Intermediate and senior phase English Language subject advisors' perceptions of text-based theory as realised in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

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ABSTRACT

Despite the democratic government's initiatives to streamline and improve educational outcomes, national and international studies indicate that South Africa has one of the world's lowest literacy rates. This systemic under-achievement is routinely attributed to teachers' inability to adequately implement the curriculum, amongst other factors. Less attention has been paid to the curriculum itself, and its possible impact on pedagogy. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for languages endorses a form of genre pedagogy it terms a text-based approach. Given its centrality to teaching, learning and assessment, CAPS merits a closer examination. Furthermore, little is known about the curriculum mediation and literacy support that language teachers receive from district subject advisors. Accordingly, the first purpose of the study was to ascertain to what extent a text-based approach is realised in CAPS languages at Intermediate and Senior Phase levels; and secondly, to explore subject advisors' perceptions of the text-based approach. In terms of research design, this is a qualitative case study. Relevant CAPS documents constituted the secondary data, while the primary data comprised semi-structured interviews with four subject advisors from different districts in the Western Cape. This was thus a case study of limited scope, and hence no claims are made about the generalisability of its findings. The study found that the CAPS document's understanding of text-based approaches is limited and partial, thereby influencing subject advisors' own narrow understandings of text-based theory. The implications of the findings are that the features of text-based theory be made more explicit in CAPS itself, and that subject advisors be provided with more in-depth training on the text-based approach to literacy.

Keywords: Text-based approach; genre theory; systemic functional linguistics; functional grammar; Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement; subject advisors

DECLARATION

I, **Valencia Theys**, hereby declare that the thesis, *Intermediate and senior phase English Language subject advisors' perceptions of text-based theory as realised in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement,* is my own work and that the thesis has not been submitted to any other institution for the purpose of obtaining a degree. I declare that all sources have been duly acknowledged and referenced.

Valencia Theys

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December 2023

Dedication

To my late father and late grandmother, the two most intellectual minds I have ever known: a mother and son whose brilliance and creativity were undervalued amidst oppressive circumstances, denying them the formal education and academic recognition they undoubtedly deserved. This degree is as much yours as it is mine! Your reminder that "The heart of the discerning acquires knowledge, for the ears of the wise seek it out" will forever guide me as I discover my academic voice.

To my amazing husband, my mother, brothers, nephews, and, most importantly, my son Daniel Cloete: your love sustained me throughout the writing of this thesis. May this achievement stand as a testament that you are capable of anything you set your mind to.

I love you!

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

National Senior Certificate (NSC)

Outcomes Based Education (OBE)

Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT)

Basic Education Laws Amendment (BELA)

Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS)

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

Intermediate Phase (IP)

Senior Phase (SP)

English Home Language (EHL)

English First Additional Language (EFAL)

Department of Basic Education (DBE)

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Western Cape Education Department (WCED)

Annual National Assessments (ANA)

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

Direct Method (DM)

Audiolingual Method (AM)

English for Specific Purpose (ESP)

New Rhetoric Studies (NRS)

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

Functional Grammar (FG)

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1. Introduction

Since 1994, the education sector in South Africa has encountered numerous curriculum changes as the country has worked to abandon the principles of apartheid and ensure the availability of equal education to all learners. In this process, teachers are seen as instrumental in the process of successful curriculum reform (Jansen, 1998; Hoadley, 2018). It is for this reason that teachers are often held accountable when curriculum reform does not occur in what is considered an 'effective' way (Bantwini, 2010; Blignaut, 2007). This is particularly evident in a South African context where the numerous curriculum modifications made over two decades have generated a discourse among detractors that foregrounds teacher inability as a major factor in the intended successful curriculum implementation. Teachers are often portrayed as lacking the content knowledge required to implement the current curriculum, and it is they who, to a significant extent, tend to receive blame for the low levels of achievement in the national literacy results (NEEDU, 2013; Spaull, 2013). In an attempt to counteract the persistently low national literacy achievement, the Department of Basic Education (DBE) has, since 1994, invested in various literacy training programmes. However, in spite of these initiatives, many studies on curriculum reform continue to highlight teachers' inability to successfully merge policy and practice. What is worth noting is that numerous studies have highlighted weak capacity within the new state, together with a lack of resources and an insufficient professional knowledge base of practising teachers as major contributors to the underperformance of learners at over 60% of schools (Kerfoot & Van Heerden, 2015; Van Heerden, 2008). It is in this context that literature which focuses on intermediate and senior phase subject advisors' perceptions about the literacy support they provide is often neglected. According to Roberts (2001:2), one of the reasons for this is "[e]ducational reform initiatives in South Africa have until now ignored the district".

This paucity of research is particularly significant in language education, as research has shown that shifts in language teaching approaches rest on teachers' grasp of complex language theories which hold implications for pedagogy and the way teachers need to teach (Canale & Swain, 1980). For instance, the shift to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (DBE, 2011a) included a significant transformation from traditional language teaching towards

embracing a progressive theoretical underpinning where diverse theories such as communicative language teaching (CLT) as well as process and a text-based approach to teaching and assessing language are combined. Language teachers were obliged to make a shift from formal discourses and decontextualised language rules as a set of skills to be taught, learned and mastered to a text-based approach where texts are viewed as having specific purposes, audiences and as occurring within specific contexts (DBE, 2011a). Kerfoot and Van Heerden (2015) highlight that a majority of teachers at the time of the 2011 Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) had received their teacher training during the apartheid era. The focus of this training was on behaviourist teaching methodologies and the likelihood existed that these teachers would not be equipped with the kind of metalanguage with which to engage in thinking, analysing and talking about language choices. Thus, without adequate training in the new constructivist language approaches, the majority of teachers were likely unable to provide appropriate literacy support to their learners, and also likely to continue with past behaviourist language teaching approaches. In such a context, the perceptions of subject advisors and the district level support they provide could be a driver for curriculum change or implementation. I argue that a study that sheds light on subject advisors' theoretical understanding of the text-based approach should be important because their perceptions and level of direct curriculum support has the potential to positively impact teachers' pedagogy and classroom practice.

1.1. Background

During the post-apartheid era, the new government has sought to create an education system based on values in striking contrast to those of the apartheid regime (Jansen, 1999). The goal of the new democratic government was to have an education system that was equal, fair and in line with the Bill of Rights of the new Constitution. The achievement of this goal took the form of a bold transformation where the curriculum required shifts from behaviourist towards constructivist teaching approaches. In language education and literacy teaching, the shift embraced a combination of process, communicative and the text-based approach. DBE (2011a) highlights the prominence of texts, stating that authentic texts are the key source and basis of content and context for the communicative, cohesive learning and teaching of all languages. Therefore, teachers need to understand how texts work in relation to their social purpose, structure and language features (Van Heerden, 2015). However, to date, it is questionable whether teachers are sufficiently knowledgeable about the appropriate theoretical underpinning required to implement these progressive language theories in their teaching. This lack of

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knowledge has the potential for teachers to be over-reliant on support from subject advisors at district, provincial and national levels.

As a part of the state's implementation plan, numerous literacy training programmes have occurred to assist teachers with their challenges. However, various studies still indicate that the gap between policy and its method of implementation is far too great (Spaull, 2013). Significantly, many subject advisors for languages also received their training in the apartheid era where behaviourist theories underpinned methods of language teaching. Some of what teachers are able to implement in the classroom stems from what subject advisors request from them, which is why we cannot explore teachers' ability to implement policy without exploring the nature of subject advisors' perceptions and their curriculum support and how this aligns with theories encapsulated in the curriculum. While various studies highlight a lack of resources, language policy, feeble state capacity, and the inadequate theoretical knowledge of teachers as some of the key contributors to the poor literacy results in the country, the role of advisors is often neglected (Van Heerden, 2008). Yet subject advisors perform a key curricular function as they have a hand in school-based policy and serve as state representatives which contribute towards in-service teacher training on learning and assessment at schools. Therefore, a study that focuses on subject advisors' perceptions of the text-based approach to language teaching could be viewed as a priority, given that our learners' literacy levels consistently portray the poorest performance of all middle-income countries, significantly worse than many low-income African countries (Soudien, 2007; NEEDU, 2013).

Even though there are many factors contributing to the decline in literacy results, the one most pertinent to this study is the perceptions of subject advisors and the language-related literacy support provided by subject advisors, given that a vast majority of learners are learning through a language in which neither they nor, in many cases, their teachers, have developed the registers of schooling (Kerfoot & Vandenbergen, 2015). As a result, many teachers' understanding of texts would in all probability be severely limited. Given this situation, the intermediate and senior phases are areas of concern because advanced biliteracy skills (the ability to read and write proficiently in two languages) are necessary to successfully negotiate cognitive thinking across the curriculum. For this reason, this study intends to shed light on subject advisors' perceptions of the text-based approach and the literacy support they provide to teachers.

1.2. Motivation for the Study

During my five years of practising teaching, I have come to ascertain a gap between university teaching courses and the reality of teaching. When I started teaching, I was instructed to follow my subject advisors' guidelines and recommendations which were measurably different from my university training. For example, while at university I was taught to avoid decontextualised methods of teaching grammar and language, yet at school this style of teaching has become the order of the day. I found this experience particularly confusing because district officials would regularly come to our school and make controlled recommendations about the literacy teaching and assessment approaches. I soon realised that the role of subject advisors is to support teachers in improving their knowledge and understanding of teaching languages aligned with CAPS (2011). These interventions were generally organised as part of in-service training programmes, conferences, workshops, and seminars for teachers (Mavuso, 2013). According to the DBE (2013b), the role of subject advisors includes assisting in the formation of subject committees through the clustering of schools and facilitating the twinning of schools to share resources, knowledge, and experiences in the interests of policy implementation. I soon pondered about department officials' understanding of the underlying text-based approach as realised in the curriculum. This piqued my interest in studying how subject advisors perceive certain pedagogical approaches and how they influence teacher practices because, to a large extent, they inform teachers' pedagogical, methodological, and assessment practices in classrooms.

1.3. Research Problem

Even though the state has invested in literacy training and support programmes since democracy, research shows a significant decrease in the literacy rates of learners. In fact, the literacy levels of South African learners are consistently the poorest performance of all middle-income countries participating in international assessments of educational achievement; significantly worse in fact than many low-income African countries (Soudien, 2007; NEEDU, 2013; Spaull, 2013). It is interesting that discourses since democracy primarily represent teachers as responsible for the decline in literacy levels. For this reason, accountability measures in the guise of systemic assessments put the blame squarely on teachers. Given this situation, the senior and intermediate phases increasingly become areas of concern because

advanced biliteracy skills and the ability to use language and literacy across the curriculum are crucial for success.

Even more interesting is some serious theoretical misunderstanding of the text-based approach in the curriculum documents since democracy, which can also have severe implications for the literacy development of learners in intermediate and senior phases, especially in disadvantaged contexts (Van Der Mescht, 2010; Van Heerden, 2008 & 2015). This raises questions about subject advisors' understanding of the approach and the type of literacy support teachers receive, given that many subject advisors would inevitably draw on the curriculum documents to provide support to teachers. Consequently, the main research question is as follows: What are WCED district officials' perceptions of text-based theory?

The research sub-questions are as follows:

- *To what extent is a text-based approach realised in the CAPS document?*

- *What are Intermediate and Senior phase English Language subject advisors' understanding of a text-based approach?*

1.4. Aims of the Study

Subject advisors draw on policy mandates to inform the literacy support they offer to teachers. Thus, their support points towards standard-setting, improving the quality of literacy teaching and processes of moderation and monitoring or evaluation of school-based literacy in the intermediate and senior phases. Given that language teachers are specifically supported by subject advisors who provide classroom support for successful curriculum implementation, an over-arching issue for this project is then to shed light on possible ways to improve literacy outcomes in the intermediate and senior phases. As a result, the major aim of this study is to explore intermediate and senior phase subject advisors' understanding of the text-based approach as encapsulated in CAPS (2011) in various districts in the Western Cape. More specifically, the research objectives are:

- *to explore the extent to which a text-based approach is realised in the CAPS document; and*

- *to explore subject advisors' perceptions of the text-based approach.*

1.5. Significance

Despite many critiques that South Africa's education system is in crisis, there are a number of recent policies pointing towards the DBE's intention to address some systemic issues related to underperformance, such as the adoption of the recent Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement Action Plan to 2030 and the implementation of the Annual National Assessments (ANAs). Yet a gap in the literature relates to the nature of subject advisors' understanding of the curriculum and its central theories concerning the class and school-based literacy support that they provide. The study thus feeds into national literacy concerns because the focus shifts from teacher deficit discourses toward DBE officials' understanding of the text-based approach. Of major significance for this research is the paucity of studies that focus on subject advisors' perceptions about the literacy practices they provide to teachers.

Additionally, learners should be able to engage with various text types and gain knowledge of structure, social contexts wherein language occurs, and the associated language features (DBE, 2011b). Therefore, an additional benefit of the study to language and literacy teaching and learning is its in-depth exploration of intermediate and senior phase English subject advisors' understanding of the text-based approach in the Western Cape. Given that this issue is under-explored in the literature, I argue that it is essential to shed light on the nature and extent of district-level support. This is particularly important given that subject advisors provide curriculum guidance to teachers on curriculum implementation, pedagogy, and assessment. Although there are numerous other factors influencing pedagogy both positively and negatively, this study is limited to subject advisors' understanding of the text-based approach. And how their understanding influences the kind of literacy support they provide to educators in education districts in the Western Cape.

1.6 Chapter Outline

This research study consists of six chapters. A summary of each chapter follows below.

1.6.1 Chapter 1

In this chapter, the study is introduced, outlining its purpose within the South African educational setting. The focus is on initiating a discussion about the perspectives of subject advisors regarding a text-based approach and their influence on literacy practices. Furthermore, the chapter provides an introduction to the research questions and the study's objectives.

1.6.2. Chapter 2

This chapter examines the theoretical framework and literature relative to the study. It establishes the theoretical foundations that will direct the analysis. Initially, it delves into learning theories and subsequently provides a concise overview of language teaching approaches. Following that, the chapter concentrates on text-based instruction, exploring its essential components and advantages within the context of second language learning. The implementation of this approach is also discussed.

1.6.3. Chapter 3

The emphasis of the third chapter lies in research design and methodology. It provides clarity of the study's context concerning the research objectives. Additionally, this chapter offers an overview of the research participants and how they were selected as well as the documents examined. It outlines the specifics of the data collection and analysis procedures. It also indicates the limitations of the study.

1.6.4. Chapter 4

Chapter 4 presents the secondary data while analysing it in accordance with the tools of analysis referred to in the theoretical frames specified in Chapter 2. Both inductive and deductive approaches to document analysis are used to interpret the data, displaying the extent to which a text-based approach has been enforced in the CAPS document.

1.6.5. Chapter 5

This chapter presents the primary data while analysing it with reference to the theoretical framework and literature discussed in Chapter 2. Both inductive and deductive approaches to the analysis of the interviews are employed to interpret the data, revealing the extent to which a text-based approach is understood and enforced by subject advisors.

1.6.6 Chapter 6

The concluding chapter provides a summary of the study's findings and, building upon these, suggests ideas for future research.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to review the literature that explores the perceptions of teachers and other relevant stakeholders/role-players about text-based theory as it is used in the teaching of English as a second language, particularly in the intermediate and senior phases. Additionally, the purpose is to attain an understanding of how English is best learned, taught, and mediated to establish theories and methods that benefit the South African context.

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section entails the theoretical framework of the study which is based on constructivist and socio-constructivist theory that illustrates how learners construct meaning. This is followed by a literature review of various theories and methods of language acquisition and methods of teaching a second language, with a focus on genre theory – concerning a text-based approach and its applications in language teaching.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

To gain an understanding of how learning and cognition operate with regard to language acquisition and teaching, it is important to understand how children learn and create meaning. The former statement is crucial as it consequently affects how children learn, understand and communicate in a particular language, which directly influences the methods and approaches used to teach that particular language. Therefore, the next section will focus on constructivist and socio-constructivist theory, as this will shed light on children's cognitive development which influences text-based pedagogy.

Constructivism is central to theory in education as it plays a massive role in the shift that occurred from knowledge viewed as something that needs to be transmitted (from teacher to student) to something that is constructed (by the learner) (Vygotsky & Kozulin, 2012; Wessels, 2014). This idea suggests that students are not empty vessels who need to be filled with knowledge from the teacher. On the contrary, the theory recognises that students already possess pockets of knowledge and cognitive skills gained from their lived experience (before and outside of school) which the teacher should help refine. This theory was pioneered by Jean Piaget who argues that knowledge is an entity that individuals construct; therefore individuals *actively* build knowledge and skills for themselves, they are not just passively receiving it from

their environments (McNally, 1977; Wessels, 2014). A prime idea in this theory is that people expand their current knowledge and experiences by linking it with new knowledge structures and learning (McNally, 1977; Wessels, 2014). The former notions are particularly important for language learning and teaching, as they suggest that teachers need to recognise students' existing language structures and skills as well as their knowledge of the world and use this to expand learners' language proficiency and meaning-making ability.

In addition, Piaget's cognitive development theories suggest that as children gain a new understanding of their environment their level of reasoning also changes (Lefa, 2014; Piaget, 1952). This idea is built on a universal approach, as it assumes that all children experience the same sequence (process) of development, based on interactions with their environment and their biological maturation; which may occur at different stages for different children (Piaget, 1952; Lefa, 2014). Therefore, it is vital that teachers spend time attempting to develop activities for certain students and sometimes teach in smaller groups as opposed to planning every lesson for the entire class (Lefa, 2014). Additionally, assessments ought to be built on particular children's progress as opposed to the common criteria for the same age group to allow students to create their own knowledge throughout the course of their interaction with their environment (Lefa, 2014).

Moreover, Piaget claims that all children go through four stages of cognitive development and these stages are classified by children's new abilities to rationalise new knowledge. It is highlighted that the child's ability to construct new knowledge is linked to schemas, a way of intellectual functioning that we inherit (McNally, 1977). The former functioning works in conjunction with children's environments which leads to advanced development of intellectual (cognitive) structures (McNally, 1977). Piaget suggests that through interaction with their environment, children generate complex mental structures and pictures which he referred to as "schemata" which allows students to build up concepts of how things work (Piaget, 1952; McNally, 1977). These structures may refer to the ways we deal with the world, which merely suggests that every individual is born with an innate ability to construct meaning from their own environment. Children use their schemas to deal, adapt and organise their world, leading to the construction of meaning-making. Therefore, a more succinct definition of children's schemas is that it refers to the cognitive patterns or behaviour children have at their disposal to understand solutions to problems presented by their environment (McNally, 1977: Piaget, 1952).

As it can be argued that learners' prior knowledge and existing schemas play a major role in how students construct meaning on their own, this suggests that teachers must be cognisant of that fact that students of the same age may not all be on the same cognitive level because of their different schemes and past interactions with the world. This leaves teachers with the task of finding creative ways to allow *all* students to use their various schemes to make meaning and learn in the classroom. In the language learning and teaching context, this might suggest that teachers need to use a child's existing language (which may be viewed as a scheme) to create meaning and build proficiency in the target language. This also suggests that no child may be viewed as [a] being without knowledge as every child possesses an existing scheme.

Moreover, Piaget highlights three major concepts when he refers to cognitive development and the process of meaning-making. He suggests that the inherent inspiration for learning is an evolutionary instinct toward seeking balance (equilibrium). Piaget identifies that children's ability to attain equilibrium and adapt to their environment is crucial in the way they construct knowledge. He states that there are two harmonising aspects to adaptation: assimilation and accommodation (McNally, 1977).

Assimilation refers to the cognitive process that deals with a person's environment in terms of their schema. This may be loosely described as a child's ability to make sense of something based on something familiar (McNally, 1977). McNally (1997) uses the example where a child of a specific age might mistake a sheep for a dog. In this instance, the child uses existing scheme which may be that of a woolly four-legged animal. The child therefore incorporates (assimilates) his or her view of a sheep into existing knowledge. This depicts how we fit information from the environment into our schemes to form meaning. Thus, it may be assumed that if a student experiences something new (new information) and this is in line with the student's current scheme, the new information from the experience would be "assimilated" into the student's current schemata and equilibrium would be achieved (McNally, 1977).

On the other hand, *accommodation* refers to the adjustment of an existing scheme in the event of a new experience (McNally, 1977). This suggests that when new knowledge arises that challenges a learner's cognitive structure or scheme, the learner has to reshape the structure for the knowledge to be fitted (accommodated) in the learner's mind (McNally, 1977). This suggest that the new information is not similar to that of the learner's prior (existing) knowledge – thus, it cannot easily be linked to the learner's existing knowledge, as it would in the event of assimilation. The learner's intellectual structure is changed and adapted to accommodate the new knowledge. Therefore, learning could be described as the constant

process of interacting with the world around us which allows us to confirm or reshape our intrinsic view of the world (McNally, 1977). This notion of meaning-making places the teacher in the position of facilitator or mediator who aids students in the process of assimilating and/or accommodating information rather than acting as a transmitter of knowledge. Thus, the methods a language teacher implores should not reflect authoritative practices; rather, the methods should allow learners to construct and create meaning for themselves. This is an imperative notion as the approaches recommended in the CAPS document, rely on the premise that teachers are mediators and facilitators that support learners to construct meaning for themselves.

When reflecting on language teaching and learning in our multilingual context, assimilation may refer to First Additional Language (FAL) students using their mother tongue (existing language or proficient language) as a schema, where translation or translanguaging is used to create meaning and/or meaningful communication in the target language. An example of accommodation may be students making sense of the difference between the target language's concepts, phonics, and systems in relation to that of their proficient or existing language. Similarly, students will need to accommodate their existing language systems when the target language is dissimilar to that of their existing language, for example, a Chinese student learning English.

Piaget also emphasises the need for individuals to reach equilibrium during their meaning-making process. In defining *equilibrium* as an individual's attempt to reach the balance between assimilation and accommodation, he suggests that an individual does this through the process of equilibration (the process of seeking balance) (Piaget, 1952). The notion of balance is important as he argues that people will not show great cognitive development if they learn through assimilation or accommodation alone. He suggests, however, that there must be a balance between these adaptive structures, and that balance, he says, is the cognitive equilibrium people have to reach (Piaget, 1952). Therefore, when a child is in a state of disequilibrium, where the child does not have a complete hold on a particular concept or new aspect of knowledge the child should lessen this imbalance by developing new schemes or adjusting existing ones to gain equilibrium. Therefore, it can be assumed that knowledge is built through the balance and imbalance of equilibrium. In our multilingual setting, the assumption might be that equilibrium may be reached when students have a better understanding of the target language.

Constructivism is a central theory to help develop environments wherein students may be presented with opportunities to develop strong cognitive processes. It illustrates the importance of children's prior knowledge (including children's experiences and languages) and how important it is that educators create enhancing environments (inside and outside the classroom) where students' prior knowledge and schemata may be used to develop critical thinking and higher levels of cognitive development. This emphasises the importance of students' experiences and proficient (home) languages in the process of constructing (and not receiving) new knowledge. Even though Piaget identifies that social interaction and language contribute to meaning-making, he does not place much emphasis on it. He identifies language as the medium through which thought occurs but does not recognise that language has any influential effect on the construction of thinking (Tryphon & Voneche, 1996). Piaget's theory is still viewed as individualistic by some because of its emphasis on the individual's ability to construct knowledge instead of the environment in which that individual interacts (Tryphon & Voneche, 1996). By contrast, socio-constructivism seems to address this issue; hence, the next section will discuss this concept in more detail.

2.2.2 Socio-Constructivism

Lev Vygotsky played a crucial role in the development of socio-constructivism and sociocultural theory. For the purpose of this study, it is important to note that Vygotsky followed, read and commented on the work of Piaget (Tryphon & Voneche, 1996). This is crucial, as it suggests that Vygotsky agreed with much of Piaget's work about his anti-behaviourist views of learning and cognitive development. Vygotsky too believed knowledge was not an entity that should simply be transmitted from individual to individual. Like Piaget, he recognised that knowledge is constructed through interaction with one's environment and various stimuli; in light of this, he too suggests that learner-centred classrooms are imperative for attaining higher levels of cognitive development (Tryphon & Voneche, 1996; Daniels, 1996).

However, Vygotsky places less emphasis on the cognitive stages and individual encounters and rejects the idea that cognitive development is a largely internalised entity or that it relies equally on peers. On the contrary, Vygotsky highlights the link between children's social environment and their ability to construct knowledge (Wessels, 2014; Daniels, 1996; Kozulin, 1986). Additionally, the social world of students refers to their relatives, friends, their schooling

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environment (teachers, peers, school-admin staff, for example), and whoever else might form part of their world (environment). Vygotsky suggests that when students are immersed in an activity in a particular social environment, they pay attention, and if their existing abilities are challenged, they create and recreate knowledge as they interact with the people in that particular environment (Wessels, 2014; Daniels, 1996). He refers to this as a socially significant transaction which he believes leads to an inherent motivation which helps students to increase cognitive development and productivity. The key idea is that peers, parents, and teachers play a vital role in shaping a student's perceptions in learning (Vygotsky, 1978; Wessels, 2014; Kozulin, 1986). This suggests that a student's knowledge is created from the encounters with people in the environment before it is internalised in the student's mind (Daniels, 1996; Wessels, 2014). Thus, group work and giving students opportunities to learn from each other are pivotal in the classroom. Similarly, Vygotsky sees language instruction as a key aspect of learning, whereby learning is a social process (students learn from their physical world) but also that this learning is aided and mediated by people more knowledgeable than them, through language (Vygotsky, 1978; Wessels, 2014).

Thus, it is arguable that other humans and/or social environments play a pivotal role in a student's cognitive development. As a result, educators need to create changing contexts of interaction which fluctuate between learners receiving help from their teacher or peers who are more capable than they are, to learners interacting with students on the same capability level. This could also include students helping other students with lower capabilities to working individually where students access their personal internal resources (Wessels, 2014). The former approach (contextual changes) shifts the focus from individualism to a more collaborative form of interaction which seems to strengthen or support students' cognitive development (Arshad & Chen, 2009; Wessels, 2014). Thus, social collaboration, especially in language education, is a crucial aspect of teaching and learning.

Vygotsky also makes the argument that emphasising the importance in learners creating their own pockets of knowledge by changing, forming and reorganising their existing (previous) knowledge is not enough when discussing cognitive development, especially in our multicultural and socio-economically diverse context (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky makes the case that learners' learning environments are heavily affected by culture; it is imperative for educators to be aware of this. Additionally, Vygotsky makes the claim that if we wish to promote a child's cognitive ability, we need to explore the child's external social environment/ culture (that includes the language) which the child brings to the classroom. Therefore,

Vygotsky's theory requires teachers to not only acknowledge that children are more than empty slates but also recognise that learners come to school with formed schemata acquired from their experiences in their social settings. He proposes that teachers recognise that those schemata are culturally situated and have a direct link to each student's ability to process knowledge. Thus, teachers must be aware that the child's social and cultural context in conjunction with the child's developmental stage are integral in their cognitive development (Vygotsky, 1978).This notion is imperative as students may show low academic proficiency as a result of their cultural background and prior knowledge, not necessarily a cognitive impairment.

This school of thought then creates the idea that no classroom and no learner will completely operate on the same level as every classroom has its own learners with their own cultures and lived experiences. Moreover, language as a crucial part of both learners' cognitive processes and their social environment therefore greatly contributes to their identity. Thus, it is important to acknowledge students' home or proficient languages in the classroom as it serves as a link between thought processes and their lived experiences. The socio-cultural theory of Vygotsky recognises the importance of language in the meaning-making process which is why it is a crucial theory, particularly in language learning and text-based pedagogy. The following section will discuss language as a tool of mediation to reach higher levels of cognitive development.

2.2.3 Mediation

Students understand the world around them through various tools that 'mediate' between the student and the world (Nomlomo, 2007). Thus, *mediation* may be described as a means of helping students make sense of what they need to learn by using certain tools. According to Vygotsky, humans master themselves externally by means of symbolic and cultural systems. These systems are related to mediation which Arshad and Chen (2009) define as an exchange and interchange as opposed to unidirectional transmission of socio-cultural forms and knowledge by the society and its members via symbols and signs like language. Many studies suggest that students' social and cultural settings are closely aligned to language and learning objectives (Arshad & Chen, 2009; Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner, 2015). Arshad and Chen (2009) suggest a form of mediation that links the individual's internal and social external contexts reached via semiotic mechanisms including psychological tools like language. Thus, it is quite adequate to refer to language as a mediation tool. However, it is important to note that certain

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tools or signs cannot solely be responsible for thought development, but these tools are embedded in the meaning encoded in them (Daniels, 1996).

According to Lantolf, Thorne and Poehner (2015), a crucial aspect of mediation is known as *regulation*. The former suggests that "when children learn language, words not only function to isolate specific objects and actions, but they also serve to reshape biological perception into cultural perception and concepts" (2015: 5). There is a developmentally sequenced shift in the locus of control of human activity as object-, other- and self-regulation. Object-regulation details occasions when artifacts in the environment allow for reasoning and activity, such as the use of a dictionary to look up unknown words while reading, whilst other-regulation details mediation by other people and can include direct or indirect feedback on language use/grammar, corrective comments on writing assignments, or assistance from a teacher. Then, self-regulation refers to people who have internalised external types of mediation for the accomplishment of an activity. In this event, learners would be less reliant on external mediation (Lantolf et al., 2015). Therefore, language teachers need to make use of both object (technology, books) and other forms (peers, parents, teachers) of regulation to assist students who are not proficient in the target language in becoming more self-regulated, which ultimately leads to language proficiency. However, it is important to note that self-regulation is not a static state and even proficient users of the language (when under pressure or anxious) could need to 're-access' former developmental stages when in challenging situations. Thus, it is imperative to be cognisant of the fact the language learning and proficiency is an ever-changing and continuous journey (Lantolf et al., 2015).

It is surmised that the type of symbol – in our case, language – does not necessarily matter as long as one recollects meaning from it (Daniel, 1996). Additionally, and especially in the event of language, students are not required to reinvent the artifacts that have taken ages to advance to appropriate such artifacts into their structures of activity. The former is crucial as it implies that students only come to an understanding that is satisfactory for exhausting the culturally expanded artifact in the different life situations they encounter (Arshad & Chen, 2009; Daniel, 1996). This idea suggests that students can learn to read and write even when they have not completely become proficient in the language, they merely need a basic understanding of it. This notion might be more difficult when dealing with students learning a second language as we need to be cognisant of the student's existing language too. Therefore, teachers must use students' existing knowledge as a tool of mediation to allow students to use their pockets of

knowledge to achieve the cognitive and linguistic demands of the classroom (Arshad & Chen, 2009; Daniel, 1996).

Moreover, Vygotsky also suggested that,

> *Any function in the child's cultural development appears twice, or on two planes. First it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. First it appears between people as an **interpsychological** category, and then within the child as an **intrapsychological** category. This is equally true with regard to voluntary attention, logical memory, the formation of concepts, and the development of volition.* (Vygotsky, 1981,163)

The former illustrates the importance of the social situation in the classroom because it clearly illustrates how higher cognitive functions are first social before internalised and made accessible as cognitive resource (Lantolf et al., 2015). Therefore, it is imperative that students are granted the opportunity to collaborate during class activities in which they solve problems together. This suggests that the teacher is not the only one who can mediate learning in the classroom, but students are also able to help each other explore information and gain knowledge, allowing them to become mediators too (Nomlomo, 2007). This again stresses the importance of learner-centred classrooms and the move away from teacher-centred practices. It is essential that students learn from one another in co-operative ways as the various students in the class may possess valuable pockets of knowledge that even the teacher may not possess.

Additionally, it is vital to note that mediation by the teacher or students only refers to one mediation tool. In conjunction with the former, another tool is students' private speech (whispering to themselves) (Nomlomo, 2007). Private speech is perceived as the merging or meeting point of language and thought. This tool is important as students are not solely reliant on others to create meaning but they process information for themselves and they too are mediators for their own learning (Nomlomo, 2007; Lantolf et al., 2015). Private speech, happening when students speak aloud, aids students in clarifying certain concepts and problem-solving. In addition, students may practice private speech as they explore language features such as phonology grammar in the target language by copying peer or teacher utterances (Nomlomo, 2007).

The above notion is connected to Vygotsky's notion of appropriation. This is highly emphasised by the modelling perspective that views social functioning as allowing a model which will be adopted and internalised in the student's own cognitive span (Arshad & Chen, 2009). The modelling perspective tends to describe how learners learn reading and writing by continuously observing and demonstrating social reading and writing practices as experienced

by people in their social communities (Arshad & Chen, 2009). Thus, it is important for teachers to model good language practice to their students, especially in second language contexts. This could occur by the teacher modelling how various structures in various genres work, as well as how meaning is constructed through this process (Arshad & Chen, 2009). Explicit teaching and modelling are essential, as not all students will have the cultural background required to master academic tasks, as this may not have been modelled previously in their social circles (outside of the school system). Vygotsky emphasises the importance of mediation from a more knowledgeable person and, in our L2 context, where the teacher and students serve as more knowledgeable, it is important that students' peers and teachers model good practice, so that students do not learn incorrect language practices.

Arshad and Chen (2009) suggest that texts may be viewed as another mediation tool. They have noted the work of Biven which illustrates how students made use of peers' ideas and suggestions during conversation to restructure their own explanations in an investigation of the properties of water. Thus, the speech of their peers became thinking strategies they could use to reflect and (re)shape their own thinking (Arshad & Chen, 2009). This displays just how important it is for the educator or mediator when scaffolding learning to not only model good practice but also to state why and verbally account the reasons for their actions and choices (Arshad & Chen, 2009). For appropriation to occur through text mediation, it is vital that the students and teacher actively involve themselves in communicative purposes like book discussions so that students may internalise knowledge and good language practice.

The above notion of mediation is essential as it involves the idea of scaffolding and even more importantly, the fact that students may be mediators of learning, suggesting that they are then scaffolding the learning of their peers as the teacher does as well. This notion of scaffolding is essential in Vygotsky's theory and therefore the following section will discuss it in more detail.

Chen (2018) describes *scaffolding* as the assistance one may receive from a more informed person in one's zone of proximal development (ZPD) to help one achieve one's required goals. Through the scaffolding process, students are given the opportunity to access and attain new skills and/or information (Wessels, 2014; Chen, 2018). This concept deals with help being provided and gradually withdrawn until students are able to control the task or skill on their own (Wessels, 2014). This leaves teachers with the task of 'calibrating' or creating language activities in the student's zone of proximal development which will also enable students to move their ZPD along. As they embark on these activities, it is important that teachers provide

students with continuous feedback as this all forms part of the mediation process (Wessels, 2014; Lantolf et al., 2015).

This suggests that students' learning must be a step ahead of students' development or their existing schemes (Wessels, 2014). Merely providing students with an activity or information will not ensure that students' ZPD is accessed. Therefore, baseline activities and exercises that tap into students' schemes are important, as this guides teachers in establishing what the students know in order to provide mediation to move into the ZPD (Wessels, 2014). Therefore, talking (dialogue) is depicted as a vital factor in the learning processes as students may possess fragmented concepts and information that would need to be scaffolded in the ZPD. We may surmise that through this type of dialogue and interaction with a more knowledgeable person, a student will become a more critical and logical thinker (Wessels, 2014). The Figure below represents a three-layered model of the ZPD.
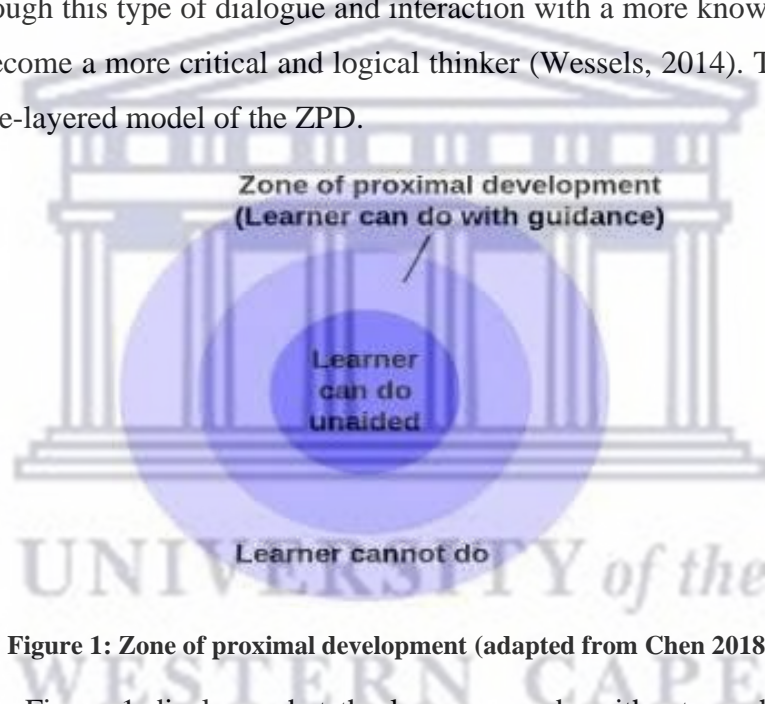
Figure 1: Zone of proximal development (adapted from Chen 2018)

The first level in Figure 1 displays what the learner can do without any help from a more knowledgeable person. This may be described as the student's existing scheme (knowledge gained already), for example, a student's cultural knowledge as well as existing languages. It is imperative that teachers use the first layer as it serves as a resource to help students develop higher cognitive thinking. According to Piaget (1952), students need to use their existing schemes to make sense of new knowledge. This level is important because if teachers tap into it and use it as a resource, students may grow more confident as they realise what they already know if validated. It will also allow them to work independently as they would not require any assistance at this stage.

The next level depicted in Figure 1 is the ZPD which illustrates how students develop cognitively through the support (scaffolding) received from a more knowledgeable entity or

person to access their ZPD. It is important to note that this support does not mean the more knowledgeable person (teacher, parents, peers) should deposit loads of information into the student or aid them solely with memorisation of facts. It suggests, rather, that this more knowledgeable individual should mediate between what the students know and their ZPD so that students may create their own meaning from what is learnt (Wessels, 2014).

The last level of Figure 1 displays what students are able to do, which is the ultimate goal in this process: to take students from what they know and use that to scaffold them to understand new knowledge so they are able to construct it into their independent knowledge. As the students continue receiving verbal instruction from their teachers, peers, and other sources more knowledgeable, they will inevitably be able to use their developed skills independently. It would also be useful for teachers to use students' existing knowledge like their existing language(s) as a resource to help students master the target language, and for students to use it independently.

It is important to note that both constructivist and socio-constructivist theories contend that classrooms should be spaces wherein students can take ownership of their own learning. These classrooms need to be learner centred, with teachers merely assisting students by facilitating and mediating the learning process. This also displays how important language is in the space of learning and thought as it advocates that one's cognitive structures may be widely developed through meaningful interactions and conversation in co-operative groups.

Additionally, it displays how children's social surroundings influence their schemes and ability to learn new knowledge, which is why it is essential that teachers use students' schemes and existing language to promote cognitive and linguistic development. The former is imperative as it serves as the basis for many moder language teaching approaches including the text-based approach.

2.3 Literature Review of Language Teaching

As noted by Vygotsky (1978), language is regarded as a tool to mediate our thought and cognitive processes. Therefore, the method and approach used to teach and develop this important tool is extremely important. When analysing various curricula, approaches and methods, it is essential that selection be based on current context, aims and needs of the society involved. Additionally, the approach used to teach language is also largely influenced by the curriculum and its view about what a language is and how it is learned (Richards & Rodgers, 1999). Therefore, it is imperative for educators to be aware of the various methods and their

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purposes to adequately comprehend and even critique why certain approaches have been used or withheld in our current syllabus considering our objectives. The approach teachers use to teach language has the potential to promote or hinder language learning (Chinwe & Loyce, 2014). This section is crucial to the study as it encourages reflection on the methods and approaches promoted in the curriculum and by the WCED.

Language education and pedagogy have become an extremely controversial global phenomenon, especially in present times with the hegemonic rise of English. According to Chomsky, this controversy may be traced to the distinction between two major approaches within language studies. The one approach, called the *internalized (I-) language approach*, is built on the premise that language is an internal element of the human brain and therefore great emphasis is placed on what people know about language and where this knowledge stems from. In contrast, the *externalized (E-) language approach* does not place emphasis on language as an internal commodity only but recognises that language may be seen as a social phenomenon too. Here analysis extends beyond simply establishing how the brain is programmed to the study of social dynamics of language within a context. These contrasting views, theories and approaches have massive consequences for language policy and classroom practices. Therefore, the literature review will discuss traditional approaches, behaviourist approaches, cognitive approaches, the communicative approach, socio-cultural approaches and genre theory – in relation to text-based pedagogy with an extended reference to systemic functional linguistics. The aim of the discussion is to gain a greater understanding of these approaches to establish whether they are applied by subject advisors and referenced in the CAPS document.

2.3.1 Traditional Approaches

2.3.1.1 Grammar Translation

As a result of the above-mentioned controversy regarding language learning, several paradigm shifts occurred within the language literacy field as research on the phenomena progressed. Since the 19th and 20th centuries, formal discourses emphasising grammatical drills and competence greatly contributed to language education policy and education (Akinyeye, 2012; Van Heerden, 2008; Chinwe & Loyce, 2014). The idea that language rules should be taught for learners to become competent in a language became a significant school of thought (Richards, 2005; Van Heerden, 2008). In such a context, the focus is on the conscious acquisition of rules where teachers predominantly focused on teaching prescriptively what were supposedly language facts. This approach emulated Chomsky's notion of an internalised language

approach which primarily occurs through cognitive processes based on the assumption that all students learn the same (Kerfoot & Van Heerden, 2015; González, Rojas, Romero, Quiñonez & Soto, 2017). The emphasis is on mental explanations by rational study of language in phrases, sentences, and memorisation of the parts of speech (Chinwe & Loyce, 2014). This notion of language teaching is referred to as the grammar-translation method (GTM).

The grammar translation method, one of the oldest language teaching methods, was first developed before the 1900s. Its main focus was to provide learners with some type of working knowledge of foreign languages and its literature (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Richards & Rogers, 1999; Chinwe & Loyce, 2014; González et al., 2017; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019). As Latin lost its status in the wider social and political spheres, the same method was applied to teach the preceding dominant languages (Richard & Rogers, 1999; Chinwe & Loyce, 2014 Kuznetsova, 2015; González et al., 2017). The assumption behind this method is that printed language is more prestigious than spoken language; therefore greater emphasis is placed on written texts. Specialists at the time believed that language operated as a system and they viewed grammar as the most systematic language level; therefore, when teaching, emphasis was on in-depth grammatical structure language learning, which meant that very little to no time was spent on the contextualisation of texts (Richards & Rodgers, 1999; Kuznetsova, 2015; González et al., 2017; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019). Most of the teaching focused on teaching at the sentence level and would not evolve to the larger text, within its specific social context. The focus on sentences came as an amendment of earlier approaches which found teaching at text level too difficult for secondary students. The assumption within this theoretical camp was that as grammar revealed the rationality of thinking, grammar drills taught one how to think (Richards & Rodgers, 1999; Xia, 2014; Kuznetsova, 2015; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019).

Moreover, very little emphasis is placed on speaking and listening to the language and even though emphasis was placed on writing, this was not with the intention of creating authentic written texts (Xia, 2014; Kuznetsova, 2015; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019). Consequently, students did not practice pronunciation and intonation. The main areas of focus were some reading competence: to decipher a text in the target language and answer questions (commonly in written form) about the text. Other activities extending beyond the translation of texts were memorising grammar rules and native-language counterparts of the target language vocabulary (Chinwe & Loyce, 2014; Xia, 2014; Kuznetsova, 2015; González et al., 2017; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019). Here the teacher is perceived as the main resource in the learning process because teachers possess all the knowledge that learners are to be filled with. Therefore, this method is

teacher centred as the teacher is in control of all the activities that are undertaken for intellectual inquiry as opposed to meaningful communication (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Kuznetsova, 2015; González et al., 2017).

Furthermore, the rules of grammar are explained in isolation, indicating that learning about the forms of language is more significant than knowing how to use the language efficiently (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Kuznetsova, 2015; González et al., 2017). As a result, children were able to thoroughly grasp the grammatical features of a respective language, but unable to attain basic communication skills (Xia, 2014; Kuznetsova, 2015). There is also emphasis on accuracy where students are required to achieve extraordinary standards in translation, essential for passing the increasing number of formal written examinations at the time. Hence, grammar in this camp is taught deductively where the teacher starts the lesson by teaching some grammatical rule and the students follow with exercises. A student's native language plays a crucial role in learning as it is often used as the medium of instruction, used to explain new content and allowing for contrasts between the target language and the native language of the student. But despite all the input and grammatical competence, learners were unable to express themselves and adequately reflect their thoughts in the target language with this approach (Xia, 2014; Kuznetsova, 2015).

