

**The nature and pedagogical implications of English first additional Language writing
among FET phase learners in the Pinetown district**

BY

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ABSTRACT

Writing remains central to effective learning. It is through writing that learners are able to access knowledge, express their ideas and thoughts in different subjects across the curriculum. Through writing, learners are also expected to display the acquired knowledge in their assessments and examinations. Competency in writing is therefore crucial for learners, especially in the last three years of schooling, prior to them entering the demanding writing contexts of higher education. Despite this, writing continues to be a challenge for the majority of learners in South Africa, especially those learners writing in their second language in which they are not competent and confident. Thus, this calls for the special attention to how writing is taught and learnt, specifically at the FET levels.

This study, therefore, investigated the nature and pedagogical implication of English First Additional Language Learners (EFAL) writing among Further Education and Training (FET) phase learners in the Pinetown District. Guided by the Socio-cultural Learning Theory, I observed the writing lessons, analysed the types of writing produced by learners and explored the quality of writing among FET learners to understand the extent to which the writing practices and pedagogy meet the expectations of the curriculum.

Five FET schools in the Pinetown District were purposively selected to participate in this study. Underpinned by the qualitative framework, the study employed the interpretative paradigm to understand the human experiences of writing within the natural classroom contexts. To gain insights into the writing activities and classroom pedagogy, five writing lessons were observed and recorded using a video camera. To understand the types of writing and the quality of learners' writing, learners' written tasks were collected and analysed.

Findings from the analysis of the sample of written tasks collected from the five schools indicated that learners produced different types of writing: narrative essays, formal letters, friendly letters, formal letters, obituaries, diary entries, directions, interviews, invitation cards and covering letters. The study also found that this is in line with the curriculum which suggests that learners should be exposed to different types of texts to develop their cognitive and creative writing skills. The study found

that the learners' writing contained recurring incorrect spelling, misuse of capitalisation, violation of punctuation rules and incorrect use of tenses. Even though the analysis of the learners' written tasks revealed that such incorrect use of writing mechanics does not necessarily affect comprehension or meaning of the learners' texts, they, however, affect the overall judgement of the learners' writing. Data from classroom observations, lesson analyses and analysis of the curriculum show that, at most, the writing approaches used by the teachers were in line with the writing approach suggested by the curriculum. Findings from the analyses of the writing lessons indicate that teachers mostly used the question and answer method to teach writing in the five schools. This method entails the teachers controlling the interactions in the classrooms through nomination-response cycle. The findings from the analyses of lessons suggest that teachers creatively employed code-switching for pedagogical and pastoral purposes. The study found code-switching to enhance learners' understanding and thus fulfils an academic purpose, especially in situations where switching to isiZulu explained concepts better.

The study concludes that the effectiveness of any curriculum and pedagogy depends on the teachers' knowledge and understanding of writing and approaches to writing. For the effective development of the learners' writing, teachers must, firstly, understand their curriculum and implement it in their classrooms. Secondly, the researcher believes that successful teaching and learning of writing also depends on the effective instruction methods that embrace the socio-cultural learning perspectives. Lastly, the researcher found code-switching to be inevitable in second language writing classrooms where the teachers and learners are competent in more than one language. The study recommends collaborative writing activities in the learners' Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and the recognition of learners' home language for the learning of second language writing skills.

DECLARATIONS

I, NOMALUNGELO ISABEL NGUBANE, hereby declare that this dissertation, entitled '**THE NATURE AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE WRITING AMONG FET PHASE LEARNERS IN THE PINETOWN DISTRICT**' is my original work and that all resources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. It has been submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education at University of Zululand. It has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university.

CANDIDATE'S SIGNATURE.....

SUPERVISOR'S SIGNATURE.....

CO-SUPERVISOR'S SIGNATURE.....

DEDICATION

I dedicate the completion of this Doctoral study to God. I thank Him for his unconditional love, guidance, strength, good health, wisdom and perseverance to endure this journey. Without Him, this work would have been impossible.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACTi

DECLARATIONS..... iii

DEDICATIONiv

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTSv

TABLE OF CONTENTS.....vi

APPENDICES.....vii

LIST OF ACRONYMS.....vii

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY..... 1

1.0. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND.....1

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT5

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....6

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....7

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY.....7

1.5 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....7

1.6 INTRODUCTION TO KEY CONCEPTS.....8

1.6.1. Writing.....8

1.6.2. Writing as a Social Practice.....9

1.6.3. Second Language Writing.....10

1.7. OUTLINE OF THE CHAPTERS.....12

1.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY.....13

CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0. INTRODUCTION.....14

2.1 What is writing?.....14

2.1.1 The Key Elements of writing.....16

2.1.2 Importance of Writing.....17

2.2. SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING PEDAGOGY.....	19
2.2.1. What is a pedagogy.....	19
2.2.2. Writing approaches.....	22
2.2.2.1. The Product Approach.....	22
2.2.2.2. The Process Approach.....	26
2.2.2.3. The Genre-based Approach.....	31
2.2.2.4. Reader-focused Approach.....	34
2.3. TYPES OF TEXTS.....	36
2.3.1. Essays.....	40
2.3.2. Procedures.....	43
2.3.3. Reviews.....	44
2.3.4. Letters.....	44
2.4. THE EFAL WRITING CURRICULUM.....	46
2.5. THE STAGES OF THE WRITING LESSON.....	47
2.6. SOCIO-CULTURAL LEARNING THEORY.....	53
2.6.1. Historical background of the socio-cultural learning theory.....	54
2.6.2. The Zone of Proximal Development.....	55
2.6.3. Mediation of Learning.....	57
2.6.4. Scaffolding.....	58
2.6.4.1. Domains of Scaffolding.....	59
2.7. WRITING AS A SOCIAL PRACTICE.....	61
2.8. BILINGUALISM AND MULTILINGUALISM.....	63
2.9. CODE-SWITCHING, CODE-MIXING AND TRANSLANGUAGING.....	66
2.9.1. Code-switching and code-mixing.....	66
2.9.2. Translanguaging.....	68
2.10. CLASSROOM DISCOURSE.....	69
2.11. ERROR ANALYSIS.....	73
2.12. CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	75

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0. INTRODUCTION.....	76
3.1. RESEARCH PARADIGM.....	76
3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN.....	77
3.3. TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLING.....	78
3.4. DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS.....	81

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION	84
3.6. ETHICAL CONSIDERATION AND PROCEDURES.....	84
3.7. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY.....	85
3.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	87
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION	
4.0. INTRODUCTION.....	88
4.1. BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE FIVE SCHOOLS.....	88
4.4.1. Description of School A.....	88
4.4.2. Description of School B.....	89
4.4.3. Description of School C.....	89
4.4.4. Description of School D.....	90
4.4.5. Description of School E.....	90
4.5. DATA FROM CLASSROOM OBSERVATION.....	91
4.5.1. Presentation and analysis of writing lessons	
91	
4.5.1.1. Analysis of School A Writing Lesson.....	92
4.5.1.2. Analysis of School B Writing Lesson.....	94
4.5.1.3. Analysis of School C Writing Lesson.....	96
4.5.1.4. Analysis of School D Writing Lesson.....	98
4.5.1.5. Analysis of School E Writing Lesson.....	102
4.6. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DOCUMENTS.....	104
4.6.1. Analysis of the written tasks.....	104
4.7. DATA FROM OTHER WRITTEN DOCUMENTS.....	112
4.7.1. Lesson Timetables.....	113
4.7.2. Notes from observations.....	115
4.7.3. CAPS CURRICULUM.....	117
4.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	119
CHAPTER 5: DATA INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION	
5.0. INTRODUCTION.....	121
5.1. DIFFERENT TYPES OF WRITING PRODUCED BY LEARNERS.....	121
5.2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAPS SUGGESTED WRITING APPROACH AND CLASSROOM PRACTICE.....	123
5.3. QUALITY OF WRITING PRODUCED BY LEARNERS.....	125
5.4. TEACHER-CENTRED WRITING PEDAGOGY SUGGESTED BY CLASSROOM DISCOURSE.....	126

5.5. DIFFERENT WRITING APPROACHES SUGGESTED BY CLASSROOM DISCOURSE.....	128
5.6. CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	129
CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION.....	127
6.0. INTRODUCTION.....	127
6.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.....	127
6.1.1. DIFFERENT TYPES OF WRITING PRODUCED BY LEARNERS.....	131
6.1.2. THE QUALITY OF WRITING.....	133
6.1.3. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CAPS SUGGESTED WRITING APPROACH AND CLASSROOM PRACTICE.....	135
6.1.4. THE WRITING PEDAGOGY.....	137
6.1.5. CODE-SWITCHING AS A PEDAGOGICAL TOOL.....	139
6.1.6. WRITING APPROACHES EMPLOYED BY TEACHERS.....	141
6.2. RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	143
6.2.1. A need for collaborative writing activities within the learners' ZPD.....	141
6.2.2. A need for a learner-centred writing.....	143
6.2.3. A need for a learner-centred writing approach.....	144
6.2.4. Recognition of isiZulu as a learning resource for English writing.....	146
CONCLUSION.....	147
REFERENCES.....	150
APPENDICES.....	162

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Letter seeking for permission to conduct research	141
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APPENDIX B: Letter granting permission to conduct research	142
APPENDIX C: Parents' Consent Letter (English version)	143
APPENDIX D: Parents' Consent Letter (IsiZulu version)	144
APPENDIX E: Lesson transcripts	145
APPENDIX F: Sample of the Learners written tasks	146
APPENDIX G: Confirmation of project registration	147
APPENDIX H: Plagiarism report	147

LIST OF ACRONYMS

EFAL – English First Additional Language

ESL - English Second Language

LiEP- Language in Education Policy

LoLT- Language of Teaching and Learning

FET – Further Education and Training

CAPS – Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

NCS – National Curriculum Statements

DBE-Department of Basic Education

RSA- Republic of South Africa

DoE- Department of Education

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.0 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Writing remains one of the most critical skills for learners to acquire. This is more so for learners writing in their second language in which they are not competent and confident. What makes writing skills more essential is that across all schooling levels, writing is largely used by teachers as a tool to measure the quality of learners' thoughts and therefore, evaluate success. Meanwhile, recent research shows high levels of poor writing skills among South African learners of all schooling phases and language backgrounds (Blease, 2014). The situation is even worse in English First Additional (EFAL) writing classrooms (Maruma, 2017; Mpiti, 2016). Maruma (2017) points out that the inability of EFAL learners to write coherently and logically affects the effective expression of their thoughts, ideas, and emotions in their written texts. Inadequate writing skills of English First Additional Learners (EFAL) have been a concern for those in the education field. Some teachers argue that the introduction of EFAL as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in Grade 4 is too early.

