



**Towards an affective pedagogical model for  
teaching English language and literacy to migrant  
learners**

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## **Declaration**

I declare the work submitted has not been formerly submitted in entire, or partly, and is my own work. Each contribution to, and quotation in, this thesis from the work(s) of other people has been attributed and has been cited and referenced.

Signature           Signed by candidate           Date           17/05/2020          

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## List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AU	The African Union
DRC	The Democratic Republic of the Congo
CAPs	Curriculum and Assessment Policy statement
DoE	Department of Education
EAL	English Additional Language
ELoLT	English as the Language of Learning and Teaching
FAL	The First Additional Language
ILO	The International Labour Organisation
IOM	The International Organisation for Migration
IRC	The International Rescue Committee
LiEP	Language in Education Policy
LoLT	Language of learning and Teaching MLE Mediated Learning Experiences
MONUC	The United Nations Observer Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NDP	The National Development Plan
NLS	New Literacy Studies
SADC	The Southern African Development Community
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
UN	The United Nations
UNHCR	The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

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## **Abstract**

Learning is a process that involves both cognitive and emotional aspects. However, most of the research in education in South Africa tend to focus only on the cognitive side of learning and neglects the very important, emotional side. The consequences of this neglect lie most prominently with migrant learners, especially as the immigration process itself involves high emotional strain, cultural adjustment, and most obvious language barriers. These can negatively influence the learning process. Therefore, if existing teaching practices do not cater for the complexity of a multicultural and multilingual classroom or the emotional needs of migrant learners, the learning process of these learners is likely to be stunted. This thesis is concerned with the role of the emotions in the learning contexts of migrant learners in Cape Town and the strategies used by teachers to manage this.

With this in mind, this study looks at the affective aspects of learning in teaching literacy to migrant learners from the Congo in the context of an English-medium school in Cape Town, South Africa. Using a qualitative case study approach, I focused on two layers of the issue. First, I explored the experience of Congolese learners and their emotional needs in an English language and literacy class. With this first layer, I compared the needs between French and English-speaking learners to explore how emotional needs played out in the classroom setting using interviews and observation. I used Krashen's affective filter theory as a lens to understand learners' feelings in the classroom environment. Second, I investigated classroom-teaching styles, in particular, how two Grade 3 teachers incorporated affective strategies in their pedagogy. I conducted this analysis through sociocultural understandings of literacy, using the principles of affective pedagogy.

The findings were that English-speaking learners, receiving instructions in English, were less likely to suffer from emotional stress and anxiety in their learning than French-speaking learners learning in English. The French-speaking Congolese learners reported that they experienced emotional distress and anxiety, which affected their literacy learning. Not only were learners experiencing difficulties, but teachers too felt limited in their capacity to deal with learners' emotional needs as the cognitive approach for teaching literacy did not meet the needs nor context of migrant learners. Therefore, teachers felt they were required to go above and beyond what would be considered normal classroom activities to create a holistic learning environment that caters to a learner's emotional challenges, which was not always possible in the context of a prescriptive CAPs curriculum and resources.

In this study, I argue that when children learn in a language that is different from their first language, this poses an emotional challenge, which often impacts the learning process. This emotional challenge

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is likely to be compounded by the circumstances that migrant learners often find themselves in. Therefore, I argue that for children to learn effectively (successfully) in a language that is different from their mother tongue, their emotional needs must be met first. This implies that for literacy learning to be most effective (successful), teachers may take into consideration the emotional aspects of each learner and develop their teaching styles according to the diverse needs of the learners.

This study will benefit teachers in multilingual contexts as it takes into consideration the emotional difficulties that come with learning in a language that is not one's primary language, to understand learners' learning styles, and consequently to inform and adjust teaching strategies to fit their needs. The findings suggest a need for teacher training that takes into consideration the affective and cognitive needs of learners from diverse backgrounds, such as migrant learners, for more effective literacy and language education.

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## **Chapter 1. Introduction**

This chapter will outline the background to this study, its context as well as the rationale, significance, and objectives of this research study.

### **1.0 Introduction**

The study investigates the affective strategies that grade three teachers use for teaching English language and literacy in a low-income school, where Congolese migrant children make up some of the learners. This is an important issue because, in the case of migrant learners, particularly those who do not speak English as a primary language, such as learners from the Congo, there is the double challenge of having to manage the affective difficulties that come with being a refugee/migrant and learning in another language. There is a cognitive challenge to learning a foreign language within a new context. Teaching practices must be developed in such a way that they take into account the emotional particularities of migrant learners, including the complexities that arise in a multicultural and multilingual classroom, to avoid the learning process of these learners being inhibited (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012; Brown, 2000; Arnold, 2011; Agaesse, 2017).

A child's success in school and life, in general, depends on their ability to read and write (International Reading Association, & National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1998). A child's exposure to language practices prior to formal education sets the stage for all future literacy development (Heath, 1983, 2007). A language is a tool through which literacy is gained or achieved. This is a process of lifelong learning where literacy may be considered a socially informed skill, rooted in a state of constant development and change (Perry, 2012; Heath, 2007; Vygotsky, 1978). In developing formal education skills, it is vital to acknowledge this continuum of learning and progress to improve the factors that may help or hinder learners in the growth of their education, particularly immigrant learners who do not speak the language of instruction.

The unfamiliar environment in which immigrant learners find themselves contributes to the challenges that they face in adjusting to their new surroundings. In particular, these learners must learn in a new language, adjust to unfamiliar classroom environments, and acclimatise within foreign contexts (Menchaca & Ruiz-Escalante, 1995). This often leads to feelings of isolation, loneliness, and anxiety (Menchaca & Ruiz-Escalante, 1995; Krashen, 1994; Brown, 2000). These emotional difficulties inhibit the learning process (Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000; Krashen, 1994), and add additional layers of complexity and difficulty to existing academic challenges.

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Migrant learners in any scholastic context around the world face numerous educational challenges because of language differences and economic hardships (Hilburn, 2014). These factors include having an undocumented status, which can prevent access to certain services, including quality health care and education. It may also lead to their family being separated (Hilburn, 2014). High levels of stress also influence their studies, which may result in learners suffering from depression (Hilburn, 2014).

Yet, another problem is the high level of poverty amongst immigrants, which can lead to homelessness, further complicating their situation in a new country (Suarez-Orozco (2010 quoted in Hilburn, 2014). Other problems include enrolment in multilingual, multicultural, low-resourced schools with overcrowded classrooms (Hilburn, 2014); and exacerbated by some parents not being able to assist with homework due to parent's own language or educational barriers. These make those learners susceptible to failure or high dropout rates (Hilburn, 2014). Similarly, in a study in the United States of America, Baca and Harris (1988) highlighted that different features of the migrant way of life undeniably having negative consequences on migrant learners, exacerbating the risk of them dropping out from the education system completely. Inconsistent school attendance and hazardous conditions of repetitive displacement, correlated often with limited English aptitudes ultimately hindering these learners' school pass rates, while increasing their likelihood of dropping out at an early age.

Many scholars who have researched the education of immigrant learners only account for a language barrier without considering other factors such as affective factors (e.g. Hilburn, 2014; Steven, 2012; Goodwin, 2002 Rong, and Preissle, 2009). Focusing only on English language and literacy learning without taking into consideration other cultural, social, and psychological aspects is problematic as it may lead teachers to an incomplete understanding of immigrant learners and how these learners can be motivated to succeed (Hilburn, 2014). Given that the affective dimension of learning is equally important, its neglect in pedagogical practice may help to explain why there is a discrepancy between individuals in terms of which learners acquire a second-language proficiently and which do not (Krashen, 1985, cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). Thus, research into the affective dimension of language learning, particularly for migrant/refugee learners, is important.

It can further be noted that learners experiencing these difficulties make it harder for their teachers to effectively fulfill their roles as educators. The teacher must be able to help the learners with their emotional needs to be able to teach the material in a way that is most beneficial to the learning process (Arnold, 2011; Krashen, 1994; Brown, 2000). This causes a problem for the teachers who

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do not know how to accommodate immigrant learners' specific and cultural needs with the workload (Kajee, 2011). Teachers are usually not well equipped to respond to the linguistic needs and understand the complexities of the non-linguistic challenges facing immigrant learners (Hilburn, 2014; Rumberger, 2011; Sadowski, 2004). A report of the Special Rapporteur, on The Right to Education, submitted to the fourteenth session of the United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHCR, 2010), shows that on an almost global level, teachers lack the pedagogical, psychological and didactical education and training necessary to address the challenges posed by multilingual, multicultural and multi-ethnic classroom environments. This is especially problematic when considering that teachers matter hugely when it comes to learners' achievement (Marishane, 2013).

In light of the considerations discussed above, this study looks at the emotional distress in the learning contexts of migrant learners in Cape Town and the strategies used by teachers to manage this. I argue that what is needed is a pedagogical model that takes account of both the cognitive and affective aspects of learning.

Furthermore, this study looks at the experiences of both learners and teachers within a multilingual classroom. Since teachers can't address all of the affective needs of migrant learners while teaching, this study focuses on understanding the teacher's role in helping to reduce the emotional distress caused by the language barrier and develop learners' confidence by creating opportunities and activities for them to learn the English language and literacy more effectively.

Cape Town, South Africa is a context uniquely situated to consider these questions. Given the significant and legitimate presence of migrant learners in South African schools and the considerable challenges that are faced by these learners and by the teachers who teach them, there is a growing need for research into these challenges. Additionally, post-apartheid South Africa struggles with translating policy into practice, in terms of providing education to all members of society (Probyn, 2015; Prinsloo, 2011; Kajee, 2011).

There are challenges in serving citizens, immigrants, and refugees (Kajee, 2011). These population groups are moving to South Africa in search of better lives, with the hope of escaping war-ravaged countries, accessing better education and health care, and finding better economic opportunities (Kajee, 2011; Hemson, 2011). There is no data to provide a clear indication of the number of legal and non-legal immigrants in South Africa and South African schools (Kajee, 2011; Janks, 2005:109). According to Statistics South Africa, the number of immigrants in South Africa is largely undetermined. However, we do know that most of these immigrants come from other parts

of Africa and Asia (Ndebele, 2018). The table below contains estimates of the number of immigrants by country for the years 2011 and 2016.

The table below shows the top twenty countries of origin for immigrants to South Africa. It is separated into columns for 2011 and 2016.

**Table 1.0. The estimated immigrant population in South Africa in 2011 and 2016**

<i>2011</i>			<i>2016</i>		
<i>Country</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>(%) of total immigrants</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>(%) of total immigrants</i>
Zimbabwe	672,308	38.1%	Zimbabwe	574,047	39.6%
Mozambique	393,231	22.3%	Mozambique	293,405	20.2%
Lesotho	160,806	9.1%	Lesotho	160,749	11.1%
Malawi	86,606	4.9%	Malawi	78,796	5.4%
United Kingdom	81,720	4.6%	United Kingdom	56,412	3.9%
Namibia	40,575	2.3%	Swaziland	38,038	2.6%
Swaziland	36,377	2.1%	Congo (DRC)	31,504	2.2%
India	31,165	1.8%	Namibia	30,701	2.1%
Zambia	30,054	1.7%	Nigeria	30,314	2.1%
Ethiopia	28,230	1.6%	India	25,063	1.7%
Nigeria	26,341	1.5%	Ethiopia	22,148	1.5%
Somalia	26,116	1.5%	Zambia	19,119	1.3%
Congo (Republic)	26,061	1.5%	Germany	13,894	1.0%
Congo (DRC)	25,630	1.5%	Bangladesh	12,764	0.9%
Germany	20,494	1.2%	Pakistan	11,157	0.8%
Bangladesh	19,696	1.1%	Somalia	10,954	0.8%
Pakistan	17,241	1.0%	Botswana	10,759	0.7%
Portugal	15,626	0.9%	Congo	10,686	0.7%
China	15,071	0.9%	Portugal	9,931	0.7%
Botswana	12,316	0.7%	Ghana	8,943	0.6%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1 765 664</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>1 449 384</b>	<b>100%</b>

*Source:* Stats SA, Community Survey 2016, Statistical Release P0301, 30 November 2016, Table 3.3, p27a figures may not add up vertically, owing to rounding. 2018 South Africa Survey.

The table above provides the estimated number of immigrants in South Africa in 2011 and 2016. These numbers are broken down by the top twenty countries of origin represented in South Africa and ranked by the proportion of total immigrants from each country. The first three columns are

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from 2011 and the final three columns are from 2016. It is clear, from the table that the number of immigrants from non-English speaking countries is on the rise. To use the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) as an example, this is a French-speaking country, which has seen a higher number of immigration both absolutely and as a percentage of the total. The statistics are unclear about how many of these immigrants are children, which come from non-English speaking countries like the DRC, but assuming that the age split is equal among countries this is potentially a significant amount. There is a growing need for research into how immigrant and migrant learners – who all face similar issues concerning learning in an unfamiliar language - experience and adjust to the South African schooling system for English as a medium of instruction, especially when these learners have little to no support to catch up with their English peers. I believe that there is sufficient cause to investigate how school-age children from these countries overcome difficulties associated with being taught in a language that they were most likely never exposed to.

Migrant learners in South African schools are required to take all classes in English and have little to no support to catch up with their English peers. The challenges faced by migrant learners in South African schools are compounded by economic inequality and already culturally diverse conditions.

Since South Africa's democratic transition, schools are no longer allowed to use "race" or culture as criteria for acceptance, and learners who were once marginalised by the apartheid education system are gaining access to public schools with a new curriculum (Jansen & Taylor, 2003; Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). South Africa's Constitution guarantees the right to universal basic education for all legal residents living in South Africa (Marishane, 2013). "Black" immigrants in South Africa are often grouped with locals based on "race". This, in many ways, tends to ignore the ethnic, linguistic, cultural, and political differences that may exist within the black populations of communities and schools (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). Researchers have claimed that ignoring these differences and treating black populations as though they are monolithic groups can increase strife between the diverse groups that black populations are composed of (Jackson & Cochran, 2003; Traore & Lukens, 2006; Awokaya & Clark, 2008).

Given that the school environment is situated within these contexts, the strife that results from ignoring differences within these diverse black populations is likely to influence the academic development and achievement of learners (in Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011).

Studying migration within the parameters of Kwazulu-Natal (KZN), Crispin Hemson (2011) found that war and conflict, alongside economic factors, are major reasons, although there are others, for migration of entire families from Southern African Development Community (SADC) nations into

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South Africa over the past two decades. Many enter South Africa illegally, however, those that are in South Africa are often considered to be, “burdens or criminals” (Adegoke, cited in Janks, 2005:109). Many Congolese have sought refuge from political instability, and are among some of the Africans that have migrated to South Africa (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). They migrate to South Africa in search of a better life. However, with this migration, Barkhuizen (2006) explains, there arises a complexity of issues and challenges. These include the hardships of adjusting to a new country, learning a new language, and facing issues of exclusion such as xenophobia (in the case of South Africa).

Although systemic oppression in the form of apartheid no longer exists in South Africa, other forms of oppression remain. The xenophobic attacks which are an expression of power over the helpless are not only wielded by those in authority but also by individual South Africans who oppress those whom they see as outsiders, coming in to take the locals’ limited resources (jobs, houses, women, etc.) (Hemson, 2011). Perceptions of immigrants in Kwa-Zulu Natal include such as “they are drug dealers” and “they are involved in crime” and so on (Hemson, 2011:69). Hemson goes on to say that despite the lack of literature pertaining to foreign migrants in South African schools, there is a lot of writing on how racism and xenophobia continue to pervade the South African school system (Hemson, 2011).

In Gauteng, Vandeyar & Vandeyar (2011) argue that although officially, schools promote cultural and linguistic diversity, practically speaking, migrant learners often end up feeling excluded with no say in what is happening around them because of the linguistic barrier, among other factors. These issues impact the learners at the school negatively, which limits any progression toward social integration. These changes have emotional effects, which often cause stress as an immigrant’s experience identity conflicts and a lack of confidence in the new culture around them. This stress often impacts on the learning process (Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000). I argue that teachers may need to be aware of the mentioned stressors otherwise the cognitive aspect in the learning process will be hindered. A teacher’s sensitivity to the learner’s emotional experiences should include pedagogic support as well as the manifestation of an affective relationship between themselves and the learner.

The studies reviewed above almost exclusively consider ‘language-barriers’ to be their primary concern relating to the hindrance of the well-being and academic success of these learners. To reiterate the point made previously, as per Hilburn (2014), this fails to acknowledge other key factors, such as psychological factors, which have a considerable bearing in what is inherently a foreign context. While some of the studies, such as Barkhuizen (2006) and Vandeyar & Vandeyar

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(2011), have highlighted the challenges encountered by migrant learners in South African schools, these studies have not looked at the affective dimension in the classroom environment itself where the foreign language is being learned. In addition, the studies have not looked at how teachers meet or fail to meet the affective needs of these learners. It is the aim of this research to address this gap in understanding how teachers incorporate affective dimensions in teaching French-speaking learners English language and literacy.

If we accept that language facilitates learning, then what about the immigrant learners who speak languages other than English as the language of instruction? As Walter, Stephen, and Benson (2012) argue, linguistic diversity challenges learners of developing countries whose schooling systems do not use the first-language approach to teaching basic linguistic skills. This places learners at a great disadvantage, with nearly 40 percent of the world population affected. If language facilitates education, it is imperative that language is fully utilised to achieve this purpose. An important aspect of learning a new language comes from the assistance and support of teachers as well as support from the community as a whole. It is essential that a language is learned within the context in which it is spoken (Lantof, 2011). This involves placing a great emphasis on schooling systems embracing linguistic diversity and providing support for learners' psychological adjustment needs (Paterson, 2017). This is the only means of ensuring educational equity on the global scene, whose benefits to society far outweigh the costs of implementing such a system (Stephen, and Benson, 2012).

To mitigate any language difficulties, Paterson (2017) states that is critical for language and literacy teachers to design lessons and activities that promote a positive identity formation for each learner. This requires language and literacy teachers to be culturally knowledgeable, sensitive, skillful, and inclusive in dealing with diversity in multicultural and multilingual classrooms, hence the necessity for training. Notwithstanding the importance of language and schooling practices, Alexander (2006) looks to outside factors to provide a fuller account of academic underperformance. In other words, Alexander presents a cultural-historical analysis of language acquisition, which breaks down language acquisition by focusing on the unique contextual (cultural and historical) factors that affect this growth. Some of these other factors include socio-economic status and parental involvement. Similarly, Baker (2006) claims that the various factors that make academic performance difficult, including poor socioeconomic backgrounds, under-qualified teachers, limited resources, and a parent's inability to afford books – tend to coalesce in poorer areas. Looking at language learning from this cultural-historical dimension proposed by Alexander and Baker, one begins to consider the broader contextual factors such as parental support, financial means, and language background that affect its development.

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Ferreira (2009) argues that the complexities of a multilingual and multicultural classroom setting, as well as socio-economic limitations, pose difficulties for teaching practices. This is also emphasised by Sultana who argues:

*“Any teaching and learning context in the world is always a very dynamic and complex environment with a host of variables and forces at work that influences social interaction patterns and resultant levels of performance and productivity. The cross-cultural context has an even higher level of dynamic complexity as culture shaped institutional structures and norms are interacting with people of different cultures. It can be exciting, dynamic, creative, and productive, but it can also be stressful, confusing, frustrating, and non-productive if teachers, learners, and what is being taught, are not integrated properly.”*(Sultana, 2011:115).

Therefore, there are complexities that arise from teaching in a multicultural and multilingual classroom. The affective needs are one of the variables that influence social interactions amongst learners and teachers and is a contributing factor to learning difficulty for non-English speaking learners such as migrant learners. Therefore, the teacher needs to understand and manage the different levels of understanding of English amongst the class as well as the different sociocultural needs.

However, there is a practical element of this concern, as many schools in South Africa have limited economic resources. Strained levels of funding, limited time, classroom size, and the material available makes giving learners the necessary attention difficult.

The additional barrier that second languages present is that teachers are not always equipped with the skills to use and understand the home language of immigrant learners as well as not understanding their cultural backgrounds. This often leads to teachers classifying these learners as cognitively underdeveloped, which may very often not be the case (Sandowski, 2004).

With reference to immigrating students, numerous studies have revealed that these learners demonstrate greater initiative and interest in their learning when they have access to good teaching skills and a personal relationship with their teacher (Arnold, 2011; Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011; Salinas, Franquiz, & Reidel, 2008). Conversely, teachers that fail to take into account the different backgrounds of their learners can prevent some learners from fully adjusting to the classroom environment. School managers must, therefore, develop training programmes that prepare and empower teachers to adequately support immigrant learners in schools (Marishane, 2013). This

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prerogative is crucial in the South African context, where learners come from a range of educational backgrounds.

Dealing with diversity in the classroom cannot be achieved through a single deficit approach to language and literacy, but the approach must be adjusted to fit different learners' needs. In accordance with the previous statement, Sultana (2011:120) states that

*“There are many approaches to language and literacy teaching such as contentbased, communicative language teaching, task-based, teacher-oriented, student-centred, etc. But the pathways to success in teaching English to the learners are rather challenging as there are no specific language and literacy teaching formulas that always work with learners in all contexts. It is then the mission of an individual teacher to create and apply a multitude of teaching approaches, which will best suit their students”.*

The contemplation and choice of language and literacy teaching is thus not a one-size-fits-all approach and needs to be adapted depending on the requirements of the students and their individual needs. Teachers, therefore, are placed under higher levels of pressure due to the additional workload required of them. The high number of students per classroom as well as limited time constraints results in students who require additional attention not being allocated enough time. Hardman (2008) adds that pedagogical activity is dynamic and multifaceted with no static definition. For example, the particular learning style, temperament, and attention span of each individual should be considered to maximize effectiveness when teaching children literacy in a multilingual setting. Baker (2006) argues that to encourage learning in the language of instruction, teachers must use different approaches in the classroom. Therefore, teachers' strategies in teaching literacy are crucial for the development of learners' reading skills.

Moats (2007) adds that to avoid reading problems for learners, teacher's reading instruction is essential and should be the focus in classrooms for improvement to take place. The teacher can have propositional knowledge, a sense of how things work in particular contexts, as well as strategic knowledge. The paragraph above shows how difficult it is for the teacher to teach English literacy effectively in a linguistically diverse classroom including migrant learners. The following section will consider the background context of Congolese migrants. This provides an understanding of their underlying reasons to move to South Africa.

### **1.1 Background context of migrant learners from the Democratic Republic of the Congo**

The Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), known until 1997 as Zaire, is an officially francophone country located in Central Africa, with a small length of Atlantic coastline. The DRC

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is Africa's fourth-largest country and has an area of 2.345 square kilometers. United Nations (UN) statistics estimate that the population of the DRC is 66.020.000. The DRC borders the Central African Republic, with Sudan to the north Uganda, Rwanda, and Burundi to the east, and Zambia and Angola to the South. The DRC has eleven provinces of which the East-Congo has a much higher population density due to the presence of Rwandan refugees. There are four official national languages in the DRC: Lingala, Kikongo, Tshiluba, and Swahili. The DRC gained independence from Belgium in 1960. The UN (2006) has noted that the DRC has been plagued by war since its independence.

Many Congolese have sought refuge from political instability, and are among some of the Africans that have migrated to South Africa (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). Children of migrants are faced with the challenges of having to deal with settling into a new cultural environment and attending school in a medium different from their home language (Rumberger, 2001). As these children have no prior exposure to English, this poses a further challenge to their learning and social integration.

### **1.1.1 Reasons for war in the DRC**

Before highlighting the reasons behind the war, it helps to explain its scale. The United Nations mission in Congo (UN office for the coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2006:6) reports that the war from 1998 to 2003 had a terrible impact on the lives of the Congolese; it was the cruelest in recent history and has been labeled 'Africa's First World War'. It involved at least eight African states. Atrocities included mass murder (The International Rescue Committee's (IRC) survey shows that the number of deaths from conflict increased from 2.4 million in 2001 to 5.4 million in 2009), torture, forced displacement, and rape; with 3.4 million displaced, which, according to Zeender and Rothing (2010) accentuates vulnerability. The East-Congo is the most populated region of the DRC and has been most affected by the war.

The violence that stemmed from the war correlates with three factors in the eastern part of the DRC: Access to land; antagonisms related to ethnic identity; and the desire for political power. Following the Rwandan genocide, the entering of the Rwandan Hutu militia into the region resulted in conflicts over territory and revived tensions between ethnic groups (Lange, 2010). Importantly, the desire for land was fuelled by the country's mineral wealth, such as coltan, diamonds, gold, silver, cobalt, copper, cassiterite, tin, tantalum, etc. Control over these resources can be used to assert and sustain political power, hence their significance. According to Jacquemot (2010), the recurring turmoil in the fertile eastern part of DRC can, since at least 1930, be attributed to ethnic conflict between native Congolese and Hutu and Tutsi migrants from Rwanda. The subsequent exploitation

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of mineral resources in the region, during which warring factions sought to wrest control over mines, intensified these tensions. The region remains deeply stricken by poverty.

In addition to this, the United Nations Observer Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC, 2006) states that the DRC has been burdened by continued conflict and violence in the east despite the official ending of the war. The East-Congo has a heterogeneous mix of population groups, caused by fleeing refugees from Rwanda. This has increased conflict in these areas because the aforementioned tensions persist (based on data from Ndikumana and Emizet, 2005). This has been further complicated by the enormous numbers of internally displaced persons as a result of the conflict (based on data from Ndikumana and Emizet, 2005). In this region, the proliferation of militias and rebel armies has led to the rise of continual conflict and human rights abuses (above all, abuses concerning women and children). Civilians have borne the burden of this conflict. In addition to the general effects of political instability, economic chaos, and war, the education system has inevitably suffered directly from the conflict. Schools are no haven for children in conflict-affected DRC. Many have been abducted on their way to school by rebel groups to serve as child soldiers, sexual slaves, or labourers (Bell, 2006).

With increased globalisation and the prevalence of economic and political instability, a new type of First Additional Language learner has emerged in the South African education system. Children of migrant labourers, refugees and political asylum seekers from the DRC or other parts of non-Anglophonic Africa come to the classroom with not only a poor grasp of the language of educational instruction but also with a heavy burden of non-academic obstacles to their learning.

This particular issue has been neither acknowledged nor researched in South Africa, according to Maftoon's and Sabah's (2012) studies. It is on these emotional aspects that this study focuses on.

Daniel (2001 in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012) suggests that the term pedagogy is understood as a form of social practice, which influences an individual's cognitive and affective development. Therefore, the school has a responsibility to grow the affective aspect of its learners, not just the cognitive aspect. Refugee/migrant learners bring a high level of trauma into their learning, which requires informed support from the school and teacher. I am particularly interested in analysing how teachers support such learners if such support is at all possible and how the teachers help the learners adjust and keep up with classroom activities despite learning in an unfamiliar language.

If social instability is to be avoided, as well as access to education, then the current high risk for academic failure by migrant learners must be attended to. This has been affirmed by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR, 2000) (Nichols & Soe, 2013). In addition to

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this, education is a fundamental human right as well as essential to the rehabilitation of migrant learners, because acquiring skills in literacy, for example, can facilitate interpersonal and intrapersonal healing through socialization and acculturation. This means that the school plays a larger role beyond developing learner's intellectual capacity, which is particularly relevant to migrant learners. It has a responsibility to help migrant learners adjust to the culture and language of their host country through socialisation:

*“Immigrant and refugee children are at high risk for academic failure, as well as many other social repercussions. As such, these students potentially lose social stability and access to education through many of these experiences. The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) has stated that education is not only a fundamental human right, but it is also an essential component of immigrant and refugee children's rehabilitation. Research has shown that the acquisition of literacy skills is crucial for restoring social and emotional healing and that teachers and the school environment are key in facilitating this socialization and acculturation process”*

Nichols & Soe (2013:1).

Education plays a crucial role in helping immigrants and refugees settle into a new environment. It is the result of social learning through the internalisation of culture and social relationships where interactions take place between every day and formalised concepts during school learning (Dixon-Krauss, 1996).

## **1.2 Integration of migrant children in South African schooling**

Gaitan (1994) describes that immigrants and refugees travel to different countries intending to find improved economic opportunities for themselves and their children. The reality, however, is that these migrants face multiple challenges, often beginning with a language barrier, which makes integration difficult. Sandowski (2004) agrees with Gaitan's appraisal and states that immigrant and refugee learners are often subject to significant prejudice and instances of xenophobia in some schools. Similarly, Hemson (2011) adds that despite the lack of literature on foreign migrants in South African schools, there is a significant amount of writing on how racism continues to pervade the South African school system. Vandeyar & Vandeyar (2011) argue that although officially, schools promote cultural and linguistic diversity, practically migrant learners often end up feeling excluded with no say in what is happening around them. This creates a learning environment, which is not conducive to integration and produces a barrier to the economic and social success of migrant populations. According to Hemson (2011), the integration and performance of learners will differ

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depending on where they migrate from and eventually settle as well being a reason why they move. Being that the younger the learners are, the easier it is for them to adjust to their new environment.

Furthermore, immigrant and refugee learners face numerous obstacles that hinder their transition into the host country such as discrimination, harassment, social standing, etc. The major barrier, however, is language proficiency, which according to Vandeyar & Vandeyar (2011:5) “serves as the gatekeeper for acceptance in the host society”. If minority or migrant groups are excluded from the mainstream culture because they cannot communicate well with locals, then it is highly unlikely that they will be integrated into the host society (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). Therefore, the language issue should not be isolated to the cultural sphere; it is also a political problem (Prinsloo, 2011; Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011; Alexander, 2012). As evident in Europe over the last few years, the injection of migrants into European society has seen the rise of conservatism, emphasising the preservation of national values or culture, as opposed to universalising them in a way that accommodates other people. Additionally, in light of the migrant crisis in Europe, my research may give insight into how similar, although not identical, issues may be understood regarding influxes of migrants into schools, whereby the way they acquire their mother tongue may be incongruent with those in schools who have a different sociocultural medium of instruction.

Moreover, Soudien (2004: 96) states that most studies of integration in South African schools reach the same conclusion: integration has “followed a decided assimilationist route”. Assimilation assumes that people from minority groups should renounce their own language and cultural practices and replace them with the language and cultural practices of the society into which they are moving, and thus recognise the pre-eminence of the host society (Soudien, 2010). The assimilationist model undervalues the deep and complex linguistic legacy of the language minority students, such as migrant learners compelling them to learn the target language (English) at the expense of their home languages. The assimilation approach differentiates from the global trend towards multilingualism, particularly among people on the African continent. Multilingualism refers to the use of multiple languages in teaching and learning. It stems from globalisation and transitional mobility of the population and therefore affects the demographics of numerous global schools’ environments (Cenoz and Gorter, 2015). In the nature of most classrooms in South Africa, learners bring a diverse linguistic repertoire to the classroom, as such classrooms are often not monolingual in practice. With respect to Soudien’s observation, Sultana (2011) states that multicultural teaching encourages appreciation and understanding of other cultures, as well as one’s own.

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My thesis resonates with Paterson's (2017) argument, that acculturation is a better approach for dealing with migrant learners. According to him, acculturation is a process whereby language minority learners adjust to the majority language, which is English in this case, and to the culture of the host country, while still retaining their own heritage, culture, and language. This is preferred to assimilation because it ensures migrant learners do not lose a connection to their cultural background and provides a sense of pride in their roots (Paterson, 2017). He goes on to say that acculturation is an effective classroom approach for dealing with language minority learners, such as migrant learners. However, it can be stressful and difficult for learners who are new to their host country. Teachers who adopt this approach, according to Paterson (2017), should be culturally knowledgeable, sensitive, skillful, and inclusive. They should incorporate some aspects of migrants' cultures and language into their lessons and activities to help migrants feel included.

### **1.3 Language in education policy in South Africa**

Language in South Africa is a concept loaded with particular historic and political weight. The issue of language policy in South Africa is a politically and historically fraught one. Indeed, language policy, such as the policy of the Apartheid government, has led to brutal conflict (Prinsloo, 2011). "The introduction to the Language Policy for Higher Education statement produced by the South African Ministry of Education in 2002 describes South Africa as 'a country of many languages and tongues' but notes that these have not always been working together." (Prinsloo, 2011: 2). The existence of different languages that are not given the same importance was used to achieve political goals of oppression and separation on which the apartheid state was based (English and Afrikaans were privileged as official languages in comparison to other African languages which were marginalised). Even though there are eleven official languages supporting democracy in South Africa, these languages are not given the same importance and there is a hierarchy of languages in South Africa (Prinsloo, 2011: 2).

In order to make education and economic institutions more accessible to civil society, the 1997 language in education policy statement encourages multilingual education and supports mothertongue instruction for the early years of schooling. However, and herein lies the problem of the research, in South Africa, as in many parts of postcolonial Africa, English dominates the political economy and is seen as the language of globalisation and status. To get a good job in South Africa and abroad, one needs to be proficient in English (Setati, et al., 2002). Banda, (2000) adds that English is seen as superior in education, and is associated with competence and career mindedness. Therefore, parents, learners, and the majority of South African schools opt for English as the language of learning and teaching (Probyn, 2005). This despite the fact that the majority of

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South African learners live in rural and township areas with little or no access to English in their communities. As such learners do not have an opportunity to acquire a level of English necessary for effective engagement with the curriculum, which is constructed and adapted from urban, English-speaking schools (Probyn, 2009). Unsurprisingly, the result of having to learn in a foreign language, is that many South African learners experience challenges with English as a medium of instruction because they are taught through a relatively ‘unknown’ language that they do not understand or a language in which they are not proficient. Thus, learners are unable to benefit from educational opportunities to a large degree. This indicates that language issues become a barrier to knowledge acquisition and learners are not likely to receive a quality education while these barriers persist.

Many schools fail to implement the language in education policy as in many classrooms there is a contradiction between school language policy and what is possible in practice. This leaves teachers caught between community aspirations and classroom realities, and faced with complex dilemmas that are both pedagogical and political (Kajee, 2011; Prinsloo, 2011; Probyn, 2009). However, this problem is not unique to local learners. This can be extended to migrant learners whose primary language is also not the language of instruction, placing them on the same level as their native peers. Thus, it is critical that barriers to education are not seen as a problem only facing local learners, but must be understood as an issue, affecting both local and migrant learners alike.

#### **1.4 The rationale for this research**

My own experience as a French-speaker studying in an English learning environment has offered personal inspiration and curiosity towards this study, particularly in the way Congolese school children are faring in similar situations. I realised that I not only faced a language barrier in my studies, but also complex emotional consequences as a result of the transition. I felt anxiety, inadequacy, and I experienced the lack of a welcoming environment. This led me to ask myself how young Congolese immigrant learners cope with these transitions. Given that this affective aspect is not usually taken into consideration when teaching language and literacy in a classroom environment and this has not been an area of much research in education in South Africa (Maftoon & Sabah, 2012; Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000), it presents a significant gap in the literature.

The study extends my Master’s study, where I researched the experiences of Congolese migrant children in a South African school, regarding language, literacy, and learning. It raises further questions about what transitions are needed for such learners and what role teachers play in this situation. Forming part of the rationale of this study, emotional difficulties following the transition from one medium of instruction to another are likely to become an increasingly urgent social issue

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that requires redress. Ultimately, this study aims to examine the educational context in which migrant learners find themselves and to identify aspects of teaching methods that are affective and effective in teaching English language and literacy in a multilingual setting.

### **1.5 Significance of the study**

The study investigates the affective strategies that grade three teachers use for teaching English language and literacy in a low-income school, where Congolese migrant children make up some of the learners. Child refugees are characterised by their heightened emotionality, particularly with regard to immigration and language acquisition (Barkhuizen 2006). According to Brown (2000), learning and language acquisition are both conceptual and affective. However, most research topics in education in South Africa have an explicit focus on the cognitive aspect of learning, and, as a consequence, neglects the affective aspect (Maftoon & Sabah, 2012; Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000).

The discourse around the affective side of learning an additional language in the classroom is often disregarded, as this cannot be measured or given an intellectual value (Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). This disregard also stems from the history and structure of the education system (Brown, 2000). The effect of this neglect is that language-learning processes are conceptualised without attention to how it may influence the learner positively or negatively. However, in the case of refugee learners, the issue of emotionality is heightened and the affective aspects of learning should be emphasised accordingly. Teachers – adopting affective strategies - could, therefore, focus on the strong emotional state of refugee children when teaching English and literacy whilst also being mindful of their role in constituting an emotional state that encourages learning in the child (Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000). This study is, therefore, significant as it develops a model/framework to assist teachers in better responding to the learners' affective needs by using affective strategies when teaching literacy.

In this thesis, I argue that all children have emotional needs when learning in a language that is not their mother tongue and that this may be significantly increased for migrant and refugee children because of other issues related to being a foreigner (or being displaced) and having to be taught in an unfamiliar language. These emotional needs must be met for the children to learn successfully. In support of this, Mendez and Pena (2013) argue that feelings and emotions experienced by learners are considered important in understanding learning processes, learner motivation, and effective teaching.

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## **1.6 Policy significance of the study**

The protection of children's rights and their right to education are enshrined in the South African Constitution. This is enacted by legislation. Section 28 refers to the care of children in the context of self-development as well as their right to protection. While section 29 (1) (a) of the Bill of Rights refers to the right to basic education. These serve as a context for future actions and policies. The constitutional rights of children are enacted in the Children's Act No. 38 of 2005 (South Africa, 2005 in Marishane, 2013). This Act sets out the principles of the nature of protection and cares to be provided to children. The best interests of the child are the most important principle, the implementation of which, includes protection from physical and psychological harm caused by abuse, neglect, maltreatment, and degradation inflicted on the child directly or indirectly through exposure, is presented in section (7) of the Act.

The legal expression of the child's right to schooling is given by the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 (South Africa, 1996b). Section 5 of this Act prohibits schools from discriminating against pupils in terms of both admission and the satisfaction of educational needs. All children without exception, including children from immigrant families, are entitled to protection and care as provided by law. The heads of schools and school staff, who act as parents, are responsible for ensuring the protection and care of children under article 32, paragraph 2 (Marishane, 2013).

The construction of an inclusive education and training system as stipulated in the framework of the Inclusive Education Policy, by the White Paper on Education 6 (South Africa, 2001) constitutes the pillar for promoting, developing, and supporting the inclusion and participation of all learners in education. Addressing the educational needs of all learners without exception, including the vulnerable, such as learners from immigrant families, as well as learners with special educational needs placed in inclusive learning, care, and safety centres in the system. However, it should be noted that learners from immigrant families face challenges in South African educational institutions. This is despite constitutional imperatives and legal provisions in place to guarantee the right of all learners to education (Marishina, 2013; Hemson, 2011; Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). South Africa is a signatory to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and its Constitution which guarantees respect for the rights and dignity of all (Marishane, 2013). Therefore, the outcome of this study may be useful to the South Africa government's implementation strategies for international migration in addressing human rights.

### **1.6.1 South Africa's vision and National Development Plan 2030**

The new white paper on international migration is inspired by the National Development Plan (NDP), which has been adopted by the government as a macro-policy that would guide the

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formulation of new public policies, legislation, and strategies. The NDP aims to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030.

A vision based on the contribution of migration (inbound and outbound) to the growth of the South African economy and hence the transformation of Africa is what South Africa needs in a world that has become a global village. Given that international migration cannot be curbed, the White Paper argues that if properly dealt with and done in a way that respects human rights, international migration will be beneficial. To achieve the development objectives set out in the NDP, the new White Paper enables South Africa to embrace international migration for its development while preserving its sovereignty, security, and peace. To this end, the new White Paper provides a policy framework to guide the review of immigration and related laws (White paper, 2017). This vision needs to be driven by

*“South Africa's commitment to overcoming the legacy of colonialism and building a prosperous, peaceful, and united Africa. Its commitment to the values of humanism and internationalism through our struggle for human worth and dignity. The building of a nation of active citizens in South Africa, in Africa and the world.”* (White Paper, 2017: 32).

To ensure that the new vision is consistent with other government policies, one of the guiding principles is: Nation-building and social cohesion must be the contribution of South Africa's international migration policy (White paper, 2017). Migration policy shapes the future composition of the population. The selection and possibly the designation of the foreigners who may be part of the population either temporarily or permanently is one of the objectives of migration policy. According to the NDP, the population growth rate will increase by 0.1 to 0.2% per year by 2030 as a result of international migration. The United Nations, on the other hand, estimates that 71.3% of South Africa's population will live in urban areas by 2030 (White Paper, 2017:33). It is, therefore, important that the new policy takes into account the influence of migration on population dynamics.

The existing paradigm exposes South Africa to various risks as a result of global instability and, by default, reinforces colonial models of manpower, trade, and production. This paradigm also perpetuates irregular migration, which in turn increases corruption, human rights abuses, and national insecurity. The new White Paper argues that South Africans need to adopt a paradigm that views international migration as a means of promoting their own development and that of their country and region (SADC: The Southern African Development Community).

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In the new paradigm, South Africans could see themselves as responsible citizens of South Africa, Africa, and the world. As such, they would support effective and humane approaches to managing international migration. Therefore, an enabling school environment, as I argue in this research, where vulnerable learners, such as migrant learners, feel safe and their right to quality education is guaranteed, is a sufficient condition for these learners to benefit from the quality education advocated by the South African vision as embodied in the 2030 NDP. This shows how my research work is in line with one of the goals of 2030 NDP. Improving the quality of education is one of the 2030 NDP targets. Hence, the significance of this study is twofold:

- To theoretically contribute a pedagogical framework that promotes affective approaches for teaching English language and literacy in a low-income multicultural school comprising migrant learners.
- Furthermore, this study will benefit teachers in multilingual contexts as it takes into consideration the emotional difficulties that come with learning in a language that is not one's mother tongue, to understand individual learning styles, and consequently to inform and adjust teaching strategies to fit diverse needs. The findings suggest a need for teacher training that takes into consideration the affective and cognitive needs of learners from diverse backgrounds, such as migrant learners, for a more effective literacy and language education.

The understanding of international migration as promoted in the new White Paper is in line with the principles of international bodies including the United Nations (UN), the African Union (AU), the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). Within the framework of universal human rights and shared responsibilities, nations are entitled to security and self-determination. According to the Charter of Liberty; "all cultural treasures of humanity will be open to all through the free exchange of books, ideas, and contact with other countries. International migration is a two-way reciprocal process and our students, workers, tourists, and businessmen want to be welcomed wherever they seek opportunities. Other nations expect the same from us" (WhitePaper, 2017:72).

To reiterate, this thesis is concerned with the role of affect in the learning contexts of migrant learners, specifically, non-native English speakers such as Congolese children, and the strategies used by teachers to manage this. Affect is associated with aspects of emotion, feeling, mood, or attitude which condition behaviour (Arnold, 2011; Forehand, 2010; Brown, 2000).

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The study investigates the affective strategies that grade three teachers use for teaching English language and literacy in a low-income school, where Congolese migrant children make up some of the learners. This is an important issue because, in the case of migrant learners, particularly those who do not speak English as a primary language, such as learners from the Congo, there is the double challenge of having to manage the affective difficulties that come with being a refugee/migrant and learning in another language. There is a cognitive challenge to learning a foreign language within a new context. Teaching practices must be developed in such a way that they take into account the emotional particularities of migrant learners, including the complexities that arise in a multicultural and multilingual classroom, to avoid the learning process of these learners being inhibited (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012; Brown, 2000; Arnold, 2011; Agaesse, 2017).

### **1.7 Research questions: Primary question**

- What affective strategies do Grade 3 teachers use for teaching English language and literacy in a low-income school, where Congolese migrant children make up some of the learners?

#### **1.7.1 Research question: Secondary question**

- How do Congolese migrant learners feel when being taught or having to demonstrate English literacy skills in the classroom in comparison with their native English peers?
- What are the types of learning activities that migrant children from the Democratic Republic of Congo relate to?
- What opportunities are present to help migrant learners develop their ability to use English to communicate?

### **1.8 Research objectives**

The purpose of this research study is to investigate teachers' affective strategies, classroom interactions, and the extent to which they support English language and literacy learning in an additional language and facilitate effective engagement of the schoolchildren when learning to read and write in the English language. The following are the specific research objectives:

- a) To examine the affective strategies and interactions with Congolese migrant learners that Grade 3 teachers use to engage learners effectively in the learning process of literacy.

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- b) To evaluate teachers' diversity of pedagogical approaches (such as using different modalities) over the research period, as well as the teacher's utilisation of the student's home language and prior knowledge to promote learning.
  - c) To explore the use of programmatic support for English language learners, as well as the use of interventions such as additional class time, mentoring/tutoring, community outreach programs for migrant families, and school-wide literacy initiatives and their effectiveness.

The investigation encapsulates an analysis of language and literacy practices at school or literacy events (Heath, 1983) such as:

- Classroom discourse/talk (language used by the teacher; questions; responses; teacherlearner; learner-learner).
- Pedagogical strategies (I look into possibilities for multimodal engagement - e.g. Teachers sharing visual texts: images and videos to bring across the message as well as teachers allowing learners to assist each other; and allowing the use of learner's home language). Computers, as both a teaching and learning tool, provide a way for continuous learning as students can research and practice on their own. This requires changes in the teaching method as well as considering new media. Media such as television, video games, mobile phones, and internet being a product of active learning, not only encourage active and critical learning but also facilitate it (Prinsloo and Walton, 2008). Through the use of computers, learners are given access to the outside world's information. It is good for developing the ability to work in teams, skills highly regarded in today's job market.
- The sensitivity of teachers to the anxieties and stresses that learners experience regarding language and literacy acquisition and the strategies designed to promote mutual respect, trust, and support. Additionally, the teacher's sensitivity to the emotional needs of these migrant schoolchildren will be assessed. Finally, the teacher's environment-creation will be evaluated through observations of emotional displays by the migrant learners (e.g. social inclusion, physical isolation, etc.).
- Learning is influenced by the learners' contexts; I evaluate the support instituted by the school to support English language learners and migrant learner's learning in terms of literacy and emotional growth. For example, schools may have specific literacy programmes, extra classes, or social workers who assist them. I will strive to identify the teacher's creation of a classroom environment that supports mutual respect, trust, and safety

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for the migrant schoolchildren. This includes the evaluation of specific management techniques, as well as norms for dialogue in the classroom.

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## **1.9 Conceptual review**

### **1.9.1 Clarification of the concepts**

#### **a) Migration**

Migration in the African context as described by Kalitany and Visser (2010:377) refers to the movement of people across the borders of countries within the African continent seeking to establish a new place of peace and stability.

#### **b) Migrant**

According to Kalintayi and Visser (2010:384), the United Nations categorizes migrants as short-term and long-term. A short-term migrant is a person who has left his or her country for at least three months. While a long-term migrant is one who lives outside his or her country for at least one year. This research will target the two categories of migrants as defined by the United Nations.

#### **c) Refugee**

The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) through its 1951 Convention describe a refugee in terms of someone unable or unwilling to return to his or her country of origin because of a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion (White Paper, 2017:74).

#### **d) Xenophobia**

Xenophobia is defined as attitudes, prejudices, and behaviours that reject, exclude, and often defame people, based on the perception that they are foreigners or strangers to the community, society, or national identity (White Paper, 2017: 74).

Since this thesis is concerned with the role of affect in the learning contexts of migrant learners, specifically, non-native English speakers such as Congolese children, and the strategies used by teachers to manage this, I use Bloom's Taxonomy as the frame of reference, where the affective domain is one of the classifications (Schutz, 2017). The following section will deal with a review of Bloom's Taxonomy as well as a more detailed review of the literature on the affective domain in teaching and learning.

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## **1.9.2 Review of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives**

Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives includes the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains (Schutz, 2017; Forehand, 2010).

The cognitive domain is organised in a hierarchy that begins with the simple acquisition of knowledge, followed by the more sophisticated cognitive tasks of comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Forehand, 2010).

The affective domain is part of a system that was published in 1965 to identify, understand, and process the way people learn (Forehand, 2010). Under the title Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, a guide was written and published for the affective domain in 1964 (Schutz, 2017).