Despite all the critique this method has received, it is argued that there might be some value in knowing the rules of a language. Some even argue that explicitly teaching grammar to second language or foreign speakers of a language is essential to their language development. This method also saw native language as a resource or tool to teach the second language through translation. However, it is valid to criticise the one-size-fits-all approach of the method as well as the oppressive nature of the method, which included teacher-centred styles that paid no attention to context and the use of the language. The former might be rationalised when looking at the purpose of the method which was to teach language to the wealthy; therefore, using a method such as this would directly or indirectly exclude certain groups. But this method does not lead to change in terms of student emancipation, power and holistic language proficiency.

2.3.1.2 Direct Method

The GTM had notable shortcomings as students were not able to communicate successfully using this method. Students might have been able to show great knowledge of the grammatical features of the target language, but this on its own was an inadequate tool which failed to improve student communication skills. This method was replaced with the direct method (DM) the aim of which was mastering oral communication (Richards & Rodgers, 1999; Kuznetsova,

2015; González et al., 2017; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019). The DM was introduced at a time when trade required oral proficiency in language (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Richard & Rodger, 1999; Kuznetsova, 2015; Yambi, 2018). Within this method, comprehension and oral competency precede reading and writing which would only be incorporated later. Therefore, a classroom following this method would be filled with posters, charts and books which the teacher would use while teaching to convey certain meanings of words and sentences. The teacher may also make use of miming and gestures to bolster student understanding of meaning (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Rodger & Roberts, 1999; Kuznetsova, 2015). This method attempts to follow that of a naturalistic approach where it is believed that a second language may be learned the same way as a first language is acquired: 1) which happens without any rigorous explanations of grammar and 2) by using the target language. Thus, grammar is taught inductively (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Richard & Rodger, 1999; Kuznetsova, 2015; Yambi, 2018).

As a result of this DM method, students could not use translations to help them with meaning; their native languages were prohibited in the language classroom. Thus, vocabulary was introduced in the relevant context and was taught through demonstrations and pictures with emphasis on students' pronunciation and use. Learning under this approach would be based on real situations such as farming with little concern for language rules or grammar (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Richard & Rodger, 1999; Kuznetsova, 2015; Yambi, 2018). This method, like the grammar-translation method, was teacher-centred, as the teacher was the main learning resource in the classroom. Students were merely jars waiting to be filled with the teachers' perfect language and great gestures. Moreover, this method was heavily reliant on the teacher's proficiency in the target language as opposed to textbooks or other resources (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Richard & Rodger, 1999; Kuznetsova, 2015; Yambi, 2018). Thus, this method became problematic in certain cases where teachers were not completely proficient in the target language. Additionally, the amount of time required to teach in this way seemed impractical. Finally, there were times when learning became extremely complicated because teachers refused the use of translations (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Richard & Rodger, 1999; Kuznetsova, 2015; Yambi, 2018).

2.3.2 Behaviourist Approaches

2.3.2.1 Audio-Lingual Method

After great disappointment, the direct method left the language learning and teaching community with many apparently reverting to the previous methods of grammar drills. However, as the traditional methods came to a rise between 1900-1970, one prime method of that era, the audio-lingual method (ALM), seemed to replace the grammar-translation method (Yambi, 2018). Like the direct method, this method valued spoken language which meant mastering the structural forms of the language like word and sentence order was essential (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Yambi, 2018). Again, as in the direct method, the goal of this approach was communication, but this was not met because the teacher in this approach provides all the input and learner output is merely a superficial duplication of the teacher's input (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998). Under this method, learners are 'passive imitators' of whatever the teacher does and suggests, which leaves no room for learners to be accountable for their own learning (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998). Even though the goals set out by the approach seemed valuable, learners could not partake in meaningful communication outside of the classroom through an audiolingual approach (Kuznetsova, 2015).

The audiolingual method is a behaviourist approach to language learning and teaching as it is centred around students developing 'good language habits' by practicing conversation excessively in the target language (Wessels & van den Berg, 1998; Kuznetsova, 2015; Yambi, 2018). This would suggest that students enter the target-language classroom with a cognitively blank slate. They then obtain linguistic stimuli to which they respond. This is considered as creating good habits: if students gave the correct response they would benefit from some type of reward and would inevitably repeat that response. However, if they give an incorrect response, they would not benefit from a reward and that would ensure that they refrain from that type of response in future (Kuznetsova, 2015; Yambi, 2018).

Behaviourists perceived language as a set of abstract linguistic units that would consist of the entire language system (Yambi, 2018). This way of language teaching depended heavily on rote learning: language was perceived as a set of good language habits, so if learners are taught to memorise and repeat these patterns within the language, they would be able to apply them to various other aspects of the language too, until they are able to do so naturally (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Grammar teaching in this camp is not encouraged as students will learn the language features inductively. Therefore, these classrooms might have five to 10-minute grammar drills mixed with exercises such as the reading and memorisation of dialogue

(Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Like the direct method, this method too emphasises rote learning and memorisation; even though the target language vocabulary might be presented and learned in context, students are not allowed to use the language in the classroom. Thus, teachers make extreme use of visual aids and gestures (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). This approach also requires the teacher to monitor learning from student errors, with errors used as an indication of potential learning (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018).

Even though this approach did not completely disregard a student's native language, seeing it as a resource to aid the teaching of the target language, it still received some critique. Many scholars believed that this approach was too rigid and teacher-centred which hampered the learning process (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Additionally, it was also noted that people, especially students, are more than just responsive and controlled beings; people are characterised as active beings that encompass aspects of spiritual, emotional, intellectual and physical slates which together influence one's behaviour and language learning. This change in thinking made way for various cognitive approaches to language learning and teaching (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018).

2.3.2.2 Total Physical Response

The total physical response approach echoes some of the aspects of the direct method of the mid-19th century, although some describe it as a constructivist perspective. The approach is regarded as behaviourist because of its focus on imitation, rehearsal, practice, reinforcement and habit training (Yambi, 2018). James Asher, a key pioneer for this approach, believes that second language learning (learning of the target language) should be viewed similarly to that of students' native language acquisition. He suggests that children learning their native language listen more than they speak and begin to react physically to speech even though they are not proficient in speech yet; evidently, then, second-language students could learn a target language in the same fashion (Yambi, 2018; Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019). This notion is based on comprehension: if the students respond to a command, this shows student understanding. In addition, the notion also held that as second language environments may be too stressful for learners, a core aspect of the approach was for the teacher to create an atmosphere in which learners do not have to do anything other than respond to the commands such as "stand up!" (Yambi, 2018; Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019). Students will first respond to the various imperatives and once they show

adequate comprehension, they may begin to produce verbal responses and give commands themselves (Richards & Rodgers, 2003).

This approach mirrors a grammar-based view of language in that most of the grammatical structures of the target language may be learnt through the skilful use of imperatives. According to Asher, the verb is the key linguistic motif in the imperative which language learning and use is centred around. Moreover, the teacher communicates solely in the target language and little to no communication occurs in students' native languages (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019). In theory, it may seem that the process guides students to fluency in the target language (Yambi, 2018). However, as it was recommended that this approach be used in conjunction with other approaches, the successes teachers achieve may not be entirely dependent on the theories within the approach but could be due to a variety of other factors too (Richards & Rodgers, 2003).

2.3.3 Cognitive Approaches

As the demand for more competent language speakers grew, it soon became obvious that overemphasising language features (as linguists in the traditional and behaviourist camps did) would not lead to learner competency; therefore teachers and researchers turned to a more process-oriented methodology (Auerbach, 1999, Van Heerden, 2008, Van der Walt & Evans, 2019).

2.3.3.1 Process Approach

A *process approach* to writing pedagogy is learner-centred, promoting expressive self-discovery during the writing process. Learners are encouraged to go through a process of drafting, editing and redrafting (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014; Allen, 2015; Van Heerden, 2008). By focusing on the writing process, students learn to comprehend themselves and their environments better whilst they explore how to work by means of writing (Van Heerden, 2008; Onozava, 2010). This approach contradicts traditional behaviourist approaches as the teacher's role is less dogmatic, with learners more able to express themselves optimally. This paradigm shift was welcomed by many teachers and researchers interested in second language learning, which then meant many second language learners followed the steps of the process approach (Hyland, 2003; Mohlabi-Tlaka, 2016). A critique of this approach is that additional language learners of English with limited exposure to texts and grammar might not necessarily go through similar composing techniques as native speakers, which resulted in more socio-cultural

approaches to language teaching and learning (Harper & De Jong, 2004; Hyland, 2003; Van Heerden 2008; Onozava, 2010).

2.3.3.2 Community Language Learning

Community language learning (CLL) progressed from learning principles known as counselling learning (Van der Walt, 2019; Yambi, 2018). This was a shift from the traditional student-teacher relationship to that of counsellor and client. This is central as the theory recognises that students operate on both a cognitive and emotional level. Thus, as teachers using this approach recognise that certain learning environments may cause certain threats to students, the teacher's goal is to assist learners to feel more secure and confident (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). As a result, students' personal feelings and their response to language learning are extremely important as these may serve as a hinderance to language if not addressed. Students in this approach have more autonomy than in traditional approaches as they can select the content that will be taught (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). The teacher would translate and moderately facilitate all learning activities, thereby allowing students to draw on their cultural knowledge and schemes to make sense of the lesson. This approach is built on the idea that all living beings are inspired to live up to their potential; however, this potential may be hindered by certain environmental and personal problems (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018).

A lesson using this approach would include the teacher and students seated in a circle, with a recording device in the centre of the circle (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). A student will then whisper a phrase (what they would want to say) to the teacher in their mother tongue. The teacher then provides a translation of the whispered phrase and the student will repeat that (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). The learner is then assisted to repeat the phrase multiple times until the learner is confident enough to say it aloud to the group. The lesson is very flexible as the teacher will explain certain vocabulary and grammar as they surface (Van der Walt &Evans , 2019; Yambi, 2018). This approach is good for teaching oral proficiency even though it is often used to develop writing and reading skills too (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). This approach is often labelled the most humanistic approach and it has been successful in fulfilling the immediate communication needs of students. However, the approach was challenged for not developing students' skills for use outside the classroom (Van der Walt &Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018).

2.3.3.3 Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia, a method developed from philosophies found in the science of *suggestology* (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018), was founded by Georgi Lozanov who suggests that in ideal situations one's mind might be extremely receptive and sensitive and therefore it is capable of enhanced learning (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Emphasis is on the emotional, spiritual and psychological aspects which would affect students in a non-conscious way, i.e., the psychological barriers to learning students may have (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). This suggests that when the mind and body are in a relaxed state, the brain retains information with little to no effort (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). A classroom that adheres to this method would ideally have very low student numbers (Anything between 12-15 students).

The classroom is also known to place learners in a state of tranquillity, typically achieved by passive classroom décor, low lighting, soft background music and relaxation techniques that diminish learner anxiety (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). A teacher in a suggestopedic classroom plays some music and then reads a piece of a text in the students' target language, attempting to blend in with the music while keeping a slow, steady, rhythmic pace (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Students are required to follow along on their own texts and translation. Thereafter they are required to submit their translations to the teacher, close their eyes while they are listening to a replay of the music and their performance (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Because learners are in this heightened state of cognitive consciousness, they are expected to learn creatively, so rote learning is not encouraged. The aim of the method is to develop contextually appropriate conversations in the target language. Even though students might be provided with the opportunity to read and write, the core skills practiced through this method are listening and speaking (Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Moreover, even though the teacher plays a role in the learning, students are afforded greater opportunity to be a part of their own learning through role-playing, amongst other activities.

2.3.3.4 Silent Way

This cognitive approach seems different from traditional approaches as it requires the teachers to take a more silent role and allows student voice to dominate the classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). The key purpose of the *silent way* method is to make learning automatic by motivating students to realise, rather than remember or memorise, rules of the target language. The teacher should only speak, when necessary,

generally to get learners started or when students face certain problems. Thus, the teacher uses gestures, mimes, wall charts, and wooden rods of different sizes and colours to entice students to talk in the classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). This approach seeks to build students' oral competence in the target language without much modelling from the teacher. The method seeks to promote student autonomy and independence, encouraging students to acknowledge that they can depend on their available resources and use the knowledge of their native language to develop new abilities in the target language classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018).

Additionally, this method supports elements of cooperative learning as the teacher offers little to no correction, enticing students to build good relationships with their groups to receive and give feedback (Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Moreover, problem-solving and discovery learning are at the forefront of this method and it in turn also believes that learning with and through the exploration of objects makes for a richer learning experience classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Even though this model seemed to move away from traditional approaches in the autonomy it affords students, some still critique it for having traditional traces in the way students are required to accurately repeat sentences that were initially modelled by the teacher (Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019; Yambi, 2018). Also, this method seems to thrive in contexts where class sizes are small, and teachers are well trained in the approach. Therefore, this approach may not be the best for a South African context as many of our schools do not accommodate such environments.

2.3.4 Communicative Language Teaching

This method is based on the premise that the target language may be acquired the same way we acquire a native language. Therefore, communication in the target language is promoted and encouraged (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). This approach, viewed by some as entailing characteristics of various methods, emerged in the 1990s as a paradigm shift away from traditional approaches that place plenty of emphasis on grammar drills. Communicative language teaching (CLT) however "does not teach about language; rather, it teaches language" (Yambi, 2018:15). As this method focuses on the use of language in real situations and contexts, using language for social interaction is important. The aim here is to build students' communicative competence (which involves all four skills), for students to use their

competencies in authentic settings. This approach is a learner-centred approach and the teacher serves as the facilitator. Therefore, group work (cooperative learning) is encouraged in this approach and learners are encouraged to learn from one another. This approach allows for errors as errors are viewed as an opportunity for learning to occur.

This approach, however, does not promote the teaching of grammar. Teachers evade upsetting their students by requiring them to classify parts of speech; instead, the teacher guides them to second-language proficiency by commissioning 'the three Ps': presentation, practice and production (Yambi, 2018). Teachers present the target language through ordinary circumstances; they then give the students sufficient time to practice the language through organised contextual dialogues; and, finally, they allow students to produce the language on their own (Yambi, 2018).

This approach is widely popular around the world; however, many scholars still critique the method for not providing students who have limited access to the target language with sufficient exposure as the hours allocated by the school are not always sufficient (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). Additionally, some also argue that this approach's lack of grammar teaching may put some students at a disadvantage who have limited access to the language, as grammar taught functionally may provide the students with a wider range of linguistic tools to use in a real context (Yambi, 2018). The table below shows an overview of CLT.

Table 1: Features of Communicative Language Teaching in HL and FAL

	CLT features	HL	FAL
1	There is an emphasis on learning to *communicate* in the target language. Very little use is made of translation. (TL)		
2	All aspects of *communicative competence* are developed (grammatical, lexical & phonological; appropriacy in social and contextual aspects of language; syntax & paragraphing (discursive); strategic competence – learners encouraged to take risks and communicate as best they can) (CC)		
3	It is recognised that there are different *varieties* of language.		
4	*Authentic* (real) texts are used.		
5	Learners are encouraged to *interact* – there is often pair and group work.		
6	Learners are encouraged to *negotiate meaning* – for example by setting up information-gap activities		
7	Skills are practised in an *integrated* way (listening and speaking do not have to precede reading and writing).		
8	Classroom language learning is linked to language activities outside the classroom.		
9	Learners are encouraged to discover things for themselves and think about how they learn.		

2.3.5 Socio-Cultural Approaches

Supporters of socio-cultural approaches to language literacy place great emphasis on the culturally specific literacy practices that students possess and how these can be used as a resource in the classroom (Kerfoot & Van Heerden, 2015). These approaches challenge older autonomous models of literacy, rejecting the notion that language is a universal commodity that predominantly relies on our cognitive ability (Christie, 2005; Van Heerden, 2008). Pedagogists within this camp are aware of the strong link between literacy and social experience and recognise how literacy varies from context to context (Christie & Unworth, 2000; Van Heerden, 2008). Therefore, different students would come to school displaying different levels of cognitive ability, and this cognitive diversity suggests that there would be a difference within learners' verbal and writing capabilities (Van Heerden, 2008). Thus, it is essential for teachers to recognise students' cultural knowledge and use it as a resource when teaching new information (Van Heerden, 2008; Akinyeye, 2012). But a concern here is that teachers and learners could remain within the learners' culturally specific literacy practices without providing epistemic access to more powerful literacies required in certain specialised contexts (Kerfoot & Simon-Vandenbergen, 2015).

Moreover, genre-based linguists (see below) assert that process- and socio-cultural approaches share similar problematic aspects to language literacy as traditional approaches, as they too disadvantage learners with regard to access to more powerful literacies (Auerbach, 1999; Knapp & Watkins, 2005). Their concern stems from the notion that these approaches perceive our ability to produce language as either a completely individualistic process or as a solely social process (Auerbach, 1999; Knapp & Watkins, 2005). This is problematic since certain contexts and cultures are more dominant than others. Thus, learners cannot be expected to blissfully own their cultures, find their voices and tell stories. Process forms of writing and immersion are important instruments for language learning; however in a school context it might not provide enough support to second language speakers, particularly those not coming from the dominant culture (Auerbach, 1999; Van Heerden, 2008). Therefore, rigidly applying these approaches might result in the opposite of the approach intention where some learners are excluded from certain contexts of power (Auerbach, 1999; Kerfoot & Van Heerden, 2015). This is why merely affording learners the opportunity to use their cultural knowledge in certain contexts with or without a process approach is not sufficient to enable students to gain

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epistemic access to more powerful fields (Martin & Rose, 2005b; Christie, 2005; Kerfoot & Van Heerden, 2015).

Congruently, process approaches fail to acknowledge factors outside the individual that influence writing, whereas sociocultural approaches place too much emphasis on learners' social contexts at the expense of language forms (Auerbach, 1999; Hyland, 2003: Van Heerden, 2008). For this reason, it seems that an ideal approach (especially in the case of second language learners) is one that amalgamates culture, context and text as a means of allowing both L1 and L2 learners' admission to higher discourses of command (Kerfoot & Vandenbergen, 2015). Thus, there was a shift towards the development of genre theory and approaches.

2.3.6 Genre Theory

To understand *genre theory,* it is imperative to investigate genre as a concept, as many scholars' ideas of genre vary. Even though scholars in the field are divided about the crucial features of genre, the perception around it has grown outside of its traditional literary connotation, where it was merely viewed as the written text with various features (Van Heerden, 2008; Hyon 1996; Carstens, 2009). Additionally, various linguists agree that all texts are social events that are situated, goal orientated and repeated (Derewianka, 2003; Hyon, 1996; Van Heerden 2008), suggesting that texts have a precise purpose in the social world indicating that they are positioned within a certain social and cultural context (Van Heerden, 2008; Carstens, 2009). Many linguists in the field share this notion and see genre as texts that show interrelated features, indicating the manner by which writers use language to react to similar contexts (Hyland 2002; Hyon 1996; Van Heerden, 2008). However, others like Martin and Rose (2005a) highlight the organisation of genre and see it as an entity that is defined by its stages, goals and social processes.

Within the last couple of decades, numerous linguists have become interested in genre as an instrument for developing language pedagogy (Hyland, 2003; Johns, 2002; Carstens, 2009). This approach is especially celebrated in second language pedagogy for explaining regularities of purpose, form and situated social action, which leads to a scaffolded approach to language teaching that improves students' schematic consciousness of genres to enhance language proficiency, especially writing development (Hyland, 2003; Hyon 1996; Van Heerden, 2008). Therefore, it may be claimed that genre-based approaches to literacy recognise the connection between power, culture, context and text.

Despite the fact that many theorists in this framework share the notion that genre has evolved from its traditional label and serves as an excellent tool for language learning and education, there are many divisions in the theory because there are various schools of thought, moulding distinct features for what they believe make up the effectiveness of the theory (Hyland, 2003; Johns, 2002; Hyon, 1996; Van Heerden, 2008; Carstens, 2009). Some claim that the theory is rooted in language and text structure whereas others believe it is rooted in social theories of context (Hyland, 2003; Hyon, 1996; Van Heerden, 2008; Carstens, 2009). Many scholars have tried to label the different schools within the framework to determine which school would be more applicable in which context. This review will also focus on the three central traditions in genre theory – systemic functional linguistics (SFL), new rhetoric studies (NRS), and English for specific purposes (ESP) – as each school of thought has its own diverse methods, meanings and targeted constituencies (Hyon, 1996; Hyland 2002; Van Heerden, 2008; Carstens, 2009). It is vital to have a sound understanding of the theoretical foundations, methodical approaches and educational contexts of the different schools of thought to reflect on benefits in various pedagogical context.

2.3.6.1 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

English for specific purposes (ESP) focuses on teaching university students, especially second language speakers of English, the prescribed staged aspects of genres so that they can be acquainted with these features in the texts they encounter and then use them in the texts they write, giving them epistemic access to more powerful literacies and communities (Paltridge, 2004; Carsten, 2009). The core function is to perceive genre as a means for comprehending and coaching the varieties of texts essential for English second language speakers in academic and specialised contexts (Hyon, 1996; Van Heerden, 2008). In this view, genre theory could support non-native speakers of English to acquire the functions and required linguistic resources (Hyon, 1996; Carstens, 2009). Many scholars in this school focus on social function and form; however in their analysis of text and genre many scholars focus on the formal features of genre (Hyon, 1996; Van Heerden, 2008). And linguists within this school neglect to deliver pedagogical direction to literacy teachers in English Second Language school setting which raises questions about its efficiency in the classroom setting (Hyon, 1996: Carstens, 2009).

2.3.6.2 New Rhetoric Studies

In contract to the previous approach, the *new rhetoric studies* approach highlights the social purpose and action that genres accomplish within situations, while less emphasis is on the form

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of discourse (Johns, 2002; Hyon, 1996; Hyland, 2003). The emphasis on action in this school proposes that language is comprehended via speech which transpires in reaction to issues that have been said previously (Adams & Artemeva, 2002; Dias & Pare, 2000). Therefore, the main pedagogical aim is on the communicative function of language, a complex process of continuous modification and therefore not open to explicit instruction (Bazerman, 1988; Coe, 1994; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). Scholars within this field claim that learners become more competent in engaging with the language once they have enough comprehension of the context and function of various genres in which they partake (Hyon, 1996). This notion highlights ethnographic rather than linguistic techniques of examining genre, as emphasis is on detailed descriptions of contexts, neighbouring genres and the action texts that occur within these situations (Hyon, 1996). However, this school of thought is invested with assisting first language students in becoming better readers and writers of academic and workplace texts, which raises questions about its ability to offer second language students sufficient epistemic access across the curriculum (Van Heerden, 2008; Carstens, 2009; Hyon, 1996).

2.3.6.3 Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) approaches to genre-based teaching were founded by Michael Halliday around the same time as the two previous schools. However, the SFL approach to language teaching and learning is extremely distinctive in that its core focus emphasises the connection between language, its form and function and how it relates to social context (Hyon, 1996; Mickan, 2023). The theory gained popularity due to progressive process approaches in Australia failing to achieve the desired educational outcomes (Martin, 1991; Van Heerden, 2008). Other SFL researchers extended Halliday's theory by developing the theory from a strong focus on register to a stronger evaluation of genre, because studies at the time illustrated that learners were not confident or competent in writing a wide range of texts due to most educators' preference to teaching personal narratives and recounts (Van Heerden, 2008; Akinyeye, 2012; Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014; Mickan, 2023).

What strikes interest is the fact that the former statement still seems to be an issue of concern, as many teachers in the 21st century continue to teach texts according to their preference, which still allows for narratives and recounts as the primary texts to which learners are exposed (Van Heerden, 2015; Van Heerden 2008; Allen, 2015). Another aspect that distinguishes this school of thought is the fact that SFL research was conducted at primary and secondary schooling contexts with a focus on EAL learners, unlike the studies in the ESP and new rhetoric fields (Drury & Webb, 1991; Hyon 1996). This may be because the SFL theory provides an account

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of the ways in which the English language functions as social practice (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Hassan, 1985). The aim was to advance an instructional approach to speak to the inadequacies of the process approach, as EAL learners potentially required explicit instruction about the texts of power to adequately partake in mainstream textual and social processes, both inside and outside of school (Macken-Horarik, 1996; Hyland, 2003; Van Heerden, 2008; Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014). The claim here is that students who are at risk of failing or underperforming fare better within a more explicit curriculum, especially students for whom the medium of instruction in not a home language (or their language of competence). As a result, the core purpose of the SFL framework is to support primary and secondary school students to adequately interact and partake not only in the school curriculum but also in the broader community (Callaghan, 1991; Carstens, 2009). For this reason, genre theorists argue for explicit teaching through a cycle that "models and makes explicit the dominant forms of text types valued in schools" (Gibbons, 2002: 52).

Curriculum Cycle

SFL is embedded in a great deal of theory and it might be difficult (abstract) for teachers not trained within this discipline to conceptualise it. Additionally, whilst needing to be aware of the theory and benefit behind the approach, teachers also need to find practical ways to implement it. They must organise texts for planned and direct instruction for students to learn various text types for active involvement in both their class and outside community (Derewianka, 1990; Mickan, 2011; Nagao, 2020). Teachers would need to set up their programming in a way that incorporates a variety of texts for learners' involvement in target language practices which are directly linked to purposes for learning the language (Derewianka, 1990; Mickan, 2011&2023). Furthermore, teachers' lessons should be structured around the outcomes and objectives of learners and whether they are able to work effectively in the classroom so that they may display a firm comprehension of pertinent texts, are able to react to these texts, are able to analyse these texts, and lastly are able to compose their own versions of these texts (AlHamdany, 2012; Mickan, 2011). Exercises and activities based on texts should involve learners who are "observing texts in action, reacting to texts, analysing texts and composing texts" (Mickan, 2011: 21).

Considering this, many scholars have provided more practical (concrete) examples of how SFL works. Gibbons (2002; 2015) does this through the curriculum cycle (Figure 1) (see also Derewianka, 1990). The concept behind the curriculum cycle may be traced back to the work of Lev Vygotsky and his theory of the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) as well as a

notion of promoting a scaffolded approach to language teaching (Derewianka, 2003; Carstens, 2009), with the teacher as mediator in the first phase of the cycle, until learners' ability to control the specific genre has matured. As learners become more competent in the genre, the teacher steadily reduces her support whilst encouraging learner autonomy and self-regulation (Hyland, 2003; Derewianka, 2003). This cycle has been described as a tool which offers strategies for planning, teaching and assessment which enables fertile work amongst educator and learners. The cycle illustrates the notion that writing is a systemic process which hereby aids students to reason, plan and work at the level of the entire text (Hyon, 1996). Moreover, the cycle highlights the fact that language is not a linear, disintegrated process but operates in an integrated manner. Hence, the teaching of all language skills (not only writing) occurs interchangeably throughout the cycle (Mickan, 2011). The stages of the curriculum cycle presented in Figure 1 are negotiating field, deconstruction, joint construction and independent construction of text. The four stages of the curriculum cycle will be discussed below.
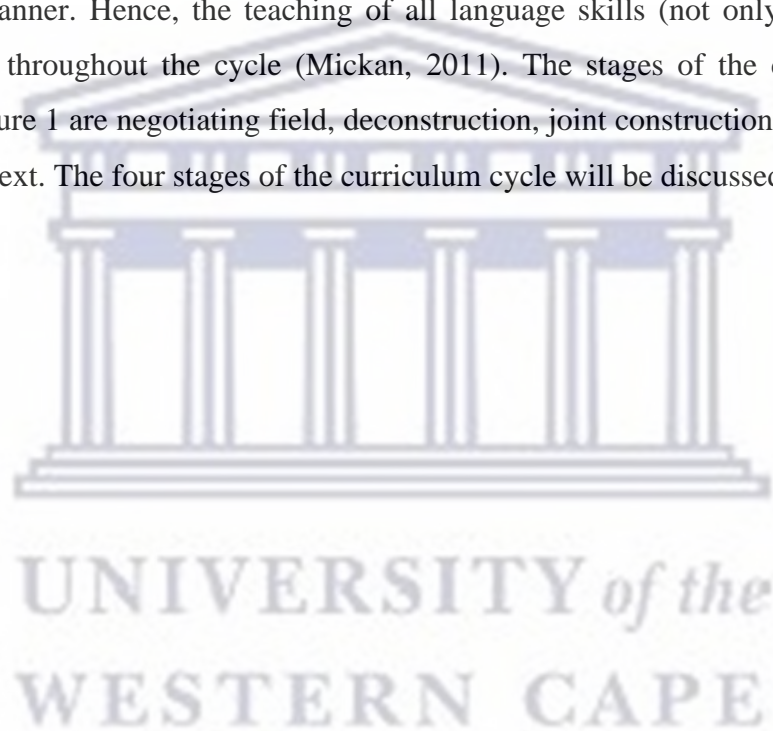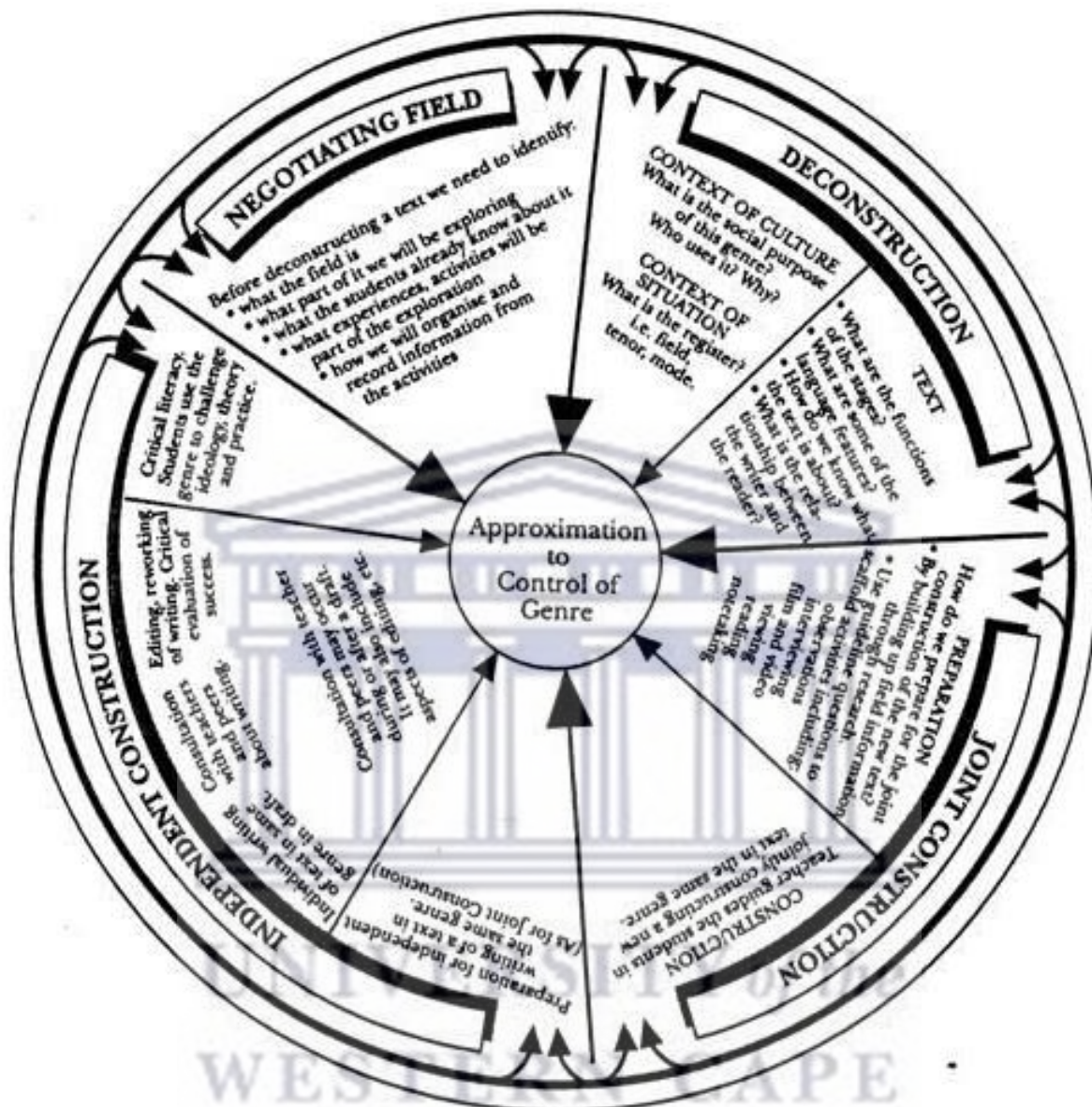
Figure 2: Teaching and learning cycle (Gibbons, 2002)

Negotiating field

In the first stage, teachers and learners determine what the field is. The focus is on the contents of the text and establishing learners' prior knowledge in order to build on their schemata

(Gebhard, 2010; Harman, 2008). This is essential as it will be the catalyst for exploratory talk and is necessary for learners to ultimately write about the text (Gibbons, 2002). The focus at this stage is to collect information about the themes at hand as well as the forms and structure of the text. For second-language speakers of English, a learner's first language may be perceived as a resource, as learners would have previously received the opportunity to make meaning with various text types through it (Cummins, 2000; Mickan, 2011; Harman, 2008). Thus, learners might be allowed to communicate in their mother tongue for greater self-expression, should the need arise to do so. This would mean that proficient peers or the educator will help learners translate from their mother tongue to the target language (Probyn, 2009; Childs, 2016; Nagao, 2020).

Additionally, when dealing with second-language speakers of English in the foundation and intermediate phases, it is important that the text type introduced to learners be one they are familiar with, for the teacher to best build on their prior knowledge. Thus, teachers can help learners find meaning in and around texts in the target language by fostering learners' familiarity with certain texts, their purposes and contexts of use (Mickan, 2011). Teachers could also make use of multimodal texts and multisensory (spoken, written, illustrated) presentations of texts as these enhance comprehension, memorisation and learning of the various text types (Mickan, 2011).

It is encouraged that learners are seated in groups to allow for a sufficient amount of shared experience amongst learners. Teachers will establish what learners know about the field and create discussion which will build the field (their knowledge about the text). It is important to first build the field from the learners' background knowledge, to cater to a successful shift from learners' Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) (relating to the current text) to learners' Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Harman, 2008; Cummins, 2000). Additionally, all four skills (listening, speaking, writing and reading) should occur organically at this level, even though in some spaces it may occur at the level of the learners' BICS (Harman, 2008).

Deconstruction

This second stage in the cycle looks specifically at the context of culture and situation whilst examining the social purpose of the genre as well as who uses it and why (Gebhard, 2010). Subsequently, it is where the teacher will zoom into register with specific focus on the field, tenor and mode. It is at this stage that learners will be introduced to the metalanguage of the

text such as tense and applicable parts of speech (Gebhard, 2010; Harman, 2008). It is important to note that some of these issues may be addressed in the previous stage but based on previous studies in EAL spaces, this would be the most accommodating stage to address this (Akinyeye, 2012; Van Heerden, 2008). Grammar can be taught in relation to its function within a specific context which will assist learners when they need to evaluate their peers or create their own work, whilst continuing to build their knowledge within the genre. Learners will be given the opportunity to see visibly how texts are organised for a specific purpose (Hyon, 1996; Gebhard, 2010; Harman, 2008). Teachers may also use this stage to illustrate how different text and genre features vary from other genres which the learners might have encountered already (Gebhard, 2010; Allen, 2015; Nagao, 2020 & 2022).

The teacher is instrumental as the prime text model for learners to witness the target language in action and in various forms (Mickan, 2011). Teachers therefore need to model good practice of the target language when managing the class and when teaching content. The teacher should also explain the functions of text as well as their purpose in relation to how it is socially practiced. The former would then allow learners the opportunity to actively observe and engage with texts to experience form and function in context (Derewianka, 1990; Mickan, 2011).

Another important task for the teacher would be to provide text-rich exercises through their sequence of lessons whilst continuously attempting to raise learner awareness about the wording used in various text types (Mickan, 2011). In the event where a text type is introduced for the first time, students will need multiple opportunities to be immersed in the text as well as explicit illustrations of how the text type operates as a social practice (Derewianka, 1990; Mickan, 2011).

Once this occurs, learners will also need to respond to texts. One way of ensuring that learners are able to adequately respond to texts would be to expose learners to various texts to slowly build their linguistic resources. This approach allows for language skills to be taught in an integrated manner and through various modes; for example the chosen text may have been selected to encourage conversation, ot it could also be read aloud by the teacher, while learners listen to and read the written text (Mickan, 2011). It is essential that teachers read and discuss various examples of the chosen text type with learners, so they may be conscious of the form and function of the text type by allowing the text to be the motivation for comments, dialogue and debates. Reading and discussing various examples of the text should occur whilst the teacher and learners inspect the wording of the text to later compose joint and individual texts (Derewianka, 1990; Mickan, 2011).

Joint construction

At the third stage of the cycle, the teacher and students jointly partake in the process of constructing a text (Hyon, 1996; Gebhard, 2010; Harman, 2008). The teacher might decide to brainstorm a topic with the learners whilst using the opportunity to make the register and genre visible (Gebhard, 2010). It is important that the text is constructed primarily by the learners, and that the teacher merely guides in the correct words to achieve a coherent text (Gibbons, 2009). At this stage, it is imperative for the teacher to probe and guide learners with questions, with specific reference to the previous stage as it will assist them in constructing a satisfactory text. It is essential that learners use their newly acquired linguistic resources to construct the text to actively experience *how* texts are constructed in a particular context for a particular purpose. This stage is also perfect to emphasise the tenor and interpersonal metafunction and issues of power relations between the writer and reader (Hyon, 1996; Gebhard, 2010; Harman, 2008; Nagao, 2020 & 2022). Additionally, this phase is extremely important as the teacher will use this as an opportunity to model exactly how they should use their acquired knowledge about a genre to construct their own. The teacher also illustrates the importance of the writing process during this stage.

Once learners have become acquainted with the text, the next step in the practical application of a text-based curriculum would be to have learners analyse the language of texts in greater detail. Through the examination and observation of various texts, learners will be able to identify form and function within particular contexts. It is imperative that the texts learners analyse are authentic texts as this will prepare them when they need to compose their own texts both inside and outside the school setting (Derewianka, 1990). Thus, the teacher needs to formulate lesson activities in such a way that they will guide students to recognise the unique features and socio-cultural context of various texts to build learners' linguistic resources. The scrutiny of wording in this regard will display the relationship of wording to function, so that learners may see directly that a recipe, for example, is written differently to a letter (Mickan, 2011).

All language programmes should be designed with the intention of having learners apply the linguistic resources within texts that they have acquired by expressing meaning within conversation as well as formulation throughout text. Therefore, it is precise to say that the analysis of text types prepares learners to make language choices for both joint and individual construction of texts. Therefore, teachers need to mediate learning by allowing learners to use

the lexico-grammar of texts so they may convey meaning and comprehension in the texts that they create themselves for meaningful communication (Mickan, 2011; Nagao, 2020).

Independent writing

This stage of the cycle gives learners the opportunity to construct their own text with less scaffolding and reduced assistance, as most of the resources learners require for independent writing would have been accessed in the previous stages (Hyon, 1996; Van Heerden 2008; Akinyeye; 2012; Nagao, 2020). It is assumed that learners have reached some form of self-regulation as they independently take charge of their own writing. The teacher and learners' peers may occasionally remind the learners about the linguistic features of the genre as well as emphasise the process of writing and give learners the opportunity to check each other's drafts (Gebhard, 2010; Hyon, 1996; Van Heerden, 2008). This stage is important as learners may apply what they have learned, whilst having the opportunity to play with ways of using language to create meaning and construct texts for participation in the school curriculum and beyond. It is imperative, then, that the written text of the learners be used for a real purpose (Gebhard, 2010).

The curriculum cycle has been widely used by researchers, with considerable success (Akinyeye, 2012; Van Heerden, 2008). One reason for its success is that the cycle is not a linear process but allows the educator to creatively move through the stages as language dynamically emerges within the classroom (Hyon, 1996). This implies that teachers are not merely facilitators of learners' language learning and development but are active mediators who continuously scaffold learners' learning (Hyland, 2002). This cycle has emerged as a key factor in the practical application of a text-based approach, as it provides teachers with the basic tools to adequately plan language lessons. The cycle also clearly illustrates how the communicative and process approaches may be embedded in text-based theory, suggesting that if teachers have a comprehensive understanding of this approach, they will be able to adequately understand and apply the other two as well.

The table below provides a brief overview of TBA.

Table 2: Features of text-based approach in HL and FAL

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Text-based approach features	HL	FAL
Texts are central to the lesson – variety of texts		
Learners explore how texts work by reading, viewing and analysing texts		
Skills are taught in an integrated way		
Multimodal texts are used		
Learners write texts for particular purposes		
Language is explored in texts, and texts are explored in relation to contexts		
Learners develop a vocabulary of words necessary to describe different aspects of grammar, vocabulary, register and genres of writing (a meta-language)		
Teachers are mediators of learning – provide a scaffold		
Curriculum cycle based on Vygotsky is followed – explicit teaching		

Genres of schooling

In the educational setting, the study of genres offers students a framework to analyse, interpret and appreciate different types of texts. Rose (2018) provides a valuable classification system that can effectively guide the selection of genres suitable for schools. Rose's comprehensive classification of genres is based on their characteristics, thematic elements and intended audience. The Sydney Schools have identified genres they deem extremely valued genres that learners are required to write in primary school. These educational text types are referred to as "knowledge genres" which refer to various "kinds of narratives (stories), chronicles (history and biography), explanations (of cause and effect), reports (to classify and describe), procedures (to direct actions), arguments (about issues and positions taken) and text responses (reviews of literature, arts, music)" (Rose, 2018: 60).

Table 3: Schooling genres including sub-types and generic features (Rose, 2018:80)

	genre	purpose	stages	phases
Stories	recount	recounting events	Orientation Events	*setting* *description*
	narrative	resolving a complication	Orientation Complication Resolution	*events* *problem* *solution*
	exemplum	judging character or behaviour	Orientation Complication Evaluation	*reaction* *result* *comment*
	anecdote	sharing an emotional reaction	Orientation Complication Evaluation	*reflection* *episode (includes other phases)*
Chronicles	autobiographical recount	recounting life events	Orientation Life events	*birth, family, early life* *events*
	biographical recount	recounting life stages	Orientation Life stages	*birth, family, early life, fame* *stages*
	historical recount	recounting historical events	Background Historical stages	*topic, background* *stage 1, 2... (para structure)*
	historical account	explaining historical events (causes & effects)	Background Historical stages	*topic, background* *stage 1, 2... (para structure)*
Explanations	sequential explanation	explaining a sequence	Phenomenon Explanation	*step 1, 2...*
	conditional explanation	alternative causes & effects (*if a, then b*)	(Phenomenon) Explanation	*condition 1, 2...*
	factorial explanation	multiple causes for one effect	Phenomenon:outcome Explanation	*outcome (preview factors)* *factor 1, 2... (para structure)*
	consequential explanation	multiple effects from one cause	Phenomenon:cause Explanation	*cause (preview)* *consequence1, 2... (para struct)*
Reports	descriptive report	classifying & describing a thing	Classification Description	*phases depend on topic* *(e.g. appearance, behaviour...)*
	classifying report	classifying & describing types of things	Classification Description	*type 1, 2...*
	compositional report	describing parts of wholes	Classification Description	*part 1, 2...*
Procedures	procedure	how to do an activity	Purpose, Equipment Method	*(hypothesis, ingredients...)* *steps*
	protocol	what to do & not do	Purpose Rules/List	*rules, warnings...*
	experiment/observation report	recounting & evaluating experiment/observation	Aim, Equipment, Method Results, Discussion	*(hypothesis, preview)* *steps* *(review) evaluate results*
	case study	recounting & evaluating instances	Issue, Background, Description, Evaluation Recommendations	*phases depend on* *topic & length*
	strategic plan	planning strategies	Purpose, Background, Strategies, Evaluation	*phases depend on* *topic & length*
Arguments	exposition	arguing for a point of view	Thesis Arguments Restatement	*position statement, preview* *arguments, para structure* *review, restate position*
	discussion	discussing two or more points of view	Issue Sides Resolution	*issue statement, preview* *sides, para structure* *review, resolve issue*
Responses	review	evaluating a literary, visual or musical text	Context Description of text Judgement	*text, author (audience)* *steps/components of text* *evaluation of text*
	interpretation	interpreting themes or aesthetics of a text	Evaluation Synopsis of text Reevaluation	*text, preview of themes* *themes, techniques, para struct* *evaluate, synthesise themes*
	comparative interpretation	interpreting themes in multiple texts	Evaluation Synopsis Reevaluation	*texts, preview of themes* *by themes or by texts* *evaluate, synthesise*

Rose's (2018) classification of genres provides educators with a valuable framework for selecting genres suitable for educational settings. Figure 3 above illustrates the distinct traits of certain genres that set them apart from each other, distinctions based on the structure, layout, social purpose and language features of the various genres (Gibbons, 2002). By incorporating genres, educators can promote multimodal literacy, foster cultural understanding, and enhance critical thinking skills among students. The inclusion of diverse genres ensures a comprehensive exploration of different narrative forms, encouraging students to become discerning consumers and creators of texts in today's increasingly media-centric world. Additionally, if a curriculum asserts itself with genre-based principles (like the CAPS document) it should be using a similar model to Figure 3 to identify and categorise text types

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in primary schools, as this model helps with an explicit and scaffolded approach to teaching genres.

