said in English and this led to poor interest in and low commitment to learning in a second language (Hugo, 2008, p. 67).

O’Connor & Geiger (2009) found that ESOL learners taught by the participants in the study experienced various challenges such as having to repeat a year or proceeding to the next grade without adequate grasp of the previous grade’s work. The teachers also expressed that the ESOL learners had a low self-esteem because they were struggling academically, as well as experiencing social isolation and disciplinary problems.

In a study by Rapetsoa & Singh (2012) in which they investigated the challenges experienced by ‘black’ history learners in rural areas in the Limpopo Province during assessment through the medium of English, they found that most learners believed that English was a barrier to the teaching and learning of history. The errors in learners’ answer sheets reflected that they had not reached the stage of language proficiency which was needed for them to master the subject of history. That stage is known as the ‘advanced language proficiency’ stage - the stage where learners are expected to speak English grammar and vocabulary comparable to that of the same-age native speakers of English. Instead, the study revealed that the learners were still in the ‘inter-language phases’ where they can communicate to some extent, but their language was marred by
frequent errors. Despite learners’ challenges, 65% of the respondents in the study preferred to use English as a LoLT.

When it comes to the development of academic literacy of isiXhosa learners in Afrikaans schools, the cause for concern is the fact that teachers are ill-equipped to cater to these learners since there is a mismatch between learners’ MT and the LoLT of the school. According to Basson & le Cordeur (2013) teachers in Afrikaans-medium schools who teach isiXhosa mother-tongue speakers don’t have the necessary training in second language instruction and don’t have the necessary skills to support isiXhosa learners. The next section looks at strategies that have been implemented in South African classrooms.

2.4.3. Teaching strategies to help second language learners in South African classrooms

It is evident that in order to develop isiXhosa learners’ academic literacy, special teaching strategies are necessary that focus explicitly on the language and literacy needs on the second language child. The section that follows will look at the teaching strategies for second language learners that have been investigated in South African classrooms.

Coping strategies

Pluddemann, Mati and Mahlalela-Thusi (1998) suggest that, with the frustrations expressed by the teachers, teachers do not resort to literacy support strategies necessarily, but rather coping strategies. Some of the coping strategies that they found teachers used were firstly, ‘peer
interpreting”. During this strategy, teachers called on peers who were able to speak English or Afrikaans to translate what has been said in isiXhosa. According to Pluddemann, Mati and Mahlalela (1998), teachers admitted that this was a desperation measure. The second coping strategy teachers used was ‘language support’ which required teachers to give extra lessons to learners who needed extra support. The extra support was offered by bilingual teaching assistants, who prepared lessons with the teacher everyday after school. Learners tended to see such assistants as parent figures, and this led to improved communication between the teacher and learners as well, and a decrease in discipline problems. Though such a strategy can be considered practical, it may lead to complications, such as putting the authority of the teacher at risk. Teachers therefore need to make careful considerations when employing such a strategy, such as making the boundaries clear between teacher and teaching assistant, teacher and learners and learners and teaching assistant. Teachers also made use of grouping learners according to their abilities in the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT). Learners were grouped into ‘ability groups’ in which they do tasks together, those who were more proficient in one group and those who were less proficient, in another group. The strategy of grouping learners according to their abilities, as well as the ‘peer interpreting’ strategies also relates to the example made by Cummins (2008) about collaborative learning and grouping learners with the same MT together so they can translate for each other and create a shared understanding (Gibbons, 2006), and where the learners are able to talk in their MT while also learning the target language (the LoLT).

**Differentiated learning, code-switching and translation**

The strategies used by the teachers in Theron and Nel’s (2005) study included adapting the level of teaching according to the learners’ needs by remediating ESL learners and preparing additional HTTP://ETD.UWC.AC.ZA/
worksheets to adapt the curriculum. Other strategies also included teachers code-switching in the lesson since they reported having some knowledge of the African languages, drilling of flash cards, role-play, drama and dialogue. The teachers also highlighted the importance of vocabulary and that the peers of the second language learners acted as translators.

**Intervention programme for content-subjects using prescriptions from Afrikaans Home Language subject**

Basson & le Cordeur (2013) designed an intervention programme for isiXhosa-speaking learners in Afrikaans-medium schools to determine if such a programme would enhance the literacy skills of isiXhosa learner in all subjects across the curriculum. The programme aimed to expand isiXhosa learners’ vocabulary in Afrikaans by focusing on important words in fiction and non-fiction texts and words that were unfamiliar to the learners and explaining the words to them. The learners had to search for the words in texts, make predictions and form hypotheses; in other words, skills that were associated with content subjects. The programme was also aimed to provide resources to support isiXhosa learners. Skills that were included in the programme were gained from the prescription for the Afrikaans Home Language Curriculum a) listening and speaking, b) reading and viewing and c) writing. All communication had to be done in appropriate register and language in Afrikaans. They implemented the intervention programme in one previously disadvantaged primary school in Stellenbosch in the Western Cape. Twenty isiXhosa mother-tongue learners in the Intermediate Phase took part in the intervention programme. The programme was implemented for one hour per week for six months in the Afrikaans Home Language period for the participating isiXhosa learners. The isiXhosa learners were given extra support during the Afrikaans HL period during which they were given texts
from content subjects and the teachers focused on enhancing the isiXhosa learners’ reading and writing to help them master the content and vocabulary in content subjects, in the same way they approached texts in the Afrikaans HL subject. It was not made clear in the article whether it was sheltered, intensive or special instruction, whereby the isiXhosa learners were taken out of the classroom during the one hour intervention programme, or whether they remained in the classroom with the rest of the learners during the Afrikaans HL period. Basson and le Cordeur (2013) say that the intervention programme indeed enhanced isiXhosa learners’ Afrikaans literacy skills to a certain extent. However, they argue that the parents of these learners should be informed of the benefits of mother-tongue education, and that teachers be trained to teach in such classrooms rather than have learners learn through the medium of Afrikaans as second language. Though it might be best for learners to receive mother-tongue instruction, it is not always possible, because there are not schools that provide mother-tongue education from Grade R to secondary school.

2.5. Summary

This chapter has focused on a review of the literature, based on the key concepts of this research. The theoretical framework was informed by socio-cultural theory which highlighted the concepts of language and thought, as well as mediating and scaffolding within the learners’ zone of proximal development in order to move from BICS to CALP.

The international literature regarding teachers’ attitudes towards second language learners suggested that teachers had either a subtractive attitude towards second language learners when
they assumed that the MT of a learner was an impediment to learning, or an oblivious attitude to the challenges of second language learners when they assumed that because second language learners had basic interpersonal communication skills in the second language, and so they also had no need for additional support in acquiring CALP. The learner attitudes highlighted in the international literature suggested that learners learning through a language that is not their MT might drop out of school, because they cannot keep up with the linguistic demands of the curriculum. The strategies that the literature provided was based on the idea of making use of learners’ prior experiences and knowledge that they built through their MT, in other words, using their MT as a resource for further learning. The strategies included teaching for transfer, mode-shifting from: oral to written language, from everyday languages to school language and from context-embedded activities to context-reduced activities.

The South African literature on teachers’ attitudes revealed that teachers felt frustrated when they could not communicate with the learners in their class, and that teachers were uninformed about language and cognitive development of second language learners. In terms of learner attitudes the literature revealed that learners did not cope with the linguistic demands of the curriculum since their LoLT was not their MT, but that despite their challenges in the LoLT, they would nonetheless prefer to have English as a LoLT instead of their MT. The literature also revealed that some ESOL learners felt isolated, suffered from low self-esteem and would cause discipline problems.
The strategies used by teachers in the South African context are referred to as ‘coping strategies’ rather than language support strategies. The strategies include translation, hiring bilingual teaching assistants, remedial activities, code-switching with basic vocabulary in an African language, and drilling of flash cards. An intervention programme was also suggested that could help isiXhosa-speaking learners in content subjects. The following chapter will look at the research methodology in order to describe the design and framework of the research, the research methods, ethical considerations, the research process, and how the data was analyzed.
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter will look at the research design and the methodology that was used to conduct the research. The methods that were used were informed mainly by the key concepts in the research questions. The key concepts also informed the sample design and the criteria used for the choice of sampling. The study took on a qualitative paradigm and descriptive and interpretive framework, because it was concerned with teachers and learners as human beings. The chapter will also provide details of the data collection process in terms of when and how the actual data collection process took place, and also addresses the issues of validity and reliability during the data-editing and data-coding process. Lastly, the chapter will look at the process of how the data was analyzed to present the findings that will be presented and discussed in chapter four.

To understand the research design and methodology, the research questions need to be referred to:

RQ1: What are teachers’ perceptions, attitudes and views on developing isiXhosa learners’ academic literacy in an Afrikaans-medium school in Grade 4?

RQ2: What are Grade 4 isiXhosa learners’ perceptions and feelings on being taught Natural Sciences through the medium of Afrikaans as LoLT?

RQ3: What literacy support strategies, if any, do teachers use to develop the academic literacy of isiXhosa learners in the subject Natural Science?
3.2. Research design and key concepts

The design of the study is qualitative. The key concepts in the research questions are: teachers and learners’ attitudes, feelings and views, as well as teacher strategies. The study is qualitative in nature since it involves teachers as human beings, and aims to understand the teachers and their practices in a specific context or setting (Robson, 2011). Stake (2010) sees qualitative research as relying primarily on human perception and understanding. According to Maxwell (1996), a qualitative approach which emphasizes the perspective of teachers and the understanding of particular settings has great potential in informing educational practices.

The study is descriptive in the sense that it sought to find out how Afrikaans-speaking teachers and isiXhosa-speaking learners are dealing with academic literacy demands in terms of observable behaviour or events (Maxwell, 1996; Robson, 2011). This study sought to find if teachers employ certain strategies to develop academic literacy of isiXhosa learners, and if any challenges were observed, or any additional and helpful, observable strategies. Hancock & Algozzine (2006) describe ‘descriptive’ as being grounded in deep and varied resources of information composed from interviews and other techniques to create mental images that bring to life the complexity of the many variables inherent in the phenomenon being studied. Thus, it is not just a case of accepting that it is normal for isiXhosa learners to be taught in an additional language and the challenges that go with it. Rather, it is a case of uncovering all the issues leading to isiXhosa learners being taught in Afrikaans, as well as all the complex components surrounding the teaching of isiXhosa learners in Afrikaans (Freebody, 2003).
The study is also interpretive in the sense that it is aimed at revealing, understanding and interpreting the teachers’ and learners’ perceptions and feelings on teaching in a context where the teacher and a minority of learners do not share the same language. Interpretive research is an investigation that relies heavily on observers defining and redefining the meanings of what they see and hear (Stake, 2010). Important in our interpretations is the role of context and situation. Context and situation are background. Our interpretations depend on a good understanding of surrounding conditions, the context and situation. Therefore, a good understanding of the history of the school, the reason for the use of Afrikaans as the LoLT, and inclusion of speakers other than Afrikaans, such as isiXhosa, needed to be understood. The context of the study is necessary for the interpretations we make.

3.3. Research site and sample design

A school in rural Western Cape, where the medium of instruction is Afrikaans and teachers were Afrikaans mother-tongue speakers, and minority of isiXhosa learners is present, was sought. This particular case is considered somewhat ‘typical’ in that it is in some way representative on a set of dimensions (Maxwell, 1996). For this research the dimensions include geographic region (rural Western Cape), cultural composition - dominantly Afrikaans mother-tongue speakers and minority isiXhosa mother-tongue speakers (83% Afrikaans-speakers and 7.54% isiXhosa-speakers in Cape Agulhas Municipality, which Bredasdorp falls under) and socio-economic level (no-fees public schools, parents possibly have low levels of education, learners possibly live in poor living conditions, etc.). In their study, with a similar language context, Basson & le Cordeur (2013) said that their particular school was a typical example of other similar schools with the same socio-economic factors. So although the findings may only be unique and applicable to the
particular school chosen for the study, the chosen school may be representative of schools with similar contexts. The final choice of school was partly based on convenience. Being a teacher at a nearby school with the similar challenge and being familiar with the context of the area acted as motivation to choose this school and find out more about the problems regarding language in learning in the area. The chosen school also falls into the category of purposeful sampling since the settings and persons were selected deliberately in order to provide important information (Maxwell, 1996).

Four Grade 4 teachers were sought to participate in the research and 15-20 Grade 4 isiXhosa MT speakers. All four teachers had to teach Natural Science. To emphasise again; the reason for this sampling was to get an understanding of how teachers and learners in one particular school, which may be representative of other schools with the same context, perceive and cope with academic literacy development of isiXhosa learners. From the four teachers who participated in the research, two happened to be experienced teachers and two happened to be novice teachers. The reason for seeking participants in Grade 4 is that, according to Basson & Le Cordeur (2013) this grade marks learners’ introduction to content subjects such as Natural Sciences, Social Sciences and Mathematics. It, therefore, also marks learners’ introduction to more formal academic language, and teachers’ responsibility to develop their academic language skills in subjects such as Natural Science; in other words, their academic literacy.
3.4. Research design: methods and instruments

3.4.1. Case study

The research was done in the form of a case study. The case study is a research strategy which focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings (Miles & Huberman, 2002). According to Hancock & Algozzine (2006), the characteristics of a case study are that the phenomenon is researched in its natural context, bounded by space and time: teachers and learners are studied during normal school days. According to Freebody (2003: 74), the goal of a case study is to put in place an inquiry in which both researchers and teachers can reflect upon particular instances of educational practice. The aim of this study, therefore, was for the researcher, and teachers as participants, to understand how teachers develop academic literacy in Grade 4 when the medium of instruction is not the learners’ home language, and the teachers do not share the home language of the learners.

3.4.2. Methods

The research methods that were employed were considered the best in terms of answering the research questions related to teachers and learners’ attitudes, views and feelings, as well as teachers’ strategies to help isiXhosa-speaking learners. The data collection techniques employed during the study, were that of non-participant observation and semi-structured interviews with teachers and focus groups discussions with the learners.
Observations

The first responsibility of the observer is to know what is happening, to see it, to hear it, to try to make sense of it (Stake, 2010). The main purpose of the observations was to see the interactions between the teachers and the isiXhosa learners, the isiXhosa learners’ engagement during the lessons and what strategies the teachers used in the classroom to accommodate isiXhosa-speaking learners. Things had to be observed not only in relation to isiXhosa-speaking learners; but the observation of the Natural Science lessons with the whole class in mind. In other words, how the lesson took place and what strategies teachers used, how learners behaved, not only the isiXhosa-speaking learners, but the Afrikaans-speaking learners as well.

Non-participant observation is an observation technique during which the observer observes the behaviour of the teachers and learners without taking any part in the activities in the classroom (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Observation of three Natural Science lessons for each Grade 4 teacher was planned. The observations were planned to be open observations whereby data would be collected as it was observed in class with a particular focus on how the teacher dealt with academic language of science with isiXhosa learners. I also planned to videotape the lessons. The observation notes were to be structured into a table as a lesson summary, and each observation allocated a date, time and pseudonym for the teachers and learners. It was planned that the observation notes and lesson summaries would be used to identify the type of strategies the teachers used in their classroom, as well as how the learners were included in the Natural Science lessons.
Interviews with teachers

Interviewing can be a meaningful way of understanding actions and events in the classrooms that can provide additional information that was missed in observation and can be used to check the accuracy of the observations (Maxwell, 1996: 76). The interview, according to Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007), allows for greater depth than other data collection methods. Interviews, according to Stake (2010) are used for purposes such as obtaining unique information or interpretation held by the person interviewed as well as finding out about something that the researchers were unable to observe themselves, or what they needed clarity on while observing. Rubin & Rubin (2005) compare the interview to a conversation. Conversations and interviews are similar in that two speakers take turns to talk. However, there are some differences between ordinary conversations and in-depth interviews. In both ordinary conversations and interviews, questions and answers follow one another logically. Participants work out ways to acknowledge when they understand, ask questions or look puzzled when they do not clarify ambiguities on request. However, qualitative interviews are more focused, more in-depth, and more detailed than ordinary conversations, because one person does most of the questioning and the other does most of the answering (ibid.). An obvious difference between interviews and normal conversations is that the researcher needs to keep a record of what was said for later analysis. A semi-structured approach to the interviews was taken. Hancock & Algozzine (2006: 40) say that, semi-structured interviews are particularly well-suited for case-study research in that the questions are predetermined but flexibly worded and, provide tentative answers. The aims of the semi-structured interviews were to gain understanding of the teachers’ practices and their perceptions on developing the academic literacy of isiXhosa learners.

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One semi-structured interview per teacher after observation of all the lessons was planned. This would help to capture the essence of teachers’ perceptions, attitudes and thoughts as well as for the teachers to reflect on their classroom practices. Interviews are also a way of triangulating the data and strengthening the validity of the findings. Individual interviews yield significant amounts of information from an individual’s perspective, but may be quite time-consuming. Therefore, an interview guide was developed in order to identify appropriate open-ended questions that were asked during each interview. (Hancock & Algozinne (2006: 39). The interviews were planned to be conducted after observations in order to provide opportunity for the teachers to reflect on what they were doing in class and why.

**Focus group interviews with learners**

Focus group interviews produce data derived from a group process in a focused manner. As a result, participants influence each other, opinions change, and new insights emerge (Krueger, 1998). According to Robson (2011: 294), focus groups are a highly efficient technique for qualitative data collection since the amount and range of data is increased by collecting from several people at the same time. The aims were to facilitate communication, promote an exchange of ideas and experiences and give learners a sense of safety in expressing conflicts or concerns (Robson, 2011: 295). The focus group interviews were planned to be conducted after the observation of lessons. From these focus groups insight would be gained into learners’ perceptions and feelings on being taught through the medium of Afrikaans. Two focus group discussions were planned. The interviews were audio-taped in addition to note-taking. The focus group interviews were planned to be conducted with the guidance of an Afrikaans/ isiXhosa translator, if necessary.
3.5. Ethical considerations

According to Robson (2011: 194), “It should be self-evident that there are ethical considerations when carrying out research involving people. There is a potential for harm, stress and anxiety, and a numerous other negative consequences for research participants”. In order to minimize any ethical dilemmas I might have faced regarding the participants I observed and interviewed, I followed the guidelines outlined by the British Educational Research Association (2011: 3-11).

Informed consent

Appropriate informed consent was sought from the necessary authorities. This included gaining permission and approval from the necessary parties which include: University of the Western Cape’s Education Faculty’s Higher Degrees Committee and the Senate Higher Degrees Committees; as well as the Western Cape Education Department to gain access to the research site. Permission from the principal, teachers and parents of the participating learners was sought. In line with the ethical considerations, detailed letters of the purpose and nature of the research was sent to the principal, participating teachers and parents of participating learners, after which consent was given to conduct the research. The participants were clearly informed that their participation and interactions were being observed and potentially used for research.

Confidentiality of information

Confidentiality of information was promised, as well as responsibility to not reveal anything of a personal or compromising nature. Rights to confidentially and anonymity were accorded unless they or their guardians, specifically and willingly waived that right. Confidentiality of identity
was promised by not revealing real names or the name of the school unless given permission to do so and instead allocate initials, symbols or pseudonyms.

**Participants’ rights**

Participants’ rights were to be protected, their participation in the research was not obligatory; permission was asked from the teachers, and they could withdraw whenever they wish to do so.

**Storage of data**

Appropriate measures were taken to store research data in a secure manner. Methods for preserving the privacy of data were used such as the removal of identifiers during recording of lessons and interviews, and the use of pseudonyms.

**3.6. Data collection process and limitations**

This section focuses on data collection: When and how access to the school was gained, the sampling of the participants and the methods and instruments used during the data collection period. The data collection process itself will also be described in terms of the challenges and limitations to the research methods.
Gaining access to the research site

Permission from the WCED to conduct the research in the particular school was gained in November 2014. Data collection took place during the first term and into the first quarter of the second term of 2015. Access to the school was gained with permission from the principal on 23rd of January 2015. Permission from teachers was gained on the 9th of February, and data collection commenced on the 16th of February. Access was negotiated through written letters to the principal, the teachers and the parents, in which the research was described, as well as the expectations and aims of the research. Letters are attached as appendices (Appendix A to E).

Observation of natural science lessons

The teachers were allocated the names Teachers A, B, C and D. The teachers were given these names based on the initial sequence in which the observation of lessons took place. Teachers A and D happened to be experienced teachers, while teachers B and C happened to be novice teachers. A timetable was given to the teachers stating when classroom visits would take place for Natural Science only. Even though that arrangement had been made, some teachers were not prepared to teach Natural Science in the allocated time, because they had to teach other subjects that were more of a priority in that particular time. So I had no guarantee that the teachers would be teaching Natural Science on the day I had scheduled. Nonetheless, three Natural Science lessons for each teacher were observed. Considering the issues of reactivity the research instrument being used during classroom observations had to be rethought. The Grade 4 learners took too long to become used to the video-camera in their classrooms. It was difficult to videotape the lessons since the learners and the teachers were so distracted by it. While the
teacher was supposed to ignore the video camera, they kept asking if I got that, or telling the learners that I was going to show the footage to their parents or the principal. Therefore, written notes were made and the third lesson of each teacher was audio-recorded along with the detailed observation notes as it could provide a more detailed record of the lesson.