In this book, Bloom's committee focused on the attitudes that a teacher may wish to instill in his or her learners (Forehand, 2010). Affect is the necessary path to deeper learning. Although its impact on learning is mostly unknown, the affective domain is parallel to the cognitive and psychomotor domains (Schutz, 2017). The affective domain is largely recognised as a major area of educational learning Schutz (2017). Bloom et.al., (1964) with their publication of a taxonomy of educational objectives including the implementation of the affective domain, recognise it's vital relevance. The affective domain consists largely of feelings, emotions, and moods (Schutz, 2017; Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000).

The psychomotor domain is related to the learning of physical movement (Forehand, 2010). The members of the original committee did not write a book on the psychomotor domain. Bloom's committee has never published a guide to the psychomotor domain, although other authors have attempted such taxonomies (Forehand, 2010). It should be noted that this third domain is beyond the scope of the current study.

### **1.9.2.1 The affective domain in teaching and learning**

Affect is associated with aspects of emotion, feeling, mood, or attitude which condition behaviour (Arnold, 2011; Forehand, 2010; Brown, 2000). According to Minghe & Yuan (2013), there are two related elements in a foreign language and literacy teaching and learning. The first element is an individual aspect of learners, which includes motivation, anxiety, inhibition, self-esteem, etc. The second element is a relational factor between learners themselves, as well as between learners and the teacher, such as empathy, interaction, and other factors. Congolese learners enter school, into the same class as native English speakers and other South Africans, with their home language and

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literacy backgrounds, consequently, difficulties arise for teachers and learners, the former are required to accommodate individual levels of specific diverse needs within a given time frame, the latter negotiating differences in the value assigned to their literacies hence the relational factor which also has an emotional effect (see section 2,3.1.1.1).

Language learning consists not only of cognitive, but also affective investment (Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). Most research in education in South Africa has an explicit focus on the cognitive aspect of learning, and, as a consequence, neglects the affective aspect (Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). Similarly, the affective side of learning is not usually taken into consideration when teaching language/literacy in a classroom environment. It has not been an area of much research in education in South Africa. Therefore, my study seeks to fill this gap.

As Maftoon and Sabah (2012:37) identify, affect and emotion have long remained “*in the shadow*” of research on second language learning; cognition occupies primary and standalone importance among scholars. As a consequence of this disproportionate focus on the cognitive side of language learning, motivational factors have been overlooked. The discourse around the affective side of learning a second language in the classroom is often disregarded, as this cannot be measured or given an intellectual value (Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). This disregard also stems from the history and structure of the education system (Brown, 2000). The effect of this neglect is that language learning processes are conceptualised without attention to how it may influence the learner positively or negatively. Both must be considered if language-learning processes, for both the learner and the teacher, are to be successful, particularly when dealing with subjects that have elevated levels of emotionality such as child refugees. Teachers need to pay more attention to the affective aspects of language acquisition and create safe spaces for learners.

Vygotsky’s (1978, 1981, 1987) concept of *perezhivanie*, which focuses on the emotional distress involved in the acquisition of new language and literacy, is useful in understanding both the emotional aspect of language and the importance of the human connection in social interactions. It is often referred to as *lived experience*, although requires further conceptual development here since there is no precise English equivalent. According to Maftoon & Sabah (2012), *perezhivanie* is not only limited to children, since any novice learner can have a transformative experience through meaning-making. *Perezhivanie* helps us to understand the importance of relationships to learners as an integral part of their learning journey. This despite its subjective nature. As teachers and learners exchange words and ideas narratives are built as both co-operate to construct, discover, and make meaning (Maftoon & Sabah, 2012).

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The emotional aspect that this implies during communication is captured with *perezhivanie*, when an individual is aware of the meaning-making process that they have engaged in with another in the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978; 1987). Without understanding this aspect of learning, Vygotsky (1978, 1987) rightly believes the entire process remains incomplete – the idea of connecting (or social relationships) as a human need must be integrated into learning as an expression of the need to think and understand.

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Expanding on the importance of social relationships to learning, Vygotsky (1987) emphasised how children relate to events emotionally, which facilitates their awareness and interpretation, evident in the changes of their social relations from the time that they acquire language and move into adolescence. This is because acquiring a language also allows a child to communicate what they are feeling and experiencing with another person, and the qualitative leap that this entails is foundational for the development of abstract thought and other more complicated mental functions. Consequently, affective engagement, especially if it is positive, is critical not just for language and literacy acquisition, but for human flourishing in general.

The effectiveness of teaching and learning processes can be better understood if emotions are considered to be an important part of those processes, and deserving of attention (Mendez and Pena, 2013). *Emotion* has many interpretations, and it can refer to a capacity to make evaluations, that is, students can use their emotions to evaluate a situation (Mendez and Pena, 2013). Of course, the evaluations themselves are influenced by someone's background as well as their social environment (Mendez and Pena, 2013). Emotions, therefore, are particularly relevant to language and literacy learning processes, because learning a foreign language in a foreign context may make students feel shy or apprehensive, for example.

Similarly, Krashen (1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012) believed that non-linguistic factors such as motivation, confidence, anxiety, and attitude influence learning. To substantiate, educational psychology studies found that the effect of negative emotions on language acquisition, such as fear, shame, and anxiety: these can prevent optimal memory retention and other brain functions. However, emotions can also accelerate language acquisition by fuelling motivation and autonomy (Mahn & John-Steiner, 2002). Moreover, emotional states and attitude(s) are adjustable filters necessary for acquisition (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). Gass, S. (2009:109) identifies attitude as the "ability to acquire a particular skill" and found that it has a powerful impact on learner's acquisition of a second language. Attitude determines the pupil's motivation towards learning a new language, as they are more involved in activities and more willing to learn if their attitude is a positive one.

Language learning consists not only of cognitive but also affective investment. Affective investment in language learning has both intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions. Concerning the intrinsic side, motivated children view reading as fulfilling their needs for exploration and knowledge. In comparison, children who lack motivation may be bored or annoyed by reading (Arnold, 2011). Extrinsically, foreign language teachers play a critical role in stimulating their student's motivation. Understanding a human being holistically in terms of feelings, responses,

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beliefs, and values are very important in relation to second language learning (Arnold, 2011). Language is interwoven into the whole aspect of human behaviour. Studying a language cannot be separated from the whole person, a being who has a physique, cognition, and more importantly, emotion (Minghe & Yuan, 2013; Arnold, 2011).

To further explicate this point, it is easier for migrant children to learn English when they feel that their teacher relates to their life experience. Migrant learners are at a disadvantage as they are not only learning a new language, but they are learning in that language as well. They must begin to use English to develop new and abstract concepts as well as literacy skills (Gibbons, 2009, 1991). It can be inferred from Krashen (1985, 1994) that a learner who does not feel that she/he can socially interact with his/her peers, cannot perform well academically because she/he feels that she/he needs to learn the informal or social English which is used inside and outside the classroom. Accepting such a statement, it can be reasoned that if she/he does not learn this, she/he feels that s/he cannot fit in a society/classroom with peers who are fluent in English and because of that these learners find themselves torn between two languages; their native language and the language they are trying to learn. This inner conflict causes anxiety, which negatively influences the learner's ability to learn. It can, therefore, be concluded that migrant learners would have an inner conflict which will cause anxiety, and negatively influence their ability to learn.

From the above, the accompanying behaviour of this conflict has a huge impact on second language learners, migrant children, in this case, developing their skills in English. Other classmates may ridicule their accent or when they make errors as they speak English in class. If the teacher does not address such issues, those learners with diverse needs will begin to feel that they should either withdraw from participating, act out, or be silent.

To explain, in large part, why some people can learn a second language while others cannot, Krashen (1985, 1994, 2009) developed the affective filter hypothesis. For Krashen (1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012), claiming that an inappropriate effect is to blame or, better yet, claiming that learners did not receive sufficient understandable information would be one way to account for the non-acquisition of language.

According to Krashen (1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012), the emotional filter is responsible for individual differences and variations in second language acquisition and differentiates between first language acquisition and second language acquisition (SLA), because the emotional filter is not something that children have or use. If the filter is in place, the input is prevented from passing; if the input is prevented from passing, there can be no acquisition. If, on the other hand, the filter

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is low, or weak, and the input is understandable, the input will reach the acquisition device, and the acquisition will take place. In summary, Krashen's affect filter (1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012) states that the higher one's stress level, the more concerned one will be about what's going on in the classroom, and so this distraction will result in a lower chance of learning a new language. This is because when you are involved with what is going on around you, your learning is affected. As a result, the higher one's affective filter is, the lower one's chances of learning and conversely; the lower one's affective filter is, the higher one's chances of learning. In the same vein, Stevick (1980:4) follows suit and says the success of language learning depends "less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analysis than on what happens within and between people in the classroom." This means that it is the teacher's responsibility to create an environment that is conducive to learning that can support learners who are studying in a language in which they are not familiar, such as children from immigrant families.

Barkhuizen (2006) argued that immigration comes with a lot of change, which affects all aspects of life: social, economic, cultural, psychological, etc. These changes have emotional effects, which often cause stress as immigrants experience identity conflicts and a lack of confidence in the new culture around them. In addition, the personal burdens of being a migrant or refugee in a developing country often result in marked emotionality, which hampers language acquisition (Barkhuizen 2006), therefore, it is likely that their ability to learn and integrate into a new community will be stunted unless necessary interventions are made. This study is therefore significant as it seeks to develop the affective aspects of language acquisition, as well as analysing how teachers can assist in this process within a multilingual classroom. The danger is that being overburdened, the improvement and development of cognition and the use of knowledge where Congolese refugee children are concerned may be forgotten.

There are, to make matters more complicated, many variables that come together in a single emotional event, and this may affect a student's motivation (Mendez and Pena, 2013). In the case of a negative emotional event, the student may not carry out a task very well, and this will impact on their engagement in the classroom (Mendez and Pena, 2013). Understanding the impact of negative and positive emotions, and how they can be mitigated or induced, are critical to enhancing motivation inside the classroom. In the case of a child refugee, the particular needs to be catered to in instances of mediation are a heightened sense of emotionality and a need to develop a secure space for instruction. Therefore, literacy and language teachers must understand how to appropriately manage the emotions of the students in order to make it work "for" and not "against" them. This could be referred to as "affective pedagogy", which consists of findings in language and

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literacy learning where developing student's self-esteem and self-belief has had positive outcomes on learning processes (Arnold, 2011; Arag ̃o, 2011, in Mendez and Pena, 2013).

Arnold (2011) believes that in dealing with language learners within the classroom context, the teacher should not only focus on students' intellectual needs but also their emotional needs. This includes the relational aspect amongst learners themselves, as well as between learners and teachers, including teaching methods, social interactions, and the learning environment as part of the affective domain. Therefore, affective pedagogy focuses on developing students' belief systems, emotions, and attitudes (Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000). In light of this, the teacher could create a learning environment that is conducive for learning as well as relationships consisting of trust, respect, and good communication. Zhang (2014) adds that a classroom with an encouraging environment is important for the overall development of students. For students to effectively learn the content, such as language and literacy, teaching should be focussed around developing these aspects of students' personalities (Arnold, 2011). Students in general and in particular migrant students have shown that a lack of positive regard impacts many aspects of their personal development. These include perceptions of themselves, peers, and failing to recognise the importance of an activity. This, in turn, hinders the success of their learning experience (Arnold, 2011; Krashen, 1994; Brown, 2000). Self-evaluation is facilitated by reflection, as students can assess whether they are making progress in mitigating negative emotions and channeling positive ones (Mendez and Pena, 2013). In this sense, self-efficacy is enhanced.

Bandura (1994, in Mendez and Pena, 2013: 3) refers to self-efficacy as "(...) people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives". Therefore, those with high self-efficacy are likely to confidently engage in tasks because they believe that they can meet the demands of the task itself. However, for someone who has a low self-efficacy, the opposite is likely to occur as they may justify that they cannot do the task well because of personal weaknesses. Self-efficacy has a very close relationship with self-worth. Covington (1992, in Mendez and Pena, 2013) puts forward a useful observation regarding self-worth: People with very low self-worth will search for self-acceptance, and, in schools, self-acceptance requires that a student does well academically. If the ability is correlated with self-worth, those with high self-efficacy are more likely to do well and, as a consequence, have a higher sense of self-worth. However, those who do not, and have low selfworth, are likely to receive a negative appraisal from themselves as well as their peers. Hence, this premise means that students are likely to over-strive or cheat in order to ensure that they achieve and protect themselves from any negative appraisal.

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In addition to this, the psychological effects of immigration show themselves differently in students. Kugler (2009:3) believed that “a child who seems disinterested may be depressed, living with parents who themselves are disengaged and depressed as they struggle to adjust”. A learner with violent outbursts, who might just appear undisciplined, can be reliving the emotion of a turbulent event in a war-torn country, experiencing a heightened “fight or flight” response (Arnold, 2011). The implications of this are that teachers must afford sensitivity to the learners’ emotional experiences, which not only offers support but also allows for the affective aspect of a relationship to manifest between the learner and the teacher.

To reduce anxiety in the classroom, teachers could focus on making lessons enjoyable by giving students time to think about and answer questions and prompting learners who appear to have difficulty finding the appropriate words to express themselves (Gibbons, 2009; Arnold, 2011; Krashen, 1994). If the varieties of language are considered, specifically, and if students can use their own language, this makes the learning environment more easily responsive. This not only reduces anxiety resulting from unfamiliarity, or a rigid learning context but offers the opportunity for code-switching thus allowing for the students to identify the similar characteristics between another language and their own. This is a fantastic advantage in cognitive tools for a bilingual speaker (Alfouaim, 2012).

Further, teachers could build on learner’s previous knowledge and experiences and allow learners with lower levels of ability to ask questions in their own language, but always respond in English (Gibbons, 2009). This allows learners to use what they know to get what they do not know (Vygotsky, 1978, Hardman, 2011). Teachers could also help learners to identify what they know and learn from other learners.

A teacher’s facilitation is moulded by the interaction between cognitive and affective influences. Teachers’ emotions and perceptions of learners affect the mediation process that is being provided. Thus, the emotions that affect this interaction must be identified, and it must be established how they influence mediation and the articulation of particular points of interaction. Therefore, Vygotsky’s hypothesis that teaching and learning require teachers to be conscious and reflexive regarding the subjectivities they bring to interactions with learners is highly important.

In brief, learning consists of two parts: cognitive and affective. If learning is to be effective, both parts must be considered and integrated. The reasoning behind this, as aforementioned, is that affective aspects of the learning process can positively and negatively influence language acquisition. Therefore, the teacher must be aware and sensitive to this, especially for second language speakers and migrant learners, whose circumstances may be difficult and may affect their

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attitude to learning itself. Thus, a teacher could reflect on how they teach; how they may be perceived by learners; their perceptions of learners; its impact on how they teach and can give a comprehensive input into managing stress within the classroom. Therefore, offering support and having the necessary sensitivity, will facilitate an affirming learning environment and positive emotional dispositions in learners. Attention to affective factors can improve language learning and the effectiveness of teaching, in turn, the affective classroom can contribute in a significant way to educating learners effectively (Minghe & Yuan, 2013).

In conclusion, this chapter outlined the background to this research as well as the rationale, objectives, and context of the study. Moreover, this chapter summarised a review of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives and gave a more detailed review of the literature on the affective domain in teaching and learning. The following chapter will cover the theoretical framework in which this research is grounded.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter looks at the theoretical framework as well as other research pertaining to the study.

I built on two educational theories: theories of affective teaching (Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000; Minghe & Yuan, 2013) and socio-cultural theories (Vygotsky, 1978; Street, 2008; Gee, 2004; Heath, 2007). Both informed my approach regarding affective pedagogy for migrant learners. These two educational theories were investigated and how they shaped the study was explained. They also appraised how I observed, analysed and conceptualized learner-learner interactions, teacher-learner interactions, and the learning environment in the classroom. Collectively, they assisted me to understand the core of what affective pedagogy was within the scope of this research study. Gaps in the literature, the scope for additional research, and concluding remarks are also included.

### **2.2 Conceptual framework**

According to Babbie and Mouton (2010), a conceptual framework of a research study allows students to explain the main concept of the study and shed light on its purpose. As was noted in Chapter 1, the purpose of this research study is to investigate teachers' affective strategies, classroom interactions, and the extent to which they support English language and literacy learning in an additional language and facilitate effective engagement of learners when learning to be literate.

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The research is carried out by way of a case study of migrant Congolese learners in grade 3 from a multilingual school situated in a disadvantaged area in Cape Town. Theories of affective teaching (Krashen, 1982; Brown, 2000; Arnold, 2011; Minghe & Yuan, 2013) and socio-cultural theories (Vygotsky, 1978; Street, 2008; Gee, 2004. Heath, 2007) informed my approach to affective pedagogy for migrant learners. Furthermore, what we know about research on theories of affective teaching and socio-cultural theories was stated.

The key concepts that are part of the theoretical foundation of this research project will be defined below. These include; affective pedagogy, teaching practice, effective teaching, literacy, second language, sociocultural, and affect.

### 2.2.1 *Affective pedagogy*

In most cases, the nature of the experiences of learners from immigrant families, especially those who do not have the language of the school as their mother tongue, is very different from that of their native classmates who speak the language of the school at home. Teaching such learners requires adequate preparation. Muller (2002) claims that teaching learners from immigrant families requires relevant strategies because of their different experiences. It is therefore vital that teachers take into account the experiences of learners from immigrant families in the preparation of their subjects and in the way they teach. However, teachers are usually not well equipped to respond to the linguistic needs nor to understand the complexities of the non-linguistic challenges facing immigrant students (Hilburn, 2014; Rumberger, 2011; Sadowski, 2004).

According to Loughran, (2006), when teaching in a diverse classroom, teachers need to adapt their strategy to suit the requirements of different individual learners and educate on the basis of inclusive and equitable teaching practices. Cavan (2008) adds that teachers have the authority and mandate to make the classroom space where all learners, regardless of their backgrounds, feel safe. Apple (2004) echoes this and adds that empathy must be a hallmark of teachers who teach in a multicultural classroom, which includes learners who are marginalised, such as migrant learners, due to social, political, economic, and structural forces. This marginalisation is also often reflected in the curriculum, which does not take into account the often varying and different backgrounds of all learners, including migrants.

Affective Pedagogy is the term I used in this study to link school and culture and to encourage learners to question and reflect on themselves. This is a dual-layered term, which suggests that learners face many different attitudes, beliefs, and feelings when undergoing their studies in an unfamiliar language and setting. These feelings about themselves as learners can be just as

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influential as their learning abilities in terms of impairment to their learning outcomes (Krashen, 1985; Brown, 2000, Arnold, 2011). As a result of this, teachers must offer sufficient guidance and support to such learners, to aid them in the process of learning, due to the interrelatedness of cognitive and affective dimensions in learning. Teacher's sensitivity to the learners' emotional experiences, which includes offering pedagogic support and allowing for the manifestation of an affective relationship between the learner and the teacher, may lead to a more conducive learning environment. This environment has the potential to increase feelings of security and acceptance among the learners. This is the premise of affective pedagogy (Minghe & Yuan, 2013; Krashen, 1994; Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000).

Affective pedagogy is also a generic term I used in this study because it encompasses all the theoretical and pedagogical elements discussed in this chapter.

### ***2.2.2 Teaching practice***

Alexander (2001) describes teaching practices as the spoken and visual discourse of knowledge as well as the cognitive engagement with knowledge by means of interactive individual or group learning activities. Herein, physical and social skills are promoted through the probing of tasks and activities by the teacher. The interactive dimension of Alexander's teaching practice corresponds to Vygotsky's work as both suggest that social interaction is key to learning and development, and it requires cooperation between the learner and the teacher (Lantof, 2011; Vygotsky, 1978). In this manner, the students engage with the subject matter, individually or while co-operating with other students. Simultaneously, teachers can monitor the learning process by testing the students and student self-assessment.

### ***2.2.3 Effective teaching***

Of all the factors that come into play for learning, motivation is crucial for successful language and literacy learning (Krashen 1985, Brown, 2000; Arnold, 2011; Minghe & Yuan, 2013). According to Brown (2000), motivation is a desire or emotion that drives a particular action. Therefore, effective teaching in the context of this study will be gauged by the teacher's ability to motivate learners to participate in classroom activities and in particular on oral practices that will help learners to gain proficiency in the English language and literacy. To do this, the teacher should be able to demonstrate an ability to plan exciting activities and materials that will capture the attention and interest of the learners in learning and improving their language and literacy skills.

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#### ***2.2.4 Literacy***

So too, is it necessary to explicate what is meant by the term ‘literacy’ as it used within the theoretical foundations of this research. Definitions of literacy and what it means to be literate are similarly varied, divergent, and unclear, ranging from ‘functional literacy’ to ‘cultural literacy’. There seems to be some agreement that literacy is not simply a set of static skills but must involve literacy in action, critical literacy, and literacy as a social practice and multiple literacies (Assessment, 2013). According to Perry (2012), literacy is one form of language use. For this study, literacy is defined as one’s ability to communicate for practical purposes. This involves the ability to read, write, speak, listen, view, and think (Cooper, Robinson, Slansky, and Kiger, 2014).

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### **2.2.5 Second language**

In the context of this study, children learning English in an English-speaking environment are referred to as second language learners (Lantolf, 2011).

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to the process whereby any additional language, besides the children's home language or first language, is learned. Even though it is referred to as second language acquisition, the language the learner is learning could be a third or fourth language (Lantolf, 2011).

### **2.2.6 Sociocultural**

“Sociocultural”, defined by Vandeyar & Vandayar (2011:4), describes the awareness of students' backgrounds, personal histories, and that each student is a product of their social, cultural, political, and historical forces which present themselves at any given moment in their lives.

### **2.2.7 Affects**

Affect refers to the aspects of emotion, feeling, mood, or attitude which condition behaviour (Arnold 2011, Brown, 2000). Language learning consists not only of cognitive, but also affective investment (Brown, 2000; Arnold, 2011; Vygotsky, 1978). Affective factors play a critical role in second language learning (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). It is necessary to discuss pedagogy and the affective side of acquisition, paying attention to Krashen's affective filter theory (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). The Affective Filter is responsible for individual differences and variations in second language acquisition (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). Learners are receiving different variations of education despite being in the same classroom. Migrant children bring emotion into their learning due to language barriers and immigration history and trauma (Barkhuizen 2006).

To develop a greater understanding of literacy and the relationships formed and maintained within educational spaces between teachers and learners, it is important to identify the values, attitudes, feelings, and social relationships that comprise, compliment, and affect the learning and teaching space. In this way, we can better understand literacy as a concept related to identity, feelings, value, morals, and that which governs the way we live and be, rather than simply being able to read and write (Street, 2008). As a result, literacy and understanding the way its meaning has been created, maintained, and adapted requires analysis into the context in which it exists.

Thus, literacy, as a facet of social practice, comprises the production of social and cultural processes as intrinsic to learning and teaching (Vygotsky, 1978; Street, 2008; Heath, 2007; Perry, 2012).

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Therefore, for a learner to be best suited and most comfortable within an educational space, it is important that space is representative of the learner's social, cultural, and psychological needs. Seeing as though the learning and acquisition of language and literacy is a day-by-day process, it ought to be taught in such a way that reflects every-day experiences of the diverse group of learners seated in the classroom (Street, 2008; Heath, 2007; Perry, 2012).

A sociocultural perspective does not present the classroom as a homogenous space where learners originate from the same background and therefore require the same, or similar, affective and cognitive needs (Street, 2008; Heath, 2007; Gee, 2007; Perry, 2012). Instead, the learners situated in the classroom are representative of various socio-cultural realities, and in order for the classroom to be more diverse and representative of each learner, those socio-cultural realities ought to be at the forefront of academic teaching strategies (Vygotsky, 1978; Krashen, 1994; Arnold, 2011). Through an investigation into affective learning and teaching notions, the classroom environment becomes a curated space that seeks to accommodate the lived experiences, traumas, and potentially violent familial and personal histories of the learners (Minghe & Yuan, 2013). In this way, learning, and the space in which learning occurs is made more inclusive to all learners in the space.

These nuanced ways of viewing literacy present themselves as affective aspects to understanding education and the multifaceted realms in which it is based. This research attempts, not only to focus on cognitive aspects of literacy learning but also investigates the affective responses migrant learners have to learning. Furthermore, through an analysis of the affective, I aim to underline how the language adjustment, as well as the emotional strain of migration, affect the interaction between the learner and their course material – consequently affecting the learner's outcomes.

### **2.3 Socio-cultural theories**

All major underpinnings of socio-cultural theories find their roots in Vygotskian theories (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). These specific theories are centred on learning which takes place in a social context (Vygotsky, 1978). The basic premise of this theory is the study of the individual learner within specific environmental contexts, including social and cultural influences (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). Society and culture dictate how individuals understand and respond to their realities (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). These theories seek to prove that there can be no separation between an individual and their contexts, both historical and cultural and conclude that there is a great need to take societal and developmental factors into account when studying an individual (Vygotsky, 1978; Street, 2003; Gee, 2004; Heath, 2007).

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As noted in Chapter 1, this study looks at the role of affect in the learning contexts of migrant children, specifically, non-native English speakers such as Congolese children, and the strategies teachers employ to deal with this. This study is important in that it considers both cognitive and affective elements as factors in literacy learning. This is in contrast to most studies of migrant children that only consider the elements of language and cognitive learning, thus neglecting the affective elements of learning and the social context of children.

However, I will demonstrate that sociocultural theories, within the learning context of migrant children, have limitations. They consider only the social context of the learners, while not taking into account the emotional challenges that come with learning an unfamiliar language in a foreign context— which can inhibit the ability of learners to learn effectively. Thus, it is imperative teachers also consider the emotional challenges migrant learners face when constructing and implementing their teaching methods if they are to be effective.

### **2.3.1 Literacy as a social practice**

The typical association of literacy is a set of skills related to books and writing, primarily taught at school. With a socio-cultural theory, however, that perception of literacy has changed, now understood as a social practice – something that people do every day with the people around them, both at home and at school, for communication and pleasure (Barton and Hamilton, 1998, 2005; Street, 2008; Perry, 2012).

#### **2.3.1.1 Street’s concepts of autonomous and ideological literacy.**

There are two different models of literacy which are: An autonomous model of literacy and an ideological model of literacy (Street, 1995, 2003). Street (1995, 2003) completed a study that challenged the autonomous concept of literacy that it is simply a set of skills that can be learned at school. Street (1995, 2003) does not agree with this view of literacy, as it does not explain how different people in different situations use literacy. Based on his findings, he makes the valid point that literacy is context-specific and therefore, subjective. Street believes “literacy” refers to literacy practices that have social, cultural, and political contexts that should be studied with this in mind. It takes on many complex forms and is important to understand. Literacy practices are the articulation of the “doing” aspect of literacy, away from literacy understood as the relationship between the thought actions of the mind and the text itself (Barton & Hamilton, 1998, 2005).

In his milestone study, Street correctly argues that instead of seeing writing as an autonomous skill, based on one’s cognitive processes, one should instead view it as an ideological property, as it refers to how literacy is used and how it relates to power structures in society. Street asserts that:

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*“The alternative, ideological model of literacy, offers a more culturally sensitive view of literacy practices as they vary from one context to another. This model starts from different premises than the autonomous model--it posits instead that literacy is a social practice, not simply a technical and neutral skill; that it is always embedded in socially constructed epistemological principles. It is about knowledge: the ways in which people address reading and writing are themselves rooted in conceptions of knowledge, identity, and being. It is also always embedded in social practices, such as those of a particular job market or a particular educational context, and the effects of learning that particular literacy will be dependent on those particular contexts. Literacy, in this sense, is always contested, both its meanings and its practices, hence particular versions of it are always "ideological", they are always rooted in a particular worldview and in a desire for that view of literacy to dominate and to marginalize others. The argument about social literacies suggests that engaging with literacy is always a social activity even from the outset. The ways in which teachers or facilitators and their students interact is already a social practice that affects the nature of the literacy being learned and the ideas about literacy held by the participants, especially the new learners and their position in relations of power. It is not valid to suggest that "literacy" can be "given" neutrally and then its "social" effects only experienced afterwards” (Street, 2003:78).*

An ideological model of literacy is the alternative, that suggests that literacy varies by cultures and contexts (Street, 2003). Street’s view of literacy suggests that there are multiple forms and understandings of the concept ‘literacy’ depending mainly on the cultural and the social context of the learners. These demographic differences learners have in becoming literate are exacerbated by power inequalities and the favouring of one dominant language /literacy above others, such as English. In the context of this study, Street’s model of literacy is very important to consider because, in a multi-cultural learning environment, the diversity of the learners must be taken into account when deciding to use the appropriate teaching strategy to best educate learners of many backgrounds, such as migrant learners. The forced adaption of a dominant culture and language undermines the individual cultural identity and heritage of the learners. Street’s interpretation of literacy challenges educators to be more critical and inclusive in their way of teaching literacy/language and to encourage their pupils to adopt the same approach. Teachers should be conscious of the power imbalance between English and other minority languages and continue to question the underlying reasons for this imbalance. This will require exploring imperialism and the emerging dominance of English in business, entertainment, and literature.

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Therefore, literacy is not only closely linked to social and cultural practice, power, and ideology but also to the psychological attributes of the learners from a non-English background. In a multicultural classroom, the teacher needs to be cognisant of the varying competencies of the learners with regard to the English language which he/she is using as the medium of instruction. Learners less competent in the English language are more likely to have psychological factors affecting their learning experience (Agaesse, 2017; Arnold, 2011; Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012).

### **2.3.1.1.1 Understanding of literacy as a set of practices and its implications for affect in the learning contexts of immigrant children.**

It is of vital importance that literacy as a set of practices is well understood. If not, there can be severe emotional and psychological effects, which may act as a hindrance or deterrence on migrant learners. The focus of my thesis is to investigate and understand these interests and how they affect migrant learners in the context of learning and how the teachers can manage and help learners to overcome these issues. South African classrooms are diverse, featuring many languages and literacies, not all of which are equally valued or practiced.

Street (2003, 2008), Gee (2004), and Heath (2007) point to the fact that there are multiple literacies at work in any classroom. The consequent implications thereof are that learners bring their own respective ideas, values, and beliefs to whatever text they are engaged with. The comprehension of a text will inevitably require a learner to draw from their own contextual knowledge. In either written or oral form, their responses to the material are affected by these concepts. A consequence of this plurality of literacies inevitably gives rise to conflicts in the interpretations made by learners from various socio-economic backgrounds. The access that some children have to dominant literacies varies from pupil to pupil and some may, therefore, struggle to come to grips with this new—and contextually dominant—form of literacy.

Literacies can vary in different socio-economic situations and there is evidence of a power dynamic that is not always obvious but is ever-present in the minds of migrant learners who feel that the classroom environment is biased towards those whose language of teaching and learning is their mother tongue. These migrants perceive that their language is not valued. The books from which learners enhance their development are all in English and even the stories within them do not relate to a context with which they are familiar. This may make learners of a migrant background feel inferior to their fellow classmates and lead to a devaluation of their own languages and cultural backgrounds, in order to better fit in and to be accepted by their peers. Thus, it is suggested that the dominant language and culture of the classroom, shapes the identity of learners of alternative

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backgrounds which may include those of migrant learners. Learners who experience struggles in learning in this foreign language may feel demotivated and frustrated.

This, in turn, may lead to learners not participating actively in these learning environments in an attempt to preserve their sense of self-esteem because they do not wish to be laughed at, or viewed as less intelligent. Some instances of this may lead to migrant learners being marginalised or pushed aside in favour of someone who is more comfortable with the language of education. This lack of engagement from learners may lead to decreased benefit from the learning environment and as such, may underperform. Some learners may lose interest in the classroom, others may begin to fail and feel as though they lag behind. The situation may be as severe as some learners dropping out because they no longer feel able to cope.

In light of the highlighted affects, I argue that teachers must be aware of the psychological and emotional impact of the power dynamic at play within the classroom and how it can negatively impact on migrant learners. Not only must teachers be aware, but they must also adopt teaching approaches which seek to balance the classroom and give a voice to those learners, to empower them and enhance their value. Teachers could encourage not only migrant learners but learners of all backgrounds to question the reasoning behind the use of English as the dominant language in the classroom and in the prescribed texts from which learners acquire their knowledge. Teachers could also encourage the use of various sources of learning material, which is relevant and applicable to those of many different types of cultural upbringings, so that anyone can relate, regardless of their background. Teaching styles must be flexible enough to make the classroom a space of mass participation, where everyone can feel represented and can relate to what they are learning. In doing this, the educator can create a place where differences and diversity are celebrated rather than excluded. My thesis explores how literacy is defined, not only as a social activity but also as an affective engagement within the context of cognitive development.

#### **2.3.1.1.2 Social context of the school**

The implication of adopting literacy as a social practice is that the school is seen as a social context where learners can learn from each other's experiences, history, beliefs, and culture. From this view, school is not only a place of learning content but also a place for cultural reproduction (Kapp, 2004; Gee, 2000). This means, in the context of this study, schools are social contexts, playing a pivotal role in the academic learning of migrant learners as well as their socialisation enabling them to engage with and adjust to the host country's culture.

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Before proceeding, “culture”, as conceptualised by Vygotsky, requires extrapolation. “Culture” itself is a problematic term, standing for the complex collection of beliefs, values, and practices by which people make meaning of the world and their lives (Aikenhead, 1997). This, importantly, is connected to the development of higher psychological functions, because culture, as a property of human functioning, acts as a mediator of action (Cole & Gajdamaschko, 2007). If action manifests as a “cultural-historical” practice, meaning that particular actions can be interpreted through the lens of a particular culture in a specific historical epoch, then it follows that there is a possibility that certain cultural practices can vary widely. This idea, certainly, is not divorced from education.

### **2.3.1.1.3 School literacy**

For Vygotsky (1978), children learn language and literacy through interaction with their surrounding culture, and with the assistance of a knowledgeable adult (teacher, parent, or peers), they can develop more. The role of a mediator (which needs not only be the teacher) evidenced by Rogoff (2003) is active in helping children learn new practices and skills because a child is a co-constructor of knowledge (rather than a mere “blank slate”). Thus, how children engage with literacy; what the term “literacy” means to them; and their beliefs about the nature of literacy are dependent on their sociocultural context and the mediators such as parents, teachers, and peers. Alternatively put, how children, in turn, develop a comprehension for, and understanding of, reading and writing is a function of what practices that they observe and participate in, which are culturally situated.

Shirley Brice Heath (1983, 2007) studied the ways in which three different communities in a South Carolina town used language and literacy in the way they raised their children. She also found that literacy means different things to different people and takes different shapes in different contexts and cultures. Therefore, literacy (reading and writing) is not just focused on skills but is rather a meaningful act in which the participants (readers and writers) should be viewed as subjective and active socially. Additionally, Heath (1983, 2007) discovered that in some communities the methods of learning in schools are very similar to those taught at home; while in other communities the methods of learning at school build on a foundation of education that children might have received at home. This implies that these differences, in turn, may influence school achievement depending on how the school system is congruent with cultural practices and language at home; meaning that access to the benefits of a classroom can be enhanced or diminished. In other scenarios, the school taught methods may even conflict with what some children have learned at home.

In this regard, Blackledge (2000, in Kajee, 2011) offers some important insights: If there is a closer fit between “literacy” at home and “literacy” at school, they are much more likely to do better:

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“When children possess the cultural repertoires upon which school depends, all goes well” (Blackledge, 2000:8 in Kajee, 2011). Learners’ upbringing and language background influences (either positively or negatively) their literacy learning at school. (Stein & Mamabolo, 2005; Prinsloo, 2012).

Heath (1983, 2007) found that children who speak the school language as their first language and who are initiated into reading from early childhood, for the most part, do not experience much difficulty in learning at school. They get used to it easily and since school for them can be considered as a continuation of home in terms of the language and reading to which they have been exposed since birth. Furthermore, Heath stated that parents who read to their children or for their children and talk to them about reading, these children generally develop in their ability to read and to speak and even gain a passion for reading.

Exposing children from early childhood to reading assists children to develop their vocabularies and expressions in general. Thus, increasing their potential success in school literacy learning. This can be easily seen with middle-class families who use bedtime stories as a way of communicating family beliefs, customs, and skills in their early enculturation experience with written material (Heath, 1983, 2007). This prepares children for school reading as storybook reading is often correlated with later school achievement, although one can question just how much storybook reading at home affects children’s school success.

Since the culture and medium of instruction in schools are very different from what immigrant/refugee children in South Africa are familiar with, this creates an incongruence that presents a difficult challenge to overcome without support. Gee (1990:148) correctly argues that there is a conflict between the discourses that learners from a working-class background have access to and the dominant discourses of the classroom. The unfortunate consequence of this is that there are high rates of learners not performing as expected or on par with a native English speaker, as well as learners dropping out of school, and ultimately failing.

For Gee (2008:154), *“Discourses are ... composed of distinctive ways of speaking/listening and often, too, writing/reading coupled with distinctive ways of acting, interacting, valuing, feeling, dressing, thinking, believing, with other people and with various objects, tools, and technologies, so as to enact specific socially recognizable identities engaged in specific socially recognized activities (original emphasis)”*

In any discourse, there is a complex web of feelings, values, and ways of thinking involved. Children of refugee families, in particular, may face learning difficulties due to the fact that they

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receive their schooling in a language and country that they are not familiar with. The anxieties faced by these learners may have the psychological effect of estrangement, destabilisation, and feelings of inferiority. The realisation that their mother tongue (with its concomitant association with culture and values) is not given priority in a learning space may lead to a psychological imbalance. The effects on their self-esteem may be damaging. Literacy may thus become a greater challenge for these learners to achieve.

These difficulties extend not only to their schoolwork but also to their interpersonal relations with their peers and teachers. A learner may feel uncomfortable engaging within and outside of the classroom (i.e. asking the teacher a question or making friends) because a certain command of the language is required before they can do so.

Research by Heath (1983, 2007) provides further impetus through a call to integrate the nonmainstream literacy practices found in the home at the, unfortunately, mainstream dominated approach. Hence, schools, as they are, allow for practices to be performed only once the social foundation has been acquired. If the social foundation of literacy is developed at home rather than at school, it is surely predictable that the success of a school is dependent on whether differences in sense and meaning-making are considered in teaching practices. From this, it can be drawn that the teacher could make the education of migrant students more meaningful and culturally relevant by acknowledging the differences and incorporating some of the aspects of migrant student's experience into the teaching style. This can help bridge the gap between language and literacy use at home, as opposed to a feeling of alienation at school for learners from different backgrounds, such as migrant learners. I, therefore, argue that teachers have the responsibility of identifying the inherent values and ideas that are embedded within the text and how they might clash with those of learners who come from other backgrounds. A certain level of awareness of this imbalance is required in classrooms and encouragement and advice given to those who are struggling to cope.

Furthermore, sensitivity towards alternate understandings of a certain text is also important for learners who, approaching it from another viewpoint, may feel alienated if they are discouraged from holding a different view from the dominant one.

In addition to this, Gibbons (1991:6) relates the process of learning a language and or literacy to telling the time; the concept does not change even when the language may differ. There is a long hand to indicate the hour and a short one to indicate minutes. Both move in a clockwise direction. In this sense, the mother tongue serves the platform to learn a second language. She goes on to say the language used in the classroom setting is different from the language used outside the classroom: "unlike the language of the playground, the language associated with school learning takes a long

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time to develop: it is frequently quite abstract, and there may be fewer concrete visual clues to support meaning” (Gibbons, 1991: 3). Gibbons argues that as consequence children who do not speak English as their mother tongue such as migrant learners can benefit from classroom instruction based on the integration of language and content.

However, Makoe (2007) argues that children can be negatively positioned by teachers and others in relation to their language use. Beliefs about language and language use have consequences for positioning individual learners and their identities (Norton, 1995). Gee (1996) made a similar point when he wrote that the language of the classroom constructs a particular reality that positions language minority students, such as migrant learners, as outsiders by disregarding their language and literacy practices. Understanding these ideas, i.e. that words have meaning and that the mother tongue is tied to identity, helps us understand the importance of respecting students’ home languages and ways of speaking while teaching English as an additional language.

The disruption and social inequality caused in South Africa under the apartheid regime not only affected learners’ parents but also the learners themselves. The consequences of this can be seen with learners currently; children growing up in privileged households gain a greater advantage in terms of a higher level of exposure to resources such as books and computers that aid in their development. These learners also benefitted from a level of consistency in the language in which they are taught at school and that of their language spoken at home. These consequences carry on in higher levels of education, such as at a university level, whereby the effects can still be seen. Previously privileged learners are still ahead in terms of their development with previously disadvantaged learners still trying to catch up. The influences of social inequality are supported by Comber & Nichols (2004) who argue that culturally diverse, less advantaged socioeconomic groups are under pressure to do more than those from advantaged groups due to fewer resources to meet literary standards.

To give evidence to this statement in South Africa, Kapp (2004) has observed problems when teaching English in townships. Her observations show that children’s attitudes toward learning English and living in a township environment impacts the ways in which learners view themselves. This has to be considered when studying dominant classroom discourses (English, in this case) and how students react to them. Kapp (2004) draws on scholars such as Bernstein, Bourdieu, Gee, Street, and Kress’ findings who have researched the link between behaviour in the classroom and behaviour outside, to form the argument that inequalities in our education system are reflections of inequalities in society as a whole. These disparities are said to be apparent in the classroom, particularly in the case of English literacy. She believes that two things can be observed in the

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classroom: social relations are exhibited, and the actions of both teachers and students propagate inequality. I have chosen to use Kapp's work since it focuses on learners who share two similarities to the learners who will be the focus of my study. Firstly, both the learners in my study and the learners in Kapp's work are from poor socioeconomic conditions. Secondly, both the learners in my study and the learners in Kapp's work begin their formal education in their second language. This may suggest that Kapp's work may have relevance to my study.

'Western' education systems have largely altered the nature of socio-cultural practices, neglecting the importance of everyday life and indigenous learning by focusing on specifically selected abstract knowledge in 'Western' academia (Owuor, 2008). Not only was indigenous knowledge used for environmental factors, but it was also used to instill principles of Ubuntu to younger generations (Owusu, 2008; Msila, 2007). They also prepared individuals for the roles they would play in their society. However, through colonisation, this indigenous knowledge was disrupted to make way for Western knowledge systems (Msila, 2007). Western knowledge systems, unlike their counterpart, which went hand-in-hand with nature, leaned more on rigorous scientific standings. In the classroom, indigenous knowledge systems were deemed irrelevant (Owuor, 2008; Msila, 2007). This ensured that indigenous people would receive an education that would prepare them for the subservient roles that they had to play in society (Owuor, 2008; Msila, 2007).

Because this presents an environment for immigrant learners where accustomed tools for meaning making as well as "taking in" meaning are not implemented (which can be for a number of reasons), it presents the possibility of alienation (Owuor, 2008). Students feel as though they are in a hostile, uncomfortable situation since their everyday life is totally different from that of their life at school. This means that the link between "everyday" knowledge and more rigorously interrogated scientific concepts, which would serve to enhance one's "everyday" knowledge, is unclear, causing confusion and emotional distress.

Therefore, for children to grasp such a concept, teachers need to make the ideas relevant to the children's known experience, using their language to bring the lesson into their everyday life (Vygotsky, 1982). This allows learners to make more sense of the material that they are learning. Through instruction, the child moves from context-bound thinking and everyday concepts, in which knowledge is gained from everyday life to abstract thinking in scientific concepts, the paradigm of formal schooling.

Formal education has disregarded the plethora of knowledge within disadvantaged households, isolating this knowledge from the practices of formal education (Haas Dyson, 2008; Owuor, 2008). Indeed, storytelling, an important aspect of indigenous learning has been devalued, and children

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from diverse backgrounds are no longer experiencing this rich oral practice. This has a serious negative effect on children starting school without any socio-cultural practices. The conventional way in which a story is structured within a culture as learning becomes meaningful is when it is linked to the child's understanding of his or her own life and background.

Therefore, due to the lack of this application children tend to develop a negative feeling towards their own local culture which is perceived as inferior to 'Western' culture (Owuor, 2008). As Evangelou, M.; Brooks, G. and Smith, S. (2007) argue, children are directly affected by and inherit the social exclusion of their parents; psychological and social barriers are erected very early on in a child's life and contribute to the formation of their own identity. Thus, the social exclusion that is deeply rooted within the macro structures of society can become reproduced as it becomes entrenched within the minds of the younger generation. I argue that considerations of these embedded narrative frameworks by the teacher into instruction practices could reverse the paradigm, leading to enhanced learning. Children easily acquire literacy when they are exposed to interesting stories (in other words, stories which speak to their own experiences) written in their mother tongue as well as their second languages (Alexander & Bloc, 2004:14).

Children who readily possess the necessary cultural repertoires, such as having access to books at home; a TV; a computer; internet access; parents with a good education; disposable income to buy books; or speaking the language that is taught at school within the home environment; can be said to belong within the cultural mainstream. Therefore, if a child belongs to the non-mainstream culture, and, consequently, has different means or ways of both "taking in" and "making" meaning in comparison to the mainstream, this may highlight inequality in acquiring literacy. This may also be the case if the child does not have access to the same cultural repertoires as mainstream cultural groups, because cultural repertoires are not transferable for certain cultural groups to the school environment (Heath, 1983, 2007). Heath (1983, 2007) argues this is made worse if "taking in" and "making" meaning at home are in conflict with methods taught at school.

For Vygotsky, meaning comes from the social interaction between people and the cultural tools that they employ, such as language, symbols, signs, and activity structures (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). The cultural tools both define and are defined by the individuals (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). In order for something to make 'sense', it implies a familiarity with the tools that one can use to make meaning. Without them, or without the ability to make meaning, it is unlikely that what one is attempting to make meaning of, a particular something can be understood, or made 'sense' of. For Vygotsky, the purpose of teaching meaning-making capacities, rather than trying to explain information in a particular way (Western teaching model) is critical in the development, not only

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in conceptual thinking but in other higher cognitive processes, such as the spontaneous learning and use of concepts (like language). From this, it is more likely that self-sustaining and productive learning environments can be developed.

A way of conceptualising this is Gee's argument that social practices of "*taking in*" and "*making*" meaning, or cultural repertoires, can be understood as "models", or "*habitus*" (Gee, 2005). Barton, Hamilton, and Ivanic (2000:1) agree, "Literacy is situated. All uses of written language can be seen as located in particular times and places". This would refer to the idea that a child is not a blank slate, but has their own history, sets of value systems, belief structures and practices that they have learned at home and which informs how, either positively or negatively, they interpret the literary texts they are given at school. The "*habitus*", being perceived as what it 'common sense' or 'normal', is difficult to change if the practices of "*taking in*" and "*making*" meaning at school are different (Bourdieu, 1991 cited in Baynham & Prinsloo, 2009), and a learner is likely to resist practices at school which contradict what they have learned at home.

Gee (1996, 2004) suggests that literacy is not only skills-based but a contextualised set of literary practices. To account for the problems mentioned above, language and literacy should be perceived as sociocultural practices and the wider context that they are a part of. This can be enhanced by technical skills, (such as decoding of text) rather than placing an emphasis on technical skills as a means to social proficiency. In adopting this shift of perspective, or using the framework of literacy as social practice, literacy may be positioned in relation to the various institutions (and power relationships between them) that sustain them – education only being one example (Street, 2008; Gee, 2004). It allows for the cognisance that teaching one type of social practice, in a context where they are varying social contexts, inevitably privileges one group at the expense of another; especially, for example, migrant children whose cultural capital lies totally outside of the local mainstream culture and, to an extent, even the non-mainstream culture. This hindrance comes most starkly to the fore when there is a discrepancy between the language of instruction and the home language of the learner.

In light of this, Gordon (1984) posits that Bourdieu (1977) highlights methods of exclusion that can occur at school, because existing sociocultural practices at home are not accounted for at school or, more accurately, there is a specific sociocultural context that is catered to which does not favour groups who do not belong to the dominant culture. Schools depreciate the cultural values of non-mainstream children, reinforcing differences, be it based on ethnicity, nationality, or class background, and hence, reproduce inequality. In further support of this, Watson-Gegeo (1992, in

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Moore, 2008) argues that schools are not culturally neutral or unbiased in what they value. Literacy is learned and struggled within context, not delivered as if it were a neutral package.