Brief background to SFL

To understand any theory, it is imperative to know and understand where, why and how it evolved. Therefore, the following paragraphs will give a brief background to the SFL theory.

Michael Halliday developed the SFL theory during the 1960s in the UK and later in Australia (Almurashi, 2016; Christie; 2004). The approach is centralised around how culture and context shape language from the work of an older generation linguist, Bronislaw Malinowski, wherein he highlighted the importance of the context of culture and the context of situation. The context of culture generally refers to all the meanings accessible to members of that specific culture, whereas the context of situation, embedded within the context of culture, refers to the specific situation in which communication transpires in that culture. This includes examination of the participants involved in the communication, the topic being discussed and through which mode it is discussed to access how language is used for meaning making (Almurashi, 2016). Halliday also based his idea of register, field, tenor and mode on the context of situation as he viewed language as a social semiotic entity, where language is viewed as a resource people use to create meaning (Mickan, 2011).

Halliday spent most of his early years attempting to expand the notion of register varieties so much so that it led to his three aspects of register and metafunctions (Almurashi, 2016). Halliday worked on the approach as a means of resistance to the teaching of knowledge about language which was one of the popular ideologies at the time. Like many, he did not believe in the dominating curriculum approaches like the process approach which emphasised the process of learning over content (Christie, 2004; Almurashi, 2016). This resistance led to various studies in the SFL domain; other SFL linguists like Martin then extended the work of Halliday and others by suggesting that there was yet another scope of experience he called *genre*. Martin agreed with Halliday that every text had a context of situation pertaining to its field, tenor and mode whilst also recognising that a text was an example of a certain genre. This genre choice would then be a result of the context of culture (Christie, 2004). Through this, Martin highlighted that texts may have the same field, tenor and mode of communication but may still lead to different genres.

Language as social semiotic

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SFL is based on an externalised view of language where language is seen as more than just a physical manifestation linked to the brain; however, it recognises language as a social phenomenon (Halliday, 2009). The former notion identifies language as a semiotic system which refers to a system of meaning-making (Halliday, 2009). This idea of semiotics specifically relates to the way language is used to form and exchange meaning (Halliday, 2009). Some of the core fundamentals of the SFL theory are built on the notion that language is a social semiotic process dependent on grammar, the characterisation of a stratal organisation and functional diversity (Halliday, 2009) which is why the following paragraphs present a brief overview of the concept to broaden our scope of the theory.

Semiotics is a broad term in itself, which is why it is important to have a general understanding as it contributes to some of the fundamental principles in SFL theory. Semiotics generally refers to the study of signs and how meanings are made and exchanged to create reality (Chandler, 2007; Halliday, 2009). Social semiotics, for example, stems from the former view with a specific focus on investigating human communication in certain social and cultural situations to explain how meanings are formed as a social practice (Chandler, 2007; Halliday, 2009). Due to the emphasis on meaning-making within the social realm, it is vital to acknowledge that semiotics and meanings are influenced by power shifts and relations in society (Halliday, 1987). Therefore, one key aspect of the SFL theory is the focus on how language is used to gain, maintain or oppose power relations in the communication process.

With regard to the context of the study, it is important to note that social semiotics emphasises multimodality which refers to the social meaning-making processes through various kinds of modes such as oral, written, aural and gestural. This is an important aspect of mode of communication as it directly influences the meaning-making process in communication.

Language learning is viewed by many as a social process where language is learnt through people partaking in language practices within their communities, both as spectators and as suppliers (Halliday, 2009; Mickan, 2011). Text-based teaching is based on the premise that language is a general resource people use to create meaning. Users generally produce language through texts which are situated in certain contexts (Halliday, 2009; Mickan, 2011). Also, language is seen as a meaning-making resource that occurs in a systematic way where language is structured functionally so that incidents of use relate to what is happening in a certain context as well as the participants involved (Halliday, 2009; Mickan, 2011). People tend to make meaning by learning to choose words from the language system and to realise purpose within a particular context. People make these selections to arrange text types for expression of

meaning, which suggests that learning a language means learning to mean (Mickan, 2011). Thus, it is sufficient to say that teachers are involved in natural methods of making meaning with their pupils. The former holds merit as teachers not only provide learners with the tools to create meaning in the classroom but they are privileged to simultaneously assist learners to create authentic ways of meaning making through text; and this will aid them to function optimally in society (Mickan, 2011).

Key elements of SFL theory

Like any other language approach, SFL has its distinct features, one of which is that a text may be analysed in four ways. The first is in relation to its context, then its semantics, its lexico-grammar and lastly, its phonology (Almurashi, 2016). Additionally, context is viewed as a pivotal instrument in SFL analysis as it plays an imperative role in the holistic process of meaning making, suggesting that as language takes place in a particular context, it may be linked to many other contexts (Almurashi, 2016).

These contexts may be described as the context of culture (genres) and the context of situation (register). Register is one of the key elements when it comes to understanding SFL as it relates to objective social processes which entail certain stages (Jawahar & Dempster, 2013; Almurashi, 2016). Halliday suggests that the features of the context relate closely to the language used to produce the text, which fall under three fundamental components. These components are intertwined and achieved simultaneously (Christie, 2004; Jawahar & Dempster, 2013; Almurashi, 2016). The first, the *field,* presents one with the social action that the participants find themselves in, giving an indication of what will be spoken about (Christie, 2004; Jawahar & Dempster, 2013; Mickan, 2011; Almurashi, 2016). The second is the *tenor* which is specifically aimed at the status of the participants and the dynamics of their relationship. This provides information about who is involved in the communication process and the relationships between them (Christie, 2004; Jawahar & Dempster, 2013; Mickan, 2011; Almurashi, 2016). Then lastly, the *mode* refers to the symbolic formation of language that indicates the role language plays in interactions as well as the form that it takes, e.g., if it is spoken or written (Christie, 2004; Jawahar & Dempster, 2013; Mickan, 2011). These features are used to illustrate an instinctive understanding that different people use different resources and parts of the language system for various purposes (Jawahar & Dempster, 2013). This then explains why SFL is such a key resource for second language teaching as it enriches the linguistic ability to use a language in powerful ways.

Additionally, SFL highlights a model of language that occur at three levels: 1) discourse Semantics which has three metafunctions: interpersonal, ideational and textual; 2) lexico-grammar, which involves grammar and vocabulary in one branch and represents the view of language in both lexis and grammar (Nagao, 2020:2022); and 3). phonology that refers to the sound system, the writing system and the wording system (Jawahar & Dempster, 2013).

SFL and second language learning

It is important to recognise that additional language speakers of the target language come to class with linguistic resources from their first language. They already know how certain texts work, for which purpose and in which situation. Therefore, the approach seeks to use that as a way to bridge the gap between the known and the unknown. The approach's introductory methodology would be to use texts with which learners are familiar to allow them to use the target language in familiar ways, including real texts, for real purpose in a functional manner (Mickan, 2011).

Additionally, using familiar texts in this context will allow learners to interact with the particular text on a deeper level as the purpose, visuals, contexts and formats of texts will permit recognition and help learners interpret the text as well as communicate in the target language more competently (Mickan, 2023). A key component when dealing with additional language speakers is multimodal and multisensory texts – for example written, spoken or digitally illustrated texts – as this improves learner understanding, memorisation and general learning (Mickan, 2011).

It is important that learners communicate for real and authentic purposes. This does not always have to be with sources outside of the classroom, however. The classroom is a community of its own and enough communication and meaning making occur within in it, which is why learners have the opportunity to communicate and create texts for real purposes within the classroom (Mickan, 2011). This may happen by discussing work, recounting experiences or examining texts, for example. It is essential that teachers tailor texts to class communities for learners to gradually make the leap from their prior knowledge to linguistic features of the text in the target language.

It is important to remember that language use is regarded as a meaning-making process; therefore, each experience learners have, whether in a beginner or advanced class, should be one of meaning making. Former traditional ways of language teaching such as randomly reciting a list of colours or the days of the week may not be appreciated as an effective method

as it has no functional benefit (Mickan, 2011; Van Heerden, 2008). Therefore, it is essential for the teacher to create grade level activities that allow learners the opportunity to construct meaning in functional ways to become acquainted with how texts work to create meaning. This is why grammar is taught through the analysis of text as a way of overtly teaching additional speakers the meaning and function of these linguistic resources. This is essential as it will also afford learners the opportunity to make relevant language choices in the construction of their own texts for their own meaning and purpose (Mickan, 2011; Van Heerden 2008).

Exposure to the target language is essential and a practical way of achieving this is through extensive reading. Here learners can read texts below or on their literacy level. Reading is a fun activity as learners get to read, record and respond to texts of their interest. Many South African schools are under resourced and suffer from a scarcity of books; however, teachers may read aloud to learners or have the class read together as a group (Mickan, 2011). It is important for the teacher to remember that the focus is not comprehension but to cultivate and immerse learners into texts in the target language. This allows second language learners the autonomy in a zone where errors are allowed and they can select texts for themselves and construct texts too (Mickan, 2011; Van Heerden 2008). They are then provided the opportunity to apply the linguistic features which they have already been taught for their own purpose. Hence, spoken and written language is used in an integrated way. As learners are reading, they will also be viewing; when telling a peer about their text of choice they might respond verbally or review the text which will result in writing. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to deliberately design multimodal and multisensory activities to assist learner immersion in the target language (Mickan, 2011; Van Heerden 2008).

Benefits of SFL

The SFL theory has grown tremendously over the past few decades; one reason for this is the positive impact it has had on language education programmes and studies on a global scale. Therefore, it is impossible to discuss the theory without highlighting some of the theory's key benefits as the SFL theory has proven beneficial in various domains. In keeping with the scope of the study, this section will look at some of its positive influences in the language learning domain.

Additionally, SFL theory is not only a teaching theory and approach but may also be used as an analytical tool. Various studies have used key aspects of the theory to successfully analyse student writing. This has been an important tool, allowing analysts the ability to directly

pinpoint where certain students were strong in their writing processes and where others needed intervention (Tshotsho, 2014). Analysts could also make recommendations as to ways to address areas in which students struggled (Tshotsho, 2014). This evidently displays that SFL theory is a beneficial assessment tool, applicable to both school and tertiary environments (Tshotsho, 2014; Dempster & Jawahar, 2013).

SFL's functional grammar (FG) approach assists learners to mature their capacity to use language in various situations for various reasons. Resultantly, this also allows students the opportunity to prosper in comprehending the mode and class variations that exist between oral and written English. By using this approach, learners learn to recognise the relationship between form and function and the methods used to interpret knowledge, leading to improved academic results. SFL not only serves to improve writing, but it focuses on various language skills such as reading too. A study was conducted which illustrated how meaning was created by the assistance of various language choices in texts, illustrating that through both the practical and theoretical aspects of SFL, improvements in student reading literacy may be made (Gray, 1986).

Moreover, bearing in mind our dejected past, this approach helps to address past inequities as it assists students with gaining admission to discourses and texts that have established symbolic and cultural power in society (Paltridge, 2004). This is achieved by allowing learners to focus on genres in their language classrooms, in a setting where they can gain access to texts and discourses to help them communicate more effectively (in written and oral forms) in their second language (Paltridge, 2004). This is built on the idea that if one is not exposed to or a part of the culture of power, being taught unequivocally and exposed to the systems of the specific culture makes gaining power easier (Paltridge, 2004).

Another key benefit of this theory is that if used correctly it has the potential to improve learners' listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities. Unlike many studies which are proven to work in other countries but when applied to our South African context fail, this theory seems to hold its own. This is evidenced by a study by Van Heerden (2008) and Akinyeye (2012) who both found that SFL and the use of curriculum cycle resulted in an improvement of students' overall communicative competence. Thus, we may assume that when educators have a sound knowledge of the respective genres and adequate scaffolding techniques, increased literacy development is possible.

Additionally, this approach advocates explicit teaching, especially of language and grammar. Thus, the following section will discuss grammar and its implication in language teaching.

Understanding different types of grammar

When considering the progression of language teaching approaches and methodologies, it is not only imperative to focus on the overall meaning and aim of each approach, but we must take a deeper look at the linguistic features of each approach and how these relate to the meaning, aim and methodology of the approach. Blurred lines between these approaches can cause confusion and often cause teachers to revert to old, oppressive ways of language teaching. So while a teacher could have the aims and objectives of progressive approaches in mind, due to personal uncertainty with regard to the methodology of teaching grammar in various approaches, the teacher may fall back on to application of traditional approaches in the classroom. Additionally, many teachers do not feel confident in teaching grammar and do not see its benefits despite the amount of time spent on it (Christie, 2004). We may assume, though, that if teachers can identify the grammar taught or how it is taught, they might be able to identify and relate it to a particular approach, as the success of these approaches often rests on how we teach and understand grammar within these approaches. Thus, it is necessary for the context of this study to take a closer look at grammar.

There are various linguists who distinguish between the features of different forms of grammar. AlHamdany (2012), for example, classifies grammar into three categories: traditional grammar, formal grammar, and systemic functional grammar. Firstly, he refers to the traditional grammar derived from the Greeks and Romans. They used this form of grammar to help various scholars learn Greek and Latin to access knowledge that was stored in early texts. Later this form of grammar was also used for the teaching of vernacular languages such as English, which led to its popularity in schools. This form of grammar became more popular in 18th century England, where people were speaking different dialects of the language according to their social class and geographical setting (AlHamdany, 2012).

Traditional grammar then helped create a standard written English which can be used by various speakers irrespective of dialect. The intention was to teach parts of speech and word classes. However, this approach to teaching grammar is considered restrictive as it focuses on the teacher teaching language structure without relating it to context (AlHamdany, 2012). teachers must be cognisant of the purpose of language and grammar teaching in the context, which is why it was used for so many years as it was needed as a means of basic

communication. Also, education was not meant to liberate, which likely means that the language teaching approaches served this social purpose.

In conjunction with the former approach, formal grammar also emphasised the teaching of language structure; however, it took the notion further by extending its focus to whole phrases and clauses. The belief here is that grammar could be something static and scientific like Algebra (AlHamdany, 2012), suggesting that our control of the language would depend on how well we understood the rules of grammar. Thus, the teacher's focus here would be to teach and test various rules of grammar. The thinking of this view is largely influenced by Chomsky who believes that the ability or inability to grasp various grammatical rules depends on an individual's neurological make up (AlHamdany, 2012; Christie, 2005). This method of language and grammar teaching was very popular in the apartheid era as the purpose of language teaching was not to liberate but to maintain the status quo. The focus on mind and grammar, coupled with disregard for learners' context, disadvantaged the majority of learners as they were expected to learn the rules of grammar in the same way as the privileged minority.

Considering our South African context, we cannot have language teaching and grammar approaches that disregard the importance of cultural and contextual factors to grammar teaching. The hegemonic rise of English changed the landscape for language learning and teaching dramatically. It is important that we focus on alternate ways of viewing grammar, which brings us to the last form of grammar: functional grammar brought about more sociological thinking with grammar viewed in relation to its function in society. So here we specifically looks at grammar in relation to how it is used for meaning making (AlHamdany, 2012; Christie, 2005). For this grammar to deliver optimal results, teachers need to understand three fundamental registers – field, tenor and mode – built on the premise that if learners are aware of the setting in relation to the subject matter, the relationship between the participants, and the mode by which communication occurs, they will adequately partake in the language learning process (AlHamdany, 2012; Christie, 2005). In this view, grammar is not regarded as a fragmented entity but is viewed cohesively as the three aspects of register together form a text (Christie, 2004). Teachers must be familiar with the various types of grammar and how they tie into the methods and approaches they choose to use or are required to use, so they achieve a greater level of consciousness about which types they favour in their classrooms and how their selection impacts language learning.

Critique of SFL genre

Despite SFL's rise in popularity and proven benefits, many scholars remain sceptical of the approach. These scholars have raised numerous concerns regarding the approach. I will focus only on the three critiques most relevant to this study.

The first of the three critiques is the notion that SFL is too mechanical a framework for teacher education as teachers find it too confusing and complex (Bourke, 2005). Additionally, many critics seem to relate teacher incompetency to the curriculum cycle, as inexperienced teachers use the cycle narrowly and inflexibly in their classrooms (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Freedman, 1993). Freedman (1993) echoes this impression by suggesting that SFL may be hazardous if teachers do not have sufficient knowledge of the various genres. However, this belief is flawed in itself, as its focus is more on teachers' inability to apply the approach than with highlighting the impediments within the approach. What this critique seems to emphasise above the flaws within SFL is the need for detailed genre-based teacher training courses. According to Callaghan, Knapp and Noble's (1993) examination of the way in which the curriculum cycle is being used in early childhood development studies determined that despite the fact that the cycle should be used in interchangeable stages, teachers would not practice this in their lessons. This suggests that teachers need greater proficiency in the target language as well as thorough understanding of the practical elements of SFL theory to reap its benefits, again highlighting the need for adequate teacher training (Hyland, 2004).

The second critique is based on the view that SFL stimulates fixed duplication of texts as opposed to promoting critical inquiry into genres (Rosen, 2013). The central claim is that the approach is too formulaic as its explicit teaching of language is too prescriptive, compelling students to adhere rigidly to its guidelines (Christie, 2004; Rosen, 2013). Furthermore, the claim is made that this hampers learners' independent writing and creativity whereby certain students might not actively participate in the writing process as they rely strictly on the teacher's prescription of the text each step of the way (Christie, 2004; Rosen, 2013). This is noted as a hindrance to learner creativity and self-expression as it denies learners the opportunity to challenge various genres but instead, fosters the maintenance of the status quo. These strong claims resulted in scholarly insinuation that this approach might digress teaching back to former authoritarian ways of rote grammar drills (Rosen, 2013). However, I reject this notion that people often have to see an example of how something is done before being afforded the opportunity to apply it or improve on it or reject it, which is what SFL does. If learners are immersed in various genres with regard to their form and function, they will actively critique, replace, improve or replicate the genres whilst learning about them (Christie, 2004). Once such

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a prototypical approach is mastered, it can readily be manipulated, improved or changed. Moreover, the explicit teaching of language features through a text-based approach may be an obvious necessity in our South African context where the majority of learners are disadvantaged and struggle to gain sufficient access to the target language (Van Heerden, 2008).

The third critique rests on the idea that learners will not automatically be empowered or gain equity within an unequal society. This assumption might be true, as providing learners with access to the discourses of power would not necessarily guarantee social justice and equality in society (Rosen, 2013). This then strengthens the argument that the mastery of genre does not allow for critical analysis and the creation of new texts, which might stem from the theory's lack of natural methods with regard to teaching language. These may be valid concerns within the SFL framework. However, what the critique seems to dismiss is the context within which we find ourselves; many South Africa's children are learning through a language in which they are not proficient. Additionally, these learners find themselves living in severe poverty, which excludes them from various sources of power including the target language. Thus, explicit methods of teaching language are necessary as they afford these learners the opportunity to gain linguistic capital and access to powerful genres in society, providing at least some form of equity. SFL in this regard is focused on helping disadvantaged learners gain access to linguistic resources which will help them partake in meaningful modes of communication, potentially leading to socio-economic mobility. Moreover, a natural approach to teaching language in our South African context will be difficult, since many learners who are not proficient in the target language would need to learn it in an explicit and meaningful way.

SFL is not an uncritical, formulaic or rigid theory of literacy. Rather, its theoretical and practical elements are purposefully constructed to provide HL, ESL and EFL learners with access to linguistic resources to enable meaningful participation in society. Additionally, it makes us aware of the need for SFL-based teacher training, as teachers currently are not able to apprentice learners into using language practices critically and meaningfully as they make their way from their home to school.

2.4 Summary

In summary, this chapter discussed a variety of theories and approaches relevant to the study of language teaching and learning in EFAL contexts. These include the use of constructivism; Vygotsky's notion of socio-constructivism and socially-mediated learning; traditional,

behaviourist and cognitive approaches; as well as genre theory with specific emphasis on systemic functional linguistics to understand and identify key principles underlying effective text-based language pedagogy.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the research methodology used in this study. In addition, this chapter explains and motivates the research designs and methods employed. The chapter also describes the participants and the research site with the purpose of sketching the research context. Furthermore, issues pertaining to the validity and reliability of data are explained in conjunction with the ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

3.2 Philosophical Worldview Proposed in the Study

Philosophical worldview refers to the simple set of beliefs that direct the actions of an individual (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Therefore, it is imperative for researchers to be conscious of their worldview as it guides their entire study. Worldviews may be classified as a common philosophical orientation pertaining to the world and the nature of research a researcher contributes to a study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). These philosophical views influence how research is conducted and largely affect the researcher's and participants' relationship. There are various debates about the beliefs researchers attach to inquiry and four worldviews that are generally discussed in the literature: post-positivism, transformation, pragmatism and constructivism (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

The post-positivists believe that laws and theories rule the world, and these theories and laws need to be tested and/or verified and refined for us to gain an understanding of the world. Thus, people often label this view as objective. In this paradigm, a researcher will start with a theory, then collect data that will rebut or support their theory, leading to required revisions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

The transformative worldview espouses the notion that research studies must be related to politics and be driven by a political change agenda that antagonises social oppression at various levels (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). As a result, the research in this camp encapsulates an action agenda for reform that sets out to change the lives and contexts of researchers and participants (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The inquirer will start the study by identifying an issue relating to social injustice as the central aspect of the research. In addition, the researcher will conduct the research in a collaborative way, so that participants involved in the study are not further

marginalised. For example, participants may assist with designing questions and collecting data for the research to be a combined voice for transformation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Scholars in the pragmatic camp believe that one's worldview stems from various situations, actions and consequences. One of the prime concerns for researchers in this camp is finding solutions to various problems. Therefore, research does not focus on a particular method but instead seeks to highlight the research problem and question and use all methods and approaches accessible to best understand the problem (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In this school of thought, as scholars intend to use the best approach to find a solution to the research question, they do not subscribe to one way or one approach but believe multiple approaches open the door for multiple methods, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis which might lead to better solutions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

In contrast to the previous world views, constructivists firmly align with interpretivism, believing that people interpret, view and understand various phenomena based on personal experiences and contexts (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). This allows the researcher the opportunity to better interpret and comprehend the complex reality and contexts of the participants (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009). Relations are heightened by an underlying general understanding that uses language and other systemic symbols (Babbie, 2008). This camp is often labelled as 'subjective' as the assumption is that there are various lenses through which to view the world. Researchers within this paradigm anticipate making sense of and/or interpreting the meanings people attribute to the world. Therefore, instead of starting with a theory as the post-positivists do, constructivists inductively cultivate a theory or array of meanings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Flick, 2018). In essence, constructivists strive to understand particular contexts by applying a particular research methodology.

In considering all the philosophical views, this study aligns itself with the constructivist view, as understanding people's lived experiences and perceptions is central to this research. As suggested by constructivists, people's individual experiences are unique and subjective, so there may be various meanings attached to reality instead of a clear objective one as often suggested by post-positivists. The main purpose of this study is to gain an in-depth understanding of the perceptions of subject advisors regarding the text-based approach to language and literacy teaching. A second purpose of the study is to select and analyse the English First Additional Language CAPS document for evidence of its understanding of a text-based approach. Thus, the approach leans towards a constructivist view as participants' experiences and understanding of the world were taken into account to comprehend the

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contexts and institutions in which they found themselves. At this stage, the study does not directly intend to emancipate its participants; it is also not primarily concerned with finding the best solutions to problems. And lastly, it does not intend to produce quantifiable data. Therefore, the study aligns with constructivism and takes a qualitative approach which largely relates to a constructivist view.

The next section highlights the research paradigm used in the study.

3.3 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm may be described as is method for conducting research (Creswell, 2013). The research in the study requires analysing documents and concrete cases with a focus on participants' expressions and perceptions in their contexts (Flick, 2018; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The study requires the inquirer to interact with documents and participants to explore the research problem which is embedded in a qualitative research approach and methodology (Fick, 2018; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). A qualitative approach is suited for this study as it is used when a phenomenon needs to be explored and understood because little research has been undertaken in the field (Creswell & Creswell, 2015; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). And in the case of this study, very little research has explored subject advisors' (who train teachers to implement new literacy approaches) understanding of a text-based approach and how it is realised in the CAPS document. Additionally, this method allows for authentic situations and settings relating to the research whilst providing a broader and deeper understanding of the topic under investigation as opposed to experimental research.

Moreover, this study is in line with a qualitative approach as it is interested in how participants make sense of their experiences and in examining documents to gain a more complex understanding of the phenomena whilst realising this involves a process of interpretation by the researcher; that will allow for descriptive data (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009). It recognises the research participants as social, meaning-making individuals, and intends to situate the research problem and topic from their viewpoints (Hancock et al., 2009; Moriarty, 2011; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014) whilst acknowledging that documents are a rich data source giving a unique perspective on the study's topic that may not be available through other qualitative research methods. Additionally, this study intends to give in-depth descriptions of procedures, beliefs and knowledge related to the participants' social context, which is yet another aspect of qualitative research (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

Moreover, a qualitative method was suited for this study as interviews were conducted with subject advisors relating to text-based practices in the CAPS document and specifically in their practice. The former was done as a means of understanding subject advisors' perceptions pertaining to the text-based approach as realised in the CAPS document. Additionally, the CAPS document was analysed to gain an understanding of the extent to which a text-based approach is understood and recommended in intermediate and senior phase language classrooms.

The following section discusses the research design used in the study.

3.4 Research Design

A *research design* in qualitative research is a plan that outlines the research questions, research participants, data collection methods and data analysis techniques for a study (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). This study makes use of a case study design to understand subject advisors' perceptions of the text-based approach and their support practices in the Western Cape, as well as the curriculum policy's interpretation and recommendation of a text-based approach. A case study can take many forms and may refer to an organisation, an action, an event or an individual that exists in a specific time and space (Yin, 2014; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). According to Ritchie and Lewis (2003), case studies provide a holistic and in-depth account of a research phenomenon, in this case subjects advisor perceptions and the CAPS document's understanding of the text-based approach. Additionally, Baxter and Jack (2008) note that case studies are instruments enabling inquirers to study complex problems well within a particular context that will allow the inquirer to create a programme for mediation and/or form a particular theory. For this reason, this study aims to give an in-depth account of subject advisors' understanding and practices relating to the text-based approach whilst examining the CAPS document's enforcement of the approach.

According to Baxter and Jack (2008), one central goal of a case study is to certify that an area is well analysed and explored to reveal the core of the focal area. This aligns with this study as its aim was to thoroughly explore subject advisors' perceptions and the CAPS document's interpretation and recommendations pertaining to the text-based approach, to reveal core beliefs that either align or contradict literature on text-based theory.

While the case study approach does not lend itself to generalisability (see 3.10 for further discussion), the focus of the study is to give an in-depth transparent account on a research topic that is currently understudied (Hancock et al., 2009; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Also, this

study adopts a qualitative case-study approach as it is interested in the thoughts, opinions, perceptions, and behaviours of its participants who stand to provide a wider understanding of the perceptions and literacy practices of subject advisors in the Western Cape. The aim of the study is not to make generalisations and draw broad conclusions; rather, the focus is simply to shed light on this understudied area.

The subsequent section provides a description of the research sites.

3.5 Research Sites

The interviews were conducted at the subject advisors' respective places of work at three various district offices in the Western Cape. Two of the interviews occurred at the same district office, which is classified as a rural district, whereas the other two interviews occurred at two different metro districts. The CAPS document does not have a particular research site; the document was sourced from the Department of Basic Education's website.

The succeeding section provides a discussion pertaining to the study's sampling choices.

3.6 Sampling

Bertram and Christiansen (2014) define *sampling* as the decisions researchers have to make pertaining to the events, settings and people they should include in their study. These aspects are essential as the choice of *who* and *how many* individuals (from the target population) the researcher includes in the study has ramifications for the trustworthiness of the study as it will influence the type of data collected (Cohen et al., 2007; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). According to Hancock, Ockleford and Windridge (2009), the selection of the research participants is based on their willingness and availability over a certain period of time. Additionally, researchers in qualitative studies commonly make use of non-probability samples where the focus is on targeting a specific group, whilst knowing that their views and perceptions do not represent those of the broader population (Cohen et al., 2007). Therefore, a sample should be selected on the premise that it will assist the inquirer in addressing the problem statement and answering the research questions of the study.

There are numerous forms of non-probability samples a researcher may use: quota sampling, dimensional sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling and convenience sampling (Cohen et al., 2007). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), *quota sampling* attempts to signify key features (strata) of the broader population; it also sets out to represent them in the quantities in which they may be found in the broader population. *Dimension*

sampling is a supplementary refinement of quota sampling as it recognises many aspects of interest in a population and finds at least one respondent of each arrangement of those factors (Cohen et al., 2007).

In *purposive sampling*, researchers often select the cases to be incorporated in the sample on the premise of their judgement, so that the sample presents itself satisfactory to the requirements of the study (Cohen et al., 2007; Babbie, 2008; Hancock et al., 2009). *Snowball sampling* permits the participants to recommend or refer other suitable individuals who may be interviewed (Cohen et al., 2007; Babbie, 2008; Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009). In contrast, *convenience sampling*, also known as accidental or opportunity sampling, selects the closest people to assist as respondents, until the necessary sample size has been attained (Cohen et al., 2007). It would also refer to individuals who are available and accessible at a particular time (Cohen et al., 2007; Hancock et al., 2009). Researchers who make use of this type of sampling normally base their selection on those to whom they have easy access. This type of sampling may be valid in a case where the researcher is not concerned with generalisations as the sample does not represent any group other than itself (Cohen et al., 2007; Hancock et al., 2009).

Convenience sampling is a common sampling strategy for case studies, which is one reason that this study used convenience sampling as its sampling strategy. For this study, a general letter was sent to all the EFAL and EHL intermediate and senior phase subject advisors on the WCED website. However, none of the subject advisors responded to the letter. Thus, I approached four subject advisors who I personally know. Additionally, the relevant advisors' districts and offices were conveniently stationed near where I work and reside, enhancing the accessibility of these advisors.

It is also important to note that one of the aims of the study is to explore subject advisors' understanding of the text-based approach to understand how this influences the support they provide to teachers. A second aim of the study is to understand the assumptions about literacy held by subject advisors and shed light on the extent that these diverge from or converge with the text-based approach. Based on this premise, all of the intermediate and senior phase EFAL and EHL subject advisors meet the criteria for the study; thus, the non-participation of the other subject advisors holds minimal implications.

The study also focused on document selection which involves a systematic process of identifying and selecting relevant documents for analysis (Creswell, 2014). This process

requires careful consideration of the research question, the research design and the sampling strategy to ensure that the documents selected are representative of the population of interest and provide rich and meaningful data for analysis (Creswell, 2014). There are numerous English CAPS documents that cater to the various language levels. This study specifically selected the Intermediate and Senior Phase English First Additional CAPS documents for the analysis process because the study focused on intermediate and senior phase subject advisors. While the advisors are all employed as both English Home Language and their First Additional Language advisors, the study focused only on the First Additional Language document because the study was particularly interested in exploring how the policy document encourages the text-based approach in the second language context.

The subsequent section provides a brief profile of the research participants.

3.7 Participants

This study included four participants, all of whom were subject advisors in districts within the WCED. One of the participants, Mr Faith (pseudonym), was an EHL and EFAL senior phase and FET subject advisor. Another subject advisor, Mrs Hope (pseudonym), was an HL and EFAL intermediate phase subject advisor. Then the other two subject advisors, Mr Peace (pseudonym) and Mrs Love (pseudonym), were both EHL and EFAL and Afrikaans Home Language (AHL) and Afrikaans First Additional Language (AFAL) subject advisors across intermediate and senior phases. Permission was requested of the participants to partake in the study by means of written consent (see Appendix 4).

The next section will discuss the data collection methods.

3.8 Data Collection methods

Data collection may be defined as the act of assembling essential information associated with a certain study via numerous methods and sources (Bryman & Burgess, 1994). This study makes use of two types of data: primary data (original data collected firsthand) and secondary data (data that has been previously collected and analysed for a purpose other than the current study) (Bryman, 2016). Thus, the study draws upon two classes of data collection and selection, specifically document study (secondary data) and interviews (primary data), to gain an in-depth understanding of language subject advisors' perceptions of the text-based approach as realised in CAPS (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The application of these two methods should assist in the study's attempt to acquire some form of triangulation within the study (Flick, 2018).

3.8.1 Document Selection

Document analysis involves selecting relevant documents or sources that can provide rich insights into the research question (Patton, 2015). The documents selected should be carefully considered for their quality, authenticity and relevance to the research question (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Subject advisors are required to support teachers with the implementation of the prescriptions in the curriculum policy. Thus, the study selected the English First Additional Intermediate Phase and Senior Phase CAPS documents for analysis because the participants (subject advisors) were specialists in these phases. Additionally, the study focused on the First Additional Language documents to gain insight into how the documents employ the text-based approach in a second language context. The analysis of the CAPS document provided insight into how subject advisors should encourage the approach in their support programmes, offering another layer of insight into their perceptions regarding the text-based approach.

3.8.2 Interviews

An *interview* may be described as a conversation with someone with the aim of collecting information (Thomas, 2011). Data gathered through interviews may be facts or the opinions of participants. Interviews are an essential part of a study because they access the thoughts, knowledge, intentions and perceptions of its participants. These cannot be explored adequately by only analysing documents (Marshall & Rossman, 1989; Britten, 2006; Hancock et al., 2009; Flick, 2018). Face-to-face interviews were conducted with four EAL and EHL intermediate and senior phase subject advisors. The biographical information of the subject advisors, solicited at the start of every interview, is presented in Chapter 5.

The interviews for this study were semi-structured interviews involving a number of open-ended questions based on the topic areas the researcher intended to cover to provide a transparent understanding of subject advisors' thoughts, practices and knowledge of the text-based approach (Hancock et al., 2009; Flick, 2018). Here the interviewer had the freedom to probe the interviewees to elaborate on an original response; this is significant as it gave insight into various issues pertaining to the support teachers receive and the function of the subject advisors in ensuring text-based delivery. This method afforded the opportunity to seek elaboration on important concepts from the participants thought the questions may not have been on the initially prepared guide. The interviews were recorded because doing so gives a

more factual account of the interview data whilst revealing participant tone, enthusiasm and hesitation (Creswell, 2005; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Flick, 2018).

The use of semi-structured interviews also afforded the opportunity to gain clarity when participant meaning was not clear. Each of the four interviews lasted approximately an hour and a half. The subject advisors could do the interview in any language in which they felt comfortable. Three of the four advisors code-switched between English and Afrikaans throughout the entire interview. As the researcher is fluent in English and Afrikaans, no translation was required for these interviews. Only one advisor chose to conduct the entire interview in English. All four of the subject advisors gave consent in writing for the audio recording of the interviews.

The consequent section provides a description of the data analysis process.

3.9 Data Analysis

According to Braun and Clarke (2019), data analysis in qualitative research involves identifying patterns and themes in the data that assist in answering research questions or in developing new theories. This study has analysed two types of data– the CAPS documents and the subject advisors' interview transcripts. The section will discuss the data analysis process for both data sets.

3.9.1 Document Analysis

According to Mason (2002), *document analysis* is the analysis of a variety of written materials that produces qualitative information in the form of policy documents, annual reports and minutes of meetings and workshop materials. Consequently, the study will use one level of document analysis, namely the analysis of Intermediate and Senior Phase English First Additional CAPS documents, to identify the extent to which the documents support and inform text-based practices within the curriculum. The document analysis and interviews should shed light on the relationship between the official curriculum specifications related to the text-based approach and subject advisors' perceptions, knowledge, and practices (Flick, 2018).

Thematic data analysis involves identifying patterns, themes and categories in the data. The focus is on the underlying meanings and concepts that emerge from the data (Krippendorff, 2013; Braun & Clarke, 2019). Thus, this study made use of thematic analysis to analyse the CAPS documents in relation to text-based theory. Additionally, the study implores deductive

qualitative data analysis which starts with a certain theoretical framework and classifies the data according to the views of the respective theory (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Braun & Clarke, 2019). Documents were coded by highlighting segments relevant to the research questions. Coding is assigning labels to represent experts of data. Codes are used to reduce the data without losing meaning and to capture significant ideas (Saldana, 2013). Thus, various sections relating to one another were colour coded and thereafter, codes were categorised into themes or categories that represent key ideas of the text-based theory as understood within the SFL framework.

The study also used inductive coding when analysing the selected documents, with inductive coding categories or themes emerging directly from the data without being predetermined or guided by pre-existing theories or frameworks. This approach allows researchers to explore and discover new insights, ideas, or patterns that may not have been anticipated beforehand (Charmaz, 2006). Two themes emerged through the data analysis process that were not anticipated beforehand and not directly guided by the frameworks for this study. The document was then analysed and discussed using the following themes: CAPS as a guide (inductive theme); CAPS as Language Policy (inductive theme); valued approaches; methods to teaching literature; classifying texts; views on teaching grammar; and curriculum cycle. Subsequently, the study interpreted the findings by drawing on relevant literature and theoretical frameworks (see Chapter 2) to develop an understanding of the significance and implications of the themes identified in the document.

A similar approach was used to analyse data from the interviews. Thematic data analysis was used to analyse data from the interviews. I first familiarised myself with the data by reading and re-reading the transcriptions whilst simultaneously listening to the audio recordings to gain a comprehensive understanding of the content. Thereafter, I plotted all the questions on a table with each participant's response to that question next to it, to allow for easier reading and coding. Then, I started coding the data using both inductive and deductive coding, whereby some of the codes were established by the pre-existing theories discussed in Chapter 2, whilst unexpected themes emerged through the data analysis process (Braun & Clarke, 2019).

Colour codes were assigned to segments of the data that represent important ideas, concepts or themes. The codes were used to generate themes (Charmaz, 2006). The colours helped to group together codes based on similarities or relationships, leading to the formation of themes. The track changes feature was used to assist in categorising the themes as it assisted in the refining, reviewing, combing and revision of themes to ensure accurate reflection of data. Data were

then analysed through the interpretation of the themes within the broader context of the research objectives, literature and theoretical frameworks listed in Chapter 2, by exploring the relationships between themes, exploring variations and contradictions, and identifying underlying patterns or explanations.

The subsequent section will explain the validity and reliability of the study.

3. 10 Validity and Reliability

If research is invalid and unreliable, a study may be deemed worthless; therefore, validity and reliability are crucial aspects in both qualitative and quantitative research (Cohen et al., 2007). Creswell and Creswell (2018) view *validity* as the researcher's ability to depict the true form of the participants' realities. According to Golafshani (2003), validity measures how truthful a study's results are, demonstrating whether what has been measured is truthful or not. Therefore, the application of dependable research techniques, research methods, and a sound methodological paradigm is crucial to a researcher's study (Babbie, 2008).

In addition, it is imperative to be cognisant that the paradigms of post-positivists, constructivists, pragmatists and transformationalists for ways of doing research differ, so validity may be understood differently in each paradigm (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). In light of this, qualitative inquiries are often viewed as unreliable and invalid because they do not rely on scientific methods. To counter this claim, researchers within this paradigm must ensure that they have appropriate data collection methods that address issues of reliability and validity of the study (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Thus, qualitative studies place emphasis on using various methods in a study to establish validity or trustworthiness (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). For example, *triangulation* is an imperative aspect of qualitative research as it refers to the researcher collecting data from two sources; this allows the researcher to gain a better understanding of the participants' experiences while preventing misrepresentations from forming (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Cohen et al., 2007). Triangulation may serve as a tool of validation to the analysis and interpretation of data which may portray the variety of participants' truths.

I attempted to gain a sense of triangulation by using two methods to collect data, conducting semi-structured interviews with the relevant subject advisors, and analysing the CAPS document (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). In addition, I attempted to gain triangulation within a single data collection instrument by means of asking the same questions in my semi-structured interviews in a different way to establish if the participants would answer the same

question differently (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Polkinghorne (2005) contends that using different or multiple participants benefits a deepened understanding of a researched experience, which is why this study consisted of multiple participants (subject advisors) from various districts. The main aim of triangulating the data was to establish if there were any major contradictions or inconsistencies in the data gathered. The application of triangulation in this study was extremely important as it strengthened the trustworthiness of the research findings.

Along with validity and trustworthiness, reliability and credibility play a major role in qualitative research as research instruments need to be reliable for the results of a study to be produced (Golafshani, 2003). Data may be described as reliable when there is a substantial connection between what occurred during the research and the data that was recorded. *Reliability* specifically refers to the researcher's ability to produce quality data that avoids errors to establish an accurate interpretation of the research events (Golafshani, 2003). According to Bertram and Christiansen (2014), research may be deemed *credible* once it echoes the participants' realities. Credibility was sought in this study by encouraging the participants to behave naturally in their comfortable environments. For example, they were allowed to choose the language through which they could best express themselves. Moreover, participants were assured of anonymity; that their identities will not be revealed gave them a sense of freedom of speech, allowing candour when answering questions without fear of repercussions.

Moreover, a researcher may use audio-recordings to record their interviews verbatim; this is imperative as it will allow for more accurate transcription than in the event of the researcher noting responses (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Therefore, I decided to use a voice recorder (on my phone) to record my interviews to present more accurate transcripts and to enhance overall credibility of data collection and data analysis. I used the Voice Record Pro application on my cell phone to record the interviews, after verifying that the phone was charged and that the voice recording application was working at least 30 minutes before the interview. I also strove for confirmability to strengthen the reliability and credibility of the study. Bertram and Christiansen (2014) suggest that after the researcher has transcribed the data, the interview transcripts are to be returned to participants to confirm that the transcripts are an accurate reflection of what was said. The transcripts, therefore, were sent back to the participants for member checking. The research process was made as transparent as possible, so that participants could ensure that they would have arrived at the same conclusions as the researched did in the study (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The former processes are crucial

elements in any research study as it affords avenues for elimination of personal bias and beliefs which might influence the study.

In qualitative research, the term *generalisation* is not commonly used. Instead, researchers aim for transferability. *Transferability* refers to the extent to which the findings of a study can be applied or transferred to other contexts or settings (Creswell & Poth, 2017). Transferability does not aim to achieve statistical generalisations or representativeness in the same way as quantitative research (Creswell & Poth, 2017). Also, this is a small-scale study that aims to gain a deep understanding of the phenomena which is why the study does not intend to make any generalisations. Instead, it focuses on providing detailed and context-specific insights that can be considered and potentially applied to similar contexts. Transferability in qualitative research may be achieved by providing rich and detailed descriptions of the research context, participants and data analysis processes. By providing this information, readers can assess the similarities and differences between the study context and their own context and determine the applicability of the findings (Creswell & Poth, 2017). Thus, the study attempted to provide a detailed description of the research context, participants and analysis process.

The subsequent section will focus on the ethical issues within the study.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Bertram and Christiansen (2014) describe *ethics* as behaviour that is perceived as either right or wrong. Therefore, ethical considerations in social research are extremely crucial as the power relations between the researcher and their research participants may be extremely dynamic and unequal (Moriarty, 2011; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Flick, 2018). Furthermore, as a researcher has considerable power over the data and topics discussed, researchers are required to engage with ethical principles at all times to protect the interests of the participants (Moriarty, 2011; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Flick, 2018). Therefore, each research study involving participants needs to adhere to certain ethical standards to ensure the participants are not harmed in any way. It is important that these ethical issues be addressed before participants engage in the study.

These ethical standards may be addressed based on three ethical principles: autonomy, non-maleficence and beneficence (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Firstly, the inquirer needs to respect the autonomy of all the participants who are involved in the study by gaining consent from the participants. The participants should also be made aware that participation in the study is voluntary and they are free to withdraw from the study at any stage. I applied ethics in this

study to ensure that I do not do any harm to the research participants. I started this process by first seeking permission from gatekeepers (people who stand between the research and the participants). Gatekeepers are often people who hold particular power and control over the research sites and in this event, the University of Western Cape (UWC) was the first gatekeeper. Additionally, the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) was the gatekeeper between the subject advisors and me. Therefore, I had to gain permission from the WCED before I could pursue any subject advisors.

