Conceptions of language and literacy and the role of digital technologies in Home, First and Second Additional language lessons: a case study of 6 grade four teachers in South African state schools.

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A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award for the degree of Master of Education

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University of Cape Town 2020

Acknowledgements

I wish to express my heartfelt thanks and gratitude to the following people:

My supervisor, Prof Catherine Kell. Thank you for your unwavering support which has allowed me to complete this dissertation from afar amongst other things. Your feedback and guidance have helped me to fine-tune my argument and your knowledge is invaluable.

My wonderful husband, Wikus Radyn. Thank you also for the many months of cooking dinner and having to fend for yourself while I was holed up working. More importantly, thank you for picking up the pieces and giving me endless peps talks and reassurance: you played an integral role in keeping me going.

My parents. Thank you for providing me with the opportunity to further my studies and for always telling me the world is my oyster. Your confidence in me is a constant reminder of what I'm capable of.

The teachers in this study. Thank you for your time - a precious resource, I know. Thank you for continuing to do your very best in a tough profession. Your dedication to your jobs and passion for your subjects is palpable.

Abstract

Research into classroom practices in South Africa has highlighted various disjunctures between the conceptions of language and literacy evident in the CAPS curriculum documents, teachers' pedagogical approaches, and the multilingual reality of classrooms in South Africa. This research study asks whether the current promotion of digital technologies in classrooms, so evident in both South Africa and in the world at large, might be in danger of similar disjunctures. The study explores teachers' conceptions of language and literacy across English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa in the Grade 4 classrooms of two schools in the Hout Bay area, examining how these play out in their accounts of their daily teaching practice and whether and how they facilitate the successful integration of digital technology into language lessons. The study draws on Blommaert's 'artefactual ideology of language' (2008), combined with the concepts of an autonomous model of literacy (Street, 1984) and language ideologies (McKinney, 2016), as well as Durrant and Green's (2000) digital literacy theoretical frameworks. While teachers are exhorted to promote the use of technology in their lessons and the rhetoric of the "the fourth industrial revolution" adds to the pressures, there are many factors involved in the uptake of technology in schools - perhaps the most important being the existing practices and ideologies of the teacher themselves. The study focuses specifically on six Grade 4 teachers' accounts of their conceptions and practices in relation to the CAPS curriculum, in order to analyse how teachers manage the much higher language and literacy levels of the curriculum specifications when learners move from Foundation Phase (Grades R-3) to Intermediate Phase (Grade 4-6) in language and literacy lessons, and also on how their uses of technology align or not with the specifications in the curriculum. Despite both schools being positive towards technology, it was soon apparent that CAPS specifications and teachers' conceptions of language and literacy (which leant towards the artefactual ideology of language and literacy) did not align easily with the kinds of tasks and assessments that are called for in using digital technologies (which lean towards agentic and critical engagements with texts). In addition, despite most of the teachers being highly critical of the CAPS curriculum, the study found that most of the teachers do stick closely to the CAPS specifications in both the Home Language and Additional Language classes and that these perceptions, combined with existing ideologies present in CAPS curriculum documents, are influencing their teaching practices and approach to using technology in their lessons.

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1.1 Introduction

Digital technologies and digital literacies in education have become more and more prevalent in a world where the vast majority of everyday social practices are increasingly digitally mediated. As Castells (in Warschauer and Matuchnaik) states: “Information technology and the ability to use it and adapt it, is the critical factor in generating and assessing power and knowledge in our time” (2010, 180) and, more and more, teachers are being exhorted to engage with what is being termed the “fourth industrial revolution” (WEF, 2018). This revolution is defined as the rise of “cyber-physical systems” that are creating completely new capabilities for machines and humans. Currently an abundance of educational programmes, apps and resources are becoming available to teachers to use in their classrooms in order to extend and promote these forms of engagement with the world of the internet. Language and literacy teaching are often seen as a way whereby learners can acquire the knowledge and skills they need to deal with other content subjects – engagement with digital technologies within language and literacy classes is thus quite central to learners’ success across their schooling careers.

However, both the New Literacy Studies (Street, 1992; Gee, 1990) and the New London Group’s (1996) re-theorisations of literacy make evident the fact that there is not one literacy that needs to be acknowledged but many literacies and that there are multiple ways of communicating and meaning-making that are multi-modal. The earlier perspective of literacy as passive consumption of texts is coming to be viewed more as the promotion of a pedagogy where learners use “available resources” to design and critically “re-design” their identities through using language to act and enact literacy processes and practices. Nothing happens with digital technologies that is not mediated through language. In today’s world, language and language teaching is ever more complex given the variety of languages and registers with which people engage in their digital activities.

This in turn means enabling learners in schools to actively engage in learning tasks at a contextual and relevant level. As Burnett (2014, 2) argues: “(E)mpowering literacy provision takes account of new communicative practices and the complex relationships between the here-and-now and then there-and-then associated with meaning making”. It is therefore becoming crucial for teachers to encourage learners to use language to make use of multimodal resources, engage critically with texts and create shared meaningful responses.

The language and literacy classroom becomes an important space for grappling with these challenges, and a very different one from other content subject classes, and ways of

grappling become ever more complex given the growing numbers of learners who are communicating in a wider range of languages than schools have traditionally taken account of. In addition to this, studies (for example, McKinney, 2016) have shown there are complex hierarchies in place with regards to how Home and Additional languages are perceived. As such, this study intended to analyse how teachers' conception of language affects the way in which English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa are presented in two schools in the same geographical area and to what extent these conceptions are influencing the choices made by the teachers in their classroom practices and pedagogical choices

This research study set out to explore the ways in which teachers in the two schools were incorporating digital technologies into their language classes across the three subjects, home language, first additional language and second additional language. As data collection proceeded, it became clear that the way in which teachers were incorporating digital technologies was closely linked to the ways in which they understood language and literacy and that this differed across the three language subjects. The study therefore needed to broaden to find out the conceptions of language and literacy that inform Grade 4 language teachers' teaching of language and literacy and their engagement with digitally-mediated tasks within their language and literacy lessons. It aims to begin to answer, through teachers' accounts, whether these conceptions of language and literacy, combined with the current CAPS curriculum, foster an environment that can facilitate effective digital literacy knowledge and skills needed to successfully navigate the world outside of the school walls.

1.2 Background to language and literacy in schools

Language, literacy and curriculum have been much discussed in South Africa post-Apartheid. The immediate post-Apartheid curricula and approaches to pedagogy were, to a large extent, a reflection of the broad political, cultural and social shifts occurring in the country at the time. As Hoadley (2018, 9) points out: "Since South Africa's emergence as a democratic nation there have been 3 curriculum reforms: Curriculum 2005 (C2005) implemented 1998- 2002; National Curriculum Statement (NCS) implemented 2002 - 2011; Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) 2012 - current period". In addition to this, the Language in Education policy aimed to repair the damage done by colonial powers promoting English (and Afrikaans) in language policies at the expense of indigenous languages. In 1997, a new Language in Education Policy (LiEP) was created that embraced an ethos of bi- or multilingualism. The aim was to transform inherited language practices and attitudes and seek to accommodate diversity. As a result, a system of additive multilingualism was suggested where Home Languages are maintained but that enables access to and acquisition of Additional Languages in the classroom.

Heugh (In Pluddemann, 2015) states, however, that there is a disjuncture between the LiEP and the current CAPS curriculum. She argues that the ethos of multilingualism promoted in the LiEP, results in parallel monolingualism in practice, both in the LOLT and in Language as a subject. As is the case in most countries around the world - including South Africa - these school policies recognise and promote the dominant language over other languages spoken in the country. It can be argued that the standardised and boundaried approach used in the curriculum, which sees language acquisition as an objective set of skills to be mastered and tested accordingly, does not take into account the diverse repertoire of knowledge and skills that learners bring into the classroom, and the range of practices that may not fit within a formal idea of what language proficiency includes.

Currently, studies such as McKinney (2016) have shown that the autonomous model of literacy (Street, 1999) and what has been called a "boundaried" conception of languages are still dominant in discourses around curricula in South Africa. Prinsloo (2012, 22) puts it thus: "The post-apartheid South African Constitution and ensuing policy statements from the Education Ministry employ an idea of languages as autonomous, boundaried entities and combine this understanding of languages with discourses on language rights and of language endangerment". Despite the fact that classroom literacy practices do not always reflect or encompass the way that different learners make meaning and approach literacy, these understandings have traditionally been the model in most educational settings around the world. As Prinsloo states: language is thus "seen to have certain stable, bounded, systemic features (syntactic, lexical, and orthographic) which should be the focus of language instruction. The systemic view of languages as standard forms with generic functions appears increasingly problematic under conditions of linguistic diversity and language shifts and changes, common in most African settings, as well as increasingly a feature elsewhere, including in European cities (Blommaert & Rampton, 2011; Vertovec, 2007 in Prinsloo: 2005, 255)".

The nature of most classrooms in South Africa is that learners bring a diverse linguistic repertoire to the classroom, as such, classrooms are often not monolingual in practice, but rather multilingual. Language use daily doesn't follow the formal separation of Home and First Additional Language, as per the CAPS. As Prinsloo states "Evidence of language practices in schools and in the wider society suggests both a popular disregard for, as well as an institutional ambiguity over, these ideas about boundaried languages and language endangerment/protection" (Prinsloo, 2012, 22). In addition to this is the reality that learners'

out-of-school engagement with digital technology often takes on vastly different forms to those that are legitimised in in-school technology lessons, and these practices are therefore at risk of being disregarded in favour of pedagogized technology practices which are also largely modelled on this boundaried understanding of languages.

1.3 Rationale

As a primary school teacher, I have watched digitally mediated tasks being promoted with vigour in all classes and subject areas at my own school and others in the local area. At the school where I taught specifically, it is required that 1 in 3 lessons is centred around using technology. This included the use of iPads, Google and Apple apps and an Interactive Smartboard. As such, I made use of digitally mediated tasks such as internet searches, collaborative group work on Google Docs, creating iMovies and trailers and a host of other tasks to teach the skills and content of the CAPS English Home language curriculum. This is normal practice across all grades in the Intermediate Phase (Grades 4 - 6) at my school; where each child at the school has access to their own iPad for use in school. However, the CAPS skills are focusing on guiding learners towards a specific conception of literacy that prioritises a focus on proficiency, decoding and comprehension skills.

The idea that meaning making is far more profound than simple comprehension is an important argument to take into account in a global and technological world. That there are different ways to read and write texts, based heavily on the culture and history of both the text and the reader; that literacy is multiple - is central to the social practices approach to literacy. How we understand and approach texts is as, if not much more, important than merely knowing how to read them and understand what has been written. In the Intermediate Phase, Grade 4- 6, where there is a sudden shift towards expecting learners to engage with texts more critically and discuss opinions about them, there is often a noticeable drop in results, as learners struggle to grapple with texts in this manner for the first time.

This shift in focus is in alignment with the nature of digital literacy: It is multimodal and collaborative in nature and well as being intrinsically active, social, and requiring learners to be “creators”, and not merely readers. Burnett (2014, 7) states that “the problem arises when policy statements around ‘literacy’ are not clearly articulated with policies around new technologies...if literacy is conflated with broad pedagogical moves, or worse, extracted from debates about innovative or ‘transformative’ education, we miss learning from the *specific* contribution of literacies, and making *specific* recommendations for formulating literacy education in the contemporary context and in the years to come”. These policies therefore

have the potential to create a gap between the knowledge and skills deemed essential by the CAPS curriculum policy and those needing to be taught through digitally mediated tasks.

What the CAPS document fails to outline clearly, if at all, is how teachers should be approaching the teaching and assessing of digital literacy - arguably a vital component of modern education. The current policy provides details with regards to how to best approach working with written texts as stated below:

> *Language teaching happens in an integrated way, with the teacher modelling good practice, the learners practising the appropriate skills in groups before applying these skills on their own. The structure of each lesson should be one that engages the whole class before practicing in groups and applying the new skill individually. The terms used are Listening and Speaking, Shared Reading and Writing, Group, Guided and Independent Reading/Writing* (CAPS, 2011 13).

It doesn't outline any specifications beyond more traditional tasks and approaches, however. Studying how language teachers at Grade 4 level in different schools, and with different access to technology and digital materials, approach their lessons and the incorporation of digitally-mediated tasks, could provide insight into how their conceptions of language enable digital resources to be used effectively and whether these conceptions enable teachers to provide learners with the space to become capable text users and producers.

1.4 Research questions and research aim

The study addresses the following research questions:

- What conceptions of language and literacy inform the teaching of a selection of Grade Four Home Language, First Additional Language and Second Additional language teachers?
- Do these conceptions of language and literacy, and the teaching practises that flow from them, facilitate the incorporation of digital technologies into their language and literacy teaching? If so, how?

By analysing teacher interviews, the CAPS curriculum document as well as teachers' lesson plans and what they say about these, this study aims to ascertain how selected teachers of Afrikaans, isiXhosa and English conceptualise language and literacy and how these conceptions shape how they navigate their language lessons. Furthermore, it aims to ascertain and whether these conceptions affect how they are incorporating digitally mediated learning opportunities into language lessons in an effective pedagogical way.

1.5 Outline of the project

In the next Chapter I review the literature and explain the main concepts and theories I used to support this study. I will also use this chapter to explain how the theoretical framework is structured. The main concepts that are drawn upon in this chapter are language ideology, conceptions of language as a 'system' and as a 'social construct'. I also make use of the notions of the 'pedagogization of literacy' as well as literacy as 'multiple' and 'multimodal'.

In Chapter 3, I outline the research design used in this study, which is a comparative case study, drawing on the approaches developed within the field of qualitative studies and linguistic ethnography. I also explain the data analysis and collection process.

Chapter 4 is the first data chapter and it focuses on the teachers' conceptions of language across the three languages and subjects, drawing comparison between the ways the subjects themselves are framed and teachers' conceptions of language. I also note the language ideologies inherent in both the CAPS curriculum and the teachers' conceptions and classroom practices.

Chapter 5 is the second data chapter. In this chapter, I focus on how both the CAPS document and the teachers' conceptions of language have resulted in prioritising a specific "pedagogized" notion of literacy. I discuss this pedagogization process in relation to Luke and Freebody's Four Resources Model.

Chapter 6 is the last data chapter. In this chapter I use Durrant and Green's (2000) 3D literacy model to discuss a sample of technology lesson plans from the teachers. I draw on the concept of multiliteracies to discuss how the teachers' conceptions and ideologies behind language come into play in their digital language lessons.

In the final conclusion, I sum up the study and discuss my findings and the implications thereof, suggesting that that language and literacy ideologies inherent in both the CAPS document and the teachers' conceptions of language and literacy have influences on learners' acquisition of language as well as knowledge and skills necessary for a multimodal world.

Chapter Two: Theoretical framework and literature review

2.1 Introduction

This research is situated broadly within the New Literacy Studies (Street, 1992; Gee, 1990) which views literacy as a social practice. It draws particularly on Street and Street's (1995) concept of the "schooling of literacy" to examine what is happening in the teaching of language and literacy. I bring this focus together with the conceptual frameworks of language ideologies (McKinney, 2016) and the concept of linguistic repertoires (Gumperz 1964, Busch 2017). Blommaert's concept of an "artefactual ideology" of language (2008) provides for bringing these strands of work together. In elucidating how the ideologies underlying the teachers' practices impact on the ways in which they work with digital technologies in their language classes, I will also draw on Luke and Freebody's (1990) "Four Resources Model", and its overlap with the "3D Literacy model" developed by Durrant and Green (2000).

The chapter outlines shifts in theories about language and literacy studies from the early ideas about literacy as a universal and decontextualised tool for "civilising" societies and bringing about economic and social upliftment; to the current notions of multiple literacies and multiliteracies - as co-constructed, multimodal moments, practices and assemblages that are deeply embedded in their contextual and everyday use. I explore how the pedagogization processes at work in schools with regards to literacies serve to validate some versions of literacy over others. This has the potential for leaving some learners' literacy practices and language repertoires marginalised or discounted. I will also discuss the evolution of theories of language, starting with language as a system (with similarly standardised, prescribed and standardised entity with monoglossic ideologies) and moving to the notion of language as linguistic repertoires and resources that are composed of speakers' contextual and lived experiences of language use and mixing as deeply heteroglossic. I show how anglonormative (McKinney, 2016) ideologies promote certain standardised versions of language over others, as well as ensuring that certain languages (namely English) are given a higher status than others.

2.2 Language ideologies and schooling

Language ideologies can be defined as the sets of beliefs, values and cultural frames that continually circulate in society, informing the ways in which language is conceptualized and represented, as well as how it is used. Such ideologies are constructed through discourse, that is, systems of power/knowledge (Foucault, 1980, in Makoe and McKinney, 2014, 659).

One specific version of this is what Blommaert (2008) calls an "artefactual ideology of language", arguing: "(T)here is an idea which is central to much of modern professional linguistics: the idea that language needs to be seen primarily as limited collections of ordered forms - grammar - and of words - lexis" (2008, 291). Blommaert traces how the idea that language learning is about learning this collection of grammar and the lexicon of language in order to be able to speak it properly is the dominant one in society and language learning. The key concepts that underpin this artefactual ideology of language are centred around the idea that speech, despite bring variable by its nature, can be reduced to a set of systems and rules and that these rules must exist in textual form in order for a language to be considered legitimate. According to Blommaert, these key concepts reduce language to an *artefact* that can be manipulated and in turn learnt, replicated and manipulated (2008, 292).

As a result of colonialism and the powerful influence of missionaries on the development of orthographies and grammars, this ideology has spread widely and is arguably the dominant one in many conceptions and practices around language teaching globally (Blommaert, 2008). It corresponds with Street's concept of an "autonomous model of literacy" (Street, 1984), in which the dominant Western conception of literacy views it as a benign, autonomous and universal set of decontextualised skills that can be applied in a standardised manner to any learning situation.

These early linguistic practices, of documenting African languages, in particular, saw African languages affirmed and legitimised by the parameters of systems and rules that were set down by those that saw themselves as custodians of languages, like missionaries. Anything outside of these parameters was not counted as language or was disregarded as legitimate examples of language use. Drawing on Saussure's concepts of "langue" and "parole", the linguistic anthropologist, Boas (who pioneered this artefactual documentation of languages) highlighting the links between laying down and studying these specific systems of language and their subsequent representation as texts.

While the recent "multilingual turn" in sociolinguistics has challenged understandings of languages as sets of ordered and regimented forms, a monolingual bias continues to be dominant in schooling. Terms such as "first" and "second" language serve to forward the notion that a normal language user has only one language and that any other linguistic resources they may acquire in their lives will be in addition to this. Thus, the notion of

autonomous, static and boundaried languages that are “named” lies at the heart of monolingual or monoglossic ideologies still operating in schools. According to McKinney (2016: 84) a number of myths arguably follow from this orientation to language:

• Monolingualism, or a high level of proficiency in a single named language, is the norm.
• Linguistic purity is inherently superior, or good language use keeps named languages separate from each other while deficient language use is mixed.
• Bi/multilingualism is understood as multiple monolingualisms, or as equivalent proficiency in two or more named languages, so-called “balanced bilingualism” (Grosjean, 1982).
• Bi/multilingualism is undesirable/a problem (Ruiz, 1984).

Language ideologies are a powerful jumping off point for the projection of monolingual language practices as both universal and common sense. How we conceptualise language becomes integral in shaping how we teach it, and thus it is necessary to delve deep into the way that these ideologies present themselves in both educational practice and in the policies and curricula that mould them. Studies such as those done by McKinney (2014) and Makoni (1999) have shown that this monoglossic ideology of language is prevalent in both the language policies and curriculum in South Africa as well as in everyday teaching practice, as well as continuing to be dominant in discourses around curricula in South Africa.

Specific parameters thus become entrenched regarding what registers or varieties of a given language are acceptable in the classroom, with little regard for the linguistic repertoires that learners bring to the classroom from their realities as members of predominantly bi- or multilingual communities. “The English that is endorsed in the formal aspects of school activities, including testing and in reading materials used, both print and digital, is a boundaried and monolingual register. All children [who don’t speak this register] are thus second-language learners as regards the standard, monolingual English that is required for writing in examinations and that is used in textbooks and digital software” (Prinsloo, 2015, 534).

In addition to this, the current specifications from the CAPS curriculum for languages, arguably, still largely reflect a top down, standardised view of languages as objects with criteria to be met and evaluated by criteria involving standardisation. An analysis of the Department of Education’s Language Policy by McKinney (2016), points towards an autonomous way of approaching literacy policy - specifically with regards to the concept of what language is: “Despite the recent heteroglossic theorizing of the nature of language, language in education policy, language curricula and standardised assessment, schools and

teachers typically treated named languages as autonomous objects that must be kept separate" (McKinney, 2016, 1).

This approach is in stark contrast to the realities of multilingualism in both societies and classrooms in South Africa. The idea that a person is likely to only have one source of linguistic influence throughout their life is outdated in today's global context. It is these changes to society as a whole, and their effects on an individual's speech community, that have sparked changes in the way that linguistic repertoires are viewed. As Graddol, Cheshire and Swann put it: "By definition, members of the same speech community will have various linguistic and communicative features in common, but absolute linguistic homogeneity may well not even be found even within *idiolect"* (1987, 20).

In keeping with the notion of the multilingual nature of South African schools, Janks's (2012) paper *Making Sense of PIRLS 2006* takes a critical look at possible reasons why South Africa fared so poorly in these literacy tests - paying particular attention to the autonomous and standardised conception of literacy still evident in the testing process itself. She suggests that a prominent reason behind this is the fact that these tests are not designed for a culturally and linguistically rich society such as South Africa, but rather for learners who are learning in their home language (English) from the outset. The assumption that all learners arrive in the classroom with the same linguistic resources, is therefore misguided.

Language and hegemony in South Africa

In South Africa languages still carry the weight of both colonial influence and the Apartheid regime. The segregationist principles that underpinned the ideologies of racial purity are echoed in the desire to keep languages separate and "pure" in educational policies (McKinney, 2014).This notion of correctness and boundedness is reflected in the data from McKinney's studies (2014) in desegregated schools in both Johannesburg and Cape Town and has served to show how language policies and ideologies not only exclusively privilege English in schools - but more specifically, particular versions thereof. McKinney terms this prioritizing *anglonormativity* and suggests that this normative use of monolingual English in schools is how "norms of whiteness continue to be constructed and reproduced" in South African schools (McKinney, 2016, 84).