The expectation that Grade 4 learners have adequate English language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) to enable them to learn successfully through the medium of English is a fallacy (Blease, 2014). Marshall (2014) argues that expecting Grade 4 learners to use their second language for learning and teaching and to writing in that language only after two years of acquisition, undermines the effectiveness of the language as LoLT (Pineteh, 2014).

On the other hand, researchers such as Allen (2015) contends that it is not necessary the Grade 4 language switch that is responsible for poor writing skills among EFAL learners. Allen (2015) observed that it is the inadequate teaching of writing in EFAL schools that explains the decline in writing proficiencies among EFAL intermediate phase learners. Similarly, Julius (2013) also noticed that the poor writing skills of learners are a serious concern as they not only affect their writing in the EFAL classroom but it also affect their academic performance.

According to Julius (2013) the problem of writing among EFAL learners is exacerbated by the fact that teachers do not understand the writing approaches they are expected to implement in their writing classrooms. So, they pay less attention to the writing activities. There is less writing taking place in the EFAL classrooms, according to Julius (2013). In a study of the teaching of writing among two Grade 5 teachers across two schools in Grahamstown, Julius discovered that a number of factors affected the effective teaching of writing in the two senior phase classrooms. Firstly, Julius found that EFAL teachers were not provided much support to enhance their teaching of writing. After many years of teaching, the teachers still used the outdated traditional approaches to teach writing.

Secondly, Julius observed that the demands of learners' assessment marks by the government administrators and advisors pressured the teachers to focus on teaching for assessment. As a result, the teachers' pedagogy focused primarily on ensuring that the learners complete their written tasks and that marks were awarded and recorded on time, instead of engaging the learners in the processes of writing such as brainstorming, drafting, revising and so on as the Curriculum and Assessment Policy for EFAL suggests (Department of Basic Education, 2012).

Mpiti (2016) also found that EFAL writing contexts were overshadowed by problems of inadequate teaching and learning resources which further crippled the teachers' efforts to develop learners' writing skills. In her study of the EFAL writing experiences among isiXhosa and Afrikaans learners in the Eastern Cape, Mpiti (2016) discovered that there are limited EFAL textbooks in schools to adequately support the learning of writing. Mpiti also found that the traditional teaching methods promote individual thinking and learning. Her study found that the teaching of writing was still approached from teacher-centred methods which undermine the social and active learning of collaborative learning methods. Like Julius (2013), Mpiti found that minimum scaffolding of the writing process was taking place. Scaffolding of the different stages of the writing process supports learners with the writing skills which they need to become competent and independent writers. Without scaffolding opportunities, learners' writing remains weak, observed Julius (2013). In support of the explicit scaffolding of the stages of the writing process, Badger and White (2000) maintain that if teachers are to improve the writing of their learners they must think more about providing learners with ample writing opportunities.

Different scholars (Allen, 2015; Blease, 2014; Mpiti, 2016; Ntshuntshe, 2011) have attempted to explore the EFAL writing contexts, however, Pineteh (2014) is concerned that little attention is given to the development of writing in South Africa, especially second language writing which proves to be a challenge. Similarly, Barunthram (2012) says the paucity of literature that focuses on writing in the South African learning contexts shows that issues of writing and ways of improving writing in our educational contexts are not yet given a priority they deserve. Bharunthram (2012) then advises that literacy issues not only have a serious impact on the education of learners but they also have implications for the lives of learners, especially those learners who come from underprivileged social backgrounds. These learners largely depend on the quality of education and the development of literacy skills in order to proceed to universities and be able to transform their impoverished economic situations.

Meanwhile, worldwide research shows that the decline in the writing skills of learners is not a uniquely South African dilemma. All over the world, there has been an outcry about the poor writing skills of learners. Shukri (2014), for example, reports on the inadequate writing skills of second language high school students in Saudi Arabia. Concerned about the poor writing skills of students, Shukri (ibid) investigated the writing challenges faced by foundation to intermediate level Saudi foreign language students. In particular, Shukri (ibid) was interested in understanding the influence of culture on the Arab learners' English writing development. Shukri (ibid) discovered that the lack of diverse English writing material discouraged creativity among the Arab students. Furthermore, the study found that writing pedagogy provided minimum support to guide second language students through the process of writing.

In the United States, Fullmer (2016) explored the writing pedagogy of high school teachers and the writing experiences of students. Fullmer (2016) was concerned about the mismatch between the high school writing practices and that of colleges and universities. According to Fullmer (ibid), college and university lecturers were worried that writing skills of first year students were below the expected level. Through her case study of two high school writing teachers, Fullmer (ibid) was interested in finding out what teachers taught in their writing classrooms, what the curriculum expectations

were, and if there was any alignment between high school writing practices and college and university writing.

Fullmer's (2016) study indicated that high school teachers did not have much time to concentrate on teaching writing. Besides writing, their curriculum had literature, speech and media to be taught, while the college and university curriculum had writing as a major focus. As a result, the high school teachers' writing instruction was at a level of learning to write, not writing to learn. The study also found that teachers were no longer teaching five paragraph essays, due to large writing classrooms. Teachers felt that the educational administrators prioritised the grading and assessment marks over quality feedback. Furthermore, the study found that the teachers were not writers themselves. All these challenges had an impact on the writing development of students in Fullmer's context.

Africa is not without its writing challenges too. In Nigeria, Akinyenye (2015) has reported writing challenges among second language learners. In Kenya, Nyasimi (2009) has also raised concerns about the writing deficiencies in English writing skills in secondary schools. Adeyemi (2008) also noticed poor writing skills among Botswana high school learners and inadequate teaching of writing among the teachers.

In spite of the fact that writing is the most difficult skill to learn and master as the studies discussed above indicate, Klimova (2013) maintains that learning to write effectively is essential for successful learning across the school level and beyond. For secondary school learners, competency in writing opens opportunities for entering higher education. Walsh (2010) concurs that adequate writing skills are indispensable for learners across all schooling levels and more especially for learners at the exiting phases of the schooling system (grade 10, 11, 12). To emphasise the importance of writing, Walsh (2010) states that:

Writing is important because it's used extensively in higher education and in the workplace. If students don't know how to express themselves in writing, they won't be able to communicate well with professors, employers, peers, or just about anyone else. Much of professional communication is done in writing: proposals, memos, reports, applications, preliminary interviews, e-mails, and more are part of the daily life of a college student or successful graduate (p.

It is, therefore, important that learners are best equipped with writing skills to help them cope with the writing demands across the learning curriculum and beyond that. Myles (2002) asserts that writing is a powerful means of helping us solve problems. It is through writing that learners get to understand the knowledge of writing and also gain an understanding of the challenges in their writing and thus be able to solve them.

In the light of the above, this study explored the nature and the implications of English First Additional Language (EFAL) writing among Further Education and Training (FET) learners in five schools in the Pinetown District. The study hoped to make contributions to the literature on the teaching and learning of writing in EFAL FET contexts.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The declining levels of writing skills among English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners have been highlighted (Allen, 2015; Blease; 2014; Marshall, 2014; Maruma, 2017). EFAL learners struggle to produce coherent and well-organised texts in primary schools (Blease, 2014; Marshall, 2014) and secondary schools (Mpiti, 2016). Despite the curriculum advocating teachers to use process approach while exposing learners to the different writing stages such planning, drafting, revising and publishing, scholars like Blease (2014) and Mpiti (2016) noticed very little of writing practice taking place in the writing classrooms. Many teachers struggle to translate the curriculum into practice (Allen, 2015). Often, the teachers highlight that limited training on writing pedagogy, especially on the process approach, hinders their practice (Khanyile, 2015).

Little time is actually devoted to writing practices in EFAL classrooms (Pineteh, 2014; Mpiti, 2016) and this affects the development of writing among learners. Effective writing skills are fundamental for learning. At FET levels, particularly, the weak writing skills do not only impact on how learners learn, but also affect their matric pass rates, and thus limit their opportunities of entering higher education. Learners are not the only ones affected by the writing problem, EFAL FET teachers were also found to possess inadequate writing skills (Chokwe, 2011). They are not writers. This affects their attitudes towards writing and the teaching of writing.