Teacher interviews

The teacher interviews were conducted after the observation of the three natural science lessons for each teacher. An audio recorder was used to record the interview. While conducting the interviews it appeared that the teachers were sometimes not sure about a particular question, because they would ask: “I’m not sure… but I hoped that answered your question.” That was an indication that perhaps the phrasing of the question was unclear or ambiguous, etc. According to Rubin & Rubin (2005:127), sometimes you will discover that though you began with one idea of what the study is about, you learn the interviewees think a different aspect of the problem is important. It might also be an indication that the teachers were not well informed about the issues concerned with language and learning, and had not given much thought to these issues and were uncertain.
**Focus group interviews**

Fifteen Grade 4 isiXhosa-speaking learners participated in the focus group interviews. Learners were divided into two focus groups; one of 8 from classes A and D and one of 7 from classes B and C. There was not specific reason to group learners from classes A and D together, and learners from classes B and C together. The focus group session was planned to be done with the help of an Afrikaans/isiXhosa translator, if necessary. In focus group 1 only one girl was quieter than the rest. Perhaps it was because she could not express herself well in Afrikaans, or perhaps she was shy. She did, however, respond in isiXhosa which one of the other isiXhosa learners translated to Afrikaans for me. According to Krueger (1998), silence does not imply a lack of opinion. Lack of comment on a particular topic may itself have meaning in analysis. Focus group 2 was a bit more challenging as there were three out of the eight learners who found it difficult to communicate in Afrikaans. The arranged translator did not arrive and, therefore, an isiXhosa speaking learner who could speak Afrikaans well had to do the translation between them and me.

A game was played before the focus group interviews started in order to break the ice and make learners comfortable. The game required learners to sit in a circle, myself included. Each person would get a turn to name an animal. If a learner could not name an animal within ten seconds, or repeated the name of an animal already mentioned, that learner would be out of the game. Three of the eight learners in focus group 2 could not speak Afrikaans or English well and therefore, getting the game to flow was difficult and and overall the interview was more challenging than it was for the first focus group.
Due to the challenge of communicating with the three learners in focus group 2 who could not communicate very well in English or Afrikaans during the focus group interviews, I regard the lack of an isiXhosa translator as a limitation to the research. The use of an isiXhosa translator for these learners could have added richness to the findings.
3.7. Validity and trustworthiness of research methods

Validity has long been a key issue in debates over the legitimacy of qualitative research; if qualitative research studies cannot consistently produce valid results, then policies, programs, or predictions based on these studies cannot be relied on (Miles & Huberman, 2002). The first concern of most qualitative researchers is with the factual accuracy of their account – that is, that they are not making up or distorting the things they saw and heard. Therefore, I had to make a concrete and detailed account of my observations through audio-recordings and note-taking during my observations, and transcribing the audio recordings in order to provide evidence for my interpretations and thick descriptions. Trustworthiness is a serious issue in qualitative research, and there are certain aspects to this type of research that can threaten the trustworthiness of the research and how accurate the findings are that will be reported.

3.7.1. Triangulation for validity and reliability

In order to establish whether my findings and interpretations were valid, I had to make use of triangulation through classroom observation, interviews with the teachers and focus group interviews with the learners. According to Stake (2010), we triangulate our data by using more than just observation, in order to increase confidence that we have correctly interpreted how things work.

3.7.2. Methods of dealing with threats to the research

A few threats to this study will be named, and how I attempted to rule out these threats.
Drawing inaccurate or incomplete conclusions

From the observations and interviews, I faced the threat of drawing inaccurate or incomplete conclusions. Therefore, I attempted to make detailed and accurate notes of the observations, as well as detailed transcripts of the audio-recordings.

Domination of views by one or two learners

The second threat I faced in the focus group was that extreme views may predominate and bias may be caused by the domination of the group by one or two people (Robson, 2011). To eliminate that threat I attempted to probe individual answers from each member in the group.

Generalisation of results

Thirdly, the results may be difficult to generalise as they cannot be representative of the wider population who find themselves in similar contexts. Therefore, I could only form and report an opinion or assumption based on each teacher and learner’s experiences in the particular school. But, I can make claims to generalisability on the basis of choosing a school that was typical what Maxwell (1996, p. 115) refers to as ‘face generalisability’.

Imposing my own framework of meaning

The fourth threat I faced was imposing my own framework or meaning, rather than understanding the teachers’ studied and the meanings they are trying to convey (Maxwell, 1996). Therefore, I
made use of member checks: I sought feedback about my conclusions from the teachers I was studying.

Reactivity

The last threat I might have faced was reactivity, a term Maxwell (1996: 91) described as the influence of the researcher on the setting or individuals studied. In other words, reactivity refers to the influence the researcher has on the behaviour of the teachers or learners when they know they are being studied. According to Maxwell, the goal is not to eliminate the influence but to understand it and to use it productively. To use that threat productively means that I could only form an interpretation and draw an inference from what I saw and heard from the teachers which could be considered to be their true thoughts and behaviour at that particular time of the observations and interviews. Although a video recorder was used initially to record the lessons, I changed the method to audio-taping the lessons instead, because teachers were very conscious of the fact that they would be video-taped. Using the audio-recorder instead of a video recorder also reduced the threat of reactivity.

3.8 Data Analysis

The data was analysed and interpreted in order to answer the research questions. Qualitative data analysis requires the ability to process information in a meaningful and useful manner (Robson, 2011). The process of data analysis for this study can be described in the following stages:
Stage 1: The audio recordings of the interviews with the teachers, and the focus group interviews with the learners were transcribed. The recording of the third lesson of each teacher was also transcribed, and the lesson summaries were examined.

Stage 2: open-coding of transcriptions: The transcriptions and lesson summaries were coded. The first coding phase is known as open coding. During the open coding phase, the transcriptions and summaries were read and re-read and applied initial codes were applied that were provisional in order to seek initial interpretations of the collected data (Robson, 2011).

Stage 3: Axial coding – producing categories: axial coding is viewed, by Strauss (1987) as leading to an understanding of the central phenomenon in the data in terms of its context and the conditions which gave rise to it. During this stage, the data that have been coded separately from the transcriptions and the lesson summaries, were brought together to look for patterns within the categories, that would possibly answer the research questions. The codes led to the development of categories when similar codes corresponded or contrasted with one another.

Stage 4: Selective coding – producing themes and a storyline: during selective coding, themes were created to which the categories formed in axial coding are the sub-themes. The themes were created to interpret and describe the categories and the patterns within the themes (Robson, 2011). The purpose of the themes is to conceptualize or form a storyline for the findings of the research.
The research findings which were produced through the process of data analysis are presented in Chapter Four.

3.9. Summary

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology. The research was qualitative in nature. Four Grade 4 teachers - two experienced and two novice - and 15 isiXhosa learners from a rural primary school in the Overberg of the Western Cape took part in the research. Interviews, focus group interviews and observations were used as data collection methods. The issues of validity and reliability were dealt with through the triangulation of the data collection methods, as well as validity checks with the teachers. The data that was collected during the interviews and lesson observations were transcribed and analyzed through a coding and categorization process which led to the development of themes which will be discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter will discuss the findings that emerged from the data that was collected through the observations, teacher interviews and focus group interviews. The interviews were transcribed, and together with the lesson summaries, coded, categorized and produced into themes during the data analysis process. Before the discussion of the findings, a background to the school will be given, a brief look into the school’s written language policy, and a description of the sample size of the participants. The themes relate to the research questions which are concerned with teacher attitudes towards teaching isiXhosa-speaking learners, learner attitudes towards the LoLT and the teaching strategies that the teachers employed to help isiXhosa-speaking learners. Vignettes of these transcriptions will serve as a verbal illustration of the responses to the questions (Stake, 2010). The chapter will end with a summary of the main results – positive and negative.

4.2. Background of the school and the town

Bredasdorp is a town located in the Overberg of the Western Cape and forms part of the southernmost local municipality in Africa - Cape Agulhas Municipality. According to Statistics South Africa (2011), Bredasdorp has a population of 15524 people. 66.50% of that population is made up of ‘coloured’, 19.03% ‘white’, 12.74% ‘black’ African, 1.32% ‘other’ and 0.41% Indian or Asian people. Afrikaans is the language spoken by 83% of the people, while only 7.54% of the population speaks isiXhosa and 4.33 % speak English. There are no schools that offer isiXhosa as the LoLT, except a few in pre-primary schools, after which the isiXhosa-speaking learners have
to go to one of the Afrikaans-medium schools in Bredasdorp. According to the WCED (2015), there are two primary schools in Bredasdorp. One of the schools offered dual-medium instruction of English and Afrikaans and the school also charged tuition fees for enrollment. According to the WCED website, the second school, which was the research school, offered Afrikaans/English parallel-medium instruction, and the school was primarily government-funded. Although the reason was not explored in this research, there were many isiXhosa learners who were enrolled at the parallel-medium school.

4.3. Language policy of the research school

The school in which the research was conducted has a written language policy which was provided by the principal on request via email in September 2015. It is useful to read the language policy of the research school in conjunction with the official language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) of South Africa to see how the language policy of the school adapted to the official LiEP.

The official LiEP was aimed to promote all official languages in South Africa as possible languages of learning and teaching, as well as to promote multilingualism in schools. The policy states that the LiEP is ‘a necessary aspect of the government’s strategy of building a non-racial nation in South Africa’ (DoE, 1997, p. 1) and therefore ‘to redress the neglect of the historically disadvantaged languages in school education’ (p. 2). The language policy also states that schools must stipulate how they intend to promote multilingualism through using more than one language of learning and teaching, or by offering additional languages as fully-fledged subjects. The language policy of the research school addresses certain issues that conform to the official LiEP.

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Only the key issues in the school’s language policy that were considered important to this research will be discussed in relation to the official LiEP. These issues are:

- the official LoLT of the school
- which languages will be taught as subjects
- how the school will promote multilingualism
- how the school will deal with language requests from parents
- learning and teaching resource material

**LoLT of the school**

The LiEP states that the LoLT of the school must be an official language and the aim is to facilitate national and international communication through promotion of bi- or multilingualism (DoE, 1997, p. 1). In the research school, Afrikaans is the LoLT. The school claims to be a parallel medium school of Afrikaans and English in its language policy. It also claims to be a parallel-medium school by the WCED. Parallel-medium instruction means that the learners, who have one of these languages as their MT, will be taught separately in either an Afrikaans-medium or English-medium class (DBE, 2010). However, during the data collection period, all the Grade 4 classrooms that were visited were only taught through the medium of Afrikaans. The language policy of the school states that learners with a mother tongue different than Afrikaans will, if possible, be accommodated in their mother tongue, but it does not stipulate how exactly they will be accommodated.
Languages as subjects

In terms of languages as subjects, the official LiEP (1997) states that in Grades 1 and 2, all learners will receive at least one approved language as a subject, and from Grade 3 onwards, all learners will receive their LoLT as a language subject, as well as an additional approved language. In the research school, the languages that were offered as subjects were Afrikaans Home Language and English First Additional Language from Grade 1 – 7. The school’s language policy states that since isiXhosa is the ‘third official language in the Western Cape’, it will be seen as an option in the future, but it was not offered as a subject during the period of data collection.

On official languages and multilingualism

With regards to promoting multilingualism, the school’s language policy stated that parents and teachers must be sensitized regularly towards the promotion of all South African languages in order to move towards the direction of multilingualism, and to help with nation-building and good citizenship. The school’s policy did not state how the school aimed to sensitize parents and teachers to the promotion of multilingualism.

Language requests

According to the LiEP (DoE, 1997), parents have the right to request the LoLT for the learner if it is practicable within the school; in other words, if ‘there are less than 40 requests in Grades 1 to 6, or less than 35 requests in Grade 7 to 12 for instruction in a language in a given grade not already offered by the school in a particular school district’ (DoE, 1997, p. 3). If the language
requests cannot be met, the provincial education department must keep a register of requests by learners for teaching in a language medium which cannot be accommodated by schools. The language policy of the research school stated that requests made by learners for a different LoLT, in which the school could not provide, were to be placed on record. Such requests would be sent to the local education district regularly. Parents who wished to enroll their child in the school would be given the language policy and it would form part of the signed admission agreement upon entry. In case of problems or tensions regarding the language issues, the WCED would be invited by the school to fill a supporting role until negotiations are complete for the satisfaction of all involved parties.

**Learning and teaching resource material**

The language policy of the school stated that most of the resources would be in Afrikaans since it was the LoLT of the school. However, the policy also stated that in the annual budget, provision had to be made for the purchasing of material that met the language needs of the non-Afrikaans-speaking teachers and learners. As it was observed, most of the resources in the school were in Afrikaans with exceptions to some resource material being in English like posters, particularly in the library.

The language policy of the school, to a certain extent, was cognizant of the aims of the LiEP. The school acknowledged that there was a need to have isiXhosa as a subject to promote multilingualism in the school. Whether and when it would be implemented was not stipulated in the policy. Nonetheless, it has to be noted that the school was acknowledging the need to include
isiXhosa in the school environment and therefore, also acknowledging the need to allow parents and learners of different mother tongues than Afrikaans and English to practice their linguistic rights and needs and to see how those rights and needs can be met.

### 4.4. Participants of the study

#### 4.4.1. Profile of four Grade 4 teachers

There were five Grade 4 teachers at the school. Four grade 4 teachers took part in the study. Two were experienced teachers and two were novice teachers. The teachers’ qualifications and years of experience are shown in table 4.3.1.

#### Table 1: Profile of teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Qualification and specialization</th>
<th>Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher A</td>
<td>Primary Teachers Diploma&lt;br&gt;Specialization: Music and History&lt;br&gt;Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE)&lt;br&gt;Specialization: Mathematics and Afrikaans</td>
<td>17 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher B</td>
<td>B. Ed&lt;br&gt;Specialization: English and Life Orientation</td>
<td>5 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Phase: Intermediate phase (Grade 4-6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher C</th>
<th>B. Ed</th>
<th>5 months</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Specialization: Natural Science, Technology and Afrikaans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phase: Intermediate phase (Grade 4-6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher D</th>
<th>Primary Teachers Certificate Specialization: Physical Training</th>
<th>30 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Professional Diploma Specialization: Social Science and Mathematical Literacy –</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phase: Intermediate and Senior phase</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.4.2. Learner participants

The number of Grade 4 learners in the school was 220 of which 17 were isiXhosa-speaking learners. The number of learners who took part in the research was 16. One of the isiXhosa learners did not return the consent letter and was also absent from school on the day of focus group interviews. One learner, Rithabile (Teacher B’s class) was a Sesotho MT learner. Although the focus of the research was on isiXhosa learners because they form a sizeable minority in the Grade 4 classes, Rithabile was included, because she faced even more challenges since she was the only Sesotho-speaking learner in the class.
Table 2: Learner participants (pseudonyms are used)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learners</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Siya</td>
<td>Teacher A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Vuyo</td>
<td>Teacher A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Anna</td>
<td>Teacher A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Tina</td>
<td>Teacher A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Sinazo</td>
<td>Teacher B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Ithumeleng</td>
<td>Teacher B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Sophie</td>
<td>Teacher B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Rithabile (Sesotho)</td>
<td>Teacher B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Vusi</td>
<td>Teacher C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Khaya</td>
<td>Teacher C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Carl</td>
<td>Teacher C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Aviwe</td>
<td>Teacher C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Tiffany</td>
<td>Teacher D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Luyodo</td>
<td>Teacher D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Dumisani</td>
<td>Teacher D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5. Findings: teacher attitudes, learner attitudes and teaching strategies

The findings from the research that will be presented were analyzed based on a coding and categorization process which led to the emergence of themes. The themes relate to concepts mentioned in the research questions which are: teacher attitudes, learner attitudes and teaching strategies. The attitudes of teacher will be presented first, then the learner attitudes and lastly the teachers’ strategies. A summary of these attitudes and strategies will be presented after which the findings will be discussed. The themes will be discussed in relation to the literature in chapter five.

4.5.1. Teacher attitudes towards teaching isiXhosa-speaking learners

The findings relating to the teachers’ attitudes were mainly gained from the interviews with each teacher. The interview questions related to

- each teacher’s experience in teaching isiXhosa-speaking learners through the medium of Afrikaans
- the challenges teachers thought isiXhosa-speaking learners faced in being taught through Afrikaans

In order to understand each teacher’s attitude towards teaching isiXhosa-speaking learners, it is important to look at the key points that were mentioned during the interviews by each teacher. Although it is difficult to ascertain teachers’ attitudes based only on their responses, these
responses provide an insight into teachers’ views which could be an indication of their attitudes towards isiXhosa learners. Each teacher will be discussed separately.

Teacher A

a) The struggling isiXhosa-learner and the non-struggling isiXhosa-learners

According to Teacher A, while teaching isiXhosa-speaking learners in the past was a problem, it was less of a problem in the recent years and at the time of data collection. According to Teacher A, the only isiXhosa learner in her class who was struggling was Tina. Siya and Vuyo were considered academically strong. Anita was also on a better level academically than Tina, but weaker than Siya and Vuyo. Below is an indication of the learners who were considered academically strong versus the academically weak learners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Academic Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Siya</td>
<td>Academically strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vuyo</td>
<td>Academically strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anna</td>
<td>Academically strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tina</td>
<td>Academically weak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teacher A attributed the isiXhosa-speaking learners who performing better academically to the fact that they had repeated a grade in the foundation phase and they were exposed to Afrikaans more; therefore they were considered to be on the same level as their Afrikaans-speaking peers.

Die kinders wat ons nou mee werk, baie van hulle is Afrikaans magtig. Hulle is nou al by die skool van Graad R, so jy kan ‘n pad met hulle stap.
[The learners that we work with now, many of them are proficient in Afrikaans. They have been at the school since Grade R, so you can walk a path with them…]

She attributed Tina’s poorer academic performance to the fact that she came to the school at a later stage, and if she repeated Grade 4, she would be exposed to more help in building her foundation in Afrikaans.

Sy het eintlik ‘n baie groot agterstand… In Graad 4 doen ons nog baie vaslegging en probeer ander strategieë implementer om vir hulle op dieselfde vlak te bring as die ander, so dit sal beter wees vir hulle om die graad te herhaal.

[She (Tina) has a huge backlog… In Grade 4 we do a lot of foundation work, so it would be better to repeat the grade, because it will strengthen her.]

b) Challenges for isiXhosa-speaking learners

Generally, Teacher A mentioned that the biggest problem for the isiXhosa learners was to comprehend an instruction.

Die moeilikste ding vir hulle is om ‘n instruksie te verstaan, want baie van hulle, selfs party wat oulik kan lees en skryf… Hulle herken die woorde, maar hulle het nie begrip van wat daar staan nie.

[The most difficult thing for them is to understand an instruction, because many of them, even those who can read and write well… They recognize the words, but they do not really have comprehension of what they are reading.]
Teacher A also mentioned that Tina also had specific challenges such as expressing herself in Afrikaans.

Die enigste enetjie wat uit die bus uitval is Tina… Ek dink dis omdat Tina ‘n probleem het om haarsel uit te druk…

[The only one who has a problem is Tina… I think it is because Tina has a problem expressing herself…]

c) Attitude towards isiXhosa-speaking learners

Based on the distinction that she made, Teacher A seemed to have a sympathetic attitude towards Tina, because she said that it must be difficult to be taught in a MT that was different from your own.

Dit moet seker vir ‘n kind baie frustrerend wees om te moet sit tussen mense wat ek nie kop of stert kan uitmaak nie. Ek probeer my soms in hulle skoene sit, en net om te dink, hoe moet dit voel om daar te sit en jy verstaan nie wat mense rondom jou praat nie.

[It must be frustrating to have to sit among people when you do not understand anything… I try to put myself in their shoes and how it must feel to not understand what the people around you are saying…]

However, she also expressed a sense of frustration towards Tina in that she could not always get through to her, because she would sometimes have to beg Tina to write something from the board or participate in class. On the other hand, Teacher A seemed to be proud of the isiXhosa-speaking
learners who were not struggling, because she considered them to be on the same level as the Afrikaans-speaking learners.

Dit is verblydend om te sien hoeveel isiXhosa-sprekende kinders hulle nou al laat geld in ‘n Afrikaans omgewing, want daar is baie van hulle wat nou hulle staal wys.

[It is encouraging to see how many isiXhosa learners are showing their worth in an Afrikaans environment... It’s encouraging to see how many are showing how strong they are...]