Once permission was granted, I arranged a brief meeting with the subject advisors at which I explained to them that their participation in the study was completely voluntary and they were free to withdraw from the study at any time. I also mentioned that the study would not bring them harm. In addition to this, they were issued with consent forms that stipulated the aim and intentions of the study. The intention of the meeting with the subject advisors was to afford them an overall awareness of the conditions of the study so that they would be able to make an informed decision with regard to their participation. The consent form explicitly stated that participation was completely voluntary and that participants had the right to withdraw at any time without having to give reasons. Moreover, participants were informed that their identity and all personal information would be confidential, and all findings would be presented in an honest manner. Then, the participants signed the consent form as an indication that they understood its contents.

In terms of *non-maleficence,* meaning to "do no harm", it was imperative that I protect the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants by not disclosing their names in the study. Thus, I used pseudonyms to protect the identity of all participants (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

Beneficence refers to the notion that the research should be of benefit either directly to the participants or to other researchers or the wider society (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). In this case, the study complies with this ethical issue as its findings potentially benefitted the participants, the WCED, the DBE and other researchers.

Reflexivity is another important aspect of the study as it requires an awareness of the researcher's involvement with regard to the creation of meanings during the course of the research process, and an acknowledgment of the impracticality of remaining "outside of" one's subject matter while piloting the research (Nightingale & Cromby, 1999). Ensuring reflexivity in qualitative research involves a conscious and ongoing process of self-awareness, critical

reflection and acknowledgment of the researcher's influence on the research process and findings (Bristow, Robinson & Ratcliffe, 2020). Reflexivity compels researchers to explore the ways in which their participation affects, acts upon, positions and enlightens such research (Nightingale & Cromby, 1999; Bristow et al., 2020). According to this definition, the meaning of a particular research study essentially rests on what the researcher interprets it to be.

Researchers need to be aware of this issue to minimise the chance of bias. As a researcher, one has to be aware of the power dynamics between the researcher and participants. This is why I engaged myself in the research whilst bearing in mind my position as an outsider, while simultaneously remaining aware of the study participants so as to avoid bias. Additionally, following the relevant ethical implications I will need to be more conscious of my practices and perceptions to protect the interest of the participants. In simple terms, reflexivity in research means to be conscious of oneself, to be considerate, and to examine the underlying forces between the participants and the researcher intersubjectively (Finlay & Gough, 2003; Bristow et al., 2020). Therefore, I was mindful of my own views, beliefs and judgments by keeping a journal of my personal thoughts throughout the data collection and analysis process to prevent any untoward influence in the study. I also journeyed through the research process by conducting debriefing sessions with my supervisor, colleagues and a fellow student. I used these sessions to share my thoughts, findings and interpretations to gain insights and alternative viewpoints, and to identify potential biases or blind spots (Flick, 2018).

The subsequent section describes the limitations of this case study.

3.12 Limitations

There are always certain limitations with a research study and these limitations are often out of the researcher's control. As these limitations may have various implications for the research study, it is important that a researcher highlights and explains them.

The first limitation of this study was the sample size because the study only included four subject advisors from three education districts. This served as a limitation as the ideal sample would have been one subject advisor from each district; however, this was not possible due to subject advisors' willingness to participate in the study. Even so, the smaller sample had certain benefits as it allowed me to spend more time with the study participants. It also made the study more manageable and saved me time and capital as it would have cost a fair amount to travel to all the district offices in the province. It would also have affected my work schedule as it was not possible to conduct interviews on weekends. The fact that the sample was so small

means that the data and findings are not generalisable as the data do not speak for the entire WCED population but only reflects the perceptions of the four participants.

Furthermore, due to the pandemic and various time constraints, I was only able to apply two data collection methods: semi-structured interviews and document selection as many of the anticipated WCED workshops were cancelled. However, the study might have been richer with opportunity and time to conduct observations of the training offered by the subject advisors. Again, the advantage of this was that it spared me time and capital, but it did impede the richness of the data. The study was also based in one province.

3.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter highlighted the methodological aspects of the study, which were underpinned by a constructivist worldview and a qualitative research approach. It also detailed the various data collection methods and the various tools used to generate data. This study used interviews and document analysis as data collection methods. By using more than one method, the researcher attempted to gain triangulation to support the research findings and sustain the trustworthiness of the study. Convenience sampling was used to select the study participants, four EAL and HL intermediate and senior phase subject advisors. The study's reflexivity, ethical considerations and limitations were also explained.

Chapter 4 will present and discuss the data analysis.

CHAPTER 4: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will present a discussion of the document analysis, identifying themes that emerged from the document analysis, namely the English CAPS documents. Thematic data analysis (TDA) will allow for discussion of data (document) in relation to the theoretical framework and language teaching and learning approaches (discussed in Chapter 2), the research aims and the questions presented in Chapter 1.

4.2 Discussion on Document Analysis

The study makes use of document analysis, as mentioned in Chapter 3. Thus, this section will discuss the secondary data, namely the intermediate and senior phase English First Additional Language CAPS documents and the intermediate phase English Home Language document in relation to the literature referred to in Chapter 2. This section will first provide a short description of the purpose and trajectory of the South African curriculum coupled with a brief discussion of the promotion of mother tongue education and bi/multilingualism as a means of providing context to the analysis and discussion that follow. Thereafter, the chapter will discuss the three themes that emerged while analysing the document using an inductive approach. Lastly, the document analysis specifically addresses the research questions and objectives of the study through its discussion of the themes that emerged through the use of a deductive approach. The data was reduced through coding and categorised according to the themes (refer to Chapter 3 for a deeper discussion of the document analysis process) as discussed below.

4.3 The South African Curriculum (CAPS)

The term *curriculum* can be interpreted in various ways and is deemed multifaceted. A curriculum is the cornerstone of a country's education system as it is the map that depicts the content, objectives and instructional strategies of a subject or educational programme (Mulenga, 2018). In other words, a few of its core principles would be to stipulate the guidelines for what, how, how long and for what purpose subjects should be taught (Mulenga, 2018; Hoadley, 2018). The former statements are central to the analysis of the CAPS document because they provide a clear scope of what a curriculum (on a broad scale) is supposed to do, which provides a context for the analysis and discussion that follow.

There have been numerous contentions regarding the South African curriculum post-1994 and all of its reviews (Jansen 1998, Hoadley, 2018). The first democratic curriculum was Outcomes Based Education (OBE) also known as Curriculum 2005 (C2005). This curriculum was 'revolutionary' as its main focus was to assist the state in banishing the apartheid legacies and providing an equal inclusive education model for all South African learners. This curriculum was also 'transformative' as it did away with the traditional ways of teaching to usher in a constructivist approach to education (Botha, 2002). As a means of removing the traditional aspect of the curriculum, it moved away from content-driven approaches towards a learner-centred, outcome-focused paradigm. Emphasis was placed on the outcomes learners had to achieve at the end of every grade, in every phase and subject (Jansen, 1998; Botha, 2002; Hoadley, 2018).

However, C2005 was later labelled 'problematic' because it was extremely vague and lacked substance due to issues such as an overloaded curriculum, its neglect of content-driven teaching and its terminologies (Botha, 2010; Hoadley, 2018). Therefore, the curriculum was reviewed to address the myriad concerns raised about this C2005. The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) was a streamlining of OBE intended to deal with curriculum gaps. Though the revision process seemed to hold an idea of a more streamlined and effective curriculum, it caused even greater division amongst stakeholders as a part of the review. The state did not want to abandon the OBE curriculum and its principles completely, so the review to split into three factions, "towards social objectives, towards economic imperatives (outcomes) and towards knowledge" (Hoadley, 2018:132). Thus, Hoadley (2018) describes the NCS as a hybrid model because it tried to keep its emphasis on outcomes whilst attempting to move towards social and content-driven objectives. It also attempted to provide more clarity by integrating subjects and creating conceptual progression across grades. The curriculum had three important documents to guide its implementation: a subject statement, assessment guidelines and learning programme guides (Hoadley, 2018). Teachers were still left to create their own content and become curriculum developers even though they did not have clarity and sufficient training to implement the curriculum.

As a result of continuous scrutiny and criticism, the NCS was reviewed once again and it was decided that outcomes be replaced with specific content with skill standards and clear concise assessment needs (Maodzwa-Taruvinga & Cross, 2012). Thus, the NCS was replaced with the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) which likewise replaced the contradictory subject statements, assessment guidelines and learning programme guidelines of the NCS with

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a single document (Hoadley, 2018). One would thus assume that the contradictions of the NCS would be eradicated with the adoption of the new curriculum. The minister of education stipulated that, the new curriculum is intended to "describe the content, the concepts, and the skills that are supposed to be taught. Anyone who has taught before will know what we are talking about: the syllabi, which spell out what your aims, your objectives, your learning areas, your methodology and your assessments are in very simple and clear term" (Hoadley, 2018:175).

This suggests that the CAPS document is the actual streamlining and strengthening of the OBE curriculum and that it will be free from the contradictions of the NCS and bridge the numerous gaps and contradictions that the OBE curriculum contained.

> *The curriculum does not assume that the teacher is able to develop his/her own programme of learning with respect to the selection, sequence and pacing of educational knowledge. It sets out the content to be covered in detail, clearly delineating procedural evaluative criteria.* (Hoadley, 2018; 168)

The assertion is made that CAPS resembles reforms witnessed during apartheid which were characterised by strong categorisations and strict frameworks. There is an argument that CAPS, through its focus on reclaiming knowledge and imposition of limits on teachers' professional autonomy, aligns with the prescriptive nature of apartheid education (Hoadley, 2018; Langhan, Kariem & Velensky, 2012). Critics argue that CAPS is overly prescriptive, contending that merely detailing what teachers must do is insufficient (Mokgohloa, 2018; Hoadley, 2018). They argue that teachers should be empowered to assess, appreciate, criticise and understand the rationale behind these prescriptions. Advocates for teacher involvement in curriculum matters emphasise the need to include teachers as key implementers of the curriculum (Mokgohloa, 2018; Hoadley, 2018). The CAPS itself underwent reform due to an excessive number of assessments, detracting from valuable teaching time (Mokgohloa, 2018; Hoadley, 2018).

4.4 CAPS as Language Policy

It is interesting that a move towards equal education for all meant that multilingualism and issues concerning school language policies needed to be separated from the broader curriculum changes (Heugh, 2013). Additionally, it is concerning that the multiple curriculum divisions did not include a more explicit promotion of mother tongue bi/multilingual education. Especially considering the idea that the CAPS document is regarded as a confinement of the

various separate policy documents under the previously revised NCS (Hoadley, 2018). Furthermore, mother tongue education is a crucial aspect of education on a global scale. In terms of learners' cognitive, social and communal performance, the use of the mother tongue is considered the most effective (Stoop, 2017). Clearly, South Africa has recognised the importance of this approach within the constitution and its Language in Education Policy (LiEP, 1997). The issue of mother tongue instruction is an aspect that has become a pedagogical issue in many English classrooms across the country (Probyn, 2009; Strauss, 2016).

Multilingualism, language policies and mother tongue education issues are at the forefront of South Africa's curriculum reform. However, it is alarming to see that curriculum change and discussions regarding curriculum change occurred and, in some cases, still occur without the inclusion of language issues (Alexander & Heugh, 1999; Heugh, 2013). This study did not want to follow this pattern, thus a discussion on language education follows the discussion on the curriculum. Additionally, some of the participants mentioned the impact of the lack of mother tongue education within their districts; thus, the following section will discuss the extent to which mother tongue education is promoted in the CAPS document, especially in relation to the approaches it endorses and how this influences the promotion of bi/multilingualism.

In the first couple of pages of all English Language documents, the CAPS document highlights certain aims, values and principles that the document seeks to promote, such as this.

> *Social transformation: ensuring that the educational imbalances of the past are redressed, and that equal educational opportunities are provided for all sections of the population; (Policy principle but no provision for language)*
>
> *Human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice: infusing the principles and practices of social and environmental justice and human rights as defined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is sensitive to issues of diversity such as poverty, inequality, race, gender, language, age, disability and other factors;*
>
> *Valuing indigenous knowledge systems: acknowledging the rich history and heritage of this country as important contributors to nurturing the values contained in the Constitution;*
>
> *The key to managing inclusivity is ensuring that barriers are identified and addressed by all the relevant support structures within the school community, including teachers, District-Based Support Teams, Institutional-Level Support Teams, parents and Special Schools as Resource Centres. To address barriers in the classroom, teachers should use various curriculum*

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differentiation strategies such as those included in the Department of Basic Education's Guidelines for Inclusive Teaching and Learning (2010). (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:3-5)

Additionally, CAPS' language prescriptions reveal a discrepancy that exists between constitutional and other government policies that, in theory, support a multilingual approach but are practically carried out with a tendency toward assimilation into English (Heugh, 2013). If we consider the statements above, we can deduce that the promotion of African language and the use of the mother tongue in education would be a central aim of the document as this notion factors into so many of the document's intentions. However, the document never specifically mentions that it intends to promote African languages or mother tongue education (that is something left to the assumption by the document's promotion of two languages). Additionally, the document states that a way of managing inclusivity would be to identify learning barriers and address these by all relevant support stakeholders. However, this is not an apparent reality in many cases (where we consider language as a barrier) as many learners are learning through a language that is not their mother tongue.

Moreover, the document aligns itself with the constitution in that it allows learners to learn through any one of the 11 official languages. More specifically, learning two official languages is a requirement in the foundation phase, one at the level of the 'Home Language' and one at the level of the 'First Additional Language' (Mohohlwane, 2020; DBE, 2011a; Foley, 2015). In addition to the first two official languages, students may take a third language at the Second Language level or higher, provided that the first two languages are not compromised by additional class time (Mohohlwane 2020; DBE, 2011a). The regulation further stipulates that if the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in Grades 1-3 does not correspond to the LoLT for Grades 4 and above, then the official language offered at First Additional Language level must be the LoLT for Grades 4 and above (Ntombela, 2020; Mohohlwane, 2020; DBE, 2011a) which could serve contrary to the aims of mother tongue education and bi/multilingualism and a move towards an early shift to English. All 11 official languages are offered in the CAPS documents for the Home Language, First Additional Language, and Second Additional Language (Ntombela, 2020; Mohohlwane, 2020; Foley, 2015). For the last two foundation phase subjects – Mathematics and Life Orientation – the CAPS documents are also available in all 11 official languages (Mohohlwane, 2020).

The above gives the impression that the policy document advocates for the use of African languages as the mother tongue and even attempts to promote the use of a third language. However, the fact that the document states that a second additional language could only be

added outside of the recommended teaching time and that it should not affect the promotion of the other two languages indicates that the document is more of a promotor of bilingualism than tri/multilingualism. This is notably surprising as Mohohlwane (2020) found that the latest 2016 census indicated an increase in multilingualism in the country. The document also speaks of languages as separate entities, where each language has its own document and recommendations, which might suggest that it espouses a monoglossic view of language (Heugh, 2013). The document, however, makes no mention or promotion for the mixing of languages or translanguaging strategies in its recommendation of approaches or methods to be used, nor does it stipulate that in any of its assessment requirements (Heugh, 2013).

Additionally, the document recommends the use of strategies to teach language such as the communicative language teaching approach, process approach and a text-based approach which promote exclusive use of the target language in the classroom, as far as possible. These approaches are necessarily in favour of code-switching in the classroom as they focus on exposing learners to as much English as possible. These approaches are also not based on principles of translanguaging and code-switching. The government's role out of its English Across the Curriculum strategy (DBE, 2013a) suggests that it strongly favours the development of leaners' English proficiency over other African languages (Heugh, 2013).

The document recognises that the ideal situation for learners would be to develop their basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) in their First Additional Language (FAL) in the Foundation Phase (FP) and their cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) needs to be built in Intermediate Phase (IP) so that learners can effectively use their FAL as LoLT by the time they reach Grade 7 (DBE, 2011b). The development of learners' BICS and CALP is essential; however, it is important to note that the document does not mention the important role learners' mother tongue plays in the development of an additional language, again signalling the fact that the policy document does not view one language as a resource for learning another. Instead, it views languages in an isolated manner – similar to how languages were viewed in the apartheid regime (Heugh, 2013). The document does not mention or seem to cater to the interdependent nature of languages which is significant because learners' skills in their mother tongue are often transferred when developing their second language, suggesting their proficiency in their mother tongue influences their development and proficiency in their additional language (Cummins, 2000; Mohammad & Taie; 2016).

DBE (2011a) appears to highlight the fact that learners do not have the necessary competence in their FAL when learners enter Grade 4 and need to start using the FAL as LoLT, but it

neglects to mention that there are two issues with an early swap in Grade 4 that not only impact the proficiency in L2 but it also impacts learners' exposure to developing their mother tongue. According to Cummins (2002), it takes approximately five to seven years for CALP to be developed. Thus, we may assume by the time learners reach Grade 4 they have not reached CALP in their mother tongue because many learners, especially those in disadvantaged communities, do not have access to varieties or texts valued in the school setting. The lack of L1 development thus influences L2 development and when students encounter this early swap, the result is lower proficiency for both the mother tongue and the FAL (Probyn et al., 2002). This model could also cultivate subtractive bilingualism – in some cases - instead of additive bilingualism as learners' mother tongue is used less and the L2 becomes the dominant language learners use, so learners are not exposed to their mother tongue in more formal and academic instances.

Thus, it is important to note that while the policy document recognises the use of all of the official languages, the diversified and multilingual context we find ourselves in is not realised or fostered in our policy document. The CAPS document describes language as follows:

2.1 LANGUAGES IN THE CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT

Language is a tool for thought and communication. It is also a cultural and aesthetic means commonly shared among a people to make better sense of the world they live in. Learning to use language effectively enables learners to acquire knowledge, to express their identity, feelings and ideas, to interact with others, and to manage their world. It also provides learners with a rich, powerful and deeply rooted set of images and ideas that can be used to make their world other than it is; better and clearer than it is. It is through language that cultural diversity and social relations are expressed and constructed, and it is through language that such constructions can be altered, broadened and refined.

(IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:8)

The excerpt above suggests that the document seems to deem language a tool through which learners communicate and can make sense of their world and the larger world. It also recognises that cultural diversity and social relations are expressed and created through language. This suggests that the document is an advocate for learners using language to create and construct meaning in their world, and many learners do this through both L1 and L2. In many cases, bilingual students will process their information and make sense of the world around them in both L1 and L2 (this often happens interchangeably in their brains) as explained by Cummins (2002). Therefore, it is surprising that the policy document does not make a provision in its policy for how learners conceptualise content in relation to languages. The document seems to promote multilingualism, additive bilingualism, and mother tongue education as some form of

strategy but does not specifically recommend it as a language teaching approach or policy to follow (Heugh, 2013).

Under the regulations for IP and the other phases, it is again required that two languages be studied like in FP, one of which must be the home language, but the second must be at least a First Additional Language level. Third languages may be studied with similar conditions as in FP (Ntombela, 2020; Mohohlwane, 2020). In contrast, the CAPS documents for non-linguistic subjects such as Mathematics are only available in English and Afrikaans (Ntombela, 2020; Mohohlwane, 2020). Additionally, The NSC is a national school-leaving examination taken at the end of 12 years of schooling. There are only two languages available for NSC exams – English or Afrikaans – except for the language subject, in which any of the 11 official languages can be used (Ntombela, 2020; Mohohlwane, 2020).

The above signals that despite the document seeming to mention its promotion of multilingualism and its alignment with the constitution and attempts to address past inequalities on various fronts, the policy stipulations and the way in which it is organised and implemented seem to contradict those statements, at least as far as the promotion of mother tongue education is concerned (Heugh, 2013; Mohohlwane, 2020). The document claims that it is in favour of students keeping their mother tongue as far as possible and that it should preferably be the LoLT of schools where possible. However, the CAPS document is not available in languages other than English and Afrikaans in all content subjects after Grade 3. This means that if a teacher were to teach Mathematics in isiXhosa, they would still have to consult a Mathematics policy document written in either English or Afrikaans. This leaves one with the impression that English and Afrikaans are still promoted at a greater level than the other African languages and that a change to English or Afrikaans LoLT is indirectly promoted through how the documents are set (Ntombela, 2020; Mohohlwane, 2020; Bua-Lit, 2018). The fact that the NCS content subject exam may only be written in English or Afrikaans also suggests that the CAPS document expects students to make a transition to English or Afrikaans LoLT somewhere in their schooling career; little provision is made for learners who choose to use their mother tongue as LoLT through their schooling career (Ntombela, 2020; Mohohlwane, 2020; Bua-Lit, 2018), which again speaks to the abasement and margination of African languages and the indirect cultivation of subtractive bilingualism. This also illustrates, according to Heugh (2013), that little consideration has been given to language (specifically African languages) used across the curriculum and that the English Across the Curriculum (EAC) strategy further marginalises African languages. This is also exemplary of the fact that those privileged under

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the apartheid regime – namely English and Afrikaans speakers – continue to be privileged under the new system.

The document hardly references the LiEP (1997) and the document seems to deviate from some of the policy recommendations, as indicated in the excerpt below.

6.POLICY: LANGUAGES AS SUBJECTS
7.
1.All learners shall offer at least one approved language as a subject in Grade 1 and Grade 2.
2.From Grade 3 (Std 1) onwards, all learners shall offer their language of learning and teaching and at least one additional approved language as subjects.
3.All language subjects shall receive equitable time and resource allocation.

The policy document speaks to learners being introduced to their additional language in Grade 3 and that all languages as subjects will be given equal time and resource allocation. However, the CAPS document speaks about the introduction of an additional language in Grade 1 and it also does not seem to establish the same time allocation for each language subject at every language level. Despite the fact that the document is available in all of the language subjects, the resources for each of these languages are not the same and the LTSM as provided on the DBE website is not equitable and available equally for all of these languages (Ntombela, 2020; Mohohlwane, 2020; Bua-Lit, 2018).

The policy document hardly promotes mother tongue education in its policy recommendations despite the document acknowledging that there is an issue with learners' FAL proficiency in Grade 4 and their inability to use their FAL as LoLT at this stage. The document takes a reactive approach to dealing with issues relating to mother tongue education. It requires teachers to follow their policy guidelines and provide learners with additional support to address this concern, instead of providing policy stipulations to encourage mother tongue education (which seems to be the primary concern). The document takes a reactive position to the language issues instead of a proactive position by focusing on providing teachers with policies, processes and strategies to promote multilingualism in their classrooms. The CAPS document is what schools, teachers, advisors and resource developers use to inform their practice, so if the document is not adequately promoting mother tongue education and following the country's language policy this suggests that schools, teachers, resource developers and advisors will likewise struggle to realise it in their contexts if they follow the document quite rigidly.

4.5 HL and FAL in CAPS

The CAPS document stipulates that language should be offered on two levels, namely Home Language (HL) and First Additional Language (FAL). The policy document acknowledges that due to the hegemony of English, many learners are learning through a language that is not their mother tongue. Thus, when the document refers to Home Language and First Additional Language, it claims to refer to proficiency levels instead of referring to learners' mother tongue and designated second language (DBE, 2011a). This suggests that even though there might be some similarities in the way in which HL and FAL are taught, there will and should be core differences between them (Yüksekokulu & Kampusu, 2009).

The CAPS document stipulates,

The **Home Language level** provides for language proficiency that reflects the basic interpersonal communication skills required in social situations and the cognitive academic skills essential for learning across the curriculum. Emphasis is placed on the teaching of the listening, speaking, reading and writing skills at this language level. This level also provides learners with a literary, aesthetic and imaginative ability that will provide them with the ability to recreate, imagine, and empower their understandings of the world they live in. However, the emphasis and the weighting for Listening and Speaking from Grade 7 onwards are lower than those of the reading and writing skills.

The First Additional Language refers to a language which is not a mother tongue but which is used for certain communicative functions in a society, that is, medium of learning and teaching in education. The curriculum provides strong support for those learners who will use their first additional language as a language of learning and teaching. By the end of Grade 9, these learners should be able to use their home language and first additional language effectively and with confidence for a variety of purposes, including learning.

In South Africa, many children start using their additional language, English, as the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in Grade 4. This means that they must reach a high level of competence in English by the end of Grade 3, and they need to be able to read and write well in English.

The **First Additional Language level** assumes that learners do not necessarily have any knowledge of the language when they arrive at school. The focus in the first few years of school is on developing learners' ability to understand and speak the language – basic interpersonal communication skills. In Grades 2 and 3 learners start to build literacy on this oral foundation. They also apply the literacy skills they have already learned in their Home Language.

(IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:8)

The statement above indicates the difference between EHL and EFAL as referred to by the policy document. It is important to note that learners need a higher proficiency level to perform optimally in EHL than EFAL. As a result, the document indicates that EFAL learners should be receiving more support than EHL. The IP EHL document and the IP EFAL documents are very similar in nature and even recommend the same language teaching approaches. However, the two documents do have slight differences whereby the EFAL document and the EHL

document have different recommendations for the time spent on certain skills, as illustrated below. It is not clear what point you are making here in relation to your study focus.

2.2 TIME ALLOCATION FOR THE FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE IN THE CURRICULUM

The teaching time for the First Additional Language in the Intermediate Phase is 5 hours per week. All language content is provided within a two-week cycle (10 hours). The following time allocation for the different language skills is suggested:

Skills	Time Allocation per Two-week Cycle (Hours)		
	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
*Listening & speaking (Oral)	2 hours	2 hours	2 hours
*Reading and Viewing	5 hours	5 hours	4 hours
*Writing & Presenting	2 hours	2 hours	3 hours
Language Structures and Conventions	1 hour	1 hour	1 hour
	*Language Structures and Conventions and their usage are integrated within the time allocation of the four language skills. There is also time allocated for formal practice. Thinking and reasoning skills are incorporated into the skills and strategies required for Listening and Speaking, for Reading and Viewing, and for Writing and Presenting.		

(IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:13)

Skills	Time Allocation per Two-week Cycle (Hours)		
	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
*Listening & Speaking (Oral)	2 hours		
*Reading and Viewing	5 hours		
*Writing & Presenting	4 hours		
Language Structures and Conventions	1 hour		
	*Language Structures and Conventions and their usage are integrated within the time allocation of the four language skills. There is also time allocated for formal practice. Thinking and reasoning skills are incorporated into the skills and strategies required for Listening and Speaking, for Reading and Viewing, and for Writing and Presenting.		

(IP HL CAPS, 2011:14)

These extracts indicate that the policy provides much more time for writing and presenting for the IP HL learners than for the IP FAL. This is quite significant because writing is a very cognitively demanding task and the document shows an understanding of the fact that FAL learners might not have the cognitive ability to master the skill without sufficient support. However, this difference illustrates that the document attempts some differentiation between the two subjects (by the slight difference in time allocation), but the two excerpts indicate that no significant progression and scaffolding of skills (relating to time allocations) across the grades in both HL and FAL. If we consider the language learning process, we will assume that

in Grade 4 learners might be required to focus more on listening, (considering the cognitive leap from Grade 3-4). This assumption would be significantly more relevant to the FAL context as learners in this subject are assumed to have only gained exposure to the language in Grade 1, suggesting they might need more time listening. As they move across grades, the amount of listening and even speaking would decrease and more time should be allocated to more cognitively demanding skills like reading with comprehension and writing.

Additionally, the document further distinguishes between the subjects by having more aspects of grammar covered in HL than in FAL. The EFAL document lists 14 aspects of grammar to be covered: nouns, determiners, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, tense, modals, adverbs, prepositions, connecting words, sentence structure, punctuation, vocabulary development, spelling and spelling rules (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:18-21). The EHL document, on the other hand, lists 23 features to cover: punctuation, spelling, parts of words, nouns, determiners, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, verb, tenses, moods, auxiliary/modals, concord, conjunctions and transition words, interjections, vocabulary development and figurative language, clauses, phrases, sentences, conditional sentences, passive voice and reported speech (IP EHL CAPS, 2011:20-24).

It also recommends fewer texts produced by learners in FAL than those in HL, as depicted below.

3.2.3 Length of Texts for First Additional Language (to be produced by learners)

Task	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Paragraph • Words	30–40	40–50	50–60
• Sentences	4-5 sentences	5-6 sentences	6-8 sentences
Oral creative texts, e.g. recounts, retelling or telling stories, short talks	1 min	1min	1-2 min
Written creative and information text, e.g. recounts, stories, reports	At least 50 words 1 to 2 paragraphs	At least 100 words 2-4 paragraphs	At least 150 words 3-5 paragraphs
Longer transactional texts, e.g. letters	Content only 40–60 words	60–80 words	80–100 words
Shorter texts, e.g. • Messages, notes	20–30 words	30–40	40–60
• Diary entries, descriptions,	30–40 words	40–50 words	50–60 words

(IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:30)

3.2.3 Length of Texts for Home Language (to be produced by learners)

Task	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
• Paragraph	50 – 60 words	60 – 80 words	80 – 100 words
• Words	5 – 6 sentences	6 – 8 sentences	8 – 10 sentences
• Sentences	2-3 paragraphs	3-5 paragraphs	4-6 paragraphs
Oral creative texts, e.g. recounts, retelling or telling stories, short talks	2 min	2min	2-3 min
Essay	100 – 120 words	120 – 140 words	140 – 150 words
	2-3 paragraphs	3-5 paragraphs	4-6 paragraphs
Short story, inc folktale	120 – 140 words	140 – 160 words	160 – 170 words
	3-5 paragraphs	4-6 paragraphs	6 – 8 paragraphs
Summary	40 – 50 words	50 – 60 words	60 – 70 words
Longer transactional texts, e.g. letters	Body text 60 – 80 words	80 – 100 words	100 – 120 words
Shorter texts	30 – 40 words	40 – 60 words	60 – 80 words

(IP EHL CAPS, 2011:32)

It also recommends that HL learners engage with and create longer texts than FAL learners.

3.2.4 Length of Texts for Home Language (for learners to engage with)

Task	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Longer listening comprehension texts e.g. story, interviews, plays, news reports	150-200 / up to 5 mins	200-250 / up to 5 mins	250-300 / up to 5 mins
Shorter listening comprehension texts e.g. announcements, information texts, instructions, directions	60-70 words / 1-2 mins	70-80 words / 1-2 mins	80-100 words / 1-2 mins
Reading comprehension/ intensive reading texts	150-200 words	200-250 words	250-300 words

(IP EHL CAPS, 2011:32)

3.2.4 Length of Texts for First Additional Language (for learners to engage with)

Task	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Longer listening comprehension texts e.g. story, interviews, plays, news reports	100–150/up to 5 mins	100–200/up to 5 mins	150–250/up to 5 mins
Shorter listening comprehension texts e.g. announcements, information texts, instructions, directions	40-60 words/1-2 mins	50-70 words/1-2 mins	60-80 words/1-2 mins
Reading comprehension/ intensive reading texts	100-150 words	150-200 words	200-250 words

(IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:30)

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Furthermore, there is a recommendation made that HL learners will gain and therefore are to encounter a greater amount of vocabulary than that FAL learners, as displayed below.

3.2.5 Vocabulary to be achieved by Home Language learners

	Term	1	2	3	4
Vocabulary Common spoken words	Grade 4	1700–2500	1850–3000	2000–3500	3500-4000
	Grade 5	2400–4000	2700–4250	3000–4500	4500-5000
	Grade 6	3500–5000	3700–5250	4000–5500	5500-6000
Reading vocabulary (new words)	Grade 4	800–1900 (75–250)	900–2200 (75–250)	1000–2500 (75–250)	2500-3000 (75–250)
	Grade 5	1500–3000	1750–3300	2000–3500	3500-4000
	Grade 6	2200–3800	2400–4200	2700–4600	3000–5000

(IP EHL CAPS, 2011:33)

3.2.5 Vocabulary to be achieved by First Additional Language learners

	Term	1	2	3	4
Vocabulary Common spoken words	Grade 4	1600–2000	1700–2500	1850–3000	2000–3500
	Grade 5	2200–3750	2400–4000	2700–4250	3000–4500
	Grade 6	3250–4750	3500–5000	3700–5250	4000–5500
Reading vocabulary (new words)	Grade 4	750–1700 (75–250)	800–1900 (75–250)	900–2200 (75–250)	1000–2500 (75–250)
	Grade 5	1250–2700	1500–3000	1750–3300	2000–3500
	Grade 6	2200–3800	2400–4200	2700–4600	3000–5000

(IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:30)

In addition, in terms of the two-week cycle, there too seem to be differences in what is expected for EHL and EFAL learners. Below are excerpts from the Grade 4 EFAL Term 1 Week 1-2 and Grade 4 Term 1 Week 1-2.

GRADE 4 TERM 1				
SKILLS	LISTENING AND SPEAKING (ORAL)	READING & VIEWING	WRITING & PRESENTING	LANGUAGE STRUCTURES & CONVENTIONS
WEEK 1 – 2	**Listens to story** Choose from contemporary realistic fiction/traditional stories/personal accounts/adventure/real life stories Text from the textbook or Teacher's Resource File Answers simple questions • Retells the story in the right sequence • Names characters in the story correctly • Expresses feelings about the story **Gives a simple personal recount** • Selects from own experience • Selects appropriate topic • Stays on topic • Tells event in sequence **Practises Listening and Speaking** (choose one for daily practice) • Performs a simple rhyme, poem or song • Responds physically to instructions • Plays a simple language game	**Reads a story** Text from the textbook or reader/s or Teacher's Resource File • Pre-reading: predicts from title and pictures • Uses reading strategies, e.g. making predictions, uses phonic and contextual clues • Answers questions about the text • Explains the story line and identifies the main characters • Retells the story in sequence • Expresses feelings about the story **Does comprehension activity on the text (oral or written)** • Discusses new vocabulary from the read text • Spells ten words from read text • Uses a dictionary to revise alphabetical order **Reflects on texts read during independent/pair reading** • Retells story or main ideas	**Writes about the story** • Writes sentences about the story (e.g. summary or own ending) • Writes sentences to expresses opinions or feelings about the story) • Uses punctuation correctly **Writes a simple personal recount using a frame,** (e.g. yesterdayl....... Then I..........) From the textbook or Teacher's Resource File • Uses the frame • Selects from own experience • Selects appropriate topic • Stays on topic • Tells event in sequence **Creates a personal dictionary** • Labels pages with letters of alphabet • Enters 5 words and meanings (drawing/sentence using the word/ explanation of word)	**Spelling and punctuation** Spells familiar words correctly, using a personal dictionary Uses the dictionary to check spelling and meanings of words Punctuates correctly: full stop, capital and small letters **Working with words and sentences** Understands and uses countable nouns (e.g. book – books) Understands and uses uncountable nouns (e.g. chalk) Begins to use determiners such as one, two, etc. and first, second, last. Builds on understanding and use of simple past **Vocabulary in context** Synonyms (words that are similar in meaning, e.g. soft/gentle)

(IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:33)

GRADE 4 TERM 1				
SKILLS	LISTENING AND SPEAKING (ORAL)	READING & VIEWING	WRITING & PRESENTING	LANGUAGE STRUCTURES & CONVENTIONS
WEEK 1 – 2	**Listens to a short story** Text from the textbook or TRF • Introductory activities: prediction • Identifies characters • Recalls main idea • Answers oral questions **Retells a story** • Retells events in correct sequence • Names the characters correctly	**Reads a short story** Text from the textbook or TRF Pre-reading: predicting from title and pictures • Uses reading strategies: making predictions, uses phonic and contextual clues • Discusses new vocabulary from the read text • Identifies and comments on the characters • Gives and explains own feelings about the text • Reads aloud with clear pronunciation, phrasing, tempo, • Uses a dictionary **Reflects on texts read independently** • Retells story or main ideas in 3 to 5 sentences • Expresses emotional response to texts read. • Relates to own life	**Writes a story based on a personal experience/ event** • Chooses appropriate content for the topic • Uses the story structure as a frame • Includes characters • Uses appropriate grammar, spelling and punctuation. • Uses a range of vocabulary related to topic • Creates a personal dictionary Uses the writing process • Planning / pre-writing, • Drafting, • Revising, • Editing, • Proofreading, and • Presenting	**Word level work:** common nouns, proper nouns, countable and uncountable nouns **Sentence level work:** simple sentences **Spelling and punctuation:** full stop, capital and lower case (small) letters

(IP HL CAPS, 2011:36)

The above excerpt show that the FAL document consists of more detail than the HL document. This could be a means of illustrating the difference in support between FAL and HL as indicated in the document's description of the language levels. For example, the 'Listening and Speaking' section illustrates that the FAL and HL learners are both expected to listen to a text

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and respond orally to that text. In this regard, both language levels allow students the opportunity to practice listening and speaking. However, there is a significant difference between what is expected of learners at each level when practicing the skill of listening. Even though students at both levels have to retell the text they listened to in the correct sequence, answer questions about the story, and name or identify characters, the HL learners are required to make certain predictions that are not listed at the FAL level. This is significant as predications are listed as a means of activating learners' background knowledge and an important part of the pre-listening stage. Predictions are also an important aspect when it comes to fostering comprehension. Thus, this is an activity or expectation we would expect to see at the FAL level as a means of scaffolding the listening process and comprehension.

Also, HL learners are expected to identify the main ideas of the text that they have listened to (an item not expected of the FAL learners) signalling differentiation in the document between the language levels. However, the FAL learners are expected to express their feelings about the text they have listened to and provide a simple personal recount which the HL learners are not expected to do. In this regard, it appears as if the FAL learners are expected to do more than their HL counterparts. The FAL learners have to respond to instructions, perform an item, or play a fun language game which could serve as enrichment opportunities. While we understand that the FAL learners might need more time to listen, speak and give responses in the target language, this seems slightly unfair as FAL learners may feel overburdened with tasks because both FAL and HL have two hours for 'Listening and Speaking' in the two-week cycle but more is expected of FAL learners than HL learners.

The 'Reading and Viewing' aspects over the two-week cycle for both subjects seemed similar. The HL subject does, however, require an emotional response from learners and asks them to relate the text to their own lives. They are also expected to read aloud with clear pronunciation, phrasing and tempo which shows an attempt at differentiation between the two subjects. Nevertheless, having an emotional response to the text and relating it to a learner's own life is important in reading with comprehension. So it is problematic that those key practices were not included for the FAL learners. Reading aloud with a focus on pronunciation, tempo and phrasing (with support) are skills FAL learners may benefit from too.

The policy document also seems to differentiate between the two subjects by recommending that the HL learners write a story based on a personal event or experience. They must create a dictionary and use the writing process to facilitate the experience. The FAL learners are also required to create a dictionary and must write personal recounts (for which they should use a

writing frame). Even though the document attempts to scaffold the FAL learners' writing by the use of a writing frame, the document does not clearly stipulate that the writing process should be used in the FAL subject – alarming as the document stipulates that a process approach is used to scaffold writing. The FAL learners are also required to respond to the story they read in writing which is a task the HL learners do not have to complete even though the HL learners have four hours reserved for writing and presenting and the FAL learners only have two hours allocated to this skill. This would again signal that FAL learners are required to complete more tasks in the two weeks with less time allocated to the activity than HL learners. Even though the document provides learners with a writing frame, they may struggle with the demand of content to cover, especially because they do not have the writing process to guide them through the writing journey. Furthermore, when considering the difference in language structure and conventions, it seems as if the FAL document is more detailed than the HL document. Even though the HL document focuses on a few more items – such as proper and common nouns and simple sentences – the FAL grammar is more detailed.

The document also recommends that the HL learners focus on simple sentences, which is again not a recommendation for the FAL learners. However, the FAL learners must focus on the simple past tense which would suggest they have to encounter simple sentences in order to do so. This might seem more cognitively demanding than the simple sentence the HL learners have to focus on because not only do they need to understand simple sentences, but they also need to understand the past tense. The FAL subject requires learners to use correct spelling; and they are required to use dictionaries to assist them, indicating some level of support provided for the FAL learners. However, FAL learners are also recommended to focus on synonyms, determiners and dictionary use which is not recommended for HL learners. Again, we understand that FAL learners require more exposure and comprehensible input than the HL learners. However, additional grammatical practice might not be the solution as learners only have one hour to spend on language structures and conventions over the two weeks. Again, the FAL learners have more components to cover within the same timeframe as their HL counterparts.

Although the EHL and FAL documents have similarities regarding assessments and the skills being assessed, there are key differences too. The programme of assessments for both documents (as displayed below) illustrates that the HL learners have five assessments for Term 1 whereas their FAL counterparts have six assessments for Term 1. This is alarming as FAL learners have two hours less content time than their HL peers yet are expected to complete an

additional assessment. Furthermore, it is interesting to notice that the additional assessment FAL learners need to complete is reading comprehension, significant as the document allocates five hours for reading and viewing to both subjects even though one is expected to be assessed more extensively. One would expect some difference in assessment as the subjects do not pitch language at the same level. However, one would perhaps expect the HL learners to be assessed on both reading aloud and comprehension as the document states the subject is pitched at a higher level. However, surprisingly the FAL learners are required to complete a comprehension activity too which highlights a difference between the two language levels, but it is as progressive a difference as one would expect.

The Programme of Assessment table

TERM 1					
Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6	
Task 1	%	Task 1	%	Task 1	%
Narrative / descriptive text		Narrative / descriptive text		Narrative / descriptive text	
Listens to and speaks about family / friends / pets / favourite sport / current issues	25	Listens to and speaks about family / friends / pets / favourite sport / current issues	20	Listens to and speaks about family / friends / pets / favourite sport / current issues	20
Language Structures and Conventions in context	15	Language Structures and Conventions in context	15	Language Structures and Conventions in context	15
Reads aloud	20	Reads aloud	20	Reads aloud	15
Reflects on stories/text read independently	15	Reflects on stories/text read independently	15	Reflects on stories/text read independently	20
Writes a-paragraph about family / friends / pets / favourite sport / current issues	25	Writes about family / friends/ pets / favourite sport / current issues	30	Writes about family / friends/ pets / favourite sport / current issues	30
Total	100	Total	100	Total	100

(IP EHL CAPS, 2011:94)

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The Programme of Assessment table

TERM 1					
Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6	
Task 1	%	Task 1	%	Task 1	%
Listens to and speaks about a story /gives a personal or factual recount	20	Listens to and speaks about a story/gives a factual recount/takes part in a conversation or role-play	15	Listens to and speaks about a story / factual recount/ takes part in a conversation or discussion	15
Reads aloud a prepared text	10	Reads aloud a prepared text	10	Reads aloud a prepared text	10
Language Structures and Conventions in context	15	Language Structures and Conventions in context	15	Language Structures and Conventions in context	15
Reading comprehension of a story/factual recount/news report	20	Reading comprehension of a story/information text/	20	Reading comprehension of a story/factual recount/ social text	20
Reflects on stories/text read independently	10	Reflects on stories/text read independently	10	Reflects on stories/text read independently	10
Writes a paragraph: personal recount using a frame/ description of people using a frame	25	Writes a paragraph: a factual recount/ description of people/message	30	Writes three paragraphs based on the theme of the story	30
Total	100	Total	100	Total	100

(IP EHL CAPS, 2011:99)

The policy documents for both IP EHL and EFAL are similar even though there are general instances where the documents attempt to provide some form of differentiation between the two subjects. However, in regard to time allocation, the two-week cycle, the workload and assessments, it is evident that the IP EHL and IP EFAL subjects are very similar in cognitive demand. In some cases, the workload for the EFAL learners would even be more strenuous with less time provided to practice and scaffold a skill or assessment.

4.6 CAPS as a Guide

The CAPS document was introduced as a means of streamlining the curriculum and assisting teachers by giving clarity about what to teach, when to teach it as well and how to assess it (CAPS, 2012). However, despite the DBE's efforts to streamline, teachers find the document too restrictive, leaving little room for autonomy and contextualised teaching (Singh, 2015; Chetty, 2019). Thus, this section attempts to discuss the document in relation to some of the prescriptions it makes. The document states,

> *The National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-12 builds on the previous curriculum but also updates it and aims to provide clearer specification of what is to be taught and learnt on a term-by-term basis.* (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:3)

This statement illustrates the prescriptive intention in telling teachers what they must teach and what learners should learn every term. Although the document's intention might have been sincere in guiding teachers and establishing uniformity, this model seems problematic as many teachers, especially those in low-income communities, find themselves restricted by strict prescriptions in challenging contexts (Kileo, 2017). In many cases where contextual issues influence curriculum delivery, teachers need a degree of autonomy and agency to adapt what, how, and when certain content is taught and assessed. The document, however, leaves little room for that, stripping teachers of autonomy and professional competency (Singh, 2015; Kileo, 2017; Mokgohloa, 2018; Hoadley, 2018).