Despite the challenges affecting the teaching and learning of writing reported by the studies discussed above, and the fact these writing challenges have far-reaching implications on the learning and future of learners, very little research in South Africa investigates the writing skills of EFAL learners, especially at FET levels. Most studies (Allen, 2015; Blease, 2014; Julius, 2013; Ntshuntshe, 2011) focus on writing in the Foundation, Intermediate and Senior phases. Not much is known about the teaching and learning of writing in EFAL FET classrooms. Writing practices of learners three years prior to completing schooling cannot be neglected as they have implications for national matric results and for post-secondary education.

This study, therefore, investigates the nature and pedagogical implications of EFAL writing among five FET schools in the Pinetown District.

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate the nature and the pedagogical implications of EFAL writing in five FET schools in the Pinetown District. The focus of the study is on the types of writing produced by learners, the quality of writing produced by learners and the writing pedagogy used by teachers in the classroom.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions emanated from the formulation of the problem:

- What type of writing do students produce?
- What are the pedagogical implications arising from the classroom writing tasks?
- Is there a relationship between the CAPS suggested writing approach and classroom practice?
- What is the quality of writing produced by learners?
- What is the writing pedagogy suggested by classroom discourse?
- What type of writing approach is suggested by classroom discourse?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are:

- To analyse the types of writing produced by students;
- To examine the pedagogical implications arising from the classroom writing tasks;

- To investigate the link between the CAPS suggested writing approach and actual classroom practice;
- To analyse the quality of writing produced by learners;
- To investigate the writing pedagogy suggested by classroom discourse; and
- To explore the type of writing approach suggested by classroom discourse.

1.5 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Studies on EFAL writing practices have thus far paid more attention to the development of writing in the Foundation, Intermediate and Senior Phases (Allen, 2015; Julius, 2013; Blease, 2015; Marshall, 2014). This study investigates writing practices at five EFAL FET schools in one district, thus extending the much needed literature. Currently, there is limited research linking curriculum and practice in EFAL FET classrooms. To bridge the gap in literature, this study links the writing curriculum with the actual practice by exploring the relationships between the CAPS writing approach and classroom practice. It is hoped that the findings will bring light into ways of improving the quality of writing among the selected schools and provide pedagogical support to EFAL FET teachers and improve the teaching of writing skills in the selected schools, thus making a contribution towards the teaching and learning of EFAL writing in South Africa.

1.6 INTRODUCTION OF KEY CONCEPTS

1.6.1 Writing

Research on writing has revealed that the writing skill is one of the best predictors of whether the learners will cope and achieve within the increasingly demanding learning environment (Julius, 2013). Although the focus of this study is mainly on the nature of writing practices, teaching of writing and writing curriculum of EFAL FET learners cannot be overlooked as it plays an important role in framing and shaping classroom writing practices. In other words, in this study, I am investigating EFAL FET learners' writing in totality. Raison and Rivelland (1997) cited in Julius (2013) explains that writing is not an isolated skill but is mutually linked to other language aspects which all come together during the act of writing:

...the writer is simultaneously involved with thinking of what to write, coherence and cohesion of the text, formation and legibility of individual letters, spelling,

grammar, including punctuation, layout, tone and register, organization and selection of appropriate content for an intended audience (p.4).

Scholars like Pineteh (2014) found an intricate connection between reading and writing where learners' writing reflect the nature of their reading. In the same way, Krashen (1984) found a correlation between reading and writing where extensive reading influences the development of writing proficiency more than the writing occurrence itself. Still on the relationship between reading and writing, Blease (2014) discovered that learners who have writing challenges are often not proficient readers who are able to predict the expectations of readers of their writing. Writing, unlike speaking, cannot be acquired incidentally; learners require appropriate teaching and practice if they are to develop proficiency in writing (Krashen, 1984).

Raison and Rivelland (1997) in Blease (2014) argue that there are developmental stages in learning to write that are prevalent in all writers across different cultures and nations. The developmental continuum starts from the stage of role play writing in early phases and moves through to early writing stage, followed by conventional writing, proficient writing stage, and lastly, advanced writing stage (Raison & Rivelland, 1997) as cited by Blease (2014). Despite these developmental stages being investigated and found to be common among all writers, Raison and Rivelland (1997) acknowledged the writers' language development and unique writing skills which all influence the writing development. Therefore, they highlighted that the sequence might not be linear for all writers.

1.6.2 Writing as a Socio-Cultural Practice

Vygotsky (1978) posited that learning is a social activity. He later proclaimed writing as a social practice. According to Barton and Hall (2000), what learners learn about writing, whether right or wrong, is mostly influenced by their social practices. As Julius (2013) puts it, 'learners' homes, family, neighbourhood, school and local community, all offer relevant social contexts for learners' writing practices' (p. 8). Similarly, Hayland (2007) asserts that learners develop and learn writing skills through 'active' participation with their social and cultural contexts, including their classroom.

Julius (2013) also observed an extricable connection in which classrooms influence the ways of reading and writing. In the same way, Hyland (2007) argues that writing as a social practice depends largely on the language and the teacher's ways of facilitating writing development. The role of the language teacher is to present writing as means of interaction with others within the social context and, thus, use writing to share ideas about relevant issues affecting learners' social contexts. Teachers, according to Mpiti (2017), should also provide opportunities in the classroom for such articulation of ideas to take place through writing.

According to Keaster (2014), "the ultimate aim of any comprehensive approach to teaching writing is to produce confident, competent and independent writers who write for people" (p. 55). Keaster (2014) maintains that if learners are to be effective writers, they must approach writing as a social practice and a purposeful task with intended readers in mind. Julius (2013) also emphasises that "learners, as writers, must learn how they influence and affect their readers" (p. 9). Therefore, it is important for learners to write with a clear understanding of their audience.

1.6.3 Second Language Writing

Scholars like Hyland (2003) have since established that writing in a second language is complex. In fact, these scholars argue that learning to write in a second language is the most challenging activity that second language learners face in academic contexts. This is not surprising since writing is a difficult skill to acquire even for learners writing in their home languages. Hyland (2003) argues that learning to write effectively requires quality instruction, time and extensive practice. Hyland (2003) adds motivation and attitude as social factors that affect the learning of writing in a second language. Furthermore, Hyland (2003) noticed cognitive processes involved in second language writing and they include writing strategies and language transfer (Hyland, 2003).

Ellis (1985) divided writing strategies that second language learners must acquire into three categories: meta-cognitive, cognitive and language transfer. Meta cognitive strategies include devices for planning for the writing topic, organising ideas within the text and the awareness of the demands of the text. The cognitive strategies, on the other hand, involve the ability to transfer existing knowledge about writing to facilitate the new writing task. The last strategy that influences writing in a second language is

the language transfer. Ellis (1985) argues that second language learners tend to depend on their first or home language structures when writing in their second language. Ellis (1985) noticed that if the structures between home language (L1) and second language (L2) are so distinctly apart, learners tend to make frequent errors in their writing which indicates an interference of L1 on L2 writing. Nunan (1999) also notes that writing in L1 is different from writing in L2.

Nunan (1999) also observed that L1 is only helpful for learners when it has similar or common elements with L2. If the systems differ, L1 has been noticed to hinder the development of writing in L2 (Nunan, 1999). The author adds that interference between L1 and L2 is one of the major sources of L2 writing problems. Because English structures, that is, the conventions, style and organisation, are unique from many L2 structures, L2 learners, therefore, find it extremely hard to produce a coherent, fluent and well-structured text in L2 (Nunan, 1999).

In order to help L2 learners develop and improve their L2 writing, Myles (2002) suggests that teachers should find ways of making explicit the structural differences between learners' L1 and their L2. Teachers can do this by highlighting certain rules in L1 that are not relevant or appropriate for use in L2 writing. Myles (2002) argues that this will ensure that learners apply the correct structures in their L2 writing, and thus minimise errors in their writing and improve the quality of L2 writing.

Myles (2002) maintains that learning the appropriate L2 strategies is difficult to attain. Furthermore, learners find it difficult to master all writing aspects in their second language at once. So, they end up electing to use only those aspects that they can understand. Teachers who teach writing in the second language classrooms, therefore, need to pay more attention to the writing processes and strategies in order to support the development of writing among these learners. Another way of supporting L2 learners' academic writing is to expose them to extensive L1 academic texts so that L2 gets acquainted with L1 discourse, and thus improve their own texts (Myles, 2002).

Furthermore, Myles (2002) suggests that teachers should promote collaborative writing activities to encourage interactive learning and the sharing of ideas, as well as peer support. Collaborative writing classrooms are a rich learning environment for weak learners. They get an opportunity to work with others in order to learn the

essential writing strategies and writing processes through guided group activities and eventually develop the second language writing skills.

1.7 OUTLINE OF THE CHAPTERS

The study is organised into six chapters. Each chapter focuses on a specific aspect as explained below:

Chapter 1: Orientation to the study

This chapter provides the introduction and the background to the study. It also presents the problem of the study, the purpose of the study, the research questions and the objectives of the study. The significance of the study is also explained. Furthermore, the chapter briefly introduces the key concepts such as writing, writing as a socio-cultural practice, and second language writing. Lastly, the chapter presents the outline of the chapters

Chapter 2: Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

This chapter presents a review of literature related to writing, second language writing, writing curriculum and writing approaches. It also looks at the types of writing produced by secondary school learners and stages of writing. Issues of bilingualism, multilingualism and tranlanguaging are discussed. Furthermore, the chapter discusses code-switching, discourse analysis, and error analysis.