Teacher B

a) The struggling isiXhosa-learner and the non-struggling isiXhosa-learners

Teacher B also made a distinction between the isiXhosa learners who were struggling and those who were not. Teacher B said that Sinazo, who was academically the strongest isiXhosa learner in his class, was on the same academic level as her Afrikaans speaking peers. Below is an indication of the learners who were considered academically strong and the learners who were considered academically weak.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Academic Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sinazo</td>
<td>Academically strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ithumeleng</td>
<td>Academically strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophie</td>
<td>Academically weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rithabile (Sesotho)</td>
<td>Academically weak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
Teacher B did not elaborate much on the rest of the isiXhosa learners in his class except for Sophie and Rithabile who were struggling academically. He attributed Sophie’s poorer performance to the fact that she had come from the Eastern Cape to Bredasdorp one year previously and did not know any Afrikaans. Rithabile could not speak Afrikaans and was considered to be a learner who was on a lower academic and intellectual level than the rest of the Grade 4 learners, because she received special intervention and support from Learning Supporter at the school. Rithabile fell under the programme the WCED termed: individual education development plan (IEDP).

Sophie kom die jaar uit die Eastern Cape uit. Sy is alles gewoond aan Engels. Sy verstaan niks Afrikaans nie, maar sy probeer baie hard… en Rithabile is maar nou ‘n IOOP (individuele onderwysondersteuningsplan) gevallietjie. Vir haar is dit ook mos nou maar moeilik.

[Sophie came from the Eastern Cape this year. She is used to everything in English. She does not understand Afrikaans, but she tries really hard… and Rithabile is a case of IED (individual education development plan). For her it is difficult.]

This IEDP programme required Rithabile to leave the mainstream class during a certain part of the day where she received special instruction by the Learning Supporter for reading and writing. When asked whether he believed that it was solely an intellectual problem or whether he thought that the fact that she was instructed in Afrikaans while her MT was Sesotho could be a problem, he considered both options; that Rithabile’s weaker academic performance could be an intellectual impairment or it could be the language issue, or it could be both.
Ek dink dit is die taal, maar aan die een kant dink ek ook nie dit is die taal nie. Nou en dan vang sy ietsie by Wiskunde, so, solank sy net iets weet, want ek gaan nou nie vir haar Graad 3 werk gee nie. So ek dink dit is verstand… maar ek dink ook dis die taal, want sy kom van die Eastern Cape af, so dis ‘n ‘mix’ van daai.

[I think it is the language, but on the other hand I don’t think it is only that. Now and then she understands something in Mathematics, but as long as she just knows something, because I am not going to give her Grade 3 work. So I think it’s the language too, because she comes from the Eastern Cape, so it is a mix of both.]

Teacher B attributed the other isiXhosa learners’ better academic performance to the fact they have been at the school since Grade 1.

Dis omdat hulle mos nou al van Graad 1 af in die ‘stream’ gekom het. Daarom is dit vir hulle makliker as wat dit vir Sophie is… En hulle is hier gebore…

[It is because they have been at the school since Grade 1. That is why it is easier for them than it is for Sophie… And they were born here…]

b) Challenges in Afrikaans

According to Teacher B, the main challenges for Sophie were expressing herself in Afrikaans and her inability to read in Afrikaans.

Sy praat nie saam met my Engels nie. Ek sal vir haar iets verduidelik in die klas dan sal ek met haar Engels praat… Sy praat nie terug nie.
[I can speak to Sophie in English... but she is even too shy to even speak to me in English.
She’s very shy.]

He also said that if a child, in this case, the struggling learners did not know how to read in Afrikaans, it would be very difficult, because every learning area requires a child to be able to read.

As jy nie kan lees nie dan kan jy mos nou nie, en dis vir jou moeilik want in elke vak het ons leeswerk… En as die kind nie Afrikaans kan lees nie gaan hy mos nou uit die bus uitval.

[If you cannot read then you can’t… and it will be difficult because in every subject we have reading… And if the child cannot read Afrikaans then he will be lost.]

For Rithabile, the main challenge was also in her inability to communicate in Afrikaans, because she was dependent on gestures or phrases from the isiXhosa learners in her class as it was observed in lesson 1.

c) Attitude towards isiXhosa-speaking learners

Towards the isiXhosa-speaking learners Teacher B seemed to be sympathetic and accommodating in that he mentioned that he tried to speak in English to help Sophie, because he assumed that she was taught in English when she came from the Eastern Cape in 2015. However, Teacher B also expressed frustration towards the language situation between himself and Sophie in that he did not seem to get through to her even though he tried to speak to her in English or use code-switching.

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Volgens haar ma-hulle is sy Engels. Sy praat nie saam met my Engls nie… Ek sal vir haar iets verduidelik en met haar Engls praat; spesifiek wat ek geleer het soos “code-switching” en “bilingualism” in bring in die klas maar sy praat nie terug nie.

[According to her (Sophie’s) mom, she speaks English… I’ll try and explain to her something in English… specifically the things I learned like code-switching and bilingualism, but she does not talk back.]

Towards the school Teacher B also expressed frustration since he continually mentioned that he was ‘supposed to’ teach in English and that the school should have had English as a LoLT. This frustration also seemed to be based on his assumption that the parents of the isiXhosa-speaking learners wanted their children to have the option of choosing between three languages as a LoLT: English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa, or have each language as a subject, but according to Teacher B, the school and the parents of Afrikaans-speaking learners did not want to.

Ek moet die Graad 4 Engels mainstream registerklaas gehad het… (maar) hier is net die opsie van een taal… en die ouers raak opstandig daaroor…

[I was supposed to have a Grade 4 English mainstream class… At the school there is only the option of one language and the parents oppose that…]

Teacher B’s attitude could also be seen during one incident in class when communicating with Rithabile. During lesson 1 an incident was observed where Teacher B requested the learners to take out their Natural Science books and went to Rithabile’s table to see whether she had taken it out. However, instead of talking directly to Rithabile, he talked to one of the isiXhosa learners who sat beside her, Maria (who did not take part in the research), to ask Rithabile whether she
had the Natural Science book and whether she understood what she had to do. It could be an indication that the teacher was unsure of how to communicate with Rithabile and therefore relied on her friend. However, this type of communication could be harmful to Rithabile’s identity and self-esteem. This incident will be elaborated on in the discussion chapter.

**Teacher C**

**a) The struggling isiXhosa-learners and the non-struggling isiXhosa-learner**

According to Teacher C, three of the four isiXhosa learners in his class he considered to be academically strong. Aviwe was the only learner in his class who he considered to be struggling.

> In my klas is dit nie so moeilik nie, want dis eintlik sterk kinders… dit is net Aviwe, maar dis omdat sy meer Engels is, want sy verstaan nie eintlik regitig Afrikaans nie.

>[In my class it is not that difficult, because I actually have strong learners... It is just Aviwe, but that is because she is more English... she does not really understand Afrikaans.]

Below is an indication of the learners who were academically strong and the learners who were not.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vusi</td>
<td>Academically strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khaya</td>
<td>Academically strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carl</td>
<td>Academically strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aviwe</td>
<td>Academically weak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
He did not attribute the difference in academic performance between the isiXhosa learners to anything in particular, except for Vusi, who he said performed better, because he was exposed to reading at home and because of parental involvement.

Vusi, hy lees baie. Hy preseteer eintlik beter as van my Afrikaanse kinders ook… Vusi se ouers vat regtig vir hom aan die hand.

[Vusi performs better than some of my Afrikaans learners, but that is because he reads a lot… Vusi’s parents have come to see me many times and they take him by the hand…]

It could also be that Teacher C assumes that parental involvement leads to better academic achievement.

b) Challenges for isiXhosa-speaking learners

According to Teacher C, although he mentioned that the isiXhosa-speaking learners in his class were ‘strong’ academically, he mentioned some challenges that they faced. Khaya had challenges in writing. Aviwe had challenges in expressing herself in Afrikaans and her writing was muddled.

She is shy. She does not act with self-confidence. I always take her in a corner to do oral. She will read, but not really read. I will show her sight words.

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
c) **Attitude towards isiXhosa-speaking learners**

It could not be established what kind of attitude Teacher C had towards the isiXhosa-speaking learners since he seemed to treat all the learners in his class the same based on the observations. However, his attitude could be seen as sympathetic towards Aviwe, who was struggling academically since he also mentioned that it would be better if the learners were taught in their MT.

Ek dink as hulle in hulle moedertaal onderrig moet word, soos, as jy nou iets vir hulle verduidelik in hulle modertaal, sal dit makliker wees, want dan sal hulle verstaan wat aan gaan.

*[I think if they could be taught in their mother tongue, if you can explain something to them in their mother tongue, they would be able to understand better.]*

Teacher D

a) **The isiXhosa-speaking learners were on the same level as the Afrikaans-speaking learners**

Teacher D expressed that she did not have isiXhosa-speaking learners in her class that struggled. Zukisa was the only learner who was struggling the previous year, but repeated Grade 4 and was performing better. Below is an indication of the learners who were considered academically strong in Teacher D’s class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tiffany</th>
<th>Academically strong</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
Teacher D attributed Zukisa’s poorer academic performance to the fact that she only came to the school in Grade 4 the previous year (2014) and did not know Afrikaans. She admitted that it was a language issue that held Zukisa back, since she proved to do well in Mathematics.

Zukisa kan in Engels en Afrikaans lees soos sy nou al aangepas het. Sy herhaal Graad 4, maar dit is ‘n goeie ding, want sy kon nie Afrikaans praat toe sy hier gekom het nie… Sy kon Wiskunde doen, soos ‘30+30’, maar sodra daar woorde by is dan het sy gesukkel.

[Zukisa can read English and Afrikaans now the way she has adapted. She is repeating Grade 4, but it is a good thing, because she could not speak Afrikaans when she came here... She could do Mathematics, like ‘30+30’, but as soon words were added and she had to read, she struggled.]

Teacher D also expressed that while the isiXhosa-speaking learners struggled in the past, it was not the case in recent years and she considered them to be on the same level as the Afrikaans-speaking peers, because they had exposure to Afrikaans from an early grade.

As hulle die taal kan praat, soos die wat nou deur kom, soos die wat Graad 1 hier begin, dan kan hulle Afrikaans praat, maar eers was dit moeilik toe hulle hier gekom het.
If they can speak the language like the ones that are coming through now, like the ones who started here from Grade 1, then they can speak Afrikaans, but at first it was difficult when they came here.

She also said that the involvement of parents was a good thing if the isiXhosa learners wanted to perform better, because to perform better, the children needed encouragement and interest shown from the parents since Afrikaans was not their MT.

Die ouer moet ook betrokke wees by die kind, want dis mos nie hulle huistaal nie. As hulle hier uitgaan dan praat hulle Xhosa al die pad.

[The parent must also be involved with the child, because Afrikaans is not their mother tongue. When they leave the school grounds then they speak isiXhosa all the way.]

It seems that Teacher D is insinuating that it is not enough for the children to be exposed to Afrikaans at school only if they wanted to become better in Afrikaans. They need to practice Afrikaans at home too.

c) Attitude towards isiXhosa-speaking learners

Although Teacher D mentioned that the challenges with isiXhosa learners were considered a problem in the past, she mentioned that she did not allow the isiXhosa-speaking learners to sit next to each other, because she did not want them to speak to each other in isiXhosa, because she thought they were chatting about things that were not related to the class work. This could
indicate that she had a negative attitude towards the isiXhosa-speaking learners, because she did not want them to speak isiXhosa with each other.

Die voertaal is mos Afrikaans, maar buitekant op die speelgronde dan kan hulle mos maar Xhosa praat. Hulle sit verspreid by ‘n Afrikaans-sprekende, (want) as ek hulle by mekaar sit, dan klap die Afrikaans nie, dan klap die Xhosa…

[The medium of instruction is Afrikaans. On the playground they can speak isiXhosa… They sit separated, because I do not allow them to sit together, because if they sit next to each other, then they do not speak Afrikaans, they speak Xhosa…]

This could be based on Teacher D’s assumption that submersion into Afrikaans was a good option to help the isiXhosa learners learn Afrikaans, or her assumption that the parents did not want their children to be taught in isiXhosa, but in Afrikaans, because, according to her, the parents say that when the learners go to university, the language will always be Afrikaans or English.

Die ouers wil nie hê hulle kinders moet isiXhosa onderrig word nie, want hulle sê as die kinders universiteit toe gaan dan is dit Engels of Afrikaans…

[The parents do not want their children to be taught in isiXhosa, because they say that when the children go to university, then it is either English or Afrikaans.]

Summary of teacher attitudes

One of the main findings regarding teachers’ attitudes towards the LoLT was based on the fact that teachers did not seem to think that the isiXhosa-speaking learners were struggling, and that, generally, the teachers considered the isiXhosa-learners to be on the same level, academically, as
the Afrikaans-speaking learners. The teachers’ attitudes can be associated with the ‘sink or swim’ approach, particularly in the case of Teacher D, whereby the isiXhosa learners are instructed primarily through the target language/LoLT, with the aim of them learning to speak and learn in Afrikaans. It could be that the isiXhosa learners’ conversational proficiency in Afrikaans was indicative to the teachers of the isiXhosa learners being on the same level as the Afrikaans speaking learners academically, assuming that they did not have any challenges in Afrikaans. It was not discussed in the interview what the teachers considered to be ‘academically strong’, since academically strong could refer to many things which could refer to achieving good grades. Teachers A, C and D had one isiXhosa learner in each of their classes who was struggling academically. Teacher B had two struggling isiXhosa learners. The teachers’ attitudes towards these struggling learners in their class were sympathetic and understanding, but in the case of Teacher A and B, they also found the situation frustrating. Towards the non-struggling isiXhosa learners the teachers seemed to have the same attitude as they had towards the Afrikaans-speaking learners. The next section will discuss the isiXhosa learners’ attitudes towards the LoLT.

4.5.2. Learner attitudes towards the LoLT

The focus group interviews that were held with the learners gave insight into the attitudes of the isiXhosa-speaking learners. Each focus group will be discussed separately.
Focus group 1 (Classes A and D)

The findings regarding learners’ attitudes are based on the responses from the learners who participated, because there were learners who did not participate during the focus group interview. The learners, who were considered academically stronger by their teachers, were the learners who were more eager to respond during the focus group interviews.

a) The struggling isiXhosa-learners and the non-struggling isiXhosa-learners

Six out of the eight learners in focus group 1 said that they learned Afrikaans in the Foundation Phase. They also had family members who could speak Afrikaans. These were also the learners who were considered academically strong by their teachers. Zukisa, on the other hand, came to the school when she was in Grade 4 and repeated one year. According to her, she had learned Afrikaans from a family member, but her schooling before she came to the research school was English. Tina also came to the school in a later grade than most of the learners in the focus group. Therefore, she was considered academically weaker than the rest of the isiXhosa learners and was also hesitant to take part in the focus group interview.

b) Challenges in the LoLT

One of the learners Tiffany expressed that she had challenges when it came to reading big words. She said that if the words were not accompanied with pictures, she did not understand.
Zukisa was considered to be struggling academically by Teacher D before she repeated Grade 4. Zukisa mentioned that she found subjects like Natural Science difficult, but she did not mention particular things that she struggled with.

c) View or choice of the LoLT - an indication of learners’ attitude towards the LoLT

Learners’ view of the choice of LoLT could be an indication of their attitude towards the LoLT being Afrikaans. During the interviews, it was asked whether, if they could choose any language to be taught in, which language it would be. Although everyone did not answer, there were three choices mentioned during the interviews. From these choices of the LoLT, the learners’ attitude could be assumed.

Afrikaans as the LoLT – good attitude towards the LoLT

Three of the seven learners in the focus group said that they would want Afrikaans as the LoLT. Siya was one of the learners who said that he would want Afrikaans as the LoLT, because it was easy and because he knew how to speak it. Zukisa, Afrikaans being one of her choices, said that...
she would want Afrikaans as the LoLT, because everyone is talking Afrikaans and that she wanted to learn more Afrikaans.

Ek wil dit in Afrikaans, want ek wil meer Afrikaans leer want meeste kinders praat Afrikaans.

[I want it in Afrikaans, because I want to learn more Afrikaans, because most of the children speak Afrikaans.]

Dumisani could not elaborate on why he would rather choose Afrikaans as the LoLT than isiXhosa or English. From the responses it could be inferred that since Siya was considered to be one of the academically strong learners in Teacher A’s class, he was proficient in Afrikaans and, because he also had family members who could speak Afrikaans, that he would not want to have his mother tongue as a LoLT. Zukisa, on the other hand, might think that Afrikaans is a necessity since it was spoken by everyone around her, and that she needed it for school. From this it could be assumed that these three learners had a positive attitude towards the LoLT since they had a good foundation in Afrikaans or because they thought that it was good to have in order to communicate with other people in the school. Tiffany, on the other hand, said that she would want Afrikaans, but that she was scared of getting a code 1⁴ for Afrikaans in her progress report.

Ek sal Afrikaans gesoek het, maar ek is bang ek kry ‘n een, want Engels is bietjie maklik.

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⁴ Code 1 is the lowest grade in academic achievement which is indicative of a fail grade. Percentage wise, it ranges between 30 – 34%. Learners need to obtain a pass grade (Code 4 to 7) in the final examination in Afrikaans Home Language, English Additional Language and Mathematics in order to pass the grade.
[I would have liked Afrikaans, but I am scared of getting a code 1, because English is a bit
easier.]

Tiffany could be scared of getting a code 1, because if a learner gets a code 1 in Afrikaans, he or
she faces the possibility of repeating a grade, something which one can assume would affect her
self-confidence.

**English as the LoLT – English is better**

Three of the learners indicated that they would want English as a LoLT. Vuyo said that he would
want to have English as a LoLT, because he wanted a good job one day and English is spoken by
the ‘white’ man.

Want ek wil ‘n goeie werk hê… want die ‘wit’ man praat Engels.

[Because I want a good job… because the ‘white’ man speaks English.]

This could be an indication that Vuyo equated English with having a good job, and equated
having a good job with the ‘white’ man.

Tiffany also wanted English as a LoLT. Although she did not explicitly say why, it could be
assumed that it was based on the encouragement from her mother, since she mentioned that her
mother only allowed her to take out English books from the library.

… en as ek biblioteek toe gaan, my ma gee nie vir my Afrikaanse boeke nie, sy gee net vir
my Engels.

[... and when I go to the library, my mother does not give my Afrikaans books, she
only gives me English.]
Anna said that she would want English, because it was easier.

From these responses it could be assumed that the learners did not necessarily want Afrikaans as the LoLT, but that English would be a better option in view of their parents or influence from older people, or because they found it easier, in the case of Tiffany and Anna.

**IsiXhosa as the LoLT – feeling alienated from the MT**

Two of the eight learners also indicated that they would want isiXhosa as the LoLT. Zukisa indicated that she would also want isiXhosa as the LoLT in addition to Afrikaans, because she would like to read and write isiXhosa, but she could only speak it. Anna provided similar reasons for wanting to be taught in isiXhosa as well as English. From this it can be assumed that these two learners felt alienated from their MT which was isiXhosa, because they could not read or write in isiXhosa.


[... and I also want to learn isiXhosa, but I can’t read isiXhosa, and I can’t write in isiXhosa, I can only speak it.]

Anna:  Ek wil isiXhosa skryf, maar ek kan nie.

[I want to write in isiXhosa, but I can’t.]
Shy and unresponsive

Teacher A mentioned that Tina did not talk much in the class, and it was also substantiated by her behaviour during the focus group interviews since she did not want to respond to the questions asked during the interview. Dumisani and Luyudo also did not respond to the interview questions.

Focus group two (Classes B and C)

In focus group two, similar findings were revealed. From focus group two, the distinction between the isiXhosa-speaking learners who were struggling – mentioned by the teachers – and the isiXhosa learners who were not, could be seen.

a) The struggling isiXhosa-learners and the non-struggling isiXhosa-learners

Five out of eight isiXhosa-speaking learners in focus group 2 revealed that they learned to speak Afrikaans when they were at pre-primary school. They expressed their answers more freely during the interview. These five learners were also considered to be academically strong. The five learners who could speak Afrikaans well also had parents or family members who understood Afrikaans. Three of the eight learners, Sophie, Rithabile and Aviwe, came to the school in Grade 4 and could not understand or respond to the interview questions in Afrikaans and found it difficult to participate during the focus group interview.
b) Challenges in the LoLT

Not all the learners mentioned particular challenges they faced in the classroom. Although she did not mention it as a challenge, when Sophie was asked whether she knew how to read or write in Afrikaans, she indicated that she did not know. She was then asked what she did when they wrote tests or exams and she said that she would rewrite the questions on a test as an answer. Sinazo interpreted Sophie’s answer from isiXhosa to Afrikaans to the rest of the group.

Sinazo translating Sophie’s answer:

Sy sê daar staan mos die vrae dan skryf sy die vrae.

[She says that the answers are on the question paper, then she rewrites the questions.]