The notion of a language enjoying a higher social status, or capital, is one that has been discussed in depth by sociologist Pierre Bourdieu. In his book *Language and Symbolic Powe*r, he introduces the notion of language as being part of a social marketplace. He states that all social interaction highlights the "positions" from where people speak. These positions

are defined by a marketplace of symbolic capital where resources are circulated and unevenly distributed. This interplay in social arenas means that communicative resources are not determined by linguistic factors, but rather by socio-historical factors that bear on their value. Therefore, in a social space there is inevitably a distinction between what is valued or "legitimate" (the norm) and what is lesser. Through the circulation of discourse, beliefs and ideas that are actually socially and historically specific are legitimized by their seemingly universal and natural appearance (Blommaert, 2015, 6).

In the South African context, colonising powers promoted English and Afrikaans in language policies at the expense of indigenous languages. Despite the introduction of a new Language in Education Policy (LiEP) in 1997 that embraced an ethos of bi- or multilingualism and aimed to transform inherited language practices and attitudes and promote diversity, it has been shown that English is given a higher status in both the curriculum and in the eyes of parents who have a say in deciding the LOLT through the School Governing Bodies (SGBs) in most schools (McKinney, 2016; Pluddemann, 2015). Additionally, the CAPS curriculum makes the presumption that English will become the LOLT by the end of the Foundation Phase (Heugh, in Pluddemann, 2015).

This same ideology, in turn, can be applied to the teaching of Afrikaans and African Languages in schools. The organising, and separation, of languages into the 11 named official versions in the LiEP and curricula attests to the colonial construction of African Languages. In addition, versions of these languages have been standardised by historically colonial practices that served to construct African languages rather than discover them (Makoni, 1999 in McKinney, 2016). What remains is the implementation of particular versions of these languages in schools which disregards the increasingly fluid reality of the population's linguistic repertoire, especially in highly populated urban areas (McKinney, 2016). It also serves to construct certain ways of speaking and accents as normative, while disregarding others such as urban vernaculars. Not only do these discourses and social conventions dictate how we see ourselves as part of a speech community, but they also affect how we look at or categorise others. As Busch (2017, 348) argues:

> They [categorisations] have a major influence on whether a language we speak brings respect, or whether we try to hide it from others or even get rid of it. Personal attitudes to language are largely determined by the value ascribed to a language or a language variety in particular social space.

As such, these dominant monolingual ideologies, which privilege certain linguistic resources over others; and which inform the language in education policies CAPS curriculum are central to the reproduction of inequalities in schooling (McKinney, 2016). The effects of this subtractive tendency and focus on immersion in the dominant language over a bilingual education means that learners are steered away from their own linguistic resources and expected to take on the language of schooling. In the case of this research project, this was evident not only with regards to English (the LOLT in both schools); but also, with regards to the academic versions of both Afrikaans and isiXhosa. The standardized versions of these two languages are focused on in class and are used to assess learners' proficiency - despite the reality that learners bring a very different set of linguistic repertoires to the classroom.

Linguistic repertoires

The concept of linguistic repertoires was first described and defined by Gumperz in the1960s. For him, the creation of a speaker's repertoire is intrinsically connected to how one communicates in specific contexts and what are acceptable ways of communicating within a specific space. A linguistic repertoire "contains all the accepted ways of formulating messages. It provides the weapons of everyday communication. Speakers choose among this arsenal in accordance with the meanings that they wish to convey" (Gumperz in Busch; 2017, 344).

Whilst Gumperz's initial theories on linguistic repertoires are a good foundation for assessing language in the field of sociolinguistics where language use in a contextual and social sphere is the key focus, the idea that a person is likely to only have one source of linguistic influence throughout their life is outdated in a global context. Brigitta Busch extended this notion to reflect a new global and heterolingual world by suggesting that it is necessary to look more closely at an individual speaker's linguistic repertoire in relation to, as well as being a result of, their speech community, especially through the lens of a mobile and global world where speech communities are no longer stable:

> What is crucial in the current elaborations of the concept of linguistic repertoire is they move beyond the realm of speech community which is achieved either by taking a biographical perspective that ties the repertoire more to an individual's life trajectory, or by taking a spatial perspective that focuses on encounters in linguistically highly diverse settings (Busch, 2017, 345).

Looking at an individual speaker's linguistic repertoire through this lens, it becomes clearer exactly how the conventions of speech communities use these elements to qualify "appropriate" use of language within their specific contexts. One can see how easily an individual can come to see themselves as "other" when their individual repertoire doesn't conform to certain conventions of a speech community. "Differences in pronunciation are used like a *shibboleth* as a criterion for inclusion or exclusion. And secondly, the (negative) evaluation of [one's] linguistic resources by others influences [one's] own self-perception as a 'deficient' speaker" (Busch, 2017, 346). Prioritising a monolingual ideology in schools, can also have the effect of othering learners who bring with them the blurred language boundaries and vernacular resources of their community into a place where language bound and standardised.

Very few studies have been conducted in South Africa on the impacts of language policy on language results with most being centred around the English versus Mother-Tongue instruction debate. However in a study of longitudinal data conducted in a series of schools that included language of instruction by grade, and student test score data, Taylor and Coetzee conducted what they termed "the first South African study (and one of a very few international studies) to bring robust empirical evidence to the policy debate around language of instruction" (Taylor and Coetzee, 2013, 1). This study was completed in a number of schools where, despite the LOLT being English, learners were predominantly isiXhosa speaking.

The following is a summary of their findings:

> The estimates show that instruction in English is associated with better performance in the English…However, we find that, after controlling for school fixed effects, receiving Mother Tongue instruction (rather than English instruction) in grades 1, 2 and 3 leads to better English proficiency in grades 4, 5 and 6...Since children with an African home language perform significantly worse than English home language speakers, one of the questions that is frequently raised is to what extent this language policy contributes to the under-performance of these children" (Taylor and Coetzee, 2013, 19).

However, these findings still operate on the conception that language practices are fluid and that learners may bring a variety of linguistic resources to the classroom. Whilst there is a nod to taking note of other 'contributors' to the data, it serves to promote not only an

artefactual Ideology of languages as separate systems to be analysed, but also contributes to a monolingual bias, where one language is given precedence over another in the curriculum.

Language teaching and the South African curriculum

The path to the CAPS curriculum has been influenced by a number of factors in Post-Apartheid South Africa. Efforts to change and shape teaching and learning in the newly democratic South Africa, led to a radically different curriculum in the form of Curriculum 2005. National, as well as international influences initially steered the post-Apartheid reforms towards an outcomes-based curriculum and learner-centred pedagogies - largely to undo the "authoritarian" classroom practices of the past. But it was widely acknowledged that Curriculum 2005 was not appropriate. This curriculum was then adapted in the National Curriculum Statements from 2001 – 2011.

Currently, a shift in approach has taken place from the initial two curricula. The CAPS specifications have shifted from more learner-centric, outcomes-based objectives to more knowledge-based, structured objectives. "The CAPS [aims] specifically to strengthen the classification of the subject, strengthen the framing of evaluative criteria and pace and introduce greater individualisation into classrooms" (Hoadley, 2018, 191). A return to stronger classification and framing of subjects, including Home and Additional Language, has been promoted in the current, CAPS, curriculum as well as more emphasis on knowledge gain and what constitutes supported systems of pedagogy.

In keeping with this change in framing in the curriculum, Hendricks (2008) discusses how the teaching of English as a curriculum subject has shifted from a focus on formal grammar approach to one of Communicative Language Teaching - where writing is seen as central to literacy. She points out writing's ability to assign social positions within society. She also highlights the difference between productive writing for higher levels of education and synonymous with power; and reproductive routinised writing that is often associated with school children and secretarial type tasks. She also defines two types of writing within school contexts:

1) Scribing - tasks that revolve around practising content and displaying accuracy and knowledge of grammar and language concepts.
2) Composing - conveying own meaning about a topic as well as one's own thoughts and feelings (Hendricks, 2008).

Whilst Hendricks's studies were conducted during the former curriculum's time, the CAPS document also makes use of communicative language as a foundation for teaching practice:

> The approaches to teaching language are text-based, communicative and process orientated. The text-based approach and the communicative approach are both dependent on the continuous use and production of texts...A communicative approach suggests that when learning a language, a learner should have an extensive exposure to the target language and many opportunities to practise or produce the language by communicating for social or practical purposes. (DBE CAPS document, 2012, 12)

This approach in theory, puts learners at the centre of classroom interaction and grammar language concepts were meant to be learnt through integration with the focus being on appropriate language use in authentic situations. However, Hendricks' 2007 and 2008 studies found that despite this shift in focus, writing exercises still privileged grammar exercises and personal expressive writing over communicative writing of texts that had real-life relevance or that focused on providing learners with the skills to write within the conventions of other genres, such as formal impersonal registers, for example.

In addition to this she found the "underlying theory of structural linguistics predominant in the 1960s" (Hendricks, 2008, 29) was still used in FAL Afrikaans classes and that:

> Grammar translation, an enduring L2 approach, is associated with writing tasks intended to develop learners' understanding of the grammatical structures and rules of language, rather than fluency. These practices exemplify 'scribing' and reproductive routinised writing (Hendricks, 2008, 29).

All in all, her studies of writing practices in schools served to highlight that the teachers' literacy practices were modelled on decades-old pedagogies. Whether that was due to coherent policy documents and teachers' "limited conceptualisations" (Hendricks, 2008, 41) of the purpose of writing she noted wasn't clear, but it meant that writing lessons did little to promote tasks that require learners to compose rather than to scribe in their writing tasks. This once again highlights the default to an autonomous conception of language and literacy in practice by both teachers and the curriculum documents.

2.3 Literacy as more than reading and writing

Just as the conception of language as an abstract and autonomous system free from context has shifted to a conception of language as an ideological product of social contexts and power systems; conceptions of literacy have shifted in parallel with those of language.

The Great Divide conception of literacy saw writing and the written word as being the breakthrough that allowed humans to organise their thoughts and record information and knowledge effectively. In this way literacy was linked to the ability to write and record ideas, making it the technology through which a shift in human communication was realised. Therefore, with the ability to read and write came the ability to hone cognitive and analytical skills as well as nurture logical thought. Prinsloo and Baynham (2013, xxv) put it thus:
. Literacy was seen as happening independently of context where individuals acquired literacy internally, as a set of cognitive tools.

However, “literacy is not a given, a simple set of technical skills necessary for a range of educational competencies, as much of the earlier literature would suggest” (Street and Street, 1995, 72). Brian Street (1999) suggests that a cultural hierarchy has been formed from a distinctly Western perspective historically and that these hierarchies are still evident today. What Street (1992) called an “autonomous model of literacy”, sees literacy as a single entity and not something that is contested, varied and adaptable. It is viewed as something that can be applied to any situation uniformly. “The argument from this autonomous model suggests that the acquisition of literacy has consequences for social progress, cognitive development, democracy [and]economic take off...illiteracy and literacy are treated as two terms in a complete binary system, you are either one or the other” (Street, 1999, 12).

Street and Street argue that this autonomous view of literacy, is not only inherent in school curricula and literacy policies, but also that it plays a role in “pedagogizing” literacy practices, promoting a certain conception whilst disallowing others from being taken into account in a school setting:

> The mechanism through which meanings and uses of ‘literacy’ take on this role is the ‘pedagogization’ of literacy. By this we mean that literacy has become associated with educational notions of Teaching and Learning and with what teachers and pupils do in schools, at the expense of the many other uses and meanings of literacy evident from the comparative ethnographic literature (Street and Street, 1995, 72).

Much of what goes into schooled literacy conceptions is a product of a Western assumption of what literacy is. Much like with language ideologies, these pedagogical processes serve to distance languages from subjects and serve to treat writing as an object or thing that is distanced from social practices and contextual elements of both the teacher and the child and needs to be mastered individually through individual cognitive labour. This distancing serves to impose a standardised set of external rules and requirements for literacy practices that leads to a "one size fits all" approach - as well as promoting the valuing of specific literacy practises as valid or correct. Conceptualising literacy as a separate and neutral entity that is apart from social contexts in which it is being taught or practised, is what helps to construct these autonomous ideologies and ensure that they disseminate certain specific procedures and social roles, as the hegemonic norm.

The ideological model and multiliteracies

Street's alternative "ideological model" model starts from the premise that literacy is a social practise, not simply a technical and neutral skill; that it is "always embedded in socially constructed epistemological principles of one kind of another" (Street, 1999, 12). 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, 2006, 2).

Furthermore, it is now widely understood that merely having the ability to decode the linguistic parts that make up a text is not enough in the modern, multimodal world. "Readers of the new literacies must organise their reading across a range of media, flexible constructs and typologies that break from traditional grammar orthodoxies" (Kress, 1997). Imaging and graphic resources are arguably in the foreground of digital literacies, with text being a secondary element to the knowledge or information provided by images.

The *New London Group (NLG)* coined the term "multiliteracies" (1996) to describe how literacy is linked to a variety of practices, modes and activities; and that these different activities and texts demand different literary practices and linguistic resources. "This more complex view of literacy, as both local and context-specific was augmented by the rise of digital technologies and the identification of literacy skills linked to new tools of information retrieval and interpersonal communication" (Molyneux and Aliani, 2016, 264). The *New London Group* also propose that meaning making is far more profound than simple comprehension - it thus refocuses the lens of literacy to take into account the nature of the

modern, global, world and its effect on literacy practices. This model allows for the notion that are different ways to read and write texts, based heavily on the culture and history of both the text and the reader; that literacy is multiple. How we understand and approach texts is as, if not much more important than merely knowing how to read them and understand what has been written.

When it comes to delivering rich literacies in education, this is an important argument to take into account. In order to teach learners to successfully navigate knowledge building and learning, they need to be able to see the importance of the role written texts play in social practices. “It is widely recognised that to be literate in today’s world requires the conscious, creative and critical deployment of language (and other semiotic devices) for different social purposes, contexts and audiences” (Molyneux and Aliani, 2016, 264).

Furthermore, teachers and learners should be able to make use of explicit meta-language in terms of which they can talk about form and function in language. Only within this context can children achieve adaptable mastery of specific genres, especially if they do not come from homes where they are immersed in early school-based literacy practices (Gee, 2001:655). “Studies show that a large number of children perform poorly in school mainly because they have had little practice at home with school-based forms of language and interaction” (Miller, 1995, in O¨zyıldırım, 2009,1213). By acknowledging and allowing for the way in which learners communicate at home and in a social context, whilst exposing them to formal school language in a collaborative and guided environment, learners could be guided to actively engage in a wide range of literacy practices.

Another critique of the PIRLS testing, raised by Janks, draws on Freebody and Luke’s Four Roles of the reader to analyse and compare how learners in South Africa are at a disadvantage in these tests. She suggests that the PIRLS tests do not go beyond decoding and basic comprehension of texts - which encompasses the roles of text decoder and text participant. In these types of tests, emphasis is placed on assessment of lower order cognitive skills such as decoding and comprehension of a text within the weekly outlines - but very little emphasis is placed on providing learners with the skills to think and engage critically with texts. She also suggests that learners need to be given more time in classrooms and lessons to practise interacting with texts and discussing them - not merely reading them and answering basic comprehension questions.

The Four Resources Model

Freebody and Luke's (1990) framework for the Four Resources of readers mirrors the principles and conceptions of socially situated literacy outlined previously, as the emphasis is placed on extending learners' understanding beyond simple decoding and comprehension of texts and focuses on guiding learners to be part of communities of practice and modelling their learning on texts which are grounded in life-like and real practices, connecting school learning to the context beyond the classroom. They approach their model with the position that literacy is a social practice, with political and economic potentials and ramifications, stating that there is no single approach that results in literacy. Rather, different approaches create different literacies. "This issue becomes not whether a 'basic skills, a 'communicative' or a 'critical approach to literacy instruction is most appropriate or necessary, but rather that each of these general families or approaches display and emphasises particular forms of literacy, such that no single one will, of itself, fully enable students to use texts effectively" (Freebody and Luke, 1990, 7).

The key roles for reading and engaging with texts to allow for beneficial literacy development are outlined as follows:

The first role, *text decoder*, speaks to the initial steps taken to learning to read language: it is the ability to know and recognise letters, sounds and words and how they combine to form a text. This is a necessary part of learning to read and work with texts, but it is not sufficient on its own.

The second role, *text participant*, requires the reader to have the ability to "engage with the meaning systems of the discourse itself" (Freebody and Luke, 1990, 7) understand what the text is saying and inferring - in other words, to comprehend the text. Here, it is important that learners are encouraged to take and give meaning to these texts and discuss them. They should be encouraged to be active, not passive participants. (Freebody and Luke, 1990).

The third role*, text user,* asks that learners are actively encouraged to bring in experiential knowledge of texts and of different text types and genres. Learners should be encouraged here to plot the connection between texts and how they use them in their own lives and be given a good grasp of what literacy (and the text types within which it inevitably occurs) is for - both inside and outside of an academic or school context.

> Since reading and writing are nothing if not social, then being a successful reader is being able to participate in those social activities in which written text plays a central part. Not only do people learn about the technology of the script and about how to work out the meaning, or possible meanings of written texts, but they also learn

through social experiences what our culture counts to be adequate reading for schoolwork leisure or civil purposes. (Freebody and Luke, 1990).

The final role, *text analyst*, is one that is often not promoted in the first years of schooling - but is essential for giving learners the tools to fully access and work with texts. Learners should be able to critically understand the power relations of texts and be able to position themselves accordingly. Conscious awareness of the language and idea systems that make a text operate and in turn make the reader its operator should, and can, be cultivated from very early on in a learner's education (Freebody and Luke, 1990).

If these roles are to be taken into account in the context of the classroom, it is therefore vital for teachers to encourage a range of different activities using texts as the starting point. Texts should be used as a basis for discussion about learners' world experiences, compared to other texts in different contexts and used to help learners see how the world is viewed from different perspectives. Instead of merely reading a text and answering questions, learners should be able to see how that text is relevant to them on both an academic and social level.

In keeping with this notion, and the fact that reading and writing practices are now generally accepted to be an integral part of an increasingly technological world, learning should not only be reflecting the realities of globalisation, but also helping learners to build the skills and competencies necessary to be effective members of the global world: "readers of the new literacies must organise their reading across a range of media, flexible constructs and typologies that break from traditional grammar orthodoxies" (Kress, 1997; Healy 2000; in Prinsloo, 2005, 88). It is therefore critical for teachers to encourage learners to make use of multimodal resources, engage critically with texts and create a shared meaningful response in their classrooms to build and nurture these skills.

2.4 Digital literacies and language and literacy education

Much like the evolutions in the conceptions of language and literacy, digital literacy conceptions are undergoing their own changes, the difference here being that digital technology is still the 'new kid on the block' and, by nature, the changes are rapid.

A constant tension in the literature about digital literacy is the tension between the technological determinist approach and the social approach. "Across these different positions it is possible to identify a consistent tension between perceptions of technology as either neutral or culturally situated, along with the implications each view has for policy, practice and curriculum" (Hinrichsen and Coombs, 2013, 3). These two approaches mirror

the tensions between the autonomous and ideological models for literacy. Whereas the determinist approach tends to see technology as functional, neutral and operational; what have been called “social determinists” by the above writers have argued that technology is shaped by socio-cultural, political and other factors and in essence therefore cannot be neutral (Hinrichsen and Coombs, 2013, 3).

These two conceptions play a large role in how digital literacy is approached in the classroom and the curriculum. Hinrichsen and Coombs (2013, 2) suggest that the barriers challenging the successful integration of digital literacy practices into classrooms are the tendency of schools to shy away from approaching technology from a critical literacy perspective, and rather adopting a “technocratic” and “acritical” functional approach to digital literacy:

> From a curriculum perspective, a functional framing of technology misses the opportunity for the development of a range of academic skills and practices which are not only important in their own right, but which inform effective engagement with the digital (Hinrichsen and Coombs, 2013, 3).

Durrant and Green (2000) support this, by noting that technology has yet to be fully embraced by teachers and policies in the school setting and is to date still treated as an “add on” (Durrant and Green, 2000, 91) despite being deeply embedded in our daily routines both in and out of the classroom. They suggest that teachers need to move beyond literacy practices that are purely print based and recognise the potential of the technology to enhance teaching and learning. In addition, they should be positioning themselves to embrace what is possible in relation to practices with each new advance and development (Durrant and Green, 2000).

Just as the autonomous conception of language and literacy creates problems with regards to negating the social use and contextual value of texts, the conception of technology use as neutral is particularly troublesome for digital literacy teaching, as it leaves little room for acknowledging the multiple literacies and variety of practices that learners bring to the classroom with regards to digital practices. As Bereiter (in Sefton-Green, 2009: 114) argues: “Attempts to shape the school curriculum...have been highly problematic, partly because they do not take into account how new technologies are used by young people, nor how schools work as social practices”.

At the present moment, there seems to be a disconnect between the research underpinning what it means to be literate in a modern, multimodal, technological world and an autonomous conception that promotes a functional, skills-based approach to measuring

literacy in a school environment. As such, "(A)lthough some innovative teachers are able to incorporate 21st-century literacies in their classroom practice, for others the challenge is greater, particularly when coupled with competing for curricular priorities (Burnett et al, 2015, 271).

Studies in a South African context by Prinsloo and Walton (2008) show that an autonomous view of literacy is still evident in policies for digital media in education. Emphasis on digital literacy as achieving a particular "skill" set is still focused on here. "Such lists of context-neutral skills are a problem because they treat as given the process of signification and meaning-making involved...amongst other things they result in the production of particular kinds of skills-based curricula and pedagogy" (Prinsloo, 2005, 88). The dangers of this are such that:

> In contexts in which literacy attainment is judged in relation to international comparators (e.g., PIRLS, PISA), it seems that there is a real danger of reducing meaning-making to a set of relatively simple skills that are easy to assess. Meanwhile, some of the authentic, complex, and more controversial practices that are part and parcel of young people's lives, regardless of their level of participation, may be overlooked (Burnett et al, 2015, 271).

Prinsloo and Sasman's (2015, 533) analysis of how teachers in a school in Cape Town incorporated Interactive White Boards into their language lessons, showed that "rather than contributing to a transformation of language and literacy pedagogy, they get taken hold of and used by teachers to complement their pre-existing pedagogical strategies". When this is coupled with a curriculum that places other skills, such as reading for meaning, as a higher priority, this adds to the difficulties.