Chapter 3: Design and Methodology

This chapter focuses on the qualitative research methodology that underpins this study. Issues of research design, sampling, data collection instruments (classroom observation and notes) are discussed in detail. Data analysis procedures, issues of trustworthiness and ethical procedures are also discussed. It also describes how limitations of the study were strengthened.

Chapter 4: Data Presentation and Analysis

Chapter 4 presents data from classroom observations (recorded writing lessons) conducted to understand the writing practices of learners and pedagogical practices in the five EFAL classrooms. Learners' written texts are also presented and analysed

to reveal the types and the quality of writing in the five schools. Furthermore, the errors committed by learners in their writing are analysed and presented in a tabular form.

Chapter 5: Interpretation and Discussion

This chapter presents the findings of the study. It systematically infuses literature to understand the emerging findings.

Chapter 6: Summary of Findings, Recommendations, and Conclusion

Chapter six presents the summary of the findings and the conclusion. On the basis of the findings, the chapter also provides the implications and recommendations of the study.

1.8 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter presented the introduction and the background to this study. It explained the problem and the purpose of the study. Furthermore, the chapter discussed the research questions and objectives of this study. The significance of the study is also discussed. This chapter also introduced the key concepts of the study. Finally, the chapter presented how the chapters of the thesis are structured. The following chapter presents a review of literature on the teaching and learning of writing in second language contexts.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a literature review and a theoretical framework of this study. It begins by reviewing the literature that is pertinent to this study. Firstly, the chapter discusses the nature of writing, the key elements of writing and the importance of writing. Secondly, the chapter looks at the second language writing pedagogy. Within this topic, the chapter reviews literature on the approaches to writing: product, process, genre-based and reader-focused approach. Thirdly, the types of writing in FET classrooms are discussed, as well as the EFAL writing curriculum and the stages of writing. Later, the chapter presents the theory that underpins the study: the Sociocultural Theory. The historical background of the theory is discussed and the discussion extends to the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development. The chapter also looks at writing as a social practice. Bilingualism and multilingualism are also examined; code-switching, code-mixing and translanguaging are also encapsulated. Finally, the chapter reviews literature on classroom discourse and error analysis.

2.1. THE NATURE OF WRITING

2.1.1. What is writing?

Burns (2001) argues that writing is one of the most important language skills. It plays a significant role for the learning of language which cannot be ignored. It is, however, surprising that 'writing is often a neglected skill' (Burns, 2001, p. 89); therefore, it is for this reason that the current study investigates the nature and the implications of writing in English FAL among FET learners.

Chang (2011) in Mpiti (2016) thinks of "writing as a support skill which, for many, has been used to reinforce grammar acquisition, help memorisation of language structures and to emphasise oral proficiency as in grammar-translation, audio-lingual and communicative methods, respectively" (p. 53). Similar beliefs about writing are shared by Darus and Hei Ching (2009) in Mpiti (2016) who argue that "students' writing is not only used to evaluate their English proficiency, but also to assess their understanding of other subjects such as social studies, law, economics, physical and natural

sciences. Writing is also considered as an important part of almost all learning at school or university” (p. 54).

According to Massi (2007), writing is a tool for the creation and the expression of ideas. Furthermore, Massi (2007) considers writing as a means for the consolidation of linguistic structures when it is used for interactive communication. Given these characteristics of writing, Massi (2007) concludes that writing is therefore an interactive process by nature, since it results from the symbolic interplay between the writer, the text and the reader.

Different scholars (Flower & Hayes, 1980; Raison & Rivelland, 1997) agree that the nature of writing is complex and that writing is a difficult skill to attain. They argue that it is even more so for learners learning to write in their second language, similar to the learners in this study. Flower and Hayes (1981) noted that writing is difficult for second language learners because they are not only expected to put ideas together on paper but it entails much more. ‘Effective writing does not only involve making explicit what is on the mind, it also involves arranging these thoughts into coherent paragraphs and making sure that they are ready for the audience by employing strategies such as editing’ (Smith, 1994, p 2) in Mpiti (2015). This implies that learners must be made to understand that efficient writing is not a spontaneous act or a once off event but it entails careful planning and takes more time. This is more so when they are writing in a language other than their own (Smith, 1994 in Mpiti, 2015).

Raison and Rivelland (1997) also define writing as a multifaceted task that engages thinking processes and that involves the selection of appropriate grammar, spelling, layout, organisation and production of suitable message for the intended audience. This process is indeed complicated for second language learners as it necessitates the competence in the language of writing to enable the selection of grammar, correct spelling and organisation of thoughts into a coherent message.

Learners must understand the conventions of their second language to be able to write proficiently. Similarly, Klimova (2013) found that over and above the three language skills which are listening, reading and speaking, learners need to master metacognitive skills as well. Effective writing entails that learners employ metacognitive skills such as setting goals for their writing, planning carefully for their writing, thinking over the appropriate layout and logical structure and then revising their texts (Klimova, 2013).

In the process of their writing, learners have to apply these cognitive processes. Furthermore, learners especially at FET phase are expected to analyse their sources and synthesise their information into compact ideas. In essence, knowing how to write is indeed a valuable skill, especially for learners writing in their second language. This means that teachers need to find strategies of developing writing skills among learners.

Even though writing is a difficult skill to master, Klimova (2013) argues that learning to write effectively is essential for successful learning across the school level and beyond. Walsh (2010) concurs by stating that effective writing skills remain fundamental for successful learning at school level and beyond. At school level, assignments, tests and examinations are still largely carried out through writing. Inadequate writing skills affect learners' expression of ideas and thoughts in their assessment tasks and examinations. Beyond the school phase, effective writing remains essential. In higher education, learners who struggle to write clearly will not be able to communicate well with their professors. Walsh (2010) insists that much of the daily professional communication such as proposal, memos, applications and reports are primarily carried out in writing.

It is, therefore, important that learners are best equipped with writing skills to help them cope with the writing demands across the curriculum. Smith (1994) in (Mpiti, 2015) asserts that writing is a powerful means of helping us solve problems. It is through writing that learners get to understand their own writing challenges and also gain understanding of problems in their writing and thus be able to solve them. Krashen (1984) states that to become better writers; learners must practise writing in the classroom. This is in line with Raimes (1983) who contends that learners who are provided with ample writing opportunities and are provided with constructive feedback to improve their weaknesses eventually develop good writing skills. In other words, learners need opportunities to practise writing so that they can improve. They also require that teachers pay more attention to what they write and provide feedback so that they understand how they can improve their writing. In the following section, the elements of writing are discussed.

2.1.2. The Key Elements of Writing

Wilbers and Sullivan (2016) argue that there are five key elements of effective writing that teachers should emphasise when teaching writing: central idea, organisation, supporting material, expression, word choice and point of view, as well as spelling, grammar and punctuation. On the other hand, Salem (2013) proposes four components of writing: punctuation, capitalisation, spelling and paragraphing. Nevertheless, Wilbers and Sullivan (2016) explain that good writing involves concentrating on the main idea of writing which focuses on the clear, manageable argument around which to organise thoughts and material. This involves selecting the supporting ideas.

The element of organisation refers to a coherent arrangement of material (Welber & Sullivan, 2016). According Welber and Sullivan (2016), organisation also involves logic and sequence, including proper use of transitions. Supporting material refers to the use of explanations, examples, statistics and quotations to make ideas and information meaningful and memorable to the reader (Welber & Sullivan, 2016). Expression, word choice and point of view is concerned with the writer's use of clear language which is specific, accurate and appropriate to the audience, purpose and material (Welber & Sullivan, 2016).

Lastly, according to Salem (2013), language aspects such punctuation, spelling and grammar are key to effective writing. Welber and Sullivan (2016) agree, but they further argue that these three elements are not the only elements of an effective piece of writing. In fact, they state that the writer should take care of these components at the editing stage of the writing process. According to Welber and Sullivan (2016), the elements of spelling, grammar and punctuation only count when they are wrong. In other words, the reader will mostly notice the spelling, grammar or punctuation when the writer has made a mistake. Welber and Sullivan (2016) noticed that correct spelling and use of correct words and acceptable rules of grammar and syntax are often a challenge for many second language learners. They suggest that teachers should emphasise peer editing and proofreading to support the language skills. The following section examines the importance of writing writing in second language writing classrooms.

2.1.3. The Importance of Writing

Isleem (2012) believes that it is through writing that learners develop critical skills like innovation, creativity and self-expression; these skills are essential for academic success. In the same vein, writing is significant for accountability in standardised assessments across the schooling curriculum. Furthermore, writing practice helps learners use their target language and explore various linguistic elements like grammar, idioms and vocabulary in their texts, and with more writing opportunities, they can become better writers (Mohamed, 2003). Richards (2006) discovered a close link between thinking and writing which renders writing a crucial practice to develop among learners.

Writing activities in which learners are encouraged to brainstorm ideas, to be innovative and to think critically cultivate cognitive development essential for successful learning and post-school life. Moreover, Hedge (2001) argues that the ability to organise own thoughts and information through writing is a valuable skill for learning and post-school success.