Sinazo, who was an academically strong learner in Teacher B’s class, also said that she would sometimes write Sophie’s work for her when Sophie did not know what to write. This substantiates what Teacher B said, that Sophie did not understand Afrikaans and could not read Afrikaans. Rithabile and Aviwe did not mention challenges that they faced perhaps because they could not verbally articulate what they wanted to say in Afrikaans. The five academically strong learners did not seem to face any particular challenges in Afrikaans.

c) View or choice of the LoLT - an indication of learners’ attitude towards the LoLT.

Similar to Focus group 1, the learners revealed their choices of LoLT if they had the option from which their attitude towards the LoLT could be assumed.
Afrikaans as the LoLT is easy – positive attitude towards the LoLT

Two of the eight learners, Carl and Ithumeleng, both revealed that they would choose Afrikaans as the LoLT, because they liked it. Carl said that he was ‘clever’ in Afrikaans. Ithumeleng said that he knew Afrikaans.

Carl:  Ek wil dit in Afrikaans hê, want ek is slim in Afrikaans.

[I want it in Afrikaans, because I am clever in Afrikaans.]

Ithumeleng:  Ek hou van Afrikaans… omdat dit lekker is.

[I like Afrikaans… because it is ‘nice’.]

From this it could be inferred that the learners did not have a problem in having Afrikaans as the LoLT.

English as the LoLT – English is needed when you are going places

Two of the eight learners, Sinazo and Aviwe, revealed that they would like to have English as the LoLT if they could choose. Aviwe could not elaborate on why she would have it as the LoLT, but Sinazo said that according to her mother, she needed English if she wanted to go to different places like Gauteng.

Sinazo:  My ma sê as ek by ‘n ander plek gaan dan moet ek Engels ken.

[My mom says that when I go to another place I must know English.]

Researcher:  Soos by watter ander plekke?

[Like what kind of other places?]


[Lie in Gauteng. Most people speak English there.]
The choice of English could also be based on views of their parents of what would be better for the child and equated English with having a better chance at moving around geographically and to interact better with different people.

**IsiXhosa as the LoLT – feeling alienated from the mother tongue**

Khaya was the only one out of the eight learners who revealed that he would like to have isiXhosa as the LoLT, because he did not know how to read in isiXhosa, but that he knew how to read well in Afrikaans.

Khaya: Ek wil dit in isiXhosa hê, want ek kan nie lekker isiXhosa lees nie, maar ek kan goed in Afrikaans lees.

[I want it in isiXhosa, because I can’t read isiXhosa well, but I can read Afrikaans well.]

This is an indication that although he did not have a problem in Afrikaans, that he would like to be able to read and write in his mother tongue.

**Unresponsive**

Teacher B mentioned that Sophie did not interact in class. This was also substantiated during the interviews since she did not respond to the questions unless it was translated to her in isiXhosa. This was also the case with Rithabile and Aviwe. It could be assumed that these three learners did not respond because of the language barrier, as the teachers mentioned.
Summary of learner attitudes towards the LoLT

Although the isiXhosa learners were considered on the same level as the Afrikaans learners with the exception of the one isiXhosa in each teacher’s class, three of the sixteen learners expressed that they had challenges in the LoLT. In addition, although the academically strong learners seemed to very confident in their attitude towards the LoLT, there were three learners who, based on their responses, felt alienated from their MT isiXhosa. The challenges in the table refer to the challenges mentioned in the focus group interviews by the learners, and not the challenges mentioned by the teachers.

Table 3: Findings related to learners’ attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learners</th>
<th>Academically strong</th>
<th>Academically weak</th>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Choice of LoLT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus group 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siya</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vuyo</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anna</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>English and/or isiXhosa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tina</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiffany</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Reading ‘big’ words</td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Subject Note</td>
<td>Language(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luyudo</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dumisani</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zukisa</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Some subjects like NS are difficult</td>
<td>Afrikaans and / or isiXhosa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sinazo</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus group 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ithumeleng</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophie</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Writing answers to question papers</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rithabile</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Sesotho</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vusi</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khaya</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carl</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aviwe</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table of findings does not accurately capture learners’ attitudes towards the LoLT since it was difficult to ascertain attitudes based purely on answering interview questions. It was also challenging to ascertain when not all responses to the interview questions were captured since not every learner answered the questions. However, the responses to the interview questions do provide an indication of how the learners viewed the LoLT and some of the challenges they faced in the classroom. For those learners who found it difficult to participate in the interview discussion, it could also be an indication of the challenges they were facing in terms of expressing themselves in Afrikaans, emphasizing the challenge of learning in an additional language.

4.5.3. Strategies to help isiXhosa-speaking learners

This section discusses the strategies that teachers used to help the isiXhosa-speaking learners. The section will be divided into the strategies that teachers said they used, and the strategies that were actually observed in the classroom. The strategies are also separated into strategies that a) show how the teacher supported or accommodated the isiXhosa learners in their MT, and b) the strategies that teachers used to develop the CALP of learners. The strategies to develop CALP is needed for all learners, not just the isiXhosa-speaking learners, but in this research particular attention needed to be given to how the teachers supported the development of isiXhosa learners’ CALP since their CALP was being developed through an additional language.
4.5.3.1. Strategies teachers said they used to help isiXhosa-speaking learners

The strategies that teachers said they used will be discussed by giving a description of each strategy/strategies. A summary of these strategies will be discussed at the end of this section.

Teacher A

Sight words to develop vocabulary

Teacher A said that she used sight words to help the isiXhosa-speaking learners. The process involved giving learners sight words for homework, which they had to paste on cereal boxes or any other strong type of material. The parents of the learners had to flash the sight words to the learners so that they could try and remember them. The teacher did not say whether the strategy was successful or not. This strategy can be seen as building the isiXhosa learners’ vocabulary in Afrikaans for basic reading and writing purposes in Afrikaans.

Differentiation

Teacher A said that she would sometimes give Tina an easier task if she thought that Tina could not complete a particular task. For instance, if some of the learners were asked to write a story, she would ask Tina to draw a story instead.
Translate to English

Teacher A mentioned that in the past she used to translate the words from Afrikaans to English for isiXhosa learners. This indicates that the teacher assumed that English was the second language of isiXhosa learners.

In die verlede was dit regtig moeilik, want die kinders wat hier gekom het het het glad nie Afrikaans verstaan nie, so ek het ‘n hele paar van hulle in my klas gehad en met hulle moes ek in Engels kommunikeer om takies te verduidelik…

[In the past it was really difficult, because the children who came here could not understand Afrikaans at all, so I had a few learners in my class with whom I communicated in English to explain tasks.]

Ask for a translation in isiXhosa

To make Tina feel good, Teacher A said that she would sometimes ask Tina the isiXhosa translation of an Afrikaans word. She said that she did this so that Tina would feel like she, the teacher, was interested in learning new words in isiXhosa and so make Tina feel good or important.

Wat ek ook lief is om te doen, as die isiXhosa-sprekende kinders hier is, sal ek sommer by hulle wil leer, maar die help myself ook… Dit laat vir hulle goed voel.

[What I love to do, is when I have isiXhosa-speaking learners, then I would want to learn from them, but it helps me too… It makes them feel good.]
Repeating a grade

Although Teacher A did not explicitly mention it as a ‘strategy’, she did consider it as a good idea when the struggling isiXhosa learners repeated a grade, because it would give her (the teacher) a chance to build on their foundation in Afrikaans in order to prepare them for the demands of the higher grades.

Jy het nou van die isiXhosa-sprekende kinders gehad wat die graad herhaal en dan bietjie sterker darem is vir Graad 5, want dan het hulle ‘n beter begrip van die woorde wat van hulle verwag word.

[You have had isiXhosa-speaking learners who have repeated the grade and be a bit stronger for Grade 5, because then they have a better understanding of the words that they are expected to know.]

Teacher B

Doing nothing

Teacher B said that he did not do anything to help the isiXhosa-speaking learners, because he did not have the time or the resources to help them. The resources that Teacher B was referring to were English textbooks for the content subjects that they taught in Grade 4. These were resources that Teacher B would have liked to have in order to help Sophie, but which were not available to him. Similarly to Teacher A, Teacher B assumed that English was the second language of the isiXhosa learners and therefore considered English resources to be a way of helping the isiXhosa learners.
Ek kan vir haar (Sophie) al die vakke in Engels gee… Ek het net die resources nodig; die handboeke en die toetse en die eksamens wat moet opgestel word, maar huidiglik kan ek dit nie kry nie.

[I can give her (Sophie) all the subjects in English... I only need the resources; the textbooks and the tests and exams that I would have to set up, but at the moment I don’t have it.]

He also mentioned that he did not have the time during the day to work with the isiXhosa-learners one-on-one, because of discipline problems in the class that took up most of a period.

Kyk, die periodes is beperk… daar is nie tyd nie… Die helfte van die dag moet jy die kinders stil maak… en dan moet jy begin les gee… en dan lui die klok. Dan het ek alweer vergeet van daai.

[Look, the periods are limited... there is not time... Half of the day you have to get children to keep quiet... and then you have to start giving the lesson... and then the bell rings. Then I have forgotten about ‘that’.

‘That’ which Teacher B is referring to is likely the challenge finding time to give additional support to the isiXhosa-speaking learners in his class.

**Code-switching and teaching in English**

Although Teacher B mentioned during the interview that he did nothing to help the isiXhosa-learners, he did at a certain point mention that he tried to use code-switching or speaking in
English to help Sophie. It seems that that was one of the strategies he was taught during his teacher training since he referred to the code-switching as the strategies he had ‘learned’. Code-switching as a strategy would generally refer to code-switching between the learner’s MT and the LoLT, however, the teacher referred to code-switching between English and Afrikaans, since he assumed that Sophie received schooling in English in the Eastern Cape.

Ek sal veruidelik in die klas, dan sal ek met haar Engels praat; spesiefiek wat ek geleer het soos ‘code-switching’ en ‘bilingualism’ in bring in die klas, maar sy… praat nie terug nie.

[I will explain something to the class, and then I will talk to her in English; specifically code switching and bilingualism I try to bring in... but she does not talk back...]

Teacher B did not elaborate on the code-switching strategy or how he implemented ‘bilingualism’ as a strategy. It did show that Teacher B was familiar with concepts related to learning in a second language and the strategies that were considered useful in second language learning even though he did not accommodate Sophie with these strategies.

Teacher C

Sight words

Teacher C also mentioned the use of sight words for Aviwe. He did not say whether it was successful or not. He said that he usually took her in a corner during break. Perhaps he took her to read the sight words during break, because he assumed she was shy to read in front of the class. It was not mentioned if these sight words were for Natural Science or for Afrikaans Home Language subject.
Translate to English

Teacher C said that he would sometimes help Aviwe by speaking to her in English. He did not say whether it helped as a strategy or whether she responded to English or not. Like Teachers A and B, Teacher C also assumed English to be the alternative language to Afrikaans and isiXhosa to help the isiXhosa learners.

Ek veruidelik maar vir haar (Aviwe) in Engels, want sy verstaan nie eintlik regtig Afrikaans nie.

[I explain to her (Aviwe) in English, because she does not really understand Afrikaans.]

Teacher D

Lack of time to focus on one-on-one strategies

Teacher D mentioned that the Grade 4 teachers were under a lot of pressure to focus primarily on literacy and numeracy development of the learners, therefore, the content subjects like Natural Science were being side-lined. She also mentioned that because of large learner numbers in her class, she did not have the time to pay one-on-one attention to the isiXhosa learners; perhaps also because she did not consider the isiXhosa-learners to be struggling and therefore did not need additional strategies.

Op die stadium is taalgeletterdheid en gesyferdheid so hoog en ons word so gedruk in taal en gesyferdheid dat die inhoudsvakke eintlik so bietjie afgeskeep word… (en)… omdat ons klasse so vol is, kan jy nie eintlik baie ‘one-on-one’ werk met hulle nie…
At this stage, we have a lot of pressure to teach literacy and numeracy that the content subjects get neglected a bit... (and)... because our classes are so full, you cannot really work one-on-one with them.]

Pay attention to sounds

Teacher D said that even though she did not have learners who struggled in her class, in the past she had paid attention to sounds so that the learners would be able to sound out the letters in the words, read the words and then read the words together in a sentence.

Ek het baie aandag geskenk aan klanke en om te lees, leer om te lees en dan sal hulle seker kan skryf.

[I paid a lot of attention to sounds and to read, learning to read and then they will learn to write.]

Explain to the learners individually

Teacher D said that in the past, when the learners could not understand her instructions in Afrikaans or English, she would go to them and explain to them what they had to do.

Repeat a grade

Similarly to Teacher A, Teacher D also considered repeating Grade 4 was a good thing for the isiXhosa learners who were struggling. That was the case for Zukisa who repeated Grade 4 and who seemed to be doing better academically.
Zukisa kan nou Engels en Afrikaans lees soos sy nou al aangepas het. Sy herhaal nou Graad 4, maar dis eintlik ‘n goeie ding dat sy herhaal, want sy kon mos nou nie Afrikaans praat toe sy hier kom nie.

[Zukisa can now speak English and Afrikaans the way she has adapted. She is repeating Grade 4 now, but it is actually a good thing that she is repeating, because she could not speak Afrikaans when she came here.]

Give work on a lower standard

Teacher D also said that in the past she would often give the struggling isiXhosa learners work on a lower standard – like a remedial activity. She did not give an example of a remedial activity.

Summary of strategies teachers said they used

The following strategies are the strategies that teachers said they used to help the isiXhosa learners. It has to be mentioned that the strategies that the teachers said they used were not observed during the time of data collection. Nonetheless, the teachers deemed the strategies useful in supporting the isiXhosa-speaking learners in the classroom, in the past and during the time of data collection. These were strategies

- that aimed to help the isiXhosa learners develop their vocabulary in Afrikaans by using sight words, as in the case of Teachers A, C and D;
- to accommodate the isiXhosa learners by using English or code-switching if they did not understand Afrikaans, as in the case of Teachers A, B and C;

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
- to ask learners what the Xhosa translation of an Afrikaans word to make the isiXhosa learners feel good as in the case of Teacher A;
- to explain to the isiXhosa learners individually at their desks if they did not understand in Afrikaans;
- for assessment purposes, provide the struggling isiXhosa learners with an easier task in the case of Teacher A and D;
- that helped teachers build on struggling isiXhosa learners’ foundation in Afrikaans to prepare them for higher grades, such as repeating a grade, in the case of Teachers A and D. Although this might be considered a good strategy in terms of helping the isiXhosa learners come to grips with Afrikaans, it has to be considered that such a strategy of repeating a grade, has the potential to harm the isiXhosa-speaking learners’ self-confidence. Also, it is not guaranteed that the learner will be fully equipped, linguistically, to face the demands of academic literacy in Grade 5.

Teachers A and D mentioned challenges that made it difficult for them to implement support strategies for the isiXhosa learners. The challenges included lack of English resources in the case of Teacher B, large learner numbers in class in the case of Teacher D, and lack of time in the case of Teacher B and D.

The next section will discuss the strategies that were observed in the classroom.
4.5.3.2. Strategies observed in the classroom and reflected upon in the interviews

This section will discuss the strategies that were observed in the classroom and which teachers reflected upon in the interviews. Lesson summaries of the three Natural Science lessons that were observed have been provided in section 4.4.3.2. to show how the lessons progressed and how the content was covered during the lessons. The topics of lessons 1 and 2 differed in each teacher’s classroom, but in lesson 3 the lesson topic was the same for all four teachers. The observation notes made during the lessons were discussed during the interviews and the teachers’ responses will serve as their reflections on a particular strategy.

The Natural Science lessons were observed primarily to see how the teachers developed the academic literacy of the isiXhosa-speaking learners. In reference to the literature discussed in chapter two, academic literacy can be viewed in terms of the development of CALP. As Cummins (2000a) says, CALP is a necessity for all learners, however, it takes longer for second language learners to attain, in this case the isiXhosa learners. The development of CALP can also be matched with the example by Gibbons (2006) in Figure 3 in chapter two, of how the second language learners were shifted from using language that was context-embedded (BICS) (in the LoLT) to using language that was context-reduced; CALP (in the LoLT). However, one has to bear in mind the point Cummins (2000a) makes that teachers are not always aware of the distinction between BICS and CALP and therefore will treat all the first and second language learners the same; which seemed to be the case for the teachers in this study as the findings on teachers’ attitudes suggested and as this section will show. The findings revealed that the strategies could be categorized in three categories. The three categories are as follows:
1. **General strategies**: These strategies refer to the general strategies that all four teachers used for the whole class in all three of the observed lessons. In other words, strategies that supported all learners in general, not the isiXhosa-speaking learners in particular. As the examples will show, these strategies were not necessarily aimed at developing academic literacy, but rather strategies that were used to transmit information to the learners.

2. **Strategies to develop academic literacy**: These strategies will be linked to the BICS/CALP distinction and the example by Gibbons (2006) of shifting the learners from talk that was context-embedded to talk that was context-reduced. Although this was the main purpose of the research, it was not observed in all four teachers’ classrooms. Teacher A and Teacher C showed evidence of how they created situations that could potentially develop academic literacy. It would not be fair to compare Teacher A and Teacher C’s lessons to the example of Gibbons (2006) in chapter two since teachers have different strategies they use in their classrooms. However, one would expect certain commonalities in developing the academic literacy of learners such as evidence of scaffolding learners to talking and writing about the concepts in an abstract way, as Gibbons (2006) showed. For the isiXhosa learners in particular, the teacher would have had to access their skills that they have built up in their BICS and shift them to using CALP in their second language as the example by Gibbons (2006) shows. However, as the excerpts will show, there was no particular strategy applied to develop the academic literacy of the isiXhosa learners.

3. **Support strategies for the isiXhosa learners**: These strategies refer to the strategies used by Teachers A and B to support the academically weak isiXhosa learners in their
classrooms. These strategies do not necessarily refer to developing their academic literacy, but rather for the isiXhosa learners to learn to cope in the classrooms.

Each teacher will be discussed individually and depending on the teacher, the category applicable to them which the table below shows.

### Table 4: Categories of strategies observed in the classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Teacher A</th>
<th>Teacher B</th>
<th>Teacher C</th>
<th>Teacher D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General strategies</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies to develop CALP of isiXhosa learners</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support strategies for isiXhosa learners</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher A lesson summaries**

**Lesson A1: Parts of a plant**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Whole class question and answer –</td>
<td>Appearance of plants</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Lesson A2: Structure of animals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Whole class activity – guessing game</td>
<td>Guess the animal the teacher is describing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Question-and-answer: revision</td>
<td>Name the parts of an animals using words such as ‘ligaments’ and ‘body’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Identify</td>
<td>Label the picture of the ostrich on the board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Group work</td>
<td>Describe the animal given to your group to the class and guess which animal it is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson A3: Phases of matter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Question-and-answer: revision</td>
<td>Describe a solid, a liquid and a gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Group work activity</td>
<td>Identify the picture given to your group as a solid, a liquid or a gas and explain why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>The difference between a solid, a liquid and a gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Homework activity</td>
<td>Look for pictures of solids, liquids and gases in newspapers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**a) General Strategies by Teacher A**

Teacher A used whole class explanation which was supported by physical examples, pictures and demonstration. There was no real evidence that the strategies were used particularly for the isiXhosa learners.

**Physical examples:** Lesson A1, and A3

**Pictures:** Lessons A1, A2 and A3

**Demonstration:** Lesson A3

The strategies mentioned above, Teacher A regarded as important in Grade 4, so that learners do not get distracted with only talking in the classroom.
As ek net hier met hulle abstrak praat oor goed, gaan hulle later so verveeld raak… So om die goed fisies skool toe te bring… dat hulle sien, dat hulle voel… Dis ‘n manier hoe hulle gaan onthou.

[If I am only going to talk to them about abstract things, they will get so bored... So to bring physical examples to the school... that they will see, that they will feel... It is a way for them to remember.]

**Questioning:** Lesson A1, A2 and A3

Questioning was used for revision as well as to scaffold learners towards the answers to the questions that were asked. The questioning will be expanded on in the next category.

**Group work:** Lesson A1, A2 and A3

Group work was also used in every lesson. This shows that the teacher valued collaborative learning. However, as it will be showed in the category of academic literacy development, the group work strategy was rarely used to create a dialogue between learners in which they discuss or solve a problem, or discuss the comprehension of a particular concept.

Dis ‘n manier van versterking, en ‘n manier hoe elkeen ‘n kansie kry om te praat, want Tina gaan nie noodwending saam met my praat nie, maar sy gaan iets sê in die groep… op so ‘n manier word sy ook betrek by die les.

[It is a way of strengthening the learners and a way in which everyone can get a chance to speak, because Tina won’t necessarily speak to me, but she will say something in the group... that way she also gets included in the lesson.]
**Emphasis on vocabulary:** Lesson A1, A2 and A3

Teacher A emphasized the vocabulary of every lesson by writing words on the board in colour and using them in sentences. The teacher also prompted learners to use the correct vocabulary when the learners were reporting in class. For example, in Lesson A1, the teacher wrote the vocabulary of the parts of the plants in colour in a sentence that described the part. A deeper discussion of this strategy will be discussed in the following section. Teacher A said that she used that strategy because she thought it was a way for learners to remember the important words for the exam – so she used it as an exam strategy. Although it was a general strategy, it could be helpful to the isiXhosa learners as well.