Therefore, without considering the socio-cultural context of the learners, such as migrant children, in this case, a significant determining factor of success in literacy is not completely accounted for. Heath's idea of learners experiencing different and conflicting ways of making meaning corresponds to Vygotsky's (1978, 1987) concept of *perezhivanie*, which focuses on the emotional distress involved in new language/literacy acquisition. From this, I investigate the importance of "conscientising" teachers to take into account how the lack of acknowledgement of sociocultural tools (such as language) in their teaching can cause inner discomfort or emotional distress in the learners, which can, in turn, affect their ability to learn. Particular languages that are employed by immigrant learners are not able to facilitate mutual understanding in social interactions with their classmates and, hence, the learners are less likely to acquire the medium of instruction. These conflicts and possible solutions have been discussed in this study under the section of, "the affective domain in teaching and learning".

Language is not just a means of communication but also an expression and action of power whereby language serves to further unequal power relations such as gender, class, race, and sexuality (Fairclough, 1999; Janks, 2010). As a further example, Janks (2010) work has contributed to the ways in which language learning is taught by highlighting the power dynamics that operate in language practices. Janks' notions of "Domination, Access, Diversity, and Design" function to develop a multitude of elements of critical literacy education by making a connection between literacy studies and broader social theory. By highlighting the power dynamics implicit in language use and developing methodologies to deal with these issues. Jank's work enables the learner to be critical of the role of discourses in literacy learning education and empowers them to address problematic inequalities. By extension, Fairclough's idea that "language conventions and language practices are invested with power relations and ideological process which people are often unaware of" (in Alfouaim, 2012:2) helps to strengthen Jank's analysis. Both Fairclough and Janks uncover the reality that language is not just a means of communication but also an expression and action of power whereby language serves to further power relations such as gender, class, race, and sexuality.

The access paradox is the idea of being exposed to and having access to a language, thereby increasing the command of that language, leading to further development of skills. By limiting the access to a specific language, however, one further diminishes the capability of individuals and that is detrimental to the learning process (Janks, 2004). Janks (2004) argues that the imperialism of English is exacerbated by providing people with access to the language; however, in denying people

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this access, it becomes a way of excluding them. In the case of migrant learners, a lack of fluency in English hampers their ability to survive in an English environment as they lack the skills to communicate effectively. One of the ways to help them integrate into their new society is, therefore, to teach them English. However, Bourdieu (1977) feels that schools fail to give access to English; rather it teaches people the recognition of English's legitimacy.

*“The school (...) imposes the legitimate forms of discourse and the idea that a discourse [or language] should be recognized if and only if it conforms to the legitimate norms”* (Bourdieu, 1977: 650).

It is necessary to be aware and critical of power dynamics within a language system, such as the English language but it is also important when teaching the English language to have Critical Language Awareness that can be defined as awareness and critique of power dynamics between language systems. It also emphasises the fact that texts are constructed and anything that has been constructed can be de-constructed (Alfouaim, 2012; Janks, 2010). The English language is often perceived in terms of its superiority and authority, as a result of its history of domination as well as its universal use. As a result, English teachers who are armed with Critical Language Awareness knowledge could employ this in their instruction of non-English speakers to change the traditional ideology that elevates one language above another (Alfouaim, 2012; Janks, 2010).

#### **2.3.1.1.3.1 Critical literacy**

Critical literacy is the use of texts to analyse and transform relations of cultural, social, and political power (Luke and Dooley, 2011). Critical literacy is about seeking to understand the text in the light of the author's message guided by critical questions of “what”, “why” and “how”. For example, what the author aimed to communicate to the audience and what information the author chose to include or exclude from the text. A ‘critical literacy’ can, therefore, ensure that people are not subordinated, or susceptible to demagogues, by being unable to integrate themselves due to the form of literacy that is totally unfamiliar compared to their own language (Assessment, 2013). Critical literacy can respond to this, Assessment (2013) suggests that “advocates of critical pedagogy define it as a theorised practice of teaching that opposes the dominant ideologies, institutions and material conditions of society which maintain socio-economic inequality” (P.6).

Therefore, critical pedagogies are required to inform what constitutes ethical practices in the classroom, as well as to cultivate critical thinking skills to allow students to make careful judgements as to what material is used to teach, as opposed to being submissive recipients (McKay, 2004). Critical pedagogies recognise the difference in a multilingual and cultural classroom and

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corresponding power dynamics among students. "Teachers who embrace culturally responsive literacy instruction will serve as a catalyst for improved reading achievement among students who are culturally and linguistically diverse" (Callins, 2004:6). A pedagogy that embraces the language, history, and culture of the learners and uses it as the basis for learning English allows learners to be confident in the classroom environment and gives them a voice among their peers. Using the learner's own language as the basis for developing concepts is key for their understanding of those concepts. Thus, when teaching children a second language, teachers must allow them to use their own language while they are leaning to help them develop conceptual thinking.

Challenging traditional models of literacy curriculum is paramount to generating more inclusive pedagogical practices. Teachers have an indispensable role in giving space to learners from other sociocultural groups. Marsh (2006) suggests that teachers need opportunities to explore the relationship between structure and agency, to understand their limitations, and to challenge hegemonic or imperialistic ideologies embedded in the curriculum. This means when educating migrant children, the curriculum and the teaching activity must be relevant to the learner's life outside of the classroom (see section 2.10).

For Marsh, framing and pacing should be calibrated according to the individual needs of the learners. Framing is about control of the classroom, and the pacing is about how quickly the curriculum is taught (Marsh, 2006). To allow for children of different linguistic and class-backgrounds, such as migrant learners from non-English speaking countries, to benefit from teaching practices in an English-speaking context, pedagogies should be paced and framed responsively, taking into account the context (informed by the emotional and linguistic needs) of the learners.

In brief, socio-cultural theories are based on Vygotsky's theory of human mental activity (Lantolf, 2011). They argue that the acquisition of a second language and literacy stems from its use in certain contexts. The socio-cultural view is not only focused on the broad influences of a context but additionally examines how these can influence the individual, because it does away with assumptions of homogeneity (Perry, 2012; Street, 2008; Vygotsky, 1978). By acknowledging the differences of children within a classroom, lessons can be tailored so that needs specific to them, which may be usually unaccounted for, may be met. By integrating the non-local sociocultural practices as a response to the cultural injection of a minority group such as immigrant children, the teacher can design lessons and structure the classroom more effectively, as well as utilizing literacy activities, to facilitate language acquisition and increasing access to cultural resources (such books which are in a foreign language) through diversification. Not only will this facilitate the literacy

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acquisition in immigrant children through a more supportive environment, but all learners can benefit from such cultural exchange with their peers.

Sociocultural perspectives seek to understand how literacy is used on a daily basis and how literacy can be expanded to fit real-world contexts. It also seeks to bridge gaps in achievement for students who practice alternative forms of literacy at home. In effect, this will lead to a far more integrated society that can value sociocultural differences, rather than antagonise them. Since this research investigates pedagogy, I will briefly discuss the theories of reading as well as the debate around literacy pedagogy. The following sections deal with the theories of reading and contestations around the teaching of childhood literacy.

## **2.4 Theories of reading**

Reading is a complex process that is challenging to explain. There is an array of diverse views in the literature driven primarily from two opposing schools of psychology: behaviourism and cognitivism. Most reading models are partial and do not attempt to account for all aspects of the reading process and hence no single model has been developed that can explain the entirety of this process. Models that exist currently focus primarily on specific stages, modes, or perceptual or cognitive aspects of learning (Ngabut, 2015). Goodman (1984) states that reading is a matter of understanding the text. In order to develop comprehension, Jason (2000) suggested two processing theories that explain how words or text are decomposed and understood.

### **2.4.1. Bottom-up processing.**

Bottom-up processing maintains that the text leads the reader, as reading is guided by a process that leads to meaning. For this reason, reading proceeds from the part to the whole. This model considers that the understanding of reading is the automatic result of accurate word recognition. Proponents of these models argue that reading is essentially the translation of graphic symbols into an approximation of oral language. In this model, reading is considered a process of translation, decoding, or encoding.

This process occurs primarily in the early stages of learning to read. This process asserts that the competence of reading skills starts with the familiarity of the sounds and letters of speech and continues through conversation and understanding (Moats, 2007). The word is split down into letters and sound units through letter identification and letter combination. A learner will look at a letter and then attach a sound to it. According to Prinsloo (2005), teaching reading skills is only necessary for the early stages of learning, as older learners have already adopted these reading skills.

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classroom literacy teaching practices that focus only on skills result in a very limited form of literacy. The overemphasis on the sounds and symbols of language in phonics instruction introduces learners to language in ways that take them away from meaningful contexts. This puts learners at a disadvantage because learning to read involves learning the social context of language and how it is used in relation to other ideas influenced by the situations in which people live and grow up.

Pearson (2004:226) states that several researchers have been reluctant to show that phonemic awareness is important, without the need for further decoding in reading. He goes on to say that "phonics first, fast and simple" has been advocated by phonemic-centred approaches. This is supported by Freebody and Luke (1990) who say that there are various language concepts one must understand in order to use literacy in the real world, however knowledge of these concepts alone, while important, is insufficient.

#### **2.4.2 Top-down processing.**

A top-down model, otherwise known as the conceptually oriented model, accentuates the reader's contribution to the text. This model maintains that meaning guides reading. In addition, reading proceeds from the whole to the part. According to Goodman (1984) and Smith (1971), effective reading is a function of the ability to select the fewest and most cost-effective clues possible, rather than the perception and clear identification of all the elements of a word. These two leading theorists argue that based on their knowledge of the language and experience, readers have a prior idea of what might be important in the text. Because readers are not limited to a single source of information, they say - while they have their eyes on the letters, readers have at the same time semantic (sense) and syntactic (grammatical or sentence sense) clues available to them. These are two other important types of information.

According to Goodman (1984), reading is a process that makes use of available linguistic clues that are selected from perceptual data based on the reader's predictions. In this model, the meaning is only obtained by making use of more necessary information from graphic, syntactic, and semantic reference systems. The other clues are based on the linguistic competence of the reader. As a result, readers predict the words to come based on their knowledge of the language as well as their prior knowledge of the subject matter they bring to the text. The process of word identification in this model is sense-dependent. The flow of information is top-down, i.e. from the top to the bottom. The reader's knowledge of the language and how it relates to their past experiences embody the high-level processes that interact with the flow of information to direct the reader, just as listeners

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anticipate what a speaker's next words will be. According to Goodman (1984), this view identifies reading as a kind of psycholinguistic guessing game.

When teaching with the top-down model, the focus is primarily on the reader (Jackson, 2000) and is based on creating a learning orientation with value – focusing on the meaning of words - and being aware of the importance of the context in which one teaches phonetics (Pearson, 2004). It involves building on prior knowledge and experiences to make sense, predict meaning, and verify expectations as one reads.

Since reading and writing are social, becoming a good reader requires participation in activities in which the written text plays a leading role (Freebody and Luke, 1990). In order to do this, it is crucial to ensure the process of learning to read in the classroom is not simply limited to imparting decoding skills or focusing exclusively on understanding, but also to showing learners what matters when reading and what reading therefore generally represents.

These two integrated processes form a more effective way to teach learners to read (Jackson, 2000). In addition, Freebody & Luke (1990) state when examining text analysis, the focus is on both decoding and meaning, specifically how one engages with and critically examines the text. The author and the reader bring differences to the text, so individual readers will have alternative understandings of the same text, depending on what experiences and reading competence they bring to their reading. Therefore, a learner who is learning to read in an unfamiliar language, such as a migrant learner, needs to be supported in her or his search for meaning in that language (Prinsloo, 2005).

A search for meaning in a particular language is often facilitated by one's parents. According to Torr (2004), children who are likely to develop language comprehension and even the ability to express themselves together with a positive attitude and understanding of both reading and writing are children whose parents, from early childhood, read to them and actively involve them in reading by asking them comprehension questions about the texts they read. These kinds of children react to what is read to them by referring to their personal experiences. This kind of practice allows children to maximize their potential in school in terms of learning to read and write. Collins & Svensson (2008) report that these children can relate sounds to the shapes of letters in their texts and possibly increase their understanding of texts as a result. These children who benefit from this kind of parental guidance have a head start once they start school, in terms of reading literacy, on children whose parents do not read to them. The children of migrant families are therefore often at a distinct disadvantage, should their parents either not speak or not have an adequate grasp of the language of instruction at school.

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The recognition of the social context of each learner in the classroom is a critical condition for the classroom to be an environment or space for growth. Swain and Deters (2007) support this by saying that actions and motivation to learn a second language are generally affected by the sometimes complex and variable experiences that people have.

## **2.5. Debates around teaching early childhood literacy**

I will attend to the intense debate of what is the best approach to teaching early literacy, of which the origins stem from the research of Jeanne Chall (1967) “Learning to Read: The Great Debate,”, which centres on whether a “phonics” or “whole language” approach is the better method (Nichols, 2009:2).

For years, there have been conflicting arguments regarding whether a phonics or whole language approach is the best way to teach children to read. According to Nichols (2009), the cause of this conflict is that supporters of each believe that their method is the best approach. Proponents of phonics think that the whole language approach is not suitable to teach children to read while the supporters of the whole language approach believe that proponents of phonics over emphasise skills over meaning.

Wren (2000) argues that the controversy between the two ‘reading war’ approaches badly damaged literacy teaching in the educational field influencing negatively on teachers as well as children. These arguments over methods are rooted in politics as well as impacting education. Wren (2000) believes that educators should always put the interests of children and their learning above all else rather than getting caught up in the reading debate. He believes that educators should focus on what they can do to help improve learner’s reading instead of following people’s opinions regarding what the best way to teach children to read is. Different approaches to reading believe that children learn differently.

The phonics approach focusses on individual alphabetical letters and their associated sounds, believing that developing “the awareness of sounds in words” as well as the ability to “combine sounds to form words” is the route to literacy (Nichols, 2009:1). However, phonics’ instructions which overemphasize the sounds and symbols of language has two notable downsides. Firstly, learners are introduced to the language in a way that is removed from any meaningful context. Secondly, several researchers have argued that teaching conventional letters to South African children, especially those who are not exposed to books in their environments, simply does not work (Kim, 2008).

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Teachers can use a range of reading strategies to support children with limited English as well as children from lower socio-economic homes (Prinsloo, 2004). Learning to read and write is a matter primarily of mastering the spelling, handwriting and punctuation systems, argues Christie (1998), and that learning to read enables one to make sense and meaning of the words on the printed page, further allowing one to construct meaning oneself through the instrument of writing. Christie (1998) adds that the mechanisms through which one learns speech are a natural process and that literacy can be learned in much the same way.

An alternative to phonics-based approaches is the whole language approach, which holds that learning to read is better facilitated by exposure to “authentic, connected text” than it is by “explicit instruction in the rules and conventions of printed text” (Nichols, 2009:3). Emphasis is placed on comprehension, encouraging the learning of language in a meaningful way. Under phonics-based approaches, learners would be encouraged to decode individual words before they can understand what they have read (Nichols, 2009). In contrast, the whole language approach uses meaningful reading to make it easier for learners to understand what is being read (Nichols, 2009).

The debate concerning the instructional approaches to teaching reading can mostly be laid to rest in light of recent research showing that “learning to read and write is a complex, multifaceted process that requires a wide variety of instructional approaches” (Neuman et al., 2000:39 in Zygouris-Coe, V., et, al. (2001)). Zygouris-Coe, V.et, al. (2001) reveals that the belief that a research-based balanced approach is the most effective strategy for literacy development has led to many teachers incorporating such strategies in their teaching. Fitzgerald (1999 in ZygourisCoe et, al. (2001)) proposes three basic principles to establish a balanced approach to literacy, these are “(a) developing skills and strategies while nurturing a love of literature, (b) varying instructional approaches to fit the needs of the children, and (c) immersing children in a variety of reading materials.”

One can imagine that this “*balanced approach to literacy*” is what Vygotsky was intimating in 1978 when he made the following statements; “teaching should be organised in such a way that reading and writing are necessary for something... That writing must be relevant to life... and be taught naturally... that natural methods of teaching reading and writing involve appropriate operations on the child’s environment... that children should be taught written language, not just the writing of letters’ (Vygotsky, 1978:117-119 in Mahn & John-Steiner, 2002). Vygotsky provides a foundation for building teaching-learning classrooms that honour cultural and linguistic diversity and that strive to educate and assess the whole child. This means that studying language and literacy cannot be separated from the whole person, a being who has a physique, cognition, and more

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importantly, emotion. Through his work, Vygotsky speaks to educators and parents across the decades and helps to illuminate paths for educational reform.

Broadening the proposition that literacy can be thought of in particular ways, it is useful to draw on Vygotsky's work, who adds nuance to Street's work. Vygotsky believes that language and thought are intrinsically linked and are essential to learning and development. Learning literacy does not simply consist of technical skills like decoding but involves a process whereby learners are enculturated into ways of thinking, speaking, and writing that belong to a given social group (Vygotsky, 1978). Literacy learning is best conceptualised as a situated or located social practice (Vygotsky, 1978) that shapes its participants into active members of a linguistic community. For the cognitive and linguistic development of Foundation Phase learners who are speakers of languages other than the language of learning and teaching, it is necessary to consider Vygotsky's research regarding their ability to develop the linguistic and literacy skills demanded of them within the classroom setting.

## **2.6. The Vygotskian model of social learning**

Since I am looking at pedagogy practice, I find Vygotsky's work of great value as it provides tools for the development of children's learning. Vygotsky looks at aspects such as peer learning (collaborative), the position of the teacher as a facilitator to guide a child's development, and the role of psychological tools in mediating mental processes (Hardman, 2011). These specific considerations are aimed at producing pedagogy tools that link home experience and school literacy so that a learner may successfully internalise the concepts being taught (Hardman, 2011). In short, it allows a teacher to assess the knowledge of a child and model their particular cognitive processes before designing a teaching strategy that will assist the child in grasping the concept by themselves. Therefore, it is Vygotsky's emphasis on the assessment of the specific environmental and developmental context of each child, and the importance of the strategic use of that knowledge on the part of the teacher to invoke understanding, that sets his work apart.

With regard to particular approaches to teaching, the ideas of Vygotsky can be utilized in this study in order to obtain a more conducive studying environment. This unique perspective makes use of "modeling, scaffolding" and in turn allows for a greater degree of learner independence with regard to dealing with problems and understanding. Additionally, Vygotsky's theory provides the concept of mediation in the Zone of Proximal Development which is the process of equipping children with mental tools. It begins with adults involving children during the course of shared activity, with the goal of solving a problem in the Zone of Proximal Development (Karpov, 2003). In the context of the classroom, and with regard to this study, Vygotsky's concept of mediation is central to

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understanding how migrant children learn and thus forms the foundation for developing a theory of learning that can be used to grasp pedagogy in context (Hardman, 2008). This includes teaching with the use of learning aids, which take the form of spoken or written language, both of which are important for facilitating knowledge and cognitive development. I would argue that a socio-cultural approach combined with the affective approach to teaching has the potential to facilitate children's learning within the context of migration.

Using Vygotsky's theory in this study is not a simple task. The researcher must first explore migrant children's prior knowledge of the English language and their literacy skills, then ask what their everyday experiences resemble and how the teacher relates the knowledge about literacy in a way that resonates with those everyday experiences of children (Hardman, 2010). Based on an understanding of individual learners' needs, a detailed teaching plan can be formulated. This will then provide the foundations for children to eventually tackle issues without the teacher's assistance.

The Vygotskian model of social learning supports this idea, which purports that there is a particular "zone"<sup>1</sup> denoting the area of overlap between what the learner can do by their own volition and what is achievable with the teacher's support (Rose, 2005; Hardman, 2011). In the case of disadvantaged learners, there needs to be a synthesis between the teacher-centred and learner-centred models, so that the learning process is as democratic as possible. Both of these models, in different ways, favour more advanced students (Rose, 2005). In the case of the latter model, students are expected to grasp concepts more or less through their own initiative so little support is provided; in the former, teacher-centred activities, because the teacher is situated within a particular linguistic and cultural context, this model may favour already advantaged students because of the particular support that is provided. In the Vygotskian view, this presents a significant problem, because the learning process requires support as well as a mediator (which can be a teacher or text) which allows for high-level learning to take place regardless of individual ability (Rose, 2005; Hardman, 2011).

The Vygotskian classroom is not a definitive concept and will change, in respect of activities and content, from context to context but will always be underpinned by the same principles. In a Vygotskian classroom, the teaching strategy used by teachers does not necessarily have to be the same. The activities and subject matter may differ as they relate to individual contexts. According

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<sup>1</sup> I will expand on the "Zone of Proximal Development" at a later point in this chapter.

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to Rose (2005), Hardman (2011) and Vygotsky (1978), in a classroom, the teaching approaches should always fulfill four principles:

- 1) Classroom tasks should have a useful context that relates to learners' life experiences,
  - 2) Social interaction is key to learning and development,
  - 3) It requires cooperation between the learner and the teacher, and
  - 4) The Zone of Proximal Development can help construct a curriculum and in developing classroom activities and lesson plans.
- The principal aspects of Vygotsky's theory are that children's knowledge construction is socially mediated within a cultural context (Vygotsky, 1978; Turuk, 2008; Hardman, 2011):
  - Language plays an important role in children's acquisition of knowledge;
  - with adult support at appropriate levels, knowledge within children is effectively constructed;
  - and children acquire knowledge with the assistance of an adult within the Zone of Proximal Development (a behavioural continuum).

Language acquisition is at the forefront of student's cognitive development and is developed in a social context (Vygotsky, 1978; Rose, 2005; Lantolf, 2011). The principal aspects of Vygotsky's theory are that children's knowledge construction is socially mediated within a cultural context; language plays an important role in children's acquisition of knowledge; with adult support at appropriate levels, knowledge within children is effectively constructed; and children acquire knowledge with the assistance of an adult within the Zone of Proximal Development (a behavioural continuum) (Vygotsky, 1978; Turuk, 2008; Hardman, 2011).

### **2.6.1. Vygotsky and language**

As mentioned earlier, language and literacy skills are socially situated, i.e. they are shaped and found in social interactions (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky indicates that language is the most important tool for mastering mental processes (Vygotsky, 1978 cited in Hardman, 2011). Therefore, Vygotsky's theory looks at how knowledge of a second language and literacy can be internalised through external social activities (Vygotsky, 1967, 1978).

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Vygotsky's insights are relevant to this project since they suggest how children learn in a classroom and provide teachers with a strategy that caters to the needs of migrant learners. Language acquisition is at the forefront of student's cognitive development and is developed in a social context. The amount of supervision provided to learners should vary depending on their individual knowledge and skills. Teachers can use an understanding of the implications of sociocultural differences to bridge cultural gaps between home and school, thereby assisting children to grasp concepts by themselves (Hardman, 2008). This is a useful approach in order to ensure a migrant learner's language development.

Language is an important means for communicating between people and it is developed from those interactions (Vygotsky, 1978). Language learners develop language skills within the social world and expand this by interacting with other language users who are also part of this social world. Vygotsky (1981) believes that knowledge comes through social interaction with a knowledgeable adult or someone who has a better understanding or a higher ability level than the learner with respect to a particular task, process, or concept. Children learn best through interaction with their surrounding culture and need the help of an adult (teacher) or a more culturally competent individual to support them as they are learning new things. Vygotsky suggests that a child's own private speech is formed from the social speech that she/he is exposed to. This is likely as a child's development occurs on two levels; first on a social level, and then on a psychological level. Vygotsky (1978:57) described these two levels in his general genetic law of cultural development:

*“Every function in the cultural development of the child appears on the stage twice, in two planes, first, the social, then the psychological, first between people as an intermental category, then within the child as an intramental category. This pertains equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, to the formation of concepts. All higher functions originate as actual relations between human individuals”.*

A child's new knowledge is inter-psychological, meaning it is learned through interaction with others, on the social level. This determines the level at which a child can perform a task with assistance. Later, this same knowledge becomes intra-psychological, or internalised, and the new knowledge or skill is mastered on an individual level, the level at which a child can perform a task independently (Hardman, 2011). Therefore, children up to a certain level can typically do more difficult things in collaboration than they can on their own. This is where teachers function as an important role model for their students and why children often work with partners and in small groups.

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Functions related to a child's development occur between individuals as an inter-psychological classification, and then internally, within the child, as an intra-psychological classification (Vygotsky, 1978, 1981). This is the process of internalisation, whereby social speech is developed internally and then implemented psychologically. It follows on from this that children are heavily influenced by the environment around them. If they receive good support in terms of language and literacy, it becomes evident early on.

For Vygotsky, language is of primary importance and crucial to the development of thinking. This ties into this project as teachers can create an environment that encourages children to interact in English through a variety of mediums including games so that they can develop their English language and literacy skills. The games allow children to engage in meaning-making activities together with their peers in a communicative context, such as in a playground (Prinsloo, 2005). After observing the children at play to learn about their current play interests and activities, the teacher can then provide scaffolding that extends and enriches children's play and, at the same time, teaches important literacy skills.

Vygotsky's model of social learning emphasises that migrant learners are more likely to understand academic concepts and develop cognitive skills if their teaching is culturally relevant and appropriate (Menchaca & Ruiz-Escalante, 1995). Making information more relatable and relevant to real-life experiences will make learning more meaningful and education more effective. Thus, teachers could use learners' experiences, language, and culture to make learning more meaningful. Learners can benefit from the help of more knowledgeable peers with experiences they can relate to in order to understand academic concepts.

Vygotsky suggests that, in order for the curriculum to meet the needs of different students, teachers must plan activities that nurture both independent and collaborative learning (Karpov, 1998). Therefore, teachers can encourage learners to work collaboratively. Cooperative learning would entail collaborating with small groups, and pairing strong learners with weaker learners, to stimulate cooperative learning between students (Menchaca & Ruiz-Escalante, 1995). This way, as weaker students interact with stronger students, they will learn from them.

Learners can be encouraged to freely ask questions of each other about things they do not understand. By connecting differently performing peers, and encouraging them to use experiences that they can relate to, migrant students can better understand academic concepts and ultimately achieve better learning outcomes (Menchaca & Ruiz-Escalante (1995). Vygotsky's theory calls for migrant learners to be supported socially by both their peers and teachers.

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### **2.6.2. Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)**

Vygotsky's conception of the ZPD arose out of his dissatisfaction with two practical issues in educational psychology: Those of assessing children's intellectual abilities and evaluating instructional practices (Turuk, 2008, Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky notes that established methods of assessment succeed only in determining a learner's current level of development, but are insufficient in measuring a child's potential abilities and future growth (Vygotsky, 1978, Turuk, 2008).

Vygotsky's ZPD seeks to identify mental functions that are still in the process of maturation (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky places greater significance on the latter practice, stating that the role of psychology in measuring development should be focused on potential as opposed to what he/she is in their current state. Vygotsky argues that instruction that is aimed at the ZPD is more effective than that which is aimed at increasing a child's level of independent performance. This, he argues, better facilitates the child's development (Vygotsky, 1978). This is because ZPD provides a framework through which to understand the distance between the ability of the child to solve cognitive problems on his or her own and the potential to expand knowledge assisted by the teacher, or a knowledgeable peer (Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005; Hardman, 2011). It describes what the learner is able to understand with the appropriate guidance of the educator.

The ZPD leads the teacher to "scaffold" the process of learning through assessing the prior knowledge of the learners and then guiding them to understanding new concepts through modeling teaching methods that are exciting and challenging (Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005). The environment created by the educator, therefore, facilitates a process of learning that is not too monotonous nor too impossible for the learner to comprehend. This process occurs between the state of what a learner is able to understand by him/herself and the state where the learner needs assistance in understanding by an educator or facilitator (Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005). For example, during a reading activity, a teacher would ask a learner to read aloud in order to assess ability. However, there would be words that the learner would encounter that they would not understand and would, therefore, ask for help. Instead of giving the meaning of the word, the teacher would scaffold a process for the learner to discover the answer themselves by showing pictures in relation to the word or asking questions about it. The learner would then come to understand what the word means on his/her own thorough investigation. The learner would then investigate words for themselves first before asking the teacher for assistance. Effective teaching involves the planning of activities within the ZPD for children, both individually and in groups (Vygotsky, 1978).

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In contrast to the 'reading readiness' perspective, which relies on standardised tests to measure children's intelligence, and sees 'maturation as a precondition of learning but never the result' (Vygotsky, 1978:90), Vygotsky's theory emphasises that cognitive development is a function of one's social and cultural environment, and is a continuous process. Interaction with more knowledgeable individuals propels children's literacy learning (Vygotsky, 1978; Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005). Basically, Vygotsky proposes a shift away from reading readiness, being influenced by cognitive approaches to learning and development, and research into an interest in children's literacy before formal instruction (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky's theory supports the view that literacy development starts long before formal childhood instruction "children's active participation in a print-rich environment is a critical factor in learning literacy" (Vygotsky, 1978:84). It opposes Behaviourist views as it argues that this restricts literacy instruction to simply, systems that can be thought about but not experimented with or transformed. Vygotsky argues that learners are not blank slates that passively and unselectively copy whatever the environment presents to them (Hardman, 2011). Teachers instructing migrant children should keep this in mind. With regard to student-centred pedagogy, it is assumed that teachers:

- Share the same language and culture as their students;
- Take on a more democratic rather than an authoritative role in the classroom, and
- Are able to arrange effective group activities and provide skilled support at the exact points at which it is needed.

Additionally, flexible social groupings can provide space for students to feel that they are able to talk and contribute to their peers' learning (Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005). When educating migrant children, the curriculum and the teaching activity must be relevant to the learners' life outside of the classroom. This means that the curriculum must shift from focussing on the transmission to acquisition (Hardman, 2008).

Vygotsky's insights are relevant to this study since they provide tools for the development of children's learning and consequently, suggest strategies for teachers to develop teaching experience that adequately supports foundational learning processes for students from minority groups, such as migrant learners (Hardman, 2011). This notion is supported by the findings of Reuven Feuerstein's research on structural cognitive modifiability. In their research Feuerstein, R., Hoffman, M. B., Rand, Y., Jensen, M. R., Tzuriel, D., & Hoffmann, D. B. (1985) state that the qualitative and quantitative nature of mediated learning experiences one may receive largely contributes to an individual's cognitive development.

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In relation to mediated learning, it helps to draw a distinction between culturally “different” and culturally “deprived” learners, borrowing from Feuerstein’s research. Those who are culturally different have had exposure to mediated learning experiences (MLE) within their indigenous context. Thus, when being forced to adopt new socio-cultural practices, the previous MLEs can be drawn on, making this situation not unfamiliar despite being of cultural “difference”. However, immigrants often forced to flee hardship, trauma, or civil war in the case of the DRC, would most likely not have had many MLEs at all, and hence are culturally “deprived”.

Nevertheless, Feuerstein (1985) further argues that intelligence is malleable and can be modified or corrected, intellectual powers may be developed further even once cognitive skills are taught. Given the flexible nature of intelligence, it is possible that one can gain cultural proficiency in any given society and consequently boosting self-esteem.

If a child is not equipped or supported, as Vygotsky puts it, with the symbolic tools of a given culture, Feuerstein theory of Mediated Learning Experience becomes critically important. This theory implies that there is a major role, namely, of the “human mediator” in the process of learning. Feuerstein argues that all learning activities, whether they require interpersonal interaction or cognitive exercise alone, can be divided into two aspects: Direct and mediated learning. Mediated learning is just as indispensable to a child as direct learning because a mediator helps a child to develop the scaffolding, or prerequisites, for direct learning to take place.

The next step would explain what successful mediation might be like in the Zone of Proximal Development, how the teacher manages to link home experience to school knowledge, in this case, literacy (Vygotsky, 1978).

### **2.6.3. Mediation within the ZPD of scientific concepts**

Vygotsky believes that through social mediation, which is the method of equipping children with mental tools to enable them to develop greater thinking skills of consciousness, abstraction, and control (Karpov, 2003); knowledge becomes developed, understandable and coherent. In the context of the classroom, Vygotsky’s concept of mediation is central to understanding how children learn and thus forms the foundation for developing a theory of learning that can be used to grasp pedagogy in context (Hardman, 2008).

Instruction is an interactive process between an adult (teaching) and child (learning) within which interaction should happen through the use of quality, cultural tools (Arievitch & Stetsenko, 2000). Vygotsky argued that human beings are not born with knowledge. All humans’ mental processes are mediated by tools and language is the most important tool for mastering mental processes.

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Through interpersonal communication and joint activity with adults or peers, the behaviour of children is regulated by others, just as much as it regulates others, through language (Karpov, 2003). A child's intellectual development moves from social speech to internal thought through social interaction, which means before a child can appropriate the knowledge, it must exist socially. Vygotsky stated this concept of internalisation in his general law of cultural development (Vygotsky, 1978; Hardman, 2011). The child, in collaboration with adults or peers, integrates everyday concepts into a system of concepts. As the child engages in verbal interaction, she or he develops the higher thinking abilities of awareness, abstraction, and control (Karpov, 2003). Vygotsky says that lower mental behaviours are gradually transformed into higher ones (comprehension, logical memory, and decision making) through teaching and scaffolding (Karpov, 2003). Therefore, a child's speech not only accompanies practical activity but is as important as the role of action in attaining a goal. Thus, learning as a social and communicative process, requires that the teacher mediates the child's learning as well as the use of question-and-answer sequences to test knowledge and guide understanding through language.

As stated above, schooling teaches concepts, which are learned as they are mediated by words instead of what is directly seen or experienced. Through language, the teacher manages interaction within the class, instructs, questions, evaluates, and offers explanations. In light of all this, it is clear that the role of the teacher is very important when it comes to learning. It is through the role of teaching, or mediation, as Vygotsky puts it, that students learn.

Teachers or mediators can both provide knowledge that the learner did not have, as well as reinforce and add to older knowledge that the learner acquired previously. It is also true that mediators can help to solve any cognitive conflicts that the learner may have. To restate a point that was made earlier, Vygotsky believed that through social mediation, which is the process of equipping children with mental tools that knowledge becomes developed, understandable, and gains coherence. As mediation begins with an adult's involvement through shared activity with a child to solve a problem. The adult provides for the children a kind of mental model that will make it possible for them to solve the problem (Karpov, 2003).

Applying this idea to the classroom, mediation includes teaching and learning aids, which take the form of spoken or written language, both of which are important for constructing knowledge and cognitive development. Therefore, formal teaching is found in schools (Tharp & Gallimore, 1998) and consists of assisting performance through the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). This is the difference between what a learner can do without help and what he or she can do with help

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while working along with the teacher. In other words, whatever task the learner can complete with help today he or she ideally can do alone tomorrow (Hedegaard, 1990, cited in Hardman, 2011).

In the learning process, the teacher (or more capable adult or peer) takes responsibility for the learning process of the student. The teacher plays a critical role in guiding the child's participation in activities planned to increase his or her understanding of a particular concept and facilitate student learning (Emihovich & Souza Lima, 1995). Ideally, the teacher knows the best methods and strategies to connect learning to a child's prior knowledge obtained from parents and the community, in order to integrate the everyday and formal concepts into the child's development. Sometimes he or she uses authentic context-specific issues for problem-solving to make the learning experience meaningful (Daniels, 2001). The teacher knows how to facilitate class discussions, helps students to listen to one another, and to try to understand the different histories and positions that other people in the class speak from. The teacher knows how and when to vary the approach to give all the students an improved chance of learning in ways that suit them best according to their learning styles (Hardman, 2011).

Arievitch & Stetsenko (2000) argue that learning must happen within the Zone of Proximal Development, as teaching consists of assisting performance through the ZPD, in which collaborative learning promotes development. Vygotsky (1962) believes that instruction leads to the mental development of the child by teaching scientific concepts. He goes on to say that through instruction the child moves from context-bound thinking and everyday concepts, in which knowledge is gained from everyday life to abstract thinking in scientific concepts, which is the knowledge gained from formal schooling.

Vygotsky (1962) suggests that the acquisition of scientific concepts is similar to learning a foreign language because it is a conscious and intentional process on the part of the learner from the beginning. This differs from native language acquisition, which is more like learning everyday concepts since it occurs without deliberate attention to the rules and structures of the language such as syntax (sentence structure or words order), phonetic (pronunciation, or sound). Native speakers of a language learn the language through exposure and experience, and basic concepts precede more complex rules or structures. In the case of foreign language learners, this process is inverted, with mastery of 'higher forms' or rules preceding fluent speech. Therefore, a native speaking child is able to unconsciously conjugate and speak in the proper tense, whereas foreign-language speakers consciously consider these elements.

In relation to this, Lightbown et al, (2006) argue that whilst still young, children have the natural ability to learn their home language and its rules without formal instruction or conscious learning

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over time. This also applies to children who learn a second language; they demonstrate a natural propensity for language. For adults, however, it is much harder to learn languages without formal instruction and conscious learning. This assumes that all first-language learners have access to universal grammar; while older, second-language learners do not.

Mastery of a foreign language depends upon a degree of competence in a native language since meanings are mutually transferable (Vygotsky, 1962). As such, Vygotsky suggests that learning a foreign language facilitates greater mastery of one's own native language as one system among many to fall back on – as Goethe puts it, “he who knows no foreign language does not truly know his own” (Vygotsky 1962:110). While the comparison between acquiring foreign language and scientific concepts is apt because of the shared development of verbal thought, there is also a central difference: while foreign language concerns physical aspects of verbal thought, scientific concepts involve semantic ones (the meaning of a word, phrase, or text) (Vygotsky, 1962). The ZPD thus leads the teacher to scaffold the process of learning through assessing the prior knowledge of the learners and then guiding the learners to understanding new concepts through modeling teaching methods that are exciting and challenging (Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005). As such, the environment that is created by the educator facilitates a process of learning that is not too monotonous, nor too impossible, for the learner to comprehend.

Since teaching consists of assisting performance through the Zone of Proximal Development, which is the area where a student gains from the support given (Tharp & Gallimore, 1998); Vygotsky's concept of mediation within ZPD is a way to facilitate a child's learning in developing cognitive processes (Hardman, 2008). Ordinarily, this understanding develops through conversation during task performance. Wood (1998) points out that during the earliest periods in the ZPD, the child may have a very limited understanding of the situation or the task. Only gradually does the child come to understand the way in which the parts of activity relate to one another or to understand the meaning of the performance. Wood (1998) states that interaction with the social environment varies in nature according to the level of development. When a learner is uncertain or unfamiliar with the required task, then learning is difficult because he or she may have a very limited understanding of the task and thus, an expert (a tutor) is needed to support the learner. This support may vary in mode and amount based on the child's current understanding of the required task. Support is gradually withdrawn as the learner takes control of the task.

McKenzie (1999) lists eight advantages of scaffolding: providing clear directions for students clarifying the purpose of the task, keeping students on task, offering assessment to clarify expectations, pointing students to worthy sources, reducing uncertainty, surprise and

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disappointment, delivering efficiency and creating momentum (cited by Turuk, 2008:252). Through conversation during the task, the teacher helps the child understand the concept and how to practice it.

Rogoff et al. (1993 cited in Anghileri, 2006) argued that for an effective scaffolding, on one hand, the adult should structure the children's learning by organising their attention, motivation, and involvement and providing lessons from the ongoing activity. In the other, children should take primary responsibility for learning by managing their own attention, motivation, and participation, with adults providing more responsive assistance.

This unique perspective makes use of “modeling, scaffolding” and in turn allows for a greater degree of learner independence with regard to dealing with problems and understanding. This type of scaffolding or guided support requires an adept combination of practice, direct instruction, a demonstration by the teacher, adequate praise of the students, and the minimisation of errors (Wood et al., 1976 cited in Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005). Therefore, the teacher's role is to provide meaningful opportunities and appropriate materials so that learners are actively engaged in the learning process.

For Vygotsky (1978), ZPD is highly individualised. However, the facilitation of challenging collaborative tasks must be a priority for teachers. This ‘contingent’ approach within the ZPD is central in its links to migrant education with regard to addressing literacy needs. At the upper limit of the zone, the teacher's instruction is too difficult and will likely render the learner frustrated or disengaged. The lower limit prevents learners from being challenged since further inquiry is unnecessary or irrelevant (Vygotsky, 1978; Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005; Hardman, 2011).

The concept of the ZPD, therefore, encourages teachers to set the bar higher for some learners than others through scaffolding, or structured and individualised support. This ‘contingent’ approach aids learners in successfully achieving their tasks (Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005). Thus, using the migrant child's zone of proximal development in the classroom, the teacher's instruction and activities should be planned such as to cover not only what they are capable of doing on their own, but additionally, what they can learn with the help of others. Therefore, the teacher can plan activities that expand past individualised learning to make teaching sequences that allow for enough support if learners cannot achieve learning tasks by themselves (Burns and De Silva Joyce, 2005).

Like Vygotsky's theory, the work of Bruner (1978 cited in Burns & De Silva Joyce, 2005), Tharp (1993) and Wood et al (1976) have expanded the teaching practice through appropriate assistance

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for mediation purpose in classrooms (Hardman, 2008), therefore, their work is of interest in this project.

Bruner (1978 cited in Burns & De Silva Joyce, 2005) also emphasises the significance of language as a way to facilitate learning, similar to Vygotsky. Bruner and colleagues, using a number of strategies (which are listed below), investigated the different forms of support in various tasks given to children by their caretakers (American mothers). These can be used in any context where learning takes place: Creating interest and controlling frustration in the activity itself; simplifying the task; giving reminders of the goal to maintain concentration; highlighting what was important to learn and to achieve in the task; showing alternative methods; and what an ideal version of what needed to be done.

Bruner has great relevance to this study as his strategies suggest that explicit instruction is necessary for teachers regarding the challenges of learning in an unfamiliar language and that more overt instruction and support need to be given to learners who are studying in an unfamiliar language, to consolidate the basics of the teaching language. The ability of these learners to acquire proficient English skills depends largely upon the establishment of basic English language foundations by their instructors. When second-language learners are present within a class, it is necessary for tasks and activities to be leveled accordingly, taking their language bias into consideration.

Learners can also be exposed to the teaching language through a variety of different formats, such as games, role-play, and music, all of which enable them to learn through interaction. The enthusiasm of the learners depends heavily upon the creativity of the teacher's approach. Teachers could prioritise the establishment of these skills in order to empower Congolese children to work independently. Tasks requiring a high level of English understanding cannot be accurately completed by second-language learners without a focus on these foundational skills. Therefore, it is important for teachers to ensure that they themselves have the ability to model both academic and social language in the classroom setting. This, in such a way that learners gain accurate understanding, can use what they learn as well as improving their own language level and ability with regard to speaking ability.

Tharp (1993) argued that although Vygotsky insisted on language as a primary means in the process of cognitive development of the child, this does not mean that all tools of assisting performance are linguistic. Other tools are also key to enable teachers to effectively communicate content in the classroom. He goes on to suggest six strategies of assisting performance which are:

1. Modeling: offering behaviour for imitation, performance standard.

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2. Feedback: providing information resulting from experiences on performance.
  3. Contingency management: rewards and punishment arranged to follow on behaviour.
  4. Instructing: requesting specific action.
  5. Questioning: requesting a verbal response, mental operation.
  6. Cognitive structuring: providing explanations and belief structures that organise and justify (schemata).

### **1. Modeling**

Children learn by imitation, by doing what they see the adult (teacher) do. Therefore, by assisting the learners with doing a new activity, the teacher could investigate possible ways of completing tasks, which the learner can then imitate (when working on their own) and eventually internalize. Wells (1999) stated that activities should encourage the development of the disposition and the necessary strategies to adopt the same stance independently in new and unfamiliar situations.

In a literacy class, for example, the teacher might scaffold a lesson by reading aloud to the learners and showing enjoyment and interest in reading a variety of text. In doing so, the learners may come to see the purpose of learning to read and start imitating the reading strategies in shared reading.

### **2. Feedback**

Feedback plays the role of providing information on performance. It guides the learner to improve their performance on the next test. Arievitch & Stetsenko (2000) believed that instruction is an interactive process between an adult (teaching) and child (learning). Therefore, teachers and learners talk and negotiate activities together as collaborative learning promotes development (Inter-thinking). Learning is a social communicative process.

### **3. Contingency management**

The child is rewarded or punished if his or her performance is good or bad. Effective teaching focuses on performance and positive reinforcement. Most of the time, with punishment, the desire to learn is motivated by fear not by improvement. Sometimes to avoid punishment, children avoid learning. However, positive reinforcement is a way to encourage and motivate children to improve their learning in order to become competitive.

### **4. Instructing**

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Requesting specific action. I believe that instruction should include specific, step-by-step instructions that are explicitly stated by the teacher and modeled for the student. So that the student may produce a specific response. However, too much instructing can be confusing to a learner.

## **5. Questioning**

During instruction, the teacher uses questions to test the learner's prior knowledge, to check a student's understanding of work that has already covered. These questions can, in fact, open children's Zone of Proximal Development, and therefore, serve as tools to guide and increase their understanding of the concept or task (Hardman, 2011). It is one of the basic ways by which the teacher stimulates student thinking and learning (Hardman, 2011). In light of this Hardman and Ng'ambi (2003:3) state that,

“Questioning is a very useful indicator of what assistance the learner needs. As such, it is a useful learning-teaching tool for the teacher. The learner's question, then, is not only a useful pedagogical indicator of the learner's knowledge base; it is also a cognitive tool, capable of regulating mental actions. Self-regulation (metacognition) requires an ability to question one's own actions, in order to ascertain which are effective strategies for doing certain things and which are not. Problem-solving, then, requires the ability to interrogate our own actions, to ask questions. A learner's question provides the perfect opportunity for teaching by setting the learner and teacher on the same path, towards learning”.

## **6. Cognitive structuring**

Explanations, schemata, in assisting learner's performance can provide the teacher with a guided response as a way to facilitate student understanding and development. Tharpe and Gallimore (1991) suggest that cognitive structuring, which provides a structure for thinking and acting is the most comprehensive and most intuitively obvious supporting strategy (cited in Anghileri, 2006).

Questioning and cognitive structuring suggest more of the interactions that characterize good classroom exchanges. In addition, in assisting performance, the teacher could consider the role of the learner, as a socio-cultural factor and the classroom, as a social environment, which involves complex exchanges that support learning (Anghileri, 2006).

## **2.7. Effective practices for literacy instruction**

According to Benson (2013), 'best practices' in teaching cannot be replicated, only adapted. He correctly argues that 'theoretically sound principles' should guide effective teaching methods,

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which are context-dependent. These contexts include the social, cultural, and linguistic factors associated with the application of the teaching. He goes on to critique the monolingual approach to teaching as theoretically unsound and is ill-adjusted to multilingual classrooms by speakers of non-dominant languages that are marginalised due to their dissimilar backgrounds.

Benson's proposed methodology is not a blanket approach, but rather involves a context-specific communicative strategy to meet the needs of diverse learners in the classroom with the addition of supporting learning content to aid the learner's development. This requires teachers to be sufficiently trained in their language and literacy teaching.

In promoting learner literacy engagement, Cummins (2009), as referenced by Benson, finds four crucial elements; learner's prior knowledge (establishing the scope and limitations of the learners' existing knowledge), supporting provision (building upon existing knowledge to facilitate further learning), affirming identity (building self-esteem and elevating the learner's ability), and building upon the learner's knowledge. The combination of these four elements will serve to expand the learner's knowledge base and aid them in self-development through selfpromotion and the building of motivation and creativity. This is crucial in the learning process, as there is a well-documented history of the role school-enjoyment plays in academic success.

## **2.8. Emergent literacy**

According to Teale and Sulzby (1986), emergent literacy is a word that describes the reading and writing experiences of children before starting formal education. Cooper (1997) expanded this definition further to include speaking, listening, thinking, and viewing.