A lack of access and general use has the potential to create a huge divide between how digital technologies are best used in school settings and how they are able to be used in practice. Within a South African context, with the vast inequalities in even the most basic educational settings, this becomes challenging. Prinsloo's study of technology use in schools (2005) highlights that access to a computer is far from the norm in most South African schooling contexts and that it is highly likely that neither the teacher nor the student will encounter a computer in their everyday life, although it is noteworthy that many learners to access to smartphones, these are not currently actively used as ways to provide access in schools. In this case lack of access and general use, does indeed create a huge divide between how digital technologies are best used in school settings and how they are able to be used in reality.

Extending the Four Resources Model for technology teaching

An extension of the Four Resources model is the 3D L(IT)eracy model proposed by Durrant and Green (2000). They follow a social view of literacy as "situated social practice" and aim to supplement the concept of functional literacy by contextualising it, emphasising learning through and about technology equally when approaching digital literacy instruction. In addition, they advocate for an experience and activity-driven curriculum over an instruction curriculum as best practice (Durrant and Green, 2000).

In their view, whilst valuable, the Four Resources model associates "literacy" with "reading" (Durrant and Green, 2000, 100). They also suggest that " such an account might be seen as mortgaged to print culture and literacy, that is, both *print* bound and logocentred in the sense that it is oriented to the language system and to written textuality" (Durrant and Green, 2000, 101 Emphasis in original). The 3D model places its focus on writing and "production and design" and has been specifically developed with computer learning, IT and education in mind. Despite these adaptations, it is "entirely consistent" with the original Four Resources model, as shown in Figure 1 below:

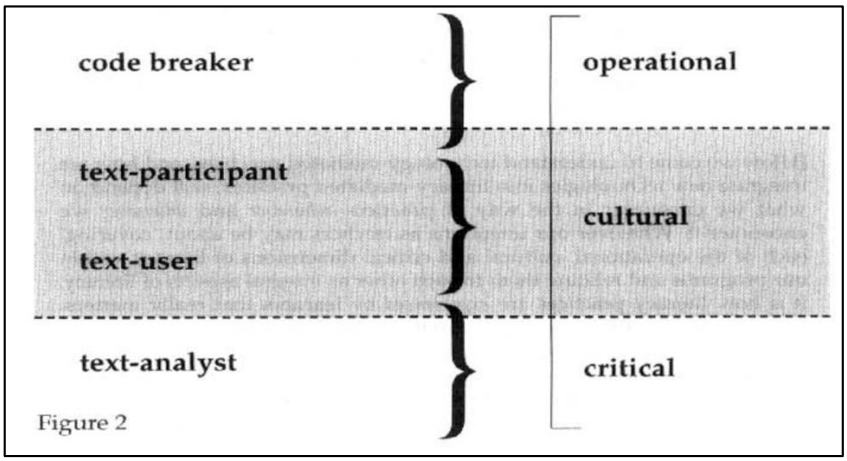

Figure 1:Resource Model intersection(Durrant and Green, 2000, 101).

Durrant and Green define three dimensions or aspects of learning and practice that work with and build onto the Four Resources. These are the *operational, cultural* and *critical* dimensions:

1) *The operational dimension* includes, but goes beyond, basic competence and skills and the "how-to" of using technology. This includes basics such as how to work a computer, knowing how to type and opening files.

2) *The cultural dimension* acknowledges that all texts and technology is used to do things in the world and to achieve our or other people's purposes. It suggests that the awareness of different contexts such as school, every day and work will come into play in all texts to varying degrees.
3) *The Critical dimension* involves guiding learners toward the explicit consideration of the contexts influenced by history and power. Learners are to be taught to account for the fact that school knowledge is partial and selective, it is always "someone's story" and that curricula represent some interests over others. It is the idea that learners need to be made aware of the fact that knowledge, specifically school knowledge, is a mix of complex socio-historical constructions rather than a single universal truth. That this knowledge is often structured according to prevailing principles of power and social organisation (Durrant and Green, 2000).

In keeping with the socio-cultural and ideological models of traditional print literacy, the cultural dimension seeks to prioritise an experience- and activity-driven curriculum by recognising that literacy practices and learning need to amount to more than just being able to operate language and technology, but in addition to embrace the fact that they are specific forms of and authentic meaning and practise as well.

The critical dimension seeks to make explicit the consideration of context, history and power by highlighting that school knowledge is not the only knowledge that is legitimate. By giving learners the tools to evaluate positioning, content and perspectives on the web and other technology-based resources used in the classroom, it allows them a chance to actively engage with their learning, rather than passively receive information.

2.5 Conclusion

Despite the predominance of autonomous ideologies of literacy and language prevalent in both the curriculum document and teaching practices in South Africa currently, the multilingual realities of the classroom require a shift in focus in order to allow all learners to benefit from a language learning and teaching model that is inclusive of the range of linguistic resources that they bring to the classroom. The Ideological model of language takes into account the contextual and social nature of literacy as well as provides for a range of different literacies that sees learners' linguistic repertoires as beneficial and not as a marker of deficit.

When looking at the way in which digital literacies have been defined in educational policies, the echoes of the autonomous, boundaried, and Western centric ideologies and pedagogization of literacy are very evident still. Bearing in mind that technology is a rapidly changing field that is engaged with and used in different ways by teachers and learners alike, effective use of digital literacies in education requires an alignment with the concepts of multiliteracies and acknowledging the highly social and contextual, and fluid nature of digital communication as part of social practices. Learners need to be active producers of collaborative and multi-modal texts. “Technology should not be used to simply replicate traditional literacy practices. The affordances of various hardware and software need to be utilised effectively and the resources used to analyse and produce a range of multimodal texts” (Lankshear and Knobel, 2011, in Larson and Marsh, 2015, 64).

In the following chapters I will use the theoretical frameworks discussed in this chapter (more specifically the Four Resources Model and the 3D literacy model) in conjunction with the concept of language ideologies to analyse and discuss how the conceptions of the language teachers in this study are influencing their teaching practice and to what extent this is allowing them (or not) to plan and present effective technology- based lessons that will mould learners into critical and active learners of language.

Chapter Three: Research design

3.1 Introduction

This research project takes the form of a comparative case study of teachers at two government schools in the Hout Bay area of Cape Town. My aim was to research the conceptions of language and literacy that drive the teachers' practices in the three language classrooms in each school. In addition, my aim was to see how these conceptions facilitate the integration or lack of integration of technology into language lessons - something which has become a much talked about necessity in education.

Case studies are widely accepted as a research approach for evaluating complex educational innovations in specific contexts (Simons, 1980) and social and educational phenomena in general (Merriam, 1988; Stake, 1995). Again, case studies provide an opportunity "to understand the case itself rather than generalize to a whole population" (Simons, 2009, 9). Case studies provide opportunities for gaining multiple perspectives, exploring contested viewpoints and telling the story of a process or policy in action. My intention was to focus on each teachers' thoughts and ideologies as reflected in their planning and teaching of language specifically. The case study format provided me with the ability to gain an understanding of each of the teachers as an individual whose conceptions and pedagogical choices are a result of their context and situation and their own histories and life experiences. It also gave me the at the ability to analyse the general specifications and requirements of the national curriculum (CAPS) and how it affects these teachers.

The research participants from these two sites were six Grade 4 teachers (3 teachers from each school). The teachers interviewed were two English Home Language teachers, two isiXhosa First Additional Language and two Afrikaans First Additional Language teachers. Grade 4 has been selected due to the shift from the Foundation Phase (Grade 1-3) to the Intermediate Phase. This shift signals the change to English as the Language for Learning and Teaching in many schools, which has significant repercussions for many learners in South Africa who need to make the adjustment to learning in language that is not their home language. In addition, whilst the possibility of using digitally mediated tasks right from a learner's first introduction to texts is promoted by theorists in the field of digital literacy, the nature of the specifications of the curriculum for the Foundation Phase tend to result in very little use of digitally-mediated tasks at this level.

This corresponds, unintentionally, with a shift in focus in the language curriculum as well. In the earlier grades, the focus is, arguably, on decoding and comprehension skills; learning how to read and how to make sense of what is being read. Whereas, from Grade 4 onwards,

the language policy now focuses on analysis and interpretation of texts, and not merely basic reading skills in the First Additional Language curriculum. This move towards expecting learners to engage with texts more critically and to discuss opinions about them often presents a noticeable drop in results, as learners struggle to grapple with texts in this manner for the first time. This shift in focus is where digital resources and tools become more readily available and adaptable for a learning environment, and as such, teachers tend to begin using more digitally mediated tasks in their lessons. Grade 4 is the first year in which this new focus defines the nature of language tasks and assessment, and is, therefore, a significant year in which to study the use of digitally mediated tasks.

I have chosen to focus specifically on the teachers' accounts in order to highlight not how effectively learners are accumulating knowledge and skills needed for digital literacy - but rather how teachers' conceptions are moulding how they navigate the demands for standardised results from policy documents versus providing meaningful access to digital literacy knowledge and skills in their language lessons. These subject teachers were selected in order to examine the use of digitally mediated tasks across the spectrum of language teaching in each school.

3.2 Research sites

The two schools were selected in order to provide a focused lens through which to compare and contrast the access to and use of digital resources within a highly resourced, and privately funded, government school and a more typically resourced, fee-paying, government school just a few kilometres away - with the aim of analysing the following factors in each site:

1) Teachers' conceptions of language and literacy.
2) Access to and use of technology and digital resources.
3) School policy or attitudes regarding technology in the classroom.

Protea Primary School, based in the informal settlement of Imizamo Yethu in Hout Bay, is categorised as a Quintile 3 school. The school covers the cost of tuition as well as being a member of the government feeding scheme. In order to attend Protea Primary School, which is a privately funded government school, parents or guardians have to fall within a specific income range or economic group. The school's intake is predominantly from the communities of Imizamo Yethu and Hangberg in Hout Bay. There are exceptions, but these communities are given preference. The school's language of learning and teaching (LOLT) is English (therefore offered at Home Language level). It also offers both Afrikaans and

isiXhosa at First Additional (FAL) level. Languages are taught separately, with a language specialist teacher for isiXhosa and one for Afrikaans, and a class teacher for all other subjects, including English. Teachers are encouraged to collaborate across language subjects and integrate content and themes. There is also a high level of moderation of planning from the School Management Team (SMT) and teachers are expected to stick strictly to the CAPS document.

Imizamo Yethu is an informal settlement comprised of mostly isiXhosa speakers who are working in menial jobs or are unemployed. There is also a large population of immigrants from other African countries such as Malawi or Zimbabwe that make up this community. These members learn to speak some isiXhosa in order to survive, but their home language is Shona or Chichewa. As such, most of the learners at the school are learning in a language that is not their home language.

The Hangberg community is situated near Hout Bay Harbour and is mostly Afrikaans speaking. The learners that come from here often speak a mixture of English and Afrikaans at home, including the vernacular known as *Kaaps.* The members of this community are predominantly working-class and of a lower socioeconomic status. Whilst the Hangberg community differs from the Imizamo Yethu community, in that it is not an informal settlement, the nature of the social and economic factors that are evident in Imizamo Yethu are also at play here.

What makes the school different from other Quintile 3 schools is that it receives the majority of its funding through an Educational Foundation *a*nd not the Department of Education. It is therefore in a unique situation of being highly resourced - especially with regards to technology. The school promotes the use of technology in the classroom as well as provides extensive training for teachers in this regard. As such, lessons are expected to be highly innovative and 'tech-savvy' in keeping with the school's particular policy on technology in the classroom.

Damarakloof Primary School is situated in a middle to upper-class area of Hout Bay and is categorised as a Quintile 5 school. There is a School Governing Body in place, in alignment with the South African Schools Act, and school fees are roughly R20 000 per annum. It has good access to resources and facilities, all paid for by funds from the school fees. Damarakloof has two classes per grade as well as a large library, learner support centre and computer centre. Teachers teach and plan for all subjects per grade, although with regards to Grade 4, the class teachers have decided to take on the planning and teaching of Afrikaans and English respectively. In other words, one teacher plans Afrikaans

as a Second Additional Language for both classes in the grade, and the same for English (which is taught as Home Language). IsiXhosa is taught by a specialist teacher in a Second Additional Language capacity.

Damarakloof's general intake is learners from the Hout Bay and Llandudno areas. This predominantly includes learners from a middle to upper class, white demographic where parents are working professionals and are able to pay for school fees, uniforms and any extracurricular costs such as camps, sports and cultural clubs/ activities. There is an intake from the aforementioned Hangberg and Imizamo Yethu communities as well, but this is based upon parents' ability to pay the fees and/or sponsorship of school fees and these learners are in the minority.

As government schools, both are required to follow the CAPS curriculum and adhere to the specifications detailed within both lesson planning and assessment. Both schools have an average class size capped at 30 learners per class (as dictated by the SGBs respectively and this is much less than many primary school classes in other parts of Cape Town).

At both schools, technology-based lessons are generally the domain of English lessons. Protea Primary has a policy on using digitally mediated tasks in all subjects (1 lesson per week for FAL; 1 in every 3 lessons for English), as such the specialist Afrikaans and isiXhosa teachers do attempt to use technology in their classes, but a lack of content resources and teaching time scheduled to them is cited as the main reason why digitally mediated tasks are not used more frequently, as will be seen in later chapters.

At Damarakloof Primary, the use of technology in lessons is promoted, but no explicit policy exists as a guideline for how often, or in what way this should be done. The Google Classroom platform is run by the school and this runs in conjunction with the school's orientation towards "Collaborative Learning" in their official policy. Access to technology takes the form of Smartboards in the classrooms for group teaching and a Computer Lab that needs to be booked in advance. Afrikaans and isiXhosa lessons do not make use of technology at all (barring the use of the Smartboard occasionally in the Afrikaans class) - mainly as this would require booking the Computer Room which is in high demand. Time and lack of knowledge or resources is stated as the predominant reason why technology is not used.

3.3 Research Participants

In what follows I provide a brief description of each of the six teachers that were interviewed, using pseudonyms to protect their identities.

Nosipho (isiXhosa teacher at Protea Primary)

Nosipho, in her 30s, had been in her post as isiXhosa teacher for just over a year when I interviewed her. However, she has been employed at Protea Primary for 6 years as a Teachers' Assistant. She attended North West University and completed her B Ed Degree in Foundation Phase teaching. She also studied a Postgraduate Degree at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, part time, whilst at Protea. At Protea, she is a "specialist" teacher, which means she teaches and plans only isiXhosa and was in the post of Grade 4 and 5 teachers. She feels that language teaching is her expertise and she "loves it because it is my home language". Her role at Protea comes with having to attend a lot of meetings and the pressure to get the learners to perform academically has been fairly stressful and something she has to adapt to, but she is happy in her new role. She follows the CAPS document fairly closely, as she is "still learning" and she feels that vocabulary and comprehension are the most important knowledge and skills that learners should take from her lessons.

She is aware of the school's policy about technology use in her lessons but feels that she needs more training to properly make use of these resources. She also feels that there is little to no availability of resources for isiXhosa and the results in her having to make her own - which is very time consuming.

Willem (Afrikaans teacher at Protea Primary)

Willem, in his early 30s, has been teaching at Protea Primary for 3 years. He graduated from Stellenbosch University with a BEd in Intermediate and Senior Phase teaching. Before Protea, he was employed at a small school on the West Coast, whose LOLT was Afrikaans, so he has some idea of specifications and requirements for Afrikaans as a Home Language but is teaching Afrikaans as a First Additional Language at Protea, given that the LOLT is English. Willem is Afrikaans speaking. As a specialist teacher, like Nosipho, he only teaches Afrikaans (FAL) and is thus the Grade 4 and 5 Afrikaans teacher. He "loves engaging with the learning and acquisition of [Afrikaans] and how words can capture moments through various texts etc." Although he would be open to teaching content subjects like Natural Sciences, he feels most comfortable teaching language. From his interviews, it is clear that Willem sticks quite closely to the CAPS document and his desire to mark books and provide learners with feedback and the tools to do well in assessment situations - means that his classroom practice is fairly traditional with strong framing and lots of teacher-led guidance

and correction. He doesn't have a particular problem with the CAPS itself, but he does feel that there is far too much grammar content to get through. He feels that writing and communication are the key skills he would like learners to learn in his classes.

He feels confident with using technology in class and feels like he has received enough training and has enough knowledge of iPads and other digital resources. He cites time, a lack of resources such as apps and so on, for Afrikaans, and the fact that he feels that learners don't always manage to cope in assessments if the work hasn't been practised in class, as the reasons why he doesn't necessarily centre his teaching around it.

Alice (English teacher at Protea Primary)

Alice, in her late 20s, has been a teacher for 5 years, all of which have been at Protea Primary. She graduated with a PGCE in Intermediate Phase from UCT and studied English Literature and History in her Undergraduate Degree. She plans English lessons only, but as a class teacher, she teaches all subjects except for the FAL lessons, receiving lesson plans from other teachers for these subject areas. She feels that language teaching is her speciality along with History and she thoroughly enjoys planning and teaching English. She does not like the CAPS curriculum at all and feels like there is too much time spent meeting the requirements and not enough time for consolidation and inspiring a love of the subject (especially reading and critical thinking skills).

She is confident with using technology, although feels like the school sometimes "forces" teachers to use it for the sake of using it, due to the technology policy. She is active on Pinterest and other teacher resource sites and feels that technology-based lessons give the learners scope to learn about things outside of their context as well as practice critical thinking skills.

Vanessa (Afrikaans teacher at Damarakloof Primary)

Vanessa, in her 40s, studied a B Ed Intersen Phase via UNISA and has been teaching for 12 years, 5 of which have been at Damarakloof. She teaches and plans Maths, Social Sciences and Art as well as the Afrikaans for both Grade 4 classes and feels that language teaching is not her expertise. She is a very "traditional" teacher and Afrikaans lessons are planned to follow the assigned textbook almost exclusively. She says she is English speaking not Afrikaans speaking, but she feels that she can speak Afrikaans both confidently and with a "good accent" due to where she grew up and how she was immersed in it.

She has a Smartboard in her classroom and is positive towards the use of technology in general, but doesn't actively use it in her class, preferring to stick to the textbook. She cites

lack of resources for FAL Afrikaans as well as in the school (there is only a computer room that needs to be booked in advance for use) as some of the reasons she doesn't use digital technologies very often.

Margaret (English teacher at Damarakloof Primary)

Margaret, who is in her late 50s, studied a HDipEd at Johannesburg College of Education and has been teaching for 30 plus years. She has been teaching at Damarakloof for 6 years. She plans History, Natural Science and Drama for both Grade 4 Classes, as well as English. She loves teaching English and feels that it is her speciality. She is creative and innovative in her approach to teaching and loves to get her learners physically active and engaged through role plays and drama. She herself is quite an outgoing personality, who has invented an alter ego called Fraulein Brown, who appears in her lessons frequently to teach language concepts or set the scene, whilst she does like the fact that CAPS is standardised so that learners in any school can, in theory, be on the same page wherever they are, she finds that there are far too many assessments and the prescriptive nature of the CAPS specifications is "stifling". In addition, she feels that due to the amount of assessments required she thinks that "teachers are failing the learners" by needing to teach to the test and not spend time on exploring concepts and content in a less formal capacity.

Despite the fact that she has limited technological resources available, she does make use of Google Classroom and cites technology as being a way to help learners think "outside the box". She wishes that she had access to a device per child in the classroom and feels that if that was the case then she would use it more. She also feels she should use it more, but she tends to stick to what she has planned and done in past years often.

Kuleka (isiXhosa teacher at Damarakloof Primary)

Kuleka, in her late 50s, has been a teacher for 22 years. She graduated with a Diploma in Higher Education from the University of the Transkei. She has been teaching at Damarakloof for 19 years and is also active in aiding the training of other teachers for the Department of Education (specifically for SAL). She teaches isiXhosa (SAL) to all classes from Grade 1 -7 and sees them for 1 hour each per week.

She feels that she specialises in teaching language and was driven to teach isiXhosa specifically in order to promote it. She feels that she wants people to know that "isiXhosa will exist to the end" because she loves it. She is happy with the CAPS curriculum, although she notes that it was only officially implemented in recent years, so there is a lack of resources available. She also does not like the jump to formal assessment in the Grade 4 SAL

specifications, as she feels that this takes the focus away from the act of teaching the language.

She does not use any technology in her classes due to the lack of time and resources available and has had no training on it.

3.4 Data collection

My data was collected via two one-to-one, semi-structured interviews with each of the six teachers and a focus group in each school (see Appendix 3 for interview questions). My data collection and choice of interviews was grounded in the idea that interviews as a qualitative tool, provide a "*way of seeing* that is situated and systemic, and a *way of looking* that is grounded in in-depth first-hand accounts" (Terre Blanche et al; 2006, 321).

The first interview was a more general discussion about their practices and opinions of language teaching and the CAPS curriculum. The second consisted of a closer discussion of their use of technology in their lessons as well as their approach to lesson planning in general. During this interview, I elicited examples of lesson plans and worked through these in the discussions. The interviews were conducted either during the teachers' administration period or after school hours on the school premises on all occasions.

I then conducted two focus group discussions with all three language teachers together, one in each of the two schools. My initial aim was to study how the teachers navigated using digitally- mediated tasks in lessons, whilst also needing to adhere to the CAPS requirements for their languages. However, upon interviewing the teachers and gathering lessons plans, it soon became evident that the teachers' conceptions and ideologies of language were what drove their practices and approaches to technology, more so even than their varying access to resources and other factors such as time and the CAPS specifications

The data collected from this comparative case study allows for a good overview of both conceptions of language and literacy that drive the choices of the teachers who teach the various language classes; and also provides a lens through which to assess how these conceptions align with the current views on effective digital literacy pedagogy.

3.5 Data analysis

The research is framed as an Interpretivist and descriptive study aimed at providing an understanding of context and noting that I, myself, as the researcher, was the primary instrument of research. I have used interpretive assumptions that "the purpose of interpretive analysis is to provide 'thick description', which means a thorough description of the

characteristics, processes, transactions, and contexts that constitute the phenomenon being studied, couched in language not alien to the phenomenon, as well as an account of the researcher's role in constructing this phenomenon" (Terre Blanche et al; 2006, 321).