Daar is sekere woordjies wat ek dink belangrik is, wat hulle moet onthou, want as ek die aktiwiteit doen, of die werk op die bord skryf, dink ek in terme van die eksamen.

*There are certain words that I think are important, that they need to remember, because when I write an activity on the board, I think in terms of the exam.*

In this section, the general strategies of Teacher A were discussed. The strategies were aimed at the whole class and not for the isiXhosa learners in particular. The next section will show how these strategies were used in conjunction with one another to develop learners’ CALP.

**b) Strategies to ‘potentially’ develop CALP**

In this section the strategies of Teacher A that were mentioned above will be looked at in conjunction with one another. The section below aims to show that, although Teacher A did not completely develop the learners’ CALP, she engaged in useful strategies that had the potential to
develop CALP. Certain excerpts from lesson three will be provided to show the teacher’s strategies and how scaffolding took place. In this lesson, the teacher revised a previous lesson on ‘phases of matter’. She started off by asking learners revision questions about the previous lesson and then introducing a group activity with pictures to test learners’ understanding of ‘solids, liquids and gas’.

**Revision questions in lesson 3**

The dialogue between the teacher and the learners was based on the learners answering revision questions by reading the answers from the board, and providing an example of each phase of matter.

Teacher: Wat kan jy onthou. Wat is ‘n vaste stof? As jy nie seker is nie, kyk op die bord.

[What can you remember? What is a solid? If you are not sure, look on the board.]

Learner reads: “’n Vaste stof is ‘n vorm wat maklik verander.”

[“A solid is a form that can change easily.”]

…

Teacher: Nou, behalwe die voorbeelde op die bord, gee vir my jou eie voorbeelde…

[Now, besides the examples on the board, give me your own examples…]

Learners: ‘n boks

[A box]

These revision questions were also done for liquids and gas and involved learners reading from the board and naming their own examples. In the example by Gibbons (2006), the learners were
asked to talk about what they remembered from the previous lesson’s activity and they discussed in groups to create a shared understanding. However, during Teacher A’s lesson, the talk was mostly dominated by her. The learners had to give one word answers to the revision questions while the teacher gave an extended definition instead of the learners. This was done for the whole class and no special strategies were applied for the isiXhosa learners.

**Context-embedded talk with demonstration**

In the discussion of BICS and CALP and in the example by Gibbons (2006) it was suggested that to develop CALP, one has to engage in language that was context-embedded (BICS) with physical examples and demonstration that scaffold learners to the context-reduced talk (CALP). In this example it will be seen how Teacher A attempted to engage in language and activities that were context-embedded to explain concepts. In the example below learners were revising ‘liquids’ and one learner had to read the definition from the board again. To explain the concept that was read, the teacher explained it by demonstrating the concept or definition of a ‘liquid’. The teacher explained the concept by using physical tools at her disposal to show the learners. Note the underlined words in the example showing context-embeddedness.

Teacher: Wie kan vir my sê wat is ‘n vloeistof?

[Who can tell me what is a liquid?]

Learner reads: “‘n Vloeistof neem die vorm van die houer waarin hy is.”

[“A solid takes on the form of the container in which it is held.”]

Teacher: As ek nou hier water inhet. My tee is nou hierin. As ek nou my tee in daai ketel gooie dan gaan die tee die vorm van die ketel aanneem… En as ek die tee
van die ketel in die glas gooi, dan gaan hy die vorm van die glas inneem.

[If I have water in this. My tea is in this. If I pour my tea in that kettle then the tea will take on the form of the kettle... And if I pour the tea from the kettle into the glass, then it (the tea) will take on the form of the glass. ”]

The situation was context-embedded and the teacher could refer to the kettle, the cup and the glass, and used words such as ‘here’, ‘it’, ‘my tea’, ‘that’. This type of talk can also be seen in the example by Gibbons (2006) when learners talk about the magnets. However, to develop CALP, the learner should have explained this concept in a context-embedded situation, like in the example by Gibbons (2006) when the learners refer to the tools used in their group work activity using the magnets. The teacher’s job would be to scaffold learners’ explanation of the concept of ‘liquid’. However, after the teacher explained the concept, the learners were only asked to name their own examples of liquids to which the teacher would say whether it was correct or not. Again, the isiXhosa learners in particular were not engaged.

**Group work activity with pictures**

Teacher A used group work in all three of the observed lessons. Group work is usually considered a valuable activity for collaborative learning. After revising the terms ‘solid, liquid and gas’, the teacher introduced a group work activity where the groups were given one or two pictures and one in each group had to go to the front of the class and say whether their group’s pictures were solids, liquids or gas.

Teacher: Sommige van die prente het vloeistowwe en vaste stowwe. Sommige van die
prente het vloeistowwe en gasse… Elke bank in elke groep gaan ‘n prentjie hê.

As julle terugvoering gee, gee dan terugvoering vir (namens) die groep. Kies gou vinnig watter persoon by elke tafel gaan vir ons terugvoering gee.

[Some of the pictures have liquids and solids. Some of the pictures have liquids gas. Each desk in each group will have a picture. When you give feedback, you give feedback for (on behalf of) the group. Choose quickly which person at each table will give feedback for your group.]

Group work is usually more effective if it includes a problem solving activity where learners engage in a dialogue and create a common shared understanding of a concept. Creating a shared understanding is seen in the example by Gibbons (2006), when all the learners were engaged in a practical activity in which they tested the concept of ‘magnetism’ using physical tools, and reporting about the activity afterwards—orally and in writing—in BICS and in CALP. In Teacher A’s case, the group work activity required little dialogue since learners merely had to ‘choose quickly whether their picture was a solid, a liquid or a gas’, and ‘only one’ in each group had to give feedback. The merit in this activity was that the learners could relate the concepts to everyday examples through pictures. The isiXhosa learners’ skills were not accessed, however. Although in this particular lesson it was not seen whether the isiXhosa learners engaged successfully during the group work activity, Teacher A said that group work helped Tina, who was the struggling isiXhosa learner in her class.
Emphasis on vocabulary

In all of her lessons, Teacher A was focused on helping learners become acquainted with the correct vocabulary and using it correctly. There were two incidents where the teacher helped learners to use the correct vocabulary when they used incorrect terms to describe their picture during the group activity.

Learner:    Ek het ‘n strykyster.
[I have an iron.]

Teacher:    Sy het ‘n strykyster, maar die strykyster kan ook stoom. Die stoom is ‘n…?
[She has an iron, but the iron can also steam. The steam is a…?]”

Learner:    “Gasstof”
[incorrect term]

[Let’s get one thing right. You do not get a “gasstof”. You get a solid, a liquid and a gas. Say it for me?]

Learners:    “‘n Vaste stof, ‘n vloeistof en ‘n gas.”
[“A solid, a liquid and a gas.”]

Teacher:    Almal se nog nie saam nie.
[Not everyone is saying it together yet.]

Learners:    “Vaste stof, vloeistof en ‘n gas.”
[A solid, a liquid and a gas.]
The example above shows that the teacher engaged learners in talking about the concepts, even though it was merely one word or one sentence answers. It also showed that the teacher was concerned with helping learners use the correct terms, and can therefore, to a certain extent, be concerned with developing the learners’ academic literacy.

**Scaffolding learning**

During the revision questions and the group work activity, the teacher scaffolded learners’ understanding of a concept. In this example, one learner came to the front to say whether her picture was a solid, a liquid or a gas. *Jade is a pseudonym for the learner in this excerpt.*

*Jade:  Ek het ‘n bril en dis ‘n vloeistof.
[I have a pair of glasses and it is a liquid. (wrong answer)]*

Teacher:  Sy het ‘n bril. Kan jy ‘n bril in iets gooi dan gaan die vorm van die bril verander?
[She has a pair of glasses. Can you put the glasses in a container and the glasses will change its form?]

*Jade:  Nee, juffrou.
[No]*

Teacher:  *Jade, luister gou vir juffrou. As jy die bril vat, en jy gooi hom in ‘n bottel, gaan die vorm van die bril verander?
[*Jade, listen to me. If you take the glasses (on the picture), and you put it inside a bottle, will the glasses change its form?]*

*Jade:  Nee
[No]
Teacher: Nee, hy gaan nie verander nie. So hy is ‘n…?

[No, it won’t change. So it is a…?]

Learner: Vaste stof

[Solid]

In this example the teacher tried to help the learner come to the correct answer of whether a picture was a solid, a liquid or a gas. The teacher asked prompting questions until the learner gave the correct answer. Again, as the example above shows, the talk is mostly dominated by the teacher, while the learner answers ‘yes’, or ‘no’, or one word answers like ‘solid’.

Engaging the isiXhosa learner

During the group work activity, Tina, who was the academically struggling learner in Teacher A’s class, went to the front to explain her picture.

Teacher: Kom Tina. Kom veruidelik vir ons wat jy het.

[Come Tina. Come explain to us what you have]

Tina: (inaudible)

Teacher: Kom Tina… Sy sê sy het oorbelle; Afrikaans né? En dit is ‘n…?

[Come Tina… She says she has earrings; Afrikaans hey? And it is a…?]

Tina: Oorbelle is ‘n vaste stof.

[Earrings are a solid.]
In this example, it shows how the teacher engaged the isiXhosa learner, and that she encouraged Tina to speak in Afrikaans and use the Afrikaans word for, ‘oorbelle’, instead of the English word, ‘earrings’.

In the excerpts provided above, there is clear evidence that Teacher A created situations in the classroom that was context-embedded by using strategies such as group work, pictures, demonstration to make connections between everyday examples. However, these strategies did not involve using the learners’ BICS or CALP. She also encouraged learners to use the correct vocabulary and the concepts of solids, liquids and gas were emphasized, and she scaffolded learners’ understanding when they did not use the correct terms. The lesson was dominated primarily by teacher talk, while learners only repeated information by reading the notes from the board, and giving one word or one sentence answers. There was not a clear indication of how Teacher A shifted the learners from talking about the concepts (BICS) to writing their understanding of the concepts (CALP). Most importantly, there was no clear evidence of the teacher applying particular strategies for the isiXhosa learners. Nonetheless, Teacher A was one of the teachers who showed more potential in developing the academic literacy of the learners with her use of different strategies like group work and support material like pictures.

c) Support strategies for isiXhosa learners

While Teacher A mentioned that she used sight words as a strategy to support the isiXhosa learners in developing their vocabulary in Afrikaans, this strategy was not observed in the classroom during the three lessons. It was also not seen that the teacher translated words in
English, or asked what certain words meant in isiXhosa. However, it was seen that Tina, the learner who struggled academically, was seated next to another isiXhosa speaking learner, Anna. During the three lessons that were observed, these were the only two isiXhosa learners who were seated next to each other while the other two isiXhosa learners were seated next to Afrikaans-speaking learners. According to Teacher A, she sat Tina next to Anna, because she used Anna to translate words for Tina, either to isiXhosa or to English, when Tina did not understand. After the lesson observations and during the interview, however, Teacher A said that she had moved Tina to sit next to a stronger isiXhosa learner, Vusi, because Tina and Anna ended up talking about things that did not concern the work being covered in the classroom. She also felt that Tina held Anna back academically, because although Anna was stronger than Tina academically, she still needed to grow more, in comparison to Vusi, who was very strong academically.

At the start of the year I seated them next to each other, because Tina could not understand Afrikaans that well, because if I explained to Tina in English and she still did not understand, Anna could explain to her in isiXhosa, the way she understood it, then maybe she would know what to do, but they don’t sit together anymore, because I feel that Tina is keeping Anna behind academically, because Anna could do better, but now she has to struggle with Tina.
Summary of strategies for Teacher A

General strategies to help all learners:

- Physical examples, demonstrations, pictures, questioning, group work, emphasis on vocabulary

Strategies to develop CALP, particularly for the isiXhosa learners

- Although the teacher created context-embedded situations to link it to the abstract concepts, the learners’ oral and writing skills in particular were not utilized, because the talk in the classroom was dominated mostly by the teacher. There was a lack of strategies to develop the CALP of learners, especially the isiXhosa learners.

Support strategies for isiXhosa learners

- Seating the weaker isiXhosa learner next to a stronger isiXhosa learner so the stronger isiXhosa learner can translate what is being done in the classroom from Afrikaans to isiXhosa or from Afrikaans to English.

Teacher B lesson summaries

Lesson B1: Phases of matter

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<td>Introduction: Reading</td>
<td>Phases of matter: solids, liquids and gases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Textbook activity with pictures</td>
<td>Identify the pictures in the textbook as a solid, a liquid or a gas</td>
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### Lesson B2: Phases of matter

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<td>Revision: Reading</td>
<td>Solids, liquids and gas</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Question-and-Answer</td>
<td>What are the properties of solid, liquids and gas?</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>Writing activity</td>
<td>Write from the textbook the different properties of solids, liquids and gas</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Worksheet: sorting activity</td>
<td>Study pictures on the worksheet and sort them into solids, liquids and gases</td>
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### Lesson B3: Phases of matter

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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Question-and-answer: Revision</td>
<td>What is a solid, a liquid or a gas?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do rhyme to remember</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Worksheet of experiment</td>
<td>Complete observation table of the</td>
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</table>
a) General strategies by teacher B for the whole class

Teacher B mostly used the textbook to cover the lesson content. The strategies that were applied were used to transmit information. There was no evidence of the teacher making use of the isiXhosa learners’ linguistic resources in the lesson; therefore little evidence of developing their CALP which is more difficult to do than it is for the Afrikaans-speaking learners. The learners were included by getting them to read from the textbook and give one-word answers. The writing activities included learners writing notes from the board. Although the concepts were covered, the concepts were not discussed in an immediate physical context, and it was not shown how the teacher shifted from BICS to CALP since the talk in the classroom was mostly dominated by the teacher. The strategies that Teacher B used are discussed below.

Text-book based strategies for revision, comprehension, reading and writing

Teacher B made use of the textbook in every lesson. While Teacher B also made use of pictures like Teacher A, he used the pictures that were provided in the textbooks for example in lesson B1.
**Reading and questions**: Lessons B1, B2, B3

The textbook was also used for learners to read from when he asked them to, or when he read from the textbook. Reading from the textbook was also used as a revision strategy. Questions based on the readings in the textbook were also asked, but learners were not prompted for answers, but rather the answers were given by the teacher if the learners did not understand them.

The excerpt below shows how the teacher covered the lesson content in lesson B2. The excerpt is an example of how all three concepts, solids, liquids and gas, were covered: by reading from the textbook and asking learners questions on what they read. At one point the learners were asked to read together, other times the teacher alone read, and sometimes one learner was asked to read from the textbook. The concepts that were covered while they were reading were: ‘what is a solid?’, ‘what is a liquid?’, and ‘what is a gas’. After the learners read, the teacher asked them questions to test their comprehension.

Teacher reads what a solid, a liquid and a gas is.

Teacher: Wat is ‘n vaste stof? Wat het ‘n vaste stof?

[What is a solid? What does a solid have?]

Learner: Hy hou sy vorm.

[He keeps his form.]

Teacher: Gee vir my die eienskappe.

[Give me properties.]

Ek gaan dit nou vir die tweede keer lees en dan luister jy wat is die eienskappe van ‘n vaste stof.

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[I’m going to read it for the second time and then you listen what the properties of a solid are.] 

Teacher reads and asks the same question to learners. Learners respond:

…

Learner: Die vorm verander nie gou nie.

[The form does not change easily.]

Teacher: *Mark sê die vorm verander nie gou nie. Hoe kan ‘n mens ‘n vaste stof se vorm verander?*

[*Mark says the form does not change easily. How can you change the form of a solid? ”]*

…

Teacher: Watter krag kan jy op hom uitoefen. Watter krag kan jy op ‘n appel uitoefen?

[With what kind of force can the form of an apple change?]

Learners: Jy kan dit sny met ‘n mes.

[You can cut it with a knife.]

Jy kan dit kap met ‘n hammer.”

[You can hit it with a hammer.]

The example also shows the example of learner-talk in the classroom. The learners’ answers to the questions were also usually one-word and one-sentences only. The lesson ended with the teacher reading the different phases of matter from the textbook again as a summary, and the

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learners doing an activity from the textbook which required them to look at the pictures in the activity and say whether it was a solid, a liquid or a gas.

**Writing: Lessons B1, B2 and B3**

The learners were also required to write notes from the board about the lesson content that had been read from the textbook.

**‘Experiments’**: Lesson B3

During lesson B3, Teacher B was supposed to conduct an experiment to demonstrate the three phases of matter: solids, liquids and gas. The experiment was supposed to show how water changed from ice which is a solid, to water, which is a liquid. However, instead of conducting the experiment, the teacher went through an observation table with the learners of what they ‘thought’ would happen to ice after a few minutes after it was exposed to the sun.

**Rote learning and Repetition**: Lesson B3

Teacher B also used the strategy repetition during lesson B3 when he wanted learners to remember the difference between the different phases of matter. The repetition was not used in conjunction with any physical aids or pictures to make it contextual to the concept of solids, liquids or gases.
Lesson B3

Teacher: Wat is die drie fases van materie?

[What are the three phases of matter?]

Learners: Vaste stowwe, vloeistowwe, gasse…

[Solids, liquids and gases…]

Teacher: Wat is die rympie wat ons geleer het?

[What is the rhyme that we learned?]

Learners: Vaste stowwe het vorm, vloeistowwe vat vorm, gasse het…

[Solids have form, liquids take form, gases have…]

Teacher: Gasse het… Gasse het wat?

[Gases have… Gases have what?]

Learner: Gasse het geen vorm

[Gases have no form]

b) Support strategies for isiXhosa learners

During the interview Teacher B said that he often tried to speak in English or code-switch in the class to support Sophie, who was one of the struggling isiXhosa learners in his class. However, Teacher B did not apply these strategies during the observation of the three lessons. On the other hand, it was observed that the isiXhosa learners were seated differently during each lesson. In the first lesson, Rithabile and Sophie, who were the struggling learners in Teacher B’s class, were seated next to Maria, who was also an isiXhosa learner. It was also noted that Maria did not communicate verbally with Rithabile, but that she used gestures with her hands or face when she communicated with Rithabile. During the second lesson, all the isiXhosa learners and Rithabile
(Sesotho) were seated together in one group; while during the third lesson, they were spread out in the classroom. During the interview, Teacher B provided the reason for the change in seating arrangement. At first Teacher B said that he used Maria as a translator to Sophie and Rithabile.

Aan die begin het ek hulle by mekaar gehad, want Maria tolk lekker. Maar later van tyd raak hulle te spelerig toe het ek hulle nou uitemekaar geskuif…

[Initially I had them seated next to each other, because Maria was the translator. But later on they were playing instead of working so I separated them.]

However, it was not clear whether Maria could speak Sesotho as well and that could perhaps be the reason why she communicated with Rithabile through hand and face gestures. Teacher B said, that he changed the seating arrangement, because he did not want the seating arrangement to become a ‘race’ thing.

Hoekom ek dit ook nie wil hê nie; later van tyd is dit ‘n rasse ding… Nou sê die kinders: “Meneer, al die ‘swart’ kinders sit daai kant.”, en dit wil ek ook nie hê nie.

[The reason I do not want it is because later on it becomes a race issue… Now the children will say: “Sir, all the ‘black’ children are sitting on that side”, and I do not want that.]

Summary of strategies for Teacher B

General strategies to help all learners

- Textbook-based strategies for reading, revision and pictures

Support strategies
- Teacher B used a strategy where he placed the isiXhosa learners with each other in a group so that the academically stronger learners could translate from Afrikaans to isiXhosa for the academically weaker learners. However, this seating arrangement changed throughout the observation of lessons, because the teacher did not want the seating arrangement to become a ‘race thing’. It is also not clear whether this strategy helped the Sesotho learner in particular, since the learner she was seated with was isiXhosa.

**Teacher C lesson summaries**

Lesson C1: Structure of animals

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<td>Revision: picture</td>
<td>Structure of a mouse, e.g. body, tail and feet.</td>
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<td>Instruction: copy picture</td>
<td>Structure of a mouse</td>
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Lesson C2: What plants need

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<td>Introduction: Revision</td>
<td>What plants need</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>Question-and-answer</td>
<td>What are the different things that plants need?</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Parts of a plant e.g. leaves, stems, roots.</td>
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Lesson C3: Phases of matter

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<td>1.</td>
<td>Introduction: Copy notes from board</td>
<td>Solids, liquids and gas</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Demonstration and Question-and-answer</td>
<td>Demonstrate solids, liquids and gas with visual aids</td>
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<td>3.</td>
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<td>Examples of solids, liquids and gas</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Application activity: drawing</td>
<td>Show the difference between solids, liquids and gas</td>
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**a) General strategies by Teacher C for the whole class**

The type of strategies in Teacher C’s classroom differed in each lesson. As in the case of Teacher A and Teacher B, the lessons were mostly transmission-based. These strategies were also used in conjunction with one another at times. Also, these strategies were aimed at the whole class and not in particular for the isiXhosa learners.