All the documents also indicate how much time teachers should spend on various concepts, skills or topics. Page 4 displays an example of the teaching time for both IP EFAL and IP EHL subjects. It clearly indicates how much time a teacher should spend on a particular skill in the subject. This is another example of the prescriptive nature of the document as it dictates to teachers how time must be utilised per skill. While it is important to provide teachers with a framework for teaching (as that is part of what a curriculum should do as indicated in 4.3), when this becomes too rigid it can become problematic, especially if the document has certain redundancies or contradictions that teachers and advisors must follow. This means that inaccuracies in the document would then lead to inaccuracies in advisor support and classroom practice.

The excerpts below indicate some of the texts that should be taught across grades within the intermediate phase.

3.2.1 Spread of texts table

	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Term 1			
Weeks 1&2	Story, personal recount	Story; personal recount	Story; language game, word puzzle
Weeks 3&4	Information text, e.g. news report/ factual recount, map	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/tables/ diagrams/ mind-maps/maps/pictures/ graphs; conversation; factual recount	Information text: factual recount e.g. news report/factual account; letter; media text, e.g. advert; conversation
Weeks 5&6	Story and descriptions of people or characters	Story, role-play, description of people; invitation; message	Story; personal recounts e.g. diary/ diary entries
Weeks 7&8	Information text e.g. procedures; instructions, lists	Information text e.g. procedures; instructions; factual recount, language game	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/tables/ diagrams/ mind-maps/maps/pictures/ graphs; procedures; instructions; definitions, factual recounts, word puzzle
Weeks 9&10	Song/ poem, game	Poem/ song	Poem; description of a person; description of an object/animal/ plant/place; language game
Term 2			
Weeks 1&2	Story, personal recount, message	Story, conversation; book/story review	Story
Weeks 3&4	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ pictures/graphs; poster; directions, description of an object, visual text	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/tables/ diagrams/ mind-maps/maps/pictures/ graphs; descriptions of object/s/plants/	Information text from across the curriculum, e.g. report; description of object/animal/ plant/place; visual text, e.g. charts/tables/ diagrams/

	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Term 3			
Weeks 1&2	Story, description of person/animal/ character; dialogue, book review	Story; oral description of places/ people; personal recount	Story; personal letter; diary; oral descriptions of places/animals/ plants/objects
Weeks 3&4	Information text, e.g. factual recount/news article/report; visual text, e.g. poster/ notices	Short talk; information text with visuals, e.g. charts/tables/ diagrams/ mindmaps/maps/ pictures/graphs; mind map summary	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/tables/ diagrams/ mindmaps/ maps/pictures/graphs; talk; survey; report
Weeks 5&6	Story; poem	Story; poem	Story; poem
Weeks 7&8	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ pictures; descriptions of places/plants/ animals/objects; and procedures	Information text e.g. procedures; conversation; language game; information text from across the curriculum, e.g. report	Information texts e.g. procedures; instructions; information text from across the curriculum, e.g. report; language game; mind map summary
Weeks 9&10	Play, role-play; dialogue; book review	Play; conversation; dialogue	Conversation, play

(IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:22-23)

These excerpts above show that certain texts and descriptors appear repeated across various weeks, terms and grades. It seems as if the texts are randomly spread across the year. Various texts are also repeated which means that learners may not gain exposure to a variety of texts if a teacher continuously decides to focus on one text type incessantly. It is unclear whether there is any intention of introducing texts in a more progressive or scaffolded manner by perhaps grouping similar text types with similar features and covering a grouping or related texts per term or grade. When we consider this in relation to the document's prescriptive nature, we can surmise that teachers following a model that does not always lead to cognitive progression for their learners may be detrimental to classroom pedagogy.

The document is filled with prescriptions which illustrate to teachers how they must teach, what they must teach and when they must teach it. This is concerning as it leaves teachers with very little autonomy (as indicated in 4.3) and resembles frameworks modelled by the apartheid regime (Hoadley; 2018). Also, the CAPS document has numerous contradictions, ambiguities, and (in the case of mother tongue-based education) significant gaps (De Lange, Winberg & Dippenaar, 2020). This is a grave concern when we consider its prescriptive nature because teachers, subject advisors and textbook developers are all prompted to oblige with this contested policy document. Thus, the current education crisis and the latest PIRLS report (DBE, 2023) should not come as a shock considering the myriad issues regarding the CAPS curriculum (De Lange et al., 2020; Du Plessis, 2021; Kileo, 2017; Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014).

4.7 CAPS' understanding of a text-based approach

The current theme directly corresponds and presumes to address the sub research question, *To what extent is a text-based approach realised in the CAPS document?* as well as the study's objectives. The following sub-themes discuss the theme in more detail.

4.7.1 Valued approaches

As previously mentioned in Chapter 2, there has been a global shift in the valued language teaching approaches. Research has identified newer approaches and methodologies, moving away from more behavioural methods, which lead to enhanced language proficiency (Richard & Rogers, 2014; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Van Heerden, 2008). However, many of these approaches, including a text-based approach, are often not realised in classroom pedagogy (Van Heerden, 2008; Akinyeye, 2012). There are various reasons why certain approaches are used in classrooms even though the language policy documents refer to some

of these approaches. As a result, this sub-theme will specifically discuss the approaches and methodologies valued in the CAPS document to address the study's first research question and objective. This sub-theme may also later assist with the contextualisation of subject advisors' perceptions as they must follow policy documents' prescriptions. The Intermediate Phase English First Additional Language CAPS document specifically refers to three major language teaching approaches namely, the text-based approach, the communicative approach, and the process approach to writing. According to the Intermediate Phase English First Additional Language CAPS document.

> *The approaches to teaching language are text-based, communicative and process orientated. The text-based approach and the communicative approach are both dependent on the continuous use and production of texts. A text-based approach explores how texts work. The purpose of a text-based approach is to enable learners to become competent, confident and critical readers, writers and viewers of texts. It involves listening to, reading, viewing and analysing texts to understand how they are produced and what their effects are. Through this critical interaction, learners develop the ability to evaluate texts. The text-based approach also involves producing different kinds of texts for particular purposes and audiences. This approach is informed by an understanding of how texts are constructed. This approach will require quite a lot of modelling, support and scaffolding in the First Additional Language classroom. Suggestions for these are built into the teaching plans.*
>
> *A communicative approach suggests that when learning a language, a learner should have a great deal of exposure to the target language and many opportunities to practise or produce the language by communicating for social or practical purposes. Language learning should be a natural, informal process carried over into the classroom where the literacy skills of reading/viewing and writing/presenting are learned in a 'natural' way – learners read by doing a great deal of reading and learn to write by doing a range of writing. (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:13)*

One of the valued approaches in the policy document is the communicate approach to language teaching. This approach is popular globally because of its move away from more traditional approaches and its focus on developing second language learning (Richards & Rogers, 2003; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). The CAPS document provides teachers with the above definition of the approach and how they should go about implementing it. However, this definition is limiting as the approach encompasses more than what was stipulated in the paragraph above. Even though some of the approach's core values are mentioned in the definition, it does not clarify for readers the notion that as a result of the approach's natural

method of language learning, little value falls on the explicit teaching of grammar (Yambi, 2018; Kamhuber, 2010). This omission is concerning as it may lead to teachers and subject advisors experiencing an inaccurate or inadequate portrayal of the approach, potentially impacting the way they enforce the approach in their classroom practice, especially when teaching grammar.

Even though the document mentions core features of the communicative approach such as having language learning occur in a natural way, it is still limiting as the definition of the approach does not specifically mention taking a learner-centred approach when teaching the language. Communicative language teaching (CLT) favours learners working collaboratively and the teacher stepping into the role of facilitator. The document does, however, previously refer to the use of guided reading practices by stating,

> *Use guided group reading and independent/pair reading methods and gradually get learners to do more and more independent reading.* (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:10)

However, this is not mentioned with specific reference to CLT. Therefore, the document does not provide its readers with enough specificity regarding CTL in its definition. For example, the document also neglects to mention that within the CLT approach, learners are free to make errors as this will help them gain communicative competence (Alharbi, 2020). This omission may negatively affect teachers who have received their qualification before democracy as they may not be familiar with this approach, and if the CAPS document is their only source of reference, it might breed confusion or inaccurate implementation (Hoadley, 2018).

The document also fails to mention any of the critiques relating to the CLT approach, giving the impression that the approach is close to perfect and leavings little room for any questions about its efficiency in various contexts. The approach has three specific critiques worth mentioning: that (in the school setting) it might not sufficiently provide students who have limited access to the target language with sufficient exposure to it; the hours allocated to the second language may not be sufficient (Richards & Rodgers, 2003); and that the approach's emphasis on the use of language over grammatical systems of language may put students who have limited access to the language at a disadvantage, as the grammar taught functionally may provide teachers and students with a wider range of linguistic tools to use in a real context (Yambi, 2018; Van Heerden, 2008). Furthermore, emphasis on using the target language also seems in contrast to bilingual models of language learning, where the first language is strategically welcomed in the second language class to promote L2 development. These critiques are significant to our South African context because the policy document only allows

learners five hours in their additional language in IP and four hours in their additional language in SP, potentially rendering the approach inefficient as learners with limited access to English might require more than four to five hours in the target language before they display signs of natural language development as suggested by the approach. Secondly, many teachers might also want to teach textual features and grammar explicitly to support certain learners who require such support, but teachers might be reluctant to do so because they are following a communicative approach. Also, while our Language in Education Policy promotes additive bilingualism because of its various benefits for language development, this approach does not seem to value learners' L1 in the context of its implementation which may have serious implications when applied in our South African context.

The process approach is another approach that the document recommends and regards as esteemed. However, the Intermediate Phase English First Additional document mentions a process-orientated approach to language teaching without providing a definition, and as a result, the Senior Phase English First Additional Language CAPS document was used as a source for a definition of the approach. The SP FAL CAPS document describes the process approach as follows,

> *The process approach is used when learners produce oral and written texts. The learners engage in different stages of the listening, speaking, reading, and writing processes. They must think of the audience and the purpose during these processes. This will enable them to communicate and express their thoughts in a natural way. For example, the teaching of writing does not focus on the product only but also focus on the process of writing. During process writing learners are taught how to generate ideas, to think about the purpose and audience, to write drafts, to edit their work and to present a written product that communicates their thoughts.* (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:10)

Although the IP EFAL CAPS (2011) document does not provide its readers with a specific definition of the approach, it does give some detail about the approach under its reading and viewing and writing and presentation sections, where the document illustrates the process to reading (pre-, during and post-) and the process to writing (pre-writing/planning, drafting, revision, editing/proofreading and publishing/presenting). This shows that the document provides the SP EFAL teachers with slightly more information regarding the process approach than the IP EFAL teachers. But this does not seem particularly fair when teachers of both phases are required to teach and implement the approaches adequately.

Once again, the document provides insufficient information when defining an approach, only defining a approach based purely on its emphasis on following a specific process of reading, writing, speaking and listening. The policy document omits mentioning that this approach is embedded in cognitive approaches and a skill like writing is viewed as an abstract practice which then portrays the approach as individualistic (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014). Therefore, the approach neglects the social and conceptual factors that influence how a text is produced. This is important to note because the document's definition of the communicative approach refers to group work (guided reading) and how that is an important step before individual construction should occur. This illustrates some disjuncture between these two approaches which is likely confusing for teachers and advisors to navigate. The documents' neglect to elaborate on or more thoroughly distinguish between the approaches can cause numerous implications for teachers who are left to implement the approach without sufficient explanation and guidance (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014).

Like the explanation of the communicative approach, this approach's definition also lacks any criticism or contextual considerations. This approach is generally criticised for not considering external influences (outside of the individual) which help guide purposes, establish relationships, and eventually structure writing" (Hyland, 2003). It is imperative for advisors to be aware of this aspect because second language learners who do not have sufficient linguistic capital may not be able to display proficient language development. Also, additional language learners of English with limited exposure to texts and grammar might not necessarily go through similar composing techniques and processes as native or home language level speakers (Harper & De Jong, 2004; Hyland, 2003; Van Heerden 2008; Onozava, 2010). Policy documents must speak to these contextual issues as they influence the types of support subject advisors provide teachers and the way in which these issues are addressed in classrooms.

In addition to the above-mentioned approaches, the CAPS document also refers to text-based approaches. According to the SP EFAL CAPS document, a text-based approach,

> *explores how texts work. The purpose of a text-based approach is to enable learners to become competent, confident, and critical readers, writers and viewers of texts. It involves listening to, reading, viewing and analysing texts to understand how they are produced and what their effects are. Through this critical interaction, learners develop the ability to evaluate texts. The text-based approach also involves producing different kinds of texts for particular purposes and audiences. This approach is informed by an understanding of how texts are constructed.* (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:9)

Also, The IP EFAL document shares the same definition as the SP document, but it contains an additional section.

> *This approach will require quite a lot of modelling, support and scaffolding in the First Additional Language classroom. Suggestions for these are built into the teaching plans.* (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:13)

The document provides quite a succinct definition of a text-based approach but like the short definitions of the previous approaches, omissions regarding some of the core features of the approach could be detrimental to the teaching and learning process. Even though there is mention of the use, analysis and production of texts, the definition is still limiting in that there are various schools of thought within text-based theory. These various traditions of the text-based approach differ from each other because each tradition is suited in a specific context. Therefore, it is assumed that the document would be specific about which tradition (ESP, SFL or NR) it follows, to give advisors and teachers more clarity about what should be enforced in classrooms. Some might argue that it is not the responsibility of the document to provide an in-depth description of all of the theories and approaches it endorses within the structure of its planning. However, considering our South African context and the fact that teachers struggled to comprehend the pedagogical approaches and theories since the OBE's introduction, we can suggest the value of more emphasis on these aspects to allow for a richer understanding when implementing the curriculum.

Schools within the text-based field view genre as more than just types of literary texts. The definition of genre has evolved to a text which explains regularities of purpose, form and situated social action, which is believed to lead to a scaffolded approach to language teaching that improves students' schematic consciousness of genres and thereby overall language proficiency, especially writing development (Hyland, 2003; Hyon 1996; Van Heerden, 2008). This broader definition of genre, central to genre theory and a text-based approach, should be included in the policy documents for advisor and teacher reference who might not be aware of how the term is used in this context (or how the meaning of the term can shift between contexts).

The policy document's definition of a text-based approach not specifically mention anything about the importance of register when using the approach, nor does it refer to explicitly teaching text structures and linguistic features in context with specific use of functional grammar. The document's definition does not mention some core features of a text-based approach and how this must be adequately modelled and scaffolded through the teaching plan (which resonates

with aspects of the approach). Unfortunately, the omission of some of the core features within the approach can lead to confusion for advisors and teachers who are required to implement the approach.

Overall, the policy document's omission of core and critical information about the three approaches it endorses for language teaching is a cause for concern as it may be assumed that the three approaches can smoothly be amalgamated to promote language development. However, this amalgamation is confusing as while these approaches might have some similarities in that they are all learner-centred approaches and used in second language theories globally, they also have core distinctive differences and the documents' inability to delineate these distinctions is detrimental. For example, the document stipulates,

> *The approaches to teaching language are text-based, communicative and process orientated. The **text-based approach** and the **communicative approach** are both dependent on the continuous use and production of texts.* (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:13)

However, the document does not clearly state distinctive differences of these approaches anywhere within. This is of concern because teachers and advisors who are not familiar with these approaches in their formal training will not be able to make the distinction between the approaches. The policy document seems to expect readers to make distinctions intuitively. For example, the communicative approach and process approach require teachers to be classroom facilitators who encourage a learner-centred approach. However, the text-based approach requires teachers to be mediators in the classroom. Although this still encourages learner-centred learning, there is a shift in the role of the teacher (Van Heerden, 2008; 2015). While the approaches share some similarities, again, there are core differences that cannot be ignored. For example, genre and process approach conventionally have certain stages or processes to follow.

The text-based and communicative approaches both emphasise group work and using authentic texts in the classroom. Both the process and communicative approach do not place the same emphasis on teaching grammar as the text-based theorists do. Yet, by conflating these approaches in the policy document, the specificity of each approach has been lost (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014; Hyland; 2003). As much as the text-based approach promotes a system or process to language teaching and as much as it advocates for the use of authentic texts and group work, a core value of the approach is its emphasis on register, functional grammar and the explicit teaching of grammar. But this contradicts some of the core beliefs within the other

two approaches. The blending of these three approaches requires teachers and advisors who can read between the lines by tapping into their former knowledge of the three approaches.

Subject advisors and teachers also need to understand the contextual limitations of each approach. Given the limiting definitions the policy document provides, this might be a challenge for any teacher or advisors, but more so for teachers and advisors who have had extremely limited access to the three approaches in their own education and training (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014; Van Heerden 2015). This conflation of the three approaches without specificity allows us to ponder why the approaches are blended when they are so different in nature. And it is important to mention that the language curriculum mirrors the overall curriculum in that it too is conflated with various conflicting ideologies, according to Hoadley (2018).

The CAPS document's inconsistency about the information for teachers and advisors within the various phases further enlarges the information gap with regard to the approaches. Even though it is not the core responsibility of a curriculum policy to provide teachers with literature regarding the various recommended theories, we would assume the document would at least refer teachers to specific additional literature and resources as many teachers are unfamiliar with the approaches in the CAPS document and would benefit from additional resources for clarity, especially as the document is only offering minimal definitions. Additionally, as stated in 4.3, it is not the intention of a curriculum to provide teachers with such details; however, many South African teachers are unfamiliar with these approaches as they received their training under the previous dispensation and traditional curriculum (Van Heerden, 2015). And considering the inadequate training teachers have received regarding OBE and all the curriculum revisions, it would be beneficial if the document provided more detailed teacher support, especially in light of its prescriptive nature (Van Heerden, 2015; Hoadley, 2018).

4.7.2 Method of Teaching Literature

When discussing the notion of literature studies and how this relates to text-based theory as encapsulated in CAPS, we must understand how the term *genre* fits in this context. The perception of genre has grown outside of its traditional literary connotation, where it was initially viewed as the written text with various features to describe literary text types (Van Heerden, 2008; Hyon, 1996; Carstens, 2009). The SP EFAL CAPS document describes the approach to teaching literature as follows.

The teaching of literature should focus on teaching for comprehension and will include the reading process strategies (pre-reading, reading, and post/after reading). The main reason for reading literature in the classroom is to develop in learners a sensitivity to a special use of language that is more refined, literary, figurative, symbolic, and deeply meaningful than much of what else they may read. While most literary texts are forms of entertainment, amusement, or revelation, serious writers create novels, plays and poems because they have ideas, thoughts and issues; principles, ideologies and beliefs that they most want to share with or reveal to their prospective readers. Their imaginative use of language is an added method of revealing, reinforcing, and highlighting their ideas. (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:10)

The above paragraph clearly mentions the reading process strategies (pre-, during and after reading) to be used when teaching literature. The document regards the process approach as a key component in the teaching and learning of literature. The document further explains its core reasons for why literature must be taught: providing learners with examples and the opportunity to explore more complicated and sophisticated text types. The way the document describes the study of literary texts suggests that this is significantly different from the study of other text types. However, according to Slater and McCrocklin (2016), the language of literature is like the use of language in any text as it involves the writer making certain linguistic choices to achieve a purpose. Thus, a literary text within a text-based approach is perceived as a linguistic object, just like any other text (Slater & McCrocklin, 2016). A text (including a literary text) is viewed as a composite of patterns where each of these patterns carries meaning and the goal would be for teachers to assist students in language-based analysis by showing them how to find these patterns within the literature (Slater & McCrocklin, 2016).

This signals something interesting because within a genre approach, language is viewed through the notion of semiotics; and all texts (including literary texts) are constructed within a culture and context (Almurashi, 2016). The text has a context of culture which generally refers to all the meanings accessible to members of that specific culture. It also contains a context of situation embedded within the context of culture and refers to the specific situation in which communication transpires in that culture. Thus, analysis of a text is based on the participants involved in the communication, the topic being discussed, and the mode through which it is discussed in order to access how language is used for meaning making (Almurashi, 2016; Mickan, 2023). Much of the CAPS paragraph explains how the writer uses literary expressions to communicate views, but little is mentioned about the contexts, processes and linguistic choices for achieving that purpose. Therefore, it seems that a text-based approach (even though

it is stated as a valued approach) is not necessarily adequately mentioned or understood in these strategies.

The minimal mention of text-based features could be traced to the limited definition of text-based theory provided by the document. Also, the document specifically wants the reading process to be followed while text analysis occurs. However, this might be confusing because it may be difficult for teachers to apply the process approach and text-based approach in the situation as the principles used within these two approaches are vastly different and there is no indication as to how teachers are to navigate between the approaches or if the approaches should be amalgamated.

The document continues,

> *The teaching of literature is never easy, but it is impossible without the personal, thoughtful and honest interpretations and comments from the learners themselves. Unless they learn how to understand a literary text on their own, they will not have learned much. Teachers often need to restrain their own interpretations and ideas of literary texts and allow as much learner participation as is reasonable. Interpretation is not about right or wrong. It is about searching for what is meaningful to the reader.* (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:10)

This paragraph illustrates that a learner-centred approach it necessary when teaching literature as the document states that learners need to be making their own interpretations of the texts and teachers' interpretations should be limited. Again, the document mentions that learners need to make interpretations of the texts to negotiate meaning, but it does not clearly mention how learners can use a model of language, namely discourse semantics (which has three metafunctions; interpersonal, ideational and textual) or functional grammar to analyse these text types.

The document then gives more information regarding the strategies to follow.

> *The best ways to approach the teaching of literature would involve some or all of the following.*
>
> *• Make every attempt to read as much of the text in class as possible without breaking for any other activity. This should not take more than two weeks. It is essential that learners have a clear idea of what is going on at the most basic level of the text. Spending too long on reading a text is deleterious to a clear understanding of narrative line and plot. Some classes can read texts without such support. That is to be encouraged. Poetry should be taught, not poems. Read as many as possible in class and ensure that learners write poems as well.* (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:10)

The CAPS document refers to all these different genres and provides a collaborative explanation for all these genres, but this is concerning as each genre has its own set structure and purpose and therefore each requires specificity. Additionally, emphasis is only on the construction of poetry and not the other texts which might be alarming as learners need time to practice creating other text types, too. While the document requires learners to explore writing poetry, the SP EFAL document does not note poetry as a creative writing genre to be written. The document focuses on reading the text and exposing learners to language, which seems like a more natural approach to teaching the language as opposed to explicitly teaching functional grammar. This is problematic, though, because teachers might not be able to discern when to focus on which approach and to what extent (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014). There is no mention of how reading will be undertaken in groups, so it is unclear which approach should be followed or foregrounded.

The document further explains,

> • *Literary interpretation is essentially a university-level activity, and learners in this phase do not have to learn this advanced level of interpretation. However, the purpose of teaching literary texts is to show learners how their home language can be used with subtlety, intelligence, imagination and flair. This means a close look at how text is being created, manipulated, and re-arranged to clarify and emphasise what is being expressed. Such work might involve examining the presence or absence of imagery; what kind of imagery is being selected by the writer and why; sentence structures and paragraphing, or the layout of poems; choice of words, continuing motifs through the text; the use of symbol, sound and colour where appropriate. Most of this work should be text based, but line by line analysis of any text is destructive to its subtlety.* (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:10)

The document mentions that literary interpretation is saved for university, but this is disturbing as students can make certain interpretations by using functional grammar when exploring literary texts (Slater & McCrocklin, 2016). The document seems to be making some reference to a text-based approach, referring to how texts are created, manipulated and arranged for expression. However, there is no mention that this should occur within a context where certain linguistic choices are made, and the use of text-analysis can help with this. It is also evident that line-by-line analysis is not valued, even though in a text-based approach (especially with regard to poetry) a line-by-line analysis might be useful. The document's limited mention of features within the text-based framework hints that the policy document's perception of text-based pedagogy might be limited.

The document continues:

> • *Creative writing should be closely attached to the study of any literary text. Writing activities that demand a close understanding of the text being read can prove very helpful in reaching more creative levels of appreciation on the part of the learners. Class discussions can be fruitful as long as everyone is involved. But class discussions that lead to written work activities serve a clearer purpose and benefit both.* (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:10)

According to the CAPS document, creative writing must be linked to literary study, but it does not specify how this should be done. The document is also not clear about how the text types must be linked and if it is referring to literary responses via literary essays or whether it must be linked to storytelling in the form of various narratives and dialogues. Again, without specificity, teachers are left to make assumptions about what is implied through these statements. However, when things are not implemented adequately, teachers are blamed for unsatisfactory implementation despite that the document does not prove itself to be very descriptive or clear with regard to theories. Consequently, teachers' inability to satisfactorily apply these approaches might stem from the document's obscurity. Classroom discussions are encouraged but again this may be difficult in some contexts with large classrooms and no guide provided to deal with that. The document reflects some form of scaffolding as it states that the discussions should set the foundation for writing. However, while various steps need to occur between the classroom discussion and individual text production, but the document makes no mention of these steps.

Furthermore, the document refers to the genre approach as an aspect where,

> *learners can classify, compare and contrast different types of literary genre, e.g., the difference between the plots in a novel/short story/drama/folklore.* (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:11)

This suggests that the document contains a skewed view of a text-based approach as one of the core uses of the approach in teaching literature is to use it to compare various literary texts with one another. This is a good suggestion because learners will see how the various text types are similar or different. However, that is the only direct reference of the text-based approach under the teaching literature section, suggesting that the approach is simply used in a comparative manner, instead of being used to give second language learners epistemic access to these types of text, for them to themselves become creators and manipulators of these text types. This approach delves much deeper into text analysis than simply comparing themes and plots of various literary texts; rather, it examines the core of how the text is structured, created, evolves and how grammatic features are used to do so within a particular context (Harman, 2008).

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Thus, the way the approach is being used in this context is limiting, giving the false impression that exposure to multiple literary texts and comparing them in terms of certain literary features like the plot equals a text-based approach. Also, the fact that literature needs to be taught through the means of other approaches or strategies not in line with a text-based approach also verifies the document's lack of understanding with regard to the approaches, as the approach can be used to teach literature with its specific methods of analysis (Slater & McCrocklin, 2016).

4.7.3 Classifying and Organising Texts

The text-based approach is based on the premise that language development occurs best through the functional exploration of how texts work; as a result, the practical implementation of the approach heavily relies on texts as a key resource. Experts in the field have highlighted certain genres which learners may encounter in schools and have organised them according to sub-genres in a systematic manner (Rose, 2018; Du Plessis, 2021). It is vital for this study to analyse and discuss how texts are categorised within the CAPS document to establish its compliance with a text-based approach.

The IP EFAL CAPS document provides a summary of text types to be covered in the phase. This is important because it signals that the document is attempting to align with a text-based approach by categorising the text types in a particular manner. The summary includes the text type, purpose of the text, structure of the text and language features within the text on pages 24-29 of the document. An excerpt of the summary follows below.

3.2.2 Summary of text types across the phase

The tables below describe the range of text types that learners should be taught to write in Grades 4-6; other texts could also be included where appropriate. Some of these texts are not included in the teaching plan tables. This does not mean that they should not form part of teaching and learning as they are equally important.

Essays			
Text type	**Purpose**	**Text structure**	**Language features**
Narrative text/ essay	To entertain	Orientation that introduces characters and setting, e.g. *Once upon time there was an old woman who lived with her son called Jack. They were very poor.* Events leading to a complication, e.g. *Jack spent all the money his mother gave him on some magic beans. His mother was angry.* Resolution and ending, e.g. *Jack came back with the Giant's treasure and they lived happily ever after.*	Written in the first or third person Written in the past tense Events described sequentially Connectives that signal time, e.g. Early that morning, later on, once Makes use of dialogue Language used to create an impact on the reader, e.g. adverbs, adjectives, images
Descriptive text/ essay	To describe something in a vivid way	Identification: gives a general orientation to the subject, e.g. *There was a huge beast* Description: describes features or characteristics of the subject, e.g. *It had a huge bulbous body with bloated pustules dripping green slimy liquid onto the floor.*	May be written in past or present tense Creates a picture in words Uses adjectives, adverbs Uses figurative language, e.g. simile, metaphor, personification, alliteration

The IP EFAL CAPS document lists three main categories for all the text types: narratives, transactional texts, and literary and media texts. However, this is in complete contrast to how texts are classified in text-based theory (as illustrated in Chapter 2, Figure 3). This approach outlines that texts can be classified as "narratives (stories), chronicles (history and biography), explanations (of cause and effect), reports (to classify and describe), procedures (to direct actions), arguments (about issues and positions taken) and text responses (reviews of literature, arts, music)" (Rose, 2018:60). Figure 3 (Chapter 2) stipulates that these texts have certain features that group texts with major textual similarities under one main category whilst distinguishing each text type from another through its precise social purpose, structure, layout and language features (Gibbons, 2002). It is important for learners to know the key differences especially in language between the text types to avoid confusion (Derewianka & Humphrey, 2014). However, the policy document does not clearly illustrate the differences between various text types regarding language as the excerpt shows a lack of clear distinction between a narrative and a descriptive essay because the language features listed under both text types are interchangeable (Du Plessis, 2021). The way in which genre theorists have decided to

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categorise and label text types differs from the CAPS document's attempt to do so which is another aspect that illustrates how the document insufficiently applies a text-based approach.

Yes, the above excerpt clearly distinguishes between a narrative essay and a descriptive essay. However, the document seems to contradict itself regarding the boundaries between these different text types as it places the narrative essay and the descriptive essay under the same two-week cycle, as illustrated below.

3.4 TEACHING PLANS TABLE

GRADE 7 TERM 1 CONTENT			
WEEKS	**LISTENING AND SPEAKING**	**READING AND VIEWING**	**WRITING AND PRESENTING**	**LANGUAGE STRUCTURES AND CONVENTIONS**

1 - 2	**Introductions: Self or others** • Teach features and conventions of introduction • Language use **Listen to a short story** • Identify main and supporting ideas from a short story • Take notes • Share ideas and experiences and show understanding of concepts **Retell a story** • Retell events in correct sequences • Mention characters correctly • Mention the timeline **Story Telling** • Teach conventions of story telling: speaking skills, tone, pronunciation, tempo, intonation, eye contact, posture, gesture • Tell story from own experience	Literary text:-short stories/folklore • Key features of literature text: such as character, characterisation, plot, conflict, background, setting, narrator, theme **Reading process:** • Pre-reading (Introduce text) • During reading (features of text) • Post-reading (answer questions, compare, contrast, evaluation **Pre-reading strategies** • Recognize features of text such as titles, headings, illustrations • Recognise parts of book such as cover, title page, index, chapters, glossary, index **Reading comprehension and reading strategies** • Skimming and Scanning • Intensive reading • Visualization • Inferring meaning and conclusions • Fact and opinion • Meaning of words	Write a narrative/descriptive paragraph **Paragraph conventions:** • Topic sentence of paragraph • Main and supporting ideas • Use conjunctions for cohesion • Explain requirements of text such as telling a story • Use appropriate words and style • Write in the past tense **Focus on process writing** • Planning • Drafting • Revision • Editing • Proof-reading and presenting **Writes a story based on a personal experience.**	Reinforcement of grammar covered in previous phase **Word level work:** common nouns, proper nouns, countable and uncountable nouns, concrete and abstract nouns **Sentence level:** simple sentences, statements, simple present tense, simple past tense **Spelling and punctuation:** full stop, comma, colon, semi colon, capital and small letters Dictionary use and spelling rules **Vocabulary in context** **Remedial grammar from learners' writing**

(SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:57)

Droga and Humphrey (2003) suggest that certain terms such as *essay* and *story* are often used in a generalised manner for a variety of tasks learners need to do. These terms can cause confusion if they are not defined in the context of their purpose, type and features that are familiar to learners. This is important to note as the CAPS document has essays as a main category for similar genres without clearly illustrating the similarities and differences between the text types. Furthermore, a descriptive essay and a narrative can be the same text type in certain situations and all certain descriptors for the one text can be considered for the other. However, due to the policy document's inaccurate categorisation, the similarities and differences between these text types are not clearly delineated (Du Plessis, 2021).

The document also recommends all the types illustrated in Appendix 1 as texts to be encountered across the entire phase. This is concerning as we assume that the policy document would use a more scaffolded approach by introducing text types that learners were familiar with in the foundation phase first in Grade 4 (e.g., narrative), and then moving towards more complex texts in Grades 5 and 6. However, there is no progression in terms of how the texts are distributed across phases. The excerpt confirms that the document is unclear in terms of how it organises these text types because it conflates certain text types over various two-week cycles. The policy document proposes focusing on introducing oneself or others, and then shifts to listening to a short story; it then speaks of reading folklore or short story and requires learners to write a paragraph of a narrative or descriptive essay. This proves that the document does not resonant a clear understanding of the differences between various text types and how it labels or categorises these text types.

The document is categorising a short story, folklore, narrative, descriptive essay and personal introduction as one genre or text type. Moreover, there is a disparity between how texts are labelled and classified within genre-based approaches (refer to Chapter 2, Figure 2) and how the texts are labelled in the CAPS document. For example, the document does not make use of the various sub-texts as suggested within the text-based framework, destabilizing its terminology (Du Plessis, 2021). This is concerning as teachers and advisors are expected to demystify these contradictions on their own, resting on the assumption that all teaching professionals will have sufficient knowledge of the theory to do so. However, multiple studies have indicated that this is not the case and that teachers are not able to make these connections for a variety of reasons (Van Heerden, 2008; Akinyeye, 2012; Dornbrack & Dixon; 2014).

Teachers and advisors who do not have sufficient knowledge about the approach must rely on the CAPS document for guidance. However, if the document is ambiguous, confusion for teachers, advisors and resource creators will escalate and support, assessment practices, resources and classroom methodology will be ineffective (Van Heerden, Akinyeye, 2012 Dornbrack & Dixon; 2014). Thus, if the policy, document were to categorise text types according to the main and sub-text types as illustrated by Rose (2018) in Figure 2 in Chapter 2 it will enhance the overall pedagogical experience for both teachers and learners. Feez and Joyce (1998) stipulate that understanding various text types, their forms, and their purposes are central components of successful writing development. The CAPS document should address the inconsistencies regarding the labelling of text types as it may have severe ramifications for support practices, resource development, assessment practices and classroom pedagogy.

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4.7.4 Views on teaching grammar

Various language teaching approaches espouse various perceptions about how grammar should be taught. The method certain approaches take to teaching grammar often sets these approaches apart from one another. Additionally, many scholars believe that due to the hegemonic rise of English in our context, teaching grammar has become unavoidable as it will assist our learners in acquiring the linguistic capital needed to functionally express themselves in English (Van Heerden, 2008). However, as stated in 4.4.1.1, the CAPS document has three valued approaches which hint at three different ways in which grammar should be taught and learned. This theme will discuss the issues of grammar as described in the CAPS document to address the second research question and its objective. The IP EFAL CAPS document refers to grammar as language structures and conventions described as follows,

*A good knowledge of vocabulary and grammar provides the foundation for skills development (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in the First Additional Language. Intermediate Phase learners will build on the foundation that was laid in Grades R – 3. Learners will learn how **Language Structures and Conventions** are used and will develop a shared language for talking about language (a 'meta-language'), so that they can evaluate their own and other texts critically in terms of meaning, effectiveness and accuracy. They will also be able to use this knowledge to experiment with language to build meaning from word and sentence levels to whole texts, and to see how a text and its context are related. Through interacting with a variety of texts, learners extend their use of vocabulary and correctly apply their understanding of **Language Structures and Conventions**. In the Intermediate Phase, First Additional Language learners will take more notice of words and grammatical structures they are already familiar with from the Foundation Phase, explore the way their additional language works and take some conscious control of it, and use this developing knowledge to check their use of language, especially when writing. It is expected that Language Structures and Conventions should be taught in context as other language skills are taught and developed. The teaching plans contain a list of Language Structures and Conventions (items) that should be covered in each grade. When selecting listening and reading texts for each two-week cycle, make sure that they contain some of the language items you want to cover. Create activities related to these texts that will enable learners to use these items, in context. Similarly, the writing texts learners will write will include some of the language items. Give your learners guidance on appropriate and correct usage of these items. Select some of the items your learners have difficulty with and give them formal practice. In the Intermediate Phase, thirty minutes per week is set aside for formal instruction and practice in Language Structures and Conventions.* (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:11)

The explanation indicates a value for some form of constructivism as IP knowledge must be built on the foundation that was established in the FP. The document Is not explicit about which language approach should be used when teaching grammar, which is problematic and confusing to teachers and advisors because all three language teaching approaches have distinctive views on grammar (Dornbrack and Dixon, 2014). However, the document makes specific reference to learners being familiar with aspects of grammar to improve their language competence. This suggests that the document values a more explicit approach to teaching grammar, where learners develop linguistic jargon. We are left to assume that a text-based approach should be used with regard to teaching grammar as the communicative approach primarily advocates for teaching grammar in a natural way which requires a focus on meaning as opposed to form (Derewianka & Jones, 2010). Similarly, the process approach's primary focus is the process we use to achieve language development, with little emphasis on teaching grammar, which insinuates that the policy supports adherence to a text-based approach when teaching grammar.

Furthermore, the document mentions that grammar should be taught in context while other skills are being developed. It also stipulates that learners should interact with numerous texts in the hope of illustrating how grammar operates. It further suggests that learners should be shown how their additional language operates for them to gain control of the language and use it to construct meaning for themselves. This resonates with a functional approach to teaching grammar which is embedded in the text-based approach. Functional grammar, highlighting the interaction between spoken and written language in different social settings, is based on systemic linguistics. The method is particularly useful in illustrating how different texts function beyond a single sentence, how texts are organised, and how language is used for different purposes through these texts to create meaning (Feng, 2013; Derewianka & Jones, 2010). This brief description of functional grammar concurs with the policy document's intentions to teach grammar, suggesting that the document is advocating for a text-based approach when using grammar.

However, even though the policy document seems to describe attributes of a text-based approach when referring to teaching grammar, there are elements in the descriptions that suggest some misconceptions with the document's description. This is evident in the document's repetitive nature in which it describes some of the outcomes of the approach as attempting to enable learners to use grammar accurately, and correctly, and the need for learners to scrutinise grammar in a way where they can use it correctly. In functional grammar,

a speaker's right to speak is explicitly recognised, as is the right to choose how to speak. However, emphasis on the correctness of grammar is an aspect of traditional grammar, which in contrast, is a prescriptive system that tells what someone can and cannot say and gives rules for correcting mistakes that are commonly regarded as grammatical mistakes (Feng, 2013; Van Heerden, 2008). At the same time, functional grammar is concerned with how language is used in various cultural and social contexts, with traditional grammar primarily focused on how language is used correctly in writing and speech, which is what the CAPS document is advocating (Feng, 2013). The SP EFAL document includes further explanations that describe grammar.

> *Language structures and conventions refer to rules that govern usage of punctuation marks, capitalisation, letters, sounds, words, sentences and paragraphs in oral and written work. These rules include spelling, pronunciation, grammar and critical language awareness. The skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing cannot be put into practice without a sound knowledge of language structure and practice in using it. Learners also need a wide vocabulary, which is perhaps the single most important factor enabling a person to communicate well.* (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:37)

Here, the document views grammar as a set of rules that govern language, instead of focusing on how it is used in real social settings for creating meaning. This confirms that the document conflates a text-based approach and functional grammar with traditional views on grammar which could have a dire impact on classroom practice, as teachers who have no knowledge of these methods struggle to follow the policy guides (van der Walt, 2018).

The document further illustrates aspects of grammar that should be taught in the respective phases, as illustrated in an excerpt below.

EXAMPLES OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURES AND CONVENTIONS	
Punctuation	Full stop, exclamation mark, question mark, comma, colon, semi-colon, apostrophe, quotation marks, parentheses, ellipses, hyphen
Spelling	Spelling patterns, spelling rules and conventions, abbreviations, dictionary usage
Parts of words	Prefixes, roots, and suffixes
Nouns	*Noun prefixes (including gerund/infinitive class prefix (African languages))*
	Proper nouns, e.g. *Thandi, Doctor* and common nouns, e.g. *woman, doctor*
	Countable, e.g. *chair/chairs* and uncountable, e.g. *sugar, hair* nouns
	Abstract nouns, e.g. *love, fear, respect, honesty* and concrete nouns, *e.g. ball, chair*
	Compound noun, e.g. *rainbow, child-lock, parking bay*
	Collective nouns and classifiers, e.g. *a swarm of bees, a bar of soap*
	Complex nouns, e.g. *The University of the Witwastersrand, the dog that bites, a very big tree*
	Gerunds, e.g. *swimming* is good, *driving* is pleasant, *crying is therapeutic*
	Number (singular and plural), e.g. *chair/chairs*
	Nouns with no change in number in the singular form, e.g. *scissors, trousers*
	Possessive forms of nouns, e.g. *Lesego's desk, learners' desks children's toys*
	Predicate and object,
	Gender, e.g. cock, hen, stallion, mare
	Diminutives, e.g. cigar, cigarette, river, rivulet (refer to dimunitive prefixes and suffixes)
	Augmentatives, e.g. super - superpower, supermarket; mega - megabyte, megastore, megastar; over - oversize, overdose; extra - extra-large, extra-strong, extra-time, extra-ordinary
	Nouns derived from other parts of speech

(SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:49)

Functional grammar is different from traditional grammar in many ways, such as its use of terminology where traditional grammar may be divided into various parts of speech. These ten classes of speech can be separated into subsections based on their purposes. However, in functional grammar, these word classes are not removed but rather place English words into four big groups: noun group, verb group, adjective group and prepositional group (Feng, 2013). Traditional grammar, for example, might analyse a sentence based on its subject, predicate, object, attributive, adverbial and complement, while functional grammar gives a clause different functional labels depending on three kinds of metafunctions, as described in Chapter 2 (Feng, 2013). This fundamental difference in terminology also changes the way in which analysis happens in functional grammar; the policy document's use of descriptors as depicted in the excerpt demonstrates descriptors used within traditional grammar and not functional grammar (Feng, 2013). Conflating these two types of grammar would be problematic as their purposes and applications are very different (Feng, 2013). It appears as if the document is wanting the purpose and outcome of functional grammar whilst using the application of the traditional grammar, which could lead to undesired results and confusion.

Another area of concern with the document's descriptions is its indication that teachers need to create activities for these contextualised grammar lessons, without any specificity as to how this should be done or which approach should be used when doing this, leaving teachers and advisors open to making their own best guesses (van der Walt, 2018). Furthermore, the

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document stipulates that teachers have one hour to formally teach grammar per two-week cycle, but this is a contradictory statement as the document also expects teachers to incorporate grammar into all of their lessons with regard to reading, writing, speaking and listening development. For teachers to realistically fulfill this requirement, they would need more than one hour of teaching time. Again, teachers are left to interpret and follow a document that has numerous contradictory prescriptions, potentially resulting in inefficient classroom pedagogy.

The excerpt below depicts how grammar should be selected over the two-week cycle.

GRADE 7 TERM 2 CONTENT		
...EWING	WRITING AND PRESENTING	LANGUAGE STRUCTURES AND CONVENTIONS
...ovel/drama ...text: such ...ation, plot, ...ting, narrator, ...ext) ...of text) ...estions, ...ate) ...prehension ...l text such ...ters, setting, ...ar words by	**Writing: Narrative essay** **Paragraph conventions:** • Topic sentence of paragraph • Main and supporting ideas • Logical order of paragraphs • Conjunctions for cohesion • Use a variety of sentence types, lengths and structures **Focus on process writing** • Planning • Drafting • Revision • Editing • Proof-reading and presenting	**Reinforcement of language structures and conventions covered in previous weeks** **Word level**: Complex nouns, predicate and object, dual use of some nouns, finite verbs, Adjectives: comparative, superlative **Sentence level**: subject and predicate, subject verb agreement, main clause, dependent clause **Word meaning**: synonyms, antonyms, literal, figurative, emotive language **Punctuation**: full stop, comma, exclamation mark, question mark **Vocabulary in context** **Remedial grammar from learners' writing**

(SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:62)

The excerpt shows that the document recognises that certain text types have standard language features affiliated with text-based theory, but this is not accurately displayed in the language features prescribed in the respective teaching plans (Du Plessis, 2021). In some cases, like in this above excerpt, the CAPS document contradicts itself in terms of the language features prescribed and the text types to be studied. The features illustrated are repeated whenever a narrative essay is presumed to be written, suggesting that the document is not distinctive pertaining to the various text forms which are labelled under a narrative essay as the document lists the same features as applicable in a number of other texts. The features listed in the two-week cycle could be features taught in any text, so they do not clearly signal their relevance to the specific text type (van der Walt, 2018). Moreover, the document fails to illustrate its awareness of a text-based approach by illustrating how certain language features influence the social purpose and structure of many text types (Van Heerden, 2015; van der Walt, 2018).