I have chosen to centre my analysis around "the commitment to understanding human phenomena 'in context', as they are lived" as well as "using context-driven terms and categories" (Terre Blanche et al; 2006, 276). As such, I have grounded my analysis of the data in both a thematic and descriptive analysis of the data, looking for recurring ideas and opinions shared by the teachers and grouping them accordingly.

Comparing two schools with different situations, demographics and resources allowed me to provide a balanced and detailed look at the way that technology is being approached by two different schools, in different ways. It also highlights and contrasts some of the variables and contexts that affect the way in which teachers are approaching the call for the use of digital technologies in the classroom.

Allowing the participants to narrate their own experiences has provided an opportunity for a critical reflection of teaching practices at the moment. Magolda states that "the power of narrative and dialogue as contributors to reflective awareness in teachers and students is that they provide opportunities for deeper relations with others and serve as springboards for ethical action" (1999, 10). By gathering teachers' thoughts, opinions and personal accounts of their language teaching, as guided by the CAPS curriculum, as well as their descriptions of digitally mediated lessons that they have planned and conducted I have been able to gain an insight into the realities of the six Grade 4 Language classrooms and also to reflect on their classroom practices in this regard. This allows for a comparison between general thought and policies regarding the various pedagogies surrounding literacies and how digitally mediated tasks are being approached.

I made use of the three steps of description, analysis and interpretation as suggested by Wolcott (1994). Description addresses the question – what is going on here – staying close to the data as originally recorded. *Analysis* examines the question of how things work or why they don't, moving beyond the purely descriptive to systematically identify key factors and relationships, themes and patterns from the data. *Interpretation* focuses on the major question of meaning, 'What is to be made of it all' (Wolcott, in Simon, 2009, 22).

3.6 Ethics

My study has been designed to be closely aligned with the four Philosophical Principles of Ethical research (Beauchamp and Childress, 2001). These four principles suggest that ethical research is based on autonomy and respect for the dignity of participants, nonmaleficence, beneficence and, lastly, justice. My study aimed to work as a collaborative partnership with my participants and be sensitive to the values, practices and traditions of both the teachers themselves and the schools at which they work. My research is driven by a need to provide knowledge that will, hopefully, benefit language teachers in South Africa with regards to approaching digitally mediated teaching in a productive and empowering manner in their classrooms.

In the case of my research, the beneficiaries of this knowledge were the teachers at the two sites, as well as other teachers and learners who are in similar positions and researchers working in this area. The participants have been selected in order to demonstrate the use of technology in the classroom in two different settings and contexts and across the three languages, to highlight the particular challenges that arise in each comparatively. This is important in the pursuit of a fair and applicable context for the study and in order to give a balanced account of the realities of teachers' concerns and everyday classroom practices.

No preconceived judgements were made about either site or participant group. As the researcher, my aim was to conduct analysis and interpret the results in a systematic, rigorous and appropriate way. The data collection and research methodology have been designed to provide the participants with the ability to voice their stories and have their particular contexts and opinions heard and my analysis endeavoured to be rigorous in nature, feasible and justified within this context. Due to the nature of the study, there is a low-risk factor for harm or "costs" to the participants as a result of taking part of the study, but contingencies such as assurance of anonymity and full disclosure of information are in place to minimise any potential risks for them.

Both of the two schools and all parties (six teachers from the two schools), were asked to sign consent forms before their interviews (see Appendix Number 2). Included with that consent form document was a letter detailing all important information about the nature and purpose of the study, to ensure they knew their participation was entirely voluntary. They had the option to decline to be interviewed and/or withdraw from the study at any time during the process. All the identifying information was treated as confidential. I took into account the professional codes and policies regarding confidentiality and information sharing for both

schools and endeavoured to abide by them.

The privacy of both schools and individuals has been protected, and all parties have been given pseudonyms and any other identifying features removed to ensure anonymity.

Interviews were arranged at times and places convenient for the interviewees (at the schools themselves after school teaching hours) in order to prevent inconveniencing any of the participants and cause undue stress. With regards to the focus groups, participants were briefed on confidentiality at the start of each session. The consent forms pointed out that confidentiality is a key aspect, and that information and opinions shared within the sessions should be treated as such.

Chapter Four: Teachers' conceptions of language and linguistic ideologies

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter I draw on the conception of language as an abstract system of signs and signifiers (Saussure,1917) as well as the concepts of langue and parole as background to identifying and understanding the teachers' conceptions. I also discuss Chomsky's theory that the principles underpinning the structure of language are both biologically present and genetically inherited and that a Universal Grammar underlies all language structures irrespective of cultural differences or context, as well as making use of his notion of linguistic competence (Chomsky, 1967).

I discuss the predominance of the concept of language as a system that is both static and neutral in both the CAPS documents and in the teachers' conceptions and practices, as well as to show how language, in both schools, is conceptualised as an autonomous, boundaried system representing an abstract system of internal relationships and contrasts. In keeping with the theme of language as a system, I will draw on Blommaert's "Artefactual Ideology of language" (2008) and discuss language ideologies in evidence in the two schools drawing on Carolyn McKinney's (2016) studies of language ideologies and practices in schools.

I first present a general discussion on the main conceptions of language, drawing on CAPS and the teacher interviews, as well as some of their lesson plans. I then move to discuss the slight variations in these across the home language and FAL and SAL teachers.

4.2 Language as a system

Saussure saw language as a system made up of signs and signifiers with linguistic entities making up the parts of this system and being defined by their relationship to each other. (Saussure,1917). He divided language into two parts: *Langue* - the abstract and invisible layer for formal analysing and *Parole* - actual speech used in everyday life. Chomsky later added to this conception of language as a formal system with his theory that all language has an underpinning structure that is present in human biology and genetically inherited. This "Universal Grammar" (1965), indicated that all languages have the same underlying structure, irrespective of cultural differences and spoken utterances, and therefore all humans have access to this linguistic knowledge (of their home language) from birth. Like, Saussure, Chomsky made clear distinctions between the ideal system of knowledge

possessed by the speaker, termed linguistic competence, and the way the system of language was used in communication, termed linguistic performance.

Both drew attention to the fact that language in and of itself was a formal, ideal, system that existed in the abstract and that could be studied formally and independently of use or performance. In addition to this notion was the perception that spoken language, the language used for communication in everyday life, is not only separate - but is also not relevant for the actual study of language itself.

Focus on language as a system

Upon analysing the data collected from the interviews with the teachers, as well as looking at the CAPS document itself- it is evident that the conceptions discussed above are prevalent in both. The attributes of *linguistic competence* and the focus on the *langue* feature highly in both sets of data with language proficiency being largely reduced to, and measured by, a learner's ability to acquire a knowledge of the parts of the system of each language they are being taught as well as their ability to replicate this system competently, correctly and accurately.

This focus on building a knowledge of the parts of language is prioritised heavily in the CAPS specifications as well. There are repeated references to the importance of getting learners "to think about grammar and spelling" and to "produce well organised, grammatically correct writing texts" (DBE English HL CAPS Document, 2012, 11). The implication is that once the learner has achieved this, they will be deemed proficient.

As Table 1 shows, the Language curriculum is centred around four skills: Listening and Speaking (L&S), Reading and Viewing (R&V), Writing and Presenting (W&P); Language Structures and Conventions (LS&C). The CAPS document outlines the weighting and time to be spent on each skill in a 2-week cycle with the most time to be spent on Reading and Viewing (half of teaching time) and the other being divided up between the other teaching hours. (See Appendix 9) Throughout the document, specific word counts and formats for language texts and skills are given, with writing and reading tasks being used as a jumping off point from which to approach the teaching of grammar and focus on the conventions of specific texts such as "Writing a dialogue" (See Appendix 8) These conventions and language concepts are clearly mapped out as a platform for teachers to use to measure learners' acquisition of language.

Level	Listening Comprehension:	Reading Comprehension	Oral text:	Vocabulary to be achieved:
HL	150 - 200 / up to 5 mins	150 -200 words	2 mins	Oral: 3500-4000
FAL	100–150/up to 5 mins	100-150 words	1 min	Oral: 2000–3500 words
SAL	Longer: 100-150 / up to 5 mins	100-150 words	3 mins	Oral: 50 - 60 words

Figure 2: Overview of Gr4 text length specifications across SAL FAL and HL.

Interestingly enough, although LS&C has the least amount of time allotted for explicit instruction (only one hour across the two-week theme cycle), what emerged from the teachers' interviews, is that a lot of lesson time is devoted to teaching learners to define and identify parts of speech and/or recognise and produce grammatical rules. The extract below is taken from the focus group with the Damarakloof teachers. The discussion starts off with a question which was intended to discuss learners' ability to cope with a switch from the skills focused Foundation Phase curriculum, to the more content focused Intermediate Phase. The discussion started off prompted by a question about the learners' ability to think critically and adapt to the focus on using higher order thinking skills in Grade 4. It quickly shifted to a focus on learners' knowledge of grammar however:

> *Kuleka: Yeah, they do, but it depends... they're not using the language out of the classroom. It's only like 30 minutes they're using the language.*
>
> *Margaret: Yeah. But generally, I mean it's like when I'm doing nouns and verbs with the grade…but I have to reteach it. And then they go, "Oh yeah." The minute you explain what it is like, "Ah, yeah," they remember. But you have to first go over it and it's quite time-consuming.*
>
> *Vanessa: That's exactly with the Verlede Tyd. I said Verlede Tyd. What does Verlede Tyd exactly mean? And then when I said "het" and "ge" half of them starting twigging, but as soon as we started doing it, they [claps hands once]. They've got it.*

Margaret, despite emphasising creativity and thinking out of the box as central to her English lesson outcomes, only considers the initial focus group question for a brief second, “yeah”, before launching into an example of how the learners struggle to remember specific parts of speech. She states that “first having to go over” them is “time consuming” and implies that, for her, the fact that her Grade 4’s are struggling with identifying concepts needs more of her lesson time than the cultivation of critical thinking skills.

Vanessa, who self identifies as is the most “traditional” of the three teachers (she prefers to stick to the textbook style lessons), adds to this by agreeing that the learners struggle with the conventions of the Afrikaans Past tense. She implies that once it is modelled to them, they “start doing it” and the learners are able to internalise both the term for the past tense and the rules surrounding it. Again, she is implying that lesson time is spent in the pursuit of the learners’ ability to remember these concepts rather than developing other skills.

Kuleka, as the SAL isiXhosa teacher, is justifiably concerned with the amount of exposure time the learners have to her language more than anything else (They only spend one hour in isiXhosa class per week). She is concerned that her learners are “not using the language” enough, more than anything else which emphasises her orientation towards the communicative aspects of language.

This exchange shows that the way in which the teachers are viewing the learners’ knowledge of the languages extends only to their grasp of and ability to identify the systems and parts that have been laid down by textbooks on the matter. Combined with an emphasis on ensuring learners are taught to ‘get things correct’ with regards to ‘writing in full sentences’ or ‘using the writing process properly’ when composing texts, this indicates that the teachers’ focus is essentially on learners ability to decode texts rather than approach them as products of different social practices.

English Home Language

Very little time is actually dedicated to Language Structures and Conventions in the English HL curriculum, with emphasis being placed on contextual learning of these conventions, over formal instruction:

> *It is expected that Language Structures and Conventions should be taught in context as other language skills are taught and developed...In the Intermediate Phase, thirty*

> *minutes [per week] is set aside for formal instruction and practice in language structure and conventions (DBE HL CAPS Document, 2012, 12).*

Despite this, both English teachers referenced grammar consistently throughout their interviews.

At Protea, Alice's own passion for reading and literature comes into the fore when she describes what she feels is important for teaching English in general. She states that she wishes that there was more time to develop a love of reading in her classes and that she feels like there too much time focused on Language Structures and Conventions and "labelling" parts of speech. When describing her ideal approach to language teaching, she states:

> *I think it would be a lot of incidental learning…a lot of reading and a lot of … pulling out language concepts without labelling them, because as soon as you label them, I think learners just switch off completely. And only bring in those labels in high school, because the child at Grade 4 level does not need to know the difference between, different verbs and nouns and that kind of thing. They need to know that in this sentence the doing word is this and we can see that this person is doing the doing word. They don't need to be labelling the subject, the object, and all that kind of thing.*

Despite teaching from a position where she values more collaborative and contextual learning - she still conforms to the idea of language as an abstract system on many levels. Her suggestions that language teaching be "incidental", where learners learn grammar "pulling out language concepts without labelling them" parallels the communicative and text-based approach specified in the CAPS. She also demonstrates an awareness that the approach that is currently used, of formally teaching parts of speech in insolation, leads to learners "switching off" in class and losing interest.

This could be due to the fact that the learners at Protea are approaching their HL studies, as many in South Africa do, from what would be termed an Additional Language perspective and so struggle more with these formal aspects of language. Another possibility is that language in these types of lessons has been so objectified and isolated from its communicative use that the learners simply fail to see it as more than a problem to grapple with, like a difficult Maths equation. Thus, they switch off, as many people can attest to doing when a task gets too challenging to complete.

By not grounding the learning of language in context and social use, Alice is separating both her students, and herself, from the language she is teaching. As Street and Street put it "Once the language is on the board it becomes a separate problem for the teacher and child

to work on...the aim [is] to get children to follow her own work processes and mimic them" (Street and Street, 1994, 77). She is in essence, projecting her own conception of language onto her learners in a standardising and neutral way. Her conception is in opposition to an ideological or social contextual approach to language which sees it as "a social practice, not simply a technical and neutral skill; that it is always embedded in socially constructed epistemological principles" (Street and Street, 2006, 2).

At Damarakloof, Margaret's approach differs slightly, as she places emphasis on teaching the specific terminology and focusing on the parts of language in her lessons. Despite that, she also names creativity and "thinking out of the box" as her main goals for her lessons. She places an emphasis on communicating and speaking and extending the learners' vocabulary, yet she is still focused on the learners acquiring a standardised set of skills that can be applied across the board:

> *You know, I do like the idea that its standardised, so that when you get a new kid from outside…then they should have those skills because they've done them by that point in time. And that's a really great idea. I just find, I'm an old teacher, in the olden days we used to have a frequency table of things we had to cover in the first term, the second term, third term and I mean you kept a record of it, each one went on the kid's profile or whatever that they had, but you could teach the skill in any way that you liked....I like that freedom of using themes and ideas that I have.*

Her reference here to "frequency tables" - is a hallmark of a similar kind of prescriptive grammar skills that learners are required to acquire. Her issue it seems, is not so much with the content of the CAPS curriculum, but rather the prescription of how and when to be teaching these concepts. Her reference to the "standardised" nature of the CAPS curriculum that allows a "new kid from outside" to fit into a new classroom quickly and easily is at the same time highlighting her conception of language and literacy as a singular formalised version applicable universally.

This is potentially due to the nature of Damarakloof's demographics, with the majority of her learners coming from middle class, English speaking homes. As a result, their linguistic resources, which are similar to those of the classroom, are validated with the labelling of the school "space". The system that "finds its main form of expression through a particular form of language" (Street and Street, 2006, 80). Margaret's experience as a teacher has been in schools with similar demographics to Damarakloof (where most of the students speak

English as a home language and go to a school where English is the language of learning and teaching). As such she has not necessarily had the need to consider that learners' other linguistic repertoires are valued differently according to the school space's "own language regime - its own set of rules, orders of discourse and language ideologies in which linguistic resources are assessed" (Busch, 2015, 343).

First Additional Language

In the First Additional Language Classes, there is a similar set of conceptions behind the teachers' practices. Despite the notable demographic differences, the three teachers all seem to have similar conceptions of languages. This conception is built on the idea that learners need to gain fluency and vocabulary and acquire the skills to communicate both through writing and orally in their FAL lessons.

Willem is a young teacher who speaks Afrikaans as a Home Language and his passion and love of the language is clear. His desire to communicate this to the learners is also evident. His approach to his language lessons from a pedagogical lens leans on the traditional, with his emphasis being placed on heavy framing and teacher guidance, correcting grammar and promoting gaining vocabulary. He sticks to the CAPS document quite rigidly in his lesson planning and often references the specifications when talking about his teaching.

In Willem's lesson plan in Figure 2 below, the outcomes of the lesson all display a focus on language and vocabulary: "Play a simple language game; describe a person; use new words learnt in class; use adjectives; reading aloud. LS&C: Correct spelling and punctuation; writing in full sentences". The introduction section contains a "quick" discussion about heroes before the learners are required to copy down the definitions of words into their books. The main activities of the lesson consist of reading a comprehension piece and answering questions. The focus once again, then turns to the parts of language and grammar where learners are asked to pull out parts of speech from the texts. The aim here is clearly to test the learners' ability to understand the language and answer questions that all relate to guiding learners to identify the parts of the language.

L&S: Play a simple language game; describe a person; use new words learnt in class; use adjectives; reading aloud. **LS&C: Correct spelling and punctuation; writing in full sentences; use of prepositions; adjectives.** **R: Interpret the message; retell the story in the correct order; express feeling about the text; reading the story.** **Writing & Presenting: Answer comprehension questions on different cognitive levels.** **Smartboard Presentation: Lesson flow; pictures; lesson structure.**
1. Play quick language game and test learners' knowledge on the intensive forms in Afrikaans and identify the words. 2. Have a quick discussion with the class about **heroes**: - How many can the learners identify. - Why do we label certain people as heroes? - What is the characteristic of a hero? 3. Display a list of words with their definitions on the board. - Discuss their meaning.
3. Read the story: **Florence Nightingale - 'n heldin** p. 96 from the LB. - Discuss why her actions was so heroic. - Describe the character - make sure the learners understand her courage. 4. Answer **comprehension** questions: - Different levels of cognitive levels. - Guide learners in the direction of answering questions that basically ask two questions and wants them to use their own knowledge with the information from the text. 5. Answer language questions: - Give the plurals - Intensive forms. - Identify adjectives. - Synonyms and antonyms - Tenses.
6. Give feedback and discuss answers. **Group Work** - Learners assist one another with higher order questions and spelling of words. - Read in groups.

Figure 3: A Protea Afrikaans FAL lesson plan.

Vanessa has been teaching at Damarakloof for 25 years, and despite planning and teaching Afrikaans at Damarakloof, she regards Maths as her specialty. She places emphasis on speaking the language and promoting *"confidence to try. Because…there's a huge psychological barrier about languages, especially in this country."* Despite this, when she describes the key outcomes of her lessons, it is clear to see how her conception of language is defined by correctness:

> *I think vocab and pronunciation - that's definitely key. But then the thing is also things like sentence structure and grammar will fall into that because if they are hearing it in the right way— spoken in the right way and in different dialects that's another important thing, you will then start getting the pattern, the grammar patterns and that.*

Vanessa is English speaking and most likely will have been taught Afrikaans in a similar way at school, a fact that is arguably behind her conception of language. Her focus on correctness, proper pronunciation and confidence may well be a result of her approach to the language being that of someone who has been taught it in a similar manner. Although she feels confident in her ability to speak and teach Afrikaans - it is clear that the artefactual ideology (Blommaert, 2008) plays itself out in her strict adherence to textbooks and focus on teaching the learners the correct standardised language.

Second Additional Language

Of all the teachers interviewed for this study, Kuleka's conception of language is the most grounded in emphasising the spoken or *parole*. Despite stating that "the most important thing is the basics" in her interview, a statement that echoes the other teachers' in many ways, she was vocal in her interview about the fact that she is concerned that "the aim of teaching the language is just to communicate... written is just for their own time and then thinking and whatsoever is just for their own time, but the most important thing is to communicate". She is less worried about the correctness and systems of language, stating that learners need to "just grab one word and then... just get the flesh and blood as long as the bone is there". She is therefore more interested in communicative aspects of language.

This, in itself, is not altogether surprising, given that there is very little to go on with regards to the SAL CAPS specifications, which are much simpler compared to the HL and FAL documents, She mentions that isiXhosa SAL was only implemented recently in schools and as such she has been working without any official document for many years. Nevertheless, the CAPS document does place emphasis on the fact the "A good knowledge of vocabulary and grammar provides the foundation for skills development. In the Second Additional Language" it notes that "Intermediate Phase learners will be introduced to language structure and conventions in the target language" (DBE SAL CAPS document, 2012, 14).

4.3 Language Ideologies

The opening paragraph of the CAPS Language document states that:

> Language is a tool for thought and communication. It is also a cultural and aesthetic means commonly shared among a people to make better sense of the world they live in. Learning to use language effectively enables learners to acquire knowledge, to express their identity, feelings and ideas, to interact with others, and to manage their world. (DBE, CAPS document, 2012, 8).

This seems to promote diversity, giving learners an avenue to explore their identities and acknowledging language as a vessel for cultural diversity as well as a medium through which to challenge existing constructions and allowing them to be 'broadened' and 'refined'. This in turn would suggest a conception of language more grounded in the communicative and social realities, and indeed, seems to be very much aligned with current sociolinguistic theories about language as intrinsically contextual and social in nature. The mention of language being "a tool for thought and communication" suggests that the communicative and spoken side of language will not only be accepted but promoted - and learners' linguistic performance used and acknowledged as representing their linguistic repertoires.

However, the CAPS curriculum has a tendency to lean on particular orientations towards language and exposing these orientations can leave room for development (Hornberger 2008). Speakers of Afrikaans and isiXhosa (amongst the other official languages) have been treated as deficient in school and departmental language policies with regards to not speaking the dominant language of education (McKinney, 2016). As such, the repertoires that learners bring into the classroom from their diverse social and contextual backgrounds tend to be treated as barriers to learning instead of as a resource for understanding the complex socio-linguistic repertoires of many learners in South Africa. To return to the opening paragraph of the CAPS document again, the following is stated:

> It also provides learners with a rich, powerful and deeply rooted set of images and ideas that can be used to make their world other than it is; better and clearer than it is. It is through language that cultural diversity and social relations are expressed and constructed, and it is through language that such constructions can be altered, broadened and refined. (DBE, HL English CAPS document, 2012, 8)

Despite this nod to "diversity" and making learners critically aware of the systems of power and ideologies that might be underpinning their knowledge of the world, analysis of the language policy and curriculum found that both of these documents treat the languages taught in the curriculum as autonomous and boundaried (McKinney, 2016; Pluddemann, 2015). In addition, schools in South Africa promote an ideology of language that is inherently Anglocentric (McKinney, 2016). The choice of many governing bodies in South Africa to have English as LOLT, despite the LiEP offering all 11 official languages, reflects the linguistic capital English holds. Nosipho echoes this distinction, when she says:

> *I would change the fact that we need to have the same standard as English. English as their home language with the school [meaning the LOLT]. So, I'll change only that. To make it even simpler for them. Because they get stressed when they have to write these paragraphs.*

In addition, this statement shows an underlying Anglonormativity which reveals English as the benchmark of proficiency, which other languages must strive to reach. This is an interesting viewpoint, considering her learners are almost all actually either isiXhosa or Afrikaans speaking and are not, in fact, approaching their education outside of her classroom from an additional language vantage.