In essence, Isleem (2012) proclaims that developing writing skills is paramount for all learners, and more so for EFAL FET in this study, because as it stands, writing remains a major tool to evaluate learners' thinking and knowledge acquisition and to make critical decisions about learners' performance. Assignments and examinations across all levels of learning are still primarily in written form. It is through writing that learners are able to make thoughts and ideas visible. Writing also allows learners to meet the outside world, to understand beliefs and opinions and ideologies which might differ or match their own perspectives. Mpiti (2016) also observed that exposing EFAL learners to more writing activities develops and promotes their art of organising their innovative ideas logically and coherently for the readers. Ahmed (2010), Isleem (2012) and Mpiti (2016) agree on three aspects: that writing is crucial for successful learning, that writing is hard to develop and to master, and that writing is a challenge for most learners across all levels of education. Akinyenye (2012) and Allen (2015) claim that writing, and the development of writing, in particular, are neglected and that little time is devoted to writing in many EFAL classrooms. Akinyenye (2012) notes that improving learners' writing abilities is extremely important for learning and academic success.

Allen (2016) argues that improving learners' writing skills increases their access to higher learning and opportunities to improve their lives. It is against the arguments stated above that this study explored writing practices of EFAL FET learners with the aim to establish the types and quality of writing practices as well as the writing pedagogy prevalent in EFAL FET classrooms. It is hoped that recommendations from the study will enhance the teaching and learning of writing in EFAL FET classrooms.

2.2. SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING PEDAGOGY

2.2.1. What is Pedagogy?

Wilmot (2013) proposes that "pedagogy lies at the interface between teaching and learning" (p.1). Alexander (2003) defines pedagogy as "what one needs to know, and the skills one needs to command in order to make and justify the many different kinds of decisions of which teaching is constituted" (p.3). Furthermore, Shulman (1994) argues that "pedagogy refers to ways of talking, showing, enacting or otherwise representing ideas so that the unknowing can come to know, those without understanding can comprehend and discern and the unskilled become adept" (p.7).

In their work entitled *The Power of Pedagogy*, Leach and Moon (1990) in Alexander (1994) define pedagogy as "more than the accumulation of techniques and strategies, more than arranging a classroom, more than formulating questions and developing explanations, but it is informed by a view of mind, of learning and learners and the kinds of knowledge and outcomes that are valued" (p. 6). In a writing classroom, pedagogy would be influenced by the teacher's beliefs and attitude about writing, his other knowledge about writing, learners' writing abilities and proficiency levels, curriculum, as well as his or her objectives of the writing lessons (Lee, 2008).

Little is known about the writing pedagogy in South African classroom contexts, especially in secondary schools. This is so because according to Mpiti (2016), there is limited documented research on writing practices among second language learners and teachers in these contexts. However, research on second language pedagogy, especially the one carried in second language secondary school classrooms in countries such as China, Hong Kong, Poland and Turkey shows that the teaching of

writing is confronted by a number of issues such as contextual constraints, large writing classrooms, unique teaching and learning approaches and ideologies about writing (Lee, 2008). According to Lee (2008) all these factors play an important role in the effective teaching of writing among second language learners.

A series of studies by Lee (2008) looked at the issues in second language pedagogy in Hong Kong. Most of Lee's work (2008) was conducted in secondary school writing classrooms and it yielded interesting findings on the teaching of writing in these writing contexts. Lee (2008) observed that teachers' feedback on students' writing was influenced by curriculum expectations.

Lee (2008) noticed that in most cases teachers had to comply with the instructional guidelines recommended by the authorities and in doing so largely ignored the students' writing needs and context-specific requirements. Lee (2008) notes that writing instruction in Hong Kong is centralised by government authorities which leaves little autonomy for the schools or teachers to make decisions on contextual writing needs. Lee (2008) also found a gap between what literature recommends about feedback and the teachers' actual classroom practice.

On further investigation of the writing pedagogy, Lee (2008) discovered that even though the curriculum advocates the process approach to feedback, however, it is hardly put into practice to improve the writing of students. Furthermore, Lee (2008) noticed that too much emphasis on examinations took the focus away from the process-based pedagogy of writing. Lee (2008) observed that the pressure of examinations is so much that often 'writing is tested rather than taught' (p. 288). Lack of support from school administrators was found to be the reason why many teachers resorted to conventional exam-based writing instructions instead of the process approach.

In another study of second language writing pedagogy, also in Hong Kong, Lee (2008) further observed that students use 'single-draft' essays for their writing assignment. Lee also observed that the writing classrooms were largely teacher-dominated. There was little peer or self-evaluation of writing and there was limited teacher-student feedback consultations. Lee noted that the teachers' heavy workload may be accountable for such little opportunities for teacher-learner feedback time. Similar

findings were also reported by Akinyenye and Puddleman (2015) among senior phase writing classrooms in South Africa.

According to Lee (2008) "...students develop heavy reliance on teachers and they themselves become mere passive agents who are unlikely to take any learning initiative on their own" (p. 149). Lee (2008) also noticed that 'teacher-dominated feedback practices breed passive and dependent learners' (p. 157). Furthermore, in many classes Lee (2008) made an observation that the teaching of writing took the form of grammar or language instruction. This was even more prevalent in classrooms where students were not proficient in the second language. In South Africa, Julius (2013) made similar findings among primary school writing classrooms. Julius observed that teachers were reliant on product approaches to teach writing.

In China, Lee (2008) observed that the writing pedagogy was affected by large classrooms. Muthusamy (2015) also found large classrooms to be an issue in South African writing classrooms. According to Muthusamy (2015), large classes are common in most developing countries due to population crises. Similarly, You (2004) found that because of large classrooms in Chinese writing classrooms, the teachers made only general comments on the learners' writing. You (2004) also noticed that the focus of the writing pedagogy was on the memorisation of model essays so that students perform well in the examinations. Writing scholars (Matsuda, 2003; Silva, 1990) also agree that second language writing pedagogy remains rooted in the traditional writing approaches that focus on the form of the text.

In Turkish writing classrooms, studies like that of Clachar (2000) show how teachers' self-beliefs and conflicting attitudes affected their writing instructions. Clachar (2000) noted that while the curriculum supports the use of process and rhetorical approaches to writing in secondary schools, the teachers showed disregard for the curriculum. In Poland, Reichelt (2005) discovered that writing instruction received little attention and less emphasis. Reichelt (2005) found that the reason for this was that English teachers received little training in teaching writing as more emphasis was given to speaking, reading and listening in the teacher education programmes.

This study explored the teaching and learning of writing among EFAL FET learners and teachers in one district. It is hoped the findings from this study will contribute to

the body of literature on the writing pedagogy in EFAL FET classrooms in South Africa. The following sections look at the different types of writing and also focus on the four writing approaches: product; process; genre-based and reader focused approach.

2.2.2. Approaches to Writing

Over the years, two major writing approaches dominated the teaching of writing in language classrooms, the product and the process approaches. However, in recent years, the genre approach is also gaining popularity among language teachers. Discussing these four approaches to writing is important for this study which explored approaches that EFAL FET teachers used to teach writing among their learners. The following section therefore looks at these writing approaches.

2.2.2.1 The Product Approach

Product approach has been used in many writing classrooms since the 1970s. In a product approach, teachers usually present learners with a model text to emulate and construct their own texts. Scholars (Escholz, 1980; Hedge, 2001; Nunan, 1999; Tribble, 1996; Young, 1978) agree that the product approach represents the traditional way of teaching writing. In the product approach classrooms the teachers present the features of the effective text for the learners to practise and reproduce texts of similar characteristics. The approach demands that learners focus on the model, the form and the duplication of the teacher's text as much as possible. Escholz (1980), for example, argues that teachers using the product approach put more focus on the grammatical features of the text and the organisation of the text rather than the ideas and the thoughts within the text. He further elaborates that "the product approach encourages students to use the same plan in a multitude of settings, by applying the same form regardless of content, thereby stultifying and inhibiting writers rather than empowering or liberating them" (p. 1).

Accuracy in writing is the main focus in the product approach instruction. Teachers assess learners writing based on how accurate they are in grammar, spelling and punctuation. In some classes, Akinyenye and Puddleman (2015) found that learners are asked to analyse the main components of the teacher's sample text and then copy the sample's organisational structure to reproduce as their texts. All in all, the goal of

teaching writing is for learners to reproduce a text that is similar in form and language conventions to the one they have learned. Diversion in terms of creativity is less appreciated.

Because of too much emphasis on the grammatical correctness and coherence, the product approach provides learners with little opportunities for creativity, innovation or self-expression (Nunan, 1999). Raimes (1983) says that the product approach “inhibits writers rather liberate them” (p. 75). Moreover, the teachers choose the topics for writing and this further limits and controls learners writing in the product approach classrooms.

The teaching of writing in the product approach assumes that writing is more about the correct use of grammar, correct spelling and correct organisation. Little attention is given to the ideas and meaning of learners’ writing. However, Hedge (1988) argues that while grammar and organisation are important aspects of writing, good writers also consider the purpose of writing, the audience and the message. All these aspects of effective writing are less considered in the product approach. The product approach writing instruction does not bring learners to the awareness of the purpose of writing and the reader of the text. Tribble (1996) observed that in the product approach instruction learners ‘write to learn’ instead of ‘learning to write’. In other words, teachers in the product approach view writing as a tool for learning grammar skills instead of understanding writing as a process through which learners learn to become effective writers.

Badger and White (2000) noticed that in the product approach, the end product of writing is more important than the process of writing the text. They argue that this may be one of the reasons why the first draft becomes the final draft in the product approach writing classroom. Writing is viewed as a ‘once-off’ activity. Limited feedback is provided to improve ideas and thoughts; instead, the feedback focuses on the grammatical errors and organisation (Badger & White, 2000). As such, learners rarely improve their writing in the traditional product approach classrooms (Badger & White, 2000). Moreover, Silva (1990) found that teachers in the product approach classroom relegate writing to homework due to the large workloads. As a result, writing practice becomes individual, with less support and feedback from the peers and the teacher.