The document neglects to mention how it selected the language features prescribed for each text and each two-week cycle raising questions about the theoretical and conceptual framework behind the choices in the document. Learners must be explicitly taught about the linguistic features in a text as this will give them the necessary epistemic knowledge required to grow into competent text creators themselves (van der Walt, 2018). However, the model the CAPS document adopts likely hampers this process as various text types have various language features (dependent on the context of the text). Thus, it is an inaccurate practice of the document to include the same text features for various texts (without context), making it difficult for learners (and teachers) to differentiate between text types (Van Heerden, 2015; van der Walt, 2018).

4.7.5 Curriculum Cycle

A text-based approach embedded in systemic functional linguistics (SFL) is rooted in a great deal of linguistic theory, and it might be difficult (abstract) for teachers not trained within this discipline to conceptualise many of the approach's principles. Therefore, research in this field has provided more practical (concrete) examples of how SFL works within the classroom. Gibbons (2002) attempts to address this through the curriculum cycle (Figure 1) in Chapter 2. The concept behind the curriculum cycle can be traced back to the work of Lev Vygotsky and his theory of the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) and learning through interaction, as well as a notion of a scaffolded approach to language teaching (Derewianka, 2003; Carstens, 2009). Here, the teacher is seen as mediator in the first phase of the cycle until learners' ability to control the specific genre has matured. As learners grow in competence in the genre ,the teacher steadily reduces support whilst encouraging learner autonomy (Hyland, 2003; Derewianka, 2003).

This cycle has been described as a tool that offers strategies for planning, teaching and assessment which enables fertile work amongst educators and learners. The cycle similarly illustrates the notion that writing is a systemic process that hereby aids students to reason, plan and work at the level of the entire text (Hyon, 1996; Van Heerden, 2008). Moreover, the cycle highlights the fact that language is not a linear, disintegrated process but operates in an integrated manner. Hence, the teaching of all language skills (not only writing) occurs interchangeably throughout the cycle (Mickan, 2023; Du Plessis, 2021). The stages of the curriculum cycle presented in Figure 1 in Chapter 2, are as follows: negotiating field,

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deconstruction, joint construction and independent construction of text. The cycle advocates for teaching language development and various genres with this model. The CAPS document has adopted the notion of a planning cycle that advocates for teaching language.

> *The teaching plan indicates the minimum content to be covered every two weeks per term. The sequence of the content listed is not prescribed…Teachers should design their Lesson Plans using the teaching plans, their textbooks and any other relevant resources to teach the content using appropriate sequence and pace. Teachers are encouraged to also use content or concepts that are contextual to their environment.* (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:31)

The document specifies that teachers need to cover content (texts) within two weeks and their lesson plans need to be set up to meet the demands of the prescribed content (texts). While this seems like a good way to assist teachers with clarity on what to teach and when, the document goes vague in terms of telling teachers how this should be done. It stipulates that they need to use "appropriate sequence and space" without clarifying what they mean and how to achieve it. The document further asks teachers to use content that is contextual to their environment without stipulating what this might mean. For example, is the document referring to learners' cultural environment? Or the school environment (in terms of promoting language across the curriculum? Again, this illustrates how the document requires teachers to follow certain criteria without specificity, leaving teachers to make their own assumptions about what or how they need to implement policy and its recommended strategies. The document further refers to how texts work in the two-week cycle.

> *Different texts have been used as a basis for designing the two-week teaching cycle. They have been selected on the basis of how they link together to form an integrated unit, for example, learners will listen to a story and then read a story. They will be asked to write a short oral description of a place or person (that will link to the story) or they might be asked to write a letter to a character in the story. Select a theme or topic for each two-week cycle that will enable you to link the activities successfully. The reason for using themes or topics is to make it possible to constantly recycle vocabulary and language structures in meaningful contexts. The language structures suggested in each cycle are meant to strengthen the texts that will be produced in the cycle. The teacher may add other language structures deemed helpful to this course.* (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:31)

The idea that texts have to be taught in an integrated manner according to the cycle clearly signals that the CAPS document aligns itself within the SFL text-based camp as it resonates with the curriculum cycle. Once more, the document is vague rather than specifying this, again reflecting limited understanding of the approach within the document. The document provides

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no context for where the notion of the cycle originates, information that many teachers who have no formal training in this regard might require; but unfortunately, teachers are left to make their own interpretation.

It is important for teachers to be aware of which genre approach camp the document resonates with as the schools within genre theory all have various purposes for various contexts (Van Heerden, 2008; Hyon, 1996). ESP focuses on an approach to genre pedagogy aimed at assisting English second language university students gain epistemic access to valued discourses within their fields of study; however, this text-based approach does not focus on primary and secondary schooling contexts. Similarly, the NRS school's main pedagogical aim is on the communicative function of language, which is complex and in a process of continuous modification and therefore not open to explicit instruction, which is something the CAPS document emphasises (Bazerman, 1988; Coe, 1994; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). Also, this school of thought is invested in assisting first language students become better readers and writers of academic and workplace texts, raisings questions about its ability to offer second language students sufficient epistemic access across the curriculum (Van Heerden, 2008; Carstens, 2009; Hyon, 1996). Thus, we may again make the claim that when the CAPS document refers to text-based approaches to language teaching and learning, it is referring to the SFL framework of genre theory. It specifically speaks to second language learning development in both primary and secondary school contexts. It also deals with issues of both function and form and uses aspects of FG (functional grammar) and the teaching cycle to promote a scaffolded approach to language development as suggested in the policy document. The document further describes how texts should be sequenced according to the cycle.

> *How the texts/activities are sequenced across the two-week cycle: The texts do not have to be taught in a particular order. In most cases, there should be a Listening and Speaking activity/text to prepare for the reading or writing activity. Sometimes, the Listening and Speaking activity should derive from the reading text. Learners should engage with the different kinds of texts orally and in reading before they are asked to write these texts. In most cases, the text to be listened to, e.g. a story or news report will be different to and at a higher level than the one that learners will read. This is because their listening skills are more developed than their reading skills.* (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:31)

According to the policy document, texts do not have to be taught in a particular order. This idea is controversial in itself as the cycle or sequence described speak to some type of order to follow. Furthermore, text-based theory in reference to the cycle speaks of unpacking a genre

in a particular order to enable a scaffolded approach is employed (Van Heerden, 2008). Thus, saying that there is no particular order to teaching a text shows just how skewed and confused the document's perception of text-based theory is, which might negatively impact and confuse teachers and advisors who are required to follow the document.

Additionally, the document further explains that it advocates that listening and speaking activities and texts should be explored before reading and writing. It mentions that the listening and speaking activity could derive from the reading text. Firstly, this contradicts the document's comment about there not being an order to teaching a text because the preceding statements suggest just that. It further makes contradictory statements by saying the listening and speaking texts could derive from the reading text, while a sentence or two later it advocates that the listening and speaking texts need to be different and on a higher level than the reading text. These continuous contradictions cause confusion for teachers and advisors who need to put policy into practice. They also illustrate why many advisors may have contradictory or skewed responses with regard to their understanding of text-based approaches and other curriculum issues.

It also illustrates that the policy document has some idea that within a cycle there should be a focus on one genre at a time and that there should be some form of scaffolding in a progression from listening and speaking within the context of the text to reading and producing the genre. This again indicates that the CAPS document has some understanding of the approach as it recommends principles according to this approach. However, it seems that the document's understanding of the approach is limited in that it is simultaneously vague in its descriptions; for example, the document does not clearly state that the text or genre needs to stay the same throughout the cycle, that is left to teacher assumption. Also, there is no mention of how the genre (and its specific features) should be taught and scaffolded within the two weeks, rather it merely mentions the order in which the skills should be taught.

The document also speaks to the following.

> *The type of texts prescribed and recommended: The text types to be taught in every two-week cycle are specified in the teaching plan and should be contained in the prescribed textbook. In most cases, no specific story type is prescribed. Choices may be made from the variety of contemporary stories, imaginative stories (e.g. adventure, science fiction) historical stories (e.g. biographies), and traditional stories (e.g. myths, legends and fables) that are available. The same is true of poems and plays. These will be texts chosen from the reader/readers/other books (extended reading) and will support the texts read in the prescribed section. They can*

either be the same text type (to emphasise understanding of text structure) or a different text type (to stimulate further interest and extend the range of reading abilities). In all cases, this additional reading should relate to the topics and themes chosen for the prescribed texts in that two-week cycle. (IP EFAL CAPS, 2011:31)

The document does not specify any specific story type as prescribed, where teachers can select from a variety of options, although it might be reasonable to allow multiple story types as prescribed options due to the various contexts and textbooks available to schools. But this can also be disadvantageous because it restricts teachers to teaching the same genres with which they feel comfortable, limiting learners' exposure to other genres of power (Van Heerden, 2008; 2015).
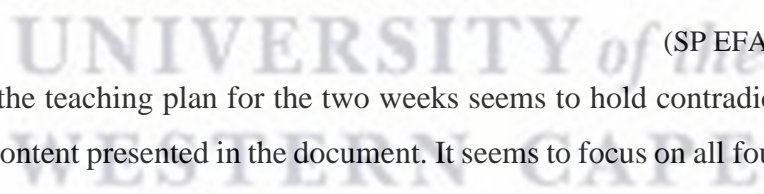
Furthermore, the document also mentions,

> *Integration of all language skills in a two-week cycle: Although the skills in the teaching plan are presented separately, they should be taught in an integrated manner where possible, e.g. in the teaching of an oral interview learners can read a written text and they can later be required to produce a written interview. The choice of language structures to be taught in a particular cycle should enhance the production and understanding of oral and written texts to be produced during that cycle, e.g. the adjectives, synonyms, antonyms, adverbs and past tense prepare learners for writing a narrative or descriptive essay. The subjunctive mood is useful when learners write a reflective essay. The oral and writing strategies to be taught in each two-week cycle should be determined by the type of text to be produced, e.g. when teaching a narrative essay learners should be taught how to write chronological paragraphs, but when they write expository essays, they could be taught how to write a procedural paragraph.* (SP EFAL CAPS, 2011: 56)

The document seems to be making contradictory inclinations by listing the skills in the teaching plan separately but expecting teachers to teach it in an integrated manner. It shows some form of understanding of the teaching cycle as understood withing genre theory as it refers to teaching a text type within the two-week period whilst integrating the teaching of related grammar and language skills. However, these suggestions are given without any concrete explanation or model for how to implement. Also, there is no clear specificity between the genres referenced; for example, a narrative essay can consist of various text types and based on that, it would be superficial to just mention teaching chronological paragraphs when teaching narratives.

The policy document indicates the skills, text type and grammar that should be covered within every two-week cycle for the entire year. An example is illustrated below.

3.4 TEACHING PLANS TABLE

GRADE 7 TERM 1 CONTENT			
WEEKS / **LISTENING AND SPEAKING**	**READING AND VIEWING**	**WRITING AND PRESENTING**	**LANGUAGE STRUCTURES AND CONVENTIONS**
1 - 2 **Introductions: Self or others** • Teach features and conventions of introduction • Language use **Listen to a short story** • Identify main and supporting ideas from a short story • Take notes • Share ideas and experiences and show understanding of concepts **Retell a story** • Retell events in correct sequences • Mention characters correctly • Mention the timeline **Story Telling** • Teach conventions of story telling: speaking skills, tone, pronunciation, tempo, intonation, eye contact, posture, gesture • Tell story from own experience	**Literary text:-short stories/folklore** • Key features of literature text: such as character, characterisation, plot, conflict, background, setting, narrator, theme **Reading process:** • Pre-reading (Introduce text) • During reading (features of text) • Post-reading (answer questions, compare, contrast, evaluation) **Pre-reading strategies** • Recognize features of text such as titles, headings, illustrations • Recognise parts of book such as cover, title page, index, chapters, glossary, index **Reading comprehension and reading strategies** • Skimming and Scanning • Intensive reading • Visualization • Inferring meaning and conclusions • Fact and opinion • Meaning of words	**Write a narrative/descriptive paragraph** **Paragraph conventions:** • Topic sentence of paragraph • Main and supporting ideas • Use conjunctions for cohesion • Explain requirements of text such as telling a story • Use appropriate words and style • Write in the past tense **Focus on process writing** • Planning • Drafting • Revision • Editing • Proof-reading and presenting **Writes a story based on a personal experience.**	**Reinforcement of grammar covered in previous phase** **Word level work:** common nouns, proper nouns, countable and uncountable nouns, concrete and abstract nouns **Sentence level:** simple sentences, statements, simple present tense, simple past tense **Spelling and punctuation:** full stop, comma, colon, semi colon, capital and small letters Dictionary use and spelling rules **Vocabulary in context** **Remedial grammar from learners' writing**

(SP EFAL CAPS, 2011:57)

The example of the teaching plan for the two weeks seems to hold contradictory information like some other content presented in the document. It seems to focus on all four skills including grammatical features which should be taught in an interrelated manner. It also seems to indicate progression from easier skills like reading and writing to more complex skills like writing, signalling some reference to text-based theory. However, the cycle appears to deal with different text types. It starts off with a focus on a text which relates to introducing oneself or others. However, from there it shifts to listening to a short story, a completely different text type. This mixture of text types is not something that speaks to text-based theory, as it advocates for scaffolding one text type per cycle. Even so, the document continues to focus on a short story and retelling the story as listening and speaking activities, neglecting issues like purpose and form of the text which are central elements in building the knowledge field of the text type as indicated in the teaching and learning cycle (Gibbons, 2002). Furthermore, the document makes no reference to any of the stages and processes of the teaching and learning cycle.

The cycle continues, mentioning the use of folklore or short story as a literary text; however, the mention of both of these text types could be confusing as there are distinctive differences between them, and therefore an amalgamation would not be ideal. When addressing the reading and viewing aspect of the cycle, there is substantial emphasis on the reading process and strategies used to assist with comprehension. Here the document seems to move towards a process approach in the cycle and as a result, seems to miss core issues with deconstructing the text and using the meta-functions in relation to functional grammar to build learner understanding of the text type, whilst illustrating how certain languages choices influence text creation.

The document then indicates that learners should write a narrative or descriptive paragraph which could be of two different text types; these text types are also different from a short story or folklore. Additionally, asking learners to write one paragraph might be taking the genre out of context; therefore the document may have allowed learners to practice their paragraph writing by writing the orientation of a story which would have allowed for a more scaffolded approach for when they have to write an entire text. The document then indicates that the learners need to write a story based on their personal experience, but again very little is mentioned about purpose, audience and form as that will influence how learners will create their text (even though language features are listed, these are not context-specific). While the document does mention the writing process, if learners have no interest in the form, audience and purpose of a text, revising, editing or planning will not make the writing effective (Department of Education and Skills, 2007).

The document also refers to grammatical content to be covered, but this was not integrated within the other skills, just listed on its own. The features that are covered do not speak to the structure and form of the text types to be written; this also neglects some important grammatical features like action verbs (material processes) and other verbs that refer to what participants said or felt (verbal and mental processes). It will also use linking verbs that relate to time, as well as direct and indirect speech. There are issues of the narrator and descriptive language that were also omitted but yet are imperative when learners tell various stories.

The document makes no mention of any shared reading and writing in the cycle and does not specifically refer to the importance of group and class work (joint construction) before individual writing occurs. This suggests that teachers need to make their own assumption that they need to be the mediator in the classroom instead of facilitating the learning process. The cycle's sequencing is based on document developers' perceptions of the teaching and learning

cycle. Thus, if policymakers' perceptions are off, then teachers' and advisors' perceptions and applications will also be skewed. This is concerning because it diminishes teacher autonomy in terms of applying the cycle according to their needs in their contexts. Including the teaching and learning cycle would allow teachers more autonomy and encourage more informed choices regarding implementation.

The process approach may lead to ineffective text production because it ignores key components in supportive text production which additional language students may require (Hyon, 1996: Department of Education and Skills, 2007). Thus, the document's compliance with the process approach neglects important aspects of scaffolded text production within the curriculum cycle such as adequately building the knowledge field and joint construction. Joint construction is one of the most important aspects in language teaching, as it involves modelling good language use and text construction (Du Plessis, 2021). Through the omission of the joint construction phase and inadequate compliance to building the knowledge field, the document clearly illustrates that it does not fully understand the genre approach and the teaching cycle. This has serious implications for language teaching classrooms as teachers, subject advisors and textbooks developers who follow the CAPS document may also omit these important methodological steps, potentially resulting in ineffective language development practices in our classrooms.

4.8 Summary of Chapter

This chapter discussed and analysed the secondary data, namely the EFAL and EHL IP CAPS documents and the EAL Senior Phase document, as a means of addressing the sub research questions presented in Chapter 1. Thematic analysis was used to establish the main and sub-themes of this chapter. These themes were used to lead the data analysis in relation to the research questions and aims of the study. Furthermore, these themes guide the findings and recommendations that will be discussed in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 5: INTERVIEW ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present a discussion of the interview analysis. The chapter will present the themes that have emerged from the interview analysis. Thematic data analysis (TDA) will discuss the data (interview transcripts) in relation to the theoretical framework and language teaching and learning approaches (discussed in Chapter 2), the research aims and the questions presented in Chapter 1.

The study makes use of interview analysis as mentioned in Chapter 3. Thus, this section will discuss the primary data, namely the interview transcripts of the subject advisor interviews in relation to the literature referenced in Chapter 2. This section will first present the subject advisor profiles and then discuss the interview data according to both deductive and inductive themes which specifically address the research questions and objectives of the study. It will also provide a short description of each participant's major comments. The data was reduced through both inductive and deductive coding and categorised according to the themes listed in section 5.3.

5.2 Subject Advisor Profiles

The various interviews with the subject advisors aimed to understand subject advisors' perceptions of a text-based approach. Specifically, the focus is to determine the compliance approaches subject advisors adopt through the CAPS document and the curriculum advisors' training support. The status of subject advisors used in this study is notable for its diversity, with varying levels of experience representing both urban and rural districts. The next section provides an overview of advisors' profiles and a contextualisation of their responses (in Table 4).

Table 4: Overview of participant profiles

Profile information	Mr Faith	Mrs Hope	Mr Peace	Mrs Love
Gender	Male	Female	Male	Female
Home Language	Afrikaans	Afrikaans	Afrikaans & English	Afrikaans
Qualification Year	1986	2011	1998	2016
Training duration (years)	6	5	4	7
Grades Taught	9-12	4-7	4-7	4-7
Subjects they advise	EHL 8-12 EFAL 8-12	EHL 4-7 EFAL 4-7	EHL 4-9 EFAL 4-9 AHL 4-9 AFAL 7-9	EHL 4-6 EFAL 4-6 AHL 6-7 AFAL 4-6
Age range	50-59	30-39	40-49	50-59
Highest Qualification	Bed	Honours in Education	BPrimEd	Honours in Education
Language Medium of Qualification	English	English	English	Afrikaans
Years of Experience	15 teaching 17 Subj Adv	12 teaching 1 Subj Adv	17 teaching 4 Subj Adv	31 teaching 1 Subj Adv
Other Subjects taught	N/A	Mathematics, SS, LO, Afrikaans, Technology, and Science	Arts	Physical Education, History, Health Education, Religious Education

The subject advisors are from three different districts in the Western Cape. The composition of the district of the subject advisor includes rural and metropole districts (Table 4). In reference to the subject advisors who are based in the rural district, these subject advisors provide support to teachers for both Afrikaans and English. All advisors are required to advise on both English Home Language and English Additional Language levels. However, the responses of subject advisors located in the rural area are limited to English.

The research participants are seasoned teachers with varying years of experience as subject advisors ranging from one year to 17 years. Also, the academic qualification status of the subject advisors is such that the two advisors with the least years of experience as subject advisors possess the highest academic qualifications. All subject advisors obtained their academic qualifications between 1986 and 2016.

5.3 Discussion of interview data

As indicated in Chapter 3, the study used semi-structured interviews as a data collection method. Thus, this section will present data from the semi-structured interviews with the four participants: Mr Faith, Mrs Hope, Mrs Peace, and Mrs Love, fictitious names to protect participant identity. The semi-structured interviews sought to elicit participants' views about text-based approaches in the curriculum and the WCED's promotion thereof. The interview questions (and the follow-up questions) were designed to answer the research questions. Some

major and most relevant answers to the questions are presented below with the themes that emerged. Additionally, relevant responses were extrapolated from participant interviews. Thereafter, these responses were categorised. The responses were coded based on similarities and differences in relation to the interview questions. This led to the generation of the following emerging themes:

- Theme 1: Subject advisors' Perceptions of CAPS

- Theme 2: Perceptions of learning and teaching support materials (LTSM)

- Theme 3: Perceptions of a text-based approach

- Theme 4: Challenges encountered

- Theme 5: Professional development

5.3.1 Theme 1: Perceptions of CAPS

There are many different views about the CAPS document and its effectiveness. Dornbrack and Dixon (2014), for example, believe that the CAPS document conflation of the process approach and the text-based approach causes confusion and misinterpretation which results in inadequate implementation of both these approaches. Others like De Lange, Winberg and Dippenaar (2020) believe the CAPS document will not improve learners' reading comprehension. The subject advisors have their own views about the document and its benefits for language learning pedagogy. This theme relates to the research question: "To what extent is a text-based approach recommended, explained, and understood in the CAPS document?" and the second objective of the study. The following sub-themes will present subject advisors' perceptions of the CAPS document in more detail.

5.3.1.1 Views on Curriculum Change

The subject advisors were asked about their views on the changes in regard to the curriculum. Mr Faith responded by indicating,

> *It is all a blur to me; it doesn't matter what curriculum you use but if it does not help a child to read and write better it won't matter. In order to improve a language, you need to practice the skills of the language. Changes in CAPS pertain to no more outcomes and the refinement of the curriculum. Now you have a teaching programme to be followed to address too little teaching in order for us to keep teachers accountable. Now with it came using textbooks so you have no excuses for the lack of resources. The most important is also the Annual Teaching and*

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Assessment Plan. However, it's very broad. So, teachers have to plot and plan over a term or year and develop their content accordingly. But there are shortcomings in FAL because there are no summaries or folklore taught in the first term but in the June exam you are tested on a summary or folklore. The teachers are not always aware of it and the government doesn't print new or updated documents so we must make sure the teachers know this. [Faith 1/22]

Mr Faith's comment affirms that he lacks a comprehensive understanding relating to the curriculum changes. He also has a skewed view of the document as he mentions that the CAPS document no longer considers outcomes like before. However, that is not the case as the CAPS document is not a completely new curriculum, but rather a revision of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS). Thus, it continues to subscribe to the prerequisites of the NCS (Du Plessis & Marias, 2015; Hoadley, 2018). Mr Faith does seem to recognise that the CAPS document is a refinement of the NCS and has more specificity with regard to planning and assessments. According to Mr Faith, there is a renewed emphasis on textbooks. He highlights the prescriptive nature of the CAPS document as discussed in Chapter 4.2.2: the document has become so prescriptive that it undermines the autonomy and content and pedagogical knowledge of the teacher (Chetty, 2019; Naidoo, 2019; Hoadley, 2018). Mr Faith also contends that content and assessments are not coherent (Govender & Hugo, 2018). This notion was echoed in the previous chapter, illustrating that the document is not always coherent regarding its teaching plan. Additionally, he draws our attention to how important textbooks have become since the shift to CAPS (Hoadley, 2018).

Mr Peace similarly believes there are no outcomes in CAPS.

I liked the fact that there needs to be an outcome for stuff. I think the challenge is how teachers interpret the document. Now there are no outcomes. CAPS says something and how we interpret it might be different from what is meant which is why when we explain things to them teachers are like, ooh okay so now we understand what we are supposed to. So, we show them all they need to do is follow the document. I was a Grade 7 teacher, so I feel CAPS didn't affect me as much as it affected the IP teachers. Even when my principal wanted me to move to IP. I knew it was not a thing for SP teachers to move to IP because of the number of assessments. [Peace 1/23]

This comment by Mr Peace shows that his understanding of the introduction of the new curriculum is slightly distorted as he believes the CAPS document does not contain any outcomes. Mr Peace also believes the CAPS document is overloaded with assessments, which makes teacher workload overly heavy (Wigfield, Gladstone & Turci, 2016). He argues that

teachers simply need to follow the document if they want to successfully implement the curriculum, which ties into the sub-theme 4.2.2 about the prescriptive nature of the CAPS document and its negative effects on classroom pedagogy (Naidoo, 2019).

On the other hand, Mrs Love gives a more detailed and precise view of the curriculum changes.

> *2005 was Outcomes-Based Education. My thing is OBE was politically driven to fill gaps. It was good that there were outcomes to be achieved and to show the people that there was a new curriculum that served all people but then the pendulum moved. Then they saw there is not a lot of content, and they rewrote the curriculum and content and it moved the pendulum to the other side and its absolutely content based and they need to finish things like assessments now and it became an obsession with assessments. Most people forget that outcomes-based is not gone, we still need to meet outcomes but they are just driving content alongside it. Therefore, we need a balance between the two. That's the biggest difference. That's going to be our next challenge. All the outcomes were overwhelming and then they realised it needed to change. Teachers are not textbook writers and that's what was expected of us. Write the material according to your circumstance and area. But that's not why we were there, we are not there to write textbooks we are there to teach. Then with CAPS, we have to follow their assessment plan and prescriptions.* [Love 1/ 18]

Mrs Love comments on some of the changes and issues relating to the curriculum amendments. Unlike her other two colleagues, she seems more aware of the fact that the CAPS document is an amendment of NCS and that outcomes have not been removed from the curriculum (Du Plessis & Marias, 2015: Hoadley, 2018). Mrs Love, like her previous colleague, also notes that the curriculum is assessment-heavy and impedes the classroom teaching and learning process (De Lange et al., 2020). Furthermore, she shows a clearer awareness of some of the key aspects relating to the trajectory of CAPS as described by Hoadley (2018), drawing our attention to the fact that teachers are not textbook writers. This aligns with Mr Faith's comment about the importance of the use of textbooks under CAPS. Additionally, she highlights the idea that CAPS prescriptions must be followed which is something two of her other colleagues alluded to as well.

Mrs Hope noted an aspect of the CAPS document in her response that the other participants did not mention.

> *There is no specific approach used in the curriculum, it just tossed various approaches together and now we lost the core fundamentals we had during our schooling! There is no structural sequence in any of these documents. No structural or sequential format. It all uses a very*

fragmented approach to language teaching, where not a lot of thought is given to the planning and structure of the curriculum. It seems as if the creators were in a hurry to compile the documents. The CAPS document is loaded with content and the skills that should be addressed are randomly selected. [Hope 1/19]

Mrs Hope highlights the fact that the CAPS document combines myriad language teaching approaches, resulting in the loss of some core pedagogical principles, sentiments shared by Dornbrack and Dixon (2014) and emphasised in Chapter 4. Mrs Hope's comments imply that the CAPS document is incoherent, fragmented, and inconsistent, aspects Mr Faith also brought to our attention. This is particularly concerning as it means that teachers who end up following the document may implement ineffective strategies that hamper the cognitive development of their students (Govender & Hugo, 2018). She concurs with two of her colleagues that the document is overloaded and content-heavy, which as explained by Winfield et al. (2016) may be to the detriment of the teaching and learning process in the classroom.

Overall, therefore, subject advisors hold largely negative views of curriculum change in South Africa, highlighting various shortcomings. There is some diversity in their perspectives on the trajectory of the curriculum, with some comments more valid than others. What comes through clearly is the conviction that CAPS is confusing for teachers, potentially leading to ineffective teaching and learning. This is attributed to the conflation of various teaching methods, the overload of content and assessment, and an overall lack of coherence, sequence and structure (Naidoo, 2019; De Lange et al., 2020; Govender & Hugo, 2018; Wingfield et al., 2016; Hoadley, 2018; Chetty, 2019).

5.3.1.2 HL & FAL in CAPS

The CAPS document (2011a) indicates a major difference in the proficiency levels between HL and FAL, so there needs to be some differentiation between these language levels. The subject advisors had the opportunity to describe the different language levels according to CAPS and most of them feel that CAPS does not allow for much differentiation despite the fact that it indicates that there should be differentiation. Mr Faith has his own views about the CAPS division in HL and FAL levels.

HL has more literature and FAL only has 2 genres and short story options. The depth of HL is deeper and higher. HL is for those who speak English at home but here that is not the case. That doesn't mean you cannot do it as a language if you are second-language speaker. There is a stigma that English is the language of work and commerce hence people prefer English as their main language but English as home language is a flawed argument. [Faith 2/22]

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Mr Faith mentions that the CAPS document differentiates between Home Language and Additional Language content (DBE, 2011a), and that this differentiation mainly happens on a content level with HL learners experiencing more literary genres than FAL learners. He also highlights the fact that many learners who take English Home Language as a subject are not home language speakers of English.

Mr Peace holds a contrary view.

> *FAL curriculum is currently based on the Home Language document. If you interrogate the CAPS document, you will see this, fortunately, we both taught Afrikaans Eerste Additional Taal and the first thing I did when I taught Afrikaans was, I looked at the document and said it was pitched way too high. This is not the level it must be on and then I took an English Home Language book and it was as if I was looking at the same document just translated.* [Peace 2/23]

Mr Peace holds the view that for CAPS, HL and FAL are on the same level with little differentiation between the two language levels. This notion is interesting because the present study comes to a similar conclusion (see Chapter 4). Even though the two levels differ in regard to the number of genres to be studied, the FAL curriculum is in some respects the more cognitively challenging one.

Mrs Love seems to partially agree with Mr Peace.

> *FAL is communicative and HL is more content and text-based driven. But the FAL document is almost the same in most cases word for word as the HL documents, it is just aspects like the language structures and conventions that differ, the rest of the document is completely the same. So, teachers are still responsible to streamline the curriculum but they think it's policy so therefore they have to stick to it and they can't adjust for their children, which is a big problem.* [Love 2/18]

Mrs Love makes a contradictory statement, signalling a difference between the two documents. As HL has more content than FAL, there seems to be a difference in the approaches emphasised within each approach. This notion of a difference in content was shared by one of her colleagues, too. She believes that FAL is more communicatively based, and that HL is more content driven and text based. In fact, however, CAPS espouses both approaches for both language levels (DBE, 2011a & 2011b). But the contradiction Mrs Love makes is significant because the study found similar contradictions by the CAPS document (refer to Chapter 4). Like Mrs Love mentions, the document appears to offer more content (such as genres and language structure and conventions) for HL learners; however, when examining the two-week

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cycle and assessments, it is evident that the document has similar expectations from learners in both subjects. Mrs Love agrees with Mr Peace that the HL document closely resembles the FAL document, suggesting very little differentiation between the two language levels, echoed in the discussion in Chapter 4.

Mrs Hope's sentiments about this seem to align with her two colleagues.

> *FAL is too loaded. HL is for home language speaking students so the content should be much more in that document, whereas FAL is for second language users but it seems as if it is almost pitched at the same level with regards to the content. The FAL curriculum is almost pitched at the same level with almost the same requirements.* [Hope 2/19]

This comment emphasises the notion that the CAPS document does not clearly differentiate between the two language levels. In addition, the analysis in Chapter 4 aligns with the comments of the subject advisors, as it is evident that the FAL subject is overloaded and pitched at almost the same level, if not higher, than the HL subject. On a surface, the document claims to illustrate some aspects of differentiation, but upon closer inspection of the document's prescriptions, it is clear that the document insufficiently differentiates between the two subjects.

Hartshorne, Tenenbaum and Pinker (2018) highlight the notion of a major difference between first and second language acquisition. It is important to distinguish between the two levels with regard to teaching and assessment. CAPS initially appears to support this notion. On closer inspection, however, the opposite is true. The subject advisors are unanimous in their view that even though CAPS attempts to differentiate between the two language levels, it does so unsuccessfully and they are in fact pitched at a similar level (see also 4.2.1 above, which comes to the same conclusion).

5.3.1.3 CAPS as Prescriptive

The CAPS document was introduced as a means of streamlining the curriculum and assisting teachers by giving clarity with regard to what to teach, when to teach, and how to assess (CAPS, 2012; Hoadley 2018; Du Plessis & Marais, 2015). However, despite the DBE's efforts to streamline, teachers find the document too restrictive, leaving little room for autonomy and contextualised teaching (Singh, 2015; Hoadley, 2018). All four subject advisors agree that the document seems like a 'prescriptive' guide teachers should follow. In Mr Faith's words,

> *I can advise a strategy to them for things like teaching writing, topical things like that but the CAPS document tells them what to teach.* [Faith 3/22]

Mr Faith's comment indicates that even the subject advisors' support is limited by the CAPS document. Mr Faith could only advise teachers with regard to strategies, but he cannot do more with regard to what they need to teach. Mrs Hope concurs,

> *CAPS document is a more structured and dictated approach to curriculum delivery, but it is not logical or sequential when it comes to what they prescribe because they repeat things and there is no progression from Grades 4-7.* [Hope 3/19]

Mrs Hope supports the notion that the document is prescriptive and restrictive and lacking sequential or logical features. These characteristics may limit teachers' agency especially if the CAPS document is adhered to rather than used as a more scaffolded or logical approach to teaching language skills (Singh, 2015; Naidoo, 2019). In essence, it can affect the teaching and learning efficiency in the classroom as explained by Mrs Love and acknowledged by Mr Peace since CAPS document guidelines must be strictly followed.

Mrs Love says,

> *Then with CAPS we have to follow their assessment plan and prescriptions.* [Love 3/18]

Mr Peace says,

> *We show them all they need to do is follow the document.* [Peace 3/23]

Clearly both subject advisors believe that CAPS is highly prescriptive and operates as the policy with which advisors and teachers should comply. These prescriptions may have a negative effect in the classroom as they diminish subject advisors' and teachers' autonomy to effectively deal with contextual issues that emerge.

Here and in other responses, the subject advisors all stress the need for teachers' compliance with CAPS. In this sense, they share its prescriptivism. Critics have pointed out how CAPS' prescriptions influence classroom pedagogy, as pacing that aligns with the document is foundational to the monitoring agenda of departmental heads, the principal, and district officials (Naidoo, 2019). Furthermore, these prescriptions not only strip teachers of their autonomy but also undermine their professionalism (Singh, 2015; Chetty, 2019; Mokgohloa, 2018). It is important to note that the discussions in Chapter 4.2.2 also find the prescriptive nature of the document problematic. If CAPS is contentious, vague, and full of contradictions, this will be mirrored in flawed lessons, teacher-support initiatives, and LTSMs (Singh, 2015).

5.3.1.4 CAPS and Text-Based Approach

The CAPS document has three major approaches: text-based, communicative and process approaches that inform the policy document. However, these three approaches have different theoretical orientations, limiting practicability within the context of the implementation of these approaches (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014). The lack of clarity of the CAPS document and its approaches may also influence subject advisors' views of text-based approaches, explaining the variation in subject advisors' responses to the CAPS document and the text-based approach. For instance, Mr Faith stated,

> *We need a text-based approach and it is written in the CAPS Document which makes it easy for teachers, they must just do it and not do their own things.* [Faith 4/22]

Mr Faith's comment shows that the document refers to text-based approaches and teachers must comply with that. However, when the document leads to confusion as a result of obscurity about text-based theory, it affects the teachers' effective classroom implementation (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014). Mrs Hope sees traces of the approach in the document, which,

> *emphasises that grammar is something not taught in isolation, but it's taught from texts. So, it may be viewed as teaching grammar in context…A problem is that there is no clear progression from Grade 4-7 and these genres are not explicitly taught. I feel that the genres are so repetitive and don't build on one another or are not developed enough because teachers do not know how to teach them.* [Hope 4/19]

By Mrs Hope's account, the document reflects a text-based approach advocating for teaching grammar in context (DBE, 2011a). However, she notes that genres, on the other hand, are not explicitly illustrated and there is no progression for teaching it (Du Plessis, 2021). This is alarming because it opens the question of how successfully the document promotes a text-based approach if genres are not explicitly described. Mrs Love states that CAPS,

> *explains the approach as something to teach language using various text types.* [Love 4/18]

Mrs Love's statement affirms that the document recognises the need for teaching language through multiple texts. However, text-based theory is not limited to the variety of texts, but it is specifically linked to exposure to multiple texts within their situated contexts (Van Heerden, 2016; Hyon, 1996). According to Mr Peace,

> *There's a lot of stuff in the document that people don't read. If I go to look at those three approaches as it is explained to them surely life should be easier…the document explains these*

things to them perfectly. So, we should have a text and teach through using a text, but teachers do not read the document; they rely on textbooks. [Peace 4/23]

Mr Peace's comment – similar to that of Mrs Love – indicates that the document does in fact define or describe the theory and supports teaching with texts. However, a text-based approach involves more than simply using a text. It focuses on explicitly teaching texts in their situated context to allow learners to be masters and manipulators of those texts (Mumba & Mkandawire, 2019; Nagao, 2020).

The comments by the subject advisors confirm that the CAPS document mentions a text-based approach. However, there is no specific and clear indication of how the approach can be applied practically in the classroom. The subject advisors' comments show that the document does indeed focus on aspects of the text-based approach like teaching grammar in context, but it does not explain how this should be explicitly done, as the text-based approach promotes (van der Walt, 2018). Additionally, while the CAPS document mentions the use of multiple texts in the classroom, it does not clearly stipulate how this should be applied and does not refer to the curriculum cycle at all (Du Plessis, 2021). It is interesting that many of the subject advisors know that teaching through a variety of texts is important, but they too are confused about how this should be actualised in classrooms. This is concerning (as noted in Chapter 4 and 5.4.1.3) in terms of just how prescriptive the document is. The former statement suggests that the CAPS interpretation influences advisor, teachers, and textbook developer perceptions of text-based theory because they are bound to follow what the document prescribes despite dire implications for classroom pedagogy (Du Plessis, 2021; Nagao, 2020).

In summary, subject advisors highlight significant flaws in CAPS concerning its ability to enhance teaching and learning, specifically in terms of text-based theory. This theme highlights the content-heavy and fragmented nature of CAPS (Wigfield et al., 2016); the perceived lack of adequate differentiation between HL and FAL; the prescriptiveness of the document; and the cost to teacher autonomy and professionalism (Mokgohloa, 2018). Paradoxically, several advisors hold negative views of the curriculum and its limited understanding of a text-based approach (cf Du Plessis, 2021), yet still expect teachers to abide by it. This point is significant, as blind adherence to policy prescriptions is disempowering for teachers and likely to result in teaching and learning that is fragmented, inconsistent, inadequately differentiated, conceptually limited and skewed in its application of text-based theory.

5.3.2. Theme 2: Perceptions of Learning and Teaching Support Materials (LTSMs)

Learning and teaching support materials (LTSMs) play a crucial role in the literacy development of learners as they constitute the instrument that teachers use to implement the curriculum (Mhlahlo, 2011; Fulani, 2015). These materials have the power to lead to more emancipatory practices in the classroom as well as marginalise certain groups of learners (Fulani, 2015). The various LTSMs used in class and or supported by DBE affect how teachers incorporate certain approaches to language teaching in the classroom (Du Plessis, 2021). Therefore, the sub-themes below will discuss the subject advisors' perceptions of the DBE workbooks and textbooks.

5.3.2.1 Department of Basic Education Workbooks

According to the Department of Basic Education (n.d.), the Rainbow Workbooks are part of a range of interventions developed by the Department of Basic Education to improve the performance of primary school learners in South Africa. The workbooks in no way replace the textbooks and are to be used as additional support to fulfil curriculum requirements (DBE, n.d.). The intention behind the DBE's implementation of the workbooks seems noble and sincere, however subject advisors' views about the effectiveness of the workbooks effectiveness contrast with the DBE's intentions. Mrs Love indicated,

> *The DBE does not have a lot of higher-order thinking questions. Before I used it here as a subject advisor, I saw it as a homework tool, now I see it differently because everyone has it but it needs to be filled up because the skills are there but it needs to be added to. It's a good resource for the country on a very basic level that needs to be added to.* [Love 5/18]

This statement suggests that the level of questioning in the books is quite low and might not assist with performance improvement or learners' critical thinking ability. Mrs Love seems to think that it is a good resource as all the schools have them. However, she does recognise that there are gaps that need to be filled to improve the quality of the resource and the effect it can have on learners and teachers (Hoadley & Galant, 2016; Qhibi, Dhlamini & Chuene, 2020). Mrs Hope agrees with Mrs Love with regard to the workbook requiring some revision or edition as she states,

> *It is a novel idea. They are not fully CAPS aligned though they say they are, as some of content mentioned in the document for a specific week does not occur in the DBE workbook and vice versa. Language across the curriculum is not really emphasised in the DBE workbooks and the DBE workbooks operate as a one size fits all model, where it is assumed, all students are at*

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that particular language level. This doesn't support all the students needs and the approach is wrong. [Hope 5/19]

Mrs Hope's comments suggest that the workbooks do not always coincide with the CAPS document even though the DBE (n.d.) insist that the workbooks conform to the latest Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). Additionally, her statement also indicates that the workbooks do not highlight Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) which is another aspect that CAPS advocate in their policy documents (DBE, 2013a). This is an important aspect as the LAC is intended to strengthen learners' LoLT and develop language proficiency (DBE, 2013a). It is alarming that the workbooks which are supposed to support teaching and learning in the classroom do not endorse such a crucial element of the curriculum.

Mrs Hope highlights another key issue which is the workbooks' lack of personalised learner-centred education. Mrs Hope suggests that the workbooks limit teachers' ability to focus on individual learners, learner achievement and learners as whole persons (McCombs, 2008; Hoadley & Galant, 2016). It seems that in some cases (including that of the implementation of the workbooks) what began as an attempt to forge a culture of achievement for all, has in all actuality subverted achievement (McCombs, 2008). That Mrs Love indicates that the level of questioning is very low also corroborates Mrs Hope's notion that the books are a one-size-fits-all model as not all learners are on the same cognitive level; however, the books will only provide enrichment opportunities to those who will benefit from lower-level questioning. Mr Peace agrees with his colleagues.

> *When I am explaining it to a new teacher, they will tell me when they use it they'll be done on page 25 because there is so much duplication. You can't just take anything and expect it to work. So, teachers should plan better and follow the document, you see it all comes back to how well they follow the programme of assessment. I like it but it needs revision, it's time, and it needs to be revised because all the weeks do not align with CAPS.* [Peace 5/23]

This statement supports Mrs Love and Hope's comments about the workbooks needing revision. According to Mr Peace, the document does not completely align with the CAPS document as indicated by the DBE. He believes teachers need to follow the CAPS document and programme of assessment to ensure compliance with it. He does, however, admit that teachers do not take the initiative to do this which can lead to various other issues. This is a contested suggestion because on one hand, he is encouraging teachers to follow the policy document, but as mentioned before the document itself is fragmented. And if the document itself is fragmented, any resource like the DBE workbooks that attempts to follow it might copy

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and inherit that fragmentation too. Mr Faith could not comment much as the books are not used in the SP/FET phase, so he merely said,

> *We do not have any DBE workbooks in the senior phase. I haven't worked with them in Grade 8 and 9. I have only seen them in the intermediate phase.* [Faith 5/22]

It is clear from the subject advisors' comments that the workbooks require revision and closer alignment with CAPS (Hoadley & Galant, 2016). Reading comprehension in the workbook should be aligned with Barrett's taxonomy, whilst ensuring that questions testing the higher cognitive levels (inferencing, judgement, appreciation) are included. Outhred, Beavis, Stubberfield, Wilkinson and Murphy (2013) echo the need for revision of LTSM, claiming that many materials are of poor quality and in some cases hamper academic progress. Differentiation and the inconsistencies of the workbooks should be addressed. As indicated in Theme 1, unless CAPS makes adequate provision for differentiation, establishes coherence, and caters for the full cognitive range of questions, all material based on it will be correspondingly flawed.