This act of defining the languages based on proficiency emphasises the curriculum's ideological grounding in the artefactual ideology of language. Here the document is clearly defining the boundaries between the languages by labelling them by level as well as operating on a systemic view of language as a neutral, standardised and objective entity, atomised into very small units and acquired in step by step ways. Language problems (with regards to the use of the home language) see learners, whose repertoires do not fit with these proficiency descriptors, defined based on what is perceived to be missing linguistic abilities. Instead of having their differing resources valued as indicators of the reality of how most learners are approaching their language education, they are disregarded as casualties of societal problems and poor grades (Hornberger, 2016).

As McKinney (2016) suggests, terms such as "home " and "additional" language serve to promote the idea that a normal language user has only one language at their disposal and that any other linguistic resources they may acquire in their lives can only ever be "in addition" to this. In this view, when approaching learning another language, a learner cannot be expected to achieve the level of linguistic competence of their home language and therefore the approach to an additional language teaching sees a focus on communication over higher order thinking skills. This ideology is evident in the stipulation of content and assessment specifications, designed in order to support teachers in a more systematic induction of formal school knowledge:

> Home Language is the language first acquired by learners. However, many South African schools do not offer the home languages of some or all of the enrolled learners but rather have one or two languages offered at Home Language level. As a result, the labels Home Language and First Additional Language refer to the proficiency levels at which the language is offered and not the native (Home) or

> acquired (as in the additional languages) language. For the purposes of this policy, any reference to Home Language should be understood to refer to the level and not the language itself. (DBE English HL CAPS Document, 2012, 7)

Learners are thus required to be exposed to and acquire a knowledge of 'language structures' and be able to work within the 'conventions' of these in their language lessons, and this highlights how the "artefactual Ideology" is entrenched in the CAPS Curriculum. The focus on defining the language levels by proficiency signals that the focus according to the CAPS is on determining the learners' linguistic competence, the ideal and abstract version of language, rather than assessing their actual linguistic resources that they bring to the classroom.

	Reading and Viewing	**Language in Context**	**Listening and Speaking**
HL	Exposure to a wide range of texts Become critical and creative thinkers.	Develop a 'meta-language' to evaluate their own and other texts critically Extend use of vocabulary apply understanding of language structures.	Strengthening spoken language Basic communication skills and "cognitive academic skills"
FAL:	Strengthening ability to read and write in other subjects. Exposure to language through reading.	Recognise how genre and register reflect the purpose, audience and context of texts.	Critical listening skills Scaffolding spoken language
SAL:	Develop reading and viewing skills of a familiar range of texts for information. Basic comprehension activities.	Extending vocabulary, correctly applying language structures.	Test understanding and speaking the language. Oral and literacy skills. Scaffolding of spoken language.

Figure 4: Overview of CAPS Specifications for Languages.

The clear divisions between Home Language and First and Second Additional Language knowledge and skills not only promote a monolingual bias where languages are to be taught as separate and siloed entities, independent of the linguistic realities of the majority of the country, but also create a distinct prioritisation of Home Language (English) over the other languages offered in schools. An overview of the key skills noted in the CAPS document for each language level (Table 2) shows the hierarchies evident in the skills and competencies that are required in FAL versus HL teaching. Whist critical thinking and active engagement with texts at an academic level is encouraged by teachers' n the HL classroom; with skills

such as “developing critical and cognitive skills” and “becoming critical thinkers” in FAL, the teachers’ emphasis is on scaffolding language acquisition and communication and practising fluency.

Whilst from Grade 4 onwards, as most schools shift to English as the LOLT, “greater” emphasis is placed on thinking and reasoning in additional language classes:

> At this stage the majority of children are learning through the medium of their First Additional Language, English, and should be getting more exposure to it. Greater emphasis is therefore placed on using the First Additional Language for the purposes of thinking and reasoning. (DBE CAPS document, 2012, 9)

It is suggested that this is in order to “gain exposure to” strengthen the learners’ academic ability in the home language classes and not specifically for the benefit of the Additional language itself. This is also evident in the teachers’ perceptions at both Protea and Damarakloof. They too make clear distinctions between expectations for Home Language and First Additional Language levels of proficiency in their approach to their language teaching. Phrases like 'the level is too high for FAL’ or ‘as it’s only FAL’ are frequently used by the teachers.

Despite being passionate about his language and its relevance to the fabric of this country, Willem echoes the CAPS distinction between the difficulty levels when it comes to designing his lessons:

> *I would say that we should almost, because it's a second language, move away from the language structures. But I'd say we can focus more on... like listening and speaking actually because I think it’s the way to communicate … It's the easiest for them, in Afrikaans, to communicate in it verbally, and listening to it. It's the easiest part of it for them, because they can pick up certain words... they are good at picking up.*

The implication here, implied by “because it’s a second language” being that he needs to set his lessons at a lower level in order to pitch them correctly, even though his learners are not first language speakers of English. For him, the focus is still aligned with achieving linguistic competence in their “second language” being able to comprehend and communicate. His emphasis on making things easier for them or making lessons easier for them to “pick up” not only suggests that he feels their own linguistic resources do not necessarily belong in the

classroom, but also, and maybe even more problematically, that there is no need to focus on training them to use the language in a more critical manner for academic purposes.

Vanessa echoes this at Damarakloof, when she describes the Home Language curriculum as "*more sophisticated*", which is an interesting distinction on her part seeing as she feels that teaching a language is a vital element for South Africa: *"It's very important because language is empowerment, and all languages are empowerment, so not just one language - you've got to learn. So, for me, it's important that, especially in a multilingual country, that we learn as many languages of the people that we can."* Despite this awareness, her language ideologies mean that when it comes to teaching, she defaults to using repetition and promoting speaking and communication over other skills in her classes:

> *I thought ah "Liewe Hexie", because I grew up with stuff like that and I bought a whole lot of CDs to play to the children, but it's first language, you see ...it goes right over their heads...so if you've got, um, media that is at age and stage appropriate and talking in that language, they're hearing it. And singing songs and poetry, and just talking, talking, talking and practising.*

The assumption here is that her learners, who are in this case largely English first language speakers, will not be able to grasp or understand the vocabulary and jokes enough to be able to benefit from the resources she wants to use. She too is working on the assumption that as the learners don't have the proficiency level dictated by the HL specifications - they will not be able to cope with what is deemed a "higher level". This suggests that, at least, this conception is consistently held, irrespective of which language is being taught.

A significant way that the distinctions above continue to reproduce inequality, however, can be noted by the demographics of the FAL learners in each school. At Damarakloof, despite the FAL specifications only providing for communication skills and scaffolding learners towards gaining proficiency only (as English speakers), they are still able to access cognitive thinking skills in their home language in their HL classes, as well as being able to apply their linguistic resources in other subjects. For learners like those at Protea, who are required to learn in a language that is not their home one, the lack of opportunity to develop these skills and use their linguistic resources is putting them at a distinct disadvantage which could persist throughout their schooling careers.

Urban vernacular versus school language

Learners' linguistic resources are arguably central to their ability to learn and develop knowledge and skills in their school career. Despite this, the promotion of language as system and the pervasiveness of Anglonormativity puts most learners in South Africa at a disadvantage. The "artefactual ideology of language" operates on the idea that "the fantastic variation that characterises actual language in use can (and should) be reduced to an invariable, codified set of rules, features and elements in order to be the 'true' language that can qualify as an object of linguistic study" (Blommaert, 2008, 292). As such the learners who are able to emulate the academic version of the language, despite not necessarily being from a home language background, are able to do better in assessments. As the Bua-Lit Collective argues:

> *Given that bi/multilingualism is the norm in our country (and in most of the world), teachers/ educators need to know how to teach bilingually depending on the contexts where they teach, and they need to know how to support bilingual learners in monolingual spaces. Even though the bi/multilingual context is currently ignored by CAPS, concepts such as additive bilingualism are used in the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) of 1997, and thus need to be explained. (Bua-Lit Collective, 2019, 5)*

At Protea Primary, there are clear distinctions made by all teachers between the colloquial registers spoken by the learners from Hangberg and Imizamo Yethu. The teachers note that the learners who are first language isiXhosa or Afrikaans speakers often don't fare well in assessments and tasks in the corresponding language classes, due to the fact that the version of it they speak at home is so different from the more formal and standardised register that is presented within lessons. The teachers tend to label the learners' linguistic repertoires here as evidence of apathy or a negative attitude towards their language classes:

> *There seems to be laziness of... or just a negative attitude about it from the Afrikaans speaking kids. You expect them to do well and I don't know if that's what is hindering them, is the fact that we expect so much, but it's literally, my top performers are not the kids that speak Afrikaans at home or are exposed to it. (Willem)*

Willem is not taking into account the contextualised, social use of both isiXhosa and Afrikaans by the learners, and the rich linguistic repertoires that they bring to class. Instead of being noted as being a valuable insight into how these languages are actually used in the community, Willem's conception of Afrikaans, as the boundaried and generalized entity

promoted in the curriculum, is arguably doing these learners a disservice. It marginalises the practices they bring to the classroom in favour of a more "one size fits all" approach, which, as the teachers themselves note, means that learners are hindered in assessments.

> *You will not believe me but the kids in Hangberg, that is more exposed to Afrikaans, although it's a Kaaps variety of slang, they are weaker performers in Afrikaans. That's the most interesting thing about it, they are weaker… So, whenever you ask a certain level of question, they don't understand it because they have a different way of phrasing it or a different connection to that. (Willem)*

This is an example of how the conception of language informs the policies of language instruction (and in turn the teachers' perceptions and approach to teaching) are "disabling children's linguistic resources" (McKinney, 2016). By focusing on the idea that each language must be kept siloed and "pure", teachers tend to focus on correcting the "errors" and code-switching instead of embracing their linguistic resources and the "what" of what they are saying, not only the "how".

In the isiXhosa classes at Protea, Nosipho, an isiXhosa speaker and member of a similar community herself, also mentions that learners are code-switching in her oral assessments which in turn means she must mark them down:

> *You would see this, this, this Afrikaans speaking child, she really wants to get marks for this because she knows that she can't do well in the test. So, the rubrics must be fine, so now they can pronounce the words.* [But in the oral] *… they're giving you a sentence in English or maybe one word in Xhosa, so it's difficult.*

By noting the use of various linguistic resources as a reason why the learner is struggling and getting lower marks, Nosipho is highlighting her conception of languages as separate and siloed. For her, in order to be able to assess the learner's oral, the learner must be speaking in isiXhosa exclusively. Not only that, but her reference to the use of the CAPS rubric, suggests that she is using a variety of checks and balances to assess whether the learner has been able to create an oral presentation that effectively emulates the standardised and monoglossic version of isiXhosa in the classroom.

These conceptions from both the teachers and the curriculum itself put the learners like those at Protea Primary at a distinct disadvantage. They are not only approaching their

Home Language from an additional language perspective, but they are also forced to leave their own linguistic resources at the classroom door - and adopt new ways of using their home languages as well.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter has served to highlight how knowledge of language is conceptualised as being both neutral, abstract and atomised by both the teachers and the CAPS specifications. This separation of language from the social context enables it to be treated as a static and ideal entity; that striving to achieve proficiency in is both necessary and possible. This separation promotes the practising of prioritisation of official versions of (that in themselves come with their own sets of hegemonic values) language over the situated and fluid versions that learners bring to the classroom, legitimising some learners' linguistic resources, whilst simultaneously seeking to 'scaffold' other learners to fit the mould.

In the following chapter I draw from Street and Street's (1994) notion of the "pedagogization of literacy" to examine how the conceptions and ideologies of language discussed above serve to promote a particular version of literacy amongst the teachers. I explore the prevalence of the notion that to be literate means to have a thorough grasp of a particular set of parts and rules that allow learners to comprehend a text in isolation and discuss how both the CAPS curriculum and the teachers in this study conceive language in this way.

Chapter Five: Hitting a ceiling: The pedagogization of literacy

5.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to show how the teachers are structuring their lessons, whether consciously or not, to reflect their own autonomous conceptions of literacy. This structuring in turn leads to language being objectified and atomised, which in turn leads to texts in lessons becoming self-referential. It will also draw on the notion of "the pedagogization of literacy" (Street and Street, 1994) whereby dominant conceptions of literacy, more specifically the literacy that has become associated with schooling, are constructed and reproduced in such a way that other forms of literacy are delegitimised.

This conception is in contrast to the ideological model (Street,1984) which sees literacy practises as integrally situated in social practice. The notion of multiliteracies (New London Group, 1996) which sees literacy as a results of various practices, modes and linguistic resources, and not merely a single uniform entity to be applied neutrally, provides a further theoretical framework in combination with Freebody and Luke's Four Resources Model (1990), through which to analyse the teachers' accounts and practices.

5.2 Emphasis on reading and writing

Ogbu (1990) defined literacy as "synonymous with academic performance and the ability to read and write and compute in the form taught and expected in formal education" (In Street and Street, 1994, 73). Street and Street in turn highlight how dominant autonomous conceptions of language in Western culture not only legitimise Ogbu's statement above but also result in particular "pedagogization" (1994, 72) processes that serve to promote and prioritise this conception, whilst at the same time delegitimising other literacy practices that do not fit into this mould.

One of the key elements in this process of pedagogization in schools is to emphasise reading, especially, and writing, above other forms of literacy. Taking a look at the CAPS skills and the amount of time set aside for each - it is clear to see that this is the case in the current curriculum. Out of the four skills - Reading and Viewing is allotted 41% of teaching time, with Writing and Presenting being allotted 33%. Listening and Speaking is only afforded 16% (See Figure 4.1). The documents further emphasise the importance of reading as a foundation for acquiring the skills to be successful in developing appropriate school literacy practices:

> Reading is very important for children who will be using English as the LoLT in Grade 4. They will need to be able to read and write in their other subjects and use English textbooks in the Intermediate Phase. This will require high levels of literacy, and especially a wide vocabulary, in English. Reading gives learners more exposure to their additional language. We know from research that children's vocabulary development is heavily dependent on the amount of reading they do. (DBE CAPS FAL, 2010, 10)

Here the idea that reading (and to a much lesser extent, writing) are integral to literacy and the academic achievement of learners is evident in the reference to "needing to be able to read and write" in English the suggestion being that unless a learner is able to gain the necessary vocabulary and exposure to the language of the classroom - they will not be able to achieve academic success. Again the "high levels of literacy" required by the CAPS document specifically relates back to the development of vocabulary, and proficiency in the standardised language of the classroom. The more 'exposure' they get to this type of language the better they are able to adapt their own linguistic resources to these proficiency standards and thereby gain academic success.

At the two schools, this conception is echoed by the teachers. A heavy emphasis is placed on reading as being what they feel is the most important skill to teach in their classes with "reading for meaning" and "comprehension skills" cited as what they feel need to be focused on most across all three subjects. Margaret, who was vocal about the CAPS curriculum's "stifling" effects and the unnecessary amount of assessments, still suggests reading is the key outcome for her classes: *"To be able to read and write. I mean we do focus on the parts of speech and all of that stuff and I do… We plug that a lot. But being able to read and write - that is to me imperative" (Margaret).*

Her views echo an autonomous conception of language and her statement that reading, and writing are "imperative" indicates, that for her, literacy is a product of these two things. She fails to take into account the potential of heteroglossic exchanges inherent in literacy practices that could involve a range of multimodal exchanges, oral or pictorial, that could be available to her learners.

FAL teachers also cite reading as an important skill, and like the HL teachers, place emphasis on an autonomous focus of decoding texts with regards to understanding words and sounds, and vocabulary:

> *Reading, being able to distinguish the sounds because, in English. I'll always compare with English. For English, when you want to say table using that Te and ah. You know it's a table, but when you're talking about Te in Xhosa it's Te and an H so it's different. (Nosipho)*

Nosipho here is demonstrating a similar autonomous conception that being able to decode a text, using sound-symbol correspodences, is the pinnacle for achieving literacy. Her notion of reading is clearly grounded on her learners being text decoders and she makes no reference of them needing to be able to use and recognise the features of the texts or critically evaluate them. Decoding is a vital focus, but only the first block in the process. "We should recognise that the characteristics and conventions of the technology of texts are vital aspects of reading...however, this should not necessarily be seen as a justification for isolated packets of 'skill and drill' ...for rudimentary knowledge of alphabet, grapheme/phoneme relationships and so on, are necessary but not sufficient conditions for using literacy for particular social functions and uses in context" (Freebody and Luke, 1990, 9).

In addition to this, the dominant Anglocentric ideal that is attached to literacy, and inherent in the processes of pedagogization, is evident in Nosipho's noting "*I'll always compare to English*". Her conception of isiXhosa in schools is defined by the systems and ideals of competence that result from the abstract study of language and the artefactual ideologies of early linguists defining African language systems in print. These hegemonic ideals of language, leave no room for the oral practices of the language to be legitimized and so despite being a "*proud isiXhosa speaker"* herself, her perception of isiXhosa in the classroom removes it from these contextual roots and serves to promote a Westernised ideal of literacy being a product of reading and writing exclusively.

Kuleka, however, has a different approach to the other teachers, one that is far more grounded in the idea of language as a social practice: *"I know that they can't say the thing without reading the word first. But the most important thing is to just teach them how to communicate."* She places emphasis on her learners being able to speak the language and seems to dismiss the idea that they need to be able to read it too. Despite her focus being grounded the communicative approach to teaching language, she still focuses lessons on learners being text decoders and texts participants in her lessons, revealing very clearly how a ceiling is hit for extending learners' roles:

> *The next lesson I have to do the same thing. They have to learn how to say the word because they can't get the story without knowing how to say the word. Then the next lesson they have to know how, what it means, you know what I'm saying? So, written [*language] *is just for their own time and then thinking and whatsoever is just for their own time.*

Here, again the learners are expected to decode and comprehend the text and "*know what it means*". Despite the fact that Kuleka emphasises needing to "work from the known" when it comes to choosing texts - there is no attempt to discuss texts as products of social practices or ask learners to relate them back to their own lives and critically evaluate them. In fact, this type of interaction with a text is deemed "*for their own time"* as she favours providing them with the functional abilities to speak over understanding different domains or positioning of texts.

Focus on correctness in writing lessons

Not only is it clear here that literacy is connected with the ability to read and write in the teachers' conceptions, but it is also tied in with the notion that learners need to be taught to do so "correctly" and adapt to using the specific English/isiXhosa/Afrikaans of the classroom in order to succeed, reducing their work to a set of standards and tick boxes to be met. These scribing practices (Hendricks, 2008) place little or no emphasis on the social practices of literacy in the world outside of these confines and once again focus on texts as atomised and standardised objects. This codification of knowledge to fit a specific, neutral and universal idea of literacy is presented in the following extract, which is present in all three of the CAPS language documents:

> Writing is important because it forces learners to think about grammar and spelling. This encourages learners to process the language, speeds up language acquisition and increases accuracy. Learners will learn to write a range of familiar creative and informational texts, initially using writing frames as support and gradually learning to write particular text types independently. They will also employ the writing process to produce well organised, grammatically correct writing texts. (DBE CAPS, 2010, 13)

The "critical" engagement with texts in this context is to be able to successfully identify the parts that the text is made up of (text decoder). The "meaning" of the text is also centred

around the learner deconstructing the text itself and "interacting with a variety of texts" comes with the implied meaning that this means to do so within the confines of school language, and to model their decoding skills, not to see them as part of a larger fabric of societal conventions. Defaulting to "an ideology in which particular textual practices can reduce language to an artefact that can be manipulated like most other objects" (Blommaert, 2008, 292) and focusing on the building blocks of language over other skills in their lessons implies that the teachers' underlying conceptions of language are defaulting to teaching learners to be texts decoders and text participants, but not extending them to be text users or analysts.

Lesson plans, such as Alice's in Figure 3 below, demonstrate how emphasis is placed on learners creating a text within specific parameters, and not engaging critically with what the text they are producing is for or how these conventions are set according to its use. Alice notes that in the past learners have "*struggled with writing a book review*". In essence this can be understood to mean that they did not successfully conform to the process and conventions as this lesson goes on to demonstrate clearly. As Alice puts it "*learners think they know how to do a book review*" but they leave out specific steps obviously leading to a lack of success in meeting the assessment criteria. She is therefore disregarding the reality of other literacies, that there is a range of ways to present information, and expecting her learners to conform to the generic, schooled version of how a book review should be written.

Learner proficiency is assessed based on how well they can model these systems and develop school language (there is even a note for them to stick in that "summarises what they should know" for study purposes). Despite there being a specific section for learners to fill in "how they think and feel" in their book review - there is little focus on their ability to see the text's positioning and use in their own lives and actually discuss the book.

In the FAL classes there is a focus on getting learners to write "correctly" as a display of their proficiency. All FAL teachers express the importance of teaching their learners to speak the language correctly and fluently:

> *Ja, for me, it's the time-consuming part that is worrying because I would rather spend time physically marking their books, then I can see where they struggle and setting it up and do all of that. I try to combine it all together, and I think that's why I use less technology because I let them physically write their answers. So, then we can also focus on, and say, sorry this sentence is not a full proper answer, you need to*

consider all of it and then use your conjunctions and whatever (Willem).

Willem's conception of literacy echoes that of the CAPS document, with its focus on his ability to ensure his learners are writing in "full sentences" or giving "proper answers". By his use of writing frames and correct grammar, he is in essence moulding the learners' compositions to fit the specifications of what writing should look like - and disregarding any other forms or compositions that don't fit the mould. Hendricks (2008) found that historically this focus on understanding of the grammatical structures and rules of language, rather than fluency inherent in additional language, is a mark of the outdated and autonomous pedagogical approaches that underly the approaches to writing in classrooms.