In contrast, Hedge (1988) noted that in the product approach teachers expect learners to start and finish their writing in the classroom. Flower and Hayes (1980) maintain that product approach classrooms provide fewer opportunities for guidance from the teacher and peers, whether learners finish their writing at home or complete their written tasks in the classroom. Furthermore, the teachers' feedback provides little developmental aspects as it focuses on grammatical errors of the written text while ignoring the learner's thoughts (Hedge, 1988). As a result, learners are likely not to improve their writing within such a pedagogical environment. Instead, they remain weak as they progress with their learning (Flower & Hayes, 1980; Farrell, 2006).

Widdoson (1972) criticises the use of the product approach for the development of writing skills. He says that the product approach does little to drive teaching about the importance of meaningful content that writing should have. In fact, Widdoson argues that the focus on grammar and form of the texts provides learners with less opportunity to engage with the actual meaning of the texts. The focus on the final product undermines the importance of teaching learners about the coherence of thoughts and message in the text. Flower and Hayes (1980) also disapprove of the use of productbased pedagogy and they associate the dominance of the product approach classroom with rote learning. They argue that the approaches to writing do little to stimulate learners' thinking processes and deeper engagements with the essential writing processes.

Raimes (1983), for example, argues that the focus on the linguistic rules in the product approach ignores the varying degrees of learners' linguistic competencies as it implies that all learners in the writing classrooms are competent in the language of writing. Similarly, Raison and Rivelland (1997) claim that writing is not only about the grammatical competence of the writer; effective writing is about the writer knowing what to write about.

Secondly, it is about the writer putting together his or her thoughts in a logical manner. Thirdly, meaningful writing is about the writer's cognisance of linguistic syntax of the language of writing, tone and structure of the text. And lastly, the writer must be aware of who the reader of his or her text is. From these arguments, it is clear that we cannot

undermine the importance of appropriate use of grammatical structures; however, they should not be seen as means to an end.

Despite the criticism of the product approach for the development of learners' writing skills as highlighted by various researchers such as Widdoson (1972) and Biggs (2011) in the above sections, recent investigations about writing development in South Africa have found traces of form focused writing practices in writing classrooms (Akinyenye & Puddleman, 2016) and especially in second language classrooms (Abongdia & Mpiti, 2015; Allen, 2012; Julius, 2013, Khanyile, 2015). In her research on the teaching and learning of writing among Grade 5 learners in Grahamstown schools, Julius (2013) discovered that the writing pedagogy paid too much attention to the grammatical mistakes learners made on their final texts. Teachers in the two schools complained about learners' inability to produce texts that were grammatically correct. Even in secondary schools, Akinyenye and Puddleman (2015) and Khanyile (2015) found that teachers' feedback on learners' written tasks focused more on grammatical aspects of writing with more comments directed at spelling mistakes and tenses and less attention on the quality of the ideas. These findings are in line with the arguments made by Farrell (2006) in the above sections.

In unison, Akinyenye and Puddleman (2015) and Julius (2013) agree that too much reliance on the product approach may be detrimental to the effective development of writing skills as the method overlooks the essential cognitive skills such as planning, drafting and editing processes that competent writers go through in order to produce quality texts. However, these researchers also concur that the product approach may not necessarily be all that bad, especially for second language learners who may need linguistic and grammatical assistance in the development of ideas.

Badger and White (2000) also reiterate that the product approaches do recognise learners' need for linguistic development and competence across different texts for them to become efficient writers. Imitation is one method by which people learn. In other words, teachers are encouraged to balance the product approach with other writing approaches in order to effectively support the development of writing skills of their learners. The following section discusses on the process approach.

2.2.2.2. The Process Approach

At the beginning of the 1980s researchers began to view writing as a cognitive process. Writing was considered as a product of several stages of a writing process (Matsuda, 2003). In process writing the focus of writing instruction is on the steps involved in drafting and redrafting texts (Nunan, 1999). Learners go through different stages that writers go through when they write. These stages involve brainstorming or pre-writing, writing, revising, editing and publishing (Graves, 1996; Hyland, 2001; Raimes, 1991; Richards, 2006). “It is assumed that the stages of the writing process approach empower learners by enabling them to make decisions about the direction of their work through discussions, tasks, drafting, feedback and informed choices, thus enabling them to be responsible for making improvement themselves” (Raimes, 1991, p. 410). Graves (1996) identified basic stages of the writing process that teachers may implement in their classrooms:

- Pre-writing (selecting a topic and planning what to say)
- Writing (putting a draft version on paper)
- Revising (making changes to improve writing)
- Evaluation (assessment of the written work)

According to Graves (1996) these four stages allow learners to generate ideas before they begin to write, to revise their ideas back and forth and to edit their ideas before the publication of the final product. Similarly, Hyland (2003) believes that the writing process allows the learners to go through different writing activities independently towards the production of a coherent piece of writing. Similarly, Tribble (1996) argues that “the process approach focuses on the learners’ independent ability to produce coherent texts after going through writing activities in stages” (p. 220). This implies that in the process approach, the learners are given opportunities to be in control of their writing while the teacher plays the role of supporting the development of writing by guiding and supporting.

Contrary to the product approach, learners in the process approach are not expected to complete and produce one draft of the text; however, they are expected to go through “processes of drafting and receiving feedback on their drafts, be it from peers

and or from the teacher, followed by revision of their evolving texts” (Tribble, 1996, p. 220-221).

Feedback during the writing process is crucial as it helps the learner to see the weaknesses in his or her writing and thus improve before reaching the final stage of the writing process. Vygotsky (1978) emphasises the importance of scaffolding learners’ writing through peer support and guided activities until they are able to independently produce quality texts. In other words, learners who are learning to write in their second language require maximum support from their teachers throughout the stages of the writing process. When there is ample support, learners are motivated to write and improve their writing skills (Brown, 2001).

Teachers using the process approach put more emphasis on thinking before writing, and this is viewed as a cognitive process (Hyland, 2003). Hyland argues that “writers engage in cognitive activity which draws on the principles of thinking before they express their own ideas” (p. 86). Similarly, Brown (2007) argues that in the process approach the “importance is placed on the learner’s ability to construct their own representation of reality through writing” (p. 77). In other words, the process approach to writing allows learners to discover their own writing abilities, strengths and weakness, and through support, they transform to competent writers. Process approach gives learners an active role in their writing.

The teacher plays the role of helping learners develop their writing abilities. All in all, the process approach informs teachers that learners should go through the writing stages of deciding and choosing a topic for their writing; brainstorming, which allows the learners to gather ideas for their writing; getting started; writing their first drafts which requires ample time; getting feedback from the teacher; revising their texts while incorporating ideas from the teacher or peers; and editing of the final ideas to improve linguistic errors until the text is ready for the reader (Tribble, 1996; Hyland, 2003). Going through these processes helps the learners to understand that writing is not a linear process and that writing is not about producing one final draft but quality writing is produced over time.

The CAPS curriculum for EFAL FET phases also emphasises that teachers should use the writing process to develop the learners’ writing skills. In particular, the curriculum emphasises that teachers should teach learners strategies of brainstorming

before they write. Teachers should also make learners aware of the importance of editing their work before presenting a finished text. This implies that teachers should give learners sufficient time for writing so that they can brainstorm on a writing topic after they have been given the assignment topic. Similarly, Trupe (2001) suggests that when teachers do not have the luxury of time, as little as 10 minutes could be effective for learners to generate ideas before they are expected to begin their writing process. Echoing the need for the teaching of the writing process at high school level is Chokwe (2011) who argues that the process approach to writing is neglected at high school level and seems to be taught for the first time in higher education. Chokwe (2011) insists that perhaps that is the reason why most learners entering higher education do not have an idea of what writing process entails. Chokwe (2011) argues that learners should be exposed to the processes of writing throughout their high school years so that they are able to write adequately by the time they enter universities or work environment.

Even though the process approach has been widely accepted and recognised for developmental writing stages and for its capacity to engage learners through interactive activities between the teacher and learners as well as peers until learners can independently produce quality ideas and coherent texts, scholars like Badger and White (2000) have some reservations about the process approach. Firstly, they claim that the process approach is not clear about the development of the learners' linguistic needs across the stages of writing. In other words, the approach is not explicit in articulating the stage of writing at which the linguistic needs of the second language learners will be cultivated to support their writing. On this, Hammond (1987) argues that "most learners will struggle and eventually fail if they are left alone to figure out how language works during the writing process" (p. 77). In other words, the second language learners require more than the writing support but they also need language support to express their ideas in a coherent manner.

Secondly, Badger and White (2000) criticise the process approach for its lack of clarity on writing as a social practice as learners' environment helps to influence their purpose of writing. Furthermore, those opposing the process approach (Badger & White, 2000; Hammond, 1987) claim that the approach is not supportive enough for the teachers as it does not explicitly spell out the teaching of the text throughout the stages. For this reason, it is assumed that the process approach does not adequately prepare learners

for the demanding writing contexts (Horiwitz, 1986). To improve the negative element of the process approach, Christie (1986) suggests that teachers should not limit learners to the writing of narrative genres but they should teach learners genres that are more relevant in the outside world.