The 'reading readiness' perspective relies on standardised tests to measure children's intelligence and sees 'maturation as a precondition of learning but never the result' (Vygotsky, 1978:90). However, the emergent literacy perspective supports the view that literacy development starts long before formal childhood instruction (Vygotsky, 1978:84). The work of Marie Clay acknowledges that children are already familiar with ideas of reading and writing before they enter the classroom for the first time (Clay, 1975). Studies from the Emergent literacy view have investigated how social context or environmental conditions support or influence the development of the reading and writing process (Clay, 1975; Teale and Sulzby, 1986; Neuman, Copple, & Bredekamp, 2000).

Thus, literacy is not an isolated, technical skill that one acquires at school, with everyone starting from the same level. Rather the rate at which children acquire literacy skills is influenced by the cultural experiences children are exposed to long before they enter school. If children engage with oral and written language in a permanent and meaningful way from a young age, they manage to

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obtain literacy skills more quickly than children without such early exposure (Neuman, Copple, & Bredekamp, 2000).

Early literacy experiences can have a profound impact on children's literacy attitudes and on when children begin to learn to read. In a study in Pretoria, South Africa, Boakye, (2011) found that many students for whom English is not the first language come from homes and schools where reading is not valued. As a result, these students do not enjoy reading and struggle with reading for class, especially compared with students who have grown up in rich environments where reading is valued and seen as enjoyable.

The emergent literacy perspective does not look at more than one type of literacy; the social contexts that it focuses on are the conversations that occur surrounding the reading/writing activity. It is widely acknowledged that linguistically rich home environments contribute powerfully to the early development of these critical abilities (Hart & Risley, 1999). Children's development of language and literacy processes reflect the total cultural milieu in which they are raised (Bodrova & Leong, 1996).

Prinsloo (2005:10) argues that most arguments for an emergent literacy approach come from environments that are literacy-rich and which "reflect child-centred, progressive education concerns of English-language educators in those more affluent settings" This belief highlights the prominence of reading resources available to children at home, as well as the behaviour of their parents when it comes to reading. The socio-economic status of the family also plays a key role in determining literacy practices. Nevertheless, the implementation of approaches such as emergent literacy can be challenging in the African context due to poor living conditions and limited resources in the classroom, including a low teacher to pupil ratio amongst other problems facing students, such as language barriers as many are educated in a second language. Pupils also lack exposure at home to the language they are taught in and a lack of funds to afford books and other learning material that can further stimulate literacy growth.

In support of this, Alexander and Bloch (2004) found that, in many African classrooms, the behaviourist approach is still being used when teaching literacy. Children come into grade one with no prior exposure to the language they are being taught in. In Africa, children entering grade one do not immediately engage with books and reading. They are forced to go through many stages before they even start learning to read or write. Children are required to use textbooks that are in a foreign language and often the stories in the books are not relatable to an African context. Books are available to assist the children, but only the wealthy can afford them. African storybooks and texts are seen as secondary sources and are not valued as good teaching tools. Being able to relate

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to books in terms of language and experience would significantly improve the ability of the children to learn.

The use of foreign language as a medium of instruction does not only negatively impact the pupils, but the teachers as well. The teachers that are forced to give their classes in a foreign language, in this case, English are not fully versed in the language. This has a knock-on effect, as the teachers are limited in the ways they can teach. According to Alexander and Bloch (2004:13), “Transmitting a tedious and alien literacy curriculum, often in a poorly understood language, has also hindered the literacy development and creativity of teacher trainers and teachers”.

It would be beneficial to the children if their teachers had experience with literacy. The lack of effective literacy teachers can be directly linked to the fact that teachers have had little to no exposure to print in their home language during their childhood and adulthood. This creates a cycle where teachers, who are not proficient in teaching in a foreign language, teach children who are not fully equipped to learn in a foreign language. This creates little hope of achieving higher levels of education, nor the standard of living in Africa.

As stated earlier, the emergent literacy perspective supports child centeredness over teacher instruction, where teachers were seen as responsible for organising and predetermining instructional materials, while learners were seen as responsible for learning skill sets. From this emergent literacy perspective, the teacher’s role is to provide meaningful opportunities and appropriate materials so that learners are actively engaged in the learning process. Ultimately, in order for migrant children to learn efficiently and effectively, they must be able to incorporate aspects of their home life and social life into the classroom environment. Teachers can then recognize the different resources that those young children already possess, and thus allow them to make use of the different resources in order to learn new repertoires of literate practices (Comber, 2003: 14). This creates an opportunity for learners to engage with their first language whilst learning a second language and this would be considered more relevant and effective in the language learning process (Lantolf, 2006, 2011). When teachers relate to student’s lives outside of school, the students are much more responsive and participatory (Barton, 2009).

## **2.9. Emergent Bi-literacy**

Emergent Bi-literacy refers to children who are taught in a language other than their mother tongue (Reyes, 2006). Reyes et al. (2008) go on to assert that if two alphabetic systems do not differ, the knowledge gained by a child in a particular language does not mean that it cannot be transplanted into another language that the child knows. Similarly, Cummins (2008, 2009) holds that literacy

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implies a cognitive and academic skill that is common and potentially transferable across different languages. Therefore, the skills involved with literacy in one language may be transferred to another language system remain relevant. Cummins (2008, 2009) also explains that a child's competence to learn a second language depends in part on the child's competence in his/her first language. For a child, the process to become fluent at a basic level (everyday-life type of conversation) in one particular language takes approximately three years while to become fluent at an academic level takes four to seven years.

Paxton (2009) explains that learning is more difficult in a foreign language than through one's mother tongue. Indeed, in a foreign language, there is a necessity to be proficient in a foreign language before it is possible to learn new concepts properly. Prinsloo (2005:13) reinforces the argument by stating that "if children and adults encounter literacy without also developing the resources to make and take particular meaning from the activities of reading and writing, then they are receiving very little". Probyn (2009) offers an argument in support of the code-switching approach that involves the explanation of a concept in the learner's mother tongue. The use of code-switching promotes improved communication by the teacher and comprehension by the learner given that the teacher and the learner share a common language. However, in South Africa, many teachers consider the code-switching approach as bad practice and many teachers feel guilty if they find themselves resorting to their mother language in order to properly explain a concept. Moreover, some perceive that code-switching encourages rote learning and thus a minimal understanding of the content (Probyn 2009).

Setati et al. (2002) challenge the perception of code-switching as an illegitimate pedagogic strategy arguing that code-switching should be favoured when teachers discern that it would be in the best interest of their learner's complete understanding. Although it is not seen as an effective pedagogic strategy by many South African teachers (Probyn, 2009; Setati et al. (2002)), codeswitching (the creation of a multilingual space of interaction) can benefit students and provide them with the possibilities to exchange and communicate new ideas within the classroom, providing opportunities for a better understanding of difficult concepts. As such, code-switching is considered to be an efficient way to enhance students' learning (Probyn 2009). The concept is particularly relevant in the case of migrant learners, provided the teachers share the same language. Alternatively, the teacher may use migrant learners from the same background who are more proficient in English to help translate for their peers. Indeed, without code-switching, their ability to promote their ideas is undermined. Bunyi (2001) is even more radical, explaining that learners should learn in their own vernacular instead of struggling with English. Edelsky (1991) is less radical and holds that students need to be familiar with the academic world of practice and exhibit both cognitive and language

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development to perform well academically. Thus, Edelsky moves the focus of analysis away from the mother tongue towards the cognitive development of the child.

This study subscribes to Paterson's (2017) view on bi-literacy, which states that bi-literacy is beneficial for migrant learners emotionally and practically. Bi-literacy allows migrant children to learn the majority language (English in this case) and adapt to this while still maintaining their home language. This equips the migrant children with a platform to fall back on while adapting. The Bi-literacy approach parallels the additive bilingual approach recommended by the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPs) for the teaching of an additional language (Lenyai, 2011).

### **2.10. Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPs) English First Additional Language Grades 1-3**

After the important political shift that occurred in 1994, South Africa appeared at a political, social, and educational crossroads. Political strategies were created that had the intention to revise teaching and learning, curricula, and overall the entire national education system. Educational change emerged as a pivotal process in reshaping the nation. A new curriculum based on skills (C2005) was implemented in response to the traditional apartheid curriculum. This was mainly an attempt to redress the apartheid education system, bring equity, and develop the new nation (Chisholm, 2003). These policy changes have failed to benefit the students from poor families, which comprised the main demographic group at the end of the apartheid. Therefore, educational shifts and improvements still need to be made. A student is unlikely to improve significantly in writing and/or reading skills while experiencing language barriers. This is because language is pivotal in academic performance.

Most South African learners live in rural and township areas with little to no access to English in their communities. In rural and township areas learners do not have an opportunity to acquire a level of English necessary for effective engagement with the curriculum, which is constructed and adapted from urban, English-speaking schools (Probyn, 2009). Unsurprisingly, the result of this (i.e. having to learn in an unfamiliar language) is that many South African learners experience challenges with English as the medium of instruction.

The implementation of the Curriculum Assessment Programme Statement (CAPs) poses problems not only for teachers but also for learners and their parents (Probyn, 2009; Magagula, 2016). Teachers believe that CAPs demands a high level of performance and learner achievement while their professional development is hampered by the heavy time demands of government policies on quality education and assessment (Magagula, 2016). Learners, in turn, complain about the difficulty

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to understand concepts used in CAPs and about the amount of work to be done in a very limited time. Also, there are not enough resources and materials to enable the whole class to do the research that CAPs requires. Finally, parents feel obliged to be actively involved in their children's schoolwork. This poses problems for uneducated parents or even immigrant parents who do not know or understand English, the language of the school. Magagula (2016) reports that parents admit to being frustrated because they are not familiar with the concepts of the curriculum.

Speaking of the benefits of CAPs, Magagula (2016) believes that despite its intricacy, the positive side of CAPs is that it focuses on the learner rather than the teacher. It allows the learner to discover and be active in the classroom environment. This implies that teachers need to think about and take into consideration individual differences in the classroom. This is relevant in the context of this research study. To be effective in the instruction of immigrant learners, the teacher must adapt his or her teaching method to the specific needs of each learner in the classroom (Menchaca & Ruiz-Escalante, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978). Immigrant learners will only feel integrated into the learning and teaching programme if the school administration strives to provide the necessary pedagogical support and develop strategies to ensure the use of school resources during learning and teaching inside and outside of the classroom. This involves providing curriculum support; protecting teaching and learning time; staffing the programme; and monitoring learner's progress in school (Marishane, 2013).

The negative side, however, is that the support for the implementation of curriculum reforms (CAPs) requires an increase in the budget allocation to education by the government each year. Magagula (2016) believes that providing teachers with training joined with motivation will help them gain confidence in teaching learners from diverse backgrounds, such as migrant learners. In this regard, the government has a crucial role to play in the drive for change in terms of providing teachers with the opportunity and resources they need to be effective in their professions.

The First Additional Language CAPs programme accounts for the cultural and social dynamics of its learners to analyse how programme participants can develop new language skills. This strategy will thus be utilised to compensate for discrepancies between the policies and practices concerning education in South Africa (DoE, 2011). In so doing, CAPs counts all the learning areas into six learning outcomes: listening, speaking, reading and viewing, writing, thinking and reasoning, and language structure and use (DoE, 2011), with each area exhibiting interconnectivity. Consequently, these six learning outcomes must be integrated into both teaching and assessments of academic performance.

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## **2.11. Conclusion**

Throughout this chapter, I use the socio-cultural understanding of language and literacy to inform the teaching practices of learners from a non-English speaking background, particularly migrant children. I attempt to show that literacy is intrinsic to the culture of learners, which encompasses the feelings and values of these learners. As a result, for the teacher to be effective in teaching English literacy, they must consider learners' differing learning backgrounds as well as any feelings related to learning in an unfamiliar language. To support this, I use the theories of affective teaching, as well as these socio-cultural theories.

Sociocultural theories are useful to understand how children learn in the classroom (Vygotsky, 1978). These theories focus on the meaning and context of language and literacy and the learners participating in social interactions (Vygotsky, 1978; Street, 2003; Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). They are far more effective than traditional teaching methods, which have a heavy focus on individuality, rote learning of vocabulary, and a strong grammar centred approach (Vygotsky, 1978; Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011). However, I have shown that sociocultural theories, in the learning context of migrant children, have limitations. They consider only the social context of the learners, while not taking into account the emotional challenges that come with learning an unfamiliar language in a foreign context, which can inhibit the ability of learners to learn effectively. Thus, I argue that it is imperative teachers also consider the emotional challenges migrant learners face when constructing and implementing their teaching methods if they are to be effective.

Furthermore, I explore two opposing perspectives on the debate surrounding the best strategies for teaching literacy. I then look at what the South African CAPs syllabus offers as a guideline for teaching English as a First Additional Language in the foundational phase classes. Finally, I look at the reality of South African schooling systems to shed light on the constraints for pedagogic transformation going forward. The following chapter will discuss the methodology used in this study.

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## **Chapter 3. Methodology**

### **3.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, I will show the way in which I have outlined the research designs, the methodologies, and techniques I have utilised to gather evidence and analyse data for this study. I will further include a discussion about the ethical dilemmas I faced as I undertook the responsibility of carrying out this research.

#### **3.1.1 Pilot field study**

In conducting a rigorous research study, it is beneficial, to begin with a pilot study, as it allows for the feasibility of the approach of the study to be tested, and provides a better understanding of its participants and research context (Kim, 2010; Foster, 2013). As part of my methodology, I did a preliminary fieldwork study to get a good feel for the research site as well as getting in touch with different participants in order to ensure the validity of this study.

During my preliminary visit to the school, I discovered that the school organises activities such as parent-teacher workshops that aim to facilitate communication between the teachers and the parents. These workshops focused on the teacher's role in empowering parents to be more effective in their children's learning process and to assist their learners at home. This was an interesting event where parents and teachers could meet. These workshops served as a means of intervention, providing an opportunity to bring together individuals from the school and home contexts to better grasp and address learners' needs. This allows the teacher to better understand each child's individual needs and take this into consideration while teaching, ultimately ensuring that the child receives teaching in a manner that caters to their specific needs which will thus be the most effective way of teaching a particular child. I will further elaborate on the parent-teacher workshop in the following chapter, which will discuss the findings and analysis.

### **3.2 Research Design**

Henning (2007) describes methodology as an inclusive collection of methods that collaborate to produce data and results that consider the research question, as well as support the purpose of the research. This specific study adopts a comparative, qualitative case study using ethnographic approaches. This refers to the process of investigation whereby the 'case' is the unit of analysis, and the product is the written document (Rule & John, 2011). Nieuwenhuis (2007) states that qualitative research methodology is concerned with understanding the processes and the social and cultural contexts which underlie various behavioural patterns and are mostly concerned with

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exploring the ‘why’ questions of research. This research approach according to Nieuwenhuis (2007) studies people and/or systems by interacting with and observing the participants in their natural environment. Its emphasis is on the quality and depth of the information and not on the scope or breadth of the information that quantitative research provides (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). The qualitative approach allows us to gain an in-depth understanding of teaching events as they occur for a small group of teachers.

For Yin (1984), a qualitative-ethnographic case study incorporates multiple detailed perspectives and thus allows the researcher to gain a holistic understanding of both the phenomenon and context under investigation. This methodology also provides the researcher with the opportunity to collect rich and justifiable information. The case study is “the most popular form of educational research” (Scott & Morrison, 2005). According to Heath & Street (2008:13), ethnographers study the behaviour of their participants by observing their actions and listening to their talk. Eliyahu (2013) adds that qualitative research is most useful in providing insight into motivations that underlie actions. Through it, we can establish semi-theories that can be substantiated by quantitative research. However, this method has a limited scope of ‘generalizability’ (Punch, 2005). It can be difficult to translate qualitative research into statistical data as the links between the data and the more subjective information (reasons, opinions, and motivations) are not always easily discernible.

As well as being qualitative, this study is also ethnographic. A term derived from anthropology, Ethnography can generate a complex and detailed analysis of sociocultural behaviours, as they are learned by the participants and observed by the researcher, relating to a way of life (Rule & John, 2011). Typically, researchers would immerse themselves in the given context, or the case, often over a few months, in order to gain a much closer insight into the view of the process from the perspective of the participant, and not solely as the researcher. This would have a mediating effect; however, the ‘outside’ perspective is still important to convey, hence the role of the researcher (Rule & John, 2011).

A comparative case study is useful for this study because it can reveal deep insight into an unexplored area of research as well as how the specific case relates to a broader context. This lends to the case, which is in a specific setting, as a “window” into a general problem. Moreover, not only will this allow for empirical insights, but theoretical as well, in two forms: Grounded theory, which arises from the case study, or by expanding existing theory with relevance to the case itself. Finally, other case studies can be used to relate to the one under investigation, allowing for some generalization or transferability (Rule & John, 2011).

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My primary focus is directed on the teachers and their ability to affect socio-linguistic learning. I assert that an effective means of assessing a teacher's performance is through a study of the learner within the environment created by their teacher and this is why I have chosen to include the learners as an additional lens of analysis.

### **3.3 The research site**

I conducted my research at a primary school in a Cape Town suburb, a generally lower-middle class area of the city. The school was chosen because a significant proportion (approximately one fifth) of its learner's body is made up of migrant children from the African region. I have called the school St. Octavia Primary School for confidentiality.

#### **3.3.1 Description of the school**

Unlike some schools that exist around Cape Town, St. Octavia, Primary school is a functioning inner-city school that is low status. The school was funded by Catholic nuns and run by the church but now is co-funded by the state. Even though it is taught by lay teachers, it maintains a strong Catholic identity. The language of instruction is English. The school is culturally diverse as it has 472 learners all coming from different backgrounds. Six out of ten of the pupils do not speak English as a first language, and about one- fifth of those are refugees who have come from northern Africa. Roughly, 30 percent of the parents qualify for an exemption from paying fees, not including the resources facility fee. This was discovered in an interview with the school principal on 16/03/2017.

A kitchen facility provides food during first break and lunchtime for less privileged learners who do not have food to bring to school. Additional funding for the school comes from the church and donors. This means that fees can vary from year to year. The monthly fees for 2018 are represented in the following table:

<b>Grades</b>	<b>Education Fee</b>	<b>Resources Facility Fee</b>	<b>Period</b>
Pre Grade R Grade R	R 600	R 525	10 months
Grades 1-7	R 575	R 480	11 months

Most of the school's pupils come from neighbouring areas, which are mostly lower-middle class. The school principal later indicated in an interview that most of the children are from low-income families that are struggling to make ends meet. By way of the teachers, there are 12 qualified teachers at the school. There is also one learning support teacher and two teaching assistants. The

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school has a dozen classrooms, which are furnished with various educational materials for example posters that depict different shapes, numbers, and letters of the alphabet. The school's computer lab and library are also well equipped and this can help make learning much easier. The teachers have access to a pleasant staff room where they can relax. There is also a tearoom available to them. Between 38-45 learners are assigned to each teacher and teacher assistant. In addition, for learners who are struggling with their academics, the school offers extra lessons every week. In addition to this, there are NGO's such as Homework Club who help by giving one on one reading tutorials as well as helping children struggling with language difficulties through paired reading and shared reading.

### **3.3.2 Research participants**

I observed and interviewed the teaching practices of two grade three teachers. One teacher from each Grade 3 class is used in the sample study. Although the study focused primarily on the teachers and their teaching approaches, Grade 3 learners and their guardians/parents were also interviewed to provide a holistic account of their academic and emotional experiences. In order to allow for comparison between learners of differing levels of aptitude or prior knowledge of literacy in an English-medium class regarding the emotion, I observed and interviewed seven French-speaking and three English-speaking learners, totaling ten children from two separate Grade 3 classes. This study used 19 participants in total, consisting of two teachers, ten learners, one workshop facilitator, and six parents.

The study was conducted for the foundation phase, and Grade 3 learners were chosen for the study as their emotional experience was assumed to be more developed in comparison to the first two grades. Grade 3 has been purposefully selected here as it is the final year of the foundation phase, where fundamental skills or foundations are acquired for further learning in school – i.e. reading, writing (i.e. learning to read – reading to learn). The focus on migrant learners was to enable the researcher to investigate the teachers' strategies for dealing with diversity in a multicultural and multilingual classroom. This is relevant in the larger context of South Africa with its eleven national languages. With South Africa being a linguistically diverse country, it is not surprising to find nine of the eleven official languages spoken in one classroom. Given that this study looks at migrant children, the Grade 3 learners were not expected to convey full and reliable information by the simple fact of their maturity level. Hence, this study involved learners' parents/guardians to provide substantial information on the reason for migration into South Africa as well as a fuller understanding of their socio-economic status and the learner's academic and emotional experiences.

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### **3.4 Data collection methods**

Data was generated via classroom observations, teacher's lesson plans and activities, learners' work as well as interviews with teachers, learners, parents, which was recorded both through written notes and through audio recordings.

#### **3.4.1 Classroom observations**

For McMillan and Schumacher (2001), to define what one is to observe, one ought to describe the method through which observation is conducted. The conceptual framework that I identify is grounded in the theories of the affective teaching and socio-cultural theories (See section 2.2). I observed the learners and teachers during literacy class, particularly in times when early literacy abilities were being developed.

Classroom observations allowed the researcher to witness real literacy events in the context in which they naturally take place (Heath, 2007). In doing so, all "real life" details were observed, such as how teachers considered learners in terms of their cognitive and emotional states during literacy lessons.

During classroom observation, I sat at the back of the classroom without participating in the lesson, took field notes, and made audio recordings. The observations were conducted in two Grade 3 classes at school for a period of five months - two days a week were allocated for each class. An evaluation of the teacher's classroom discourse took place and included the following: the language used, questioning methods, learner response, and use of effective feedback patterns (such as summarizing, use of clarifying questions, restating, and extending questions based on learner response) as well as learner-learner interactions. This makes students more interested in learning literacy and creates opportunities for them to engage with the language through practical experiences.

As highlighted in the previous paragraph, this study aims to investigate classroom-teaching practices, in particular, how teachers incorporate affective strategies in their pedagogy. I observed the experiences of teachers and learners alike. These experiences included conversations, games, and other activities where learners practiced language skills in the form of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Detailed descriptions of the classroom context that I generated through field notes helped me better understand how teachers focused on developing learners' belief systems, emotions, and attitudes when teaching them English language and literacy in the classroom context (Arnold, 2011; Daniel, 2001; Vygotsky, 1978).

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Therefore, in the course of the research, I looked at not only how effective the teacher was in teaching literacy but also at how proficient each teacher is in building a good relationship with learners as well as encouraging the learner to learner relationships while teaching. This is because paying attention to the learners' affective needs when teaching can influence their learning (Brown, 2000; Arnold, 2011). These observations included the investigation into teacher's lesson plan details and activities, classroom interactions (teacher-learner interactions) as well as learner's work. 16 lessons and 5 lesson plans were reviewed. The above-mentioned brought together both mind and heart in the classroom (Arnold, 2011; Daniel, 2001; Vygotsky, 1978).

Regarding the cognitive aspect of learning and teaching, each classroom was investigated to see whether teachers were able to work with learners of differing levels of aptitude or prior knowledge of literacy in an English-medium class. This includes strategies of reading processes to gauge learner's knowledge of the subject matter. In doing so, I looked at how the teachers read with the class, how they engaged both group and individual learners in their reading, and how, through questions (open and closed questions) the teachers were able to help learners think about and interpret what they were reading. Moreover, I sought to determine how, through classroom discussion, the teachers provided opportunities for learners to practice and produce the English language for social purposes while at the same time expanding their vocabulary, comprehension, decoding skills, and text structures. This includes teaching with the use of learning aids (including visual aids such as pictures, video, and diagrams) which takes the form of spoken or written language, both of which are important for facilitating knowledge and cognitive development. I also looked at how the teachers helped to address individual reading difficulties in the literacy class. In the English classroom, students' reading abilities, in particular, were investigated, since reading is considered to be central to successful learning and progress through schooling. This was achieved by observing and recording class interactions and discussions.

To identify the child's Zone of Proximal Development in the classroom, I looked at sociolinguistic interactions during lessons and activities, as the classroom is the site of crucial language and literacy exchanges wherein we can gauge the competence of both teachers and learners alike. I analysed how the teachers develop the children's learning by looking at the use of question-and-answer sequences to test knowledge and to guide content understanding through the use of English. This analysis attempts to reveal the significance of the teacher's role in literacy by way of their use of lesson delivery and techniques of instruction, as teachers' teaching and classroom practices are crucial factors in learners' failures and achievements. I looked at the teacher's strategies to connect learning to a child's prior knowledge, obtained from parents and community, in order to integrate the everyday and formal concept into the child's development (Vygotsky, 1967; Hardman, 2011).

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I investigated if teacher's instruction and activities were planned to cover not only what children were capable of doing on their own but also what they could learn with the help of others. In doing so, I looked at how the teacher began the reading activities with more support and decreased their level of support as students had shown their understanding of the concept of activities.

Given that scaffolding serves to help children move to a higher level of skill or knowledge, I looked at how the teacher was able to get learners interested and used the discussions that take place to develop vocabulary, decoding skills, and text structures. In doing so, I examined whether the teacher built on the migrant learner's prior knowledge and experience to make their learning more meaningful.

During literacy activities, I also looked at how the teacher encouraged children to play letter games, to share alphabet books, and provided a range of opportunities for learning. I examined the interaction between teacher and learners: How the teacher took time to assist a child who struggled with a task (such as decoding skills, reading, expressing ideas in English, writing, etc.) and got them to understand how to put sounds together and to participate in literacy class.

Throughout this process of scaffolding, I considered the pedagogical strategies used by teachers to promote learning among all students, inclusive of all levels of English proficiency. Specifically, I focused on the use of modeling and grouping students of varying levels (including both small group and pairing) to facilitate language and literacy acquisition.

I looked at the peer-to-peer interaction in pairs or small groups: how children helped each other to better understand what they were learning on a one on one. I sought to find out whether or not the teacher followed up with questions to support children's learning or just left children to work on their own. I also investigated their group work to see how learners collaborated as many of the learning activities took place in small groups. I looked at how the teacher shows the class step by step on how to work out a reading task or any tasks. I also scrutinised how the teacher worked through the reading task with the class to help them better understand it. Finally, I looked at how the teacher steps back and lets children do the reading task on their own. I also explored the use of programmatic supports for English language learners and their effectiveness. The use of interventions such as additional class time, mentoring/tutoring, community outreach programmes for migrant families, and school-wide literacy initiatives are included in this evaluation. This was achieved by observing and recording class interactions and discussions.

The beliefs about early literacy learning and teachers' perceptions of the English language and literacy were also observed, as well as the extent of the learner's access to relevant reading material

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by the teacher. “Teachers' beliefs about literacy can be understood as including what they assume, think, and know about how young children develop literacy skills; what they perceive a teacher's role in this process to be; and how they feel they should implement these practices in the classroom.” (Mackenzie et. al, 2011:2). Furthermore, data were collected through a questionnaire on teaching approaches and practices the teachers believed were useful for learning in early literacy classrooms. The teachers were so busy during service hours that having even 5 minutes of their time for the interview was not easy. As a precautionary measure, I had made the questionnaire just in case they didn't have time for the interview with me so that they could fill them in at a time of their own choice.

With regard to the affective factors of learning and teaching, which are the focus of this study, I strived to identify the teacher's creation of a classroom environment that supports mutual respect, trust, and safety for the migrant learners. This includes the evaluation of specific management techniques, as well as norms for dialogue in the classroom. Additionally, the teacher's sensitivity to the emotional needs of these migrant students was assessed. Finally, the teacher's environment-creation was evaluated through observations of emotional displays by the migrant learners (e.g. social inclusion, physical isolation, etc.).

When I looked in detail at the interactions, I inspected the following: the teacher's ability to help students feel accepted and comfortable when being taught literacy. In doing so, I looked at both verbal and nonverbal aspects of the interactions between teachers and students. These can contribute considerably to a student's self-perception and how they position themselves in relation to the lesson (Brown, 1995, 2000; Arnold, 2011). I observed how the teacher engaged with the class and in particular with struggling students in the form of physical gestures, eye contact, facial expressions, and use of appropriate touch (Brown, 1995, 2000; Arnold, 2011). I considered if the teachers were sensitive to these students, if they provided adequate support, if they encouraged student's use of their home language during the class discussion as a means of building their confidence, and if they created a safe learning space, for instance, one void of psychological barriers. In doing so, I observed how the teachers met diverse students' needs in terms of their varying ability levels, emotional needs, and cultural differences (Brown, 1995, 2000).

Within verbal engagement, I observed whether the teacher's choice of words promoted acceptance and comfort and whether the teacher called individual students by their names and used inclusive terms like “we” and “us” to create a sense of unity (Brown, 1995, 2000; Arnold, 2011). In addition, I noted whether the teacher praised students when they deserved it and refrained from humiliating students when they gave incorrect responses. The above responses could have helped or hindered

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the establishment of a classroom environment conducive to learning (Brown, 1995, 2000; Arnold, 2011). Finally, I observed whether the teachers were impartial and provided equitable attention to the learners (i.e. the support provided was appropriate to the individual students' needs).

### **3.4.2 Interviews**

Cohen et al. (2007) note that it is important for the interviewer (the researcher in this case) to be aware of their power in the interview space. The interviewer has a great ability to influence the course of the interview, be that positively or negatively, potentially changing the outcome of the research. Therefore, it is important that the interviewer be cognisant not to overwhelm the interviewee, to avoid making the interviewee uncomfortable, or to evoke feelings of judgment. This could influence the information gathered through the interviewing process and tarnish the original objectives set by the interviewer. Cohen et al. (2007: 367) recommend a number of points to facilitate an effective interview. These are: laying a foundation of trust with the interviewee, taking note of non-verbal cues, maintaining informality to avoid being seen as an authoritative figure, being patient with the interviewee when they are answering questions all the while actively listening, asking questions correctly while remaining empathetic and sensitive. I acknowledged all these points and ensured every effort was made in their achievement.

More direct interaction with the participants may help deliver an understanding of their experiences and challenges as teachers and learners alike. 19 interviews were intended to fill in gaps. Interviews can provide useful in-depth insight into the experiences of teachers as well as learners (Mendez & Pena, 2013). These interviews were conducted after school hours in each teacher's own classroom, to ensure the comfort of participants while expressing their opinions and feelings concerning teaching and learning in a multilingual classroom. The teachers were unable to give me their time for the interview during working hours not because they did not want to but because of time constraints. The only possible time to get their attention for the interview was after class.

Semi-structured interviews were useful to obtain feelings, perceptions, and opinions of the participants by creating a less formalized space (Cohen et al., 2007). This informal space allowed for new lines of questioning to emerge depending on the participant's responses (Cohen et al., 2007). There were two different types of interviews conducted after the classroom observation. The first set of interviews were conducted one-on-one with each of the teachers to understand their strategies for dealing with diversity and learners' emotional needs in the classroom while teaching literacy. I also asked about their beliefs around important components of early literacy learning and their perception of the English language, literacy, and the extent of the learner's access to printed

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reading material from the teacher. The language of communication during the interviews was English and each interview took 10 to 15 minutes.

To deepen my interpretation of the data, I contrasted the opinions of the teachers and their methodology of teaching literacy. The question of whether the teachers perceived their mandated pedagogy as effective as compared to the way in which said teachers enacted that pedagogy in the classroom space. Was it the same? And if not, how different was it?

The second set of interviews was held immediately after the lesson with ten learners to understand their emotional experience during literacy lessons. A total of 10 learners, 5 from each of the two Grade 3 classes, were selected based on their willingness to participate in the interview.

I conducted interviews with seven Francophone migrant learners and three English-speaking learners. During the interview, I investigated the combination of factors contributing to individual learners' success or struggles in the classroom, which may involve support structures external to the school. Understanding the contexts of the individual migrant learners, such as the language spoken at home, where they live and how long they have been in South Africa, etc., also helped determine whether learners are experiencing complete language immersion.

Opportunities to learn and practice English language skills at home are highly beneficial, facilitating rapid learning of the English language. I also asked learners about their experiences of learning to speak and read in English: What do English language and literacy mean to them? What did they like about the English language and literacy? I referred questions that learners were unable to understand to their parents to help convey the information. Parents were also interviewed to understand their socio-economic status and the learners' academic and emotional experiences. The language of communication during the interview was mostly English, however, for some participants who were less comfortable with the English language, interviews were conducted in French, in order to collect information about their backgrounds and about their experiences of reading in English. These interactions were recorded and then transcribed for later analysis.

#### **3.4.2.1 Transcripts of interviews**

Interview transcripts were compiled from audio clips of teachers and learners during and after the research period to provide a more holistic understanding of the teaching practices utilised by the teachers. Particular transcripts were used to show a variety of teaching strategies. These were used to substantiate the discussion and data in the chapters, particularly those that speak to literacy instruction.

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A textual transcript is valuable in the research process as it is easy and accessible to read and understand this project. Furthermore, these transcripts are able to be used for research development in this field. Cohen et al. (2007) believe that transcripts separate the participant from the context; thus, providing a vague analysis of the time in which the interviews were recorded and decontextualizing them from the moment in which the information was collected.

They were referred, by Cohen et al (2007:367). as being “frozen” in a particular temporal context. They do not reject the use of transcripts, but rather propose many potential additions that ought to be considered in the production of the transcripts. These involve noting: the vocal variety such as the tone of voice and the atmosphere of the narrative, the volume, etc. (Cohen et al., 2007).

### **3.5 Data analysis**

The data-gathering examined patterns found among the variables of instructional practice. Furthermore, to prevent myself from being overwhelmed, I began sorting and analysing my data whilst still in the field as advocated by Burns (2005).

The data I captured aimed to categorise, define, and separate similarities from differences in literary practices and procedures. These factors are used prominently to examine the modes through which societal participation influences the way in which teachers and learners interact with literacy (Heath, 2007; Barton, 2007). Two categories were assessed to understand the coding of actions portrayed in classroom spaces: “affective responses” and “behaviour responses” (Rule & John, 2011). In order to support the ways in which English learning was understood in the classroom environment, I considered the experiences of introverted children. In this way, shy, not- too-active participants, those who typically did not contribute during classroom question time, were ill-suited to the general atmosphere permeated by the interactions of those within the class, and generally, those who were anxious at school were the primary participants of the study. In opposition to the aforementioned, I considered those students who were comfortable, confident, enthusiastic, and motivated, in an attempt to investigate the different experiences students had of the classroom environment. Through this understanding, I aimed to investigate the way in which negative behaviour warranted negative emotional responses and whether positive behaviour signified positive classroom interaction. Furthermore, by analysing through this lens, I hoped to develop knowledge on the way in which teachers affected and influenced the behaviours of children in the classroom.

I now provide a table that shows the research questions, data to be gathered, and how it was gathered.

#### **Table 1.2: Representation of research questions, data to be collected and method of collection**

Research Questions	Constructs	Plans
<p>What affective strategies do Grade 3 teachers use for teaching English language and literacy in a low-income school, where Congolese migrant children make up some of the learners?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The teacher's ability to help students feel accepted and comfortable when being taught literacy (Agaesse, 2017; Minghe and Yuan, 2013).</li> <li>• How the teacher engages with the class and in particular struggling students in the form of physical gestures, eye contact, facial expressions, and use of appropriate touch (Agaesse, 2017; Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000).</li> <li>• The teacher's choice of words to promote acceptance and comfort (Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000).</li> <li>• How the teacher calls individual students- by their names (Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2000).</li> <li>• The teacher's use of inclusive terms like "we" and "us" to create a sense of unity (Brown, 2000).</li> <li>• Whether the teacher praises students when deserved and refrains from humiliating students when they give incorrect responses (Minghe and Yuan, 2013).</li> <li>• Teacher's sensitivity and empathy (Agaesse, 2017; Minghe &amp; Yuan, 2013).</li> <li>• Whether the teacher is impartial, providing equitable attention to the learners (i.e. the support provided is appropriate to the individual students' needs (Agaesse, 2017; Arnold, 2011).</li> <li>• Teacher talk: instruction, explanation, question, responding, elaboration, and management talk.</li> <li>• The use of different modalities, modeling, and grouping learners of varying levels to facilitate literacy acquisition.</li> <li>• Teacher's use of visual aids</li> <li>• Extracurricular activities (Paterson, 2017; Agaesse, 2017; Prinsloo, 2004).</li> </ul>	<p>I collected my data via classroom observations, teachers' lesson plans and activities, students' work as well as interviews with teachers, learners, and parents, which were recorded both through written notes and through audio recordings.</p> <p>The observations were conducted for two Grade 3 classes at school for a period of five months; two days a week were allocated for each class.</p> <p>During one-on-one interviews, an audio recorder was used.</p>

<p>How do Congolese migrant learners feel when being taught or having to demonstrate English literacy skills in the classroom in comparison with their native English peers?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learners' feelings/attitude: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivation</li> <li>• Attitude</li> <li>• Confidence</li> <li>• Anxiety</li> <li>• Perception (Krashen,1985 cited in Maftoon and Sabah, 2012; Minghe &amp; Yuan, 2013)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	
<p>What are the types of learning activities that migrant children from the Democratic Republic of Congo relate to?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Extracurricular activities (Paterson, 2017) such as after school programme: sport...</li> <li>• Games (Agaesse, 2017)</li> </ul>	
<p>What opportunities are present to help develop their ability to use English to communicate?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use of programmatic supports for English Language Learners (Sutlana, 2011): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Additional class time</li> <li>• Mentoring/tutoring</li> <li>• Community outreach programmes for migrant families</li> <li>• School-wide literacy initiatives</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	

The table above shows the breakdown of research questions, related data, and their data collection methods. The first column reports the questions that this study will answer, while the second column refers to the data to be gathered, and the third column explains the methods employed to gather the data required.

### 3.5.1 Tools of analysis

I use the theories of affective teaching, as well as sociocultural theories to analyse the teaching practices of Grade 3 teachers in a multicultural classroom made up of migrant learners.

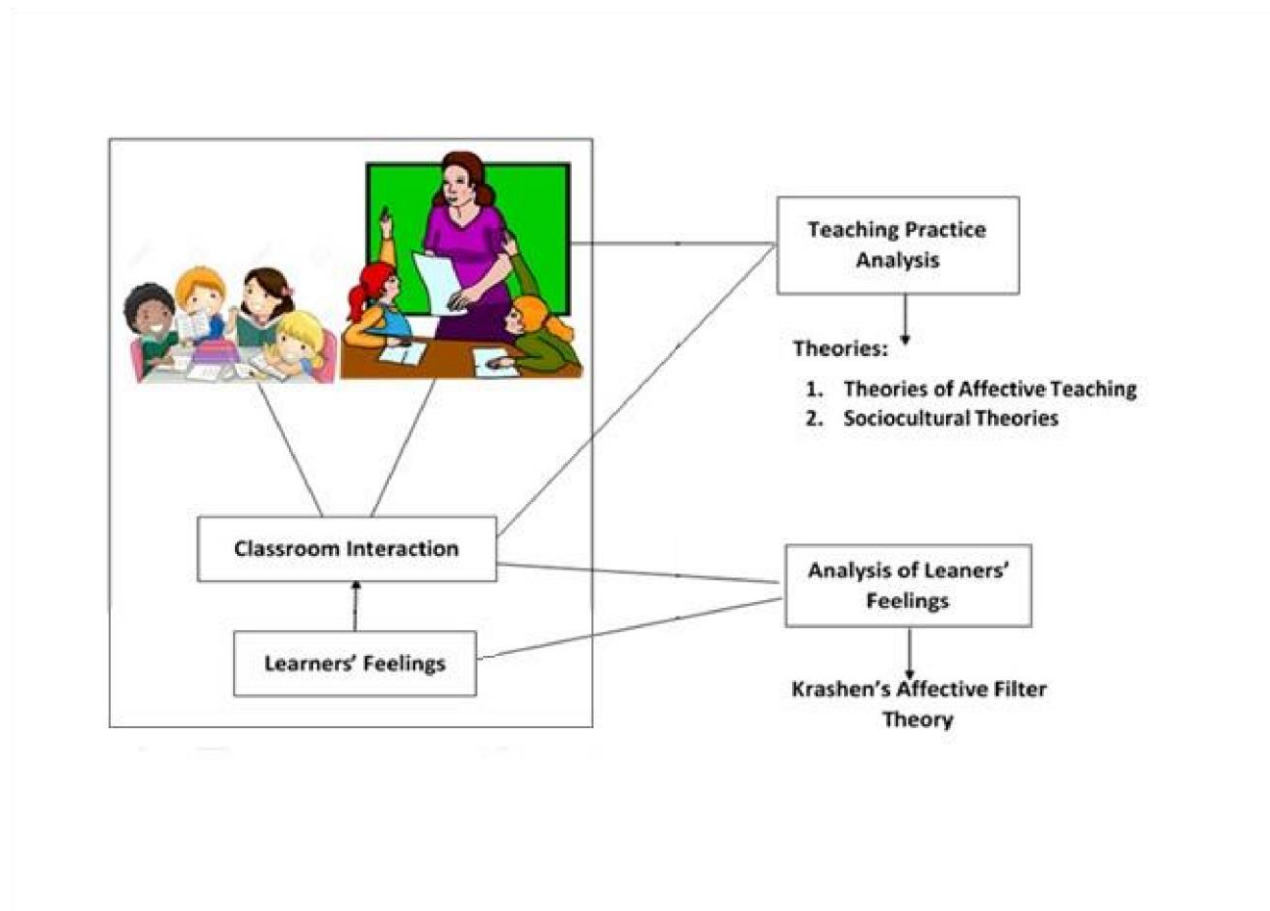
I use the principle of affective teaching to understand how the teacher incorporates the affective strategies in their pedagogy. The imperative aspect of affective teaching is to assess learners' backgrounds and their variation in learning. And then to take this into account and adjust the teaching appropriately (Minghe & Yuan, 2013; Krashen, 1994).

I use the sociocultural theories to consider the learning environment in terms of anxiety levels. Initially, I will be using Krashen's affective filter theory as a lens to understand learners' feelings in the classroom environment. The higher one's affective filter, the lower one's chances of learning. Conversely, the lower one's affective filter, the higher one's chances of learning (Krashen, 1985

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cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). Lower levels of anxiety correspond with increased language learning ability, whereas higher levels indicate diminished learning capacity.

**Figure 1: Diagrammatic Representation of the Analytical Framework**



**Figure 1:** This diagram depicts, firstly, migrant learners' emotions that arise from classroom interactions, both between their peers and with their teachers, while learning literacy in a foreign language and how these emotions affect the process of learning. The second element depicted is how the teacher responds to learners' emotional needs while teaching English literacy in a multilingual classroom made up of migrant learners.

Finally, the diagram depicts the theoretical lenses through which we can understand the above processes. Krashen's Affective Filter Theory is used to understand how learners' emotions play out in a classroom environment characterised by foreign language learning and instruction. To analyse the classroom-teaching practices, in particular, how teachers incorporate affective strategies in their pedagogy, I make use of the theories of affective teaching and sociocultural theories.

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### **3.6 Reliability and validity**

This study used different sources to ensure the reliability and validity of these data. The interviews, tape recordings, and field notes provide the basis for verification and reliability of data collected. Additionally, the longer time spent in the field allowed the researcher to gather reliable data as well as verify the validity of the data collected. Reliability is described as “a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object would yield the same result each time” (Babbie and Mouton, 2001: 119). And hence it relates to the consistency or stability of repeat measurements.

Validity is often confused with related ideas. Sometimes it is used to mean “true” or “correct” Maxwell (2012:). Succinctly, validity relates to the accuracy of the measurement. Creswell (2012, 2013) highlights the participatory nature of qualitative research as a strength which raises the validity of the research process.

### **3.7 Triangulation**

To reduce systematic bias and the risk of chance associations, I used a variety of different methods to collect my data. This ensured the data collected was valid and reliable. My observations were based on research conducted in two Grade 3 classrooms twice a week for five months. Below I outline the various data collection methods I used.

Alongside audio-recording of teachers and learners during literacy classes, I took thorough notes on all lessons, received instructional planning documentations, conducted one-on-one interviews with teachers and learners, and collected learners' assignments. I also had the opportunity to attend and observe the workshops that the school where I conducted my research organised with the parents of the learners to equip them to supervise their children at home in terms of assisting them with homework and giving them the skills to read with their children at home. During these workshops, I had one-on-one interviews with some parents and teachers who attended these workshops. To ensure the accuracy of this data, all interviews and literacy lessons observed were recorded and transcribed literally. With my supervisor's assistance during this study as well as the analysis of the data, I was able to reduce the level of bias and increase the validity of my findings. This aligns with Maxwell (2012) who states that the increase of trustworthiness is directly proportional to the use of multiple data collection methods, also referred to as data triangulation. Because triangulation consists of gathering data from a diverse range of individuals and settings, using a variety of methods (Maxwell, 2012:245). Using a variety of methods allows for the emergence of patterns to obtain reliable results.

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Moreover, as I had to deal with grade three learners and their parents, most of whom were French-speaking, I had arranged for the interviews to be conducted in French and English, depending on the participants' wishes, for a good mutual understanding. The interview was only conducted in English for those learners who felt comfortable in English and expressed the desire to be interviewed in English. At the beginning of each interview, I took care to ask my participants in which language they wanted the interview to take place. I tried to ask questions clearly and I did not mind repeating myself or rephrasing my language or asking additional questions to make myself understood by my participants. I wanted my language to be easy and accessible. And at times I used humour to relax the atmosphere. That's how I thought I could reach the level of reliability and coherence in my research. For Sheton (2004:71), reliability refers to consistency so that if one were to repeat the research under the same conditions with the same participants the result would be similar. Validity and reliability in qualitative study imply trustworthiness and credibility.

### **3.8 Credibility**

During the interviews, to avoid prejudice and misinterpretation on my part, as a researcher, on the observation made during my research and on the part of my participants on their actions and words that could alter their perspective on what was happening, I had taken care to check with the participants by repeating their own answers to see if I had understood them well and that I had not misinterpreted what they had said to me. In the same way, I had never hesitated to clarify by paraphrasing my words or repeating myself in case I felt misunderstood. This is supported by Maxwell (2012) who recommends a member check, referring to the verification of a participant's information given to ensure credibility with findings.

Although the results of qualitative research are not generalisable due to differences in individuals and contexts in most cases, Shenton (2004) suggests that to allow other researchers to conduct a comparative study of phenomena similar to their own, it is imperative to provide a detailed description of the subject matter and situations being studied. In this vein, South African public schools can learn from my research on education in the context of children from immigrant backgrounds.

### **3.9 Reflection on researcher bias and limitations of the research design**

To avoid bias and possible ethical dilemmas due to my shared background with French-speaking children, I created a room in my study for the development of my own reflexivity, so as not to undermine the reliability and the validity of my findings (Trowler, 2011). I considered my own

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implicit and explicit notions of inclusivity, good teaching, sensitivity, and caring influence. During my classroom observations, I paid close attention to how field notes were recorded and lesson plans were read and explained.

Further, during my interviews with the teachers and other participants, I was careful to not let my bias affect the nature of the questions. Although a researcher cannot do neutral research, especially since it is impossible to isolate the researcher from the socio-political context of the research process he or she is conducting (Denzin, 2001). The researcher is localised in the process being studied. This is supported by Denzin (2001:325) who argues that the qualitative researcher is not an objective, politically neutral observer who is outside and above the study of these media processes and cultural circuits. On the contrary, the researcher is historically and locally situated within the very processes being studied. Moreover, he says that despite the researcher's best intentions, the research reflects the values and points of view of the investigator and is loaded with theory. Finally, although migrant learners face many challenges, which affect their emotional stability, in my study, I only considered the challenges they face due to language barriers.

### **3.10 Ethical considerations: Access to the school**

I took numerous steps to ensure that my research was ethical and effective. To receive clearance for my research, I submitted a written statement, jointly signed with my supervisor, to the research ethics committee at the School of Education at the University of Cape Town. I accessed the school through a fellow student whose friend is the principal of a school that has immigrant learners. The Western Cape Education Department and the principal at the school where I conducted my study gave me permission for this research. I made sure to inform the participants of the nature and purpose of my study before I formally began in February 2017. I obtained consent from the subjects of the study, the schoolchildren, and received signed permission from parents and teachers at the school.