5.3 Objectifying Language

As McKinney's studies have shown, the dominant language ideologies evident in the curriculum promote an Anglocentric and westernised view of language. This focus on learners' abilities to "take more notice of words and grammatical structures" and "check their use of language" are elements in the objectification of language. This pedagogization process reduces language to an object of study where learners are required to internalise and use the specific systems and rules that have been dictated by the codified official written and static versions of the language documented in order to achieve literacy. This leaves no room for variations afforded by the oral or spoken language in everyday use to be acknowledged or legitimized as forms of literacy.

Just as Saussure and Chomsky separate the *parole* - the spoken and used language deemed irrelevant to the study of the *langue* - the abstract system can be measured by a speaker's innate and ideal linguistic competence, this is also precisely the hallmark of Street's "autonomous model" (1984). This model presents language as context-neutral and removed from its social use - or the *parole* - and "disguises the cultural and ideological assumptions that underpin it so that it can then be presented as though they are neutral and universal and that literacy as such will have these benign effects" (Street, 2006, 1).

Listening & Speaking (listens to and speaks about a novel) **Reading & Viewing (reads a novel)**
Learners to use the 'register period' as a reading half hour where they are allowed to choose their own book for reading
This lesson will be based on creating a BOOK REVIEW. The learners struggle with creating a proper book review (based off terms 1-3 of assessments). Learners think that they know how to do a book review, but teachers should try to get them to realise that there are extra steps which they often neglect in their reviews. Teachers should go through the slide show with the learners which summarises and explains what to do in each section of the review. S***lide 2:*** Go through the 8 steps of writing a book review with the learners. ***Slide 3:*** Explain what an author and illustrator are. Learners should already know what these terms mean. ***Slide 4:*** Learners need to decide if the book if FICTION or NON-FICTION. They should know who the characters of the book are (again, they have done this before). ***Slide 5:*** Explaining the setting of a story should be easy for learners. When explaining the summary of the story, the learners should realise that we are NOT just rewriting the story. We have put into a few sentences explaining the story line. They should not give away the ending! ***Slide 6:*** Giving your opinion of the story means that you are saying what you THINK and FEEL about the story. Learners should be honest here. They shouldn't feel like they HAVE to like the story. But they must *always* give their opinions. ***Slide 7:*** Giving a recommendation. Learners should make sure they know that a book must be recommended to somoni based on their AGE/SEX/LIKES/DISLIKES. Learners can also give a star rating of the book to help them if they need it. ***Slide 8:*** Adding extra details will help with their book review. Add colour, drawings, be neat as well
1. Hand out the "Writing a book review" page to the learners. This summarises what the learners should know 1) Learners should receive their writing books. 2) Hand out the two-page book review worksheet. Learners should paste these side by side in their book. This way the whole report can be together. 3) Learners should complete the book review about Fantastic Mr Fox on their own.
Teachers should allow learners to show their book reviews to the class at the end of the lesson.

Figure 5: A book review lesson

Not only is language proficiency compartmentalized into specific word counts and length of utterance and written texts (Table 3 below) but there is also a strong focus on the 'knowledge and application" of language structures and conventions and the "scaffolding" of learners in order to help them write "correctly" and fluently. Learners are expected to be able to produce longer pieces as a measure of their proficiency.

> ...learners will take more notice of words and grammatical structures... explore the way their additional language works and take some conscious control of it and use this developing knowledge to check their use of language, especially when writing. (DBE FAL CAPS document, 2010, 12)

By stating that learners "will take notice of" grammatical structures to "check their use of language", not only is this document actively prioritising this conception of language over overs (and thereby rendering any other versions obsolete); but in turn the specifications are

promoting the ability to decode and comprehend texts, rather than analysing their functions and semiotic makeup. Once a learner has grasped these basic rules from a text presented to them in isolation, and can use them effectively- they will have achieved the status of literate despite the fact that the text may have bear relevance to their own practices and therefore need not be applied to their own context.

Level	Time Allocated in 2- week cycle:	Text length	Transactional Texts (produced)	Creative/ Essay (produced)
HL	Writing and Presenting: 4 hours Reading and Viewing: 5 hours	50 - 60 words 5 -6 sentences 2 -3 paragraphs	Longer: 60 -80 Words Shorter: 40 -60 words	120 -140 Words 3 -5 paragraphs
FAL	Writing and Presenting: 2 hours Reading and Viewing: 2 hours	30 - 40 words 4 -5 sentences	Longer: 40–60 words Shorter: 30–40 words	At least 50 words 1 to 2 paragraphs
SAL	Writing and Presenting: 35 mins Reading and Viewing: 55 mins	10 -20 words 3-4 sentences	20 -30 words (shorter texts)	20 words 1 paragraph

Figure 6: Overview of Grade 4 CAPS writing Specifications.

All of these specifications operate on the assumption that language is a neutral and autonomous system with a static collection of ordered forms and words that need to be acquired. Not only do they actively prioritize and promote a specific version of language (namely an officially recorded and standardised one deemed acceptable by the curriculum), but the specifications also serve to objectify language (Street and Street, 1994) by focusing on the specific systems and attributes of the text in isolation. Learners are thus not being provided with the skills to see how texts are created for, and with, a purpose in the world outside of the classroom.

During this process of making language a neutral object of study - specific versions of language are both prioritised and replicated. These specific versions are the ones that have been legitimised by documentation and existence in a text form (Blommaert, 2008). These materials most often promote the Westernised and autonomous views of literacy that are prevalent in most school settings. “Much of what goes into schooled literacy turns out to be

the product of Western assumptions about schooling, power and knowledge rather than being necessarily intrinsic to literacy itself" (Street and Street,1994, 74). As such, the learners' own experiences and literary practices are left outside the classroom - creating a disconnect between the used language and the learned language of school - in essence constructing and disseminating a pedagogized version of literacy.

As previously shown Chapter 3, a part of this problem is the teachers' conception of what "correct" language is - and the idea that the vernacular spoken by the learners at home has no place at school. These conceptions of language extend to those of literacy too. One of the processes of "pedagogizing literacy" involves separating language off from its social context. This process involves separating the teacher and the learners from the language and making language into an external entity with rules and requirements that both can approach together in the act of learning it.

Alice states in her interview that, given the chance, she would like to extend and contextualise this learning process and integrate it with texts more than she feels the CAPS allows her too:

> *Language in Context, so comprehension and language in one go. Um, it's very easy for children to regurgitate what a noun is, it's another thing for them to be able to pull it out of a text because they're not reading enough, and they're not reading for understanding enough at home and they don't have that support at home.*

However, yet again her focus draws attention to the text itself and not to its existence as a part of the social fabric of society. Texts are rarely taught with reference to 'outside the classroom' and focus is placed on decoding and comprehending the makeup of the texts in an almost clinical way.

Whilst the teachers make reference to the use of what they call the "*cognitive levels and Bloom's Taxonomy*" in their lessons, this defaults to the learners' thoughts and feelings about the texts and their ability to relate them to themselves. The ability to use and recognise different texts within semiotic domains or to critically analyse and understand their positioning or legitimising of other practices, modes and uses, other than classroom-related ones is not emphasised. "It would be more useful to think of a framework that diffuses the binary between classroom and everyday literacy practices, at least in the Foundation Phase,

so that children come to understand literacy as part of meaning making in purposeful activities, not just pedagogized activities (Bua-Lit Collective, 2019, 6).

The need for this shift in approach is clear, specifically when Protea Primary school is concerned. As a good example of the demographics and linguistic resources of a typical school in South Africa, it is clear to see how the labelling the spaces and forms of language that are seen to be acceptable in the classroom, has a fallout. This fallout is evident in the teachers' frustration with the fact that learners do not make the connection between what they learn in language classes and how they exist and converse in the outside world*: "So, they're not really doing it as - I really want to learn this language so that I can speak it in, you know, my life. It's more like okay, I have to do this until X?" (Willem).*

What the learners are exposed to in the classroom through the exercises and texts is so enclosed in that scenario, that environment, that the learners are failing to see that they live in a multilingual society - that language is all around them, in the things they watch, the games they play and the texts they send to each other:

> *I don't think that they all see it like that, they see it as I come to school, I do Maths, I go to isiXhosa, I go to Afrikaans and then I go home. They don't see it as okay; I'm going to take this and I'm going to take it outside into the world…They don't see it that way. (Matthew, Grade 4 teacher at Protea Primary)*

The teachers note this as a negative perception of the languages (especially with regards to the FAL) and a "laziness" or lack of parental support for learning these languages. But this can be interpreted as evidence that the self-referential nature and generalized nature of the languages of the classroom - combined with clearly defined spaces and procedures for literacy - has left little room for learners to make the connection between these lessons and their life outside the classroom. However, this is also an unfair dismissal of the learners' own practices that may not conform to the schooled ones:

> In South Africa, we face the dual challenge of working with such traditions so that children can 'recognise themselves' in the practices, as well as enabling access to the dominant practices in schools while also making efforts to transform these. Ignoring the home-based practices outside of schools, such as the affective, play, performative, imaginative and so on, means that working class children continue to receive only impoverished literacy experiences focused on the narrow view of

> learning to read, with meaning making hollowed out from these experiences. *(Bua-Lit Collective, 2019, 5).*

These practises and pedagogical approaches are not surprising considering how the CAPS documents and assessments are oriented towards measuring these “fundamental skills” in quantifiable and standardised tests based on a generalised standard for language proficiency. Teachers have noted spending much of their time in getting learners “ready and prepared” for these types of assessment - spending the majority of their time teaching learners to be text decoders and text users. This type of testing - which focuses primarily on the acquisition of skills and rules of language learning and is firmly grounded in testing comprehension and decoding skills - is what teachers are teaching towards.

> This is a worrying potential barrier to learning that disregards a whole range of literacy practises and spaces “In contexts in which literacy attainment is judged in relation to international comparators (e.g., PIRLS, PISA), it seems that there is a real danger of reducing meaning making to a set of relatively simple skills that are easy to assess. Meanwhile, some of the authentic, complex, and more controversial practices that are part and parcel of young people’s lives, regardless of their level of participation, may be overlooked” (Burnett et al, 2015, 271).

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter has highlighted how autonomous ideologies of literacy are serving to negate the realities of multiliteracies that multilingual learners, like those at Protea, bring to the school. Teaching practices are serving to privilege one form of literacy instead of developing a sense of critical and active engagement with texts and positioning them within their social context and the realities of the multitude of practices and resources their learners bring to the table.

Instead of focusing on a neutral and generalised application of decoding and comprehension skills, learners should be given opportunities to discuss and evaluate texts and be encouraged to employ a range of practices and interpretations to critically evaluate how texts are represented or can represent certain perspectives. “There is no natural or inevitable developmental progression to the four roles, such that some aspects can be left to instruction in later years... learning these roles cannot be left to incidental, indirect or implicit processes. All roles need to be taught and resources developed and drawn upon from the beginning and throughout schooling” (Bua-lit Collective, 2018).

Chapter Six: Teachers' incorporation of digital technologies as a reflection of their conceptions of language and literacy

6. 1 Introduction

This chapter aims to compare how the teachers at both schools are structuring their digitally mediated lessons. It aims to analyse how their autonomous conceptions of language and literacy play a role in their practices with regards to using technology in the classroom. I will use Durrant and Green's (2000) 3D Literacy Model to do this and highlight how these perceptions result in technology lessons being focused on a mainly operational, and sometimes cultural dimension, but never quite reaching the final critical dimension (Durrant and Green, 2000). As shown in Chapter Two these correspond to Freebody and Luke's first two roles of the reader, without really addressing the third and fourth roles.

Digital and multiple literacy theories see learners as being active constructors of content in their lessons. These theories are founded on the awareness of the fact that the world at large has changed. The private spaces, public spaces and the workplace are less regimented and have become globalised and constantly overlapping (New London Group, 1996). Schooling, therefore, needs to change to reflect this in order to keep up and provide learners with the knowledge and skills to succeed in the world outside of school: "To be relevant, learning processes need to recruit, rather than attempt to ignore or erase, the different subjectivities - interests, intentions, commitments and purposes - students bring to learning. The curriculum now needs to mesh with different subjectivities, and with their attendant languages, discourses and registers, and use these as a resource for learning" (New London Group, 1996, 72).

Despite Burnett et al's statement that "[a]ny attempt to re-examine literacy education for the 21st century needs to meet the specific challenges of curricular integration and the moving target of new technologies head-on (Burnett et al, 2015, 271) I will discuss how the teachers in this study are merely adapting technology resources into pre-existing pedagogical print-based practises instead of than providing the interactive, multimodal and critical experience learners should be receiving in their classrooms in order to best prepare them to function in the world outside of schools.

6.2 Autonomous conceptions in teaching with digital technologies

When it comes to teaching with digital technologies in the language classrooms, the teachers' conceptions of what effective 'digital literacy' is, echoes the autonomous and pedagogized conception that they hold for traditional print-based language teaching. Indeed the resounding answer to the question of what digital literacy is, from all the teachers, included things like "*It's being able to access the information on the computer, I would imagine, or on the internet or whatever and being able to use it*" (Margaret); or "*To be Tech-savvy" (Willem) "to be able to use, I suppose, the basics of any computer program*" "*understand, have a greater understanding of the workings of it, so that if you are presented with a new piece of digital information or something that you would be able to work it out*" (Vanessa).

In their work on literacy and digital technologies, Lankshear and Knobel (in Larson and Marsh, 2015) coined a term used to describe teachers' "outsider mindset". In essence, this term describes those who continue to treat the world the same way as before digital technology and fail to change their practices in meaningful ways. Despite their best intentions, it is clear that the teachers at these two schools are working from this outsider mindset. They are designing lessons that make use of technology but are essentially moulded to fit into the teachers' existing conceptions and ideologies about language and literacy i.e. the digitally mediated tasks themselves are still very much aligned with the outsider mindset that echoes the teachers' conception of language itself. Parameters are set strictly as well; writing tasks take on scribing characteristics - with frameworks for setting out and presentation of typed work echoing that of the writing frames in traditional writing lessons.

Using the 3D literacy model as a starting point, it's possible to see that their conceptions are firmly rooted in the operational dimension - the ability to use and work with technology. Much like Freebody and Luke's Four Resources model, this dimension focuses on learners' ability to "decode" and comprehend (Text Decoder and Text User) the technological resources they will be exposed to, in essence, figuring out how to use them appropriately. As shown in the previous chapters, the teachers' ideologies are, for the most part, grounded in the ideology of literacy as autonomous and this leads them to privilege the traditional.

> *Well, I think that it's a good thing, because obviously with the world that they're growing up and going into...They're going to grow up into a world where they need to be keeping up with like, current technology and digital media is one of those things*

they need to know. However, I don't think that that needs to take away from the kind of traditional learning. Because I do think that those of fundamental skills that they need to have as well." (Alice)

What is evident in Alice's statement above is that, despite being a young teacher and having a wide range of digital literacy practices in her life outside of the classroom, she still sees technology as an add on to what she believes are the "fundamental skills" of learning such as reading and writing. She acknowledges that learners are going to need technological skills in their futures but fails to make the connection between this reality and the notion of literacy as specific practices that vary in different situations and have an ideological or political dimension (Street, 1984). What she is suggesting here is providing them with a space to practise the "operational" skills of "knowing" how to use technology, but it is clear that to her, it is not necessary to make any pedagogical shifts – but merely incorporate them into her existing practice.

Protea Primary School

Despite Technology being an integral requirement of language teaching in the Protea Language Policy, learners are not being exposed to the kinds of processes that would elevate their practices to the critical dimension in the 3D Literacy Model. The texts and activities that they are being exposed to stop short of allowing them to build an awareness that all texts are crafted objects, with particular points of view and with particular points of socio-historical reference and power relations. They are focused instead on operational and skills-based tasks, much like the ones used in traditional print-based lessons.

As with other writing lessons, teachers focus on guiding learners to the correct format, or focus on correcting grammar and spelling. In Alice's lesson mentioned below, a follow on from the book review in Chapter 5 (See Appendix 6) she has asked the learners to create character sketches for some of the book's characters:

Learners created a Google Slideshow which compared the three farmers of Fantastic Mr. Fox. They had to find pictures of each farmer. Say how they were different in terms of physical appearance and personalities. Learners enjoyed being given the freedom to create their own slideshow and find their own information. Learners do need some structure as to how to set out work. This was provided on the Smartboard as an example.

Whilst she acknowledges the fact that the learners enjoyed the freedom of creating their own slide shows (and probably searching for and adding pictures) she still defaults to the notion that they need to be shown "how to set out work". Her use of the Smartboard to display an "example" closely resembles a traditional board - where the task is written up and displayed for the class to copy.

Again, whilst the lesson activity is technically focused on creative writing, the lesson still largely defaults to the operational dimension with the focus being to ensure that the learners are able to operate their iPads well enough in order to search for and add pictures to complete the task. In addition to this, learners are expected to passively replicate the format desired by the teacher with the expectation being that the learners should be following a layout in order to show they have successfully achieved the outcome. They are essentially partaking in a digitally mediated form of scribing - passively reproducing a text within the boundaries set out for them.

Highlighting technology's role in aiding people and texts to "do things" and achieve purposes (in this case, promoting a particular perspective on good or bad characteristics) would elevate the lesson to a more critical dimension. Again, providing opportunities to enable the learners' critical engagement with the context and interpretations of the characters, and assess the power relations and cultural positioning that might reinforce these interpretations, would serve to orientate this lesson to a critical dimension and provide a more holistic approach to the lesson. However, there is next to no critical framing, with the learners expected to find pictures that match the description of the farmers to demonstrate how well they have understood the book - in essence scaffolding them to comprehend and decode, but not to evaluate and position. Learners are not given the opportunity to apply their own interpretations of the characters or "cultivate a conscious awareness of the language and systems that make the text operate and the reader into its operator" (Freebody and Luke, 1990, 15). Neither are they encouraged to create their own images as a mark of their personal interaction with the text.

Willem is also positive about technology's possibilities: "*specifically in our language it's nice to see that I can relate pictures, keywords and everything. It's quick and is available to them easily; and then the technology also assists us in more advanced techniques where they can work on their own and compile maybe a document*". The fact that he references working alone or compiling a Word document as "advanced techniques' clearly demonstrates how his own conception of technology use is firmly grounded by a focus on operational skills

such as typing or searching the internet. He clearly does not view technology as a way to "generate opportunities for students to engage with others in a variety of ways with and through texts" (Burnett et al, 2015, 273), instead prioritising traditional writing tasks:

> *I would rather move away from that and just use it as a way of getting them, to help them to get information. Rather just make a very fun introduction and a worksheet and a few questions on something, on a concept, that I can present to them via the screen or something. Like, for example we would translate things that they don't understand or find pictures that they can describe, but I find they can work faster and do better writing when they actually write it out themselves. (Willem)*

What he suggests by "do better writing" is that they can successfully complete scribing-like activities and stick to the frameworks he provides them more readily. When given access to iPads and allowing learners to type answers, there is less control over the layout, font used and other such presentation elements - something which Willem finds difficult.

It is evident that Willem's perception of technology is that it is another tool to use in his classroom, not that it comes with its own set of pedagogic principles and affordances. This mirrors his own conception of literacy, that encompasses focusing on the parts of language and isolating texts from their context as well as conforming to the specific parameters of correct writing. As highlighted in his comments, his perception is clearly that technology is a resource or tool to help with more operational matters or fact finding. There is little reference to the need to help learners to situate texts or engage with them in a way that would be making use of the critical or cultural dimensions suggested by Durrant and Green.

Additional barriers to his successful teaching are noted with regards to the lack of digital resources available for Afrikaans, both in the forms of training and actual resources: *"I'm sure if I get more training maybe and I can see where there's a way of simplifying it or modernising it, maybe make it easier but I tend to just focus on the fact that it is an additional language"*. What is interesting here though is how his hegemonic conception of first additional language skills is evident again whilst talking about technology. Mentioning that he would need to "*simplify*" the resources that are actually available (mostly home language level apps as he puts it) indicates that what is available, he feels, is above the level he should be pitching his lessons at. Again, the fact that he brushes technology use off by focusing on the "*fact that it is an additional language*" further suggest that, for him, as the

learners may not have the expected proficiency in Afrikaans - he needs to focus more on the basics - and technology is not needed in this space.

In isiXhosa, Nosipho, feels that she does not have enough knowledge of how to integrate iPads and technology into her lessons. In addition to this, there is a distinct lack of resources for her to make use of. As such she says she rarely uses the iPads for more than allowing learners to read stories when they are done with other work. The activities that are planned are based heavily on the operational level and are generally used as a way to engage learners in shared reading and vocabulary knowledge:

> *All the learners will open on the iPads on nalibali.com. These are Xhosa stories. And then I also open mine in the same website and then read it together. So, I explain in English because I know some of them, they don't understand this Xhosa. And then we'd also have vocabulary other words…of the words and then I would ask them to make their own sentences using the words. So, when they do the sentences, they, um, go to Google Translate for using the dictionary. Otherwise, there's basically nothing else we use on that. It is just an extra thing because they were finished with their work. (Nosipho)*

This lesson again demonstrates the pedagogical approach to teaching where technology has not changed with the new resources but rather Nosipho has moulded it around pre-existing ones. Group and shared reading have long been a technique used by teachers in classrooms in South Africa - and is indeed the suggested method in the CAPS curriculum - this technique has been replicated in the lesson above. In addition, she mentions using the iPads for learners to use Google translate. In this context, they are merely being used to replace an actual dictionary, and do not really perform any other function in the lesson she describes.

Whilst, this task does require learners to take on the roles of text participant (by being required to read and comprehend information and contract a factual response) and the lesson makes use of various modes for learning, which is indeed a positive - it is firmly based on traditional teaching methodology where learners here are required to read, comprehend and compile information to a specific set of outcomes that bear a heavy resemblance to a print-based group reading lesson. What we see evidenced in the Protea teachers' descriptions of lessons is that teachers' conceptions of language and literacy teaching are self-referential, atomised and skills based. They are an example of an

authoritative conception of pedagogy, where the teacher is the master of a standard set of criteria for language; and learners are the apprentices who need to meet these through the tasks set for them.

Damarakloof Primary

At Damarakloof, despite the school being open and positive towards technology, not many lessons are planned with technology in mind. Kuleka does not have any digital technology in her classroom at all, whilst Margaret and Vanessa both have an Interactive Smartboard in theirs, but no other digital resources in their classrooms. As there is only one computer classroom, time must be booked in advance for a technology-based lesson. As a result, neither Afrikaans nor isiXhosa makes use of the computer room - lack of resources and knowledge (Vanessa) and time constraints (Kuleka) being cited as the main reasons.