5.3.2.2 Textbooks and Publishers

The quality of textbooks and teaching resources is one of the under-acknowledged factors that greatly influence literacy development in South African classrooms (Mhlahlo, 2011; Fulani, 2015). Textbooks are instrumental in the teaching and learning process as they are the guide between the intended curriculum and the realised curriculum (Fulani, 2015). Fulani (2015) agrees with some of the subject advisors' previous comments that teachers heavily rely on textbooks for their curriculum delivery, possibly because of the idea that CAPS brought textbooks back as a measure of reemphasising content within the curriculum which the previous version of the curriculum neglected (Hoadley, 2018). But textbook selection can be a tedious process as many textbooks claim to be aligned with the curriculum and are stamped as such, however, their content does not support that (Mhlahlo, 2011; Fulani, 2015; Du Plessis, 2021). Mr Faith agrees with the former notion. When asked his views on the quality and availability of textbooks, he stated,

> *There is a huge variety to select from which confuses teachers, I think the better ones come from more established textbooks. St Mary 's interactive learning experience (SMILE) is nice and the lady goes to a lot of schools, I always give her an opportunity to market her books in*

our district, but the schools decide what they want to use. The layout and activities of SMILE are nice because they have nice topics. Cambridge and Oxford come with media too. I think there are some textbooks that are good and then the other half are really badly written and are just a money-making scheme. It is difficult to tell them apart from one another because all of them claim to be CAPS compliant. [Faith 6/22]

Mr Faith clearly coincides with Mhlahlo (2011) when noting that the selection of textbooks can be very confusing as many of these books are not beneficial to teaching and learning but because they claim to be CAPS compliant, they often land in many South African classrooms. It is also important to mention that some textbooks may contribute to the literacy gap between various races (Fulani, 2015). And in some cases, as the study illustrates (in Chapter 4), textbook compliance to CAPS may also lead to some issues regarding literacy (Du Plessis, 2021). Mr Peace echoes some of Mr Faith's sentiments.

I love the publishers I have nothing against them, I understand they are businesspeople who have to sell their product but at the end of the day you get schools who cannot select textbooks properly. This is no disrespect to schools and teachers and principals but they are gullible! A guy walks in and says we know in Cape Town there's a hectic reading issue. I have this package or book that will work. There is not a package or book or district that does what we do. We decided that we are doing our own thing until the province decides to see this is what needs to be done. Decoding of words, sounding of words before a child can read is important. So, stakeholders will come and say I like the package but I'll actually ask if it's for kids who can read who are not struggling and maybe if it is for home language speakers. I'll ask them what you have for learners who can't see letters and they say they are still working on that. There is one or two textbooks that we like but like in most cases there is a combination I would recommend. You need a variety of resources. So, one is beautifully written on direct and indirect speech and has nice activities that covert the sentences back and forth, then one is beautifully written on a summary that one only touched on. So, you have to be selective with what you choose. [Peace 6/23]

These comments corroborate responses by Mr Faith and illustrate that the intent of many publishers is their business, selling their product, so the literacy benefits and contextual relevance are secondary to that. It seems that schools and teachers can easily select books that will not enhance the teaching and learning process because of the illusion that textbooks are CAPS compliant or can solve various literacy issues (Fulani, 2015; Mhlahlo, 2011). Mrs Love concurs with her colleagues stating,

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We are busy writing textbooks. Publishers are money-makers. Also, they are outdated. Those textbooks are also outdated but they don't open CAPS, they say Platinum is CAPS aligned, so they use the textbooks blindly. That's why they don't know about text based. The textbooks start at the wrong place. The DBE workbooks seem a little more on par with CAPS. CAPS should however be our main source. Platinum is fragmented. There is no progression there. You have to build and consolidate knowledge and then progression occurs. [Love 6/18]

According to Mrs Love, sales are the driving force behind publishers and not the quality of the product they offer. She mentions that some books are outdated and do not completely align with the CAPS document, as might be indicated. Teachers' skewed views on text-based approaches could be because of the textbooks they follow (Du Plessis, 2021). If the textbook is not using genre or text-based methods, clearly the teachers who use those textbooks as a resource will not either. Ironically, Du Plessis (2021) finds that textbook misconceptions about certain pedagogical approaches like text-based theory partially stem from their compliance to the CAPS document. She also highlights teachers' over-reliance on textbooks which is something Mr Faith and Mr Peace also indicate. Mr Faith said in another comment,

[T]eachers become dependent on study guides and textbooks to try and keep up. [Faith 7/22]

But if they don't find a textbook that can give you the questions they struggle. [Mr Peace 7/23]

These comments suggest a culture of teachers over-reliance on textbooks and other guides and resources. This may be problematic when textbooks do not completely align with the CAPS document and when they do not meet the literacy needs of learners. In these instances, the textbooks are then counterproductive and impede the teaching and learning process rather than enriching it (Mhlahlo, 2011; Fulani, 2015). Mrs Hope, on the other hand, has grievances toward the textbooks and publishers for slightly different reasons.

It should be written by expert teachers or people in the field but teachers do not have the time which is why teachers often source their own resources instead of using the textbooks. They do not logically develop skills because they are aligned to CAPS and operates in the same scattered manner the CAPS document does. [Hope 6/19]

Mrs Hope is the only advisor who recognises teachers' capabilities and agency in contributing to textbook development. This is an important factor to note because teachers are the ones in the field and in the classrooms, interacting with learners every day. It is also interesting that Mrs Hope brings to our attention that some teachers, similar to the subject advisors, are weary

of the publishers and textbooks and often source their own material. Unlike the other advisors, Mrs Hope believes that many textbooks do align themselves with the CAPS document and because of the flaws in the CAPS document, textbooks are also flawed (Du Plessis, 2021). She suggest that textbooks hinder the holistic development of learners' skills. These comments are concerning as many teachers might be using textbooks that are detrimental to the academic development of their learners (Fulani, 2015; Du Plessis, 2021).

It is evident that the selection of language and literacy textbooks is fraught with problems. Advisors report that teachers rely heavily on textbooks. The materials, in turn, are obliged to follow a flawed curriculum (Du Plessis, 2021) and hence reflect its fragmentation and inconsistency. This places those (teachers and advisors) tasked with evaluating and selecting textbooks for use in classrooms in an insidious position. All of this does little to address the country's literacy crisis.

LTSMs are instrumental in bringing content back to the curriculum. In particular, the emphasis on textbooks addresses one of the many gaps in previous versions of the NCS (Hoadley, 2018). The DBE workbook plays a crucial role as an assistant to the textbook. Thus, it is understandable that some teachers rely heavily on LTSMs. Also, subject advisors' note that the DBE workbook and textbooks do not always align with CAPS. In some cases, they are fragmented and inconsistent, hampering effective quality teaching and learning (Fulani, 2015; Du Plessis, 2021). The previous themes also reinforced that the CAPS document is inconsistent and misaligned, which will be mirrored by LTSM that follows its prescriptions. Thus, some of the shortcomings of the LTSMs are to be anticipated if they claim CAPS compliance.

5.3.3 Theme 3: Subject advisors' Perceptions of a Text-Based Approach

The perceptions of a text-based approach theme directly correspond to the main research question which is *What are subject advisors' perceptions of text-based theory?* as well as the study's objectives. The following sub-themes will discuss the theme in more detail.

5.3.3.1 Concept of Genre

The concept of genre (CoG) has become somewhat contentious as scholars' perceptions of it vary (Van Heerden, 2008; Hyon 1996; Carstens, 2009). The CoG has been traditionally used to describe and categorise literary texts such as drama, poetry and novels in the arts, literature and media fields (Van Heerden, 2008). Researchers in the field differ about the crucial aspects of genre, but its perception in language learning and teaching has moved beyond its traditional

literary connotation (Van Heerden, 2008; Hyon 1996; Carstens, 2009). The more progressive definition of genre is specially celebrated in second language pedagogy for explaining regularities of purpose, form and situated social action. The CoG leads to a scaffolded approach to language teaching that improves students' schematic consciousness of genre to improve language proficiency, especially writing development (Hyland, 2003; Hyon 1996; Van Heerden, 2008). Therefore, it may be claimed that genre-based approaches to literacy recognise the connection between power, culture, context and text.

All the subject advisors relate to the more traditional perception of genre. When asked about how genres taught in schools relate to the literacy crisis, Mr Faith stipulated,

> *Students do not read the set work and teachers lose teaching time because of it as teacher needs to read with them. So, they fall behind on the planning according to the document.* [Faith 8/22]

Mr Faith spoke of genre as set work which is a reference to the prescribed literature learners do. This notion of genre is similarly held by Mrs Love.

> *Literature aspects in Grade 4. Teachers do not see that text types are basically the beginning of your literature genres.* [Love, 7/18]

Mrs Love also sees genre in relation to literature. Even though there is an awareness that various text types relate to genre, it is done without adding any social, cultural, power and contextual aspects to it (Van Heerden, 2008).

Mrs Hope also concurs with her colleagues when she stated,

> *I focus on all of them, poetry is a bit of a concern so that might gain more emphasis in my training sessions.* [Hope, 7/19]

Her statement suggests that she also sees genre in relation to literature because of her reference to poetry, one of the literary aspects covered in English.

Mr Peace on the other hand indicated,

> *Do you mean not taught in schools? Teachers do not know how to accurately teach genres.* [Peace 8/23]

Mr Peace thinks teachers do not know how to teach genres and that it is not well taught. He did not specifically indicate that genre has a link to literature in the question. However, when the next question was asked about how subject advisors select genres to be the focus of their workshops, he stated,

We are all moving towards texts but there is no fixed way it should be taught, even I find that confusing, does using a text make it text-based? [Peace 9/23]

According to Johns (2002), an aspect of the more traditional view of genre is as a written text whose form and content are recognisable by their regularities, fixed and permanent, and able to be subdivided into exclusive categories. It seems that Mr Peace's view of genre also falls in the traditional view as he recognises that it involves texts. However, his answers suggest an inadequate understanding of genre and text-based approaches. Genre theory (text-based approaches), specifically within an SFL framework, resonates with the more progressive view of genre, giving teachers a guide and method or recipe to follow by its reference to the curriculum cycle (Gibbons, 2002; Akinyeye, 2012). However, the fact that Mr Peace says there is no single way it should be taught, indicates his confusion and illustrates that he does not have a very comprehensive understanding of genre and text-based approaches.

Mrs Love concurs,

So, in Grades 4-6 it says text types and genres must be used so learners can get used to the terms. So, in Grades 4-6 there is a focus on text types and CAPS indicates which ones should be taught. There is also a lot of focus on literature like folklore but the terminology that goes with it does not match the genre. [Love 8/18]

Mrs Love's response highlights the fact that her view of genre is limited to a text type including literature. The CAPS document, she says, confirms the texts she should use but she does not mention anything about the social contexts of the text, which suggests she too has a limited understanding of genre in relation to a text-based approach. Furthermore, Mr Faith simply answered,

I listen to the requests of teachers and look at question paper analysis and results, for example, Drama, Life of Pi, and Poetry workshops were run because of the gap we see through the question paper analysis. [Faith 9/22]

Again, his answer is restricted to prescribed literature. Mrs Hope on the other hand states stated,

It is a struggle because teachers do not know how to teach. Also, explicit, and authentic text types are often longer than the CAPS requirements which is why teachers do not always select these. But they also do not have the methodology to teach each genre and have limited resources to do so. [Hope 8/19]

Her response suggests a slightly deeper understanding of genre and text-based approaches than her colleagues because she refers to explicit and authentic texts. Van Heerden (2008 & 2015)

specifically states that rather than analysing texts simply as sets of clauses, text analysis should focus on how language reveals or obscures social reality. This kind of analysis can emphasise how language constructs social reality, which is why authentic texts should be used to model the text to learners as well as assist them with deconstruction and construction of a text (Van Heerden, 2008). Thus, Mrs Hope's comment indicates she might be partially aware of some of the aspects of a more text-based approach and more complex view of genre.

When asked about the genres which teachers taught best, the responses were as follows: three of the subject advisors noted that poetry is a genre that teachers teach well. Mr Faith said,

> *Life of Pi, Drama, Hamlet, Othello, and Crucible is a battle but poetry is okay because learners answer based on memory whereas the extracts from the other genres do not allow for that. As a result, the other genres are the ones learners perform the weakest in which is why all of the teachers teach that badly.* [Faith 10/22]

This statement indicates that students perform best when they can practice rote learning and memorisation, which is why poetry is regarded as a strength. According to Mr Faith, teachers teach poetry well because learners can rote learn the content. This idea seems to contradict the CAPS document which suggest that poetry should be taught and not poems (DBE, 2011c). Also, the CAPS document stipulates that teaching literature should occur with an emphasis on comprehension, which is contrary to Mr Faith's sentiments. Mr Faith's idea that rote learning leads to good teaching and learning may be contested, as this strategy may not lead to meaningful language development and language proficiency (Carstens, 2009; Van Heerden, 2008). It leads to the assumption that teaching to the test and passing exams is prioritised over adequate language development and proficiency.

Mr Peace agreed with this.

> *Poetry. It is easier because they get a lot of guidance from textbooks. When it comes to certain folklore, it comes from the heart and teachers have to set up their own questions. If they don't find a textbook that can give you the questions they struggle. Therefore, if you can buy Platinum books it comes with everything, then we buy it with the teacher's guide and answers.* [Peace 10/23]

Mr Peace's comment suggests that teachers can only teach poetry well because of their overreliance on textbooks. Mrs Love agrees with him as she stated,

> *Poetry even though results don't say so. Some of them even want the DBE rainbow book to come with a teacher's guide or answers because they want to be spoon-fed. They don't know*

the answers to questions and the DBE rainbow books only ask level 1 and 2 questions with little to no level 3,4,5 questions, so make your own assumption about the teachers' cognitive levels. [Love 9/ 18]

On the other hand, Mrs Hope said,

Folklore is a strength and drama because students do well in those. [Hope 9/19]

Mrs Hope is the only advisor who seems to think that folklore and drama are strengths. The comments by all four of the respondents again emphasise subject advisors' perceptions of the genre concept as they continuously limit the concept to categorising various literary text types. Some of them also suggest that teachers cannot teach genres adequately and are over-reliant on textbooks (Van Heerden, 2008; Akinyeye, 2012). It seems as if subject advisors also largely base their perceptions of teachers' pedagogy on leaner results instead of classroom observations.

When the subject advisors were asked about the genres which teachers teach well, their answers echoed their previous statements in that Mr Faith said,

Literature genres or writing genres? With literature, learners do not read, and the texts are complex. This is linked to the reading problem as they cannot relate to literature like Shakespeare because it is a different English being used. Learners cannot see how it is relevant in today's life. They are not able to make the connection between the relevant themes and societal issues. With writing genres, they normally struggle with anything that has a long format to remember that is why I tell teachers to drill format.[Faith 11/22]

Mr Faith suggests that literature, especially Shakespeare, is a huge stumbling block because learners are not able to make connections between the text and their real lives or society. Again, these comments reinforce his traditional view of defining genre (Van Heerden, 2008). Mr Peace's comment illustrates his low regard for teachers' pedagogical knowledge and his traditional view on genre by mentioning,

Our teachers don't know how to teach literature.[Peace 11/23]

Mrs Love seems to be in unison with Mr Peace as she responded,

They do not have the needed skills to do so.[Love /10/18]

This indicates the perception these subject advisors have of teachers and their methodological knowledge, whereby they have a low regard for teachers' pedagogical knowledge.

Mrs Hope also notes a gap in teachers' teaching as she believes,

Writing is often not taught and presents as a weakness.[Hope 10/19]

Most of these comments place blame teachers' lack of pedagogical knowledge for the paucity of genres selected, and for the inadequate ways in which they are taught (Van Heerden, 2008; Akinyeye, 2012; Nagao, 2020). Unfortunately, however, subject advisors themselves have a rather narrow definition of genre. This will inevitably affect their support practices and may impact negatively on teacher pedagogy. CAPS claims to espouse genre as defined by the text-based camp. However, the CAPS classification, categorisation and labelling of genres expose a lack of alignment with text-based theory, despite its claims to the contrary (Du Plessis, 2021). CAPS also does not clearly specify what it means by genre, which may be the reason why subject advisors are unclear about the concept.

5.3.3.2 Grammar Teaching

There are various views on teaching grammar in the English language teaching domain. Different approaches in the field have their own specific ways of advocating for grammar instruction. Some emphasise traditional, rule-based methods, while others prefer a communicative approach, emphasising practical usage. Thus, understanding subject advisors' views on grammar provides a deeper understanding of their perceptions of text-based approaches which relates to the main research question and outcomes of the study. It seems as if many subject advisors advocate for formal grammar. For example, Mr Faith commented,

> *I will focus a lot on it, reading and reading strategies, where we look at the basics like spelling, sound, grammar, and language use. That must be enforced properly.* [Faith 12/22]

Mr Faith's response suggests that one's control of language depends on how well one understands the rules of grammar, which is a key component of a formal approach to understanding grammar (AlHamdany, 2012).

In addition, in a previous comment in theme 3. Mr Faith mentioned that format should be drilled. This confirms that he has a formal view of grammar and advocates for behaviourist pedagogies to be applied, because he emphasises teaching language structures and writing in a manner that promotes rote learning (AlHamdany, 2012; Christie, 2005). Mr Peace also made a comment that hints that he might have a similar view on grammar. When he explained how he believed writing should be taught in relation to genre, he stipulated,

> *…must drill the writing process.* [Peace 12/23]

The fact that Mr Faith suggests the use of a formal or structural process emphasises learning and memory recall and ultimately indicates value of the formal approaches to grammar. Mr Peace and Mr Faith did not mention how grammar operates in a particular context or how register influences the use of grammar. This indicates that Mr Faith and Mr Peace do not know about or value a functional approach to grammar. The lack of knowledge in the use of a functional approach to grammar as promoted in text-based approaches was alarming. Mrs Hope also made a comment that concurred with her two other colleagues.

CAPS focuses on teaching a lot of grammar all the time, taking learners back to the principles that matter. [Hope 11/19]

Mrs Hope's statement depicts a high regard for teaching the rules of grammar, a view that resonates with a formal approach to grammar. However, Mrs Hope's view is indicative of her limited understanding of a text-based approach. In the case of the text-based approach, the emphasis is extensively on functional grammar used in context. A text-based approach enhances learners' knowledge on grammar usage, especially for the purpose of contextualised meaning and purpose within the text.

Mr Faith, Mr Peace and Mrs Hope's comments illustrate that three of the subject advisors espoused some form of a formal view of grammar and the manner in which it should be implemented in classroom. However, this view conflicts with a text-based approach because it advocates for a form of contextual grammar that displays how linguistic forms are used by the writer as a means of meeting a purpose (Feng, 2013; van der Walt, 2018). The CAPS document likewise leans towards more formal and traditional views of grammar (despite stating that it focuses on teaching grammar in context). The document uses traditional labels when referring to grammar and lacks specificity regarding the process of teaching grammar in a functional manner (Feng, 2013; AlHamdany, 2012). This is significant as subject advisors and teachers who rely on the CAPS document for guidance may be misled in this regard. Mrs Hope did not comment directly on the teaching of grammar and linguistic forms.

It is evident that most of the subject advisors claim to have a contextual understanding of grammar. However, their responses belie a more traditional view of grammar as a set of rules taught in isolation from texts. This is important to note as CAPS similarly advocates for the use of teaching grammar in context, along functional grammar lines, while actually adhering to traditional notions (cf Feng, 2013). Again, the connection with subject advisors' responses to the CAPS document is evident. The clear implication is that the types of support teachers

receive in teaching grammar, via CAPS and subject advisors, contain elements of traditional grammar methods.

5.3.3.3 Valued Approaches and Methodology

The theme regarding valued approaches and methodology will discuss the approaches and methodologies which subject advisors value. Also, valued approaches and methodology might influence and contribute to subject advisor understanding of text-based approaches, demonstrating the approaches that may be enforced by the subject advisors in their district. The subject advisors all show signs of valuing a broad range of approaches. When a question about the curriculum was asked, Mr Peace responded as follows.

> *I started teaching in 2005. I found it overwhelming with the themed-based education. If they did the fish in math and did the fish in life orientation then when they got to you, they were all fished out. I found it was a nice idea, but it was boring after a while.* [Peace 13/23]

Mr Peace's comments suggest that he does not value some aspects of newer approaches like the communicative approach to language teaching because the principles of themed and content-based instruction are heavily influenced by communicative language teaching principles as they involve the active participation of students in exchanging information (Richards & Rogers, 2003). In a later comment, he added,

> *Teaching children different genres and having them practice construct it is important and when they construct it, we must drill the writing process.*[Peace 14/23]

The response from Mr Peace could be described as advocating for the writing process which stems from the process approach, a learner-centred approach that holds various benefits for language learning and writing improvement. However, learners of English as an additional language have limited exposure to texts and grammar, so the approach might not be as advantageous for these learners (Harper and De Jong, 2004; Hyland, 2003; Van Heerden 2008; Onozava, 2010). In addition, the response from Mr Peace illustrates that the subject advisor does not value or is not aware of the teaching and learning curriculum cycle used within the text-based approach. This is because the cycle allows for steps to assist learners with the entire writing process. Genre-based theory within the SFL framework categorises texts according to purpose, process and context which also assists learners to improve their writing (Van Heerden, 2008; Nagao, 2020).

Mr Peace shows some awareness of text-based approaches and the move towards using various texts to teach English; however, he is unclear how this works as indicted by his comment in the theme 3 discussion. He continues, explaining the methodology that they use in their training programmes.

> *In this programme we're doing now with the English First Additional Language schools some of the methodology is coming through like group guided reading, shared reading, and shared writing those are the types of things we need to develop skills even in the home language.*[Peace 15/23]

Mr Peace's comments demonstrate a level of understanding of text-based theory in the form of introducing and manipulating different types of texts as part of the teaching of language (Mumba & Mkandawire, 2019). He understands the importance of offering students guided practice for developing language skills through whole-text communication, which is a key component in a text-based approach (Sanata Dharma University, n.p.). However, Mr Peace seems uncertain about how this approach should be practically implemented in language pedagogy (also neglecting any mention of the curriculum cycle). In another comment, he added,

> *I always say, we must not forget our training because we know what works, so we can use that even though CAPS sometimes says something different. We can read and write, so those older types of approaches and methodologies are used for English Additional language, we must actually bring it back into the classroom.*[Peace 16/23]

Mr Peace's response reveals a vague understanding of text-based approaches in terms of teaching with texts and using guided support as well as valuing learner-centred teaching like in the process approach. He still seems inclined to older approaches to which he was exposed in his educational experience. It is perceived that Mr Peace (even though he agrees with some elements of constructivism) aligns with behaviourist approaches to language teaching too.

Some of Mr Faith's comments also indicate an appreciation of older approaches. He has previously mentioned his appreciation of rote learning and enforcing certain aspects of traditional grammar (AlHamdany, 2012). This illustrates that like his colleague, he highly values behaviourist methods of teaching.

Mr Faith went further to explain,

> *You must let children read the text and scaffold the process. Find their interests and work from there with their interests. When I was teaching, there was an 'UpBeat' magazine that kids use*

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to look forward to. I do not know what they read now that's what we used to read. I can say little about the strategies they use to train people. [Faith 13/22]

Mr Faith mentions scaffolding, revealing some knowledge about socio-constructivism and socio-cultural theory which is the premise of text-based approaches. However, there is no clear explanation of how this concept should be realised in the classroom. He also does not mention the curriculum cycle which is central in teaching writing in a scaffolded manner. He does specify that learners' interests are important aspects to consider, but Van Heerden (2015) indicates that providing learners with interesting topics does not provide second language learners with the linguistic tools to become effective text manipulators and creators. Additionally, he is particularly open about not knowing much about the current strategies in which people are trained, showing a limited view pertaining to text-based approaches. When Mr Faith was asked about similarities and differences in the language teaching approaches across the curriculum changes, he noted,

They foreground the communicative approach in first additional language teaching and text-based approaches too. Now there is an emphasis on communication skills as opposed to more technical aspects, so students get to talk more these days, but we are losing the plot there must be grammar too.[Faith 14/22]

The previous response by Mr Faith emphasises a limited knowledge in relation to text-based approaches because Mr Faith assumes that the approach, along with the communicative approach, mainly focuses on oral competency. On the contrary, text-based approaches specifically include aspects of grammar. However, text-based approaches also specifically support functional grammar which promotes a more sociological way of thinking because grammar is viewed in relation to its function in society and how it is used for meaning-making (AlHamdany, 2012; Christie, 2005). Mr Faith also commented,

I can advise a strategy to them for things like teaching writing. I focus on topical things like that but the CAPS document tells them what to teach. The escape route around the document is the visual stimuli, students can connect to what they are seeing in paragraph 1 and we go from there to paragraph two, so those tips and strategies I workshop with them. We could also have a marking workshop…. We need to scaffold and simplify the text for students. [Faith 15/22]

The response from Mr Faith's illustrates some of the theoretical components of text-based approaches, like scaffolding. However, his explanation showed a traditional view on teaching and writing aligning with more traditional approaches. It is evident that Mr Faith considers traditional approaches to teaching grammar valuable whereby the teaching emphasis is on in-

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depth grammatical structure such as sentence and paragraph level learning at the expense of text contextualisation (Richards & Rodgers, 1999; Kuznetsova, 2015; González et al., 2017; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019).

According to Mr Faith, texts should be simplified for students, suggesting that he does not value texts in their authentic state. In essence, tampering with an authentic text might influence the intended purpose and message of the text because the textual features are often purposefully selected to achieve the writer's goal. So the simplification of text might result in the loss of various modes and multimodality and thereby compromise the identity of the whole text (Van Heerden, 2015). According to Van Heerden (2015), adapting texts to suit particular contexts can hamper students' ability to fully understand how a particular text operates, how specific linguistic choices influence the overall text and how the text is situated in its social context. This acknowledges the value that didactic texts may have, especially in relation to remedial practices (Du Plessis, 2021). However, it is important to note that people involved in the simplification of text must do so without losing key textual features.

Mrs Love has a deeper understanding of how linguistic features of a text influence a text type. This deeper comprehension might be a result of her 2016 honours degree in language education. She encourages teachers to teach aspects of literature in the following manner.

> *They don't see a story is a genre that turns into a novel. I must have characters. So, the literature aspects are not addressed when they give text-based type lessons. So what we do now is model that by reading and viewing you, set up an activity that specifically asks who the characters are and what the message of the story is. So now you can address the literature aspects in Grade 4, so it also reads literature aspects, so that the child knows oh this is a story. Then they'll be able to identify what type of text it is where they can see Oh a story can become a short story. There should be an appreciation for the progression of texts across the grade.*
> [Love 11/18]

Mrs Love's response exemplifies that she understands how a text is composed, and how its features influence the type of text. She also hints that making the textual features more explicit to learners and teachers will allow them to identify a text type quite easily (Derewianka, 1990 & 2003). However, even though Mrs Love's perception of a text-based approach is specifically linked to progression and an emphasis on explicit teaching of textual linguistic features, it seems limited to genre as a form of prescribed literature. She does not make the connection that a text is a broader entity defined by its stages, goals and social processes (Martin & Rose, 2005a).

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She also mentions,

> *Start with the text and a balanced approach, where you teach a skill at a time and it flows from that in an integrated way one skill one at a time.* [Love 12/18]

Mrs Love's statement establishes her restricted understanding of text-based approaches that follows the curriculum cycle and promotes simultaneous skill development. The statement of Mrs Love advocates for the development of one skill at a time. This notion is promoted by more traditional approaches which focus on either oral competency such as in the direct method or the grammar-translation method which emphasises grammar drills for the proficiency of reading or writing habits (Kuznetsova, 2015; González et al., 2017; Van der Walt & Evans, 2019). In comparison with the perspective of Mrs Love, Mrs Hope's the level of understanding the text-based approaches could be as a result of her education status as one of the advisors with an honours degree in language education. She mentioned her discontent with the CAPS document.

> *A problem is that there is no clear progression from Grade 4-7 and these genres are not explicitly taught.*
>
> *Authentic text types are often longer than the CAPS requirements which is why teachers do not always select these. But they also do not have the methodology to teach each genre and have limited resources to do so.* [Hope 12/19]

Mrs Hope's statements show that she has greater advocacy or understanding of text-based approaches than her colleagues. In specific, Mrs Hope's perspective suggests that she advocates the teaching of texts and their linguistic features. For instance, Mrs Hope's level of knowledge on the text-based approaches is shown by her reference to authentic text types, so she is aware of the benefit of text in its original authentic state and how it affects learners' understanding of text analysis and production (Van Heerden, 2016). She also shows some awareness that texts have interrelated features, indicating the manner by which writers use language to react to similar contexts (Hyland 2002; Hyon 1996). These interrelated texts form various text types which are organised in a particular way within in a particular context; it seems Mrs Hope realises this and states that teachers do not have the capacity to teach all of these text types. Mrs Hope also explains,

> *It is teaching of different texts and focusing on small elements of the text. Deconstruction of the text bottom up and top down. If you do that with your students in a comprehension, then you are applying a text-based approach.* [Hope 13/19]

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In addition, Mrs Hope's explanation exhibits moderate comprehension of a text-based approach and the curriculum cycle (even though she does not clearly mention it). Mrs Hope states that the text-based approach emphasises the analysis of text and deconstruction of text to understand how texts work in certain contexts. This is an example of the deconstruction stage of the curriculum cycle as described by Gibbons (2002). It is noteworthy that despite Mrs Hope's level of comprehension of text-based approach, Mrs Hope seems to value conflicting approaches. For instance, when asked if she had anything she wanted to add, she indicated,

> *Overall, I feel the area of looking at language and its biological aspects needs to be emphasised. I would like to do my studies on the science of language and how it operates in the brain. I feel that we are missing that aspect, which is so important, we cannot address the speaking of the language and even the context without looking at the process of language and how it transpires in the mind. There might be many cognitive reasons students struggle with language and we spend so much time focused on context.* [Hope 14/19]

The response by Mrs Hope is a sign that she values traditional approaches to language teaching and development. Traditionally, language teaching and development is synonymous to biological aspects of the brain as opposed to the socio-cultural realm of language; thus, there has been a renewed focus on the psychological study of language (Hyon, 1996) because the psychological study of language adopts social contexts compared to the notions within a text-based framework (Hyland, 2003).

While all four subject advisors know about and subscribe to one or another aspect of a text-based approach, they also value other approaches. Several favour rote learning, traditional grammar and language teaching, or focus on the biological aspects of language development. In so doing, most exhibit a limited understanding of a text-based approach, despite acknowledging its benefit to learners.

5.3.4 Theme 4: Challenges Encountered

In terms of challenges encountered, subject advisors seem to be overworked and do not experience adequate wellness support (Thulani, 2014; Ngcobo, 2020). The theme is central to the research objectives and the research question as it may present insight into subject advisors' perceptions regarding their valued language teaching approaches and the capacity to which they can enforce them. The following sub-themes will discuss the various challenges subject advisors encounter.

5.3.4.1 Lack of Support

Subject advisors' job descriptions require them to fulfil numerous tasks which include extensive travelling, evaluating curriculum and assisting teachers with LTSM. According to Thulani (2014), subject advisors are aware of the numerous roles they are required to fulfill, often sacrificially. However, numerous subject advisors do not accomplish their duties due to workload, human resource issues and lack of support (Goodwill, 2015; Thulani, 2014). In most cases, subject advisors are overworked and experience little support and struggle due to unfilled vacancies (Goodwill, 2015; Thulani, 2014). Many of the subject advisors feel that some aspects of their job description extend their workload beyond their capacity, as revealed in their comments below. Mr Peace indicated that one of his biggest struggles is attempting to reach every single teacher in his district.

> *We do not see teachers often because we are two advisors who have to focus on 22 schools, and looking after every teacher individually will not work… We cannot do everything.* [Peace 17/23]

Mr Peace endeavours to devise a strategy to ensure that teachers receive support from their colleagues in positions of authority, such as subject heads or heads of departments (HoDs). He suggests,

> *I will pull the teachers' colleagues in because there are subject heads and HoDs. Also, schools need mentorship programmes.* [Peace 18/23]

Mr Peace attempts to create his own mentorship programme for various schools because he was not able to tend to all teachers' individual needs. This echoes Goodwill's (2015) finding that many subject advisors need to be creative about sourcing their own forms of human resources to help them manage all their responsibilities.

Mrs Love is similarly affected by her workload.

> *The metros are centralised with schools close to each other whereas we have a lot of travelling and a lot of our poorer results come from multi-grade schools. This is especially challenging when both advisors come from mono grades settings, for us it is a challenge to assist them.* [Love 13/18]

Mrs Love's comment suggests that subject advisors are expected to engage in extensive travel, impinging on other aspects of their work. According to Goodwill (2015), the issue of travelling is a concern for subject advisors because it influences the onsite support advisors give teachers. Both Mr Peace and Mrs Love are required to assist teachers with issues out of their expertise –

as both advisors in the district have no experience relating to multi-grade contexts. The implication of such a requirement is that advisors are expected to advise on areas for which they have little expertise. The discussion in theme 5 reveals that subject advisors do not receive adequate training and professional development, enhancing the difficultly for subject advisors to provide sufficient support to schools in the above context. The issue Mrs Love raises here correlates with Siyabulela (2014) who notes that the workload is an obstacle in supporting all the schools in the districts because their support is stretched across too many schools and different contexts. This illustrates that subject advisors cannot necessarily enhance teaching and learning under certain circumstances (Siyabulela, 2014).

Furthermore, the subject advisors' profiles indicate that both Mr Peace and Mrs Love are appointed as advisors for both English and Afrikaans. This means that these advisors have double the workload of a normal subject advisor, but when they request support like additional training to up-skill, they are declined due to funding as indicted below (theme 5).

Mr Faith mentions that he raised concerns to his supervisors about the various challenges encountered over the years, but nothing is done about these complex and serious issues that filter down and affect the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom (Siyabulela, 2014). Mr Faith notes,

> *We raise the concerns, but nothing gets done; they just say there is no budget.* [Faith 16/22]

According to Mr Faith, a lack of financial resources in the form of budgetary allocation was mentioned during stakeholder engagement. Budget constraints continue to have a negative effect on subject advisor efficiency and as a result, teaching and learning (Thulani 2014; Goodwill 2015). Also, in considering the various comments from subject advisors, there appears to be a lack of synergy between provincial and national departments of education, hence the persistence of inadequate financial resources.

What can therefore be identified as a major challenge is the inadequate resourcing and support made available to subject advisors for their crucial role in the implementation of effective teaching and learning (Siyabulela, 2014). The lack of support negatively impacts the quality of assistance subject advisors are able to extend to schools and teachers, with knock-on effects on the quality of teaching and curriculum support at classroom level (Thulani, 2014; Goodwill, 2015; Chigona, 2017).

5.3.4.2 Lack of Reading Culture

Thulani (2014) stipulates that learners' social contexts play a major role in some of the challenges that subject advisors face. Mupa and Chinooneka (2015) suggest that parental involvement and a lack of resources like additional reading material affect the quality of teaching and learning. Three of the subject advisors concur with the notion that learners' social situations influence effective pedagogy and their workload. According to Mrs Love,

> *A lot of contextual factors come into play. There are a lot of challenges in this regard. There are a lot of contextual factors to look but if we look at parent involvement that is one of the biggest issues in rural schools. The problem is no parents reading with children, telling them stories, but based on the results it seems the other districts are performing better.*[Love 14/18]

Mrs Love's response shows that many children in their district do not have the support of their parents when it comes to literacy development. This is a major obstacle in ensuring equal and fair educational opportunities for all (Mupa & Chinooneka, 2015; Naidoo, 2019). Mrs Love also mentioned that a lack of reading culture in households contributes to the literacy crisis, an aspect that subject advisor have little influence over (Van Bergen, Zuijen, Bishop & de Jong, 2016). Mr Peace agrees with Mrs Love, as he mentioned,

> *Various contextual issues hamper on the process, like rural schools with their lack of resources and multi-grade schools.* [Peace 19/23]

Mr Peace also believes that contextual issues make literacy development in their district difficult. Mr Faith believes that contextual issues such as the lack of a reading culture influence learner proficiency and literacy, commenting,

> *But there is a lack of reading culture; a lot of kids come from homes where there is no exposure to reading and no data for online reading. Another huge challenge is that middle-class schools can appoint librarians and less fortunate cannot and even if the less fortunate schools have libraries, it becomes a storeroom. Middle-class schools have fully stocked libraries not just an outdated computer lab. Access to age-appropriate reading is a challenge. Next year, I will focus a lot on reading and reading strategies, where we look at the basics like spelling, sounds, grammar and language use.*[Faith 17/22]

Mr Faith agrees with both his colleagues as he too highlighted the lack of parental support and poor reading culture as reasons behind poor literacy levels (Mupa & Chinooneka, 2015; Van Bergen et al. 2016: Chetty, 2019). He also indicated that a lack of finance and insufficient resources also contribute to this as disadvantaged schools lack the resources to provide learners with support such as libraries and librarians (Van Bergen et al., 2016).

The three subject advisors' comments point to the existence of various social and contextual factors that influence reading literacy levels (cf Van Bergen et al., 2016). These relate to constraints on finance, support, professional development, or to policy conundrums (cf 5.4.5, 5.4.4.1 and 5.4.4.4). Such factors are generally out of the advisors' control but cause strain because of their major impact on advisors' ability to fulfil their job description (Goodwill, 2015). It is alarming to see to what extent learners' social circumstances influence their reading literacy development and how these, in turn, make subject advisors' jobs very difficult, given that they receive little support in attempting to rectify the issues (Siyabulela, 2014).

5.3.4.3 Teacher Inefficiency

All the subject advisors raised concerns about teachers not being equipped for curriculum delivery in the classroom. Teachers' lack of capacity, therefore, hinders teaching and learning in the classroom. This also has negative ramifications for subject advisors because it impacts their work as some teachers do not adhere to departmental expectations and are not able to rise to new challenges and prospects (Thulani, 2014; Chetty; 2019).

Mrs Hope mentions,

> *It is a struggle because teachers do not know how to teach.* [Hope 15/19]

This is reinforced by Mrs Love.

> *I do not know if they know the different methodological approaches to teaching different skills. That is going to be our next challenge. So, I am very pedantic when it comes to this and I try and bring it into every lesson we plan for them.* [Love 15/18]

The comments from Mrs Hope and Mrs Love suggest that teachers are not familiar with the various teaching and learning methodologies and thereby compromise the anticipated outcome such as enhancement of teaching and learning experiences in the class. Above and beyond their regular workload and job description, subject advisors must prepare lesson plans for teachers in their districts. It is difficult for subject advisors to manage teachers' non-compliance of curriculum delivery as they are not allowed to discipline teachers for inadequate curriculum delivery, something that can only be reported to the school SMT, specifically school principals (Thulani, 2014).

Mr Peace concurs with Mrs Love when he comments,

> *CAPS show them how to plan and implement strategies, but they are lazy, so we sit with the document and plan and create resources for them.* [Peace 20/23]

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The response from Mr Peace depicts the reliance of teachers on subject advisors to work through the CAPS document and execute basic tasks like lesson planning. This additional task contributes to subject advisors' workloads and impacts the support they provide other teachers in the district. According to Mr Faith, teachers are not only over-reliant on subject advisors but also rely heavily on textbooks.

He states,

Teachers become dependent on study guides and textbooks to try and keep up.[Faith 18/22]

This suggests that some teachers lack the autonomy, creativity, proactiveness, confidence and knowledge to implement the curriculum effectively (Thulani, 2014). Mrs Love reiterates this.

It was frustrating to see how they ignore CAPS and what the document says. They do not follow the teaching and assessment method. I think it is because they do not understand it but that is debatable because it is written for you in the document. So, the porridge falls on the floor and I think it is a result of a lack of knowledge, time, excuses, and laziness. Therefore, we have to give a framework to them.[Love 16/18]

Mrs Love maintains that some teachers do not follow the CAPS document and display a poor work ethic because they rely heavily on subject advisors and resource books. Spaull (2013) agrees with the comments of subject advisors as his report indicates that many teachers lack the relevant content and methodological knowledge for effective curriculum delivery. It can be deduced that teachers' lack of passion and low self-esteem contribute to subject advisors' heavy workload and inadequate implementation of the curriculum (Thulani, 2014).

When asked about the literacy strengths in her district, Mrs Hope noted,

good teachers and students who attempt to do their best contribute to our success. [Hope 16/19]

This statement indicates that there are teachers who work hard and who contribute significantly to the academic success of their learners. However, this does not negate the fact that there are also many teachers who do the bare minimum and as a result, negatively affect the teaching and learning process (Thulani, 2014).

It is imperative that an effective monitoring and accountability tool be introduced to ensure teachers follow the department's expectations. Additionally, Thulani states that "curriculum planning without action and no monitoring is a useless exercise" (2014:74), highlighting the importance of effective monitoring. However, three of the subject advisors indicate that they have no intentional monitoring and evaluation tools in place. When specifically asked about these, Mrs Hope stated,

There is not something at the moment, but we just use curriculum pacing and planning as a guide. If teachers follow the pacing and planning, they should be on par, so I try and check if they follow that, but other than that we do not have something concrete to monitor them. That is maybe something we should work on for the future.[Hope 17/19]

Mrs Love also has no tools in place.

None really, only visits. [Love 17/18]

Mr Faith notes,

We do not really have any. I would do school visits but that would mostly be for the schools who are performing the worst. We also just let the results serve as a monitoring tool.[Faith 19/22]

The following comments from Mrs Love, Mrs Hope, and Mr Faith suggest that subject advisors do not value monitoring and evaluation as much as they value planning. However, there is a need to follow-up on the basis of implementation and outcomes of the delivered lesson plan. The follow-up could be in the form of monitoring and evaluation in the classroom environment (Thulani, 2014). It is important for subject advisors to have effective tools because monitoring and evaluation greatly impact curriculum delivery and literacy progression (Goodwill, 2015; Thulani, 2014).

The subject advisors' comments highlight the imperative for the WCED to do effective monitoring and evaluation as a means of tackling the above-mentioned challenges. The need to compensate for teachers' inefficiency adds to overworked advisors' workloads, so an effective monitoring tool would help in managing teachers who fail to comply with curriculum guidelines (Thulani, 2014).

5.3.4.4 Lack of Mother Tongue Education

Technically, the question of the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) falls outside the advisors' brief. However, given the centrality of language to learning and the multilingual complexity of the population, it is perhaps not surprising that two of the metropole (i.e. urban) advisors mention language-related challenges that affect the performance and progress of numerous learners in their respective districts. That they do so in somewhat tentative tones signals their awareness of other factors also at play.

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According to Mr Faith, mother tongue education – or its absence – greatly impacts literacy results in the district.

> *In the foundation phase, our results were one of the best in the province but when it comes to the Intermediate and Senior Phases there is a decline due to the mother tongue switch. This might have something to do with the decline.* [Faith 20/22]

Mrs Hope echoes these sentiments.

> *The Home language students do well if they are being taught in their Home Language from the start of their schooling career but students with different mother tongues, that are not English do not perform as well when English is the medium of instruction in the school. The Grade 4 swap from mother tongue to English Additional Language of LoLT also impacts the learners' progression… A challenge could be the mother tongue issues we face, where students learn through a language like English that is not their mother tongue.* [Hope 18/19]

The two participants' statements demonstrate awareness of the foundational importance of mother-tongue education (MTE). In classic MTE, reading, writing and thinking are developed in the student's mother tongue or home language (L1), while the second or foreign language (L2) is taught as a subject. As L2 exposure increases, L1 literacy and cognition are not compromised and continue (Benson, 2005). Learning a second language based on one's first language competency can result in high-level biliteracy and bilingualism for learners who continue to study their own languages (Benson, 2005). According to Alexander, mother-tongue based bilingual education "is the future of all education in a globalizing world" (2009:1). As a corollary, the premature switch to English has a potentially debilitating effect on learners' literacy development.

Mrs Hope's comment about the LoLT swap alludes to the historical and current practice in ex-DET primary schools in which learners officially transition from (African) mother-tongues to English by Grade 4. Learners would thus have been taught English as a second language subject for a mere three years before being expected to use it for learning across the curriculum. Thus, the FAL becomes the LoLT, a particularly disabling type of early-exit bilingual model for speakers of non-dominant languages (Benson & Kosonen 2021). The expectation of a successful transition at that stage is simply unrealistic and sets most learners up for educational failure (Sibanda, 2017).

Mr Faith and Mrs Hope's statements are similarly corroborated by Probyn, Murray, Botha, Botya, Brooks and Westphal (2002) who emphasise the literacy complexity for learners arising from the switch in LoLT. In order to offer learners a quality cognitive experience, the learners'

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social environment and cultural 'funds of knowledge' (cf Moll, 2019) must constitute the core resources for learners. Learners come to school with formed schemata, including their mother tongue, that help them construct meaning (Vygotsky, 1978). The above-mentioned studies all point to the need to acknowledge learners' extant linguistic resources and repertoires to deal with the cognitive demand from Grade 4. Piaget's notion of assimilation is a concept that allows First Additional Language students to use their mother tongue as a schema for translation or translanguaging, promoting creative meaning and meaningful communication in the target language (Naketsana & Nomlomo, 2019; Marrero-Colon, 2021).