I was cognisant of the potential of my study interrupting normal school proceedings. I made sure to be as unintrusive as possible, especially in the classroom setting, where I passively observed the learners, except when learners were asked to work in groups, in which case I moved closer to better observe and conduct my study. Although it can be said that just being in the classroom, observing learners, is intrusive because it will change the natural flow of classroom activities. This leads to what Robertson (1998) calls Heisenberg's principle. This phenomenon, according to Robertson (1998), occurs when the object to be measured is modified by the act of measurement. Any intrusion, caused by human presence or technology in the classroom, alters the nature of classroom activities and interactions (Robertson, 1998). "When observations show atypical behaviour, the results are

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limited and possibly invalid” (Robertson, 1998:11). It is extremely difficult to calculate the extent to which intrusions actually affect observational error because, as Robertson (1998:11) points out “... very little empirical research is produced ... because it is so difficult to obtain reliable observations of what is happening in the classroom when no one is around to observe.

For confidential purposes, I used pseudonyms for those involved in the study, and also for the school.

An alternative way to protect the participants’ rights regarding their privacy is by assuring them confidentiality (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011). In the research, maintaining the confidentiality of the participants passed through the assurance of anonymity and the promise that data that could eventually compromise the secrecy of their school would not be divulged. Therefore, pseudonyms were used throughout the work. Furthermore, the researcher reinforced the confidential aspect by assuring the contributors that recorded and transcribed interviews were kept safe and secret. Finally, contributing to research is a matter of personal choice. Participants must join deliberately and should be allowed to withdraw on their own terms, at any stage (Creswell 2013). In this work, participants were constantly asked about their will to participate.

### **3.11 Delimitation of the study**

I intended to design and pilot a pedagogical intervention during my fieldwork. However, this was not possible due to time constraints on the teachers. The teachers did not have enough time to help every learner and many said that they were behind in the curriculum. I was informed that the school has programmes in place to help learners that have problems with English, reading, and so forth. So, they organise sessions to help children who struggle twice a week as well as a workshop every Saturday for the first two months together with the parents of the learners who struggle with English to equip them to help their children at home.

### **3.12 Conclusion**

In this chapter, I have shown the different steps regarding the research design and methods, as well as the methodology used to collect and generate data for this study. The following two chapters will present my findings and analysis. Chapter 4 will deal with teachers and their teaching practices, while Chapter 5 will deal with learners’ feelings and experiences, Finally, Chapter 6 will deal with the theoretical implications and Chapter 7 will present the conclusions of this study.

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## Chapter 4: Teachers and teaching practices

### 4.1 Introduction

I recognise that it would make more sense to start with looking at the learners as it is ultimately the learners that inform the teaching methods of the teachers. However, due to the nature of my primary research question, “What affective strategies do Grade 3 teachers use for teaching English language and literacy in a low-income school, where Congolese migrant children make up some of the learners?” I am choosing to look at the teachers and teaching practices first.

This chapter will present and discuss the data collected through the investigation into the classroom-teaching practices, in particular, how two Grade 3 teachers incorporate affective strategies into their pedagogy when teaching in a multicultural classroom that includes migrant learners. The teaching style and classroom practices are important factors in learner’s success. I will present and analyse the findings of data collected through interviews and observations during my fieldwork at St. Octavia Primary School. This analysis aims to reveal how lesson delivery and instruction techniques play a role in literacy in the classroom.

I will use the principle of affective teaching to understand how the teacher incorporates the affective strategies in their pedagogy. The imperative aspect of the affective teaching is to assess learners’ backgrounds and their variation in learning. And then to take this into account and adjust the teaching appropriately (Minghe & Yuan, 2013; Krashen, 1994).

The argument that drives my analysis of the data is that children who learn in a language that is not their mother tongue or in which they do not have mother tongue proficiency may have additional emotional needs that must be met for them to learn successfully. However, when a child is a migrant or a refugee these needs are compounded by the stress of being a foreigner. This chapter will seek to answer the main research question, as well as lay the foundation for the pedagogical framework which will be discussed further in chapter 6.

My analysis is conducted through the tools described in section 3.5.1 and will be based on the above case study focusing on the affective teaching approach that teachers use to engage learners with diverse backgrounds successfully in the process of English language and literacy learning. In doing so, I aim to uncover what teachers focus on and how teachers navigate between the intellectual or emotional needs of the learners. Based on the data from the case study, my recommendation is that teachers need to cultivate awareness of learners’ emotional needs, so that they are able to adjust their teaching practices accordingly to ensure effective learning for every learner – regardless of their background and /or language proficiency. Finally, I will present and discuss parents' affective

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support as observed during the parent's education workshop at St. Octavia Primary School. From this analysis, I can draw conclusions and identify areas that need further research.

My method of classroom observation is described in detail in the methodology chapter. To recap, briefly, I observed both the teachers' general proficiency and their ability to build good relationships with learners while teaching. In doing so, I looked at how the teachers met diverse learners' needs in terms of their varying ability levels, emotional needs, and cultural differences. In terms of data analysis, I have used the principle of affective teaching as proposed by Minghe & Yuan, (2013); Krashen, (1994) and Arnold, (2011) as analytical tools to analyze my data to generate findings that answer my research questions.

According to Agaesse (2017), being empathetic to learners' emotions can assist teachers in creating a conducive environment for learners to realise their potential and gain the necessary skills. Thus, there is a direct relationship between teaching that is informed by learners' needs and an effective teaching practice whereby learners realise their learning potential. This is taken into account in my structuring of the teaching practices in this section. Thus, in chapter 4, I will present and discuss the teaching practices employed by the two Grade 3 teachers, then interviews with the teachers in phase 1 and finally the interviews with parents in phase 2. Next, in chapter 5, I will present and discuss the observation and interviews with learners.

## **4.2 Classroom observations**

### **4.2.1 Observations of teacher Rosie's teaching practices**

I observed lessons that Rosie gave to her class so that I could understand the affective strategies she used to engage learners in the process of the English language and literacy learning. In terms of teacher-learner interaction that takes place in the classroom, the teacher was using the Initiation-Response-Evaluation sequence (IRE) as a method to support classroom communication and to explore learners' ideas. In this sequence, the teacher guides the interaction with learners by asking a question, evaluating the exactness of learners' responses by commenting on their answers, and then asking further questions. This sequence repeated itself with interesting variations during the lesson. A learner was then expected to respond to the teacher's question (R); and the exchange ended with the teacher evaluating the learner's response by saying something such as: "Exactly", "Good", or "No, that's incorrect" (E). The teacher facilitated learners' talk by acting like the learners' partner in guiding their understanding through instructional conversation.

This oral interaction was an important part of the active learning process. Below is a transcription of the lessons followed by its affective strategies used by the teacher within the lessons. The

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cumulative analysis of the teaching practices will be discussed following all the lessons and their affective strategies.

1. [The day starts with prayer, a brief story].
2. **Shared Reading for comprehension: Bible story.**
3. Matthew 4:10- 20.
4. T: [Teacher reads the bible story from the children's bible (has images) and asks questions to check the children's understanding of the passage read].
5. T: This bible story is the story where we learn more about God... The story is about Jesus and how He chose His friends.
6. T: [Teacher asks a pupil] Janine ... who is your best friend?
7. C1 (Janine): Quinton.
8. T: Okay, all of us have friends... even special friends... [Asks the same pupil] why did you choose Quinton to be your best friend?
9. C1: Mm ... he is nice.
10. T: Well, [Asks the entire class] would you like anyone to be your friend if they lie to you?
11. C2 (Class): No:::: [choral response].
12. T: [Asks the entire class] what is a good reason for choosing a good friend?
13. C2: [Multiple answers] Mm loving... ee, nice ...
14. T: They should be caring... treat you with respect... you must be a good friend so that

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others can be good to you as well.... [Teacher calls a learner to come to the front] ....  
we don't want anyone to feel that they don't have friends. [points to one learner]  
Zya ... how many friends did Jesus choose?

15. C3: (Zya): 12.

16. T: Jesus loves everyone... and... he had some special friends.

**Extract of the affective strategy of the above lesson:** In the lesson above (lines 1-16), teacher Rosie is teaching the learners about friendship, qualities of good friendship, and reasons for choosing a good friend. Through this lesson, affective aspects of friendship building can be seen. For example, showing compassion, respect, love, and being nice (lines 13-14) are all affective aspects of friendship building. In the context of the classroom, learners from different backgrounds struggle to make friends if they cannot speak the same language or if they feel they cannot speak English properly. According to Krashen (1995), learners cannot perform well academically if they are unable to socially interact with their peers. By saying "We don't want anyone to feel that they don't have friends" (line 14), teacher Rosie aims to make the learners, regardless of their background, feel at home in the classroom, creating an inclusive environment. Making friends also provides learners with a place to practice English, as children learn the language (English) through their friends, according to Vygotsky (1978).

### Lesson 1: First Activity - Colour words

17. *[The teacher sticks to the board a list of different colours and children have to read].*

18. *[To encourage children the teacher says do not be afraid to make a mistake, everyone makes mistakes from the teacher to the principal. We come to school to learn so we can't laugh at people who make mistakes. The more you do it the better you become. No problem if you struggle].*

19. T: *[Points to one learner]* Arlet... What is a pattern?

20. C1; (Arlet): Mm it is something that comes again and again.

21. T: Exactly, a pattern is a picture that repeats over and over again...and... The more parts a picture has, the complex the pattern is. *[Asks the class]* do you understand?

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22. C: Yes [*choral response*].
23. T: Examples of patterns:
- (i) apple, banana, apple, banana, apple, banana...
  - (ii) 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 [*writing on the blackboard and instructing children*] you need to have space between numbers... Yes well, draw something that has a pattern... The colour in your pattern must also be the same.

**Extract of the affective strategy of the above lesson:** The lesson above (lines 17-23) the sentence “do not be afraid to make a mistake, everyone makes mistakes” (line 19) reveals an affective aspect of learning. By encouraging the learners that it is normal to make mistakes, the teacher is instilling confidence in them so that they do not fear giving an incorrect answer.

**Lesson 1: Second Activity - Play and Sing**

24. T: [*Sits in the middle of the classroom, in front of the children, who are seated on the mat in rows of 6/7*].
- 25: [*Teacher and pupils singing children’s songs with a gesture while singing (very funny)*].
- 26: T: Everybody please put up your right and left hands and look only at me... You must do what I do.
- 27: C: [*Pupils clap hands in a rhythm showed by the teacher*].
28. T: [*To make the lesson lively: the teacher asks 6 children to come to the front to play and show the pattern by counting from 0 with their fingers*].
- 29: C: [*Counts together*] 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16... 30, 32, 34, and 36.
- 30: T: Let’s see how far we can go... Show 2 fingers for number 2, four fingers for number 4, and eight fingers for number 8.

**Extract of the affective strategy of the above lesson:** The lesson above (lines 24-30) is about patterns and we see how the teacher uses fun activities to engage the learners and make them feel comfortable in approaching the teacher. She does this by sitting down on their level and singing and dancing with them. This is a clear example of an affective teaching approach.

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**Lesson 2: First Activity – Sounds**

31. T: *[Children are asked to stand up and touch different parts of their bodies (fun exercise to entertain the children). The teacher has many words written on different pieces of paper in a plastic bag; words like all, said, they, come, look, out, or, etc...].*
32. T: Okay, let's do the sounds.... Look here *[Looks at the teacher saying]* ... *[chooses one learner]* Gabriel... what sound is this? (Pointing at the letter 'S' on the word).
33. C1 (Gabriel): Sssss::::
34. T: Together Sssss:::: is the sound of the letter...
35. C2: 'S' *[choral response]*.
36. T: *[Turns to next learner]* Jade ... Please read the word 'Said'.
37. C3: Said.
38. T: Alright, who still remembers this word 'they'? *[Raising hands and shouting me ...me]* ... ok *[choosing one learner]* yes Tracey, spell it for me, please.
39. C4 (Tracey): t-h-e-y.
40. T: Well done Tracey... now class read these words: all, said, they, come, look, out with me. *[The teacher points at each letter of the words with her ruler, without saying anything, and children are required to say the name of the letter and the sound related]*.
41. C: All, said, they, come, look, out *[Spell each of these words, but some pupils are making noise]*.
42. T: *[shouts]* Keep quiet... You're being naughty; I'm going to send you... *[The whole class completes the teacher's sentence]*.
43. C: Outside (choral response).
44. a. *[Before break-time, the children have to get their sounds right, (condition to go for a break at 10:10). Children queue in front of the teacher one by one; each has to say the sound pointed out to them by the teacher]*.

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**Extract of the affective strategy of the above lesson:** In the lesson above (lines 31-44) we see a lesson teaching the learners about sounds by using fun activities. This again encourages learners to learn in a comfortable environment and the teacher uses polite words such as please (line 36) and encouraging words like “Well done” (line 40). The teacher also has good classroom management skills by using humorous tactics. This reveals an affective teaching approach.

- b. Lesson 3
- c. English Lesson: Writing ‘a’.
- d. Children start by writing the date in their English book.

45. T: Everyone is going to look first... Nobody should be writing... It doesn't matter if you're not done... Ee, are you listening at the back? ... No writing... just look first... Well, I am going to show you a pattern... A pattern for a:::: Can you see I skipped one line... From the 2nd line go to the corner of the 1<sup>st</sup> line... I start with a diagonal line... then I make my way. [*Showing them how to write a string of a's*].

46. T: Listen... I must do it very slowly... Are you following? ...So everyone can see I'm drawing over the line again: a:::: [*showing them how to write a string of a's*].

47. T: Line, back on the line, tummy first, straight up, then straight down... Ok so, do it with me now... Now write in your writing book [*Children copy in their writing book by following teacher's instruction*].

48. C: Line, back on the line, tummy first, straight up, then straight down.

49. T: a. [*The teacher helps children who struggle to write “a” by giving them support: directing their hand and try to make them write “a”*]

50. T: [*To encourage learners*] This is the 1st time you're doing this pattern... It's not going to be perfect... You need to practice again and again.

51. C: [*Some children walking around doing their own things*].

52. T: Oh, oh am I speaking to myself? [*Noise*].

53. T: Alright, the second method: to write “a” separately without a pattern... We're not

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going to make a pattern... But it's almost the same. [*She shows the children many times how to write 'a' on the board while making gestures*].

54. T: Look, class... Line... Back on the line –tummy first – straight up – straight down... Finger – space... Back on the line ... One movement with no stop.
55. T: Are you doing what I say, or are you doing your own things? Everyone put your finger on your lips. [*For discipline management purposes*].
56. T: Ee.... ee, there must be a gap between each 'a' [*some children write without space between a*].
57. T: We're going to make a capital letter for 'a' and we need two lines for that... Well, we're going to write capital in how many lines?
58. C: Two lines (choral response).
59. T: Okay, capital letter... Do we use capital letters at the begging of the.... [*Choosing Andrew*]?
60. C5: (Andrew): Sentence.
61. T: Well done my boy... Or [*pointing to a learner*] and you what about you, Thabo for...?
62. C6 (Thabo): A name.
63. T: Good... I'm going to start at the top... I am drawing two lines... Can you see that I'm not starting on the red line?
64. T: [*After the instruction and exhibition on the board the teacher walks around to check whether children get it right and all the instruction has been followed*].

**Extract of the affective strategy of the above lesson:** In this third lesson (lines 45-64), the teacher is teaching the learners how to draw the letter "a". The teacher is very encouraging and patient. This can be seen in sentences like "It doesn't matter if you're not done" (line 45), "I must do it very

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slowly... are you following” (line 46), “It’s not going to be perfect... you need to practice again and again.” (Line 50), “well done my boy” (line 61) and “good...” (Line 63). She also calls learners by their name (line 62), showing a personal relationship with the learners. All these examples reveal an affective teaching approach.

#### **4.2.1.1 Collective analysis of teacher Rosie’s teaching practices**

In lesson 1 (lines 1-16) of the extract, teacher Rosie opens the day with prayer and a story. Storytelling is a good way to get children motivated to learn and explore beyond the classroom, however, it only works if learners understand the story. If the story is told in English and learners are struggling with that language, then it is unlikely that it will motivate them or stimulate their imaginations because they will be struggling with basic comprehension instead. Young children love hearing stories and gain a great deal of enjoyment from them. Therefore, the teacher uses age-appropriate storybooks to convey important messages while invoking and strengthening learners’ imaginations.

In the transcribed segment above (1-16), it is clear that the teacher is making use of a Bible story to stimulate the learners into thinking about how to make friends, what it means to be a friend as well as including good reasons for choosing friends are. The teacher also goes on to describe the characteristics of a good friend to give learners a basic idea of what friendship would look like in reality. An essential part of a child’s social and emotional development, that is an important attribute to growing up, is the ability to make friends. Therefore, giving learners a simple understanding of the concept of friendship and how this relationship functions, is crucial in the development of characteristics such as self-esteem, self-confidence, altruism, and social competence, all of which are gained through friendships, and which have been proven to positively affect a child’s development (Arnold, 2011; Aragao, 2011; Mendez and Pena, 2013).

This understanding of friendship is of great importance particularly for migrant learners who often struggle to communicate effectively, in languages that are not their mother tongue. Therefore, the benefits that friendship hold can have many positive effects on the struggles these learners face about self-esteem, self-confidence, and social competence (Arnold, 2011; Krashen, 1994; Heath, 2007). Self-esteem, self-confidence, and social competence are what affective teaching aims to promote. Affective teaching methods emphasise the importance of the learner’s emotional wellbeing and thus aims to develop emotional stability of the child to promote high self-esteem and high self-confidence. According to Arnold (2011), for learners to learn language and literacy

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content effectively, teaching should be focussed around developing these specific aspects of students' personalities. Generally speaking, migrant students often demonstrate a lack of positive regard towards themselves and their peers. Where educators fail to recognise the importance of such activities, their learning process will be hindered (Arnold, 2011; Krashen, 1994; Brown, 2000).

Through self-esteem, self-confidence, and social competence, children can learn about themselves and the environment around them, developing a unique personality. According to Minghe & Yuan (2013), there are two related elements in a foreign language and literacy teaching and learning. The first element is the individual aspect of learners, which includes motivation, anxiety, inhibition, self-esteem, etc. The second element is a relational factor between learners themselves, as well as between learners and the teacher, such as empathy and interaction with others. Friendship is essential for people all ages and while it is an essential aspect for children, it is important for teenagers as well as adults. As children make friends who are not fluent in the same mother tongue, it allows children to learn different languages that they would otherwise not be exposed to. At the same time, children are more likely to learn how to speak the language if they hear it from their friends and this will benefit them in the classroom. Friends throughout one's life continue to affect one's experiences and assist in areas where one would previously, without friends, be at a disadvantage.

In lesson 2 (lines 17-23), the teacher is attempting to create a safe environment for the learners where mistakes are viewed as part of the learning experience and not something to be ridiculed or mocked. The teacher enforces this point by stating that everyone, from the Principal to herself, makes mistakes and that it is simply part of learning and not something to be feared; or something that should prevent them from participating or getting involved in classroom discussions or activities. This teaching strategy aims to boost the self-confidence of the learners and to lower their anxiety. This is what affective teaching aims to achieve. In support of this, Minghe and Yuan (2013) state that learners are inspired to communicate in English confidently through their continued efforts, and encouragement of their teachers. Therefore, it is helpful if teachers do not focus on their learners' basic language errors. Through consistent reassurance and assistance, teachers may help pupils increase their self-esteem and reduce their anxieties.

This safe environment is of great benefit to migrant learners who often refrain from participating in class due to the fear of making mistakes and being ridiculed for them. According to Garza et al. (2014), it is important for a teacher to recognise the way in which they approach their learners, especially learners from minority backgrounds, because these learners may have to make more adjustments than English speaking learners when adjusting to the learning environment. This

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approach, in an English Second Language instruction setting, can allow an otherwise shy learner, or one who feels embarrassed by their lack of fluency in English, to participate meaningfully in classroom discussion. Arnold (2011) believes that in dealing with language learners in the classroom context, the teacher should not only focus on students' intellectual needs but also their emotional needs. By being aware of learners' emotional needs, teachers will be able to adjust their teaching practices accordingly in order to ensure effective learning for every learner – regardless of their background and/or language proficiency.

In the second activity (lines 24-30), the teacher and learners are playing and singing children's songs with gestures while teaching learners about patterns. This clearly attempts to build intimate, interpersonal relationships in the classroom. It is evident that the classroom is not only an environment where formal learning takes place, but it is also a place of co-constructing personal relationships between the students and the teacher. Numerous studies have found that migrant learners perform better when they are exposed to good teaching and when they have a personal relationship with their teacher (Arnold, 2011; Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011; Salinas, Franquiz, & Reidel, 2008).

Teachers making use of songs, jokes, and anecdotes, etc in order to close the distance between herself and her learners, all serve to humanise the affective climate of the classroom and to ease learners' anxieties (Minghe and Yuan, 2013). Children enjoy songs and find them easier to remember and more interesting than ordinary text. Songs also help encourage correct pronunciation and improve their vocabulary a lot faster than learning from official texts in a natural way. Songs are useful when working with language learners, in this case, migrant learners, as they develop learners' sound awareness skills as well as their vocabulary. Further, learners do not need to know the language to sing in it. The teacher can ask learners to translate an English song into French or any other language text and can help the learners with literacy learning, such as children translating instructions and reviewing the result with other learners who share the same language. Teachers can use songs to practise listening, reading, speaking, and writing with learners. In this way, the use of songs can be seen as an effective way in which to create an environment that is interesting for the learners and this motivates them to engage in sustained learning.

Similarly, play is an integral part of a child's learning, as seen in lines 24-30, and, according to Vygotsky (1978), lays the foundation for genuine learning achievements that lead to a higher level of action. The importance, here, is that the teacher fulfills a minor role that places an emphasis on direction, moving from a position of strict authority to one who simply guides the play activity – allowing children to be in control of their own actions. Leong and Bodrova (2003) encourage this

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idea - emphasising the teacher as a guide rather than an enforcer - and considers play as being necessary to learning, because it improves a number of capacities, such as “memory, oral language ability and deeper engagement in literary activities” (p. 30).

In lesson 2 (lines 31-44), the teacher makes use of the game to pave a way for children’s learning. For example, the teacher entertains the learners using gesture games to get their attention at the beginning of the lesson. The teacher calls learners by their names, makes use of polite expressions, such as please, to address them and reward good answers with praise. By referring to the children on an individual level and by rewarding good answers with praise, the learners feel more important and are encouraged to continuously engage in the classroom environment.

These actions help to motivate learners and improve their self-esteem and confidence as they are made to feel good about themselves after they have participated in the classroom activity. This self-esteem and confidence help shape learners’ identities, which then drives them towards good behaviour (Arnold, 2011; Mendez and Pena, 2013). When the learners are disruptive, the teacher does not lose her temper or shout, rather regains discipline in a social way, by reminding the learners about the classroom rules and the consequences of any disruptive behaviour. The teacher makes sure the learners all understand the lesson before letting them out to break. The above example shows how the teacher continually creates a respectful and safe environment for children to learn within and further how the teacher does not resort to anger but rather tries to indicate to the learners why their behaviour is not acceptable in the classroom.

In lesson 3 (lines 45-64), the teacher models writing with the class (lines 45-48) and learners individually (49-64). Initially, the teacher gains the learner’s attention by repeatedly insisting that they must look first before they try to write the “a”. She then demonstrates it three times, step by step, before asking the class to try it with her. Her instructions are very explicit so that learners can follow her independently. After showing the class, she walks around the class, going to the struggling learners and supporting them in their efforts by directing their hands to make them write in their exercise books. This is an example of the scaffolding approach in which a teacher attempts to support every step of the pupils’ learning. At the same time, she is trying to build their self-esteem by encouraging them to keep trying and saying that it does not matter if they do not get it right the first time.

Once the teacher has attended to the struggling learners, the teacher returns to the entire class to demonstrate how to write an “a” again. This demonstrates that the teacher is aware of the varying abilities within the class and to meet the different needs, she uses a range of methods to provide support. In this passage, the teacher’s practices are reflective and demonstrative of the principles

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of affective pedagogy as suggested by Minghe and Yuan (2013). They suggest that the central component of affective pedagogy is that educators take into account the differences between learners and evaluate their learning background and need to develop a suitable teaching strategy – one that caters for all learners. Literacy teachers should motivate learners to take part in classroom activities and activities beyond the classroom, while simultaneously trying to mitigate their anxiety, boosting their self-confidence and trying to create more opportunities for literacy practice to enhance learner’s literacy ability (Minghe and Yuan, 2013).

For those studying in a language other than their home language, such as Congolese learners in an English school, the concepts of scaffolding and mediation, which are shown above, are crucial. These concepts suggest that explicit instruction is necessary for teachers regarding the challenges of learning in a second language and that more overt instruction and support need to be given to learners who are studying in a second language, to consolidate the basics of the teaching language (Turuk, 2008). The ability of these learners to acquire proficient English and literacy skills depends largely upon the establishment of basic English-language foundations by their instructors (Turuk, 2008). Teachers could prioritise the establishment of these skills to empower secondlanguage learners, in this case, Congolese children, to work independently. Second-language learners without an understanding of these foundational skills cannot accurately complete tasks requiring a high level of English understanding. In light of this, we can say teaching is effective when the child can reach their full capacity. This depends on the teacher’s ability to build interest and engage their learners as well as each child’s participation and individual commitment (Ng’ambi and Hardman 2004). Children learn to develop language and literacy abilities through real opportunities and support provided by experienced individuals (i.e., parents, teachers, or peers).

Throughout the lesson, teacher Rosie showed her caring attitude towards her learners. Rosie bridged the language barrier by attempting to innovatively involve her pupils with learning activities such as role-playing, music, dance, and games. Rosie’s innovative technique to teaching relates to Leong and Bodrova’s literature (2003) which states that “the learners can also be exposed to the teaching language through a variety of different formats, such as games, role-play and music, all of which enable them to learn through interaction”. Furthermore, Ng’ambi and Hardman (2004) argue that “the enthusiasm of the learners depends heavily on the creativity of the teacher’s approach” which further bolsters learner’s ability to learn and progress academically.

The level of sincerity and caring shown by teacher Rosie in her classroom positively affected the learners. This level of caring, Pang argues (2005, in Gaza et al., 2014), increases the learner’s ability to learn because it is an active effort being put into the life of the learner that is continuous

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throughout the academic term or year. Teacher Rosie's level of tolerance for struggling learners is rather high. It appears that teacher Rosie takes an active approach in caring for her pupils and is empathetic to their plights (learning in a second language). Teacher Rosie was able to connect with learners, as opposed to merely doing the bare minimum of completing the curriculum. Rosie's efforts encourage learners to do better academically due to the fact that their behaviour improves – teacher Rosie's discipline techniques are tempered. She does not become aggressive or angry with the learners.

Furthermore, teacher Rosie rewards good behaviour and academic success. This sort of teaching and discipline practices are very influential, according to Gaza et al (2014), in building relationships between the teacher and learner. Ultimately, the learner's confidence benefits from the interaction between the concerned teacher and the struggling learner, affecting discipline and academic success (Pang, 2005). A learner's perception of himself or herself is often strongly influenced by the teacher as well – A child would consider himself/herself stupid/clever depending on what the teacher considers him/her to be. A child in teacher Rosie's class is likely to have a positive perception of himself/herself based on her supportive teaching practices that motivate children to do better. Therefore, educating learners is not simply a knowledge exchanging process, but more of an interactive process in which the learners and teachers interact with each other on a personal level.

The caring attitude described above from the teaching practice of teacher Rosie can also be noticed in her philosophy of teaching, which she discusses in the interview below where she explains how she works with diversity amongst learners and how she deals with the emotional aspects of learning.

*“Yeah, a teacher must set a good example of accepting those kids. It's okay if they are different, it's okay if they're taking longer to learn if they don't understand what I am teaching the class. And also teaching other children at school that everyone is different... but to be different does not mean you are wrong. We accept everyone for who they are. Showing an example of acceptance and patience is important. Being different is normal; there is nothing wrong with that. Treat that child the same way as you treat the others... When learners give the wrong answer because of the language issue, the last thing I want to do is to embarrass them. Sometimes I congratulate them for trying...and I make their classmates understand their situation.... it is difficult for them because they don't know the language... I give clues that might lead to him or her saying the correct answer and let him or her try again... I also try not to use language that they might not understand. In some cases, I even ask one of the other children to*

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*translate a question if they don't understand.... Be patient, use body language, peers help yeah, yeah.*"(Teacher Rosie, 2017).

The above example shows how the teacher takes into account the subjective nature of different pupils and how different backgrounds and language abilities can contribute to a lack of understanding. The teacher acknowledges that everyone is different and is thus accepting of the learners' differences and is subsequently patient with the learners who learn at a slower rate. Furthermore, it can be seen how the teacher creates an environment where children are not ridiculed or mocked for their lack of understanding or learning ability. Rather, the teacher emphasises the need for class cooperation and a friendly learning environment in which all learners can successfully gain the knowledge of the teacher.

An interesting finding can be drawn from teacher Rosie's statement during her interview (Teacher Rosie, 24/03/2017). Teacher Rosie highlighted that the children required attention regardless of their cultural differences. During her teaching career, she had not noticed any differences in a child's ability to learn due to cultural differences and that in fact, the only hindrance was due to a difference between the child's home language and the language of learning and teaching. Teacher Rosie indicated that it was imperative for a teacher to know his/her pupils well and be able to identify on what literacy level each child is. This is because children that are at a lower level of literacy required more attention than those who are on a higher level of literacy.

In her response (Teacher Rosie, 24/03/2017) demonstrates that a learner who may know the material may not be willing to raise their hand to participate more actively, hence, the learning environment is not as constructive as it could be if participation does not take place. In other words, the learner only passively "builds" their knowledge. In addition, a teaching environment can be actively destructive if the teacher-learner relationship is poor and thereby creates problems for others. Gaza et al. (2014) put forward evidence to confirm this. Gaza et al. (2014) note that "Positive relationships between teachers and learners are among the most commonly cited variables associated with effective instruction". Of course, this is not to skew teaching only towards building a relationship, because this implies that no instruction takes place at all. Therefore, is it imperative for teachers to not only focus on the traditional 'textbook knowledge' aspect of teaching but also to focus on the interactive, personal, and subjective experience when teaching with children. According to Mendez and Pena (2013), the effectiveness of teaching and learning processes can be better understood if emotions are considered as being an important part of those processes and deserving of attention.

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#### 4.2.1.1.1 Interview with teacher Rosie

During the interview, when I asked the teacher Rosie how she copes in teaching literacy in the foundation phase and keeping the children motivated, she replied:

*“The best way of teaching literacy in the foundation phase is to make it as practical, interesting, and visual as possible. First, I try to make the classroom environment as comfortable as possible for the learners... And to motivate children I try to read stories with an interesting tone. I also show them my enthusiasm when writing or reading. I also try to make topics interesting when they need to write something. Modeling writing is also very important for those learners who struggle to read and write. I make time to help kids who are struggling with English and Maths. I meet with them twice a week for extra lessons” (Teacher Rosie, 2017).*

Here, teacher Rosie makes it clear that she goes out of her way to ensure her pupils get the attention that they need when trying to learn basic literacy. Due to this, she is able to switch between teaching methods, which in turn, keeps the learners interested and motivated. In the quote below, teacher Rosie explains that teaching is not solely about the conveying of simple facts but it also includes the practice of understanding the particular needs of each child and thus attending to each child based on their needs.

*“I try to treat everyone fairly. Obviously, every child has different needs. It doesn't matter the culture which they come from all children want attention. They want you to be there for them to give them attention to whatever. So far, I didn't figure out any difference in the culture it's just the language. Basically, I treat everybody the same.... A good teacher is somebody who understands the children in the classroom and who knows the children. And also see which level they are and try to teach them accordingly” (Teacher Rosie, 2017).*

The following is a transcription of my observations made in teacher Claire's classroom. Claire is one of two grade three teachers at St Octavia primary school. An analysis of these observations will follow the transcription.

#### 4.2.2 Observations of teacher Claire's teaching practices:

1. Opening day with Prayer

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2. Mondays are a time for sharing; the teacher starts an open discussion by sharing with the class something she did on the weekend. The students are then allowed to share something about their weekend.
  3. T: What is prayer?
  4. Class: Praying is talking to God (choral response)
  5. T: Knowing about St. Octavia: St. Octavia was a martyr. She was a gentle young girl who loved God and didn't want to get married to a rich man so she was killed. Today is celebrating St. Octavia day. There's a church service to attend. After church at 11.20, the teacher starts the lesson. Last time we learned...?
  6. Class: Antonym (choral response).
  7. T: What does antonym mean?
  8. Class: Opposite (choral response).
  9. T: I'm going to give you words and you give me the opposite.
  10. T: Girl.
  11. Class: Boy (choral response).
  12. T: Old.
  13. Class: Young.
  14. T: Last.
  15. Class: First.
  16. T: Weak.
  17. Class: Strong.
  18. T: Wet.
  19. Class: Dry.
  20. T: Rich.
  21. Class: Poor.
  22. T: Cold.
  23. Class: Hot.
  24. T: On.
  25. Class: Off.
  26. T: In.
  27. Class: Out.
  28. T: Top.

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29. Class: Bottom.
  30. T: Day.
  31. Class: Night.
  32. T: Large.
  33. Class: Small.
  34. T: Inside.
  35. Class: Outside.
  36. T: Fast.
  37. Class: Slow.
  38. T: Under.
  39. Class: Over (with the help of the teacher).
  40. T: Wide.
  41. Class: Narrow.
  42. T: Above.
  43. Class: Below (with the help of the teacher).
  44. T: Cry.
  45. Class: Laugh (with the help of the teacher).
  46. When kids get stuck the teacher explains with a gesture, acting out without saying a word.
  47. Afterward, the teacher says to class “give me the opposite of this sentence: The old lady frowned at the puppy.” No one knew.
  48. T: Always if you don’t look at me you don’t listen to me. I need you to look at me.
  49. T: Who’s making a sound like a parrot?
  50. Class: Laugh.
  51. After going through the antonyms with the whole class the teacher distributes a sheet with a list of the words for the kids to match each word with its antonym.

**Extract of the affective strategy of the above lesson:** From the lesson above (lines 1-51), teacher Claire begins her Monday lessons by first sharing something she did on the weekend. Then she allows the learners to share some of their activities from the weekend too (line 2). This is a way of building relationships not only between the teacher and the learners but also between the learners themselves. It allows the learners to become confident at conversing with their peers and teachers. Teacher Claire is also seen bringing a sense of humour into the class in the following instances: “who’s making a sound like a parrot?” (Line 50) and the class begins to laugh. This uplifts the

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classroom atmosphere. This example of teacher Claire's teaching is exactly the goal of affective teaching.

### **Lesson 2: Writing**

52. Before the lesson, the teacher calls the class to the front and gets them to sit on the mat while raising her voice at a disruptive learner and sending him to the office, accompanied by another learner. Turning to another and shouts move back! (Shouting to a child in front of her). Ok .... cross your legs (talking to some learners).
53. T: Today we're going to do the writing ...Sorry, I'm writing on the wrong line.
54. Class: Silence, some learners look terrified.
55. T: Excuse me (staring at the class to see who's talking).
56. Class: Silence.
57. T: Somebody is talking...I hear somebody talking.
58. T: Boys and girls I'm still not happy with the way you're writing otherwise and bottom on the line... When you're writing the next sentence to do is not to sophisticate a... otherwise, it's gonna take one whole page to write the three sentences. So watch what I'm doing and then I'll have to check and I'm gonna walk around. So we're gonna do today the V: - Small v and capital letter V (teacher writes "v and V" on the board) and says, can you give me words that start with the V? Kyria.
59. Kyria: Violate.
60. T: Violate, viola, violent, and then?
61. Kyria: Violet (the same learner).
62. T: Violent. Excuse me (staring at a learner who wants to talk to his friend). Put up your hand (talking to the learner who's trying to answer without permission) turning to another learner who's talking to his friend... Get out of my class and I'll be with you now (talking to a learner who is talking to someone else) you know one thing... You know how right, then we have W (Pause) .....So we're writing next to each other (writing v V, Ww on the board).
63. T: Excuse me, who keeps laughing (calling a learner's name and makes him out)? I told you today, I told you last week if you give me any trouble I'll kick you out of my class.... shhh, shhh, shhh you're also one of them, so be quiet (turning to another learner who wants to say something) (silence).....Pause.

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64. T: Somebody is talking while I'm busy (calling the disrupter by his name and kicks him out) Out! (teacher shouts at him and the rest of the class become silent no one talking) (Pause)... Right (teacher continues to write on the board) .... Capital letter, start a sentence with a capital letter (The teacher writes a sentence that has "V and W" on the board while spelling it out): Will you watch my van. Okay? (Asking the class) No one responding.... now (turning to a learner who's talking, excuse me, excuse me calling a learner who wants to talk.
65. T: The teacher gives instruction to the class, you'll write underneath here not on the same page underneath here. Go sit down (Sending the class back to their respective seats for writing activity). T: I just need to speak to the children outside (talking to the class) .... Quickly (learner go back to their seats) (Pause) I count to five and you must start (talking to the class) ... (Counting) one, two, three (learners go back quickly to their place and start writing) four and five. I still need to speak to the boys outside quickly (the teacher goes out).
66. After five minutes, she came back and walked around the class to check the learner's work... (Talking to a learner) you're still on the date you're working slowly... gives some help to the learner.

**Extract of the affective strategy of the above lesson:** From the lesson above (lines 52-66), the atmosphere in the class changes dramatically from the previous lesson we looked at. In this lesson above, we see the teacher raising her voice at the learners (line 54, 65) and is seen putting learners out of her class (lines 62-65). Learners seem terrified (line 54). This is an example of teaching that does not produce a conducive learning environment and is not an example of affective teaching.

### **Lesson 3: Reading activity: Story - I like to help my Grandmother**

67. T: Who has a grandmother?
68. Class: Me ....me (hand up).
69. T: Shshhshh...What does your Grandmother like doing?
70. Lusenda: My Grandmother likes cooking.
71. T: Okay your grandmother cooks what does your grandmother like doing? (Pointing at another student) Kyria.
72. Kyria: My grandmother likes to bake.
73. T: She likes to bake with you okay... You. (Turning to another student) What does your grandmother like doing Isabella?

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74. Isabella: My Grandmother likes to make jewelry
75. T: What does she make? Talking to Isabella.
76. Isabella: Jewelry.
77. T: Okay your grandmother makes jewelry. Okay, anyone else pointing at another student.
78. Anita: My Grandmother like sowing.
79. T: Okay, your Grandmother sews. Another one (pointing at another student) what does your Grandmother like doing?
80. Eunice: My Grandmother likes to take me out.
81. T: Okay, your Grandmother likes to take you out. It seems that Grandmothers like baking, sewing, cooking, and even making jewelry. Grandmothers are very creative they like to do all sorts of things..... So, Grandmothers are very, very special they are still young. See they get up early in the morning and they go to work. Whose Grandmother still works?
82. Class: Eeeeeeh (choral response).
83. T: Okay, whose Grandmother still works, they get up in the morning they dress up and go to work?
84. Inga: My Grandmother works at the farm.
85. T: Sorry, farm ok. What do they sell at the farm?
86. Inga: Vegetable, onions, potato...
87. T: Okay your Grandmother works at the farm anyone else whose Grandmother works?
88. Tumi: My Grandmother sells clothes.
89. T: So your Grandmother spoils you?
90. Class: Eeeh (choral response).
91. T: Okay, let's hear this Grandmother's story is all about. It says I like to help my Grandmother. Okay, let's read together.
92. Class: Choral reading.
93. T: Okay, let me read quickly (Talking to the class). Calling a learner and asking her to read. Can you read the first of the story (instructing the rest of the class to follow in their book)? Pointing at one learner after another to read while following how each learner reads. After

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reading the teacher sends learners to the board two by two to write the words she tells them to write.

**Extract of the affective strategy of the above lesson:** From this lesson above (line 67-93), we see the teacher calling learners by their names and talking about a topic (Grandmothers) that all learners can relate to and the teacher is seen facilitating communication in this lesson. Calling learners by their name is a way of showing consideration to the learners. This is also an example of affective teaching.

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#### 4.2.2.1 Collective Analysis of teacher Claire's teaching Practices:

In lesson 1 (line 2), the teacher gets children to talk about something they did on the weekend. She repeated this activity every Monday as it ensures that the learners practice their English and is a way of encouraging learners to speak, including the shy children. This fosters a relationship between the teacher and learners as well as between the learners themselves by finding common ground between them.

In lesson 1 (turn 5-51), It can be said in this extract that the teacher asks the great majority of questions to stimulate some kind of participatory response from the learners. She then evaluates the replies the children give. She is also using questions to direct the content of the talk, to form the 'antonym' of the words towards issues that she wishes to focus attention on, as in participating in classroom talk learners acquire ways of talking as well as ways of thinking specific to a particular subject. In line 49-50, the teacher makes use of humour. This creates a fun atmosphere and helps learners relax in a classroom.

In lesson 2 (lines 52-66), the teacher is trying to get her class to calm down and keep quiet. She does so by raising her voice and using a stern tone. She also makes use of punishment by sending a disruptive learner to the school office and sending some children out of the class. The children, in turn, feel frightened and they remain silent. The teacher wants absolute silence before she continues her lesson on the new letter of the day. She is not happy with the way the learners are currently writing and she expects them to be quicker and not worry so much on what their writing looks like. She then tells the class to look at what she is doing on the board and follow her example. She says she will shortly be walking around the class and looking at how the children's writing was coming along.

First, she asks a girl in her class to give her an example of a word that starts with the letter 'v'. The learner gives an example of a word starting with 'v' and the teacher then further expands on other words starting with a 'v'. While the teacher was giving examples of words starting with the letter 'v', learners answer her question without raising their hand and asking for permission. While the teacher is dealing with the child that did not ask for permission to answer the question, she turns to another child who was talking and tells the child to get out of her classroom and that she will deal with him shortly. Another learner laughs at the situation and the teacher tells him to get out. She reminds the class of what she said last week that she would have no talking or nonsense in her class and that she would kick out any child that was being disruptive. She points out a boy in her class,

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says that he is also one of the disruptive learners and shouts “keep quiet”, and tells them to be silent. The class is once again frightened. The teacher turns around and says that someone is talking while she is talking. She calls out a learner for talking and tells him to get out.

The teacher moves forward with her lesson. This time she not only writes a word starting with the letter ‘v’ but also creates a sentence using the letter. The teacher gives the children instructions on what work they need to do while she is dealing with naughty learners she had sent outside for being disruptive. She gives the children 5 seconds to get to their desks from the mat and start doing their work. She counts aloud one, two, three, four, five, and the children run to their respective desks. After talking to the disruptive children outside for about 5 minutes, she comes back into the class and inspects the children’s work. She is not happy with one learner who is working very slowly and is still only on the date. The teacher decides to give her some help.

From the above description, we can see that the teacher’s intentions are good as she only wants the best for her learners and expects good quality work and discipline. However, the methods she uses to control and discipline the children do not create a conducive learning environment because she shouts too much and the children feel frightened. teacher Claire is reactive. There are many teacher warnings directed at misbehaving learners. Children need to know you care about them and want them to do well. When they know you love them no matter what, it makes an impact on their heart and behaviour.

The children need to speak and engage with the English language and literacy to learn it properly however the teacher is not affording them this opportunity because of the strict rules. Zhang (2014) argues that a classroom with an encouraging environment is important for the overall development of students. Since the teacher has a significant influence on how classroom dynamics develop, it is especially important for the teacher to create a classroom where students feel safe asking questions and contributing to discussions. Children learn to develop language and literacy abilities through real opportunities and support provided by experienced individuals (i.e., parents, teachers, or peers) (Vygotsky, 1978). The children also do not feel free in this learning space because of the teacher’s rules and shouting. There have been constant complaints about the teacher raising her voice at learners. This is causing the learners to feel uncomfortable in class and might affect their academic performance.

Some children reported the teachers shouting to their parents and this led to the parents having to come to the school and get involved in meetings with the teacher. With the parents stating that the environment that the teacher had created does not promote harmony between the learners and the teacher. I think the teacher needs to come up with clear strategies that will allow her to build

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relationships with learners rather than letting constant tension control the classroom. The teacher needs to learn more about herself as it is the teacher's behaviour that is going to be appreciated or imitated. A calm, balanced, humorous, and yet keeping all-attentive to the lesson of the day would be a good idea. It seems that there is little positive reinforcement from the teacher. In addition, teacher enthusiasm is lacking. There is little teacher movement around the room. The teacher generally stays toward the front of the room. Guess where most of the behaviour problems occur? The teacher does most of the talking, and the learners do a little listening.

Lesson 3 (lines 67-93) is about a reading activity. The teacher is reading a story to the learner titled 'I like to help my Grandmother'. Before starting to read the picture book, the teacher asks many questions based on the story's topic. She also allows children to share stories and personal experiences about what their Grandmothers like to do. This is to enable learner's participation and interaction during the reading activity. The learners were motivated to participate because everyone could relate to the topic. In support of this, Vygotsky (1978) says that in making information more relatable and relevant to learners' life experiences, the teacher makes learning more meaningful and more effective.

After motivating the learners and getting their attention, the teacher asks the class to read the story altogether. However, this was slow, due to different levels of reading ability, so the teacher decided to read alone. Instead of her reading the story, she chose three or four learners to read sections to the class. These learners were all strong readers. This left out the weaker learners, as they did not get a chance to read aloud. However, this is understandable as the teacher has a syllabus to cover each day. The downside is that she did not provide support to the other learners, which reinforces the disparity between the learners. Minghe & Yuan (2013) argue that affective pedagogy recognises the learner's uniqueness, background, and this should be the focus of teachers in the classroom. The teacher failed to cater to individual student's learning needs, which Vygotsky suggests is necessary to nurture both independent and collaborative learning (Karpov, 1998).

I observed one girl who did not seem to be making any connections to the classroom routine. I found her to be very quiet and attempted to pass on without attention being placed on her. When I asked her about this, she said because she could not speak English she did not feel comfortable speaking English. She also had a fear of making a mistake, which could lead to confrontation and classmates making fun of her. The teacher, for the most part, did not care about her and thus left her alone for most of the lesson, as she did not know the language. Unable to speak the language the girl reacted by simply following other classmates as they proceeded their activities. As seen in Minghe and Yuan's theory, this specific girl felt lost and experienced a hard time coping in a

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primary English classroom due to the failure of the teacher to account for her unique academic needs. She became isolated, developed frustration, and was considered an outcast (Minghe & Yuan, 2013).

In line 93, the teacher sends the learners to the front of the classroom to participate in a dictation exercise and encourages participation and applause when tasks were completed. Positive reinforcement was utilized very effectively. Corrections to mistakes were presented pleasantly. When a learner made a mistake and other learners began to make fun of the learner, the teacher stood up for him, asking the learners how they would feel if they were treated this way. As such, the environment was very encouraging. The teacher's approach, in an English second language instruction setting, can allow an otherwise shy learner, or one who feels embarrassed by their lack of fluency in English, to participate meaningfully. In support of this teacher's approach, Kerman et al., (1980) argue that the way in which a teacher approaches a student, especially one from a minority background, because they may have to make more adjustments than most when trying to make a learning environment safe and caring. Caring can be a hugely influential way to build a relationship between a student and a teacher (Kerman et al., 1980).