Technology is not specifically planned into their lessons at all, and both class teachers (Vanessa and Margaret) make use of basic lesson plans that they have used (and amended) for a few years. Whilst Margaret notes that they probably should attempt to get more technology planned in so that they use it more, Vanessa admitted that she does not have the training or knowledge to successfully use it in her Afrikaans lessons. Despite not feeling the need to use it in her classroom, or amend her practices to include it specifically, Vanessa was effusive about the theoretical lessons she could include: one being getting the learners to have a Skype conversation with learners from an Afrikaans speaking school in order to boost their confidence in speaking. She also uses the Smartboard to play videos and songs during Afrikaans lessons - but that is where her use of it ends.

The fact that technology is, as of yet, not specifically planned into lessons at Damarakloof is not only as a result of having less access to digital resources at the school (although that is a significant factor to consider as well). What it also suggests is that technology is still not seen as more than just an extra resource for the teachers and has yet to be fully incorporated as a legitimate addition to the teachers' pedagogic practices. Teachers' practices and educational pedagogy is still largely drawing on, now outdated, conceptions of literacy. As Luke and Elkins (1998: 5) argue: "Many of our assumptions about how people actually acquire and use literacy are themselves products of the early 20th century. The period has since marked out the ascendancy and evolution of many genres that have since become central to our teaching..."functional literacy", "consumer literacy", "workplace literacy", and indeed, "silent reading" and "comprehension" are all artefacts of early mid-century reading research". The

teachers in this study are largely operating on this basis, and therefore have yet to fully embrace technology as a significant player in the educational landscape.

Margaret, who is described as both creative and innovative by her colleagues, does make use of the computer room occasionally and has noted her use of Google Apps for Education (specifically Google Classroom) in some of her lessons (See Appendix 5). When she does plan technology lessons, however, she will send learners to the computer teacher to oversee in the official computer lesson - and does not conduct the lesson herself- other than to set the task on Google classroom. During the course of the interview, Margaret mentioned a lesson that she did incidentally whilst talking about a follow up lesson relating to a grammar lesson analysed in Chapter 3:

Extract 1

And this was just a follow on that then incorporated into the computers where she [Fraulein Braun] goes missing. And then they have to write a creative paragraph describing ways that she might reappear. That in turn then gave me ideas about how to torment them some more because they came up with some wild and outrageous ideas.

And some of them drew in Paint - they drew pictures of what they thought and all that. So that was incorporating computers into my wacky theme.

Cos, she runs for the whole year. But I think this year she might disappear because the kids are just... when the kids are so naughty, you know you can't do fun stuff like that, you actually have to rein them in. So, you take that fun stuff out for a while.

Here are some examples of what they did. [Pointing them out on Google Classroom] You know some of them really got quite carried away and then they printed out their pictures. This one I actually used his idea, because she had a potion and created havoc and all these types of things.

And I actually took their ideas and then I used them in my lessons, and it was a great way to get feedback from them and it was a great way to talk to kids through technology.

This lesson displays some interesting foundational aspects of digital literacy theory. By tasking learners with switching modes and utilising the characteristics of Fraulein Brown, they gleaned from a lesson on nouns. And in order to create a creative writing piece, she is not only "encourag[ing] improvisation and experimentation as well as the need to produce intelligible texts" but also "acknowledg[ing] the role of multimodality in meaning making" (Burnett et al, 2015, 272).

The lesson is also not largely dictated by any formal parameters. Margaret displays flexibility with regards to how the learners present these creations - citing how some learners chose to complete the task in Paint and produce a picture instead of a written piece, showing that, for this task, she is open to other discourses and ways of interpreting the task. She is creating opportunities for her learners to engage with herself (and others) in a variety of ways with and through the tasks and texts they create. Additionally, she is also validating the resources they bring to the classroom by taking the learners' resources and creations and actively using them to inform her own lessons and context. These attributes place her lesson firmly in the cultural dimension of the 3D literacy model, by promoting active engagement in text production and allowing learners to be privy to the collaborative nature of creating texts for a purpose.

Intriguingly, however, she notes that this type of thing will be taken away if the learners continue to be naughty. This suggests that despite her seemingly intuitive ability to create a good digitally mediated lesson - her autonomous ideology of literacy places this type of lesson in the realm of a "treat" and not one that has key pedagogical and educational value. It is also, of course, possible that with this kind of task the learners might get so engaged that they are less "naughty".

Technology as an add on

Prinsloo and Sasman quote Gillen et al. (2007, 244) in their Interactive Whiteboard study, as saying that these types of lessons "tend to be "technology-led" (that is introduced because they were available) rather than "education-led" (that is, introduced because they were "known to meet the professional needs of teachers and the educational needs of children better than existing educational tools" (Prinsloo and Sasman, 2015, 539). This is evident in this study, at Protea, lesson plans are detailed and moderated constantly to ensure that teachers are including enough technology into their lessons.

However, as the lesson in Figure 4 (below) indicates, this has resulted in a digital task being tacked on to traditional lessons as a way of integrating these required resources - rather than being central to the teachers' process when planning a lesson.

Despite the inclusion of iPads in the lesson, and an attempt at engaging learners with multimodal content through the Chatterpix App[1], the task seems like something of an

[1] This app allows one to upload a picture or sticker and then make it talk by recording a message with it.

afterthought, or a way to keep quick learners busy rather than being integral to the pedagogical reasoning behind the lesson. Learners are merely required to transfer their already written dialogues to the app, rather than being given the opportunity to actively produce something that requires them to critically engage with the content and resources in a meaningful way.

Listening &Speaking: Describe a person. **Language Structures & Conventions: Make use of the correct punctuation and spelling; Direct speech.** **Reading:** **Writing &Presenting: Writing a dialogue; choose relevant content for the topic; use the frame provided; dialogue must be in logical order; use correct spelling and punctuation.** **Smartboard:**
1. Ask learners about heroes. - Show them faces that they will find familiar and real-life ask them who they would like to meet and have a discussion with. 2. Explain and discuss the use of the negative form: - Answer question with the double "nie" in Afrikaans. - implement the negative form in who they do not want to meet etc.
3. Explain the structure and format of a dialogue: - importance of punctuation. - the meaningful discussion. 4. Learners use their iPad's and search for important information on what a hero of their choice did or if it is because they would also like to do that work. - write an interview in the direct speech with this hero. - in the dialogue and conversation, the work of the hero must be the emphasis and maybe what they think motivated them - what questions would they like to ask them. 5. Use the **Chatterpixapp** and let learners first type and then read/record their final version of their dialogue. - use pictures and then they have the discussion with one another on this app - the pictures will then talk.
6. Ask learners to tell us more about their hero and why they've used certain pronouns etc when that person was talking. **Group Work** **- Assist with the writing of the dialogue - proofread.** **- Help with the recording and use of iPad apps.**

Figure 7:An example of a technology-based Afrikaans lesson.

In turn, language lessons that make use of digitally mediated tasks, see their structure and tasks moulded to fit the teachers' existing practises and perceptions. This reality is also evident in the teachers' practices at the two schools in this study. The teachers mostly "emphasise the role of technologies in terms of general pedagogic issues such as engagement, information retrieval, interactivity and multi-modal teaching" (Kervin et al, 2013,

143-144). They do not see it as a key academic tool or resource for more formal academic activities.

Despite technology being embraced and acknowledged as vital by the teachers - very little has changed with regards to how they plan and present lessons in this format and it is viewed more as an optional extra.

At Damarakloof, Margaret echoes this conception by citing that her main use of technology is for getting the learners engaged and as a treat – but not as a formal lesson task or tool. Studies show the use of technology in classrooms has been shown to improve motivation in students, as Prinsloo and Sasman (2015, 538) summarised: "Abuhmaid (2014) summarised a body of research that points to both teachers and learners perceiving IWBs as having a significant role in motivating students, focusing their attention, and improving whole-class subject-based learning". This echoes what the teachers have mentioned in interviews, however, digitally mediated tasks are mostly viewed as an extra tool in the teachers' 'arsenal' rather than an integral pedagogical tool. Rather than making use of the learners own resources and knowledge of how to use technology, most of the teachers cited using technology to 'play videos' or 'show learners pictures to help give them context' in order to make lessons more relatable or engaging as both Nosipho and Margaret's comments suggest:

> *When you study maybe a lesson by putting a video, then they have an understanding of what you're trying to say. And if maybe put up pictures and if they have to search for something, then they'll better understand" (Nosipho).*

> *I think technology just gives you another in because kids are... they want to work on the computer, they want to play games, they want to research and stuff like that so I do use it wherever I can (Margaret).*

Despite acknowledging here her awareness of students' interests with regards to digital practices, Margaret is using it as "another in" to get her learners on board with her more traditional plans for lessons, whilst Nosipho uses it as a tool to aid comprehension and engage learners as well. Both are utilizing it more as a tool to get the attention and interest of their learners than as a pedagogical tool.

Alice also notes this potential of digital resources: "*They are much more engaged with their learning. It allows them to bring a text that, which may not be relevant to them, to life" Yet* despite this, she fails to draw effectively on the learners' own resources in this lesson. Given that Alice also notes that she chooses her texts based on "*keeping it content subject related, to make it relevant for them...and in terms of choosing the actual text, I see at what level my kids are reading at and in that can match it*," to plan her lessons. A contextual orientation, that takes note of the existence of these out of school practices, is being ignored by the focus on guiding them towards school texts even though they "*may not be relevant to them*".

6.3 Conclusion

Just as Prinsloo and Sasman "conclude[d] that...teachers are making effective use of IWBs as a teaching resource that enhances the teaching strategies that they brought to their use of the resource" (2015, 549) in their Interactive Smartboard study in 2015 and despite displaying both positivity and openness to the reality of using technology in the classroom, it is clear that technology lessons are still heavily influenced by teachers' existing practices and conceptions of literacy and language

The prevalence of the autonomous model that informs the teachers' general conceptions of literacy as argued in the previous chapters has limited the possibilities the technology affords language lessons and relegated it to an extra or enrichment resource rather than placing it firmly in the centre of their teaching methodology. This means that they have the potential to overlook the fact that "'the most useful component in the tool kit for all literacy educators, may not be a mastery of a particular method, but rather a vision of the future of literacy, a picture of the texts and discourses, skills and knowledges that might be needed by our students as they enter new worlds of work and citizenship ...teaching and learning" (Luke and Elkins, 1998, 4).

Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1 Overview of the study

My research focused on teachers' conceptions of language and literacy. It aimed to analyse these and see how these conceptions, when combined with existing ideologies about language in both the teachers' minds and the CAPS curriculum documents, are influencing their regular teaching practices as well as how they approach using technology in their lessons. The research questions that guided this study were:

1) What conceptions of language and literacy inform the teaching of Grade Four Home Language, First Additional Language and Second Additional language teachers?
2) Do these conceptions of language and literacy, and the teaching practices that flow from them, facilitate the incorporation of digital technologies into their language and literacy teaching? If so, how?

My findings were grouped into three areas, firstly, the ideologies that are inherent in both the CAPS documents and the teachers' conceptions of language; secondly, the ways in which these ideologies have served to construct pedagogized and self-referential versions of literacy and language teaching in schools; and, thirdly, the knock-on effects with regards to teachers' practices lessons in which digital technology is used.

As a former Grade 4 teacher I was encouraged to use digital technologies in as many of my lessons as possible. The school actively and vigorously promoted the use of various digital resources in all three language classes across all the grades. However, the school also placed emphasis on following the CAPS document specification very closely, due to it being a government school. In addition to this, I know that my colleagues in the FAL Afrikaans and isiXhosa classes found the school's technology policy difficult to implement for a number of reasons: lack of time and lack of resources for the languages being the specific barriers named in conversations. This resulted in my decision to conduct a study to analyse how teachers view and approach technology lessons in their classrooms - focusing specifically on government schools that make use of the CAPS curriculum.

7.2 Overall findings

Conceptions of language

Conceptions of language and literacy which become evident in analysing the teachers' interview data, as well as the CAPS document, reveal that they view language as neutral and formal system consisting of signs and signifiers, what Saussure (1917) identified as 'langue' that can be studied and learnt entirely independently of context or actual use. This leads on to ideas about a system of Universal or "innate" grammar (Chomsky, 1967) which further serve to promote the abstraction of language learning from the spoken reality (as in Saussure's 'parole') in favour of focusing in on an ideal, standardised version that is objectified and removed from the identities and experiences of learners and even their teachers.

The majority of the teachers in this study claim to be unhappy about the CAPS curriculum's prescriptive approach to language teaching. However, analysis of the data suggests the conception of language that is dominant in the CAPS is also dominant in the teachers' conceptions. This conception of language is consistently evident in the teachers' references to ensuring that learners spoke the languages "correctly" and could perform tasks such as identifying parts of speech, writing grammatically correct sentences and producing writing pieces that included strictly following a prescribed writing process as well as producing written texts that needed to closely resemble the format and conventions of whatever genre of text they were tasked to create.

Another common dissatisfaction mentioned by all the teachers is "too much content" and too heavy a focus on grammar and language structures in the specifications. An interesting contradiction here is that the weighting and time allowances for grammar are the lowest out of all the knowledge and skills. Yet, the teachers' lessons are still centred around the decoding of language elements in texts and building these "basics". The teachers' might disagree with the level or amount of different language concepts, stating them to be "unnecessary" or "ridiculous" in terms of the intricacy of the grammatical concepts learners are expected to know at a Grade Four level, but they still focus much of their time in classes on actively teaching these concepts in an isolated way - despite the document promoting an integrated and text based approach over overt instruction. Their perception that to know a language is to know its system, rules and vocabulary is driving their practices in class and aligns with the CAPS curriculum- whether they are aware of it or not.

In addition to this, an “artefactual Ideology” of language (Blommaert, 2008), which sees languages legitimised only by a formal written record of systems and parts that can be analysed, is promoted. This is evident not only in the emphasis on moulding language use to a specific standardised version as highlighted above (and the resulting prioritisation of this written and quantifiable approach to language over other more contextual linguistic resources such as spoken language) in the CAPS specifications; but also in the clear definitions given to the differences between Home and First Additional languages based on proficiency as a benchmark. This focus serves to promote the notion that one’s knowledge of a language is defined by how proficient one is at making use of the rules and systems defined by print, but also serves to keep each of the languages separate and boundaried. The implication is that they are not to be mixed.

Despite this, the teachers at both schools express frustration at what they see as the learners’ lack of engagement with language uses and languages outside of class and mention learners’ lack of ability to transfer skills across subjects. There is a key disjuncture between how the teachers desire their learners to engage with wider uses of language in their other subjects, their everyday lives and their communities but at the same time they default to teaching it in such a segmented and self-referential way in class that it becomes completely separate and objectified - making it impossible for the learners to make that connection.

Hegemonic Practices

English is the LOLT of most schools in South Africa, despite the linguistic realities of the population, this practice has been repeatedly attributed to its colonial history as well as its current hegemonic power in the world. Setting aside the fact that it is the LOLT of both schools, which is not particularly significant, there were clear ideological distinctions made between the Home, First and Second Additional Language teachers (as well as in the CAPS specifications). This was evident in the FAL and SAL teachers’ focus on speaking and communication as outcomes for their lessons in both schools.

However, despite this being a focus, the pedagogization processes at work within this autonomous ideology (Street and Street, 1995) see learners’ linguistic practices not taken into account as teachers disregard or ignore the vernacular repertoires that are in existence in favour of the standardised version of school language. Given the fact that the reality for most learners in South African is that they are not learning in a language that is a home

language, this is an orientation towards language learning that is in danger of disregarding key linguistic resources that learners bring to the classroom on a daily basis.

The pedagogization of literacy and language

Extending this concept further, what was further evident in both the teachers and the CAPS document's conception is the tendency to pedagogize (Street and Street, 1999) the literacy practices in class. These pedagogization processes are evident both in the privileging of atomised and often formulaic reading and writing tasks through scribing and mimicking set out genre conventions and in the promotion of one, correct, form of language as benchmarks for success in the language classes. The danger of these processes is that prioritising one set of literacy practices over another in a multicultural and multilingual country South Africa, means that a large proportion of learners' linguistic resources and practices are deemed unsuitable for the classroom, thus, putting the learners at a distinct disadvantage when it comes to their education.

All of the teachers in all three languages demonstrated a tendency to objectify language by removing it from both their own and the learners' lived experiences with it and making it an object of study, to be 'mastered'. This was evident in the teachers' emphasis on teaching parts of speech and aspects of language that aligned with their description of "knowing the basics" - meaning being able to both identify and accurately produce particular aspects of the formal language system (such as identifying nouns, or decoding the meaning of a text for example).

In writing lessons, the focus was on getting learners to mimic conventions of particular text genres by using writing frames and focusing on grammar and spelling (scribing). Lessons were very rarely centred around discussing the learners' interpretations of texts or the relevance, appropriateness or uses of texts in specific contexts. These types of tasks abstracted language learning away from any lived (or spoken) experience that might enable it to be seen as something that is spoken, used and lived. Language lessons across all three of the language subjects focused on these types of activities predominantly. When using the Four Resources model as a reference point it was evident that lessons were focused on the first two roles predominantly, with engagement with texts being focused on the roles of text decoder and text user. The teachers frequently referenced parts of speech and reading for meaning as vital knowledge and skills. Learners were not required to connect their tasks to contexts in the outside world and comprehension tasks focused on dissecting texts in isolation instead of encouraging learners to discuss different interpretations or intentions

behind texts, meaning that the roles of text participant and text analyst were not being accessed by the learners in their language lessons.

Incorporation of digital technologies in language and literacy teaching

In both schools, all teachers stressed the importance of using technology in their lessons and their openness to it. There was, however, a further disjuncture here, as they seemed to view it as an 'add-on' or for fun or enjoyment - and not as an integral part of their lessons or tasks. Taking into account that digital resources are not readily available across all subjects, this is not surprising.

When analysed through the framework of Durrant and Green's 3D Literacy model, it was evident that emphasis was being placed on operational use of iPads and other digital technology, with lessons centred on functional skills such as learners researching or typing stories and finding pictures on the internet. Most technology lessons were simply a matter of replacing pen and paper with a computer and carrying on as normal. Nosipho, who admitted to not using iPads very often, conducted an iPad lesson that involved the class reading together from the iPads and then writing sentences about the story in isiXhosa using Google translate, for instance, a lesson that could easily have been performed without technological resources.

When digitally mediated tools were used, the teachers' conceptions of language were transferred to their technology lessons fairly systematically. First Willem stated that he found using the iPads time consuming and that he preferred to focus his learners' attention on writing complete sentences in their books which he could then mark. Whilst Alice's character book review lesson and its follow-on character sketch lesson both showed Alice's focus on scaffolding learners writing to enable them to be able to replicate a particular format, her use of her Smartboard in both cases was to project a strict process to follow, which learners were expected to replicate on their iPads. These types of lessons are not only grounded in a similar ideology to that of other literacy lessons in the classrooms but are also equally as self-referential and lacking in reference to real-life practices. Neither do they require learners to actively engage and assess the positioning of texts found on the internet or evaluate difference interpretations or ways of completing a task. This is evidence of the fact that providing language lessons that situate activities in a socio-cultural or critical dimension is not occurring.

The tasks and lessons planned were neither centred around technology, with digitally mediated tasks either being moulded to reflect traditional tasks in format; nor did they fully embrace the multimodal and contextual potential afforded by technology. Willem's lesson on heroes, for instance, resembled a standard lesson on dialogue writing, the bulk of which was designed for and completed in learners' books, with the additional use of the Chatterpix App at the end of the lesson, a feature that had no real pedagogic reasoning behind it.

7.3 Implications of findings

The prevalence of a conception of language that sees it as a boundaried, and static system and an autonomous model of literacy are central to the practices of the teachers of both Home Language and the First and Second Additional Languages in the two schools. Teachers place emphasis on scaffolding tasks to enable learners to acquire a specific set of rules and systems that abstract language away from context. By glossing over language's contextual and social use, in favour of correctness, learners are prevented from using all available linguistic resources at their disposal. This is an interesting disjuncture, seeing that most of the teachers cite the ability to communicate and speak these languages in their daily lives as being the key outcome for their language lessons.

The resulting practice of isolating and objectifying the languages taught to this degree means that learners do not make the connection between what they are learning in class and the outside world. For learners, at Damarakloof Primary, most of whom are middle-class English home language speakers, this problem is less damaging as they are being taught in their home language, which is arguably not too dissimilar to the standardised version taught in class. In addition to this, the fact that they arrive in the FAL and SAL classes, with little to no previous knowledge of isiXhosa and Afrikaans allows them to "pick up" the nuances and formalities inherent in the standardised school register and use that as their base. They are not forced to adapt or change their linguistic resources much, if at all, in order to meet the assessment standards of the classroom.

In this sense, the clear distinction between the expectations for FAL with regards to the lack of emphasis on critical thinking and the prioritisation of communication, wouldn't negatively affect the Damarakloof learners. They are benefitting from these types of knowledge and skills being provided (at least a little bit more) in the English curriculum and are also accessing them in their Home Language, making it easier for them to build these critical literacy knowledge and skills without the additional task of having to acquire a new set of linguistic resources at the same time.

The Protea learners, who are isiXhosa and Afrikaans speaking and from poorer backgrounds and where introduction to the types of literacy practices expected of them at school is limited, are similar to many learners in schools in South Africa with similar demographics. The barriers to learning are not their varied linguistic resources and vernacular language, but rather that they are expected to adapt to and learn a generalised, academic version as their Home Language. This is arguably not dissimilar to learning it as an Additional Language.

In the FAL classes that are in the Home Languages that they actually speak (Afrikaans and isiXhosa), they are not being given the opportunity to develop critical thinking skills due to the differing expectations of the FAL curriculum. The only time they get closer to developing these skills is in the HL English class which is already difficult (as it is not their Home Language) and therefore they are at a distinct disadvantage. This highlights the fact that learners who come to school with the "correct" linguistic resources are validated by both the system and the conceptions of their teachers, making their school career infinitely easier.