**Drawing: Lesson C1**

Teacher C made use of drawings in each of his lessons. He made drawings on the board which learners had to copy. In lesson C1, however, he did not explain in detail the structure of the mouse and how it was labeled. They only had to copy the mouse.
**Reading, writing and vocabulary: Lesson C2**

Reading was also used in lesson C2, however, there was no aim to the reading. The learners were asked to read from the textbook, collectively, and then individually. Teacher B emphasized vocabulary by writing words on the board, or asking the learners to write them on the board, for example in lesson C2, where they had to write the things that plants need on the board such as ‘water’ and ‘air’.

**Questioning for revision and scaffolding: Lessons C2 and C3**

During lesson C2, Teacher C also used questioning to revise the previous lesson on the different things that plants needed to grow. He asked five learners to write answers on the board, but they were not elaborated on. Questions were asked during the demonstration of the three phases of matter. The teacher asked scaffolding questions in order to test learners’ comprehension as the excerpt in the next category will show.

**Demonstration: Lesson C3**

In C3, after Teacher B demonstrated the different phases of matter, he asked the learners to draw circles in blocks which should have represented how the distribution of particles would differ in each phase in order to show whether it was a solid, a liquid or a gas. According to Teacher C, when learners saw what they were being taught, it makes learning more fun.
b) Strategies to ‘potentially’ develop CALP

In lesson C3, Teacher C created situations that were context-embedded to explain the concepts. During these activities, the isiXhosa learners, like many of the Afrikaans-speaking learners, were not engaged. In lesson C3, the teacher started the lesson by asking learners to write notes from the board after which they were going to demonstrate these definitions. As in the case of Teacher A, although Teacher C did not show that he developed learners’ CALP, he engaged in useful strategies that had potential to develop the learners’ CALP.

Creating a context-embedded situation to explain context-reduced concepts, and scaffolding the concepts through questioning

In this lesson, the teacher covered all three ‘phases of matter’, which were ‘solid, liquid and gas.’ The following excerpt will show how Teacher C created a context-embedded situation through demonstration to explain the science concept of a ‘liquid’. Teacher C created this type of situation for ‘solid’ and ‘gas’ as well, but only the example of ‘liquid’ will be shown. In this excerpt, the teacher asked learners whether ‘water’ is a solid, a liquid or a gas and then demonstrated it to the learners. Note the underlined words in the excerpt below to show context-embeddedness.
Teacher: Water. Is it ‘n vloeistof of ‘n gas?

[Water. Is it a liquid or a gas?]  

Learner: Meneer, ‘n gas meneer.

[A gas, sir.]  

Teacher: Hoekom sê jy dis ‘n gas?

[Why do you say it’s a gas?] (scaffolding)  

As jy iets se moet jy mos aangaan… Hoekom sê jy dis ‘n gas?

[If you say something you have to continue... Why do you say it’s a gas?]  

(Learners talking)  


[Wait. Shh. *Lisa has an answer. *Lisa is going to say.]  

Lisa: Want die water kan nie uitloop nie. (learner talk)

[Because the water can’t spill.]  

Another Learner: Water kan uitloop ja.

[Yes, water can spill.]  

Another Learner: Water is ‘n vloeistof.

[Water is a liquid.]  

Teacher: Water is ‘n vloeistof ja. Kyk hier. Hulle sê… Kyk gou hier: Is die water soos die hout? (Teacher refers back to the textbook to compare solid and liquid)
[Water is a liquid yes. Look... They (the book) are saying... Look: Is the water like wood?]

Learners: Nee, meneer.
[No, sir.]

Teacher: Het dit 'n vaste vorm?
[Does it have a solid form?]

Learner: Nee, meneer.
[No, sir.]

Teacher: Kyk. Hierin het dit 'n vorm aangeneem. Watse vorm? (demonstrates)
[Look. In here it took on a form. What form?]

Learner: Uhm... uhm...

Teacher: [Die vorm van die...? Van die...? (Scaffolds)
[The form of the...? Of the...?]

Learner: bottel.
[Bottle.]

Teacher: Nou gaan dit hierin (Asks learner to pour water in glass)
[Now it is going in here.]

... Is die vorm dieselfde as die bottel?
[Is the form the same as in the bottle?]

... Nou het hy die vorm aangeneem van die...? Van die wat?
[Now it has taken on the form of the...? Of the...?]
In the excerpt above, it can be seen how the teacher connects the everyday example of water to the concept of ‘liquid’. It can be seen how the teacher prompted one learner to rethink her answer of saying that water is a gas, and when one learner correctly answered that water is a liquid, her justification for saying why it was a liquid was not clear: ‘water kan nie uitloop nie’, which caused other learners to disagree with her. Thereafter, instead of saying that the learner was wrong, Teacher C demonstrated the definition of liquid by using water, showing that water, which is a liquid, changes or takes on the form of the container in which it is kept. Therefore, he asked one learner to pour the water from the bottle into another the glass. Thus, the concept of a liquid was demonstrated in an immediate context to which learners could relate, because the teacher used words such as ‘now’, ‘look here’, ‘it’, ‘in here’. The teacher used the tools available to him which were water, a bottle and a glass. This is similar to the example by Gibbons (2006) when the teacher engaged the learners in a practical activity to test ‘magnetism’ and used the tools at their disposal to understand the concept. However, in Teacher C’s case, he did not allow the learners to use their BICS – orally - during the demonstration, but rather he dominated the activity through talking. After the teacher demonstrated a liquid, he asked learners to name their own examples of liquids. The isiXhosa learners in particular, were not engaged during the lesson.

**From a context-embedded situation to a context-reduced activity**

In lesson C3, it could be seen how the teacher shifted from a context-embedded activity where he demonstrated the ‘phases of matter’, to a context-reduced activity where he asked learners to draw ‘water’ in the three phases of matter; in other words to apply their comprehension of the concepts; not in writing, but in a drawing. However, the learners were not expected to talk or write about their understanding – not in BICS or in CALP. The teacher drew three empty blocks
to represent a solid, a liquid and a gas, and the learners had to copy those blocks into their
workbooks and draw circles inside the blocks to demonstrate how the particles of a solid, a liquid
and a gas differ from one another. This was after it was explained how water shifted from a solid,
to a liquid, to a gas.

Teacher: Kyk gou hier. Die drie stadiums van water. Jy moet nou water teken in ‘n
vloeistof, ‘n vaste stof en in ‘n gas.

[Look here. The three stages of water. You have to draw water in a liquid, a solid
and in a gas.]

… Jy teken nie net die blokkies nie, daai’s my prent.

[You don’t just draw the blocks, that is my picture.]

It can be seen from the excerpt that Teacher C attempted to link the concepts of phases of matter
to learners’ everyday examples; firstly by demonstrating the concepts to learners and then asking
learners to name their own examples. Teacher C did not manage to shift learners from BICS to
CALP – orally or in writing. However, the strategies the he applied had the potential to make
those shifts like Gibbons (2006). Like Teachers A and B, there was no evidence that Teacher C
applied particular strategies to develop the CALP of isiXhosa learners. Rather, the strategies were
aimed at the whole class.

Summary of strategies for Teacher C

General strategies for the whole class

- Drawing and demonstration
- Questioning for revision and critical thinking
- Reading and vocabulary

Strategies to ‘potentially’ develop CALP

- Creating a context-embedded situation to explain context-reduced concepts, and scaffolding the concepts through questioning
- Context-embedded demonstration to context-reduced activity
- There was no evidence of strategies being applied specifically for the isiXhosa learners to develop their CALP

Teacher D lesson summaries

Lesson D1: Parts and functions of a plant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Revision with physical example</td>
<td>Parts of a plant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Question-and-Answer with textbook reading</td>
<td>What are the different functions of the different parts of the plant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Reading from textbook</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Write summary from board</td>
<td>Parts of a plant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lesson D2: Electricity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
1. Question-and-answer with pictures
   Identify the different appliances that uses electricity

2. Case-study reading from textbook
   Difference between old and modern electrical appliances

3. Comprehension activity from case-study: answer the questions

Lesson D3: Phases of matter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Question-and-answer from worksheet with pictures</td>
<td>Identify the solids, liquids and gases in the picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Reading and Question-and-answer</td>
<td>What is the reading saying about solids, liquids and gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Sorting activity with pictures</td>
<td>Sort the pictures on the worksheet into solids, liquids and gas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) General strategies by Teacher D for the whole class

Teacher D used strategies that were aimed at the whole class and not necessarily for the isiXhosa learners. The strategies differed in each lesson. As in the cases of all the other three teachers, the strategies were mostly strategies that transmitted the information.
Physical examples and everyday examples: Lessons D1 and D3

Teacher D made use of physical examples in lesson D1 to demonstrate the parts of the plant. For the learners to name the different parts of the plant, she pointed towards a certain area on the plant, and learners had to raise their hands and say which part it was and what its function was. Teacher D also said that when she used physical examples or pictures, the learners responded better to the learning material taught in class.

As hulle dit sien dan vind leer makliker plaas as wat jy nou van ‘n afstand onderrig gee…
Vir Graad 4 moet jy maar in die meeste gevalle konkrete voorbeelde hê dat hulle dit kan sien dat hulle daaruit kan leer.

[If they see it then learning takes place easier than when you teach them from a distance... For Grade 4, in most cases, you have to show them concrete examples so that they can learn from it.]

To contextualize the lesson content, she also asked the learners to name everyday examples of the content that they covered. In lesson D3, the teacher attempted to link the concepts of solids, liquids and gas with everyday examples. However, this was done orally, without making examples in the immediate context, in comparison to Teacher A and C, who demonstrated the concepts. In this example, Teacher D linked the concept of gas to an everyday example of perfume.

Teacher: … En as jy nou na gas toe gaan? Hoe’s die deeltjies nou?

[... And if you go to gas? How are the particles now?]

(Learner mumbles)
Teacher: Daar’s baie ruimtes tussen die deeltjies ne? So as ek nou ‘n blikkie parfuum het en ek spuit dit… dan beweeg dit tussen die ruimtes… Tussen die lugruimtes sodat *Patrick en *Michelle ook die reuk kan kry.

*There are spaces between hey? So if I take a bottle of perfume and I spray it... Then it will move between the spaces... Between the spaces... so Patric and Michelle can also get the smell*

Wat is nog ‘n gas?

*What else is a gas?*

Learner: Doom (a type of insecticide in an aerosol can)

**Questioning for revision:** Lesson D1

Teacher D used questioning for revision during lesson D1 when she used a plant to refresh learners’ memory about the previous lesson about the different parts of plants.

**Questioning for comprehension:** Lesson D3

Teacher D used reading in conjunction with questioning. The teacher read from the textbook and asked comprehension questions based on the story that they read. She prompted the learners for expected answers when they did not know. For example, in Lesson D3, when the learners were doing a reading on the phases of matter:
Teacher and learners were reading from the textbook. This reading covered ‘solid, liquid and gas’ and the teacher asked learners comprehension questions based on what they read.

Teacher: As jy kyk na die eienskappe van vaste stowwe, vloeistowwe en gasse…
Heel onder aan. Wat sê hulle van die deeltjies van die vaste stowwe?

… Kyk daar by die prentjie

[If you look at the properties of solids, liquids and gas… at the bottom… at
The bottom. What do they say about the particles of solids… Look at the picture]

Learner: Die deeltjies is vas aanmekaar, juffrou.

[The particles are stuck together.]

Teacher: Die deeltjies is vas aanmekaar. Hulle beweeg nie… en wat kan jy sê van die vorm van die vaste stof? Wat se hulle daar?

[The particles are stuck together. They are not moving… and what can you say about the form of a solid? What do they say about that?]

Learner: Hy hou sy vorm.

[He keeps his form.]

Teacher: Hy hou sy vorm. Dan gaan ons gou na vloeistof toe…

[He keeps his form. Then we are going to liquid.]

The excerpt above shows how the lesson was covered. The reading was context-reduced and the talk was dominated by the teacher, with learners giving one-word or one-sentence answers.
Worksheets

Teacher D also made use of a worksheet at the end of lesson D3 in order for learners to apply what had been taught. After the concepts of phases of matter were covered with the reading, the teacher gave learners an activity on a worksheet. The activity required learners to sort pictures of everyday examples into ‘solids, liquids or gas’. The teacher did one or two examples with the learners before they had to do it on their own.

Teacher: Reg, nou as ek nou vir julle… As ek nou vir julle dit gee (refers to worksheet)

[Right, if I... if I give you this]

… Sorteer vir my. Dit is ‘n gas, dit is ‘n vloeistof, dit is ‘n vaste stof.

[Sort it for me. This is a gas, this is a liquid, this is a solid.]

…

Teacher: Uh… ‘n klip, *Adrian. Waar sal jy hom sorteer?

[Uh... a stone, *Adrian. Where will you sort it?]

*Adrian: ‘n Gas.

[A gas.]

Teacher: Is ‘n klip ‘n gas?

[Is a stone a gas?] 

Learner: ‘n vaste stof

[A solid.]

Teacher: en ‘n bottel visolie?

[And a bottle of cooking oil?]

Learner: ‘n vloeistof

[A liquid.]
The excerpt above shows that although the teacher attempted to help the learners get started with the activity, she did not elaborate when their answers were wrong, like in the case of Teacher C who scaffolded learners towards the correct answer. Instead, Teacher D continued with the activity. In the activity, the learners were also asked to write a definition for each phase of matter. While there was an opportunity for the teacher to access learners’ understanding of the concept, she told the learners what to write.

As in the case of the other three teachers, the classroom talk in all three lessons was dominated by the teacher and the concepts were dealt with in a mainly context-reduced situation. There was little evidence of the teacher using the learners’ BICS or developing their CALP. Most importantly, there was little evidence that the teacher engaged the isiXhosa learners in particular.

**Summary of strategies for Teacher D**

**General strategies**

- Questioning for revision
- Physical examples and everyday examples
- Questioning for comprehension
- Worksheet

There was generally a lack of strategies that helped learners develop their CALP.
Table 5: Summary of strategies observed in the classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Teacher A</th>
<th>Teacher B</th>
<th>Teacher C</th>
<th>Teacher D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General strategies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical examples</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on vocabulary</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Worksheet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rote learning and repetition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies to develop academic literacy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revision questions in lesson 3</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context-embedded talk with demonstration</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group work activity with pictures</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on vocabulary</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scaffolding learning</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Support strategies for isiXhosa learners</strong></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seating weaker isiXhosa learners next to stronger isiXhosa and Afrikaans-speaking learners for translation purposes</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The strategies that were observed in the classroom were divided into three categories: general strategies, strategies to develop academic literacy of all learners, but particularly that of isiXhosa learners, and strategies that supported isiXhosa learners. The main purpose of the observations was to see whether and how the teachers used strategies to develop the academic literacy in general, but particularly the strategies that helped the isiXhosa learners in their academic literacy.

The findings revealed that the strategies mainly used general strategies in the Natural Science classrooms to transmit information. There was a lack of learner talk in all four classrooms, although in the cases of Teachers A and C (lesson 3), they did show evidence of creating
situations in which they could potentially develop learners’ academic literacy, but the talk during these lessons were mostly dominated by the teacher instead of the learners. Additionally and most importantly, the isiXhosa learners in particular were not engaged. Support strategies for the isiXhosa learners were used by Teachers A and B by seating the weaker isiXhosa learners next to the stronger isiXhosa learners who could also speak Afrikaans. However, these also came with some challenges such as learners not paying attention to the work done in class, but having informal conversations.

The following section will conclude by looking at the main findings discussed throughout this chapter.

4.6. Summary of findings

This chapter described the findings that emerged from the data that was collected during the data collection process. The findings were described in relation to the concepts in research questions. Therefore, the findings were categorized and themed in order to answer the research questions which are concerned with teachers’ attitudes towards isiXhosa-speaking learners, isiXhosa learners’ attitudes towards the LoLT and the strategies that teachers employed to help the isiXhosa-speaking learners. Each teacher’s attitudes and strategies were discussed first after which the themes that emerged were described. The following findings were described in this chapter:
Teacher Attitudes

1. Teachers’ assumptions influenced their attitudes towards the isiXhosa-speaking learners. All four teachers assumed that the isiXhosa-speaking learners in their class could speak Afrikaans well and therefore, were not struggling to learn through the medium of Afrikaans. All four teachers also assumed that the academically strong learners in their classrooms were strong, because they were born in Bredasdorp, or because they had been at the school since Grade 1, or because they had repeated a grade. Teachers A, B and D assumed that the isiXhosa learners who were struggling academically, were struggling because they had come to the school at a later stage, the year the research was conducted. All four teachers also assumed that English was the second language of the isiXhosa learners, and Afrikaans was their third language, therefore, they spoke to them in English, if the isiXhosa learners could not speak Afrikaans.

2. All four teachers were generally sympathetic towards struggling isiXhosa-speaking learners, but Teachers A and B were also frustrated when they could not get through to them.

3. Teacher D also had a negative attitude towards the isiXhosa-speaking learners, because she did not allow the isiXhosa-learners to speak isiXhosa in the classroom, and she felt that submersion was the best way for the isiXhosa learners to learn Afrikaans. However, it has to be noted that this might not necessarily be considered as a negative attitude, but that the teacher was merely doing what she thought was best for the learners; not necessarily to harm the learners. It could also be that the teacher was not familiar with strategies that were considered ‘better’ or ‘useful’ for learners who find themselves in situations where the LoLT is different from their MT.
Learner Attitudes

4. Six of the 16 isiXhosa learners had a positive attitude towards the LoLT, because they could understand Afrikaans and were able to speak it from an early age. These were also the learners who were considered academically strong by their teachers.

5. Five of the isiXhosa learners felt that English was a better option as a LoLT, because it meant better opportunities for work in the future, or that it was a requirement to be able to interact with more people from different areas.

6. There were three isiXhosa learners who felt alienated from their MT, because they could not read or write in isiXhosa.

7. Three isiXhosa learners had come to the school at a later stage and were struggling with Afrikaans, because they could not speak it well. They had challenges in general literacy and self-expression. These learners were also shy and did not participate in class.

8. Two of the learners who were considered ‘stronger’ academically by their teachers found some of the work in natural science challenging which meant that although the teachers might have thought they were good academically, the learners themselves perhaps did not.

Teaching strategies

9. There was a lack of strategies that teachers employed to help isiXhosa-speaking learners. Although teachers said that they implemented certain strategies such as sight words and translating words into English, these were not observed.

10. The strategies that the teachers used were categorized as follows:
**General strategies for the whole class:**

Teacher A: physical examples, pictures, demonstration, questioning, group work

Teacher B: textbook-based strategies for reading and writing, and questioning

Teacher C: drawing, questioning, reading

Teacher D: physical examples, reading, writing, worksheets

**Strategies to develop CALP:**

Teachers A and C engaged in strategies that had the potential to develop the learners’ CALP such as scaffolding learners’ or answers, using concrete examples and tools to explain concepts, and encouraging learners to use the correct vocabulary. However, these strategies did not access or use learners’ BICS or developed their CALP, particularly not the CALP of the isiXhosa speaking learners.

**Support strategies for the isiXhosa learners:**

Teachers A and B used strategies that were aimed to support the struggling isiXhosa-speaking learners in the class. They seated the struggling isiXhosa-speaking learners in their class next to an academically stronger isiXhosa learner so that they could translate for these struggling learners. However, this strategy also came with challenges since the learners did not seem to work, but rather to play, or, in the case of Teacher B, he did not want the arrangement to become a ‘race’ thing.

Generally, there was a lack of strategies that the teachers implemented specifically for the isiXhosa-speaking learners, but also for the whole class in terms of developing CALP. The
strategies were mostly transmission-based strategies that required little involvement on the learners’ part in terms of talking and writing about the concepts. However, these could be due to reasons provided by Teachers B and D, that there was not enough time to work with the isiXhosa learners one-on-one. Therefore, it is important to keep in mind that the lack of strategies to develop CALP, or to support the isiXhosa learners, could be due to circumstances such as large learner numbers in class, or a lack of time or resources, or a lack of knowledge or training on how to implement strategies that support isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans-medium classroom.

The following chapter will conclude with a discussion of the themes gained from the findings and relate it to the literature, and also provide recommendations for teacher development and further research in this context.
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

The final chapter summarizes and discusses the salient points of the research and provides conclusions and recommendations for teacher development and further study. The salient points generated from the findings which serve as the answers to the research questions, will be related to the literature discussed in Chapter Two. The chapter will end with a discussion of the relevance of the study, the possible implications of the study, as well as aspects that need further research. Before proceeding into the discussion of the salient points of the research, attention needs to be drawn back to the research questions.