While I was there, the educator was called to the office. One of the educator's colleagues was left in charge. During this time learners continued with their work activities. One learner was struggling, unfortunately, this learner was reprimanded for this, and this very wrong as this child was struggling and needed help rather than to be shamed in front of his peers. There was a German woman that assisted this learner and the learner was then able to understand the work and do it independently. The German woman's teaching practices fall in line with Bruner's work (1978 cited in Burns & De Silva Joyce, 2005) that suggests, that explicit instruction is necessary for teachers regarding the challenges of learning in an unfamiliar language and that more overt instruction and support need to be given to learners who are studying in an unfamiliar language, to consolidate the basics of the teaching language. The ability of these learners to acquire proficient English skills depends largely upon the establishment of basic English-language foundations by their instructors. When second-language learners are present within a class, it is necessary for tasks and activities to be leveled accordingly, taking their language bias into consideration

#### **4.2.2.1.1 Interview with teacher Claire**

During my interviews with the teachers, I asked them about the support that they provided for struggling learners. To protect their identities, all the participants' names in this chapter are pseudonyms. The first teacher, who I will call teacher Claire, replied:

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*“Thanks, we’re trying our best. Depending on the situation, either we send them to the resource classes for extra intervention classes and support reading groups ... or get them to engage with more English speaking children.... on the other hand; here at school, we encourage parents to learn English so they can assist their children... we even organise workshops for parents... Keeping in touch with parents in case kids are weak and tell them this is how your kid is weak if you can help them at home...” I have 36 children in my class. Out of 36 children, only eighteen have English as a mother tongue. It’s important for parents to support their kids at home” (Teacher Claire, 2017).*

She expanded on the concept of resource classes:

*“Okay, the resource class is a class that accommodates children who cannot cope in a mainstream class... Here, they are equipped with extra resources to cope with their schoolwork... They do the same work as the mainstream pupils, only they do it slower and work through topics bit by bit to ensure each child can grasp the work completely.”(Teacher Claire, 2017).*

Teacher Claire’s interview above clearly alludes to the fact that all the support provided by the school to the struggling learners is more cognitively based rather than emotionally based. In the following section, I will compare and discuss the different teaching approaches used by the two Grade 3 teachers that have been discussed individually in the sections above.

### **4.3 Comparison of teacher Rosie and teacher Claire’s teaching practices**

There is a sharp contrast between the teaching styles and personalities of the two teachers and the effects of these differences are noticeable. Teacher Rosie is very social, understanding, empathetic, and patient with her learners. This personality helps learners feel comfortable and creates an atmosphere where learners are not afraid to approach her and ask questions. This could be because she too is a mother and can relate more personally to the needs of children. She expressed that she had previously been a dentist and had entered the teaching vocation specifically to invest in the younger generation. This commitment seems evident in her teaching. Being the younger of the teachers, she may have been exposed to less of the attitudes and behaviour prevalent during the discriminative system of apartheid. Teacher Clair, on the other hand, is task-oriented and seems to care more about her job as opposed to the wellbeing and interests of her learners. She is easily frustrated, impatient, sometimes overly sensitive, and has a very indifferent personality to Rosie.

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The reasons for such attitudes and behaviour could go beyond her personality. With her almost thirty years of teaching experience, she likely has been exposed to influences that have impacted her personal beliefs about education, authority, and race, all of which could play a role in forming her teaching style.

In a multicultural classroom, learners have a wide range of background experiences. These lead to differences in the initial level of proficiency they have in English. Furthermore, not all learners are exposed to books and other literature at an early age in their home environment. These learners do not have a grasp on English that learners who did grow up reading English literature have. Second language learners are often only exposed to English at school and so require a variety of approaches that are different from those used with native English speakers (Gibbons, 2009). In light of observations made during my fieldwork at St. Octavia Primary School (a single school), it is clear that both teachers (Teachers Rosie and Claire) who were observed place a lot of emphasis on speaking and listening to aid the development of learners' English communication skills as well as their vocabulary. This is most commonly carried out through the use of stories so that learners have the opportunity to distinguish between the sounds and the letters within a context. This use of storytelling as a key means of developing learners English in this school is utilized to the extent that it is common for teachers to both begin and end the school day with a story to consistently expose learners to the speaking and listening of English.

Both teachers, Claire and Rosie used stories as a way of introducing new words and concepts to the learners, choosing certain words from the story, and then further developing them through antonym and synonym exercises. The story is a way in which to make the learners interact with the words within the story and makes the antonym and synonym exercise interesting because the words are endowed with meaning because of the story. Every time they read a word, they ask either for its opposite or for its synonym to the class (For example, early, found, dry, young, late, lost, wet, old). While telling the story, the teachers changed their voice for different characters, for instance, they spoke deeply, changed the volume, and sometimes used an accent. After class, I asked them why they did so and they said that the reason was to bring the characters to life. The teachers also used repetition when describing concepts and repeating it several times. When I asked at the end of class why they did that they said it was because children learn through constant repetition of the work. The children were greatly immersed in these stories and listened with their full attention. One would see they enjoyed it a lot. The stories read did not have a western focus –the classroom environment was inclusive. The teachers even made the learners bring an item that was important and symbolic to them.

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For phonics instruction to be effective, it must be well-paced (Rose, 2005). Teachers must make sure that they are not teaching too slowly or too quickly so to keep up to date but also to keep the learners interested in the work. The teacher should ensure that literacy activities are conducted within a context that learners can relate to. This is because learners find it much easier to participate when the context is relatable to them (Gibbons, 2009). The danger of teaching phonics in isolation is that the learners may be able to decode the letters but be unable to understand the deeper meaning or context of the passage. Teachers of such learners should ensure that activities work orally with written text before it is used in its written form. These learners find it much easier to relate to what is spoken than to what is written. Once the spoken word is clearly understood through the use of stories, the teacher can introduce learners to the written text (Gibbons, 2009; Rose, 2005).

Reading stories to children is thus an essential tool for developing vocabulary skills as well as for igniting an interest in reading. Stories serve as positive anchors as learners readily get into "listening to a story" mood and are therefore primed for learning the language component in the context in which it is being taught (Dickinson et al., 1994). In cultivating a love of reading in learners, and therefore establishing reading as a vital component of language learning, it is important for teachers to model good reading habits at all times. Thus, they will be able to share their knowledge and experiences with children and develop reading further as a cooperative activity.

Furthermore, learners may also be given the opportunity to take part in formulating stories. However, it is important for the teacher to take into consideration the learner's background knowledge and therefore, the level of English proficiency they have achieved. This gives learners who find reading particularly difficult, the opportunity to read what they have dictated, and to build their self-esteem. This can incorporate the sharing of pieces of writing which gives the learners a chance to socialise with each other, opening a way for the discussion to be enhanced. Cultivating a love for reading and writing is a key way that one's vocabulary can be enriched. If one is not able to read, he or she will find it difficult to comprehend. It is therefore important that teachers make reading and writing fun, for learners to develop these vital skills.

Since literacy is closely linked to social and cultural practice, power and ideology teaching such content in a multicultural classroom require the teacher to bridge the gap between the differences in language used at school and home (Street, 2008; Perry, 2012). This is done by not teaching the literacy skills in isolation but incorporating some of the aspects of the life experiences of the learners, as well as using books that are culturally related to the learners' experiences (Street, 2008; Perry, 2012). The result of this is that the learning experience will be more inclusive, relevant, and meaningful. To achieve the above-mentioned outcome, the teacher will require critical thinking,

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cross-cultural understanding, and collaborative problem-solving skills (Mc Kay, 2004; Marsh, 2006; Street, 2008). The reason for this is that learning literacy does not consist of technical skills like decoding but involves a process whereby learners are enculturated into ways of thinking, speaking, and writing that belongs to social groups (Street, 2008; Perry, 2012).

An important aspect of learning a new language comes from the assistance and support from the teacher as well as support from the community as a whole. A language must be learned within the context that is spoken (Street, 2008; Gee, 2004; Perry, 2012). This is an improvement on the traditional teaching methods that focused on an individualist approach to learning that was far removed from its context. For a learner to speak a language competently and confidently the teacher needs to build on what the learner already knows rather than teaching a set syllabus of what the teacher assumes that learners at that level should be taught. This creates gaps in the learners' knowledge base, and they will not be able to communicate naturally.

According to Garza et al. (2014), good literacy instruction involves a “building” on what is already in a social setting of the learner, which could be drawn from, for example, prior linguistic knowledge or meaning-making practices from the home or cultural background. Successful instruction grants importance, therefore, to the learner and their social setting. Without this understanding, it is unlikely that effective methods can be used for literacy training which will be supportive of learning and later achievement. In addition, a pedagogy that embraces the language, history, and culture of the learners and uses it as the basis for learning English allows learners to be confident in the classroom environment and gives them a voice among their peers (Callins, 2004). This requires great skill and competency on the part of the teacher, as well as passion and an understanding for learners. The following section will discuss the emotions experienced by the teachers in their profession.

#### **4.4 Discussion of teacher's emotions**

Through the previous discussions, I have observed that many migrant learners feel stress and anxiety because they cannot learn or participate in classroom activities. However, during this study, I discovered that teachers also feel stressed and anxious, as they do not know where to start teaching learners who have just arrived from foreign countries with no exposure to English before coming to school. From the interviews conducted with the two teachers and the facilitator of the parent's workshop, it was revealed that teachers have feelings of anxiety and stress when they are teaching children who have different abilities in relation to the language of instruction. This is not only supported by the two teachers who are participants of this study, but also by the workshop facilitator, Ruth.

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*“I am always so excited and anxious the night before the first day of school. Probably even more than the students” (Ruth, 26/03/2017).*

The above paragraph supports the below, particularly in terms of the anxiety felt by teachers concerning doing their job adequately and providing what is necessary for the learners they teach. It may be interesting to speak about anxiety.

*“I don’t think the children feel much of the stress I think the teacher does. It’s frustrating being a teacher because sometimes you have a lot to do and don’t have time to cover everything that is why you need parent cooperation for one on one time.”*  
(Teacher Rosie, 24/03/2017).

While it is often thought that children feel anxious and stressed when they are unable to understand the language of instruction, the above interviewee, teacher Rosie, shows that she thinks that teachers also show feelings of anxiety and stress (Mendez & Pena, 2013; Heath, 2007; Brown, 2000; Krashen, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978). Just as the learners feel anxious about their perceived inability to participate in classroom activities, teachers are also hindered by the fact that they feel frustrated. Teachers have to not only teach in a multi-cultural environment but also have to deal with the diversity within the classroom because parents do not help the students adequately as they themselves struggle with the language. Teacher Claire says,

*“It is quite stressful because I seldom get help from the parents, in this case, I think the language barrier lies more so with the parents” (Teacher Claire, 2017).*

When interviewing the teachers, some interesting discoveries were made. Like teacher Rosie, teacher Claire experienced considerable anxiety due to her feelings of being ill-equipped to work with learners for whom English is not their mother tongue:

*“I don’t feel equipped to teach learners who have language problems. I have 36 kids in my class... I think 17 that do not speak English at home. They speak either French or Shona or Xhosa at home. In addition, the rest speak English or Afrikaans.... sometimes it’s difficult especially when we try to get them to read. Currently, the only problem is one of the kids is completely beginner. This situation makes it extremely difficult to do the class, especially when they start to complain that they don’t understand the verbs or the meanings of the words. I think after facing this experience, mixed levels of learners speaking different languages is okay but not with someone who has no understanding of the language.” (Teacher Claire, 26/03/2017).*

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*“Well, some of the Congolese learners are coping well, very well and for two reasons: First, they have been at our school from the basic foundation, Grade R.... They started English at very young ages and are well adjusted in English.... While some of them who came to school in the middle of the year, struggle to express themselves orally in English... Challenges are more evident in Afrikaans. Yeah, they should come to school from Grade 0 even (pre-Grade R) not for example, in Grade 3 where previously they’ve been in a French-speaking class. Yeah... now they are placed in a Grade 3 English class and are totally lost.” (Teacher Claire, 20/03/2017).*

From the interview with teacher Claire above, we see that it is easy to teach learners who are proficient in the language of teaching (English in this case), however, in a multi-cultural classroom, not all learners are on the same level of English proficiency. According to teacher Claire, she does not feel equipped to teach learners with language barriers. This view is a way of labeling learners as being deficient and lacking the necessary skills to learn literacy. Instead, teachers need to see the potential skills that these learners have and find ways of drawing upon resources and cultural diversity that these learners already have and further incorporating these skills and diverse ideas into the classroom activities. This opens an opportunity to train teachers to make use of multimodal teaching mediums such as using drawing, images, performing, and alternative languages. The fact that teachers feel unequipped and anxious to teach learners that do not have a basic understanding of English is the motivation behind this research that aims to design a pedagogical model to address these issues as discussed further in Chapter six. The following section will describe the parent workshop that was held at the school as a way of supporting the children through involving their parents in their education.

#### **4.5 Parent workshop**

During my fieldwork at St. Octavia Primary School, I observed one of their parent-teacher workshops, which was created as an additional resource to improve a child’s literacy skills by involving the parents in the teaching process. These workshops did not only focus on the teacher’s role in empowering parents to be more effective in their children’s learning process and to assist their learners at home but also provided a space for teachers to learn about their learners’ affective needs from the parents. I was able to interview the programme facilitator, teacher Ruth, after one of their successful workshop sessions and I have included a transcript below, of the interview with teacher Ruth, which gives us her perspective on the importance of the workshop.

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*“We find that children need a lot of assistance and parents don’t often know how to assist children at home. The curriculum is different. We want to show them how to help and how they can fit in with the daily routine and how to make learning fun, you know ah. The workshop is about a two hour’s session for eight weeks. We concentrate on foundation phase parents, but we don’t mind having older learners’ parents .... The idea behind the workshop is to equip parents. They often say... teachers often say parents aren’t involved.... they don’t cooperate but there are different factors. Sometimes it’s just time.... parents are just too busy, and sometimes they think they are not able to. So, we want to equip them and also those parents of foreign children whose first language is not English and cannot speak English to equip them as well even though they may be illiterate, or their vocabulary is not wide they can still help. Sometimes even though they may be illiterate, or their vocabulary is not wide, they can still help. Also, for parents who didn’t further their own education sometimes they feel they can’t help children...they can because they have got a lot of knowledge through experience. We teach in class, but they are there with parents who can do much more. We teach in class, but they are there with children at home” (Teacher Ruth, 2017).*

According to Olsen and Fuller (2008), a supportive home environment in which parents encourage learning and achievement by being actively involved in their children’s education is much more relevant to a learner’s educational outcomes than their socio-economic status.

However, not all parents are equipped with the necessary skills and resources to be able to do so efficiently and effectively.

According to the school (Extract of an interview with teacher Ruth below), this problem can be solved with the implementation of a parent-teacher workshop, which is run by the school for eight weeks on a Saturday. The facilitator of the workshop’s experience supports this:

*“From experience, the parents who attend workshops, their children usually progress nicely. They do well. You get those children who get top marks, but there are also those who don’t. But because they get assistance from their parents at home, they do better than they would have. It depends on the level the child is at. We don’t expect everybody to excel but we do expect improvement and effectively it is. If you don’t know the milestones of the child learning you miss them, and you don’t know to play with them and encourage them in each step.” (Interview with Ruth).*

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The parent-teacher workshop consists of teaching parents strategies to support children's acquisition of story vocabulary and discussion of the story plot as well as encouraging parents to become involved in reading together with their children. Parents are taught ways to further facilitate their children's learning so that the role of the narrator slowly shifts from the parent to the child as the story becomes more familiar over many readings. This provides an opportunity to extend parents' beliefs about what they might do to influence their children's education in positive ways and to enhance parents' awareness of their ability to help their children succeed in school. The emphasis is on empowering, inspiring, and supporting parents with informal learning at home, emotional intelligence, self-esteem, and skills development (Reese et al, 2010).

During these workshops, parents are taught how to engage with and support their child's learning at home. Not only does the workshop benefit the child but also the parent/guardian by empowering and furthering their adult education.

Below I have included a brief outline of the topics covered in the eight-week parent-teacher workshop.

- Parents/guardians as the child's first teacher.
- Emergent writing and the importance of drawing.
- The importance of telling and reading stories.
- Making your own book.
- Listening to games to help with reading and writing.
- Basic concepts for reading and math development.
- Games to play for the development of big and small muscles.
- Positive parenting.
- One topic was dealt with each week and each topic was split further into a number of different activities.

During one Saturday workshop session parents were told to read the following sentences and put them in order: The words in the text are spelled incorrectly on purpose

**First Activity:**

- The trhee litle pgis
- ocne uopn a tmie terhe litle pgis who levid with tehir moothr in a litle huose.

- 
- The only important thing is that first and last letter is in the right place. The rest can be a total mess and you can still read it without a problem. This is because we do not read every letter by itself.

The workshop facilitator then asked the parents to discuss the sentences in groups of five. After their discussion the facilitator asked the parents the following questions:

- Can you read it? Does it make sense?
- All the words are spelled incorrectly so how could we read it?
- What do you do when you read?
- What do children do when they read?
- How can we use this knowledge to help children become better readers?

From the above questions, the facilitator is trying to get the parents to understand that in order for their child to perform and do well in an activity they need to be given a clear set of instructions and have a set standard of expectations. It would be unreasonable to expect a child to understand a question if the question itself does not make sense to the parent. This is why it is important for parents to have a familiar understanding of the experiences of their children in the classroom in order for them to relate not only to the content but also to the method of teaching used by the teacher. In this way, parents will also be able to emotionally support their children if they have a better understanding of the experiences and context of the classroom.

### **Second activity: Story reading**

The second activity provided tips and recommendations to parents, on how to read a story to children to create an interactive story-time where both the parent and child can ask questions for comprehension. Parents are encouraged to talk about personal experiences, for example, daily news expressing feelings and opinions, to listen without interrupting thus showing respect for the speaker and the idea of taking turns. They should also listen to main ideas and details of stories whilst asking high order questions.

When sharing books with her children, the mother asks, where is the boy's nose? Then, pointing to the picture she says, 'there's the boy's nose! Where is your nose? This helps the children learn new words. It is recommended that the parent use a picture book to read with the child, as it allows for this type of interaction. To stimulate the child's imagination, when reading the story, the parent can ask questions such as 'What do you think will happen next?' After the child has given his opinion, the parent can then create suspense through "So let's see what's going to happen", which maintains the child's interest in the story.

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From this story reading activity, it is important that parents model good reading habits for their children from a young age, thus they will be able to develop a positive attitude towards reading. Parents must be motivational and get involved in their child's learning.

I feel that training programs such as these represent the best opportunity for allowing parents to learn to read with children to promote good reading habits at home, as well as to ask the right questions to prepare their children for their reading at school. For instance, parents could be trained to ask their children open-ended questions during, and following, engagement in shared reading activities. Such questions include the use of "where" and "when" questions that encourage children to reflect on what they have read and offer tools for them to work towards a greater understanding. Besides, the use of "where" and "when" questions help children to consider the contextual aspects of narratives and the sequence of events in a story as they occur through time. By engaging with the child, these questions also allow parents to evaluate, repeat or expand upon the child's responses, to follow the children's line of interest and to connect the story to real events in their children's lives (Reese et al, 2010). To encourage literacy through engaging parent-child interaction in shared book experiences, children from diverse backgrounds need to have books available that affirm their language and culture.

### **Third activity: Little books**

Parents are taught how to make a little book from a page. Making books for children help with creativity, imagination, language building, and vocabulary improved. Reading books together helps children learn about books. Children need to 'make friends with books' from an early age. When children draw and colour their books, they feel that books are part of their world at home. Books are not only for school.

**Second part:** Breaking up words to different sounds, to the syllabus to rhythm, and identify the first letter in the word. Alphabet chat

T: What do you think your child can learn from this alphabet chart? Parent (a): queen.

T: Why she is dressed up differently? What else? Parent (b): small and capital letters.

T: Anything else? Parent: silence.

T: Sound - children love to sing the alphabet song but to be able to sound out words. When it comes to learning in class, children need to know and to use the sounds of the letters.

T: There is a difference between letters and sound. Each letter makes a sound.

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T: Children need to read what they see around. What word do we always see on the road?

Parent: stop.

T: So road signs are very important for children to read. Also, the shopping list.

Given that literacy develops in a social context, it should be an integral part of a child's everyday life at home and in society. Parents play an important role in a child's growth and attitude towards reading. Reese and Gallimore (2000) confirm this and advocate that a parent's understanding of the concept of literacy, and how it is developed, influences what kind of activities they provide for their children and the way they structure these activities. Parents can incorporate a wide variety of different activities that allows them to engage with and stimulate their child's educational development. Sylva et al. (2004).

Consider the following list of activities educationally stimulating that are beneficial to the child's educational development that the parent can implement and enjoy with the child.

- Visiting the local library.
- Playing fun educational board games.
- Learning nursery rhymes.
- Playing educational computer games.
- Picture association games.
- Educational trips or excursions to the zoo or museum.
- Painting and drawing.
- Play-dates with other children.
- Reading to and with your child.
- Playing with letters and numbers.
- Reading and sounding out the alphabet.

According to Sylva et al. (2004), the earlier and more regularly the parents get involved and incorporate these activities into their child's life the better. These activities would build a longlasting foundation for later literacy achievement at school. Therefore, when children enter the school environment, are familiar with the language of instruction within the school, and have been emotionally and cognitively supported at home, the children will find it easier to be integrated into the school environment as the classroom essentially acts an extension of the home. However, for children who lack the necessary language ability as well as emotional and cognitive support based at home, it is a lot more difficult to adjust to and be successfully accommodated within the

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classroom environment. Due to this, issues with low self-esteem and low selfconfidence may arise as children may feel that they do not fit into the classroom context.

The parents have expressed their views about the weekly Saturday workshop programme with many parents seeing its value as it is adding to not only their own lives but to their children's lives as well. Below I have included interviews that I have conducted with parents after completing a Saturday Workshop.

### **Parent 1**

*“My name is Christine Makala and I'm from the Congo. I work as a nurse in a hospital. I am used to throwing my problems on my kids. One thing I was a queen of was shouting. From this programme, I've learnt to be patient with my children and to make learning at home interesting. Workshop helps me to encourage my kids. I notice one thing when I don't read with my daughter at home she is the one who starts shouting at me. I've learnt to be patient that's number one and ten minutes of your life can make a big difference in the child's life. And I've learnt that the games we used to play can help your child physically, even emotionally how to express themselves and my child likes to play a scotch, a game we used to play when I was a kid. So now I need to play every day. I made a routine for myself. When I go home I cook and we eat after we do his homework and then story-time. I'm trying to be a number one mommy and a number one teacher. This programme helps me to encourage my child whatever he does, I must clap hands and say well done even if he's wrong I must encourage first and then correct him afterwards. I ask him how about if we do this way or the way. Today he's more into it. I. Work I'm an OP I look after kids in Green Point. When I'm at work I do the work and when I'm out it's my family time.”*

### **Parent 2**

*“My name is Joseph Olenga I'm from the Congo I work as an administrator for an NGO. This programme assists me in improving my child's education by teaching me to have a routine, a creative way of learning and also teaches me to be patient. I cannot expect my son to be at the same level as I am. The change with me is that I'm now taking the initiative to sit and support my son's education at home. That is something I knew before, but I wasn't practicing.”*

### **Parent 3**

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*“He enjoys now the time he does his homework because I don’t just tell him go do your homework, but I sit down and do the homework with him. I recommend parents to attend the workshop it will teach not only things you don’t know but also things you know but you’re not practicing. It helps you to even be more involved in your child’s education. I got a matric and a certificate in Administration Assistant.”*

**Parent 4**

*“I want to thank facilitators because I think they don’t have to do this. From this work. I’ve learnt about storytelling. When I’ve learnt a lot I learn how to make things fun. Reading has become such a part of our routine.”*

**Parent 5**

*“My name is Lungi and I am from the Congo. I work as a dentist. I stay in Salt River I just come out from a celebration woodwork. I’ve learnt how to be patient with my kids, how to make everything fun, all about fun, how to make a child’s lesson more interesting, how to interact, listen to them in order for them to listen to us. That’s what I learnt. We read a lot. We read the Bible every night. We say a prayer before we go to sleep. Last night by the time I got home he already did his homework. Yes, we also learn a lot from our children it’s like you learn for us and we also learn from you.”*

It was not only immigrant parents who took part in the workshop but also some English-speaking parents:

**Parent 5**

*“My name is Bianca and I’m from Cape Town I’m in here because I have a daughter in Grade 2, and I’m interested in what she’s doing at school because she’s doing well. And also, because the school offers the opportunity for parents to assist children with reading at home. I think it’s a good idea and I’m eager to be here on Saturday morning. I am now feeling more confident.... The lessons we learn here motivate us as working parents to want to sit with children at home and be of help. The way they’re learning is totally different with the way we were taught. I wasn’t familiar with the way they do alphabet now, so I’m learning in the meantime how to use the alphabet and the sounds properly. I make effort and I encourage library books. We don’t concentrate much on our children those lessons inspire us to give support to kids at home. The workshop is adding value to the future of our children.”*

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The following section will use Parent's interviews to form a discussion and analysis.

#### **4.5.1 Discussion of parent's affective support**

According to some observations and studies done (Heath, 2007; Gee, 2004; Blackledge, 2000), children are more likely to succeed in school because of the education and learning they have in their home contexts, which aligns more clearly with the learning structure and 'culture' at school, this observation is corroborated by my research findings in Section 5.4.1. Many learners do not have this kind of conducive home environment, which can be witnessed by learners that come to school with incomplete work (see section 5.4.2). Further, the emotional stability that is catered for in the classroom is not reinforced at home and thus children are not used to the teaching methods of the teachers. This makes it difficult for teachers who have to continuously attempt to bolster the children's self-esteem and self-confidence (see interview with teacher Claire, 2017).

This study shows that learners who are more confident and have higher levels of self-esteem proved to have better academic performance (see sections 5.4.1 & 5.5 ). These self-esteem levels are dependent on cooperation between parents, school staff, and the child. Considering that self-esteem plays a big role in academic performance, Pomerantz and Saxon (2001) argue that cooperation between these parties is key to increase the child's self-esteem which, in turn, will lead to increased academic performance. Teaching would be made a lot easier for the teacher if self-esteem and self-confidence were nurtured at home and this is why parent-workshops are so important. Children will struggle to develop literate habits or see any value in what they are being taught if it is not further reinforced within a home context. It is a huge challenge for schools and in particular, for teachers to address this effectively without the cooperation of parents. This can be made more challenging when learners come from lower socioeconomic households.

As previously noted, teachers were anxious and stressed about teaching learners who were not supported by their parents and the multi-cultural setting of the classroom (see interview with teacher Claire, 2017). However, the school came up with an innovative idea to lessen the burden teachers face through parent education workshops (see section 4.5 & interview with teacher Ruth, 2017). The Parent's Education workshop is organised to bring together individuals from the school and the home contexts to better grasp and address learners' needs (see section 4.5 & interview with teacher Ruth, 2017). This workshop offers an opportunity to get to know parents and identify learners' affective needs in order to develop teaching strategies and methods.

The overall feedback from the interviews with the parents was very positive with many acknowledging the changes in their child's behaviour and attitude towards learning. Many of the

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children became more involved and interested in their work and they were more eager to do it as their work now incorporated some fun and creativeness. The workshop has allowed parents to create and implement a structured routine for their children, which has shown to be of advantage to both the children and the parents (see interviews with parents).

The parents have expressed that the workshop has also benefited them greatly by giving them more motivation, patience, and confidence to assist in their child's learning and their development process. Some parents previously felt that they were unable to provide adequate assistance to their child's learning since how their children are now being taught is different from how they were taught. The parents indicated that the workshops reduced the fear of inadequacy and gave them a better understanding of how their children are now being taught in the school (see interviews with parents). Likewise, the workshops proved to be beneficial to the teachers as well, providing a space for them to interact with parents and therefore better understand the emotional needs of their learners. This, in turn, better-equipped teachers to meet the emotional needs of their learners in classroom practice.

The workshops allow for parents and teachers to establish a mutual relationship and this subsequently will benefit the learners as the teacher has a more nuanced understanding of the parental background from which the children come. The parent's self-esteem and competence are increased through these workshops, which shows how these workshops not only foster the cognitive aspects of learning but how they also foster the affective side of learning. By giving the parents this better understanding, it allowed them to help in a more constructive and valuable way than before. Parents have expressed their praise and interest in the programme to such an extent that it has attracted interest from parents who do not even have children in the foundation phase classes. This shows that the parent-teacher workshops are becoming increasingly popular amongst the parents, which in turn means that the parents are going to be able to extract more knowledge and more skills from the workshop, which would not be the case if the parents were not interested in the workshops and the content within the workshops (see interviews with parents). Much like children, parents also need to be interested in something to make the most of it and thus gain the most knowledge. Learning does not only happen during the childhood phase but throughout one's life.

#### **4.6 Conclusion**

In this chapter, I have presented and discussed the teaching practices employed by the two Grade 3 teachers. How they motivate their learners and consequently, teach them effectively. Understanding the learners' feelings provides insight into their learning process (Mendez & Pena, 2013).

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Furthermore, I have shown that teacher's awareness of the presence of francophone migrants in class provided opportunities to revisit their learning materials and style of teaching to better accommodate and facilitate the successful education of these learners.

For the teacher, teaching would be made a lot easier if self-esteem and self-confidence were nurtured at home. The emotional needs that are catered for in the classroom are not reinforced at home. This makes it difficult for teachers who have to continuously attempt to bolster the children's self-esteem and self-confidence. This is why cooperation between parents and teachers, as well as the child, is very important. Finally, I have shown that emotional needs are not limited to learners who are not fluent in the language of instruction and/or in reading. Teachers are also affected, as they do not know how to cope with diversity in a classroom, especially with regard to learners who have different levels of English proficiency. This hinders a teacher's ability to teach English language and literacy, as they have to cater for learners with different levels of English proficiency.

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## **Chapter 5: Learners' feelings and experiences**

### **5.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, I will present and discuss the findings of data gathered by means of observation and interviews within a Cape Town primary school serving francophone migrants (St. Octavia Primary School). These data will show how those learners for whom English is a first language are less susceptible to suffering emotional stress caused by their experience of learning through an English medium than are French first language learners. Through an analysis of the emotions, I will demonstrate how the language adjustment, as well as the emotional strain of migration, affect the interaction between the learner and their course material – consequently affecting the learner's performance. I observed and interviewed ten Grade 3 learners; seven French-speaking and three English-speaking.

To understand learners' emotions in the classroom during English literacy teaching, I will be using Krashen's affective filter theory. The theory indicates that high levels of anxiety, has a negative impact on the learning process and that learning is most optimal when the pupil is in a relaxed state of mind (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012) (see section 3.5.1). Feelings and emotions experienced by the learners are considered important in understanding learning processes, learner's motivation, and effective teaching (Mendez & Pena, 2013).

The argument that drives my analysis of the data is that children who learn in a language that is not their mother tongue or in which they do not have mother tongue proficiency have emotional needs that must be met in order for them to learn successfully. However, when a child is a migrant or a refugee these needs are compounded due to the stress of being a foreigner as well as the difficulty of learning in an unfamiliar language. This chapter seeks to answer the second research question, which relates to the feelings of migrant learners experienced in the classroom, while also laying the foundation for the exploration of the research objectives highlighted in Section 1.8.

### **5.2 Context and children's language resources**

Firstly, it is necessary to understand the context of the two classrooms in which I observed. The school where I conducted my research is an English medium school and at the same time multicultural. My research was done in two Grade 3 classrooms. Both classrooms were structured environments with rules placed in multiple locations to ensure that the learners were always reminded of what is acceptable behaviour or practice within the classroom environment. There was an abundance of posters of numbers and letters and learner's work displayed on the walls.

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Each class consists of many different languages including English, Afrikaans, Xhosa, Shona, Portuguese, and French. It is important to note that while the children in my study speak French with more fluency than English, French is not necessarily their first or only language. In total, there were 36 learners in each class, taught by one teacher together with a volunteer assistant. In the classroom, all teaching is done in English. For the learners who struggle with English, there is no translation, i.e. there is no code-switching. In the classroom, learners sit in groups of four working together. Learners are placed into groups based on their academic ability in the English language, with strong learners paired with weak learners to assist them. I use the expressions 'strong' and 'weak' for convenience. Anyone can learn and any learner regardless of background may appear strong or weak depending on the circumstances in which they are studying. The language and cultural context in which they are studying favour some and give them an advantage over others. These concepts of "strong" and "weak" learners could have a negative effect on learners because they tend to reproduce a stereotype, especially if, for example, all white English speakers are in a strong learner group and all migrants and blacks are in the weak learner group. For a study on affective pedagogy and using critical literacy theory – one should counter this and ensure that it is one of the principles of the framework.

The school encourages peer translations, if available, to help learners who are struggling. The school organises intervention programmes for learners with poor language skills. There is also a literacy centre that helps learners who struggle with reading. School also organises workshops to assist parents to help struggling learners with home programmes. All the different support interventions at the school tend to only focus on the cognitive aspects of the learning and not the affective aspect.

During my fieldwork, I spent five months at the school attending two Grade 3 classes twice a week. This allowed me to observe the teaching and learning environment passively. Given that in the teaching of English language and literacy to non-English home language learners such as migrant Congolese children, the need to examine the societal and cultural backgrounds of these learners is essential to understand their learning styles and consequently to inform and adjust teaching strategies to fit their needs (Vygotsky, 1978; Street, 2008; Heath, 2007; Perry, 2012). I also had the opportunity to engage with a group of learners to gain further insight into their experience and feelings with regard to English language and literacy learning.

In the following section, I present and discuss the data that was collected through observations and interviews with learners who participated in this study.

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### **5.3 Phase 1: Observation and interviews with learners**

Data collection methods through semi-structured interview schedules were used with questions about the Congolese migrant learners' experiences and challenges faced with learning in an unfamiliar language. Classroom observations assisted in discovering the behaviour and interactions of the participants in the classroom context as well as to provide insight into the lived experiences of African migrant learners in a literacy classroom.

To compare how the emotions in the classroom play out among learners with varying levels of English proficiency and from different backgrounds, I collected observational data and interviews with seven French-speaking and three English-speaking learners. Through these observations and interviews, the findings of the study revealed that French-speaking learners demonstrated and expressed various kinds and levels of anxiety, emanating from their being required to learn English language and literacy through the English language medium. This was observed through French-speaking learner's shyness, reduced participation, silence, and disengagement during class interactions. In contrast, the English-speaking learners demonstrated and expressed little 'anxiety' that emanates from their being required to learn through English medium and were observed to be comfortable, confident, enthusiastic, and motivated. It is difficult to observe emotions, which presents a challenge to this study. The best way to understand learners' feelings is through interviews.

### **5.4 Discussion of learners' interviews:**

Learners' experiences are highly subjective. Due to this, it is useful to explore their accounts of their experiences to understand the way in which the learners feel (Mendez & Pena, 2013). Understanding the impact of negative and positive feelings/emotions, and how they can be mitigated or induced, are critical to enhancing motivation inside the classroom (Mendez & Pena, 2013). A powerful tool to achieve an understanding of a learner's emotions would be to conduct a personal interview (Mendez & Pena, 2013). In this interview environment, a learner would be able to reflect on their lives in such a way that would allow the researcher a richer understanding of the learner's subjective experiences and emotions.

The experiences of learners unpacked through an interview process are detailed below. I begin by discussing interviews I conducted with English native speakers followed by a more detailed look at specific interviews with individual migrant learners and then a brief summary of key findings in interviews common to migrant learners.

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### 5.4.1 Detailed interviews with English native speakers

In the interviews conducted with three native English speakers, Charles, Kyle, and Sarah, all three made it clear that they feel comfortable studying in the English language since it is their mother tongue. An example of this can be seen in an excerpt from the interview with Charles when he said:

*“I’m Charles and I’m from South Africa. I’m 9-year-old. I speak English at home. English is the only language I speak. It’s the only language I was raised in. Uhm...I feel it’s easy to study in English and.... I don’t have a problem speaking or reading English. Yeah.... It is the same language I speak at home, and all my reading books are in English. It’s not new to me. Uhm.... I don’t understand how some kids say that it’s difficult. I do participate in class.... I got seventy percent in English... I do my homework alone. My mom only helps me when I get stuck in Math.”* (Charles, 2017).

From this interview with Charles, we can see that a high level of fluency in the English language results in a higher level of confidence. Charles displays high self-esteem and he prides himself in his English speaking and reading ability due to English being his home language and reading books is part of his everyday life. His high self-esteem also results in him seeing himself superior to others by saying *“I don’t understand how some kids say that it’s difficult.”* (Charles, 2017).

Kyle shared similarities with Charles in terms of his level of confidence with the English language and when asked how she finds studying in English, Kyle replied, *“I’m Kyle and I’m 9- year-old. I’m from America. I speak English at home. I find it easy because I’ve been speaking English my whole life.... English is the only language I speak.... It’s my first language. So... by studying in a different language it would be a bit harder. Uhm..... it’s fine... it’s easy for me because I’m used to English....and I have some friends in my class who even can’t speak English it’s hard for them so it’s easy for me. I enjoy reading and I have plenty of books at home.... I scored 70 percent in English... I like my school. I do participate in class. I do my homework alone my Dad only helps me with Math.”* (Kyle, 2017).

In the same vein, Sarah expressed confidence in her English and in reading in English:

*“I’m Sarah. I’m 9 years old. I’m from South Africa..... I speak English at home. I like my school. Umm, ... it’s easy for me to study in English because I’m used to English, but ... I feel a little nervous sometimes to speak in front of the class ....and I also feel a little, um... secure since I know these people know me and they don’t care what I do...and they are my friends. So, ah I’m not comfortable talking with strangers. I have books and reading is my hobby..... I scored 80 percent in English*

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*I do my homework alone my Mom only helps with Math when I get stuck” (Sarah, 2017).*

From Charles, Kyle, and Sara’s experiences, one can see a corroboration with the observations made by Minghe & Yuan (2013:3) that “learners with high self-esteem manifest more confidence and give more positive evaluations on themselves that promote their language learning.” While Charles struggles to understand why francophone learners would not find English ‘easy’, Kyle shows more empathy towards those who must study in a language, which is not their first. Moreover, the interview that I conducted with Sarah showed that a learner could be comfortable with the English language and yet still feel nervous when speaking in front of the class. Being reserved does not prevent Sarah from being academically active and doing well in her reports.

Nevertheless, all English-speaking learners expressed confidence in their English abilities, and, predictably, find it easy to express themselves in their first language. Learners who share their high self-esteem and self-confidence in their linguistic abilities are able to perform better academically and therefore develop more throughout their schooling experience than those who must struggle to express themselves in what may be a second or third language (Heath, 2007, Gee, 2004; Blackledge, 2000). Struggling academically was clearly demonstrated in the interviews I conducted with migrant learners.

#### **5.4.2 Detailed interviews with migrant learners**

Throughout the observations carried out in this research study, it became clear that teachers tend to ignore migrant learners because they do not expect correct answers from them. Teachers in English-medium classrooms often ignore migrant learners from francophone backgrounds due to low expectations of their language skills. In turn, these children are reticent to participate because they lack confidence. This becomes a self-perpetuating cycle of lack of practice in English resulting in poor interaction, which further reinforces the teachers’ prejudices. When a learner was asked about why they were quiet in class, but talkative outside among their friends, they responded with;

*“Je m’appelle Deborah et j’aurai 9 ans le mois le prochain. je suis du Congo et je suis arrivée en Afrique du Sud il ya 5 ans. Je parle Français et Lingala à la maison. Mais je parle Anglais avec mes amies. Parfois quand mes parents parlent je leur repond en Anglais. Je fais la traduction pour Maman quand on va au shop et même quand elle vient au bureau. L’Anglais est la seule langue qu’on parle à l’école.*

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*J'aime mon l'école tous mes amis du quartier sont ici. Je ne parle pas en classe parce que chaque fois que Je lève la main pour répondre, madame ne me choisit pas. Je fais mes devoirs seule.... mon frère aide moi quand je me sens bloquée surtout en Math. Oui, j'ai des livres mais pas beaucoup..... madame nous donne chaque jour des livres à lire à la maison. J'aime lire et j'aime aussi regarder le dessin animé. Oui, ma lecture est mieux maintenant à cause des dames du centre qui nous font chaque fois lire. J'avais obtenu 60/100 en Anglais.... Je vais à la bibliothèque avec mon frère et les amis."*

This translates to ("my name is Deborah and I'll be turning nine years old next month. I'm from Congo. I have been in South Africa for 4 years now. I speak French and Lingala at home, but in English with my friends. Sometimes I respond in English when my parents speak to me. I also translate for Mom when we go shopping or when Mom speaks to the principal or my teacher. English is the only language we're allowed to speak at school. I like school because all my friends are there. I do my homework alone; my brother only helps me when I am stuck, mostly in Math. I don't talk in class because every time I raise my hand to answer, the teacher doesn't give me a chance to talk. I hav a few books, but every day the teacher gives us books to read at home. I like reading and watching cartoons. My reading is improving because of the reading club. I got 60 percent in English.....I also go to the library with my brother and friends. I have many South African friends") (Deborah, 2018).

Deborah states in the interview that: when she attempts to engage, she is ignored by the teacher in favour, perhaps, of a learner with better English skills, thereby invalidating her potential contributions to the lesson and dissuading her from making further attempts to contribute. This can be disappointing for a learner as proactive as Deborah, who uses the language she is learning outside of the classroom even with tasks such as translating for her mother. It is evident that Deborah is learning for a purpose, yet she is still passed over when answering questions in class. This appears to be in contrast with other students, and in particular migrant students, have shown that the lack of a positive attitude towards various aspects can negatively affect their classroom engagement and overall academic growth. The perceptions they have of themselves, peers, and educators, and failing to recognise the importance of an activity, hinders the success of their learning process (Arnold, 2011; Krashen, 1994; Brown, 2002).

The positive attitudes exhibited by a teacher in the classroom have a direct effect on the ability of their learners to engage in the lesson, which contributes overall to better classroom management and learner self-efficacy. Learners who feel safe and secure in a classroom where they feel they can

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trust the teacher are more inclined to take risks and grow academically (Mendez & Pena, 2013, Brown, 2002). As important as learner confidence is to the learning process, the confidence of the teacher is also imperative to support learner's academic growth – in other words, the self-efficacy level of the teacher has a direct impact on the self-efficacy of the learners. A teacher who believes in their ability to support learners is more likely to facilitate self-exploration, discussion, and debate in those learners, which goes on to support metacognitive engagement and personal growth. Such teachers tend also to be more creative in their approach to teaching, and improvisation is a possibility for them when it comes to teaching approaches (Minghe and Yuan, 2013; Mendez & Pena, 2013).

It has been found that the overall experience of schooling and how it affects the learner involves “academic and social experiences within and outside the classroom, language use, acculturation, and identity formation” (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011:4). During my fieldwork, to gauge learner's experience and feelings, I did not limit my observation to just inside the classroom but also outside in the playground. This aided me, as I believe that a learner's social life is as important for their development as their formal education. I have seen learners often sit together and talk to people they already know and feel comfortable with both in and outside of class. Learners who speak the same language and come from the same culture tend to group, while some migrant learners were isolated. One migrant child said in the interview that no one wanted to make friends with him as a result of his lack of English-speaking ability. However, extracurricular activities such as sport provided a moment where different learners could come together. Demonstrating skills in various sporting tasks enabled migrant learners to overcome their lack of language skills and grow in confidence. Their classroom timidity was not seen during such extracurricular activities. It is here that migrant children appear to flourish and through this make friends amongst their peers, even those with whom they had struggled with before. For example, one migrant learner said,

*“Mon nom c'est Beya. J'ai 9 ans. Je suis du Congo. Je suis en Afrique du Sud depuis 4 ans. Je parle français et Lingala avec mes parents et Anglais avec mes amis. Ici à l'école nous ne parlons que l'Anglais. Si on t'attrape parler en d'autres langues on va te punir. J'aime l'école et j'aime l'Anglais. Je parle en classe quand madame me pose des questions ou m'envoie au tableau. Mais je parle plus pendant les activités. Je me suis fait des amis quand on jouait au foot... J'avais marqué deux buts et notre équipe avait gagné... chaque fois qu'il ya match et notre classe joue contre une autre classe, les amis me supplient pour que je joue même si je n'ai pas envie de jouer. Je fais mes devoirs avec ma mère. Mon frère aussi m'aide quand maman n'est empêchée. Je n'ai que 2 livres mais chaque jour madame nous donne des livres à lire à la maison et nous allons*

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*aussi à la bibliothèque le Samedi quand maman n'est pas occupée.....J'avais obtenu 50/100 en Anglais."*

This translates to ("my name is Beya. I'm 9. I'm from Congo. I moved to South Africa 4 years ago. I speak French and Lingala with my parents, but English with my friends. English is the only language we're allowed to speak at school. You'll be punished when caught speaking in another language than English. I like my school and I like English. I speak in class when asked to. I speak a lot during activities. I made friends when we were playing football. I had scored two goals and our team had won... Every time there is a match the friends beg me to play even if I don't want to play. My Mom helps me with homework. While my brother only helps me when Mom is busy. I only have two books. However, everyday teacher gives us books to read at home. We also go to the library on Saturdays when Mom is available...I got 50 percent in English.") (Beya, 2018).

This manner of socialisation benefits the learners greatly because they demonstrate their worth and potential contribution beyond the confines of a classroom situation – one does not need to speak English perfectly to play football well. In this way, the learners who struggle in classroom environments are able to socialise and, in doing so, improve their English skills through interaction with their peers, which, Vygotsky (1978) agrees, is an effective way to encourage the natural development of language and literacy. This, in turn, eventually feeds back positively into the classroom environment because the learner's improved language skills can be put to use in an environment in which they previously may have struggled.

I have observed and interacted with Grade 3 children who learn in an English environment and are either of English or French upbringing. I have come to the observation that French learners, as a majority, have language difficulties, which cause them to behave anxiously and to be reluctant to socialize in the classroom (which is evident in the interviews with Bombo, Valery and Shungu discussed below). This is not to discount French-speaking learners who may be reserved by nature. This causes them to struggle to participate in classroom discussions and activities, which hinders them from learning given that learning is a social activity, which requires interaction between the learners and teachers.

In contrast, those native English learners who are also reserved are so by nature and do not necessarily show any learning difficulties. One example of this is a girl by the name of Sarah who appeared reserved and was not comfortable talking with people she does not know even in the

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classroom (See section 5.4.1). Thus, the feeling of unease is not only restricted to the learners who are struggling with the language of instruction, but also those with introverted characteristics.

From observations and interviews conducted with migrant Francophone learners, it became clear that they experienced emotional problems such as a lack of self-confidence and a lack of self-worth. Low self-esteem issues, coupled with feelings of insecurity and anxiety, emerge as recurring themes in this study. The interviews with Bombo, Valery, and Shungu below provide evidence for this and it is consistent with some of the emotional problems identified by Arnold (2011) as well as Brown (2000) and Krashen (1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012), who found that learners in a foreign language classroom, in the USA, experienced high levels of anxiety and low self-esteem.

This study not only finds that migrant Francophone learner, studying in English medium, experience emotional distress but that this emotional distress decreases as the learner's proficiency in the English language and literacy increases (See the interview with Elody and Veronica). In support of this, two of the Francophone migrant learners interviewed in this study expressed confidence in class participation due to their proficiency in English.

What follows are examples of the feelings and emotions expressed by the migrant schoolchildren that illustrate the way in which emotional problems manifested for them. I also discuss the case of these two migrant learners who expressed confidence in-class participation. These two learners gave interviews in English, while the other migrant learners were only comfortable giving them in French.

#### **5.4.2.1 Lack of self-confidence:**

The understanding of learner's confidence helps us to answer the question of what feelings migrant learners have when being taught or having to demonstrate literacy skills in the classroom. Understanding the learners' feelings provides insight into their learning process (Mendez & Pena, 2013). Thus, there is a direct relationship between teaching that is informed by learners' needs and an effective teaching practice whereby learners realise their learning potential as discussed further in Chapter 6.

According to the Oxford Dictionary (<https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/confidence>, 11 Dec 2017), self-confidence is defined as "A feeling of trust in one's abilities, qualities, and judgment." For Mendez and Pena (2013), Self-confidence is influenced by self-esteem. Self-esteem is how one sees themselves and plays a role in how confidently one-acts. Self-esteem is influenced by one's past experiences and the environments one grew up in.

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One of the migrant learners I interviewed said that they do not feel comfortable to actively participate in the learning process due to a lack of self-confidence in the language of instruction.

One example is to be found in what Bombo said in her interview on 19 March 2017. The interview was conducted in French, and the translation follows.