Lastly, the process approach has been criticised for assuming that all learners are well versed with different genres and therefore the responsibility of the teacher is to engage them through the writing of those genres. Feez (2002), for example, noticed that in process approach learners are seldom taught the aspects of writing such as the structure, context and purpose of the text which are also essential processes of writing. These critiques of the process approach imply that teachers should acknowledge that there is room for other approaches to complement this writing approach in their quest to develop the writing skills of learners. One approach may not meet all the learning needs of learners in the classroom. To cater for the writing needs of different learners, all with varying degrees of writing skills and linguistic competencies, teachers are expected to combine various writing approaches for the effective writing pedagogy.

Nevertheless, the curriculum recommends the use of more than one approach to develop the writing skills of learners. It is against these suggestions by the curriculum and research that this study investigated the teaching of writing among EFAL FET classrooms with the aim to explore the writing approaches prevalent in the five selected schools. The following sections discuss the genre-based approach.

2.2.2.3. The Genre-based Approach

Apart from the product and process approaches of teaching writing, genre-based approach has also gained popularity as another approach to develop learners' writing skills (Swales, 1990). Developed from Martin's (1993) Systematic Functional Linguistic (SFL) model of language, the genre-based approach places greater emphasis on the social context in which writing is produced (Badger & White, 2000; Christie, 1987). Swales (1990) describes 'genre' as a class of communicative events or text types. He further maintains that the genres that share similar communicative purposes belong to the same text-types. Derewianka (1990) identified six major school text-types and their primary social purpose. These are:

- Narratives, which tells a story usually for entertainment;

- Recount, which tells what happened;
- Information, reports whose purpose is to provide factual information;
- Instruction, which tells the readers what to do; • Explanation, which tells how something happens; and
- Expository, which presents or argues for a viewpoint.

Derewianka (1990) claims that all these types of texts serve different social purposes and these different functions decide the schematic structure and linguistic features of the texts. Swales (1990) describes the linguistic schematic structure of a text as an internal structure or text organisation in terms of introduction, body and conclusion whereas linguistic features refer to the linguistic aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, connectors and so on, which the writer uses for the expression of ideas or information into a coherent text.

Hyland (2003) argues that at the heart of the genre-based approach is the perspective that teachers should teach learners the explicit and systematic explanations of the ways language functions in social contexts. Teachers in genre-based classrooms should therefore encourage learners to explore and exploit texts from different types of genres and thus be able to communicate in different contexts for different purposes and for different audience. In explaining the role of the genre-based teacher, Hyland (2003) stresses that the teacher takes the 'authoritative' role to 'scaffold' or support the learners through guided activities as they move towards their writing goal and potential level. This scaffolding pedagogical approach is underpinned by Vygotsky's (1978) socio-linguistic theory which capitalises on the interactive and collaborative nature of a writing classroom. Vygotsky (1978) suggests that effective genre-based classrooms are the ones in which learners are provided with models and with the support of the teacher, they discuss and analyse language and structure of the presented text. Such scaffolding pedagogy, according to Vygotsky, gradually lightens as the learners independently produce their own texts parallel to the model. At such level, the role of the teacher then moves from explicit instructor to that of facilitator until learners gain writing independence.

Freedman (1994) further explains the genre-based pedagogy by pointing out that the teacher's input during the learning of writing is imperative for learners in genre-based classroom. Freedman (1992) argues that the input may not only come from the

teacher, but other learners as peers may also provide support or the model text itself. In the beginning of the lesson the teacher may provide explanations of external organisation of the text, the purpose of writing and audience of the text which all determine the structure, organisation, tone and choice of words. On the other hand, Badger and White (2000) suggest that using a model text of a particular genre can provide learners with important information about the structure and functions of syntactical and lexical aspects required by the genre learners are learning.

Flowerdew (2000) noticed similarities between the genre-based approach and the product approach in a sense that for both approaches the teachers provide a text model for learners to learn and internalise the features of the text. However, Flowerdew (2000) noted that while the product approach emphasises the linguistic and textual form over ideas, the genre-based approach moves beyond that to teach learners to understand and consider the purpose, audience and context when they write. Badger and White (2000) also think that genre-based approach is the extension of the product approach but they are also quick to point out that these two approaches differ in a sense that the product considers one draft while the genre-based approach views writing as a process in which the teacher scaffolds and provides constant support for the learners to develop their writing skills.

Feedback plays an important role in a genre-based approach. Reid (1992) argues that verbal student-teacher consultation provides input in the form of feedback which is essential for learners to understand their weaknesses and be able to provide enough information. Feedback sessions are also important to help learners where there might be illogical organisation or inadequate development of ideas (Reid, 1992). Teachers using the genre-based approach can also support their learners' writing through written feedback on their drafts instead of oral student-teacher feedback or conferencing (Reid, 1992).

Freedman (1994) argues that other learners can also provide input through peer feedback and peer editing. Peers can also provide authentic audience and discussion that can lead to discovery (Freedman, 1994; Reid, 1992). Badger and White (2000) add that feedback should be constant and positive to encourage and support learners'

motivation to write. Also, Badger and White (2000) emphasise the use of constant and detailed feedback to support the learning of writing.

Despite its advantages for the development of writing, the genre-based approach is not without its critics. Caudrey (1998) thinks that by attempting to scaffold the writing of a particular genre, teachers are not actually helping learners to learn writing. Caudrey (1998) says that by modelling the genre, the approach deprives learners the need for self-expression. Because learners in a genre-based classroom may be relying too much on the teacher to provide a model text for the learning, Caudrey (1998) argues that the approach may be counter-productive.

Myles (2002) also noted another weakness in the genre-based writing pedagogy; the author believes that learners bring diverse writing abilities and levels into the writing classroom. Learners who lack knowledge of audience and organisation may need more input while advanced learners may require little or no input. It is imperative for teachers to evaluate both the strengths and weaknesses of the genre-based approach in order to make informed pedagogical decisions.

2.2.2.4. Reader-focused Approach

Alongside the content-based approach came the reader-focused writing approach. In this approach the writer focuses on the reader's expectations and on what the reader would likely want to read (Raimes, 1983), rather than what the writer feels like writing. In other words, the reader-focused approach entails that the writer writes with the readers in mind. Raimes (1983) argues that the reader-focused approach does not view a reader as an individual but as a member of a discourse community with specific socio-cultural norms and values (Gough, 2000).

Raimes (1983) contends that academic writing is an example of a reader-focused writing. According to Weideman (2018) "academic writing is more than grammar, it has functions like exposition, clarification, and conclusion, requiring us to do things with language like explain, define, compare, classify, agree, disagree, illustrate, elaborate, make claims, see implications, infer, exemplify, anticipate, and conclude" (p.1). Zamel (1998) also argues that in a reader-focused approach learners are introduced to academic discourse which can be defined as a specialised form of reading, writing and thinking done often expected from learners in academic settings such as schools and universities. The use of normative 'specialised' by Zamel (1992) sets a boundary of

what is acceptable as academic discourse or not when learners craft their academic texts. All these arguments (Raimes, 1983); Weideman, 2018; Zamel, 1992) imply that the reader-focused approach is complicated.

Readers in a reader-focused approach are more academic and specialists or even discourse community members who value specialised type of writing, such as academic writing. This means that for learners to become members of the discourse community, have their texts understood and accepted by discourse members, it is essential that teachers teach and expose learners to these specialised ways of writing (Gee, 1990). Raimes (1983) concurs that reader-focused approach is critical for academic settings like schools, universities and post-school professional life. In other words, it is important that learners acquire these complex writing skills for them to successfully participate in academic contexts.

Even though reader-focused approach to writing is essential for secondary school learners, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) found that these learners are not adequately exposed to high order thinking and writing skills. In their own words, these scholars insist that “in most academic settings where students are learning to write, the educational system assumes that students will learn to compose with the ability to transform information. In fact, many students learning to write before they enter the tertiary level have little consistent exposure to writing demands beyond retelling” (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p.5). In other words, these two scholars criticise the forms of writing that secondary schools produce as it mostly prepares learners for “narrative accounts of memorised information” which does not challenge learners’ cognitive processes (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 5).

Writing in a reader-focused classroom, on the other hand, requires that learners engage with complex cognitive processes while they put together pieces of their thoughts into well-organised, well-argued and coherent texts. As opposed to narrative texts, learners in reader-approach classrooms would be exposed to writing tasks such as expository and argumentative or persuasive texts (Zamel, 1992). Weideman (2018) also suggests that secondary school learners should write beyond retelling texts but teachers should give them writing tasks that would prepare them for tertiary writing.

Both Grabe and Kaplan (1996) and Weideman (2018) agree that tertiary writing requires that students have the knowledge of constructing argumentative texts and

persuasive texts. This means that secondary school learners should develop adequate cognitive writing approaches like reader-focused approach so that they are able to construct texts that are appropriate and acceptable in a tertiary context. This implies that teachers must help learners develop these cognitive writing strategies to enable them to meet the writing requirements of specific tertiary contexts.

Raimes (1983) argues that teachers can teach cognitive academic discourse by developing theme-based lessons to help learners learn not only rhetoric forms but also essential practice of discourse structures. Through various essay genres such as argumentative, giving instructions, persuasive writing and cause and effect, learners can learn both content and form (Raimes, 1983). Reid (1987) also suggests that teachers can use writing tasks from different subjects across the curriculum. They can evaluate the writing purposes and audience expectations of various assignments and then present such assignments to learners.