According to Mr Faith, some of the schools' language policies in his district contribute to the challenges they face, and due to budget constraints, they do not receive support to address these issues. He explains,

> *In one large suburb in the district where Afrikaans is the dominant language, there is only two primary schools that have Afrikaans as HL. Also, some schools have the issue of Xhosa students doing English as HL and Afrikaans as FAL, this is due to staffing, and the students fail miserably. Then one school appointed a part-time Xhosa teacher that they share with other schools. The teacher goes from school to school to provide Xhosa as a subject to three other schools in the area but these learners have to do English HL and Xhosa FAL. They are still not allowed to use Xhosa as HL or as a medium of instruction and they can only do Xhosa at FAL level if they pass a basic Xhosa comprehension test. The WCED does nothing about this. We raise the concerns, but nothing gets done, they just say there is not a budget for further intervention.*[Peace 21/23]

In these few sentences, Mr Faith has succinctly captured several salient socio-linguistic realities and problems related to school language practices. Firstly, there is a reference to the diminishing role and status of Afrikaans as a language of education, indexed in the declining number of Afrikaans single-medium schools countrywide – fewer than 1300, representing 5% of all public schools (Colditz, 2018). Secondly, there is the anomalous situation that Xhosa-speaking learners enrolled in English-medium (i.e. former 'white' or 'coloured') schools are compelled to take English (HL) and Afrikaans (FAL) due to a lack of teachers able to teach isiXhosa. It is also an ironic situation: by being denied the chance to develop their first language at school, a significant (less poor) minority of black learners are worse off than they would have been under apartheid. That is, African languages continue to be marginalised in favour of the apartheid regimes' two official languages, English and Afrikaans (Bamgbose, 2000). Thirdly, having iterant teachers of isiXhosa shared amongst several wealthy (almost certainly quintile 5) schools is probably a response to the department's low-key Incremental Introduction

of African Languages (IIAL) initiative (DBE, 2013c) that seeks to promote trilingualism amongst former 'white' and 'coloured' schools while also strengthening the home languages (as FAL) of African-language speakers enrolled in them. The fact that Mr Faith does not allude to the IIAL suggests that the policy is not well known. This is probably due to its essentially voluntary nature, i.e., the schools themselves have to pay for the services of an isiXhosa teacher (Sigcau, 2023; Molate & Tyler, 2020). Mr Faith's point, however, is that the department's laissez-faire approach to African languages is discriminatory and serves only to further disadvantage the speakers.

Mr Faith's observations thus highlight the ongoing concerns regarding school language policies and LoLT across the system (cf Plüddemann, 2015). Learners face challenges in developing their cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in a second language (English). The vast majority are deprived of the use of their mother tongue as their primary learning resource – a critical factor in academic underperformance. Many also experience cultural alienation and low self-confidence (Plüddemann, Nomlomo & Jabe, 2010; Khanyile & Awung, 2023).

Mr Faith's remarks illustrate the gap between pro-multilingual policy and an Anglo normative practice (cf McKinney, 2020). The LiEP (DOE, 1997) endorses the pedagogically sound idea of using the first or primary language as the basis for education, rather than a second or third language, under the moniker of additive bi- or multilingualism (Alexander, 2006; 2009). In practice, however, most learners countrywide are still educated through a language in which they are not proficient, denying them the necessary epistemic access to achieve their full academic potential (Kerfoot &Van Heerden, 2015).

A key reason for the discrepancy is found in the dominance of English across public and private sectors, including universities, and the simultaneous under-valuing of African languages. As a result – and because school governing bodies have the power to choose their own language policies – most schools opt for English as LoLT (beyond the foundation phase), even though English is the spoken home language of fewer than 9% of the population (StatsSA, 2023). The embrace of English under these conditions goes against the grain of the LiEP. The CAPS document, by contrast, does very little to promote additive bilingualism (as described in the Language in Education Policy) tacitly endorsing an early-exit bilingual approach with English as the target LoLT. This is concerning, as it illustrates that the promotion of African languages is largely symbolic and is not realised in practice.

The subject advisors' comments suggest that current district budgets are not flexible enough to deal with various language policy and mother tongue education permutations, which in turn illustrates that this is not an area prioritised within the WCED. According to the LiEP (1997), provincial departments are responsible for assisting schools with the implementation of their language policies. The language policy mandate of the provincial department is to

> *explore ways and means of sharing scarce human resources. It must also explore ways and means of providing alternative language maintenance programmes in schools and or school districts that cannot be provided with and or offer additional languages of teaching in the home language(s) of learners.* (DBE, 1997:4)

The denial of mother tongue based (or additive bilingual) education and language policies greatly affects the academic achievement of many South African children (Mohohlwane, 2020; Khanyile & Awung, 2023). As indicated above, the issue has been discussed at global and national levels for many years, and South Africa chose to align itself with the use of mother-tongue and bilingual education through its LiEP which was drafted in accordance with the pro-multilingual principles of the Constitution. However, conflict is evident between the claims made in the language policy, on the one hand, and what happens in South African schools and what is encouraged through the CAPS curriculum, on the other. There are many other areas of quality that affect the poor state of our South African education system (Mohohlwane, 2020). However, it is clear from the advisors' comments that language issues greatly hamper the literacy development of countless learners, and that mother tongue/additive bilingual education and language policy intervention require substantial attention.

In summary, while decisions about school language policies fall outside subject advisors' brief, it is unsurprising that the 'lack of fit' between learner home language and school language (LoLT) impacts their work. The two urban-based advisors identify the current permutations of school language practices that inevitably disadvantage and discriminate against learners. Tellingly, both identify the problem of poor literacy results and delayed progression as related to the absence of mother-tongue education from Grade 4 upwards. That they do so somewhat tentatively suggests they are aware of other factors also. The advisors note the lack of support and intervention from senior management and policymakers.

Additionally, The Basic Education Laws Amendment Bill (2021) has also outlined a crucial element for the promotion of mother tongue education and bilingualism. The bill introduces an amendment that grants the provincial department head the authority to approve school language policies. This means that school governing bodies (SGB) no longer have the final say on a

school's language policy; instead, the language policy must be submitted for approval (DBE, 2021). This bill appears to signify progress, as the provincial head of the department will make recommendations to promote bilingualism where feasible. However, it is essential to note that the bill, based on the events referenced in it, seems to have been implemented to prevent schools from excluding certain students based on their language policy. The bill, however, does not elaborate on how this relates to the implementation of the curriculum policy. Thus, indicating that curriculum policy and language policy are still treated as separate entities, as described by Hoadley (2018).

Overall comment on Theme 4 (Challenges encountered)

This section (theme) has presented and discussed the various challenges identified by subject advisors and how these affect their ability to perform their job effectively (cf Goodwill, 2015). Many of these are beyond subject advisors' control. For instance, advisors cannot adequately support teachers struggling with the effects of school language policy decisions that deny learners mother-tongue education. Similarly, they cannot compensate for the lack of a reading culture in many learners' homes and the effects on school literacy practices and performance. Nor can they cope with the financial constraints that hinder the appointment of additional staff, subject advisor training or work-related travel. An onerous workload – being responsible for too many schools – makes it impossible to assist each individual teacher, or to implement effective monitoring tools that would assist with teacher efficiency and the enhancement of classroom pedagogy (Goodwill, 2015; Fulani, 2015).

5.3.5 Theme 5: Professional Development

The support for professional development is minimal as all four subject advisors admitted they did not receive adequate training upon appointment. It is noteworthy that the training content provided to subject advisors was not explicitly explained by the respondents. However, in considering the roles and responsibilities of subject advisors, the importance of training in the form of capacity development cannot be underestimated. This is because the skill sets required to function as a subject advisor are different from the professional skill sets possessed by the teachers. For instance, in reference to the guidelines on the Organisation, Roles, and Responsibilities of Education Districts (2011d), subject advisors are specialists of the

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curriculum. By extension, subject advisors have a role in policy evaluation and implementation within the context of the curriculum. In addition, subject advisors are required to manage curriculum support for their subject of expertise, which includes providing teachers with advice and consultations, promoting inclusive education and reporting on school visits (DBE, 2011d). Similarly, subject advisors are mandated to facilitate professional development programmes for teachers through collaboration with the South African Council for Educators (SACE). Moreover, subject advisors are also responsible for providing teachers with the appropriate and timely learner and teacher support materials (LTSM) (DBE, 2011d).

The post-apartheid era has seen major changes to curriculum, policy, and pedagogical concepts (Hoadley, 2018; Jansen, 1998). However, the modification of strategic policy documents, including the curriculum, has not been complemented by human capacity development as in the case of subject advisors. In particular, the lack of coordination in policy changes and curriculum has resulted in poor assessment mechanisms and subject teaching protocols, including for English (Van Heerden, 2008; Kerfoot & Van Heerden, 2015; Singh, 2015). The multiple changes have significantly impacted the professional development of district officials, who are expected to stay abreast of developments. Subject advisors play a crucial role in promoting quality education for all by facilitating and enforcing the curriculum. Staying updated with curriculum changes is essential, given their significant responsibility in providing classroom support and pedagogical guidance, to contribute to the overall goal of achieving quality education (Jansen, 1998; Singh, 1999; DBE, 2011d; Smith, Gamede & Uleanya, 2019). Thus, the training and professional development of subject advisors are central to the study because they may relate to their interpretation of a text-based approach.

When asked about the training they receive the subject advisors were unanimous in their responses.

> *There is no formal training that you receive on your appointment. You do not receive any specific or specialised subject advisor training. I do not believe that any advisor who comes to this district knows what to do.* [Peace 21/23]

> *There is no formal training you receive upon your appointment. If a new plan, project, or curriculum amendment is introduced we might have to attend training about the implementation of strategies, thus this occurs randomly.* [Hope 19/19]

> *Mr Peace gave me a few pointers and he set up a document last year that would help anyone who is a new appointment to adjust to the new environment… I just started this year, I am not too sure, but I have not attended any training for the year yet. I did one ICT course twice: the*

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basic Google course. There is nothing too specific to my job and the support of teachers. [Love 18/18]

Mrs Love felt that she was completely thrown into the deep when she started her journey as a subject advisor and only survived the year because of Mr Peace's assistance.

The above comments illustrate that the subject advisors' professional development is not prioritised (Goodwill, 2015), reportedly due to budget constraints. The lack of financial support to subject advisors is often advised by the designated authority within a circuit, implying that professional development of subject advisors could be a personal responsibility. Mr Faith elaborates,

> *People must indicate their needs in their work plan and include it under the curriculum component to give the curriculum manager an indication of what their needs are. Many of us thus go for the same training that is beneficial to all of us, except for a handful of people who feels that it is not for them.* [Faith 22/22]

The response from Mr Faith suggests the need for specialised development for subject advisors. However, the enrolment of subject advisors for specialised development courses must be appropriately justified and with the approval of senior management. In the context of the subject advisors' profiles and their responses, there is a consensus on the need for additional training and professional development programmes. Furthermore, making it mandatory for subject advisors to join special training programmes upon their appointment could help ensure that everyone consistently develops their skills. This notion was shared by Mr Peace who said,

> *It changed last year to where we cannot select training programmes to attend anymore. So, Mrs Love cannot select what she wants to do, it must be prescribed by her line manager. In the past, it was where we saw programmes we liked and we just booked it, and anyone interested in it would go.* [Peace 22/23]

He further expressed that,

> *I mean we have been told that in a meeting one day, you must own your own growth. It is not always that easy, because a lot of the stuff that you want to do would be outside WCED and would cost money. Once something costs money then suddenly it is like no, we are not paying for that.* [Peace 23/23]

The response from Mr Peace and the other three subject advisors is indicative of a lack of institutional support for subject advisors. The inadequate resources to enhance subject advisor development means that external capacity development (facilitated by consultants) must be

explored, and it is suggestive of a lack of stakeholder engagement. For instance, the subject advisors' profile showed non-uniformity in the period that academic qualification was acquired, apartheid and post-apartheid. The curriculum disparity between the apartheid and post-apartheid era is such that subject advisors must be professionally resourced and developed through capacity training to enhance quality discharge of teaching and learning and other related duties.

One of the consequences of a changing curriculum, including content alterations, is the need to ensure prompt updates, especially (given its role as LoLT) with regard to English. Subject advisors do not appear to possess the capacity and skill-set to grow their expertise in this specialised field and tend to receive continuous but general rather than specialised training. This is a concern because they are tasked with managing curriculum delivery by enhancing teachers' particular subject specialisations (DBE, 2011d; Ngcobo, 2020). However, if subject advisors are not developing professionally, especially in their specialised subjects, they may have limited understanding of curriculum reform and transformation. The absence of specialist support and training for advisors will inevitably impact the quality of support and training teachers receive, which ultimately influences literacy practices in the classroom (Chigona, 2017; Smith, Gamede & Uleanya, 2019; Singh, 1999; Goodwill, 2015; Chetty, 2019).

5.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed and analysed the interview data as a means of addressing the research questions presented in Chapter 1. Thematic analysis was used to establish the main and sub-themes of this chapter. These themes emerged through the data analysis process and guide the findings and recommendations that will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Introduction

This study explored subject advisors' perceptions of text-based theory as realised in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy (2011a; 2011b; 2011c). The dual aim was to shed light on the extent to which a text-based approach is understood, explained and recommended in the CAPS document (2011a; 2011b; 2011c), and to explore subject advisors' understandings of a text-based approach This chapter presents a summary of the research findings discussed in Chapters 4 and 5 which seek to answer the research questions. Additionally, the chapter uses the research findings as a basis to draw conclusions and spell out implications for future study and reflection.

6.2 Research Findings

The research findings developed from the data analysed in Chapters 4 and 5 address subject advisors' perceptions of the text-based approach as realised in the CAPS document. The research findings are led by the subsidiary research questions:

- *To what extent is a text-based approach realised in the CAPS document?*

- *What are subject advisors' understandings of a text-based approach?*

This section will discuss the research findings with respect to the above research questions.

6.2.1 To what extent is a text-based approach realised in the CAPS document?

The English Home and Additional Language CAPS documents recommend the use of a text-based approach in collaboration with other approaches for language teaching. However, the study has found that the document presents a somewhat vague, inadequate and contradictory explanation of the approach which is likely to lead to ambiguity, misinterpretation and inconsistent implementation.

Teaching literature

As analysed in detail in Chapter 4, the Intermediate Phase English FAL CAPS document (DBE 2011b) views literary texts as a main genre (which is very different from other texts) that has corresponding text features. However, Slater and McCrocklin (2016) propose that there be a

focus on language when teaching literature as it will allow learners to work critically with the texts they are reading. Lukin (2008) suggests that literary texts should be regarded as any other text applicable to the SFL approach – like a linguistic body. Because all texts can be viewed as a complex set of patterns wherein each of these patterns carries meaning and the goal would be for teachers to assist students in doing a language-based analysis by showing them how to find these patterns within the literature (Slater & McCrocklin, 2016). It is inaccurate to classify these texts under the same category based on the similarity of literary devices because each text has its own context, purpose, participants and processes. Therefore, a method of analysis for literary text could be analysing a text based on a combination of the participants involved in the communication, the topic being discussed, and through which mode it is discussed in order to access how language is used for meaning making (Slater & McCrocklin, 2016; Almurashi, 2016; Mickan, 2011). The CAPS document emphasises the literary devices and features within literary texts, but little is mentioned about the contexts, processes and linguistic choices employed to achieve that purpose. It is evident, therefore, that a text-based approach (even though it is identified as a language teaching approach) is not fully understood in the curriculum.

Additionally, learners are expected to make interpretations of the texts to negotiate meaning, but the document does not clearly state how to use a model of language – notably discourse semantics with its three metafunctions: interpersonal, ideational and textual – to analyse these text types. The document also prescribes that while the reading of literary texts be linked to writing, it does not indicate how this should be taught. This can be confusing for teachers and subject advisors as they have no clear guidelines in terms of how it should be done even though the document's purpose is to provide teachers with clearer guidelines (Hoadley, 2018). The document inadequately outlines the implementation of a text-based approach in literature teaching even though traces of it are present.

Classifying texts

A central aspect of a text-based approach is that language development occurs best through the functional exploration of how texts work, which is why the practical implementation of the approach relies heavily on texts as a key resource. Thus, experts in the field have emphasised certain genres which learners may encounter in schools and have organised these according to sub-genres in a systematic manner (Rose, 2018; Du Plessis, 2021). The IP EFAL CAPS document partially aligns with text-based theory by acknowledging the importance of categorising texts and provides a summary of text types to be covered in the phase.

While the document's attempt to illustrate its text type categorisation and labelling displays an affiliation with text-based theory, it also illustrates the document's confusion regarding the theory as its example of categorisation differs from that created by experts in the field of genre theory. The IP EFAL CAPS document lists three main categories for all the text types: narratives, transactional texts, and literary and media texts. This is in complete contrast to how texts are classified in text-based theory (as illustrated in Chapter 2, Figure 3), where texts can be classified as "narratives (stories), chronicles (history and biography), explanations (of cause and effect), reports (to classify and describe), procedures (to direct actions), arguments (about issues and positions taken) and text responses (reviews of literature, arts, music)" (Rose, 2018:60). Figure 3 (Chapter 2) stipulates that these texts have certain features that group texts with major textual similarities under one main category whilst distinguishing each text type from the other through its precise social purpose, structure, layout and language features (Gibbons, 2002).

It is important for learners to know the key differences, especially in language, between the text types to avoid confusion (Derewianka & Humphrey, 2014). However, CAPS does not clearly illustrate the differences between various language features of text types; its description of the narrative and the descriptive essay types is a case in point. Furthermore, the document contradicts itself regarding the boundaries between these different text types as it places the narrative essay and the descriptive essay under the same two-week cycle. Droga and Humphrey (2003) suggest that certain terms such as *essay* and *story* are often used in a generalised manner for a variety of tasks learners need to do. Thus, these terms cause confusion if they are not illustrated and described in the context of their purpose, type and features that are familiar to learners. This is important to note as the CAPS document has essays as a main category without clearly illustrating the similarities and differences between them. Furthermore, a descriptive essay and a narrative can be the same text type in certain situations and certain descriptors for the one text can be considered for the other. However, the document's inaccurate categorisation does educators no favours.

The CAPS IP FAL document also recommends that all the types illustrated in Appendix 1 be taught across the entire phase. However, there is no progression in terms of how the texts are distributed across the phase. The excerpt illustrates that the document seems unclear in terms of how it organises these text types because it conflates certain text types over various two-week cycles. The policy document proposes focusing on introducing oneself or others then shifts to listening to a short story; it then speaks of reading folklore or short story and requires

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learners to write a paragraph of a narrative or descriptive essay. This is evidence that the document lacks clear understanding of the differences between various text types and how it labels or categorises these text types.

It seems as if the document is categorising a short story, folklore, narrative, descriptive essay and personal introductions as one genre or text type. Additionally, there is a disparity between how texts are labelled and classified within genre-based approaches (refer to Chapter 2, Figure 2) and how the texts are labelled in the CAPS document. The latter does not make use of the various sub-texts as suggested within the text-based framework, causing instability in terminology (Du Plessis, 2021). This is concerning as teachers and advisors are expected to resolve these contradictions on their own, as there seems to be an assumption that professionals in the field will have sufficient knowledge of the theory to do so. However, multiple studies have indicated that teachers are not able to make these connections for a variety of reasons (Van Heerden, 2008; Akinyeye, 2012; Dornbrack & Dixon; 2014).

Teachers and advisors who do not have sufficient knowledge about the approach are left to rely on the CAPS document for guidance. However, if the document is ambiguous, it is likely to generate confusion amongst teachers, advisors and resource creators, leading to ineffective support, resources and classroom methodology (Van Heerden, Akinyeye, 2012 Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014). The confusion could be removed by categorising text types according to the main and sub-text types, as illustrated by Rose (2018) in Figure 2 in Chapter 2. Feez and Joyce (1998) stipulate that understanding various text types, their forms and their purposes are central components of successful writing development. Thus, it is imperative for the CAPS document to rectify the inconsistencies regarding the labelling of text types as this may have severe ramifications for support practices, resource development and classroom pedagogy.

Teaching grammar

The text-based approach steers away from traditional models of teaching grammar. Functional grammar is based on the relation between the structure of a language and the various functions the language performs (Collins, 2021). Therefore, grammar is viewed as an entity selected and used to convey a message in a context within a text. This awareness is only partially reflected in CAPS.

The study finds the document's prescriptions regarding grammar teaching ambiguous on multiple levels. Firstly, the data highlight that while the document refers to three language

teaching approaches, it fails to specify which is to be adopted for teaching grammar. A second finding is that CAPS emphasises the need for correct language use, a notion reminiscent of traditional rather than functional grammar – less concerned with accuracy than with using language in context. The document claims to adopt this latter view while continuing to view grammar as a set of rules that govern language, instead of focusing on how grammar is used in real social settings as a resource for creating meaning. The document thus conflates a text-based approach to functional grammar with traditional, decontextualised views. This conflation is likely to have dire consequences for classroom practice, as teachers and advisors are given mixed messages on how to teach language.

Teachers are often blamed for their inability to interpret curriculum policy and to implement effective language teaching strategies (NEEDU, 2013). However, the data analysis suggests that CAPS reflects an inaccurate understanding of a text-based approach on both a practical and a theoretical level. Compliance with the ambiguous and contradictory CAPS prescripts could thus constitute a major reason for ineffective classroom practice and advisory support (Dornbrack and Dixon, 2014).

Curriculum Cycle

The curriculum cycle and its implementation in language teaching is an essential aspect of following a text-based approach. The study illustrates the lack of clarity in CAPS about the implementation of the curriculum cycle by neglecting to mention or illustrate it in the two-week cycle (cf Figure 1, Chapter 2).

The document superficially aligns itself with the text-based approach and promotes a few facets of the approach, such as its encouragement of the two-week teaching cycle. The document mentions the use of teaching a text in an integrated manner where the focus is on using language features to create meaning of a text within its context (Du Plessis, 2021). Moreover, there are multiple schools of thought within the text-based framework and the document neglects to mention whether the curriculum cycle stems from the English for specific purpose, new rhetoric studies, or systemic functional linguistics framework. The study highlighted that the two-week cycle is entrenched within the systemic functional linguistic framework because of its focus on assisting second language speakers to gain epistemic access to authentic texts of power and by focusing on teaching language by explicitly highlighting its function and form through the teaching cycle (illustrated in Chapter 2).

Additionally, the study (in Chapter 4) illustrates how the CAPS document promotes the use of multiple text types as advocated for within a text-based approach. However, the document contradicts this key principle by allowing teachers the freedom to decide which genres they focus on within every cycle. This is problematic as teachers often select the same text types under the narrative umbrella, which they are most comfortable teaching, resulting in learners' limited language development and limited exposure to more powerful texts that have greater linguistic capital outside the school setting (Van, Heerden, 2016). As a result, many learners enter tertiary institutions with knowledge of narrative texts and find it challenging to comprehend content through more analytical assessments like research-based argumentative essays (Van Heerden, 2008; Van Heerden, 2016).

Through its analysis of the EFAL Grade 7 (Term 1: Week 1-2) teaching plan, the study highlights the document's lack of understanding of text-based approaches. CAPS mentions that there should be specific emphasis on one text type over the two-week cycle. However, the teaching plan takes insufficient account of the differences between the various text types and how they are categorised (Du Plessis, 2021). It treats personal introductions, short story, folklore, narrative and descriptive essay as one continuous genre or text type which is confusing and ambiguous.

The curriculum cycle is comprised of four prominent stages which encourage a scaffolded and progressive approach to language development (Van Heerden, 2008; Akinyeye, 2021; Du Plessis, 2021). The study highlights that the document does not directly mention any of the stages, even though one would assume the reason for exposing learners to certain text types under listening and speaking and reading and viewing was to build the knowledge field and deconstruct the text. However, no mention is made of learners analysing the text in terms of its purpose, audience and mode; instead, it merely highlights various features teachers may focus on. Instead of emphasising these contextual issues, he document emphasises aspects of the process-writing approach. This is problematic for focusing on the process of teaching language on a more individual level, underemphasising the intricate social and conceptual powers that influence prevailing writing principles; as a result, the approach is not well-suited in the second language context (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014; Hyland, 2003).

The writing process ignores the other crucial stages required for effective text production (Hyland, 2003). Thus, second language learners who require social support to construct meaning may be disadvantaged by the approach. Furthermore, CAPS neglects to refer to the 'joint construction' (i.e., the third) phase of curriculum cycle; hence the document's ambiguity

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and inconsistent endorsement of the text-based approach. For example, the document refers to the important role accurate modelling plays in language development but neglects to focus on this key aspect when mentioning writing and presenting which could be why textbook developers lack this in their resources, as Du Plessis (2021) indicates.

The document's neglect of reference and lack of clarity and accuracy regarding the learning and teaching cycle has negative implications for classroom practice, support from subject advisors, and resource development.

Approaches valued by CAPS

The CAPS EHL SP document promotes the use of three language teaching approaches, including a text-based approach. However, the document's promotion of a text-based approach is undermined by its simultaneous promotion of two other approaches that are incompatible with it. The CAPS document lines up the communicative approach and the process approach alongside the text-based approach, which the study finds to be problematic for several reasons.

Firstly, this amalgamation of approaches is problematic because of conflicting theoretical views on language learning and development. It is important to note that the approaches do share some similarities in that they are all learner-centred approaches that oppose the traditional authoritarian methods of language teaching. However, despite the similarities the approaches also differ fundamentally; failure to highlight this can lead to confusion, misinterpretation and inadequate implementation of the approaches (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014).

For example, the communicative approach is based on the principle that language learning occurs in a more natural way; hence, it emphasises plenty of exposure to the target language, with little to no emphasis on explicit grammar teaching. The process approach is embedded in cognitive approaches, and the skill of writing is viewed as an abstract practice that portrays the individualistic nature of the approach which does not always benefit second language learners (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014). The CAPS document uses the process approach to emphasises the processes one undergoes when writing. However, the process approach does not emphasise the social and conceptual factors that influence how a text is produced. Therefore, like the communicative approach, the explicit teaching of grammar is not emphasised and other contextual issues are ignored. In contrast to the two approaches, the text-based approach values explicitly teaching grammar, especially in a South African context where language learners may not have had enough exposure to the target language (English) and require functional instruction (Van Heerden, 2008, Akinyeye, 2012).

The three approaches differ in the core theories which drive them and how they ought to be implemented in the classroom. As a result, the study finds that the CAPS document does not have a high regard for the text-based approach by recommending it in relation to the aforementioned two approaches. The study finds that by conflating these approaches in the policy document, the specificity of each approach is lost (Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014; Hyland, 2003). The loss of specificity, in turn, creates confusion as the CAPS document expects its readers to intuitively make these distinctions, even though they are not clearly differentiated in the document. This is particularly alarming for professionals in the field who are not familiar with these approaches, as their reliance on the CAPS document could lead to ineffective implementation. It is alarming that after multiple revisions of the curriculum, we are still left with limiting definitions and inaccuracies and an unexplained conflation of the three approaches (without specificity).

Furthermore, the policy document gives extremely short definitions and explanations of the three approaches, which is another reason the study determined that the document has little regard for the approaches, especially the text-based approach. The document's inability to clarify the approaches is indicative of a lack of understanding. This is troubling, as teachers in the various phases are required to implement the same approaches, which could breed different phases implementing the approaches differently. As a result, the study found the CAPS document's understanding of these approaches limiting, leaving room for misinterpretation and inaccurate implementation and assessment.

6.2.2 What are subject advisors' understandings of a text-based approach?

All four subject advisors understand that a text-based approach entails using a variety of texts to facilitate language development. Some also acknowledge that teaching grammar in context and having to deconstruct a text are essential aspects of the approach. However, the study finds that many of the subject advisors' responses illustrate a limited understanding of text-based approaches.

Subject advisors' views on the concept of genre

The data reflects that subject advisors' understanding of the concept of genre within a text-based approach is particularly restricted. All four advisors espouse the traditional interpretation of genre as literary text types such as poetry, novels, short stories and plays. None referred to genre as a tool relating to first- and second-language development, or to transactional texts.

There was no recognition that the concept of genre is bound by communicative purpose and is defined as a staged, goal-orientated and social process (Martin & Rose, 2005). My interlocutors were seemingly unaware that raising students' schematic understanding of genres in writing development has received significant attention in the field of second language writing pedagogy, especially within a text-based framework (Hyon, 1996; Van Heerden, 2008). Certainly, they make no mention of this when responding to questions about genre.

Some of the advisors mention genre in relation to text type authenticity and writing. However, there is no reference to issues of power, culture and context. Ironically, one of the participants critiqued teachers' inability to teach genres in school while personally having an obscure view of genres as well. One wonders how advisors respond to teachers' needs if they themselves have such a narrow view of the concept of genre. Additionally, the data indicate that subject advisors do not receive training in genre-based approaches informed by research, something that limits their understanding.

Subject advisors' view on grammar

The study finds that most of the subject advisors hold a traditional understanding of grammar and how it should be realised in English classrooms. But all three approaches (process approach, communicative approach and text-based) are mentioned in the CAPS document's move away from traditional methods of teaching grammar, as these have been shown to have minimal benefits for learners' ESL development (Mumba & Mkandawire, 2019; Van Heerden, 2008; Du Plessis, 2021). Grammar drills and emphasis on form and structural aspects of language teaching do not enhance the development of students' communicative competence; thus, a shift has been made to teaching grammar in context (Nagao, 2020). The latter is a central component of a text-based approach where the emphasis is on the social purpose and meaning of a text (Derewianka & Jones, 2010; Mumba & Mkandawire, 2019). The subject advisors fail to mention the importance of teaching grammar in context and place more value on teaching form through methods of rote learning. This is indicative of a narrow understanding of text-based approaches and its application in the ESL classroom.

The subject advisors' endorsement of grammar drills directly contradicts the text-based approach, informed by functional grammar, of teaching grammar in context. None of the subject advisors alluded to the functionality of grammar, a silence that illustrates how little this model is valued, understood and encouraged. While a text-based approach expects students to be active participants in their own (self-directed) learning, subject advisors' descriptions of

grammar drills position learners as passive recipients and mimickers of information provided by the teacher. This again displays the subject advisors' lack of understanding, encouragement and implementation of the text-based approach.

Subject advisors' views on the curriculum cycle

The teaching and learning cycle is a key component of the text-based framework as it establishes a practical scaffolded method to implement the approach (Derewianka & Jones, 2010; Akinyeye, 2012). The findings indicate two key observations: firstly, it appears that subject advisors lack substantial insight into the teaching and learning cycle, as none of them made direct references to it. For those advisors who did touch upon aspects of the cycle, the discussion lacked specificity and did not reference the two-week cycle outlined in the CAPS document; secondly, the study revealed that there could be inconsistency in the methods and quality of support provided by advisors across the different districts. Some advisors made indirect references to the teaching and learning cycle, while others did not provide any suggestions at all. This implies that the level and type of support received by educators may vary depending on the district to which they belong.

The study also highlights that CAPS does not explicitly reference the teaching and learning cycle, even in its explanations of a text-based approach or teaching writing in a scaffolded manner (as mentioned in Chapter 4). Additionally, the advisors' profiles (in Chapter 5) reveal that advisors who have not undergone training in newer approaches since their qualification would likely rely on the CAPS document for their understanding of these concepts. Therefore, the absence of any mention of the cycle by advisors is mirrored in the policy document itself. This highlights the potential impact of the document's limitations on advisors' understanding and application of current teaching methodologies.

Approaches valued by subject advisors

Various approaches and methodologies are available to teach English as a home and as an additional language. Many of these approaches differ in purpose, core principles and strategies, which is why it was interesting to find that despite subject advisors' claims to be supportive of text-based approaches, they actually (in their explanations) value approaches that contradict text-based methodology.

Even though some of the advisors mentioned elements of more progressive approaches such as guided reading and writing, some still rely on older approaches. To illustrate: one of the advisors strongly values the behavioural approaches which focus on rote learning, with learners

mimicking practices drilled during class. Another advisor voices allegiance to the process approach even though it neglects social learning and the processes, purpose and context which are central to a text-based approach.

In recognising the importance of using authentic text, and in explicitly teaching text features, two advisors do value text-based approaches over others. However, even these advisors still value other, more cognitive approaches. Such contradictory responses indicate that even though some advisors support aspects of a text-based approach, they also have a limited understanding of it.

6.3 Implications

Qualitative research often involves studying a small sample size or a particular context, which may not be representative of the larger population or other settings. Therefore, findings from qualitative studies may not be applicable to other populations or contexts. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) note that the validity of qualitative research often depends on context and the researcher's interpretation of the data. A researcher's personal biases and assumptions may influence the analysis and conclusions drawn from the data, restricting the generalisability of the findings. Thus, it is important to acknowledge these limitations when interpreting and applying the results of qualitative research which is why it is important to note that with a small-scale study, generalisations cannot be drawn. However, the findings can be transferred to similar contexts due to the detailed description of the research context, participants and data analysis, thereby providing insight into important issues in similar contexts.

Arising from the findings, several implications for future research present themselves. Amongst these are studies,

- that examine a broader cross-section of language subject advisors' understandings of genre theory and text-based pedagogy in second language development;
- that explore the link between in-service literacy training and text-based theory as prescribed in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy;
- that explore university teacher training programmes' application of text-based approaches; and
- that explores the link between English language textbooks and genre theory as realised in the CAPS document.

Additionally, the study's findings resulted in the emergence of various implications for DBE policy makers, and the WCED, as listed below.

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WCED

- **Training and professional development of subject advisors**

  ➢ The WCED should organise formal in-service (specialised) training for language subject advisors on the implementation of genre theory to ensure that they provide teachers with sufficient support.

  ➢ In addition, subject advisors should be provided with bursaries and granted study leave to improve their professional qualifications in their specialised fields.

  ➢ Specialised induction and training should be provided to newly appointed subject advisors to ensure they are well-informed about the current language teaching methodologies and content.

- **Subject advisor support**

  ➢ The WCED should provide subject advisors with assistants to help with some of their duties as their workload is too heavy and results in the completion of only the essential job criteria.

  ➢ Subject advisors should develop effective monitoring tools and ensure that they do regular school visits to assist teachers adequately as a means of keeping teachers accountable.

  ➢ The WCED should ensure that curriculum planners assist subject advisors with the selection of textbooks that adequately endorse genre theory so that teachers and advisors have quality resources to assist with curriculum delivery.

DBE policymakers

- Revising the language policy document to further align with the LiEP (BELA cf Chapter 5); addressing issues relating to mother tongue education and language policies; and updating strategies that include bilingual strategies such as code-switching and translanguaging.

- Revising the document to eliminate the conflation of conflicting language methods.

- Revising the document to include a more scaffolded approach to the curriculum cycle by explicit inclusion in the document and using it to guide the two-week teaching plans. Thus, aspects like joint construction of texts will not be omitted from the teaching plan.

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- Revising the document to include in-depth definitions of the language teaching approach with references, for the clarification of terms like *genre,* for example.

- Revising the document to include more accurate labelling of text types as prescribed within genre theory.

- Revising the document to include functional grammar to ensure that grammar is taught functionally.

6.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, the study's findings are based on a combination of secondary data (CAPS documents) and primary data collected from subject advisors in three districts in the Western Cape. This small-scale study made use of a qualitative research design to examine the perceptions of English subject advisors regarding the text-based approach as employed in the curriculum policy. As this is a small-scale study, it does advocate making generalisations from the results; however, the findings may provide insight into the small but growing number of studies regarding genre theory in South African schools and the curriculum policy. Additionally, it is hoped that the study will contribute to in-service training and workshops provided to specialised department officials. It is evident that the CAPS document's understanding of text-based approaches is limited, consequently influencing subject advisors' narrow understanding of text-based theory too. The former may be dealt with by providing more explicit features of text-based theory in the curriculum policy and by providing subject advisors with in-depth training.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Research Approval Letter

Directorate: Research

Audrey.wyngaard@westerncape.gov.za
tel: +27 021 467 9272
Fax: 0865902282
Private Bag X9114, Cape Town, 8000
wced.wcape.gov.za

REFERENCE: 20190923-9536
ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Ms Valencia Theys
8 Terblanche Street
Silver Oaks
Kuilsriver
7580

Dear Ms Valecia Theys

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: INTERMEDIATE AND SENIOR PHASE ENGLISH LANGUAGE SUBJECT ADVISORS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEXT-BASED THEORY AS REALISED IN THE CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **01 September 2019 till 30 July 2020**
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

    The Director: Research Services
    Western Cape Education Department
    Private Bag X9114
    CAPE TOWN
    8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.
Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard
Directorate: Research
DATE: 23 September 2019

Appendix 2: Information for Research Participants

Language Education Department
Education Faculty,
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17, Bellville, 7535
South Africa
Tel: 021 959 4118
Fax: 021 9593358
Website: www.uwc.ac.za

Information for research participants

Title of the research project
Intermediate and Senior Phase English Language subject advisors' perceptions of text-based theory as realised in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

Researcher: Valencia Theys
Contact details email: Valencia.t27@gmail.com
Phone nr: 0730233551
Department: Language Education Department
Institution: University of the Western Cape

The major aim of this study is to explore subject advisors' perceptions of text-based approaches as encapsulated in the latest Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS, 2011). For this reason, the study focuses on 4 subject advisors in different district offices in the Western Cape. The significance of the study is that it shifts away from deficit discourses about teachers in relation to curriculum implementation and focuses instead on departmental officials' understanding of text-based approaches.

Participation is voluntary and research participants can withdraw from the study at any stage. Curriculum Advisors will be informed about the purpose and nature of the research project through Head of Curriculum Development at an education district in the Cape Town. Permission for audio recordings of interviews will be obtained in writing before and verbally when the recording has to take place. The research project will not interfere in any way with departmental functioning or with teaching and learning during district workshops. In addition, all participants in the study will remain anonymous and information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.

The Western Cape Education Department has granted permission for this study.

The findings will be used to understand how subject advisors' perceptions relating to text-based approaches can contribute towards the development of teachers' literacy skills in the Intermediate Phase and Senior Phase in various education districts in Cape Town.

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Appendix 3: WCED Permission Letter

Western Cape Education Department
Research Directorate
Grand Central Towers
Cape Town

Dear Dr Wyngaard

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT DISTRICT OFFICES IN THE WESTERN CAPE

I hereby request permission to conduct research in various districts in the Western Cape. My research explores subject advisors' understanding of text-based approaches as reflected in the latest Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (DBE, 2011). For this reason, the study focuses on various subject advisors in various education district offices in the Western Cape. The study draws on text-based approaches, specifically genre theory and its emphasis on inclusion and providing access across the curriculum for additional language users of English. This is important, given CAPS' (2011) social language underpinning and the need for language teachers to understand how texts work.

This is a qualitative case study that includes document analysis and interviews. It is anticipated that it will shed light on useful literacy interventions in the intermediate phase, and particularly on the ways that curriculum advisors at the district level can impact on teachers' implementation of text-based approaches as envisaged by CAPS (2011).

In line with the above-mentioned research interest, I hereby request permission to conduct research at your institution. This data could contribute useful insights for literacy and bi-literacy development programmes aimed at learners from diverse socio-economic and linguistic contexts.

If you require any further information regarding my research, please contact me at Valencia.t27@gmail.com or my supervisor, Dr Peter Plüddemann, at ppluddemann@uwc.ac.za or tel. 021 959 2071.

Yours sincerely,

Ms V. Theys

Appendix 4: Subject Advisors' Informed Consent Form

Language Education Department
Education Faculty,
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17, Bellville, 7535
South Africa
Tel: 021 959 4118
Fax: 021 9593358
Website: www.uwc.ac.za

APPENDIX

Informed consent form

Title of the research project
Intermediate and Senior Phase English Language subject advisors' perceptions of text-based theory as realised in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

Researcher: Valencia Theys
Contact details email: Valencia.t27@gmail.com
Phone nr: 0730233551

As a participant in this study, I hereby acknowledge the following:

1. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also gave an undertaking to keep anything said in this group confidential. I understand that information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
2. I have given permission for her to observe and interview me and if necessary to use audio recordings.
3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any stage, without having to give reasons.
4. I understand that my District and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.
5. I understand that audio recordings will not be used in any public forum such as a conference without my permission for the extract/s to be used.
6. I undertake not to repeat outside the workshop anything that occurs during the research process.

Signed: ....

PRINT NAME: ....

DATE: ....

Appendix 5: Subject Advisors' Interview Questions

APPENDIX

Subject Advisor Semi -Structured Interview Schedule

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

District Name:	
Subject Advisor number:	
Date:	

1. Gender?		2. Age?	
3. Home language?		4. Highest qualification	
5. Year of qualification?		6. Language medium of qualification?	
7. How long was your training for your qualification?		8. Years experience - teaching - subject advising	
9. Grades taught		10. Other subjects taught	

11. When you started at the WCED as an SA what type of training did you receive?

12. How often do you attend training?

13. Who provides SAs with their training?

14. How would you describe this district's literacy achievement in comparison to those of the other districts?

15. What would you regard as the prime literacy strengths and challenges in this district?

16. Share your thoughts on the curriculum changes from C2005, NCS and CAPS.

17. What were key similarities and difference in language teaching approaches through the curriculum changes?

18. What are your thoughts on integration across languages in district training programs?

19. What would you say is the main difference between HL and FAL?

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21. In your view how well are the different genres taught and how does this affect the literacy crisis?

22. How do you select which genres to focus on when conducting training sessions?

23. What are the genres that teachers teach well?

24. In your experience what are some of the challenges teachers experience when teaching the different genres?

25. What is the CAPS curriculum understanding of text-based approaches to teach language?

26. What do you understand by "text-based approaches"?

27. Do you think a text-based approach is necessary in a South African context and why?

28. How do you apply text-based approaches in your training programs?

29. Describe some practical aspects of text-based approaches in a classroom?

30. How can text based teaching approaches in the Intermediate Phase hamper or strengthen literacy development?

31. What monitoring and evaluation tools, if any, do you have to evaluate teachers' understanding of how texts work?

32. How do you mentor a teacher who has no knowledge about text-based approaches?

33. What is your view of the DBE workbooks?

34. What is your view of the quality and availability of language textbooks and their role in the literacy development?

Appendix 6: Supervisor's Confirmation Letter

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

LANGUAGE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT (LED)

Education Building, University of the Western Cape, Private Bag X 17, Bellville, 7530, South Africa

Tel: 021 959 2071/4118   Email: ppluddemann@uwc.ac.za
Fax: 021 959 2647/3358   Website: www.uwc.ac.za

19 September 2019

Research Directorate
WCED
Golden Acre 19ᵗʰ Floor - Room 19-03
Cape Town

Dear Dr Wyngaard

Confirmation of MEd Honours research supervision

This is to confirm that Ms Valencia Theys (student number: 2952043) is registered as a. MEd student in our department, and that I am the sole supervisor.

Ms Theys intends to research Metro Subject Advisors' understanding of CAPS Language approaches, both through interviews and through observations of training sessions. Ms Theys' proposal was approved by the University more than a year ago.

It would be highly appreciated if Ms Theys could be given permission to approach the relevant Subject Advisors, in relation to the above and in accordance with the attached documentation.

Many thanks in advance.

Yours in Education

Peter Plüddemann (PhD)

Appendix 7: Ethical Clearance

UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

YEARS
of hope, action & knowledge

8 November 2022

Ms V Theys
Language Education
Faculty of Education

HSSREC Reference Number: HS19/9/32

Project Title: Exploring the link between intermediate and senior phase in-service literacy training and text-based theory as realised in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (2011).

Approval Period: 8 November 2022 – 7 November 2025

I hereby certify that the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology, and ethics of the above-mentioned research project.

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval.

Please remember to submit an annual progress report by 30 November each year for the duration of the project.

For permission to conduct research using student and/or staff data or to distribute research surveys/questionnaires please apply via: https://sites.google.com/uwc.ac.za/permissionresearch/home

The permission letter must then be submitted to HSSREC for record keeping purposes.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse events and/or termination of the study.

Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape

NHREC Registration Number: HSSREC-130416-049

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Appendix 8: Editor's Confirmation Letter

ChickPea

laurakleinhans1@gmail.com
ChickPeaEnglish@gmail.com
ChickPea Proofreading & Editing

49A York Close, Parklands, 7441
Western Cape, South Africa

Certificate of Authenticity

CERTIFICATE: COA081223VT

13 December 2023

To Whom It May Concern

This is to certify that **Intermediate and senior phase English Language subject advisors' perceptions of text-based theory as realised in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement** by **Valencia Theys (Student number: 2952043)**, a thesis in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree, master's in education, in the Language Education Department of the Faculty of Education at the University of the Western Cape, South Africa, has been professionally edited by Dr. Laura Kleinhans of ChickPea Proofreading and Editing Services for Students and Professionals.

Job Number	Document Title
081223VT	Intermediate and senior phase English Language subject advisors' perceptions of text-based theory as realised in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

Dr. Laura Kleinhans
CEO ChickPea Proofreading & Editing

ChickPea Proofreading and Editing Services for Students and Professionals

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Appendix 9: Turnitin Report

Thesis