*“je m’appelle Bombo. J’aurai 9 ans demain. Je suis du Congo. Ça fait 5 mois que je suis arrivé ici en Afrique du Sud. Je parle Français à la maison. Tout le monde parle l’Anglais à l’école. Parfois je me sens stupide parce que je ne peux pas parler l’Anglais et lire comme les amis de ma classe.... madame aussi parle trop vite et puis je ne sais pas écrire écriture cursive... je me perds souvent et je sens comme si ma place n’est pas ici.....parfois le matin je n’ai pas envie d’aller à l’école...je préfère continuer à dormir. Papa aide moi à faire mes devoirs à la maison. J’ai seulement des livres en Français. Papa a promis de m’acheter des livres en Anglais mais dans l’entretemps madame nous donne chaque jour des livres à lire à la maison...J’avais obtenu 40/100 en Anglais.”*

This translates to (“I’m Bombo. I’ll be turning 9 years old tomorrow. I’m from Congo. It’s been 5 months since I arrived in South Africa. I speak French at home. Everyone speaks English at school. I feel sometimes stupid because I can’t speak English and read in the same way my peers do. Also, I don’t understand cursive writing and sometimes the teacher speaks too fast. I always feel left out. Sometimes, in the mornings I do not feel like going to school. All I want to do is carry on sleeping. My father helps me with my homework. I only have French books, but he promises to buy me English books. The teacher gives us books to read at home every day. I got 40 percent for English.”) (Bombo, 2017).

This interview with Bombo corroborates Brown’s (2000) point that such experiences of inability to speak or read affect the child’s perception of themselves and therefore make the child insecure about his/her ability to achieve success in school and their life. It also illustrates Mendez and Pena’s (2013) point out learners who have what they call low self-efficacy may justify that they cannot do the task well because of personal weaknesses. Bandura (1994 quoted in Mendez & Pena, 2013) refers to self-efficacy as “... people’s beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives” (p. 71).

In the case of Bombo, it is clear that her self-efficacy is affected as she states that she feels ‘stupid’ because of her inability to speak and read the English language in the same manner as her peers.

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Furthermore, it can be seen that Bombo's low self-efficacy reduces her confidence, as she perceives herself as being stupid, which in turn, is likely to reduce her performance in the classroom, as she will feel less inclined to participate in the classroom environment. In light of this interview, Bombo not only displays a lack of self-confidence but also displays signs of depression and preference for isolation which can be seen in her saying "Sometimes, in the mornings I do not feel like going to school. All I want to do is carry on sleeping" (Bombo, 2017).

It is clear that Bombo would rather stay at home than attend school and face potential humiliation in a classroom environment. This low self-esteem is largely brought about by her having fallen behind in her reading skills and her English language skills. This has a knock-on effect, because the more she avoids the classroom environment, the less she will improve, and the worse she will feel about it. Intervention on the part of the teacher is necessary to improve the situation and to facilitate Bombo's recovery not only of her self-esteem but also of her drive to improve and learn. Teachers who fail to notice when their students struggle with the language used in a classroom run the risk of negatively affecting their students' academic mindsets in the long-term.

The difference in proficiency between Bombo and her English-speaking peers is a source of frustration and low self-esteem for her, but this is compounded by the use of difficult language in a teaching setting. Teachers can aid in making migrant learners less intimidated by using simplified English to make the concepts easier to internalise. It has been suggested that intervention in the form of helping the students to become more familiar with the sounds of the language, the meaning of the words (including nuanced meaning such as idioms and figurative language) and fluency of reading through practice and modeling reading behaviour, all comprehensively help the students to develop linguistically (Rose, 2005; Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf, 2011; Christie, 1998). In teaching, one should not only focus on what one is teaching, but also why one teaches it: Learners should be encouraged "to see the value and purpose of reading, to be excited and motivated by learning" (Street, 2003; Heath, 2007; Gee, 2004; Perry, 2012).

In reference to Bombo, she feels intimidated not only in learning the English language but also being in the classroom where the subject is being taught in English. This is owing to the difference between her levels of knowledge of the language compared to that of her peers. Migrant children find it less intimidating to learn when their teachers are able to relate to their social backgrounds and life experiences (Menchaca & Ruiz-Escalante, 1995). Teachers can aid in making migrant learners feel less intimidated by using simple English as a way of explaining concepts in an easily understood manner.

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Attitude determines a pupil's motivation towards learning a new language, as they are more involved in activities and more willing to learn if their attitude is positive (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012).

When teaching, teachers use informal English to explain the concepts contained in the Academic English (Hardman, 2011). Migrant pupils are at a disadvantage as they are not only learning a new language, but they are learning in that language as well. They must begin to use English to develop new and abstract concepts as well as literacy skills (Gibbons, 1991). A learner who does not feel that they can socially interact with their peers, cannot perform well academically because they feel that they need to learn the informal or social English which is used inside and outside the classroom. If they do not learn this, they feel that they cannot fit in a society/classroom with peers who are fluent in English, and because of that, these learners find themselves torn between two languages: their native language and the language they are trying to learn. This inner conflict causes anxiety, which negatively impacts their learning.

Krashen's Affect filter (1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012) states that the higher that one's stress level is, the more concerned one will be about what's going on in the classroom, and so there is a lower chance of learning a new language. This is because when one is involved with what is going on around oneself, one's learning is affected. As a result, the higher one's affective filter is the lower one's chances of learning. Conversely, the lower one's affective filter is the higher one's chances of learning.

Many migrant learners have emotional and academic needs. As has been previously stated, the entirety of a learner's social, cultural, and economic background needs to be taken into account in the classroom environment. This inevitably includes the learner's attitudes and prejudices to the learning process, which may cause conflict when different attitudes come into contact. For instance, for a learner with a background where literacy has not been prioritised, or the value thereof has not been explained and internalised, they will struggle to see the value of literacy exercises in a classroom setting and may be less inclined to develop such skills without intervention or support from the teacher. This effect is exacerbated by the difficulty and frustration of developing literacy skills in a second language, while one's peers are developing theirs in their first language.

The socioeconomic background of the learners is an important factor to consider in their academic performance (Hilburn, 2014; Baker, 2006; Kapp, 2004). For learners whose economic background has provided access to written material in the form of books, cell phones, internet access, video games, and television, they have an advantage when compared to the learners whose sole access to written material is through the school itself – in other words, their socioeconomic status does not

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allow for luxuries which provide alternative access to written material. Similarly, learners who go to school hungry or otherwise deprived of basic needs, have great difficulties in getting the most out of their schooling experience due to their poor performance, which itself is a result of poor nutrition and care. The emotional baggage of these hardships weighs heavily on them, and hinders their progress, often resulting in such learners dropping out of school altogether.

While these socioeconomic hardships can negatively affect the overall performance of learners in a classroom environment, the social relationships they make can serve to lessen the burden of the problems they may face outside of the school. Expanding on the importance of social relationships to learning, Vygotsky (1994) emphasised how children relate to events emotionally, which facilitates their awareness and interpretation, evident in the changes of their social relations from the time that they acquire language and move into adolescence (in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012). This is because acquiring a language also allows a child to communicate what they are feeling/experiencing with another person, and the qualitative leap that this entails is foundational for the development of abstract thought and other more complicated mental functions. Consequently, the affective engagement, especially if it is positive, is critical for language and literacy acquisition.

A similar sentiment is seen in the interview with Valerie, who has a very low self-regard and is perceived as stupid by her peers because of her lack of English proficiency. However, this is unlike Bombo who feels as if she is stupid, as Valerie does not state she feels stupid but rather asserts that her classmates perceive her as being stupid. Regardless, feelings of stupidity as a result of low levels of English proficiency are themes shared between both Bombo and Valerie. Valerie does not feel accepted by her classmates, even those from her home country, due to her lack of English ability as she is falling behind the rest of the class. Her interview was also conducted in French. She says,

*“Mon nom c’est Valerie. J’ai 9 ans. Je suis du Congo. Je suis ici en Afrique du Sud depuis l’année passée. Je parle Tshiluba, Swahili et Français à la maison. Mon Anglais n’est pas bon, je me hais.....personne ne veut être mon ami en classe.... même les autres enfants du Congo pensent que je suis stupide parce que je ne peux pas parler l’Anglais....je suis seulement tout le temps avec mon frère parce que il me comprend. Hmm.... A la maison, il n’y a personne qui peut m’aider avec mes devoirs. Papa m’aide des fois mais son Anglais est limité Maman ne parle pas même pas un seul mot d’Anglais. Et c’est même pire pour le devoir en Afrikaans parce que personne ne comprend.... J’avais obtenu 40/100 en Anglais.”*

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This translates to (“My name is Valerie. I’m 9 years old. I’m from Congo. I’ve been here in South Africa since last year. I speak Tshiluba, Swahili, and French at home. At school, we only speak English, but my English isn’t good. I hate myself because my English is not good. No one wants to be friends with me in my class – even other kids from Congo – because they think I am stupid, as I can’t speak English, so I spend all my time with my brother because he understands me. At home, no one can help me with my work, except for my Father, and even his English is quite limited. My mother does not speak a word of English. I cannot complete any of the Afrikaans homework, because neither of them understands it. I got 40 percent for English.”) (Valerie, 20/02/2017).

Within the quote above, Valerie exposes her own struggles with self-worth in a demoralizing and demeaning environment. A quote, such as that given by Valerie, is best understood when incorporating the observations of Covington into one’s reading. The observations made by Covington (1992 quoted in Mendez & Pena, 2013) put forward that people with a very low self-worth attempt to overcome their crisis of self-esteem through finding acceptance, whether this is acceptance from others or self-acceptance. Thus, in an academic setting, an individual may try to combat low self-worth through achieving success and recognition in their studies.

Valerie, incapable of speaking a language foreign to her, here being English, is left in the academic environment without a means of succeeding and finding self-acceptance. Through the inability to communicate or understand her lessons, Valerie is isolated from others in her class, even those from her home country, and is unjustly humiliated and denounced as inferior or incapable. It is evident that this is not an environment or experience that will nurture Valerie’s self-worth or that will provide her with self-acceptance. Valerie’s classmates calling her stupid supports Covington’s observations in her interview above. Hence, this premise means that the learner, Valerie in this case, is likely to over-strive or cheat to ensure that they achieve and protect themselves from any negative appraisal. This is consistent with the research done by Arnold (2011) and Brown (2000), who indicates that learners who battle to understand the language of instruction – such as Valerie, and Bombo in previously – show that they occasionally lack a positive perception of various aspects of their own lives. These include ideas of themselves, their peers, and their educators.

Bombo and Valerie were examples of learners who show a lack of self-confidence and low self-efficacy. However, Elody and Veronica are examples of learners who display self-confidence due to their proficiency in the English language. As such, their interviews were held in English. These two learners with high self-efficacy are likely to engage confidently in tasks because they believe

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that they have the capacity to meet the demands of the task itself. The interview with Elody makes apparent how her perceived level of capability is related to how she acts in the classroom.

She said in her interview conducted on 16 May 2017;

*“My name is Elody and I’m turning nine next month. I am from the Congo. I was born in RSA. I came to St. Octavia in 2014 in Grade R. I speak Lingala at home. When I first came to this school, I didn’t know English I only knew Lingala. It took me a few months to learn English. I used to listen to what people say. I made friends through a friend of mine, Martha, who started at St. Octavia a year before me in Pre-Grade R. I stick to her because I didn’t know anyone. I pick up English from friends and my Mom is a dentist she teaches me English at home. She also helps me with homework, sometimes my Aunty, and my Daddy. Now I feel proud of myself because my English is starting to get better. I feel a bit proud because I have improved, and I feel I have the ability to do something. I have books at home, and I like reading. I do participate in class.”* (Elody, 16/05/2017).

This example from the interview with Elody shows how her self-efficacy has risen as she has become more fluent in English. In turn, she feels that she can contribute more to the class and will thus gain more from the classroom. After the interview, I learned that Elody got seventy percent in English, Maths, and Life Skills in the first semester’s report – a clear indication that her higher level of self-efficacy has positive effects with regard to her performance in the classroom. This is similar to the feelings of Veronica who said that once she was able to have a better understanding of English, she became more interested in it and thus continued to improve.

She said in the interview conducted on 16 May 2017;

*“My name is Veronica. My friends call me Vero. I am 9 years old; I am from the Congo, but I was born in South Africa. This is the first school I’ve been in and I’ve never been to another school. Uhm.... I have been at St. Octavia since pre-grade R when I was 4 years old. At home, I speak both Lingala and English. When... When I first started at St. Octavia, my English wasn’t good. I didn’t know much English I only knew very little English. Every time I speak English or read in front of the class, I get nervous....., hmm.... I’m shy I started learning from the children in my class.*

*People in my class were kind to me and until now, we’re still friends. In Grade 1, I felt that I could speak more English. I like English very much. Every time I read English books; I learn new words. On Saturday, my Dad takes me to the Cape Town library or*

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*the Maitland library. My Mom doesn't have time to take me to the library because she always washes the clothes on Saturday. I do my English homework alone and I ask my parents for help with Math homework because English is easier than Math. I got seven in this year's report in everything; Life Skills, Maths, English, and Afrikaans. Every time I get seventy in my report, my Daddy, say I'm proud of you! Keep up the good work!" (Veronica, 16/05/2017).*

From the statements and answers that were given in each respective interview, it is evident that both Elody and Veronica have excelled due to their interaction with the process of learning English. Elody has immersed herself within an environment that grants her access to the English language. She watches English-language cartoons and surrounds herself with English-speaking friends. In addition, we note that her family has taken the initiative in providing Elody with guidance and help in learning the language.

Similarly, we find that Veronica also benefits from a family structure that is committed to helping her in her learning. Veronica's father provides his daughter with access to the resources afforded by their local libraries. Furthermore, Veronica speaks English at home along with French, therefore allowing her ample opportunity to better her understanding of the language. Finally, we see that Veronica is given moral support and positive reinforcement through the proud words of encouragement and praise from her father.

With both of these learners, it may be noted then that their results were the result of nurtured excellence. Both Elody and Veronica show confidence in their learning, confidence that ultimately comes from strong family support and the inclusion of the learners within beneficial structures of learning, both at home and at school. This falls in line with a study done by Redden (2000) which shows that learners who were more confident and had higher levels of self-esteem proved to perform better academically. These self-esteem levels are dependent on cooperation between parents, school staff as well as the child. Considering that self-esteem plays a big role in academic performance, Pomerantz and Saxon (2001) argue that cooperation between these parties is key to increasing a child's self-esteem which, in turn, will lead to increased academic performance.

#### **5.4.2.2 Anxiety and insecurity:**

Understanding a learner's anxiety and insecurity helps us to discern the feelings that migrant learners have when being taught or when demonstrating literacy skills in the classroom. Understanding the learners' feelings provides insight into their learning process (Mendez & Pena, 2013). Thus, there is a direct relationship between teaching that is informed by learners' needs and

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an effective teaching practice whereby learners realise their learning potential as discussed further in Chapter 6.

According to the Oxford Dictionary (<https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/anxiety>, 11 Dec 2017), anxiety is defined as “A feeling of worry, nervousness, or unease about something with an uncertain outcome” while insecurity is defined as “Uncertainty or anxiety about oneself; lack of confidence”. Brown (2000) identifies that there is a difference between anxiety and insecurity. For Brown, anxiety is associated with feelings of frustration, uneasiness, worry, and self-doubt. Anxiety is a fear of possible future events whereas insecurity is caused by a lack of selfconfidence.

Anxiety is a normal phenomenon that anyone can experience when facing an uncertain outcome of an event. In this study, however, anxiety amongst learners arises as a result of learning in a foreign language classroom. From the interviews with the migrant learners, many of them indicated that they feel anxious because of a lack of fluency in the English language and fear what other learners or their teachers will think of them when having to speak in the classroom.

An example of this is seen and discussed in Shungu’s interview below. In an interview with Shungu, she states that she does not fully participate in class, as she is scared of being laughed at by other pupils. She says, in French;

*“je m’appelle Shungu. J’ai 9 ans. Je suis du Congo. Ca fait 4 ans que je suis en Afrique du Sud. Je parle Français, Swahili et Lingala a la maison. Et l’anglais avec mes amis. A l’école on parle que Anglais. J’aime mon école. Je n’ai pas de livre à la maison mais chaque jour madame nous donne des livres à lire à la maison. Ma mère m’aide avec mes devoirs. Elle vient avec moi chaque Samedi à l’atelier que l’école organise et je l’accompagne. Je me sens nerveuse quand je parle Anglais en classe...je fais la confusion et de fautes. Même si je ne comprends pas je préfère me taire parce que je ne veux pas qu’on se moque de moi. Je m’assieds au fond de la classe pour que madame et les amies ne me parlent pas...J’avais obtenu 50/100 en Anglais”.*

This translates to (“I’m Shungu. I’m 9 years old. I’m from Congo. It’s been 4 years since I’ve been here in South Africa. I speak French, Swahili, and Lingala at home. And in English with my friends. At school, we only speak English. I like my school. I have no books. However, the teacher gives us books to read at home every day. My mom helps me with homework. She attends parents’ workshops every Saturday at school to be able to help me with my lessons at home. When I try to speak English in class, I always feel nervous. I confuse my words and I end up making mistakes. I don’t

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like to speak even if I don't understand because I don't want people to laugh at me. I sit in the back of the classroom to avoid communicating with classmates and the teacher. I scored 50 percent in English.”) (Shungu, 18 march, 2017).

The interview with Shungu makes it clear that feelings of insecurity and anxiety contribute to a negative classroom experience. This supports Agaesse's (2017) findings, in that anxiety can negatively influence the learning process amongst learners and result in them doubting their abilities and underestimating themselves. The more anxious a student is, the lower their self-esteem becomes, and as a result, their learning ability diminishes. Similarly, Arnold (2011) and Brown (2000) found that anxiety is the most influential emotion in a foreign language classroom that negatively influences the learners' learning process.

The issue faced by Shungu is that her ability to communicate and therefore interact within the classroom has been stripped from her. Shungu's anxiety is preventing her from establishing friendships and companionship within the classroom, this being integral to any learning experience, as well as stopping her from interacting with the teacher. In essence, Shungu, and her academic experience, are sabotaged by her self-doubt and anxiety. In this regard, I note that many, if not all, of the avenue's integral to the learning experience, have been shut off from Shungu. Thus, just as is confirmed by Arnold and Brown, Shungu's learning experience and her learning ability are crippled by her feelings of anxiety.

Shungu states that she does not fully participate in class, as she is scared of being laughed at by other pupils. It is clear that Shungu requires support so that she feels less anxious regarding her lack of fluency in the English language for her to contribute in class and thus learn more. The more that she contributes in class the more her feelings of insecurity will decrease, as she becomes more comfortable speaking amongst her peers.

Supporting such a learner involves being kind, respectful, and reassuring in their direction as shown in Minghe and Yuan (2013). However, the difficulty for teachers is that learners often conceal their insecurities, making it difficult for the teacher to identify their needs and offer the appropriate support. This is clearly seen in the way, which Shungu attempts to avoid engaging inclass activities, by sitting in the back of the classroom. Many of the interviewees, such as Bombo, Valerie, and Shungu, make this apparent. The support, which learners need, is not solely academic support but also emotional support. That will be discussed next.

From the interviews with the migrant learners, it can be seen that emotional wellbeing is highly relevant to the process of learning, particularly in the case of the language and literacy learning

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processes. Emotional stress and anxiety, generally the result of limited English proficiency, are shown to directly relate to reduced self-efficacy and reduced participation within the classroom environment. Mendez and Pena (2013) reflect this as they note the influential role of apprehension in the limitation of students learning a foreign language in a foreign context. Mendez and Pena (2013) refer to the importance of emotion in determining one's capacity to make evaluations.

Thus, the emotional wellbeing of a student, such as our migrant learners referred to above, is vital in the evaluations required by the learning process. A learner's motivation is highly susceptible to being influenced by the many variables of an emotional event, with issues of personal background and social environment being just some of the greater influencers upon a student's capacity to make wise evaluations. In the case of a negative emotional event, a learner's failure to carry out an academic task successfully would affect the learner's engagement in the classroom, as is seen with Bombo, Valerie, and Shungu. Therefore, understanding the impact of negative and positive emotions, and how they can be mitigated or induced respectively, is critical to enhancing motivation inside the classroom.

#### **5.4.3 Summary of the interviews with migrant learners**

From all the interviews conducted with the learners, five of the children have expressed feelings of shyness, anxiety, frustration, isolation, and a lack of self-confidence to varying levels. These feelings have been caused by the children's inability to use and understand the language of instruction, which in this case is English. Many of the children do not feel comfortable to actively participate in the learning process due to a lack of self-confidence, in the language of instruction, as they fear of being judged and being made fun of by other learners in the classroom. It should be noted that despite this, two of the learners interviewed in this study expressed confidence in class participation due to their proficiency in English.

Of the seven migrant learners that were interviewed, all of them reported that they were not allowed to speak their own language and that they were told to speak English only in school. Although the school is multicultural and diverse, allowing learners of many backgrounds in, it remains unfair to make learners all learn in one language when some are not as familiar with it as others. As a consequence of this, many learners feel additional pressures and frustrations as they find themselves needing to improve their grasp of the English language faster than others. These children may feel inferior in comparison to their classmates who speak English as a mother tongue because the learning process encompasses more and therefore takes a long time to learn the content in that new language. This creates barriers for migrant learners to overcome both academically and

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socio-culturally as learners feel that their language and culture are not equally valued in the learning environment.

As a consequence, this inevitably creates psychological effects on the learners, which in turn may lead to cognitive and learning impediments on migrant children in the classroom environment. Learners may feel the need to work hard just to fit in and socially ingratiate themselves into the classroom setting. This is argued for by Garza et al. (2014) who state that “good literacy instruction involves a “building” on what is already in a social setting of the student, which could be drawn from, for example, and prior linguistic knowledge or meaning-making practices from the home or cultural background. Successful instruction grants importance, therefore, to the student and their social setting. Without this understanding, it is unlikely that effective methods can be used for literacy training which will be supportive of learning and later achievement. In addition, a pedagogy that embraces the language, history, and culture of the learners and uses it as the basis for learning English allows learners to be confident in the classroom environment and gives them a voice among their peers.” This suggests that the additional pressures placed on migrant children as a result of learning in an unfamiliar language and cultural setting can have negative affects psychologically, which in turn may prevent them from learning as effectively as their peers, regardless of how knowledgeable the teacher may be.

It is important to note the commendable gesture of the teachers reported by each of the learners during the interview. Learners reported that the teachers give them books to read at home every day. This shows how interested the school (St. Octavia Primary School) is in getting the learners used to reading and in turn developing their vocabulary and expression. However, this commendable gesture by the teachers can only produce the desired effects if the parents of these learners are involved in reinforcing the reading initiative by encouraging their children to read at home. Reese et.al (2010) argue that parental involvement with reading activities at home has significant positive influences not only on reading achievement, language comprehension and, expressive language skills but also on children’s interest in reading, attitudes towards reading, and attentiveness in the classroom.

However, some parents are unable to assist their children with homework as the work is in a foreign language or due to the fact that parents are sometimes unschooled. To help parents assist their children at home with their homework, including how to read and engage their children in reading, the school organises the workshop every Saturday for eight weeks to teach parents strategies to support their children's learning at home. Details on this workshop for parents are described in the previous chapter.

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## 5.5 Comparison of the learner's affective performance with their cognitive performance in class

**Table 1.3 Comparison of the learner's affective performance with their cognitive performance in class**

<b>Learners</b>	<b>Feelings</b>	<b>English Grade</b>
Sarah	Confidence	80
Charles	Confidence	70
Kyle	Confidence	70
Elody	Confidence	70
Veronica	Confidence	70
Deborah	Less confidence	60
Beya	Less confidence	50
Shungu	Anxiety and Insecurity	50
Bombo	Lack of self-confidence	40
Valerie	Lack of self-confidence	40

The table above shows that there is a correlation between how learners feel in class and their English score on their first term reports. The results shown in this table are out of a maximum score of 100 marks. The first 5 learners expressed feeling confident in English or even in reading while the other 5 learners expressed a feeling corresponding to their level of English, i.e. the learners who felt less confident scored the lowest in English. It could also be true that the learner who scores the lowest is less confident. It should be noted, however, that the school does not distinguish between English and literacy classes. The two courses are merged into one course which is the English course.

In addition, the interview with all the learners regardless of their language background shows that although proficiency in English gives one the confidence to express oneself in English and to study in English, proficiency in English does not automatically make one confident in Maths or, better yet, it does not automatically allow them to excel in Maths. This corroborates what one of the two Grade 3 teachers told me; that in her class the Congolese learners perform better in Maths than everyone else in the class.

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The following sections will address the rest of the secondary research questions and answer them in turn.

### **5.6 What are the types of learning activities that migrant children from the Democratic Republic of Congo relate to?**

As I mentioned in section 4.3, I found during my observation in the two classrooms that all learners in general, and Congolese learners in particular, were happy with the narration and games of sorts, including singing, dancing, and lyrics. During the narration, the teachers used a big book with pictures and could easily animate the characters of the book using different tones and vocal expression. In addition, teachers used books that learners could easily identify with. These practices were part of the strategy that both teachers used to capture and engage the attention of the learners in teaching the concepts. The teachers also used these practices to reinforce phonetics lessons in the classroom. It is impossible to expect the teacher to help all learners in the classroom to have higher self-esteem while meeting the expectations of the whole class. Therefore, Agaesse (2017) states that because of the teacher's inability to respond individually to each learner, the teacher can create creative activities and tasks that are useful in the classroom that learners can do in groups with his or her support. It is in this way that the learners will get to know each other, trust each other, exchange ideas, and strengthen their bonds. For Agaesse, games, like so many other activities, captivate the learners by motivating them to open up to their peers, to talk, and to find pleasure in learning. This calms the pedagogical scene and makes learning the language and literacy less stressful.

### **5.7 What opportunities are present to help develop their ability to use English to communicate?**

I have described in sections 4.3 and 4.2.2.1 how both teachers used synonyms and antonyms in their methodology to expand learner's vocabulary during reading, through narration and repetition. Learners were encouraged to come to school every Monday with a story to tell in front of the class and the teachers were there to follow closely and help the presenter with words in case the presenter was stuck or lacking in vocabulary. The whole class was encouraged to participate in this activity. Also, each learner would go to the blackboard to write at least 5 words dictated by the teachers. Some would argue that asking learners to tell their story in front of the whole class would have the effect of shaming learners who suffer from low self-esteem because they do not master or lack proficiency in the school language which happens to be English. This is also true with sending these learners to the blackboard for dictation. But during all these activities, both teachers were kind to assist the learners who struggled to express themselves. I remember one time one of the learners

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was mocked by some of his classmates but the teacher (Claire) stood up for this learner and called the whole class to order and asked them how they would feel if someone made fun of them in front of everyone. Everyone was silent. In support of this, Sutlana (2011) states that good teaching requires considerable language support. Teachers need to use and integrate these materials into their lessons, classroom teaching methods, and overall interaction with students, whether they are native or non-native English-speaking teachers.

In the same vein, to help learners develop their vocabulary and expression, the teachers had the learners sit in ability groups; the strongest and weakest learners, the most talkative and most quiet learners were placed in the same group to support each other. To further expose the learners to the language, each learner was given a book by the teacher to read at home and present to the class. Every Friday the school organised an excursion with the learners to expose them to the language used in the zoo, museums, supermarkets, and public squares. In addition to all these practices, the school organises extra classes, a reading club for learners with language difficulties and even a workshop to teach parents how to support their children at home with homework.

If the literature (Krashen, 1985; Brown, 2000; Arnold, 2011; Mendez and Pena, 2013), which indicates a reduction in learning capacity among learners because of anxiety is accepted, then it is necessary to seek ways to reduce the causes of anxiety amongst learners, and especially the causes of anxiety emanating from a requirement to learn through the English medium. This leads to the question of how one would mitigate the cause of anxiety among learners in a multicultural learning environment. One of the most obvious solutions would be to teach the French-speaking learners through the medium of French, however, this option is unrealistic in South African schools due to the South African schooling system being primarily English. Secondly, there are very few French medium schools in South Africa with only one in Cape Town and they are very expensive, which is clearly not affordable by most of these migrant learners who are primarily from a lower social class. A more feasible option would be for teachers to recognise how and where their teaching style is causing anxiety in the learners and then revising their teaching style accordingly.

## **5.8 Conclusion**

In this chapter, I presented and discussed the findings from the data that was collected through my observations and interviews with learners who took part in this study. Compared to learners whose first language is English the data showed that migrant learners suffer from emotional distress and anxiety due to the lack of proficiency in the English language, which is the medium of instruction. These emotions, as a consequence, prevent the learners from participating in classroom experiences, and so they do not benefit from education to the same degree as their English-speaking peers.

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For these learners to learn effectively, their emotional needs must first be met. Understanding and considering learners' emotions can help teachers create favourable conditions in which their learners can better perform different tasks (Agaesse, 2017). Therefore, teachers would be required to go above and beyond their traditional mandate to create a holistic learning environment that caters toward a learners' emotional and academic challenges.

I also found that there is a direct correlation between the level of proficiency in the English language and the level of anxiety felt by the learners, in such that the more proficient a learner is in the English language; the less anxious they tend to be.

It is apparent that not only are learners presented with difficulties but teachers too, who may be limited in their capacity to deal with learners' emotional journeys for the academic teaching alone is not straightforward in the context of migrant learners. Potential solutions to bridge the gap between these learners and teachers can be addressed through a pedagogical model, which will be discussed in further detail in the following chapter.

## **Chapter 6.**

### **The theoretical contribution and implications of the study**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter will engage with the findings and the aforementioned discussions and seeks to develop a pedagogical model/framework based on the findings of the previous two chapters. In summary,

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immigrant children who do not speak English fluently, which is the medium of instruction in their schools, suffer from stress and anxiety which impacts both their ability to learn and on the teacher's ability to teach them effectively. This places a greater burden on the child in terms of learning and on the teacher on whom an additional and sometimes unacknowledged workload is placed in terms of working out effective teaching practice to support children who face these kinds of difficulties. Because teachers are overloaded and underresourced, they often provide support for local learners over or against the needs of immigrant learners.

To solve the dilemma of the relationship between learners and teachers, this study suggests a strategy, detailed below, which will allow a teacher to create a positive environment in the classroom, where a healthy expectation on the part of the teacher encourages learners to improve their literacy cooperatively while incorporating extra-curricular activities to eventually help inside the classroom. The model/framework seeks to remedy the dual problems migrant learners face studying in another language in a foreign context and to introduce structures and strategies within a theoretical framework that will enable teachers to efficiently navigate and overcome these problems.

## **6.2 Reflection of main scholarship discussions**

This study began with the argument that immigrant and refugee Francophone children in local South African schools adjust to an English medium environment, acquire English literacy, and learn in English better when their particular emotional needs are attended to in the classroom than when these needs are missed or ignored. This argument was based on pre-existing work that found that emotions are critical in the process of acquiring a foreign language. As Agaesse (2017: 48) puts it,

*“Emotions are very important for foreign language acquisition. During the language learning process, the appearance of emotional walls can hinder learner development. These barriers can be reinforced with different emotions, such as anxiety and low self-esteem. These emotions have an influence on the learners' performance. Understanding and considering these emotions can help teachers create favourable conditions in which their students can better perform different tasks.”*

What I found through my study is that the level of emotional stress for learners is related to how much they understand in the medium of instruction (Elody and Veronica, are an example of migrant learners who have become confident because they have improved in English. See section 5.4.1). The more proficient they become in English (in this case the medium of instruction) the less

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emotionally stressed they are, the better they learn. However, for some learners, the emotional stress produced by not being proficient in English actually prevents them from acquiring proficiency. They do not become proficient or they take longer to become proficient because they are emotionally stressed and then, in turn, they become more stressed because their proficiency is low.

The impact of affect is not limited to how successfully students learn; teachers are also affected by the emotional needs of the learners. For, example, often teachers do not know how to cope with diversity in a classroom, especially with regard to learners who have different levels of English proficiency. This hinders a teacher's ability to teach English language and literacy, as they have to cater for learners with different levels of English proficiency. In my research, I observed that children's anxiety decreased, and their ability to learn improved, when both parents and teachers worked together to meet their emotional needs both in the classroom and at home.

Ideally, children should learn, at least initially, in their mother tongue or first language. However, in cases where that is not possible, it is important to recognise that acquiring literacy in a second language can be an emotionally stressful experience. Therefore, if such children are to succeed, teachers need to attend to the particular emotional needs that arise out of having to acquire literacy in a language that is not one's mother tongue and in a context that is culturally foreign.

The seven French-speaking learners who participated in my study shared emotional needs that are particular to the experience of being relocated to a linguistically and culturally foreign context through migration or through being a refugee and then having to acquire a foreign language as well as learn other subjects in that language. This experience can be stressful and certainly involves the emotions of the children. The needs of the French-speaking children and the extent to which they were met or not met in the classroom bears a relationship to how successfully they learned in their new environment. Learners learn best when their emotional needs are met, and they are not stressed or anxious. This is particularly relevant to learners learning in a second language medium, such as Congolese migrant children who are generally French, Lingala, or Swahili speaking learning in English.

The research of Aga  sse (2017), Arnold (2011), Brown (2002), and Krashen (1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012) all identify anxiety as a factor that has a negative impact on a student's ability to learn. If this is true, then the observations made from the interviews in the Findings Chapter with the three migrant learners (Bombo, Valery, and Shungu) at St. Octavia Primary School, implies that they will not benefit from the education that they are receiving in the literacy classroom if the emotional stress and anxiety persist as a result of the language barrier they encounter. Because of

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these issues, learners are prevented from learning as effectively as possible, and teachers, too, are unable to teach to their best potential. In response to this, a solution has been devised, as outlined below:

### **6.3 Recommended model for literacy teaching and learning for migrant children**

#### **6.3.1 Creation of a positive classroom atmosphere:**

A solution to the dilemma of a multilingual classroom would require the teachers to find a way to reduce the anxiety caused by the language barrier experienced during classroom teaching. This strategy was successfully implemented by teachers participating in this research study (see section 4.3). This would require the introduction of an inclusive educational space that does not favour particular learners or alienate others. Instead, this space would promote inclusive learning, with migrant learners being encouraged to participate by their teachers and their classmates. In complex multilingual situations, it would require an extraordinary contribution from the teacher to find creative and innovative ways to engage learners in the classroom despite the existing language barriers (see section 4.3).

In this way, by creating interactive games and fun exercises between classmates, learners who were previously on the periphery, may feel better inclined to participate in classroom discussions and activities. This engagement of learners in the classroom will contribute to reducing the anxiety felt by these learners as well as boosting their self-confidence, which consequently would improve their learning ability. Teachers need to understand and incorporate this social and emotional approach to their teaching methods to develop each individual's English language and literacy skills. In support of this, Baker (2011) remarks that to stimulate the learning of a language in a classroom, teachers need to develop and use different strategies to achieve this goal.

#### **6.3.2 The implication of the research's findings**

Practical contributions from this work would include creating a theoretical model/framework for teachers who find themselves in a multilingual, multicultural classroom environment where learners are struggling to adapt to geographical, linguistic and cultural displacement, as well as struggling to continue learning when their language of instruction has been changed to one which is not theirs – i.e. English. Teachers who teach in English and thus assume first language status amongst their classes could adapt their methods to accommodate those learners who might struggle where a first language English speaker would not. In other words, the affective factors, which affect learning, must be considered in tandem with effective factors. The methods outlined below provide a means by which teachers can facilitate the acquisition of English language and literacy, as well

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as the integration of migrant learners not only into the classroom dynamic but also into the greater South African society.

The school investigated in this study was multilingual and multicultural, yet despite this, monolingual teaching methods are the accepted standard with classes taught only in English (see Section 5.2). Given the nature of the access paradox (mentioned in Chapter 2), monolingual teaching approaches grant access to some while denying it to others, favouring children whose home language is that of the school. In a multi-cultural learning environment, the diversity of learners must be taken into account when deciding to use the appropriate teaching strategy to best educate learners from diverse backgrounds, such as migrant learners. The forced adaption of a dominant culture and language undermines the individual cultural identity and heritage of the learners (Paterson, 2017; Sultana, 2011). A teacher could, therefore, be able to mitigate this issue by developing an affective and socio-cultural perspective to their teaching approach, which considers learners' multi-cultural backgrounds (Mendez and Pena, 2013; Arnold, 2011; Sultana, 2011; Brown, 2002). One of the main factors that contribute to these different realities is the learners' languages and the emotional ramifications of learning in a second or sometimes third language. A multilingual and multicultural space, therefore, must be at the forefront of the academic teaching approach.

A multicultural teaching approach is one in which learners' experiences are taken into account in the teaching strategy to make the lesson relatable to their life experiences and ensure language minority children feel valued and included in the classroom (Sultana, 2011). A further advantage of this lies in the way migrant learners come to appreciate the cultural differences of the host country, but also of their own selves promoting a healthy understanding of the uniqueness of each learner's background as they negotiate similarity and difference. Using a multi-lingual teaching approach demonstrates a sensitivity to the diverse backgrounds of learners in the class. Where languages other than the dominant teaching language, English in this case, is acknowledged, this acknowledgment can be used to augment the effectiveness of teaching methods in the classroom (Sultana, 2011). This way, learners can draw benefit not only from formal teaching content but also from their peers' beliefs, values, and cultural heritage. Teachers who lack a sense of multiculturalism in the classroom may hinder some students from achieving higher levels of educational outcomes than they are capable of (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2011).

Callins, (2006) makes the very valid point that teachers who embrace culturally responsive literacy instruction will serve as a catalyst for improved reading achievement among students who are culturally and linguistically diverse. This is worth noting because a pedagogy that takes the

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different socio-cultural, linguistic, and emotional realities of learners into account allows them to express themselves confidently, both academically and socially amongst their peers. Using the learners' language as the basis for developing concepts is key for their understanding of those concepts (Sultana, 2011; Paterson, 2017). Thus, when teaching children a second language, teachers can allow code-switching while they are teaching to help them develop conceptual thinking.

The use of code-switching contributes to an environment of acculturation, where learners adjust to using English while simultaneously not being forced to ignore or hide their own heritage, culture, and language. This is preferred to assimilation because it ensures learners from minority language groups, such as migrant learners do not lose a connection to their cultural background and provides them with a sense of pride in their roots (Paterson, 2017). Although acculturation is an ideal approach, it places pressure on learners who are struggling to adapt to their host country, as well as pressure on teachers to ensure they are culturally knowledgeable, sensitive, skillful, and inclusive (Paterson, 2017).

Acculturation is preferred to assimilation as it ensures that migrant learners do not lose connection with their cultural background and provides a sense of pride in their roots (Paterson, 2017). Although this second approach is preferable in the context of this study, it has a negative side of putting pressure on students struggling to adapt to the host country. For this reason, I argue that the teacher who adopts this approach should be culturally competent, sensitive, and inclusive.

Some knowledge of the migrant language is also essential on the part of the teacher, given the incorporation of code-switching practices into the teaching strategy. Alternatively, the teacher may use migrant learners from the same background who are more proficient in English to help translate for their peers. Indeed, without code-switching, language minority children's ability to promote their own ideas is undermined.

In a classroom where there are learners with home-languages other than English, such as Congolese migrant children who are generally French, Lingala or Swahili speaking – it is required that the teacher bridge the gap between the differences in language used at school and at home (Gee, 2004; Perry, 2012). This is done not by teaching the literacy skills in isolation, nor by simply learning the migrant language fluently, but rather by incorporating some of the aspects of the life experiences of the learners as well as using examples and stories that are culturally related to the learners' experiences (Sultana, 2011; Perry, 2012). The result of this is that the learning experience will be more inclusive, relevant to real-life experiences, and meaningful.

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### 6.3.3 Social practice and ideology of literacy in the school

Affective teaching and socio-cultural theories informed my approach towards affective pedagogy for immigrant learners. I attempt to explain how learners have their sense of literacy embedded in them by their socio-cultural context. I then differentiate between the literacies of different social contexts and cultures. I explain how literacy, reading, and writing, means different things in different cultures and this difference in meaning leads to a different value in literacy between cultures. In the context of a classroom, this also translates into some literacies being more visible than others. However, schools as institutions only acknowledge and teach one type of literacy, which is the dominant type. This prevents learners from different social backgrounds, such as migrant learners, from accessing this teaching in the same way as those from the dominant type of social background. This, in turn, dissociates the learners from different backgrounds from the dominant social context. This process reinforces the hegemonic ideology of the dominant mode of literacy within the classroom context.

While the effects of teaching only in the dominant language may not be immediately apparent, one must not underestimate the considerable role language plays in shaping identities and the marginalisation of learners from minority backgrounds. South African classrooms are diverse, featuring many languages and literacies, not all of which are equally valued or practiced. The power dynamics and internalisation of these coded classroom environments can result in the devaluation of non-English languages, cultures, and backgrounds, and in turn, shaping the self-perceptions of learners, often into 'in-group' and 'out-group' identities (Fuller, 2009). Learners with backgrounds less recognized by dominant educational environments may suffer from feelings of ostracization and shame, leading them to limit their participation in classroom activities, which greatly impact learning outcomes. These difficulties extend not only to their schoolwork but also in their interpersonal relations with their peers and teachers. A learner may feel uncomfortable engaging within and outside of the classroom (i.e. asking the teacher a question or making friends) because a certain command of the language is required before they can do so.

To prevent cultural and linguistic biases in the classroom, teachers must be aware of the subjective understanding of language and encourage learners to challenge these dynamics of power.

Teachers thus have the responsibility of identifying the inherent values and ideas that are embedded within their classroom context and how they might clash with those of learners who come from other backgrounds. A certain level of awareness of this imbalance is required in classrooms and encouragement and advice given to those who are struggling to cope. Furthermore, sensitivity towards alternate understandings of a certain text is also important for learners who, approaching

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it from another viewpoint, may feel alienated if they are discouraged from holding a different comprehension from the dominant one.

To account for the challenges mentioned above, language and literacy should be acknowledged as sociocultural practices and recognizing the wider context and narrative they are a part of. This can be enhanced by utilizing technical skills that assist social capital, (such as decoding of text) rather than placing an emphasis on technical skills purely as a means of increasing academic rigour. In adopting this shift of perspective, literacy may be positioned in relation to the various institutions (and power relationships between them) that sustain them – education only being one example (Street, 2008; Gee, 2004). This allows for the cognisance that teaching one type of social practice, in a context where there are varying social contexts, inevitably privileges one group at the expense of another; especially, for example, migrant children whose cultural capital lies totally outside of the local mainstream culture and, to an extent, even the non-mainstream culture. Thus, the idea of literacy is not a neutral concept and is constructed by social norms and ideologies. This is further reinforced by context-specific media such as literature, books, and other media, which serve to alienate other ideas of literacy. As a consequence, teachers need to be cognisant of the different forms of literacy while teaching in a multicultural environment to avoid marginalizing learners from a literate background that is different from the dominant ideology.

This can be done by incorporating media in the classroom from social contexts that reflect the social contexts of the learners being taught to allow them to better relate to the content. Teachers could also diversify the types of pedagogical strategies, which encourage multimodal engagement – for example, teachers sharing visual texts: images and videos to communicate the content as well as teachers allowing learners to assist each other; and including the use of learners' home languages. This can be supported by emphasizing the importance of being critical when being taught (See section 2.3.1.1.3.1).

It is, therefore, necessary to be aware and critical of power dynamics within a language system, such as the English language. Teaching critical thinking skills and showing learners how to engage and challenge the power dynamic of the particular literary and linguistics of traditional texts will create a more level playing field within a multicultural classroom. This is because learning literacy does not simply consist of technical skills such as decoding but involves a process whereby learners are acculturated into ways of thinking, speaking, and writing that belongs to the social groups in which they are taught. Using this critical teaching style, motivating learners to use the English language, both for oral and literary purposes, could become a focal point of classroom activities,

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so providing learners with opportunities to use the English language with purpose and thus be fundamental for the development of the language.

#### **6.3.4 Storytelling as a method of literacy instruction**

The school investigated by the research study used storytelling as a method of teaching literacy to schoolchildren. This was undertaken by encouraging learners to read out loud in class. Reading out loud has been shown to develop fluent reading and writing, as well as critical thinking skills (Krashen, 2003). Over and above this, learners are encouraged throughout the process to make inferences about what is being read, interpret the meaning of passages, and to understand the tone of the writer and overall mood of the piece, all of which can be used by the teacher to engage the learners in the process. These effects can also be seen in the world of practice as discussed in relation to two teachers observed during fieldwork (Sections 4.2.1 & 4.2.2). Reading stories to schoolchildren is thus an essential tool used by the two teachers observed in this study for developing vocabulary skills, with the added benefit of inspiring interest in reading. Stories serve as positive anchors as learners readily get into "listening to a story" mood and are therefore primed for learning the language component in the context in which it is being taught (Dickinson et al., 1994).

In order to be as effective as possible, the stories need to be relatable to the learners' life-experiences, encompassing social, cultural, psychological, and linguistic factors. In this way, learners benefit not only from exposure to reading but also affirmation in the importance of their heritage within the classroom space, essential to an affective teaching strategy. Furthermore, learners may also be given the opportunity to take part in formulating stories, taking into consideration learners' background knowledge and therefore, the level of English proficiency they have achieved. The benefits of this approach are twofold: Learners who struggle with reading are given the opportunity to read a story about their own interests, and on their own level of English, and in reading it, build their self-esteem. This also introduces a social aspect whereby learners can share their pieces of writing with each other, which can lead to beneficial group discussions where quieter learners may participate in a space with their peers, without the pressure of conversing with the teacher. This inclusion is one of the goals of the affective teaching strategy. If one is not able to read, expanding vocabulary becomes a difficult process. Comprehension suffers, too, from an inability to read fluently. Therefore, it is of utmost importance that a love of reading and writing be cultivated in the classroom.

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### **6.3.5 Support from outside of the classroom**

It must be acknowledged that English-speaking learners who participated in this study had more exposure to written material outside of the classroom than the migrant learners who speak other languages. Additionally, access to written materials in their home-languages are more difficult to come by outside of the classroom (see Section 5.4). School is seen as the continuation of the home for English-speaking learners, whereas there is a linguistic disconnect between the migrant learners' home and their school. The teacher can take cognisance of these realities and help to mitigate the effects of this difficulty, but to expect the teacher to be able to solve the issue alone is unrealistic.

The involvement of parents, therefore, is essential to ensure not only cooperation between the teacher, the learner, the parents, and the school but also the continued learning of the learner outside of the classroom environment to ensure that they get the same exposure to reading that their more privileged peers do. Section 4.5 which explores the ways in which the school of the fieldwork's site, St. Octavia Primary School, could equip parents with skills to assist learners outside of the classroom, which may be of help to schools and parents in similar situations elsewhere.

### **6.3.6 Cooperative teaching strategy implemented in the classroom**

Within the classroom, one of the strategies that were employed by both teachers during this study was the pairing of weaker learners with stronger ones, to encourage an environment of peer support in order to achieve a common goal (see Section 5.2). It has been noted that pupils tend to learn better when it is from each other and pairing weaker learners with stronger ones may contribute to a more equal academic strength across the board. In other words, stronger learners may contribute to bringing up the weaker learners' academic performance. The cooperation between learners mirrors the strategies highlighted by Vygotsky (1978), whose reflection supports the idea of learning being a social activity which, while requiring support from a more knowledgeable source, benefits greatly from the cooperation between peers.

Such pairing may also contribute to more effective strategizing of the pace of lessons. With stronger (and thus faster-working) learners helping weaker (and thus slower-working) learners, the two can be said to equalise each other and to work at a pace, which is neither too fast for the slower learners, nor too slow for the faster ones. A teacher who practices responsive pacing takes full advantage of this phenomenon:

*“Responsive pacing considers learners’ social position, context, and needs and, most importantly, their levels of understanding. Responsive pacing implies open and learner sensitive sequencing, which can either relax or maintain optimal pacing*

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*depending on the learners' understanding and social-class imperatives. Responsive pedagogical progression takes heed of the theoretical and the empirical need to "relax pacing" maintain "weak framing of pacing", or ensure "variable pacing" for the realisation of working-class learners in pedagogical encounters."* Pausigere (2016:48).