In addition to this, learners are not getting access to meaningful digital literacy skills in the lessons that are using technology. Lesson activities designed with technology merely replicate traditional pedagogies and, as such, learners are not learning to be critical producers of texts, but rather remaining in their roles as passive receptors of linguistic knowledge. The ideologies and pedagogies so prevalent in education around the world, are being reinforced in these classes, rather than revolutionised by the possibilities of technology. As such, technology and digitally mediated tasks are at risk of being merely absorbed into existing practices and moulded to fit existing pedagogies. The much vaunted "fourth industrial revolution" is in danger of being reduced in educational spheres at least, to just another tool in the teachers' arsenal - to be used or not, rather than being seen as an opportunity to expand horizons and provide learners with access to the skills crucial for their success in society after school.

7.4 Conclusion

The nature of the conceptions and practices highlighted in this study is not confined just to the teachers in this study, nor are they only evident in the CAPS curriculum document itself. These autonomous approaches to language teaching are dominant in most school practices and enjoy hegemonic positioning throughout South Africa. As highlighted in other studies

mentioned in previous chapters, such as Prinsloo and Sasman (2015), Hendricks (2008) and McKinney (2016), the prevalence of the privileging of this neutral, boundaried and systemic view of language is evident in a much wider arena than just these two schools.

Whether consciously or not, the teachers' conceptions of language are aligned with those of the CAPS document, and provide evidence of just how widespread, ingrained and dominant this hegemonic view of language is. This conception necessitates a pedestrian approach to language teaching, which focuses on teaching the building blocks of language rather than highlighting its social and contextual place within society. It will continue to do so until there is a radical shift in conceptions. This study has shown that perceptions around language and literacy have more of an impact on the integration of technology than other factors such as lack of time or resources. Regardless of what curriculum documents say, the reality is that teachers are in control of how they plan and execute language lessons on a day to day basis and this is where the shift needs to happen. Shifts in pedagogical approaches, both for themselves and at curriculum level, need to occur if any meaningful changes are to be made in language and literacy teaching as well as the engagement with digital technologies

As Freebody and Luke (1990); Durrant and Green (2000); and The New London Group (1996) have highlighted, the reality of society's globalised and fluid linguistic nature requires a shift in the conceptualisation of language and literacies and in approaches to teaching and learning. To fully prepare learners for the reality of the world outside of the classroom, they need to be given the tools to critically evaluate and position themselves to use a range of linguistic resources, including technology, to actively engage with texts. This requires a radical shift in ideologies for teachers, that can only come with the provision of education and training and tools to help teachers to think beyond these conceptions.

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Appendix 1: School Principal Information Sheet

Dear,

Teachers' accounts of digitally mediated language teaching: Negotiating the tensions between CAPS language specifications and digitally mediated language teaching in Grade 4 classes.

I, Cathryn Stewart, am conducting my Master of Education research project, through the University of Cape Town. I would like to ask your permission to interview the Grade 4 language teachers at your school with regards to their experiences with the use of digitally mediated tasks in their Grade four language classrooms. My research aims to explore how teachers approach using digitally mediated language tasks in the classroom, whilst needing to adhere to the CAPS language specifications and assessments. I will be focusing on interviewing individual teachers, conducting a focus group as well as looking at the lesson plans and activities planned for the types of lessons. I will be collecting data from two schools and comparing it.

While there is a growing body of research on digital literacy and technology use in the classroom, there is not much research that focuses in on teachers' thoughts and experiences with using these types of tasks, whilst still adhering to the specifications of the current CAPS curriculum. My proposed aim is to conduct a comparative description and analysis of teachers' approaches to using technology in the language classroom specifically and to highlight where teachers feel there are points of convergence and divergence from the CAPS specifications.

In the Intermediate Phase, CAPS language specifications shift from a focus on decoding and comprehension skills to expecting learners to engage with texts more critically. As such, studies have shown a noticeable drop in results, as learners struggle to grapple with texts in this manner for the first time. As digital literacy theories are focused on the importance of promoting the skills of critical thinking and active engagement, I feel that this year is a perfect one to focus on for my research.

Data collection will be in the form of two individual interviews and one discussion focus group at each school. The first interview will take place early in the first quarter of 2019 and will be an informal introduction and discussion with myself and each teacher individually. The second interview, will take the form of a more detailed discussion on classroom practice as well as a look at lesson plans and other materials for digitally mediated tasks, provided by the teacher for discussion. The focus group will be comprised of all the interviewed teachers at the school and will be a discussion regarding practices, experiences and the realities of using technology in the classroom. I will record discussions and interviews using note taking and audio-recordings. I would also like to collect lesson plans and other materials used in classes for analysis.

Participation is voluntary and the confidentiality of the school, as well as the teachers and learners, is guaranteed. The school will be given a pseudonym (different name) and pseudonyms will be used for all participants in the writing up of the research. You may withdraw participation in the research at any time.

Please fill in the slip below to indicate your consent for the research. You are welcome to ask any questions regarding this research by telephone or email: Cathryn (Kate) Stewart, email: stwcat003@gmail.com Cell: 083 729 0215. My supervisor at UCT is Professor Catherine Kell, if you have any questions please feel free to contact her via email: catherine.kell@uct.ac.za or phone: 021 650 3821.

Yours sincerely,

Cathryn Stewart

Principal Consent form

I consent YES / NO to:

1. The Grade 4 language teachers at my school being interviewed.

2. Audio- recording of the interviews.

3.The Grade 4 language teachers at my school assisting in the collection of lesson plans.

4. The Grade 4 language teachers at my school taking part in a focus group

5. Audio- recording of the focus group.

I understand that my co-operation is voluntary, and that confidentiality will be maintained. I can withdraw my co-operation at any time.

Name: _____ (Signature). Date:

Appendix 2: Teacher Information form

Teacher Information Sheet

Dear _____,

Teachers' accounts of digitally mediated language teaching: Negotiating the tensions between CAPS language specifications and digitally mediated language teaching in Grade 4 classes.

I, Cathryn Stewart, am conducting my Master of Education research project, through the University of Cape Town. I would like to ask your permission to interview you with regards to your experiences with the use of digitally mediated tasks in your Grade four language classroom. My research aims to explore how teachers approach using digitally mediated language tasks in the classroom, whilst needing to adhere to the CAPS language specifications and assessments. I will be focusing on interviewing individual teachers, conducting a focus group as well as looking at the the lesson plans and activities planned for the types of lessons. I will be collecting data from two schools and comparing it.

While there is a growing body of research on digital literacy and technology use in the classroom, there is not much research that focuses in on teachers' thoughts and experiences with using these types of tasks, whilst still adhering to the specifications of the current CAPS curriculum. My proposed aim is to conduct a comparative description and analysis of teachers' approaches to using technology in the language classroom specifically and to highlight where teachers feel there are points of convergence and divergence from the CAPS specifications.

In the Intermediate Phase, CAPS language specifications shift from a focus on decoding and comprehension skills to expecting learners to engage with texts more critically. As such, studies have shown a noticeable drop in results, as learners struggle to grapple with texts in this manner for the first time. As digital literacy theories are focused on the importance of promoting the skills of critical thinking and active engagement, I feel that this year is a perfect one to focus on for my research.

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will be comprised of all the interviewed teachers at the school and will be a discussion regarding practices, experiences and the realities of using technology in the classroom. I will record discussions and interviews using note taking and audio-recordings. I would also like to collect lesson plans and other materials used in classes for analysis.

Participation is voluntary and the confidentiality of the school, as well as the teachers and learners, is guaranteed. The school will be given a pseudonym (different name) and pseudonyms will be used for all participants in the writing up of the research. You may withdraw participation in the research at any time.

Please fill in the slip below to indicate your consent for the research. You are welcome to ask any questions regarding this research by telephone or email: Cathryn (Kate) Stewart, email: stwcat003@gmail.com Cell: 083 729 0215. My supervisor at UCT is Professor Catherine Kell, if you have any questions please feel free to contact her via email: catherine.kell@uct.ac.za or phone: 021 650 3821.

Yours sincerely,

Cathryn Stewart

Teacher Consent form

I consent YES / NO to:

1. Being interviewed.
2. Audio- recording of the interviews.
3. Assisting in the collection of lesson plans.
4. Taking part in a focus group
5. Audio- recording of the focus group.

I understand that my co-operation is voluntary, and that confidentiality will be maintained. I can withdraw my co-operation at any time.

Name: _____(Signature) Date:

Appendix 3: Interview questions

Interview 1:

Introductory Interview

1) What is your personal stance/philosophy towards language teaching?
2) Do you feel that the CAPS documents allow you to approach your language teaching in a manner that reflects your ideas or ideology about language teaching?
3) What skills do you feel are critical for learners to access to be successful in developing language and literacy fluency? (What would you like learners to leave your class knowing)
4) In your experience, do you feel that digitally mediated tasks in lessons provides more or less opportunities for developing these skills?
5) Would you say that you are aware of the principles and aims behind the creation of the content of CAPS language documents?

6) How do you feel about the curriculum as a teacher currently?
7) Would you change anything with regards to the CAPS curriculum for your Home Lang and FAL specifically?
8) What sections of the curriculum do you find you feel the need to focus on the most? (Language Structure and Conventions, Reading and Viewing, Listening and Speaking or Writing and Presenting) OR do you feel that they are best taught as interconnected?
9) Do you perceive a difference between Home and FAL in terms of skills required by the curriculum?
10) How do you feel your language is perceived, both as whole (the wider school curriculum) or in contrast to the Home Language? Can you highlight any of these differences in perception?
11) What have you noticed with regards to the learners' ability to adjust to the Gr4 language curriculum after FP?
12) What do you currently do to manage the jump from FP to IP if anything?
13) How would you define what it is to be "digitally" literate?
14) What is the school's official policy or guidelines for technology use in classrooms?
15) What access do you have to technology in your classroom/ school?
16) What are your feelings towards using digitally mediated tasks in language lessons?
17) What would you describe as a digitally mediated task or lesson using technology?
18) What are key skills, specifically for language, you feel technology-based lessons provide?
19) Do you feel digitally mediated lessons provide different types or opportunities for lessons? Why?
20) What is the availability of resources for these lessons for your language? What are the challenges regarding using digitally mediated tasks in lessons?
21) How many lessons do you have to explore using digital resources and activities to push your learner's boundaries or knowledge?
    How much training have you received with regards to?
    a) Language and Literacy theory, best practice and pedagogy.
    b) Digital technology in the classroom and available resources for your language specifically?

Interview 2:

In-depth Discussion and Materials Analysis.

1) How many lessons in the 2-week CAPS cycle, are planned with the CAPS content and specifications specifically in mind/ used as a basis for lesson content?
2) How many lessons are technology based?
3) How much of an actual lesson time do you feel needs to be devoted to activities that are directly linked CAPS specifications and content?
4) Do you feel that there is emphasis on developing critical thinking in the CAPS specifications for your language? Can you give examples of specifications or aims that they feel display this?
5) Do you feel you are able to cover these specifications in lessons that are digitally mediated?
6) What types of activities do you plan for digitally mediated tasks? (group, research based, creation etc)

7) What skills do you feel you are aiming the learners to grasp or employ during digitally mediated tasks?
8) Do you design these lessons to align with CAPS content specifications or are they more exploration or extension based?
9) Do you feel that these types of lessons are able to cover the CAPS content easily?
10) What are the key challenges of digitally mediated tasks in your experience?
11) How do you find resources? Are there enough resources available?
12) What informs your choices of text etc? Why do you choose the texts you choose?
13) What kinds of things inform your choices with regards to lesson and task creation? (e.g. time constraints, resources, internal or national policies, assessment plans, CAPS documents etc)
14) Would you say you tend towards using digitally mediated tasks as integral parts of your lesson objectives? Or do you tend to use them for less formal activities?
15) Do you find it difficult to use digitally mediated tasks in a more formal capacity? Why?
16) Do you use digitally mediated tasks as assessments? Give examples.
17) Talk me through how your approach to planning a language lesson or task?
18) Example of task in:
    a) Why was this task planned?
    b) What informed your choice of text/ resource?
    c) How did the lesson go?
    d) Did you notice anything of interest when they were using technology?
    e) How do you feel this type of lesson compares to a regular lesson?

Appendix 4: Focus group questions

Focus Group Discussion:

Focus in the Foundation Phase is largely on decoding and comprehension skills. Grade 4 is often the first time that learners are required to discuss texts and view them in relation to themselves.

1) Do you find this statement to be true in your experiences?
2) How do you approach the jump from foundation phase language specifications to intermediate phase specifications?
3) Do you feel that including digitally mediated tasks in the classroom exacerbates or helps this jump?
4) What do you think the possibilities of working with digitally mediated tasks and resources would be if you had no restrictions on time, resources and official curriculum constraints?
5) What are thought regarding the children's perceptions of your language subject?

Appendix 5: Damarakloof Digital Lesson Resources

Red lorry, yellow lorry - say this fast! Did your tongue get confused? Mine certainly did! It's tongue twister time.

10 points

You have to create five tongue twisters of your own to get the rest of your classmates tongues in a twist.
1. Make sure that you number them
2. Put a border around them.
3. Include a picture to match at least one of them.
4. Ask Mr Y if you can print them.

Have fun with them

Challenging Tongue Twisters for Kids!!! Wonderful English TONGUE TWISTERS !!!
YouTube video 7 minutes

HISTORY COMPUTER PROJECT

GRADE 4 – TERM 3

Using **Google docs** on the school computer, a brochure on TRANSPORT making use of the 6 areas of transport that we have discussed in class, these being:

Animal transport

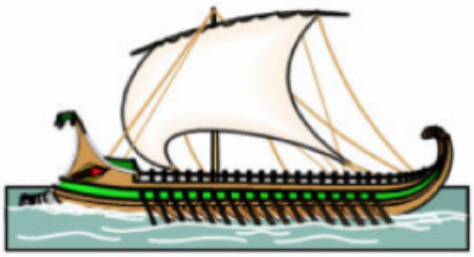
Human transport

Air transport

Rail transport

Water transport

Road transport



INSTRUCTIONS

· Before you start, go to "page layout", then "orientation" and click on "Landscape".

· Go to "Home" and then go to "font size". The size of your font/writing must be 14.

You must then choose to type in "Arial".

· You must have a central heading titled TRANSPORT in capital letters and in a bigger font.

· You must have six pictures showing each of the means of transport we have discussed, with the headings that I have written above, beneath each picture. Write one interesting historical fact you have researched underneath/next to your picture.

· Make a separate "bubble" with your name and grade in it. To do this: Go to "insert" then "shapes" and select a shape for your name and grade. To write in it you must click on your "bubble" and "insert" a text box so that you can write in it. If you are unsure – ask Mr Y for help! ☺

· Make sure your mind map is nicely spaced so that it looks good. Now print your piece of work and hand it in to Mr Y.

Rubric for marking

TRANSPORT heading	
Animal transport plus picture and interesting fact	
Human transport plus picture and interesting fact	
Air transport plus picture and interesting fact	
Rail transport plus picture and interesting fact	
Water transport plus picture and interesting fact	
Road transport plus picture and interesting fact	
Name and grade	
Neatness and correct spelling	
TOTAL /10	

Appendix 6: English Lesson Plans

Listening &Speaking (listens to and speaks about a novel) **Reading &Viewing (reads a novel)** **FAT: Unprepared Reading**
Learners to use the 'register period' as a reading half hour where they are allowed to choose their own book for reading
During this lesson, learners will be called up one by one to complete their unprepared reading This lesson will be based off *Fantastic Mr Fox* which the learners have been reading for the last few days. Explain to the learners that they will be doing a character sketch about two of the characters from the novel. In this character sketch, learners will need to come up with words to describe the characters. This can be quite difficult for some learners. To assist learners with this, choose a learner to come up to the front. Teachers should ensure their board is on either a blank notebook page or slide show page. Have the learners sit in front of the board. Teachers should ask the learners to describe the person at the front. As the class gives adjectives for this person, the teacher should write these around them. By the end it will probably look like this: http://bit.ly/2BgPoIR Teachers can repeat the activity as many times as needed.
Group Activity: Place the learners in groups of four. Give each group the A3 worksheet of Mr Fox. Learners need to do a character sketch of Mr Fox. Each group needs to do the following: 1) Write the name of the character at the top 2) Colour the picture of Mr Fox 3) Describe what he *looks like* on the one side 4) Describe his *personality* on the other side of the page These character sketches should be placed on the notice board outside for display. **Individual Activity:** Learners should choose one of the farmers in the story and complete a character sketch of this farmer. They can collect the worksheet from their teacher. Learners may also use the PDF copy of the story to help them describe the character.
Learners should get into groups based on the farmer that they chose. In these groups learners should report back on their character sketch. Groups should do a 2 goods and 1 grows activity after each character sketch.

Writing & Presenting **Recap of Term 2 work**
Learners to use the 'register period' as a reading half hour where they are allowed to choose their own book for reading
Ask the learners what they have learnt this term in English (and in all subjects). Using the Smart Board notebook presentation found in Slides, open the "Shout It Out" activity. *For Teachers:* *Hand out the learners iPads* *Have learners go onto safari and type in classlab.com* *Teacher put "start activity" on the Notebook presentation. This will give you a class code for the learners to fill in.* *Learners fill in class code and their names.* Once learners are into the app, teachers should ask the learners to give them 5 things that they enjoyed this term. Put the following topics on the board. Ask the learners to say something about each of the topics. TOPICS: 1) Things I achieved academically 2) Things I achieved personally 3) Something I really enjoyed doing 4) Someone who helped me a lot this term (learner or teacher) 5) Anything else that I loved from this term Learners should put their answers in the correct categories. Give the learners about 5 minutes to complete this. Afterwards, go through the responses of some of the learners. Allow learners to say their own answers from the board and allow them to elaborate if need be.
Explain to the learners that they are going to be writing two letters today: 1) To their parents for parents evening 2) A letter to themselves which teachers will keep for the end of the year. Hand 2 A4 pieces of paper to the learners for each of the letters. Each learner should also receive 2 envelopes for the letters <u>Letter 1:</u> Learners should explain how they felt about this term. How they think they did & who they are thankful for this term <u>Letter 2:</u> Learners should write a letter to themselves. In this letter, learners should give their future self some advice and tell them something they want to have achieved by the time they receive the letters. Encourage the learners to use adjectives & adverbs in their letters.

Appendix 7: CAPS writing process (DBE, 2012, 19)

GRADES 4 – 6		
Skills	**Content**	**Strategies and sub-skills**
Writing & Presenting	• Word writing, e.g. lists • Sentence writing • Paragraph writing Creative writing • Descriptive, e.g. descriptions of people, places, animals, plants, objects, etc. • Narrative, e.g. stories, personal recounts • Imaginative, e.g. short poems • Dialogues and short play scripts based on stories Transactional writing (social, functional, media and information texts) • Notes, messages, letters, greeting cards, invitations • Posters, notices, brochures, advertisements • Short written speeches • Procedural texts and recounts • Factual recounts, information texts, e.g. news reports, texts for other subjects, graphic texts	**Process writing** • planning / pre-writing, • drafting, • revising, • editing, • proofreading, and • presenting **Pre-writing/planning** • Consider target audience and purpose • Consider type of writing • Brainstorm using mind-maps/lists • Organise ideas **Drafting** • Word choice • Structuring sentences • Main and supporting ideas • Specific features of the required text (e.g. direct speech for dialogue) • Reads own writing critically • Gets feedback from peers and teacher **Revising, editing, proofreading and presenting** • Revises: improves content and structure of ideas • Refines word choice, sentence and paragraph structure • Edits: corrects mistakes in grammar, spelling and punctuation • Presents neat, legible final version

Appendix 8: CAPS Time Allocations (DBE, 2012, 14)

2.2 TIME ALLOCATION FOR THE HOME LANGUAGE

The teaching time for Home Language is 6 hours per week. All language content is taught within a two-week cycle (12 hours). Timetabling should make provision for continuous double periods per week. In a two-week cycle the following time allocation for the different language skills is suggested.

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

Suggestions for teaching times per week

The following grid gives an indication of how teaching time could be allocated to the different language skills. Throughout the two-week cycle language/grammar must be taught explicitly.

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
1 hour	Shared reading (for Listening purposes)	Shared writing – establishing a frame	Shared reading (a new text or continuation of a text read previously)	Shared writing – reflecting on progress and specific skills	Shared reading (a new text or continuation of a text read previously)
	Discussions on the text using appropriate language structures (Speaking)	Group and guided writing	Discussions on the text using appropriate language structures (Speaking)	Group and guided writing – peer and or teacher reviews of planning or writing	Discussions on the text using appropriate language structures (Speaking)
	Group guided reading (including individuals reading aloud)		Group guided reading (including individuals reading aloud)		Comprehension exercise (every second week) using the same text type
	Reflecting on independent reading		Reflecting on independent reading		
30 minutes		Individual writing		Individual writing	

Appendix 9: Dialogue specifications (DBE, 2012, 30)

Transactional texts			
Text type	**Purpose**	**Text structure**	**Language features**
Advertisement/ posters/notices	To persuade someone to buy something or use a service	Can take a variety of forms Make use of slogans and logos Usually have a visual, design element Use advertising techniques Use design to make the advertisement eye-catching and memorable	Figurative language and poetic devices used to create impact and make the language memorable, e.g. metaphor, simile , alliteration, repetition, rhyme, rhythm

Literary and media texts			
Text type	**Purpose**	**Text structure**	**Language features**
Personal recount	To tell about a personal experience	Orientation: scene setting or establishing context, e.g. *It was in the school holidays* An account of the events that took place, often in chronological order, e.g. *I went to Tumelo's place … Then …* Some additional detail about each event, e.g. *He was surprised to see me.* Reorientation – a closing statement that may include elaboration, e.g. *I hope I can spend more time with Tumelo. We had fun.*	Usually written in the past tense Told in first or third person Time connectives are used, e.g. *First, then, next, afterwards, just before that, at last, meanwhile* Tends to focus on individual or group participants Can be informal in style
Dialogue	It is a record of the exchanges as they occur, directly from the speaker's point of view	When writing a dialogue; •write the names of the characters on the left side of the page; •use a colon after the name of the character who is speaking; •use a new line to indicate each new speaker; •advice to characters(or readers) on how to speak or present the action must be given in brackets before the words are spoken; •sketch a scenario before you start writing.	When the dialogue involves family or close friends the (casual style" is used .Well-known formulae for requests, questions, orders, suggestions and acknowledgement are used When the conversation involves strangers the consultative style is used more elaborate politeness procedures are added to the well-known formulae for requests, questions, orders, suggestions and acknowledgement