RQ1: What are teachers’ perceptions, attitudes and views on developing isiXhosa learners’ academic literacy in an Afrikaans-medium school in Grade 4?

RQ2: What are Grade 4 isiXhosa learners’ perceptions and feelings on being taught Natural Sciences through the medium of Afrikaans as LoLT?

RQ3: What literacy support strategies, if any, do teachers use to develop the academic literacy of isiXhosa learners in the subject Natural Science?
5.2. Emerging themes

The themes that emerged from the data will be discussed in the following sections.

5.2.1. Language policy of the school and national Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP)

Two of the main aims of the LiEP are to 1) promote additive bilingualism in schools and 2) to foster and promote multilingualism. According to the Department of Education (1997), additive bilingualism means the use of a learner’s MT in the first three years of schooling, while gradually being introduced to the acquisition of a second language which could also be the LoLT from the Intermediate Phase onwards (DoE, 1997). The LiEP states that it is the duty of schools to indicate in their own language policies how they will address meeting these aims. The language policy of the school in this case study is in line with the LiEP to a certain extent. The official LoLT of the school is Afrikaans and it is also offered as a subject from Grades 1 - 7. English is offered as a First Additional Language from Grade 3 to Grade 7. However, for the Afrikaans MT learners of the research school, the LoLT will always be Afrikaans, so they do not have the added challenge of the LoLT switching from Afrikaans to English from Grade 4, for example. The isiXhosa learners, on the other hand, do not have the opportunity to be taught in their MT for the first three years of schooling and then being introduced to Afrikaans as the LoLT in Grade 4 as the additive bilingualism model suggests in the LiEP. The reason is that the isiXhosa learners are inducted into an Afrikaans-only environment where the LoLT is Afrikaans from Grade 1-7, with English being taught as a subject as an additional language.
The school is cognizant of the minority of isiXhosa-speaking learners and states in its language policy in that it aims to make isiXhosa as a language subject in the future. Nevertheless, while the school does recognize the need to accommodate the isiXhosa learners too, the isiXhosa learners are at a disadvantage in that they are not reaping the benefits of additive bilingualism such as cognitive development and better proficiency in their second language (Cummins, 2000a; DoE, 1997, 2010). Furthermore, the school’s language policy addresses the issue of fostering multilingualism even though in practice it does not seem to be the case. Fostering multilingualism should also include the acknowledgement of different linguistic identities besides Afrikaans. Cummins (1996; 2000a) proposes that schools recognize and acknowledge learners of different mother tongues than the dominant language in school. This can be done by something as simple as making notice boards available in the different languages spoken in the school.

5.2.2. Teachers’ Attitudes

The teachers in this study made a distinction between the isiXhosa learners who were proficient in Afrikaans and those isiXhosa learners who were not. The teachers believed that the isiXhosa learners who were proficient in Afrikaans were on the same academic level as the Afrikaans-speaking learners. This confirms what Cummins (2000a) says that teachers often mistakenly assume that because learners have attained BICS in the second language, that they have also attained CALP. One has to consider that the fluent isiXhosa learners might only be proficient in BICS and not yet CALP (Cummins, 2000a; Gibbons, 2009; Hugo, 2008; Kaiser, Rynecke & Uys, 2010; Layton, 2013; Zwiers, 2008).
All four teachers seemed to agree that the reason one or two isiXhosa learners in their class struggled was not because of an intellectual barrier, but rather because of the language barrier (Theron & Nel, 2005). Teacher A and D believed that to repeat one year would be a good way for the struggling isiXhosa learners to build their foundation in Afrikaans. Teachers seemed frustrated with the isiXhosa learners who they could not get through to. Generally, though, the teachers seemed to be sympathetic towards the isiXhosa learners who were struggling academically, similar to the teachers in the study by Pluddemann, Mati & Mahlalela-Thusi (1998) and O’Connor & Geiger (2009). Even though teachers sympathized with these learners, they had a sink or swim and submersion approach to helping them acquire skills in Afrikaans assuming that the learners will ‘pick up’ what they needed to know (Edwards, 2015; Gibbons, 2009; Zwiers, 2008). Teacher D, in particular, had a subtractive attitude towards the isiXhosa learners in that she did not allow them to speak isiXhosa in class. Even though they did not explicitly express it, this submersion approach also falls into the category of teachers viewing the isiXhosa learners’ MT as a problem in the classroom instead of a resource (Cummins, 2000a; 2005; 2008). Research reveals that a submersion approach means the isiXhosa learners are the product of coercive power relations practiced in the schools because of language, where they have to adapt the dominant language of the school (Cummins, 1996, 2000a; Gibbons, 2003, 2006, 2009). Basson and le Cordeur (2013) found that Afrikaans teachers who taught isiXhosa learners lacked sufficient knowledge to teach learners in a second language. Therefore, one has to be mindful of the fact that the teachers in this study might not have this attitude towards the isiXhosa learners with the intention to do any harm, but perhaps because they are oblivious to the real challenges that isiXhosa learners might be facing, and the important role that language plays in the acquisition of a second language and in academic literacy development (Zwiers, 2008).
5.2.3. Learners’ attitudes

IsiXhosa learners’ identity can be brought into question in this study. It was not clear whether the isiXhosa learners’ identities were affirmed in the classroom. This was also true for Rithabile who was SeSotho and with whom Teacher B did not communicate with directly, but rather through a friend next to her. This could have implications for Rithabile’s identity for two reasons: she might feel that the teacher was denying her presence in the classroom, or that she had to speak Afrikaans to be noticed in the classroom.

Furthermore, although there were learners who were considered academically strong, two of them mentioned that they experienced difficulties in Afrikaans as a subject and in Natural Science. One of the academically strong learners also mentioned that she was afraid of getting a code one in Afrikaans, because she was afraid of repeating Grade 4. This could be worthy of concern since the isiXhosa learners might attach fear to the subject Afrikaans Home Language, because it is such a big determiner of their academic success, and even more worthy of concern since Afrikaans is not their MT.

Although the learners’ attitudes towards being taught in Afrikaans could not fully be ascertained in the focus group, it was mentioned by their teachers. The teachers made a distinction between the isiXhosa learners who were strong and those who were not. According to Teacher A, B and D, the weaker isiXhosa learners were shy in class and sometimes did not respond to the teachers when they were talking. This was also substantiated in the interview group interviews with the learners. It could be that these isiXhosa learners did either not respond because they were not
proficient in Afrikaans, or because they had poor interest and low commitment to learn, because of the language barrier (Hugo, 2008; Theron & Nel, 2005). The challenges that learners faced in the classroom could also inform their attitude towards the LoLT. The challenges that the language barrier contributed to in particular were the learners’ reading and writing ability, their comprehension, and their ability to express themselves in Afrikaans. This was also found by Hugo (2008), when the teachers in her study highlighted poor comprehension as being one of the major challenges the learners in their classes faced. According to Zwiers (2008), if teachers do not recognize the importance of language in second language learners’ learning, it could lead to consequences such as low self-esteem and stagnated cognitive development.

It was interesting to find the isiXhosa learners’ view on the choice of LoLT. As it was mentioned in the findings, three of the sixteen learners indicated that if they could choose, they would choose English as their LoLT. Their choice seemed to be influenced by their parents’ views, because their reasons included needing to have a good job one day, or having to know English when moving to different places. This fits into the study by Theron & Nel (2005), when they found that learners would still prefer to be taught in English or Afrikaans, rather than their MT. This indicates that learners place Afrikaans and English on a higher status than isiXhosa. Perhaps it could also be attributed to teachers’ and parents’ perceived advantages that English and Afrikaans have. For three learners who preferred isiXhosa, it seemed that they felt alienated from their MT. For that reason it strengthens the argument that learners’ identity was not affirmed in the school.
5.2.4. Teachers’ strategies

The teachers’ failure to distinguish between BICS and CALP was evident in the strategies that they applied in the Natural Science classroom. The strategies to develop CALP of isiXhosa learners were mainly absent, and in general, there was a lack of strategies to support the isiXhosa learners, although these were not completely absent in all the classrooms. The lack of strategies can be attributed to the teachers’ possible lack of knowledge and understanding on the relationship between language and learning. The most important lack of understanding regarding language and learning relates to Cummins’ (2000a) theory that it takes second language learners five to seven years to develop CALP. The literature has pointed out that teachers in South Africa did not know how to deal with the challenges created by a language mismatch between the learners’ MT and the LoLT (Basson & le Cordeur, 2013; Hugo, 2008; O’ Connor & Geiger, 2009; Pluddemann, Mati & Mahlalela-Thusi, 1998).

In general, the teachers applied the same strategies to the isiXhosa learners as they did for the Afrikaans-speaking learners. The strategies were mainly transmission-based strategies which involved the teacher transmitting information to the learners through question-and-answer, demonstration, pictures, reading from the textbook, writing from the board and group work while the teacher did most of the talking in the classroom. The strategies to develop CALP were not only absent for the isiXhosa learners, but also for the Afrikaans learners. However, again, one has to consider the fact that perhaps strategies to develop CALP are absent, not because teachers do not want to implement them, but because of challenges such as lack of time, large learner
numbers in the classroom, or lack of training to teach particular content subjects. It is beyond the scope of this thesis to discuss such possible challenges, but they are worth consideration for future research.

Although Teachers A and C, did not develop the learners’ CALP, in lesson 3, they used useful strategies that had the potential to engage learners in using their BICS to develop CALP. They used revision, group work, demonstration and scaffolding (to a certain extent) to develop learners’ understanding of the concepts, like in the case of Gibbons (2003; 2006; 2009). However, unlike the teachers in Gibbons’ research (2003; 2006; 2009), these strategies did not require learners to use their BICS – orally or in writing, and it did not show whether the learners’ CALP was developed – orally or in writing. Instead, the teachers dominated the talk in the classroom.

Strategies that teachers said they used to support the isiXhosa learners in the classroom included translating Afrikaans words to English, because they assumed that the isiXhosa learners would understand English better; using sight-words, code-switching between Afrikaans and English, differentiation tasks, or suggesting that learners repeat a grade. The strategies that were actually observed in the classroom, however, did not resonate with what the teachers said during the interviews. In the case of Teacher A and B, however, they arranged for the weaker isiXhosa learners to sit next to a stronger isiXhosa learner so they could translate the tasks to them from Afrikaans to isiXhosa. However, this strategy also came with its own challenges, such as having
to separate the learners in the end, because they either held each other back academically, or because the teacher did not want it to become a ‘race’ thing.

5.3. Summary

This section discussed the findings in relation to the literature covered in chapter two. The themes that were discussed relate to the research questions which are concerned with teacher attitudes, learner attitudes and teaching strategies in relation to the minority of isiXhosa learnerse learning through the medium of Afrikaans in four Grade 4 Natural Science classes. In general, the themes relate to points made in the literature; one being teachers’ failure to distinguish between BICS and CALP. Another point is that teachers generally seemed to lack the appropriate knowledge on language and learning, and saw learners’ MT as a problem instead of a resource in the classroom; teachers believing that the isiXhosa learners would acquire Afrikaans better if they did not speak their MT in the classroom, or if they repeated a grade so that the teachers could build up their Afrikaans proficiency. It appeared that there was little recognition or acknowledgement of isiXhosa in the classroom, but rather to deny it by submerging it into Afrikaans, particularly in the case of Teacher D. Nevertheless, the teachers did not seem to act out of maliciousness, but rather because of lack of knowledge. For that reason it is emphasized in this section that it appears that these teachers do not know how to deal with the challenges of teaching second language learners, and are oblivious to the appropriate attitudes or practices to adopt when teaching second language learners. There is generally also a lack of research and a lack of teaching training in South Africa on how to deal with such challenges in the classroom and what strategies teachers can implement when they do not share the same MT as the minority learners in their class.
5.4. Conclusion

The research study aimed to gain insight into the strategies that Afrikaans teachers use to develop the academic literacy of minority isiXhosa-speaking learners. It also explored some of teachers’ and learners’ challenges and perceptions in teaching and learning in mixed mother-tongue classroom. The findings revealed that not all of the isiXhosa learners in Grade 4 were struggling as the research initially anticipated. The isiXhosa-speaking learners who were placed in the school from foundation phase found it easier to adapt in the Afrikaans-medium school than those isiXhosa-speaking learners who were only placed in the school in Grade 4.

In terms of teachers’ perceptions and attitudes, teachers appeared to be generally sympathetic towards the isiXhosa learners who were struggling, but also frustrated. Teachers’ attitudes also included a subtractive attitude or an indifferent attitude towards the isiXhosa learners when it came to applying strategies for the isiXhosa learners. The teachers did not do much in terms of their strategies to accommodate the struggling isiXhosa-speaking learners. The language difficulties and challenges for isiXhosa-speaking learners included challenges such as reading, writing and self-expression. The strategies that the teachers employed were directed to the whole class and not to the isiXhosa-speaking learners in particular. These strategies included question-and-answer, demonstrations and concrete examples, reading and writing, as well as group work in natural science lessons. The strategies employed for the isiXhosa-learners were to place them next to an isiXhosa-speaking learner who is also proficient or more proficient in Afrikaans.
In terms of isiXhosa-speaking learners attitudes and feelings towards the MT, although there were learners who were confident in speaking the language and performing well academically, the findings also revealed that some isiXhosa learners might feel detached from their mother tongue academically because they cannot read or write in isiXhosa which is their MT. Being able to read and write in your MT touches a lot on the concept of identity in the sense that learning through the medium of Afrikaans, the isiXhosa-speaking learner has less opportunity to learn about the literature and culture associated with the language of isiXhosa. The dynamics of the school and classroom were based on coercive power relations based primarily on Afrikaans.

It is evident, therefore, that there are challenges in employing strategies to develop the academic literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners. These challenges could be linked either to factors such as limited time and resources, or mainly the school’s and teachers’ lack of understanding or commitment to develop the academic literacy of minority isiXhosa-speaking learners. Although the school has promotion of multilingualism as its goal, and to have isiXhosa as an additional medium of instruction, it does not appear to be a priority since the majority of the isiXhosa learners in the school are able to speak Afrikaans, and therefore it does not seem necessary for teachers and the school to adapt their classroom practices and language policies for isiXhosa learners. In light of this, the following recommendations are made as a contribution to the development of research in this area.
5.5. Recommendations

1. Research on the context of Afrikaans-teachers who have little or no proficiency in isiXhosa, teaching isiXhosa-learners is very limited. Much of the research on language in education is based on what teachers can do when teachers need to teach in a second language and share the MT of the learner, e.g. isiXhosa teachers teaching isiXhosa learners through the medium of English. Further research needs to be conducted to explore the strategies that teachers, especially Afrikaans-teachers, can use to develop the academic literacy of learners like isiXhosa-speaking learners, who do not have the same MT of the majority of the school. It is essential to find appropriate strategies, informed by good research, for these learners since their academic success rests heavily on the successful mastering of academic language. Research that focused on similar linguistic scenarios such as those in the global north and Australia can be drawn upon, which focus on teaching and learning situations where immigrant minority children do not share the LoLT or the national language promoted and used in the schools.

2. The Language-in-Education Policy strived to promote multilingualism by making provision for parents of learners to decide their child’s LoLT. It also promotes MT education. However, it has made little provision to accommodate parents who wish to have their child taught in an indigenous language such as isiXhosa or isiZulu, from the foundation phase up to intermediate and senior phase, since there are very few schools that offer these languages as LoLT throughout their schooling. It has also failed to inform or suggest to teachers ways in which to accommodate isiXhosa-speaking learners learning through the medium of Afrikaans or any other additional language. The LiEP, therefore, needs to make room for review or adaptation in which practical strategies and knowledge...
are included for schools and teachers to bear in mind when having to teach learners whose MT is different than that of the school.

3. In addition to the above, teachers who have to teach learners who are learning in an additional language, need to be trained therein with the help of workshops. Such knowledge should be made part of pre-service training for all teachers, not just language teachers. In these workshops teachers should be made aware of the knowledge surrounding learning through an additional language, particularly in special subjects such as Natural Science. Teachers also need to be informed on becoming sensitive to the learner’s personal identity which is often informed by the MT, instead of ignoring that identity to fit the desired identity informed by the primary LoLT of the school. In this case, Cummins’ (2000; 2008) views on ‘teaching for transfer’ are appropriate and can be applied, which highlight the role and use of the learners’ MT in the classroom.

4. If it is stated in the school’s language policy schools and teachers should be encouraged to show acknowledgement and valuing of other languages in their school as a way to foster multilingualism, then, the school as a whole could make public signs, usually directed to parents, available in the different languages in the school. Teachers in their classrooms and during their lessons could make learning material, like flash cards, available in other languages besides Afrikaans and English. To do that, teachers could make use of written resources such as bilingual and multilingual dictionaries for Science and Mathematics. The teachers could also use isiXhosa learners who are proficient in Afrikaans as resources, or teachers could make use of isiXhosa-speaking assistants who are proficient in Afrikaans to produce learning material such as flash cards in isiXhosa, or to help the struggling isiXhosa-speaking learners with academic work after school.
In South Africa, there are linguistic scenarios in classrooms that do not always allow for the MT to be used, because teachers and learners do not share the same MT. However, as the international literature has pointed out, there are useful ways in which a learner’s MT can be used as a resource in the classroom as well as in the school even if the MT is not shared by the teachers. It is up to researchers on bilingual education in South Africa to find, develop and promote strategies for teachers to help learners who are in the minority and have been denied the use of their MT in the classroom. Attitudes and strategies in classrooms need to be promoted that use these learners’ MT as a resource in the classroom, but also in the whole school, so that the fostering of multilingualism can become a reality instead of remaining an ideal.
REFERENCES


http://etd.uwc.ac.za/


[http://etd.uwc.ac.za/](http://etd.uwc.ac.za/)


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Van Dyk, T., & van de Poel, K. (2013). Towrds a responsible agenda for academic literacy development: Considerations that will benefit students and society. *Journal for Language Teaching, 47*(2): 43–70.


APPENDIX A

Letter to Western Cape Education Department

The Western Cape Education Department
(Address)

Dear Sir/ Madam

Request to carry out research in school

I am a student at the University of the Western Cape in the process of completing my M. Ed. Degree in Language in Education. I wish to ask your permission to conduct my research in one of the schools in the Western Cape. My research title is: Developing the Academic Literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans-medium school in Grade 4.

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
The purpose of my research is to examine Language and Literacy Support Strategies used by teachers to support IsiXhosa learners in Grade 4 in Natural Science. I am also interested to gain insight into these teachers’ perceptions on developing isiXhosa learners’ Academic Literacy, as well as isiXhosa learners’ perceptions on being taught through the medium of Afrikaans. My proposal and an information sheet with further details are attached.

I will make an effort to create minimal disruptions to teaching and learning during my time at the school.

Regular progress reports will be made available to the department if the department wishes to view them.

If, at any time you would like me to provide deeper explanations or clarify any uncertainties, I will make myself available to do so. Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Yours sincerely

………………………

Eloise Fortuin (Ms)  Supervisor: Margaret Probyn

Registration no: 14/8/20

University of the Western Cape  University of the Western Cape

Faculty of Education  Faculty of Education

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
Contact details: Cell: 082 229 2387
Email: eloisefortuin@yahoo.com

Supervisor contact details Tel: 021 959 2430
Email: mprobyn@uwc.ac.za

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
The Principal

(Address)

Dear Sir/ Madam

**Request to carry out research in your school**

I am a student at the University of the Western Cape in the process of completing my M. Ed. Degree in Language in Education. I wish to ask your permission to conduct my research in your
My research title is: **Developing the Academic Literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans-medium school in Grade 4.**

The purpose of my research is to examine Language and Literacy Support Strategies used by teachers to support IsiXhosa learners in Grade 4 in Natural Science. I am also interested to gain insight into these teachers’ perceptions on developing isiXhosa learners’ Academic Literacy, as well as isiXhosa learners’ perceptions on being taught through the medium of Afrikaans. An information sheet with further details is attached.

I will make an effort to create minimal disruptions to teaching and learning during my time at the school.

If, at any time you would like me to provide deeper explanations or clarify any uncertainties, I will make myself available to do so. Thank you in advance for your consideration and support.

Yours sincerely

………………………………………

Eloise Fortuin (Ms)  
Supervisor: Margaret Probyn

Registration no: 14/8/20

University of the Western Cape  
University of the Western Cape

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
APPENDIX C

Letter to teachers (translated to Afrikaans and isiXhosa)

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Dear Educator

Request for participation in research

I am a student at the University of the Western Cape in the process of completing my M. Ed. Degree in Language in Education. I wish to ask your permission to participate in my research.

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
My research title is: **Developing the Academic Literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans-medium school in Grade 4.**

The purpose of my research is to examine Language and Literacy Support Strategies used by teachers to support IsiXhosa learners in Grade 4 in Natural Science. I am also interested to gain insight into your perceptions on developing isiXhosa learners’ Academic Literacy, as well as isiXhosa learners’ perceptions on being taught through the medium of Afrikaans. An information sheet with further details is attached.