Teachers need to be aware of learners whose medium of instruction is not their mother tongue. This requires a sensitivity of judgment on the teacher's part in delivering the lessons. Teachers need to avoid using complex language, which may cause difficulties for those who are not from the same linguistic background as migrant learners. Awareness of the use of colloquial language or idiomatic expression and instead of using more familiar forms of conversational English language has benefits for migrant learners. Both teachers in this study were found to use repetition in the class as a technique to ensure every student's grasp of the content. This is a crucial way of overcoming such language barriers and difficulties (Sultana, 2011). By ensuring the appropriate supports are present in the classroom, linguistic challenges can be managed and overcome not only by migrant learners but the class as a whole.

### **6.3.7 Student inclusion and teachers' expectations in the classroom space**

Given the observed phenomenon of teachers ignoring migrant learners due to linguistic prejudice (see Section 5.4.2), the importance of inclusion needs to be prioritised in the model/framework. Teachers tend to ignore migrant learners, even when the learners themselves attempt to participate in classroom environments, due to their expectation that the learners will not be able to answer questions correctly. The conflation of their linguistic ability with their intelligence leads to lower self-esteem and leads to learners becoming reticent in contributing to the lesson.

This becomes a cycle where the learner, no longer feeling able to contribute, becomes more and more reticent and their development will slow to a halt.

Teachers have an opportunity to assist learners in developing the attitudes and approaches that will enable them to become "motivated and strategic literacy learners" (Pressley 2003). In order to do this, teachers should have expectations of their learners, which are fair, yet high enough to encourage the learners to improve to meet the teacher's expectations of them. The use of a positive discourse around literacy skills, coupled with expectations that are high enough to challenge students, and engagement in student self-reflection in order to identify areas of potential growth (as opposed to 'problem areas'), promotes deeper engagement on the part of students in the classroom (Mendez & Pena, 2013). In a classroom environment where there are trust and a sense of safety,

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learners are more likely to take risks in order to better themselves academically. As teacher Ruth said:

*“Teachers’ expectations of students matter. I’ve learned that kids generally meet teachers’ expectations. If you set the bar too low, they believe that’s all they’re capable of. That’s why when I became a school teacher, I felt a duty to communicate high expectations to my students, so they could believe in themselves and rise to meet rigorous standards. Many of our kids will push themselves to truly thrive to the level they want to be at. I want to bridge those gaps, of lower standards for the minority student. As a teacher, my only expectation is that every child in my class will make substantial progress if I am able to connect with them on both cognitive and emotional levels. In order for me to achieve that, I have to know the child as a unique individual, not a member of a group” (Ruth, 2017).*

In encouraging this level of engagement from students in the learning process, the teacher (or more capable adult or peer) may take responsibility for the learning process of the student. The teacher plays a critical role in guiding the child’s participation in activities planned to increase his or her understanding of a particular concept and facilitate student learning (Harman, 2011). Ideally, the teacher knows the best methods and strategies to connect learning to the child’s prior knowledge obtained from parents and community in order to integrate the everyday and formal concepts into the child’s development. Moreover, sometimes he or she uses authentic context-specific issues for problem-solving to make the learning experience meaningful (Hardman, 2011; Karpov, 2003). The teacher knows how to facilitate class discussions, helps students to listen to one another, and to try to understand the different histories and positions that other people in the class speak from. The teacher knows how and when to vary the approach in order to give all the students an improved chance of learning in ways that suit them best according to their learning styles.

### **6.3.8 Importance of extra-curricular activities in student performance**

Lastly, in encouraging a teaching strategy that strives to factor in a learner’s entire experience, it is important, too, to consider the importance of extra-curricular activities offered at the school and the positive effects such activities may have elsewhere in the learners’ school life. This may be a major benefit in general, but in particular to migrant learners. This was covered in section 5.4.2. For example, if a learner excels in sports, which was a common occurrence in this study, such excellence may enable them to make friends within those circles, which has benefits, that will carry over into classroom confidence and positive emotional environments. Likewise, cultural extra-

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curricular activities such as debating, and those related to the arts, all play a part in fostering a culture of friendship within disciplines, while also giving the learner skills and experiences that they can use in the classroom environment. Placing too much emphasis on language issues risks reducing the learner's entire academic life to whether or not they speak English, and as such, a broader scope of importance needs to be adopted by schools to ensure learners are allowed to feel that they are valued and are contributing to the school regardless of their fluency in the English language. Such confidence will only benefit their eventual acquisition of English in any case.

Kathleen et.al (2003) suggest eight strategies of assisting performance in developing literacy skills whether to English speakers or migrant learners. While these principles are applicable generally, they fail to consider the concerns raised from an affective perspective developed above. The strategies listed below are indeed useful, yet they fall short of acknowledging the experience of students who are studying both in an additional language and in a foreign context, as is the case of migrant students at the school studied. These must be taken into consideration and implemented with their lived experiences in mind, such as providing the necessary emotional experiences needed for a conducive learning environment through beneficial teacher-learner relationships furthering learner's motivation to learn (Krashen, 1985 in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012; Mendez and Pena, 2013; Arnold, 2011). Kathleen et al's strategies may be taken as follows:

### **1. Rich teacher talk**

The teacher can engage children in rich conversations in a large group, small group, and one-to-one settings. When talking with children, the teacher can encourage them to reflect on language as an object; listen and respond to what they have to say, and extend children's comments into more descriptive, grammatically mature statements.

### **2. Storybook reading**

The teacher can read aloud to her or his class once or twice a day, exposing children to numerous enjoyable stories, poems, and information books, providing supportive conversations and activities before, during, and after reading. Repeated reading of favourite books builds familiarity, increasing the likelihood that children will attempt to read those books on their own.

### **3. Phonological awareness activities**

The teacher can provide activities that increase children's awareness of the sounds of language. These activities include playing games and listening to stories, poems, and songs that involve children. The teacher can make these activities fun and enjoyable for them.

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#### **4. Alphabet activities**

The teacher can engage children with materials that promote identification of the letters of the alphabet, such as ABC books, puzzles, alphabet charts, and uses direct instruction to teach letter names that have personal meaning to children.

#### **5. Support for independent reading**

The teacher can encourage children to try to read books and other types of print, to become familiar with books and encourage independent reading by providing repeated readings of favourite books.

#### **6. Shared book experience**

The teacher can read Big Books and other enlarged texts to children, and point to the print as it is read. While introducing and reading the text, the teacher can draw children's attention to basic concepts of print, such as the distinction between pictures and print; left-to-right, top-to-bottom sequence; and book concepts (cover, title, and page).

#### **7. Repetition and remembering**

The teacher can read favourite stories repeatedly, and encourage children to read along on the parts of the story they remember.

#### **8. Integrated, content-focused**

The teacher can provide opportunities for children to investigate topics that are of interest to them. The objective is for children to use oral language, reading, and writing to learn about the world. Once a topic has been identified, children can listen to the teacher read topic-related information books, and look at the books on their own; gather data using observation, experiments, interviews, and such; use emergent writing to record observations and information and engage in dramatic play to consolidate and express what they have learned.

The strategies above fall short in three main ways, namely in the affective manners in which teachers create a positive atmosphere that allows students to feel safe in the space; in the expectations teachers have of students which inform how they interact (or whether they interact or not) with students, and how they motivate learners to strive for higher goals and overall improvement; and in extra-curricular activities which is of particular importance for migrant learners which allows them to acquire the school's language in a natural and unpressurised manner, which carries long-term benefits for their overall literacy levels.

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In light of this, it can be said that the language and literacy association, which begins prior to the time the child enters school, can be significantly improved once the child starts school, regardless of his or her literacy background (Johnson, 2008; Orellana et.al, 2003). Johnson et al (2008) add that there are other ways to encourage literacy in the home that do not depend just on the reading ability of the parents, such as the books a child owns, brings home, or reads alone. This implies that a child can still improve his or her reading ability regardless of the environment in which he or she comes from. The teacher can offer support in these ways to help raise a child's reading level.

As implied in the eight strategies outlined above, foreign language learners tend to require more of their teachers; they need teachers who are sensitive and empathetic to the difficulties of learning in a second language. Teachers need to build strong relationships with these learners, which support learners emotionally and psychologically and empower them. Such relationships require that teachers interact with learners calmly and in a manner, that shows them that they are valued. According to Arnold (2011), students who have positive and encouraging relationships with their teachers are more motivated about learning, attending school, and feel more confident to work harder and achieve greater outcomes in the classroom. Because teaching learners in a medium that is not their mother tongue places additional demands on the teacher, it is also necessary that they are invested in their job as a teacher. Likewise, it is important that they keep in mind the additional strain placed on the learners themselves in and out of the classroom.

A study conducted by Orellana et.al (2003) in the United States of America found that while the family literacy practices of American immigrant children are different than those of children from middle-class families, they are still significant for literacy development, as they teach a different kind of reading that prepares the children for real-life situations, rather than just reading storybooks. Orellana et al. (2003) go on to explain the different ways in which young, bilingual (Spanish-English) immigrants facilitate family literacy; they use the English that they learn in school to read and speak and translate for their families because they are the only one in their families who can speak English. They end up becoming responsible for many household duties, such as dealing with mail, filling out forms, interpreting report cards and facilitating communication at the parent meeting in school, in doctor's offices, and at stores and restaurants. This makes them more active in the process of learning; they interpret texts for real processes, instead of being passive.

The authors give an example of two children, Adriana and Miguel. Adriana's Mom does not know English but understands American culture and Government, so it is easier for her to understand Adriana's translation. However, when Miguel translates, he has a hard time because his Mom does not understand English or American culture. This illustrates the importance of culture in home

bilingual translation. Orellana et al suggest that teachers can use these experiences “natural translation” to support learning in the classroom. The teacher can ask learners to translate a text and write a journal about that experience and help the learners in literacy learning, such as children reading instructions and reviewing the result with other learners. Therefore, it can be re-iterated that teachers need to consider each child’s background in planning classroom activities and use it as a base to build and expand children’s language and literacy experiences. This is certainly a study, which can be re-contextualised for a South African context involving migrant learners, and one that can be used in the development of future theories.

**Figure 2: Diagrammatic representation of the recommended model/framework for literacy teaching and learning for migrant children**



Figure 2: An affective pedagogy is dependent upon the incorporation of many different strategies to ensure a balance between learning and emotional connection in the classroom.

Teaching in a multicultural classroom comprising migrant learners makes a considerable demand upon teachers. It goes way beyond the knowledge surrounding the content being taught because teachers need a whole range of skills to convey the academic material to learners efficiently (Figure 2).

In the context of my study, I attempted to show that learning in an unfamiliar language and a foreign context comes with emotional distress which may negatively influence a learners’ ability to learn

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the academic material. Because of this, the teacher needs to create a safe and nurturing classroom atmosphere that is conducive to learning. This helps the learners feel included and may motivate them to participate in classroom activities. The teacher needs to show empathy towards learners that struggle with the foreign language that they are being taught in. The teacher needs to have realistic expectations and believe in their learners' ability to succeed. This motivates learners to do their best.

The teacher can project the desired attitude expected of the learners, by showing respect by being self-aware and paying attention to the learners. In the same vein, the teacher may make use of the different abilities within a group by pairing academically weaker students with stronger ones to help learners learn from each other.

The teacher and school need to be welcoming towards minority learners, such as migrant learners. The teacher needs to make use of multiple approaches of teaching such as using audio and visual methods. Books and videos in both the home language and foreign language can be used to help learners to properly grasp concepts being taught. The teacher can monitor learners and make sure that no learner is left behind or feels excluded.

Since play is an integral part of childhood learning it is vital for the teacher to incorporate games in their classroom activities. These activities allow the learners to practice language skills in the form of speaking, listening, and reading. Finally, children thrive in school when both teachers and parents support them. Cooperation between the school and the learner's family plays a major role in the learner's academic success. Teachers and the school can conduct workshops for the community (parents of children included) that can help educate them.

#### **6.4 Conclusion**

This section demonstrates the importance of teaching strategies, which connect the mental and emotional states of the learners to create a holistic learning environment. Understanding how a learner responds and what they feel, believe, and value is very important in relation to the second language and literacy learning. Language/literacy is interwoven into the whole aspect of human behaviour. Studying language/literacy cannot be separated from the whole person, a being who has a physique, cognition, and more importantly, emotions. Affective teaching takes seriously the imperative of critical reflectiveness on the part of the teacher in taking learners' backgrounds and variation in learning into account to devise the most effective teaching strategy, especially when teaching in a diverse classroom context where the language of instruction may be an important feature (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon and Sabah, 2012; Arnold, 2011; Minghe & Yuan, 2013).

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This study highlights language and literacy acquisition to be at the forefront of learners' cognitive development and is developed in a social context. Migrant learners were found to express a lack of self-confidence and feelings of insecurity and anxiety. These issues can be linked to their inability to speak and read English fluently. These feelings prevent them from fully engaging in the classroom activities and therefore, learning English literacy as effectively as their English peers. To feel secure and confident in the context of a classroom, all language learners, in particular migrant learners, require extra support that correlates with their needs (Arnold, 2011; Brown, 2002; Maftoon & Sabah, 2012; Krashen, 1994).

Teachers could attempt to boost the confidence of learners by creating opportunities and activities for them to learn the language and literacy more effectively (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012; Arnold, 2011; Minghe & Yan, 2013; Brown, 2002), as well as encouraging learners to help one another. Creating a collaborative environment helps the children to encourage each other, which in turn supports the creation of lasting social bonds. According to Arnolds (2011), learners who have positive and encouraging relationships with their teachers are more motivated about learning, attending school, and feel more confident to work harder and achieve greater outcomes in the classroom.

Given that the feelings of anxiety are related to the stress of performing under classroom conditions, a possible solution is to ensure that the classroom space is as relaxed as possible, enabling learners to feel confident and safe in the space. This is further enhanced by encouraging high standards for learners' performance and by encouraging excellence in extra-curricular activities offered by the school, such as sporting disciplines or the arts. This enables learners who struggle to form friendships in a classroom context to do so elsewhere, boosting their confidence and thus their aptitude for learning. This forms the basis of the affective pedagogical model that this study develops for teaching English language and literacy in a multi-cultural learning environment, where Congolese migrant children make up some of the learners. A classroom teaching practice, which takes into account learners' emotions during learning will be more impactful in helping learners' develop their potential to the fullest extent.

## **Chapter 7. Conclusion**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter will summarise the project's attempt to answer the research questions, and its findings. First, a review of the research process is presented, and discussed; followed by the findings and implications thereof.

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## 7.2 Review of the overall research questions

Given the prevalence of a lack of teachers' focus on affective needs of migrant learners, when dealing with diversity in multicultural and multilingual classrooms, this study set out to answer the following research question:

*What affective strategies do Grade 3 teachers use for teaching English language and literacy in a low-income school, where Congolese migrant children make up some of the learners?*

In doing so, the question, as well as the following sub-questions, were explored in Chapter 5:

- How do Congolese migrant learners feel when being taught or having to demonstrate English literacy skills in the classroom in comparison with their native English peers?
- What are the types of learning activities that migrant children from the Democratic Republic of Congo relate to?
- What opportunities are present to help develop their ability to use English to communicate?

*What affective strategies do Grade 3 teachers use for teaching English language and literacy in a low-income school, where Congolese migrant children make up some of the learners?*

In section 4.2.1.1.1., affective strategies are described by teacher Rosie, which involves trying to motivate her learners by appearing motivated herself. In doing so, she hoped that her learners would become positively involved in the exercises and gain more from the lessons in a more conducive learning environment where safety and courtesy are prioritised. Values such as mutual respect and tolerance are emphasised to create as positive a learning environment as possible, as well as patience and understanding on the side of the teacher, to allow the children to reach their full potential. This is covered more thoroughly in Section 4.2.1.1.1.

Teacher Rosie was observed modeling how to draw the letter “a” through a very encouraging and patient method. At the same time, she gave learners hope to keep trying. The teacher praised learners using words such as “my boy” and “my daughter”. She also used learners' names when addressing them, which shows consideration. This is described in Section 4.2.1 during the third lesson (lines 45-64). Further, she helped learners who struggled by taking them through the activity slowly. She continued helping them until they were confident enough to work on their own. Also

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in Section 4.2.1 (lines 24-44), the teacher used fun activities, polite words such as “please”, and humour to generate a good atmosphere for learning.

Both teachers (Rosie and Claire) welcomed learners at the door every Monday and started the day with a time for stories about the weekend. They initiated this by sharing something from the weekend and then encouraged learners to share things from their weekends. This fosters a relationship between the teachers and learners as well as between the learners themselves by finding common ground between them. These were all part of the teachers’ affective strategy when teaching English language and literacy.

***How do Congolese migrant learners feel when being taught or having to demonstrate English literacy skills in the classroom in comparison with their native English peers?***

As for the learners’ feelings towards the act of learning literacy or having to demonstrate it, lack of self-confidence and feelings of insecurity and anxiety were often expressed during interviews; this was also found during the time spent observing the classes in progress. This is covered extensively in Chapter 5.

***What are the types of learning activities that migrant children from the Democratic Republic of Congo relate to?***

As for the remaining two sub-questions, the learners were observed to be more enthusiastic about storytelling, and games involving singing and speaking. These types of practices were used by both observed teachers, as compared in Section 5.6.

The two observed teachers were using storytelling as a part of their affective strategy to motivate learners to learn and explore beyond the classroom. They used a large picture book and animated the book’s characters using different tones and vocal expressions. This captures learners’ attention. They further used books that are culturally relevant to the learners so that they could easily relate to the story.

The teachers made use of games involving dance to teach learners about concepts as part of her affective strategy. To reinforce phonetic lessons, she used a variety of approaches, such as songs and games.

***What opportunities are present to help develop migrant learners’ ability to use English to communicate?***

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In Section 5.7 the answer to the final sub-question can be found: learners are given the opportunity to expand on their knowledge of elements such as synonyms and antonyms by referencing the reading materials employed by the teacher – this keeps the activity engaging for the learner while also not changing the context of the lesson.

Both teachers were observed using stories to capture learners' attention, particularly at the beginning of a lesson, or when exploring a new topic. They used storytelling to help learners remember scientific concepts. Both teachers also used repetition. They described the concept and repeated it over and over.

As a part of the teacher's strategy to develop learners' ability to speak English, both teachers encouraged learners to come prepared with a story about the weekend every Monday. They would then share these stories and the teachers would help them when they struggled. The teachers would probe their wording and help them maintain the conversation. They also used these stories for dictation and homework assignments. The two teachers also paired strong or bold learners with weaker or shy ones to encourage weaker or shy learners to participate.

Two strategies were used to further expose the learners to English. The first involved each learner receiving a book from their teacher or school library, which they took home to read and then presented what they learned to their class through a story. The second strategy involved school organised excursions to places such as zoos, museums, local shops, and other public places to further expose the learners to the English language.

Over and above teaching methods, teacher Claire said in the interview (see 4.2.2.1.1) that her school offers learners the opportunity for extra lessons in English, and it offered empowerment workshops in English literacy and language for the parents to support their children's acquisition of English from home.

### **7.3 Final summary**

Given that the study aims to investigate the affective strategies and interactions that teachers use to successfully engage learners in the process of learning English language and literacy, methodical analysis of teaching methods was undertaken and discussed. Interviews were conducted with both teachers and learners to assess which affective methods were being used, and how effective they were, and how migrant learners feel about these methods and about learning English literacy in general.

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In Chapter 1, it was highlighted through a review of relevant research that there is a gap in knowledge around how teachers engage with the cognitive and affective needs of francophone migrant children in their learning of the English language and English literacy. Following a discussion of the rationale, significance, and objectives of this research, the sociocultural framework of literacy was discussed in Chapter 2. It was determined whether the current social context of language learning impeded or facilitated learners' language learning, as well as the feelings related to needing to adapt to a new linguistic context to continue learning. It was highlighted that these factors are crucial to teachers for them to be able to teach effectively. The methods used for the collection of data were described and discussed in Chapter 3.

The data from observations and interviews conducted during the fieldwork from teachers, learners, and parents were presented with a collective analysis of this data in Chapters 4 and 5, as summarised above. A pedagogical model has been developed in Chapter 6 based on the collective analysis of the findings of Chapters 4 and 5.

In conclusion, schoolchildren learning in a language other than their mother tongue may encounter alienation and emotional stress, which may inhibit effective learning. The findings of this study suggest migrant children from the Congo and other learners from non-Anglophone backgrounds experience a lack of self-confidence, feelings of insecurity, and anxiety due to English language limitations. This is in contrast to most learning taking place in a "both relaxed and focused state" (Krashen, 1985 cited in Maftoon & Sabah, 2012; Brown, 2002; Arnold, 2011). In an environment in which teaching occurs outside of the mother tongue or first language of learners from the Congo, these learners do not enjoy the benefits of classroom learning to the same degree as their peers. Resultant affects contribute to lowered self-esteem of the learner and therefore make the child insecure about their ability to achieve success in school and their life.

Learning in English, particularly in the context of English literacy learning, requires that teachers be prepared to create an environment in which the impacts discussed above can be mitigated. This further requires teachers to develop appropriate strategies. Prerequisite to this is an awareness of cross-cultural experiences and a sensitivity to the challenges faced by learners from different language backgrounds in addition to competencies related to teaching material. Based on the findings of my study, the affective pedagogical model developed throughout this study can help overcome psychological challenges in the multi-cultural classroom. The product of data collected over a limited period of five months, this research project suggests ways in which an affective pedagogical model may be developed to adequately accommodate multi-lingual learners and their

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respective teachers in the foundation phase. The study acknowledges that the appropriation of such a model and its success would be bound by previously discussed context-specific limitations.

The findings also suggest a need for teacher training that takes into consideration the affective and cognitive needs of learners from diverse backgrounds, such as migrant learners, for more effective literacy and language education. It suggests that teachers need to be empathetic to learners who may experience more anxiety than their peers who already speak the school language as a first language. For the learner to benefit best from the learning experience, affective factors must be viewed with the same importance (if not with more importance) as cognitive factors. For integral learning, cognitive and affective aspects of the learner need to be held in balance and must comprise the focus of further development of teaching approaches, especially in dynamic, diverse multilingual spaces.

#### **7.4 Reflection on the realities of the South African schooling system**

In the context of South African public schools, I feel there is a need to acknowledge factors, which construct limitations on the implementation of a refined pedagogical model. It is a challenge common to many teachers in South Africa, especially those teaching in townships or poorly resourced schools where many teachers come from the same impoverished home and school backgrounds that their learners are from, and while they may be empathetic, they may not have the emotional or cognitive means to teach in more inclusive or expansive ways.

Many teachers struggle with too many learners in their classrooms and parent apathy in these schools. Also, violence, a lack of leadership from the Principal, few or no teaching materials or resources, their own fear and lack of confidence, and a teacher education system of varying quality and efficacy can be added to the mix. These structural constraints are vital to acknowledge in the framing of this study, as they are influential in defining realistic solutions of pedagogic change, applicable to this current context.

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## **Appendix**

### **Information letter for participants – School Principal**

My name is Joel Mafandala, and I am a PhD student in the Department of Education at the University of Cape Town. I would like to request that you grant me permission to conduct research in your school. My research topic is: “Towards a cognitive and affective pedagogical model: a social-cultural literacy perspective of migrant learners.”

The aim of the study is to examine teachers’ efforts to boost the confidence of learners by creating opportunities and activities for them to learn the language and literacy more effectively. This study will involve the observation of the teacher in the classroom during literacy lessons in Grade 3. During classroom observation, I will be a passive observer who will do audio recordings and take field notes. The observation will be conducted for two Grade 3 classes at school for a period of five months; two days a week will be allocated for each class. During this period, I will be going through all the Grade 3 activity books, prescribed books and any other policy documents that are used in the teaching of literacy in Grade 3.

Your participation is voluntary, and you can withdraw from the research at any time without any repercussion. No individual names will be recorded or published. The information you provide will be treated in a confidential manner and only accessible to me and my supervisors.

Your participation in this study would be greatly appreciated.

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Should you be interested in participating in this study or have any questions, please contact me at [mfnmbe001@myuct.ac.za](mailto:mfnmbe001@myuct.ac.za).

Sincerely,

Joel Mafandala

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**Consent form – School Principal**

I..... hereby give Joel permission to do his research in the school under my responsibility.

I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time. I also understand that all information is anonymous and confidential and will only be used for the strict purpose of this research. Only children whose parents have given their consent will participate in the research.

Principal’s signature and date

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## **Information letter for participants - Teacher**

My name is Joel Mafandala, and I am a PhD student in the Department of Education at the University of Cape Town. I would like to invite you to participate in my research on “Towards a cognitive and affective pedagogical model: a social-cultural literacy perspective of migrant learners.”

The aim of the study is to examine teachers’ efforts to boost the confidence of learners by creating opportunities and activities for them to learn the language and literacy more effectively. This study will involve the observation of the teacher in the classroom during literacy lessons in Grade 3. During classroom observation, I will be a passive observer who will do audio recordings and take field notes. The observation will be conducted for two grade three classes at school for a period of five months; two days a week will be allocated for each class. During this period, I will be going through all the Grade 3 activity books, prescribed books and any other policy documents that are used in the teaching of literacy in Grade 3.

Your participation is voluntary, and you can withdraw from the research at any time without any repercussion. No individual names will be recorded or published. The information you provide will be treated in a confidential manner and only accessible to me and my supervisors.

Your participation in this study would be greatly appreciated.

Should you be interested in participating in this study or have any questions, please contact me at mfnmbe001@myuct.ac.za.

Sincerely,

Joel Mafandala

## **Consent Form – Classroom Observation (Teacher)**

I (Teacher’s name) hereby give my consent to be observed by Joel during

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his research at the school on “Towards a cognitive and affective pedagogical model: a social-cultural literacy perspective of migrant learners”.

I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time. I also understand that all information is anonymous and confidential and will only be used for the strict purpose of this research. For five months, twice a week, Joel will sit at the back of the classroom during the lessons to collect data that will only be used for research. I believe that his presence in my classroom during class will not disturb the smooth running of school activities.

Teacher’s signature and date

**Consent Form – Teacher Interview**

I ..... (Teacher’s name) hereby give my consent to be interviewed by Joel during his research at the school on “Towards a cognitive and affective pedagogical model: a social-cultural literacy perspective of migrant learners”.

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I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time. I also understand that all information is anonymous and confidential and will only be used for the strict purpose of this research.

During the interview I am free to answer the questions of my choice. Depending on whether I want to or not I can answer the question that will arise.

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## Information letter for participants – Parents

Dear Parent

My name is Joel Mafandala, and I am a PhD student in the Department of Education at the University of Cape Town. I would like to request the participation of your child at St. Octavia Primary School as part of my research study. My research topic is: “Towards a cognitive and affective pedagogical model: a social-cultural literacy perspective of migrant learners”

This research will consist of the observation of your child inside the classroom during literacy lessons. Your child will be part of the children in the class I will be observing for five months. I will not be teaching your child, but I will be present in class when his/her teacher teaches them. My study aims to examine teachers’ attempts to boost the confidence of learners by creating opportunities and activities for them to learn the language and literacy more effectively.

The information gathered during this research will only be used to write my PhD’s thesis. This thesis will only be read by my supervisors and external examiners, and will eventually be held in the university library.

Should you not understand what has been said, please ask questions for clarification. You can contact me at [mfnmbe001@myuct.ac.za](mailto:mfnmbe001@myuct.ac.za)

The information will be used only when learners consent to participate in the research.

Sincerely,

Joel Mafandala

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**Consent form- Parent**

I..... hereby authorize my child... (name and date of birth) to

take part in the research whose title and purpose have been included on the above form. Parent/  
guardian and signature

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## The French version of the consent letter-Parent

Cher parent

Je m'appelle Joel Mafandala et je suis étudiant au doctorat au Département d'éducation de l'Université du Cap. J'aimerais demander la participation de votre enfant à l'école primaire St Octavia dans le cadre de mon étude de recherche. Mon sujet de recherche est : "Vers un modèle pédagogique cognitif et affectif : une perspective socioculturelle de l'alphabetisation des apprenants migrants".

Cette recherche consistera à observer votre enfant à l'intérieur de la classe pendant les cours d'alphabetisation. Votre enfant fera partie des enfants de la classe que j'observerai pendant cinq mois. Je n'enseignerai pas à votre enfant, mais je serai présent en classe lorsque son professeur l'enseignera. L'objectif de mon étude est d'examiner la tentative des enseignants de renforcer la confiance des apprenants en créant des opportunités et des activités leur permettant d'apprendre plus efficacement la langue et l'alphabetisation.

L'information recueillie au cours de cette recherche ne servira qu'à la rédaction de ma thèse de doctorat. Cette thèse ne sera lue que par mes superviseurs et examinateurs externes, et sera éventuellement conservée à la bibliothèque universitaire.

Si vous ne comprenez pas ce qui a été dit, veuillez poser des questions pour obtenir des éclaircissements. Vous pouvez me contacter à [mfnmbe001@myuct.ac.za](mailto:mfnmbe001@myuct.ac.za)

L'information ne sera utilisée que si les apprenants consentent à participer à la recherche.

Sincèrement,

Joel Mafandala

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## **Lettre d'autorisation Parentale**

Je viens par la présente, autoriser mon enfant..... (Nom et date de naissance) a prendre part  
a la recherche mentionnée ci-haut. Le nom du parent/guardian et signature.

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## The Classroom Observation Schedule/Guide

The table below is a schedule of my classroom observations for 2017. The classroom activities included observations, note-taking, and audio recording.

Dates over which I performed visual observations, note-taking, and audio recordings:

Month	Date	Day
February	17	Tuesday
	19	Thursday
	24	Tuesday
March	02	Tuesday
	11	Thursday
	16	Tuesday
	21	Thursday
April	02	Tuesday
	09	Tuesday
	21	Thursday
May	01	Tuesday
	03	Thursday
	08	Tuesday
	10	Thursday
	15	Tuesday
	17	Thursday
	22	Tuesday
	29	Tuesday
	30	Wednesday

Teacher Interview Questions:

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1. How many immigrant learners do you have in the school?
  2. Which countries do they come from?
  3. What challenges or difficulties do you face with immigrant learners?
  4. Do you think the presence of immigrants in the classroom a drawback to the other learners?  
How do the other learners react to their presence in the classroom?
    1. How they are coping with these languages, culture and educational system in place?
    2. Do they easily integrate with the other learners or do they isolate themselves?
    3. Do they participate actively or are they reserved in class?
    4. Can you easily describe them as children with language barriers? (As far as the medium of instruction is concerned).
    5. Which language do they use at home (their community spaces) and during recreational periods?
    6. How do you cope with the anxieties and stresses that the students experience regarding language acquisition?
    7. What strategies do you use to motivate children to effectively learn English and literacy in class?
    8. How do you as a teacher create a classroom environment that supports mutual respect, trust, and safety for your students?
    9. What is your view about teaching literacy? What is the goal of teaching literacy? How can one best teach literacy in the foundation phase?
    10. Which communicative strategies do you as a teacher use to enable learners' participation and talk during literacy class?
    11. What Grade 3 activity books, prescribed books and any other policy documents do you use in the teaching of literacy in Grade 3?
    12. What do you do when a learner gives a wrong answer to a question in class? (Because of language difficulties).
    13. What do you think can be done to ameliorate the plight of these learners?

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**Learners Interview Questions:**

14. What is your name? Where are you from? And how long have you been in South Africa?
15. What language do you speak at home? And how many languages do you speak?
16. Does your teacher allow you to use all these languages in class?
17. Do you like your new school and environment? How do you find it to study in English?
18. Do you participate in class? Why or why not?
19. Who helps with your homework at home?
20. Do you have books at home? Can you read?
21. Do you have South African friends at school?

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## Interview and Transcription: Joel

### G3 Teacher: Rosie

#### Duration

1. J: Hey Ma'am. Can you please tell us about your class...how many immigrant learners do you have in your class?  
Teacher: *well, I have 37 learners in my class; 15 of them speak English at home... The others speak Afrikaans, French, Portuguese, Xhosa, Shona, and Swahili...*
2. J: okay which countries do they come from?  
Teacher: *They come from Zimbabwe and Congo mostly yeah.*
3. J: ...What challenges or difficulties do you face with immigrant learners?  
Teacher: *Mm, language barriers mostly... also lack of support from home because parents do not speak the language.*
4. J: okay, do you think the presence of immigrants in the classroom is a drawback to the other learners? ... How do the other learners react to their presence in the classroom?  
Teacher: *Mm... I would not say it is a drawback.... but it becomes very difficult to attend to everyone's need yeah.*
5. J: Tell us please how are they coping with the languages, culture and educational system in place?  
Teacher: *Well, when they are young, they adapt quicker.*
6. J: Eh, do they easily integrate with the other learners or do they isolate themselves?  
Teacher: *Mhm... Because we have so many other immigrant learners, they connect on that level.*
7. J: Good, do they participate actively or are they reserved in class? Teacher: *Mm they are reserved.*
8. J: Can you easily describe them as children with language barriers (As far as the medium of instruction is concerned)?  
Teacher: *Yes*

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9. J: Which language do they use at home... in their communities... and during recreational periods?

Teacher: *Broken English at school yeah, and Shona or French at home, depending on where they are from yeah yeah.*

10. J: Eh what do you usually do when a learner gives a wrong answer to a question in class? ... because of language difficulties...?

Teacher: *When learners give the wrong answer because of the language issue, the last thing I want to do is to embarrass them, yeah..... Sometime I congratulate them for trying...and I make their classmates understand their situation.... it is difficult for them because they don't know the language... hmm.... I give clues that might lead to him or her saying the correct answer and let him or her try again... I also try not to use language that they might not understand. In some cases, I even ask one of the other children to translate a question if they don't understand.... Be patient, use body language, peers help yeah, yeah."*

11. J: Good, what are their attitudes towards their languages? Do they use their languages in class?

Teacher: *Mm ... not really*

12. J: ...Since you're dealing with a diverse classroom, can you please tell us the best way to teach literacy in the foundation phase? And which communicative strategies do you, often as a teacher, use to encourage a multicultural classroom to participate and talk in class?

Teacher: *"The best way of teaching literacy in the foundation phase is to make it as practical, interesting and visual as possible. First, I try to make the classroom environment as comfortable as possible for the learners... And to motivate children I try to read stories with an interesting tone. I also show them my enthusiasm when writing or reading. I also try to make topics interesting when they need to write something. Hmm...Modeling writing is also very important for those learners who struggle to read and write. I make time to help kids who are struggling with English and Maths. I meet with them twice a week for extra lessons"*

*"I try to treat everyone fairly. Obviously, every child has different needs. It doesn't matter the culture which they come from all children want attention. They want you to be there for them to give them attention to whatever. So far, I didn't figure out any difference in the culture it's just the language. Basically, I treat everybody the same.... A good teacher*

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*is somebody who understands the children in the classroom and who knows the children. And also see which level they are and try to teach them accordingly”.*

13. J: Eh what do you think can be done to change or improve the attitudes of the learners towards these languages?

Teacher: *Hmm... Praise them when they show slight improvement.*

14. J: How long does it take to a child from a different background to fit into an English learning environment?

Teacher: *Mm... a few weeks, if they are still very young.*

15. J: how do you help your learners deal with anxiety due to the language barrier?

*I don't think the children feel much of the stress I think the teacher does. It's frustrating being a teacher because sometimes you have a lot to do and don't have time to cover everything that is why you need parent cooperation for one on one time.*

16. J: Thank you so much for your time

Teacher: *You're welcome, you're welcome.*

In teacher Rosie's philosophy of teaching, which she discusses in the interview below where she explains how she works with diversity amongst learners and how she deals with the emotional aspects of learning.

*“Yeah, a teacher must set a good example of accepting those kids. It's okay if they are different, it's okay if they're taking long to learn, if they don't understand what I am teaching the class. And also teaching other children at school that everyone is different... but to be different does not mean you are wrong. We accept everyone for who they are. Showing an example of acceptance and patience is important. Being different is normal; there is nothing wrong with that. Treat that child the same way as you treat the others...”*

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## Teacher Clare Interview:

1&2. J: Hey Ma'am. Can you please tell us about your class...how many immigrant learners do you have in your class?

Teacher: *I always have a passion for children for educating them just helping to become better people one day. Passionate about teaching. Teaching is not a job, it's a calling. You need to know what you're doing, yeah..... we follow the curriculum. Things happen in the news and you need to incorporate into the lesson..... Things happen in the community for example at the moment we have our curriculum doesn't cover water. Hmm...I bring current events things happening I bring back home.*

3&4. J: Okay which countries do they come from? And ...what challenges or difficulties do you face with immigrant learners?

Teacher: *Language barriers, and no parent involvement.... I don't feel equipped to teach learners who have language problems. I have 36 kids in my class....I think 17 that do not speak English at home. They speak either French or Shona or Xhosa at home. In addition, the rest speak English or Afrikaans.... sometimes it's difficult especially when we try to get them to read. Currently, the only problem is one of the kids is completely a beginner. This situation makes it extremely difficult to do the class, especially when they start to complain that they don't understand the verbs or the meanings of the words. I think after facing this experience, mixed levels of learners speaking different languages is okay but not with someone who has no understanding of the language.*

*For me Parental involvement is a challenge. It's important for parents to support their kids at home. English is the LOI Like for Afrikaans some kids don't do their homework and parents can't help children with work at home because they don't understand the language. It is quite stressful because I seldom get help from the parents, in this case, I think the language barrier lies more so with the parents.*

5&6. J: Oh, I can see you don't have an easy time of it. How do you do it then.... how do you deal with learners who struggle with English and reading?

Teacher: *Thanks, we're trying our best. Depending on the situation, either we send them to the*

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*resource classes for extra intervention classes and support reading groups ... or get them engaged with more English speaking children.... on the other hand; here at school we encourage parents to learn English so they can assist their children... Everything is a learning. Children are not always exposed. You cannot take for granted kids speaking English. Parents not being able to speak English is a challenge.... we organise even workshops for parents.*

7. J: can you please tell us more about the workshop?

*Teacher: Okay..... we run a workshop for 8 weeks. We try to help parents from different nationalities. They come on Saturday morning.....we don't teach them..... We try to empower them how to support kids in informal way It's important for parents to support their kids at home. there's a saying that children only learn in classroom.... No.....*

8. J: What do you mean by resource class?

*Teacher: Okay, the resource class is a class that accommodates children who cannot cope in a mainstream class... Here, they are equipped with extra resources to cope with their schoolwork... They do the same work as the mainstream pupils, only they do it slower and work through topics bit by bit to ensure each child can grasp the work completely.*

9. J: Please tell us how do your learners cope with the languages, culture and educational system in place?

*Teacher: Well.... some of the Congolese learners are coping well, very well and for two reasons: first, they have been at our school from the basic foundation, Grade R.... They started English at very young ages and are well adjusted in English.... While some of them who came to school in the middle of the year, struggle to express themselves orally in English... challenges are more evident in Afrikaans. Yeah, children should come to school from Grade 0 even (pre-Grade R) not e.g. in Grade 3 where previously they've been in a French speaking class. Yeah... now they are placed in a Grade 3 English class and are totally lost.*

10&11. J: Since you're dealing with a diverse classroom, can you please tell us the best way to teach literacy in the foundation phase? And which communicative strategies do you, often as a teacher, use to encourage a multicultural classroom to participate and talk in class?

*Teacher: I repeat the same things over and over. Hmm...I know that for the first time someone*

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*will not pick it up. This year I went back to the basic things so that I can build on it.... I put kids in ability group so that I can work into ability group..... I already identify weak children and I send them on Tuesday for intervention at **reading centre**. **Reading centre** supports us as a teacher. Over the years I've seen how their guidance helps kids on one on one. Also, keeping in touch with parents in case kids are weak and tell them this is how your kid is weak if you can help them at home..... I encourage my children or the parents to take children to the library. It's not safe for children to go on their own.*

*.....A teacher needs to be prepared. Kids know when you're not prepared. You come to class.... Learning must be fun, I read stories to them every day. I teach them to read now but, later on they read to learn. They gonna use reading to learn. Building relationship with children. Because learning must be fun.*

*Also, I identify those I already spoke to the Principal about. I work on the reward system. I reward the best behaved learner for the week. So once a week I'm gonna identify the best behaved learner to reward. Have the best behave child of the week gets a prize. For me I find the reward system works. Friday I got everybody a pack of chips. Sometimes I have to shout but I have to bring them back.*

## **Interview with teacher Ruth (Parent workshop's facilitator)**

J: Hey ma'am. Today is Saturday. Can you please tell us why are you at school?

Teacher: *I'm here for the workshop that we run at school on Saturdays .... I'm one of the facilitator of the workshop.*

J: Do you mind telling us a bit about the workshop? And why parent workshop at your school? What is the idea behind this event?

Teacher: *Sure, parent workshops are to equip parents so they are able to help children from home with reading.*

*We find that children need a lot of assistance and parents don't often know how to assist children at home. The curriculum is different. We want to show them how to help and*

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*how they can fit in with the daily routine and how to make learning fun, you know ah. The workshop it's about 2 hours session for 8 weeks. We concentrate on foundation phase parents but we don't mind having old learners' parents..... The idea behind the workshop is to equip parents.....hmm.... They often say, teachers often say parents aren't involved, they don't cooperate but there are different factors... yeah, .... Sometimes it's just time.... parents are just too busy. And sometimes they think they are not able to. So, we want to equip them and also those parents of foreigner children whose first language is not English and cannot speak English to equip them as well even though they may be illiterate, or their vocabulary is not wide they can still help..... Sometimes even though they may be illiterate or their vocabulary is not wild they can still help. Hmm Also for parents who didn't do further education, sometimes they feel they can't help children- but they can because they have got a lot of knowledge through experience. We teach in class but they as parents can do much more. We teach in class but they are there with children at home.*

J: What did you teach today?

Teacher: *The lesson today it was to show parent how to make books for children so it's very personal for that child and how to help them with reading by improving the audit skills also teaching them some games they can use to promote the development of audio skill and also the skill of breaking up words and putting them together, which they will use in reading and writing.*

J: What is the reason for the parents making books for their children?

Teacher: *The idea behind making own books is creativity, imagination, kids feel that the book belongs to them.*

J: What is the benefit of the parent workshop?

Teacher: *From experience, for the parents who attend workshops their children usually progress nicely. Yeah, they do well. You get those children who get top marks but there are those who don't. But now, because they get assistance from parents at home they do better that they would have. It depends on the level the child is at. We don't expect everybody to excel but we do expect improvement and effectively it is. If you don't know the*

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*milestones of the child's learning, you miss them and you won't know how to play with them and encourage them in each step.*

J: How best do kids learn?

Teacher: *I think, you know children are different and they have different needs. You need to find out maybe sometimes you need to step back before getting into the reading sometimes you need to step back and see where the problem is? Is it a visual? And maybe address that if you can't do it in class maybe seek help with parents at home. You need to make sure they know the vocabulary and they understand what you're talking about.....you also need to do a lot of repetitions..... For example, if I have a passage I'd take out some words that I want them to read and use them in practice and play games you need time.... it's frustrating being a teacher because sometimes you have a lot to do and don't have time to cover everything that is why you need parent cooperation for one on one time..... Otherwise they just memorise they are very good at memorising but they don't understand. You also need to have time sometimes as a teacher you have a lot to do but you don't always have time that is why parent cooperation is very important. Parents can give this one on one time. You need to do a lot repetition, make sure that children understand what you're talking about, and you need to have parent cooperation.*

J: The academic year is still young.... How do you feel about this year?

Teacher: *I am always so excited and anxious the night before the first day of school. Probably even more than the students.*

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Below I have included interviews that I have conducted with parents after completing a Saturday Workshop.

### **Parents' interview guide**

- Hello Mom / Dad.
- Could you please tell us about yourself?
- Today is Saturday, why are you here at school?
- What can you tell us about the workshop? How do you find it?

### **Guide pour l'entrevue avec les parents**

- Bonjour maman /Papa
- Pourriez-vous vous présenter? Et nous dire la raison de votre présence ici à l'école le Samedi? Quelles sont vos impressions sur l'atelier que l'école organise pour vous les parents?
- Votre mot de la fin?

### **Parent 1**

*“My name is Bianca and I'm from Cape Town Yes, I'm a native speaker of English. I'm in here because I have a daughter in Grade 2 and I'm interested in what she's doing at school because she's doing well. And also, because the school offers the opportunity for parents to assist children with reading at home. I think it's a good idea and I'm eager to be here on Saturday morning. I am now feeling more confident. The lessons we learn here motivate us as working parent to want to sit with children at home and be of help. The way they're learning is totally different with the way we were taught. I wasn't familiar with the way they do alphabet now, so I'm learning in the meantime how to use alphabet and the sounds properly. I make effort and I encourage library books. We don't concentrate much on our children those lessons inspire us to give support to kids at home. The workshop is adding value to the future of our children.”*

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## **Parent 2**

*“My name is Christine Makala and I’m from the Congo. I work as a nurse in a hospital. I used to throwing my problems on my kids. One thing I was a queen of shouting. From this programme, I’ve learnt to be patient with my children and to make learning at home interesting. Workshop helps me to encourage my kids. I notice one thing when I don’t read with my daughter at home she is the one who shouting at me. I’ve learnt to be patient that’s number one and ten minutes of your life can make a big difference in the child’s life. And I’ve learnt that the games we used to play can help your child physically, even emotionally how to express themselves and my child likes to play a scotch, a game we used to play when I was a kid. So now I need to play every day. I made a routine for myself. When I go home I cook and we eat after we do his homework and then story time. I’m trying to be a number one mommy and a number one teacher. This programme helps me to encourage my child whatever he does he does I must clap hands and say well done even if he’s wrong I must encourage first and then correct him afterwards. I ask him how about if we do this way or the way. Today he’s more into it. I. Work I’m an OP I look after kids in Green Point. When I’m at work I do the work and when I’m out it’s my family time.”*

## **Parent 3**

*“My name is Joseph Olenga I’m from the Congo I work as an administrator for an NGO. This programme assists me in improving my child’s education by teaching me to have routine and creative ways of learning and also teaches me to be patient. I cannot expect my son to be at the same level as I am. The change with me is that I’m taking now initiative to sit and support my son’s education at home. That is something I knew before but I wasn’t practicing.”*

## **Parent 4**

*“He enjoys now the time he does his homework because I don’t just tell him go do your homework but I sit down and do the homework with him. I recommend parents to attend the workshop it will teach not only things you don’t know but also things you know but you’re not practicing. It helps you to be even more involved in your child’s education. I got a matric and a certificate as an Administration Assistant.”*

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## Parent 5

*“My name is Lungi and I am from the Congo. I work as a dentist. I stay in Salt River I just come out from a celebration woodwork. I’ve learnt how to be patient with my kids, how to make everything fun, all about fun, how to make child’s lesson more interesting, how to interact, listen to them in order for them to listen to us. That’s what I learnt. We read a lot. We read the bible every night. We say a prayer before we go to sleep. Last night by the time I got home he already did his homework. Yes, we also learn a lot from our children it’s like you learn for us and we also learn from you.”*

## Parent 6

*“I want to thank facilitators because I think they don’t have to do this. From this work. I’ve learnt about the story telling. When I’ve learnt a lot I learn how to make things fun. Reading has become such a part of our routine.”*

**Dear Mr Joël Mafandala**

### **RESEARCH PROPOSAL: TOWARDS A COGNITIVE AND EFFECTIVE PEDAGOGICAL MODEL: A SOCIAL-CULTURAL LITERACY PERSPECTIVE OF MIGRANT LEARNERS**

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 **16 January 2017 till 30 September 2017**
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.

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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: 09 January 2017**

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467 9272 fax: 0865902282      Employment and salary enquiries: 0861 92 33 22  
Safe Schools: 0800 45 46 47      [www.westerncape.gov.za](http://www.westerncape.gov.za)