I will make an effort to create minimal disruptions to teaching and learning during my time at the school.

I promise to report information that will not reveal anything of a personal or compromising nature to you and regular progress reports will be made available to you if you wish to view them. Your participation in this project will not be forced and you are allowed to withdraw at any point in time.

If, at any time you would like me to provide deeper explanations or clarify any uncertainties, I will make myself available to do so. Thank you in advance for your consideration and support.

Yours sincerely

…………………………..………………………………
Eloise Fortuin (Ms) Supervisor: Margaret Probyn

Registration no: 14/8/20

University of the Western Cape   University of the Western Cape

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
Faculty of Education

Cell: 082 229 2387

Email: eloisefortuin@yahoo.com

Faculty of Education

Tel: 021 959 2430

Email: mprobyn@uwc.ac.za

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
Dear Parent/Guardian

Request for your son/daughter to participate in research

I am a student at the University of the Western Cape in the process of completing my M. Ed. Degree in Language in Education. I wish to ask your consent for your child to participate in my research. My research title is: **Developing the Academic Literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans-medium school in Grade 4.**

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
The purpose of my research is to examine Language and Literacy Support Strategies used by teachers to support IsiXhosa learners in Grade 4 in Natural Science. I am also interested to gain insight into your perceptions on developing isiXhosa learners’ Academic Literacy, as well as isiXhosa learners’ perceptions on being taught through the medium of Afrikaans. An information sheet with further details is attached.

I promise to report information that will not reveal anything of a personal or compromising nature to your child. Your child’s participation in this project will not be forced and he or she is allowed to withdraw at any point in time.

If, at any time you would like me to provide deeper explanations or clarify any uncertainties, I will make myself available to do so. Thank you in advance for your consideration and support.

Yours sincerely

………………………………

Eloise Fortuin (Ms)     Supervisor: Margaret Probyn
Registration no: 14/8/20
University of the Western Cape    University of the Western Cape
Faculty of Education       Faculty of Education
Cell: 082 229 2387          Tel: 021 959 2430
Email: eloisefortuin@yahoo.com     Email: mprobyn@uwc.ac.za

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
APPENDIX E

General information sheet for WCED, principal, teachers and parents (translated to Afrikaans and isiXhosa)

Project Title: Developing the Academic Literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in an Afrikaans-medium school in Grade 4.

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Eloise Fortuin, a student at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you meet the set criterion for the population of interest and your participation will help other teachers and learners. The purpose of this research project is to find out how Afrikaans teachers develop the academic literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in the Intermediate phase and how
isiXhosa-speaking learners feel about being taught through the medium of Afrikaans. Hence your participation will be of great importance to make this study valuable to different teachers, learners and schools with a similar context.

**What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?**

You will be asked to sign consent form agreeing to take part in the study. You will also be asked questions either in a group discussion or individually, and your lessons will be observed for a week. The study will be focusing on teachers and isiXhosa-speaking learners at an Afrikaans-medium school in the Western Cape of South Africa. The study will be conducted in the school. The interview will last approximately an hour at the agreed venue.

**Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?**

Your personal information will be kept confidential. To help protect your confidentiality, your real names will not be included in the data collection sheets and all information collected will be locked in cabinets and password protected computers. The researcher will use codes to represent your names and only the researcher will have access to such information which will link you to the collected data. During the time when data collected will be reported about this research project, your identity will be protected.

All the data will be kept in password protected computer files known only to the researcher. Data collection sheets and audio tapes will be kept safely in a lockable filing cabinet accessed only by the researcher. All raw data including written documents and tapes will be destroyed after three months of the final dissertation being marked and graded. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected.

**What are the risks of this research?**

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
Risks from participating in this research study mainly include discomfort around providing private information or personal views. There are no other known risks associated with participating in this research project. If any of the questions asked during the interview make you feel uncomfortable, you are allowed to refrain from answering it.

**What are the benefits of this research?**

This research is not designed to help the teachers or learners personally, but the results may help the researcher learn more about certain teachers’ instructional strategies, experiences and challenges in teaching academic literacy to isiXhosa-speaking learners through the medium of Afrikaans. We hope that, in the future, other teachers and schools might benefit from this study through improved understanding of the contributions the participants make in terms of adopting certain strategies and attitudes in developing the academic literacy of isiXhosa-speaking learners in Afrikaans-medium schools.

**Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?**

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. Participation will not be forced and participants are also free to withdraw from the research at any point in time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.

**What if I have questions?**

This research is being conducted by Eloise Fortuin, a student pursuing a Masters in Language Education at the University of the Western Cape (Registration no: 14/8/20). If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact; Eloise Fortuin, +27 82 229 2387 eloisefortuin@yahoo.com.

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

**Student supervisor: Margie Probyn**

Dept of Language Education

mprobyn@uwc.ac.za

021 959 2430

**Head of Department: Sivakumar Sivasubraminiam**

Dept of Language Education

ssuvasybramaniam@uwc.ac.za

021 959 2430

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17

Bellville 7535

South Africa

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape’s Senate Research Committee.

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APPENDIX F

Interview questions (translated to Afrikaans)

Name of interviewee: ................................................ Date: ....................

Venue: ....................

Introductory comments

- Word of thanks
- Brief recap of what the research is about and what the interview is about
- Reminder that interview will be audio-taped, that participant will remain anonymous, that points discussed will be confidential and that participant may withdraw at any point in time

1. How long have you been a teacher?

2. How long have you been a teacher at this school?

3. What has your experience been like, past and present, teaching isiXhosa learners?

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
4. How do you think they are coping with the literacy demands of the curriculum, particularly in content subjects such as Natural Science?

5. Do you think that some isiXhosa learners perform better than others? Why do you think that is?

6. Do you think that for some, learning in Afrikaans is a challenge?

7. Do you think that there is a need to use different literacy strategies for struggling isiXhosa learners in your class? Why or why not?

8. What are the strategies or practices, if any, that you currently use to support the isiXhosa learners who need it?

9. Do you think the strategies are helpful? Is there betterment in their academic reading and writing?

10. Do you face any challenges in teaching a minority of isiXhosa learners? What are these challenges?

11. What do you think are some of the common challenges that isiXhosa learners face when speaking or writing in Afrikaans?

12. How do you view their behaviour or attitude in class when it comes to reading or speaking oral in front of the class?

Teacher A: I notice that you seated Anita and Thimna next to each other. Is there any particular reason for that?
Teacher A: From your experience, what do you think, helps isiXhosa learners most to improve their reading and writing in Afrikaans?

Teacher A: You make use of a lot of writing certain words in colour. Why is that?

Teacher B: How is Reitumise’s behaviour and academic performance in class?

Teacher B: I notice that Anna-Maria can speak both Afrikaans and isiXhosa. When you want to know something from Reitumise, you speak to Anna-Maria instead. Why is that?

Teacher B: I also noticed during my last observation, that you seated all the isiXhosa learners in one group. What is your reason for doing that?

Teacher B: With regard to the teaching of isiXhosa learners and you being a new teacher, how do you think you would like to help them, or how would you liked to be helped?

Teacher C: I notice that you spoke English to Achumile. Is there a reason for that? How is her Afrikaans?

Teacher C: I noticed that Yanga sometimes causes a bit of a disturbance in class. You’ve had to reprimand him a few times. What do you think the reason is? How is his performance in class?

Teacher C: Do you think that the isiXhosa learners are coping with the literacy demands academically?
Teacher D: Considering your experience, what have you found to be a successful way of improving learners overall academic literacy skills. Do you think the isiXhosa learners benefit from such strategies as well?

Teacher D: Do you think that isiXhosa learners learning through Afrikaans is a concern? Why or why not?
APPENDIX G

Focus group interviews

Grade of focus groups: ..................  Date: ..................

Venue: ..................

Introductory comments

- Word of thanks
- Explain procedure
- Put learners at ease, etc.

Questions

1. How long have you been living in Bredasdorp?
2. When did you move to Bredasdorp? Where are you originally from?
3. Do you like it at this school? Why or why not?
4. Is isiXhosa your first language? Do you speak it at home? How often?
5. What language do your parents speak?
6. How did you learn Afrikaans?
7. Do you find the work in class easy or difficult? Why?
8. If you could choose in which language you would like to be taught in; what would it be? Why?

9. Do they help you with your homework or can you do it on your own?

10. Does the teacher help you in class when you don’t understand? Who helps you?
    (struggling isiXhosa learners)
## APPENDIX H: Lesson Summaries

**Teacher A – Lesson 1 – 16 February 2015**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Teacher Activity</th>
<th>Learner Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12:40</td>
<td>Start</td>
<td>Revision: Question and Answer</td>
<td>Feedback: Voluntary learners answer revision questions based on previous lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:45</td>
<td>Parts of a plant</td>
<td>Revision: Question and Answer</td>
<td>Feedback: Learners name appearance of plant based on words learned in previous lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:50</td>
<td>Appearance of plant</td>
<td>Concrete example: Teacher shows physical example of a real plant</td>
<td>Learners can touch and feel plant as it is sent around class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:00</td>
<td></td>
<td>Introduces new writing activity from textbooks</td>
<td>Group Work: Each group is assigned one question from the activity which is to describe one plant from the different pictures in the textbooks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:10</td>
<td></td>
<td>Asks Feedback</td>
<td>Feedback: one member in each group describes their plant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:15</td>
<td>– 13:20 End</td>
<td>Chalkboard: Teacher writes information about parts of plants and their functions, from the textbook onto the board as a summary</td>
<td>Learners write the summary from the board into their workbooks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher A – Lesson 2 – 23 February 2015**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Teacher Activity</th>
<th>Learner Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12:45</td>
<td>Start</td>
<td>Introduction: Teacher describes an animal and learners have to guess which animal it is. She posts a picture up on the board afterwards.</td>
<td>Learners listen attentively to the animal being described by the teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:50</td>
<td>Structure of animals</td>
<td>Revision: Question-And-Answer – Teacher asks learners questions based on the previous lesson about the structure of an animal.</td>
<td>Learners have to think back and name the different parts of an animal. Words such as ligaments, body, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:55</td>
<td></td>
<td>Identify: Teacher puts pictures up on the board of an ostrich. She asks different learners to write the parts of the ostrich</td>
<td>Certain learners come to the front to write parts of the ostrich on the board.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Each group gets a picture of an animal. One learner in each group has to describe the animal to the rest of the class, who have to guess what it is.

**Teacher A – Lesson 3 – 20 April 2015**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Teacher Activity</th>
<th>Learner Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13:00</td>
<td>Start</td>
<td>Phases of matter Revision: Question-And-Answer: Teacher revises previous lesson on solids, liquids and gas</td>
<td>Learners have the guidance of the notes on the white flipchart to help them answer the questions on solids, liquids and gas. They have to give an example of each when they answer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:10</td>
<td>Group Work: Each group is given three pictures and they have to decide whether it is a solid, a liquid or a gas.</td>
<td>The learners have to come to the front and show they pictures to the class and say whether it is a solid, a liquid or a gas.</td>
<td>For homework, learners are given the instruction to look for pictures of solids, liquids and gas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:35</td>
<td>End</td>
<td>Application: After the activity, the teacher revises one last time. Learners are given a homework instruction, which is to look for more pictures, in magazines or newspapers, of solids, liquids and gas.</td>
<td>For homework, learners are given the instruction to look for pictures of solids, liquids and gas.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher B – Lesson 1 – 16 April 2015**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Teacher Activity</th>
<th>Learner Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12:55</td>
<td>Start</td>
<td>Phases of matter Introduction: Reading – Teacher reads something from the textbook on phases of matter: solids, liquids and gas</td>
<td>Learners follow the reading in their own textbooks. Learners are also asked to read a certain part together.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:00</td>
<td>Activity: Pictures – Teacher points to different pictures of solids, liquids and gas in the textbooks.</td>
<td>Learners study the pictures in their books and while the teacher points to the pictures, random learners say whether it is a solid, a liquid or a gas.</td>
<td>Learners copy the question from the board.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:05</td>
<td>Writing Activity: Teacher writes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
questions on the board on: “Find out what you know about solids, liquids and gases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>What</th>
<th>How</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13:07</td>
<td>Reading: Teacher reads something on solids, liquids and gas from the textbooks while the learners are copying from the board.</td>
<td>Learners continue writing, after which they have to find the answer to the question on the board.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:10</td>
<td>Teacher asks learners for answers and writes it on the board. He helps them where they need clarity.</td>
<td>Learners give feedback and write the correct answers from the board in their workbooks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Teacher B – Lesson 2 – 20 April 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Teacher Activity</th>
<th>Learner Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12:00 Start</td>
<td>Phases of matter (continuation)</td>
<td>Revision: solids, liquids and gas Teacher asks learners to read from the textbook</td>
<td>As revision, learners are asked to read about solids, liquids and gases, aloud together from the textbook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:05</td>
<td></td>
<td>Summary: Teacher summarizes what they read orally.</td>
<td>Learners listen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:10</td>
<td>Question-And-Answer: Teacher asks questions on what was just read, e.g. “What are the properties of solids?”</td>
<td>Learners have to answer the questions on what they read with the help of their textbooks.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:13</td>
<td>Writing activity: Teacher writes the following on the board: “Properties of solids, liquids and gas”</td>
<td>Learners have to write the properties of the different phases of matter into their workbooks. They have the textbook as guide.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:15 End</td>
<td>Activity: Sorting – Teacher instructs learners on the activity: Sort pictures on the worksheet into the table of different phases of matter.</td>
<td>Learners have to study the pictures on the worksheet given to them and complete the table, e.g. “Is the bottle a liquid, a solid or a gas?” Learners complete the activity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Teacher B – Lesson 3 – 23 April 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Teacher Activity</th>
<th>Learner Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13:40 Start</td>
<td>Phases of matter</td>
<td>Revision: Question-And-Answer – Teacher asks question: “What a solid, a liquid, is and gas?” Teacher prompts for</td>
<td>Learners do a short rhyme to help them answer the question the teacher posed: “n solid... has form, a liquid... takes form... and</td>
</tr>
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</table>

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answers by doing a rhyme.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13:50</td>
<td>Worksheet: Teacher helps learners complete an observation table about how water goes through the different phases of matter, with ice as the starting phase.</td>
<td>Learners complete the observation table about the different phases of matter with the help of the teacher.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:55</td>
<td>Question-And-Answer: Teacher asks questions to help learners complete the worksheet: “What will happen if the ice stands in the sun?” etc.</td>
<td>Learners complete the activity and answer the questions posed by the teacher.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:00</td>
<td>Teacher draws the pictures of different phases of matter on the board, e.g. a picture of ice, a picture of ice starting to melt, a puddle of water, and a kettle steaming.</td>
<td>Learners copy the pictures from the board.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:05</td>
<td>Revision: Teacher prompts the rhyme about solids liquids and gas.</td>
<td>Learners do the rhyme prompted by the teacher: “Solid….has form… liquid…takes form and gas… has no form”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher C – Lesson 1 – 23 February 2015**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Teacher Activity</th>
<th>Learner Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11:30</td>
<td>The structure of an animal</td>
<td>Revision: The teacher posts a picture of a mouse on the board.</td>
<td>Learners have to study the picture of the mouse and the labels of the different parts, from their desks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:40</td>
<td></td>
<td>Instruction: Teacher instructs learners to copy the picture from the board into their workbooks.</td>
<td>Learners copy the picture from the board into their workbooks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:50 – 13:55</td>
<td></td>
<td>The teacher checks that everyone is drawing from the board.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher C – Lesson 2 – 2 March 2015**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Teacher Activity</th>
<th>Learner Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11:30</td>
<td>Start What plants need</td>
<td>Introduction – Revision: Teacher tells learners what the lesson will be about.</td>
<td>Learners listen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Teacher Activity</td>
<td>Learner Activity</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>11:35</td>
<td>Question-And-Answer: Teacher asks learners questions about the different things that plants need: air, sunlight, water, etc. This is based on a previous lesson.</td>
<td>The teacher singles out five learners to write the different things that plants need in list-form on the board.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:45</td>
<td>Reading: Teacher reads from the textbook and asks learners to follow.</td>
<td>Learners follow what the teacher is reading in their own textbooks.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:50</td>
<td></td>
<td>The teacher singles out a few learners and asks them to read from the textbook.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:55-12:00</td>
<td>Activity: As a comprehension activity, the teacher asks learners to do an activity from the textbook on what they just read.</td>
<td>Learners do the comprehension activity in their workbooks.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher C – Lesson 3 – 16 April 2015**

<table>
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<th>Learner Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13:15</td>
<td>Start Phases of matter</td>
<td>Introduction: Before starting the formal lesson, the teacher gives learners written notes about solids, liquids and gas, on the board which they have to copy into their workbooks.</td>
<td>Learners copy the written notes on the board into their workbooks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:20</td>
<td>Demonstration and Question-And-Answer: The teacher does demonstrations to see if what they have written on the board is actually true. In other words, they are going to demonstrate ‘solids, liquids and gases’. This was done with the help of a bottle of water, a kettle, a duster, etc.</td>
<td>Random learners are asked to help him demonstrate. The other learners participate by answering the questions about solids, liquids and gases which are prompted by the teacher.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:25</td>
<td>Spot Question-And-Answer: Teacher asks spot questions to test learners’ knowledge on what was just taught.</td>
<td>Learners participate by answering the questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:30</td>
<td>Application activity: Teacher draws three blocks on the board representing a solid, a liquid and gas. Learners have to draw circles inside representing the particles in</td>
<td>Learners have to copy the blocks in their workbooks and draw circles inside the block which represent particles of solids, liquids or gas. The circles must be drawn close together</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
order to make it a solid, a liquid or a gas. or far apart in order to make it a solid or a liquid, etc.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12:00</td>
<td>Start</td>
<td>Revision: Teacher revises a previous lesson</td>
<td>Learners listen attentively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:05</td>
<td>Concrete example</td>
<td>Teacher shows learners a physical example of a real plant. She points to different parts of the plant.</td>
<td>Learners study the plant shown to them and random learners name the different parts of the plant to which the teacher is pointing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question-And-Answer</td>
<td>Question-And-Answer and Textbook: Teacher reads from the textbook and learners follow. After reading the teacher asks learners questions on what they read. E.g. “Which part of the plant absorbs water?”</td>
<td>Learners have to read from the textbook with their teacher. The learners have to answer the questions the teacher asks, based on what they just read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:15</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Reading: The class reads one or two sentences together which the teacher prompted.</td>
<td>Reading: Learners read aloud from the textbook.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:20</td>
<td>Chalkboard</td>
<td>Chalkboard: Teacher writes on the board from the textbook and instructs learners to copy.</td>
<td>Learners copy the work from the board into their workbooks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:25</td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>Summary: While learners are writing, the teacher hands out pictures of plants with their labels.</td>
<td>Learners have to paste the pictures of plants with their labels into their textbooks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher D – Lesson 2 – 2 March 2015**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12:30</td>
<td>Start</td>
<td>Introduction: Teacher explains what a ‘need’ is: “It is something we cannot go without, e.g. water, shelter, energy, etc.”</td>
<td>Learners only listen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:35</td>
<td>Question-And-Answer</td>
<td>Question-And-Answer: The teacher asks</td>
<td>Learners have to study two pictures from their</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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the learners to identify the different appliances in the pictures.

textbook; one picture depicting more modern electrical appliances and the other pictures older energy supplying appliances. Learners have to identify the pictures.

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12:50</td>
<td>Case-study: The teacher reads a case study from the textbook. The story is about an old lady and the way she is living. The two pictures previously studied represent the way the old lady is living and learners have to decide which one it is.</td>
<td>Learners listen to the case study that the teacher is reading. The story is about an old lady and the way she is living. The two pictures previously studied represent the way the old lady is living and learners have to decide which one it is.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:55 – 13:00</td>
<td>Activity on chalkboard: Teacher writes questions on the board about the case study. Learners have to answer.</td>
<td>Learners have to copy the questions from the board and answer it in their workbooks.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teacher D – Lesson 3 – 16 April 2015

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<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13:40</td>
<td>Phases of matter: solids, liquids and gas</td>
<td>Question-And-Answer: The teacher gives learners a worksheet on solids, liquids and gas. On the worksheet there are pictures.</td>
<td>Learners have to study the pictures. Teacher points to different pictures and asks random learners to identify whether it is a solid, a liquid or a gas. E.g. a picture of cooking oil.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:45</td>
<td>Reading and Question-And-Answer: Teacher hands out another piece of reading. Teacher asks learners questions based on the reading as a comprehension test.</td>
<td>Learners have to find out what the reading is saying about solids, liquids and gas. She orally asks them questions from the text handed to them and they have to study the reading in order to answer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:50</td>
<td>Activity: Teacher instructs learners to sort the different pictures of everyday examples of solids, liquids and gas, into a table.</td>
<td>The learners do an activity. In a table they have to sort the different pictures of solids, liquids and gas.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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