Reid (1987) argues that the reader-focused approach can complement the product approach in a sense that teachers can teach both the rhetoric forms and academic discourse structures of the texts. Raimes (1983) contends that such integration of product and reader-focused approach may be beneficial to second language learners who may be struggling with rhetorical forms of various academic texts. The following section discusses the types of writing produced by secondary school learners.

2.4. TYPES OF TEXTS

Much attention on second language writing in secondary schools so far has been given to aspects such as approaches to teaching writing (Agastiana, 2016; Klimova, 2014; Maroof & Murat, 2013), feedback on second language writing (Nelson & Schunn, 2009), and errors in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Maruma, 2017; Riyaz, 2014). Little has been explored about the types of writing produced by secondary school second language learners, especially in South Africa where this study was carried out. Raimes (1983) concurs that the types of writing that students engage with and actually produce from their writing classrooms remains isolated. There is much revealed about the types of writing that students construct. This indicates a gap in what students write and produce, mostly in secondary schools. Nevertheless, one major

study on the types of writing produced by second language high school learners in the United States (US) is worth mentioning in this study.

In the United States (US), Applebee (1981; 2017) reports on two national studies conducted almost 30 years apart, in 1980 and 2013, examining the kinds of writing high school learners are asked to do in their writing classrooms. The study was interested in understanding whether learners were being prepared for business writing, reflective writing, argumentative writing or storytelling in narrative forms. On the other hand, the study examined best writing practices in 20 selected schools located in underprivileged communities across the states of California, Texas, Kentucky and Michigan. The schools were also selected on the basis of their reputation for excellence in the teaching of writing. 220 teachers were interviewed, 250 classrooms observed, and written work completed over one semester was collected from a total of 138 students.

Findings from the two national studies revealed noticeable changes in writing instruction across the US States. The study found that back in the 80s when the first study was conducted, 44% of writing activities in the classrooms involved pencil on paper but only 3% of writing included paragraph-length writing. Back then, when students were asked to write the typical writing assignment the length was a page or less; writing tasks began in class and were completed as homework.

The teaching of writing was limited to three minutes of presenting a task and students were expected to begin with their writing (Applebee, 1981). Findings from the 2013 study showed that much pedagogical innovation in the teaching of writing has taken place in the period of 30 years across the states. Teacher interviews indicated that their knowledge about writing instruction had improved. Teachers indicated that they used writing workshops where students were encouraged to spend time prewriting, sharing drafts and revising what they have been writing. Teachers also reported major attention to the teaching of formal writing. Analysis of students' written tasks suggested little change has taken place in the context of writing instruction over the period of 30 years. While 44% of writing occurred in the classrooms in 1980, 49% of writing in the classroom was observed in 2013. However, from that 49% only 7% involved time focused on paragraph-length writing, only a 3% increase from the study conducted in the 80s. Analysed written tasks showed that written assignment had increased to

pages in length which was completed in six days. The study also found that across the States, teachers were teaching writing for testing. This was because of the curriculum pressures against the teaching time. While back in the 80s technology did not influence writing, the study found that even in 2013, thirty years later, there was little use of technology in writing classrooms. Samples of students' written work showed that students were mostly writing argumentative and explanation writing with little room for creative writing. 3% of narrative or story telling writing was produced by students across the states (Applebee, 1981; 2017).

Even though the studies by Applebee (1980; 2017) were conducted in the US, there are similarities between these two studies and the current study. Firstly, the writing contexts in the US studies which were underprivileged schools are similar to the writing contexts of the present study which were the previously disadvantaged schools in the Pinetown District in South Africa. Secondly, both the Applebee (1980, 2013) studies and the current study explored the writing among high school learners to understand types of writing produced.

Therefore, this study of EFAL FET writing draws from such studies to understand the types of writing produced by secondary school learners at a global level. While the US studies conducted interviews to understand the teaching of writing, the current study conducted classroom observations to explore first hand experiences of how writing is taught among EFAL FET classrooms; therefore, it makes new contributions to literature. This study provides insights into the types and quality of writing produced among EFAL FET classrooms in South Africa thus extending the findings from Applebee (1980; 2013) to new contexts. The following section looks at the scaffolding techniques of different types of writing.

Across the secondary school years, learners are gradually exposed to different types of texts which they are expected to learn and understand as they are supposed to apply them in their different writing contexts across schooling curriculum (Derewianka, 1990; Swales, 1990). Derewianka (1990) identified nine major school text-types learned across secondary school level and their primary social purpose. These texttypes are Narrative, Recounts, Information, Instruction, Explanation, Expository, Procedure, Response and Description (Derewianka, 1990). Furthermore, Derewianka (1990) argues that these different text-types all serve different social purposes which,

in turn, decide the linguistic conventions, schematic structure and linguistic features of the text.

According to Derewianka (1990) social purpose explains when and why learners might use a particular text type. Language features, on the other hand, refer to the fact that different text-types demand different linguistic repertoires. It is therefore important that teachers support learners' vocabulary to help them with lists of words they should use while constructing a particular text-type. Derewianka (1990) argues that each piece of writing has a specific role within the entire text piece. In scaffolding the structure of a particular text, teachers are helping learners to understand the outline and order of the parts of the text.

Swales (1990) also emphasises that the linguistic schematic structure of a text refers to, among other features, aspects such as the organisation of ideas into introduction, body and conclusion. Linguistic features, on the other hand, can be regarded as qualities such as grammar, vocabulary and so on, all of which is important for a coherent text. Different teaching strategies are effective for different text-types (Derewianka, 1990). This means that teachers should understand these different texttypes and strategies that are effective for the text that they are teaching in order to effectively develop the knowledge of that genre to their learners. It is therefore important that teachers understand these text-types and how to teach them in their classrooms.

The following sections will discuss these text-types that learners mostly come across before they complete their FET phase and scaffolding techniques for each text-type, starting with the narrative text.

2.4.1. Essays

Narrative

A narrative text has multiple purposes. It can entertain, instruct or inform the reader by telling a story (Adam, 2015). Ramagoshi (2011) argues that even though a narrative is a creative piece, it still requires that learners carefully choose words to produce an interesting text. On the other hand, Maley (2009) notes it is important that teachers spend time when teaching a narrative because it is important for the development of intuition, imagination and self-expression of feelings, experiences and beliefs.

Derewianka (1990) asserts that teaching of a narrative should not be limited to the language classroom; teachers across the curriculum subjects can foster narrative writing skills. For example, in a Visual Arts classroom, learners can be asked to write a narrative about a painting. Likewise, in a History class, teachers can ask learners to write a narrative text about the life of political prisoners in Robben Island, and so on. In an English class, learners can write about a narrative featuring a hero and a villain.

Derewianka (1999) argues that the teaching of a narrative should stress the use of verbs to indicate actions. Learners should also learn how to use time connectives to show order of actions or events in the story, from the earliest event right up to the last action. This helps the reader to follow the storyline from the beginning to the end (Ramagoshi, 2011). Furthermore, Maley (2009) maintains that practice in the use of descriptive language helps learners to improve their narration. The use of proper nouns to portray characters and places in the story makes the story more authentic to the reader (Maley, 2009).

According to Derewianka (1990), teachers should emphasise that the structure of a narrative text is made out of three components: orientation, body and conclusion. In the orientation part, learners are expected to explain to the reader who was involved in the story (characters), what happened (event), where it happened (setting) and when it happened (time). The teaching of the body of a narrative must take learners through the process of learning how to produce a series of paragraphs that move through three stages: complication, series of events that move to a climax and resolution or temporal solution.

According to Ramagoshi (2011), this cognitive build-up of the storyline helps the reader to follow the storyline from the beginning to the end. Moreover, Maley (2009) states that it is important that teachers spend time teaching a narrative because it is important for the development of intuition, imagination and self-expression of feelings, experiences and beliefs. The ending part of a narrative often shows how the characters have changed and exactly what they learnt from the experiences they went through in the story-line.

Descriptive

Frost (2013) says that the purpose of a descriptive text is to describe the characteristic features of a person, an object, an image or a particular place. Describing skills are essential for secondary school learners as they are expected to provide some form of description across different subjects. Frost (2013) claims that high school learners are most likely to encounter descriptive tasks. In language classrooms, for example, learners could be asked to describe their famous leaders, themselves, their families or communities (Frost, 2013).

McLean (2011) also adds that an appropriate description task is the one that is relevant and interesting to the learners. Interesting and relevant writing tasks also inspire and motivate writing in second language (Derewianka, 1999). As the word denotes, a descriptive text uses descriptive and technical language in the present tense (Mclean, 2011). In scaffolding the structure of the descriptive texts, Frost (2013) maintains that teachers must stress the components of the structure which are opening statement, body and concluding comment. In the opening statement learners provide a general statement or definition to identify the person or thing being described. The body of the text consists of a series of paragraphs that describe the characteristic feature of the person or thing. Frost (2013) argues that in high schools learners are generally asked to write five paragraph essays. In a conclusion, learners are expected to provide a statement that summarises the description (Frost, 2013).

Discursive

According Macken-Horarik (2002) a discursive text provides information about different sides of an issue or topic. The topics of discursive texts are often presented in the form of question to drive the writer into taking a particular stance. For example, learners could be asked to write about a topic '*Should scientist use animals to test cosmetics?*' The strategy of writing could involve the use of words that show cause and effect to reveal two sides of the issue. Discursive texts also use persuasive language sparingly (Frost, 2013).

Learners need to pay more attention to the structure of the discursive text. It consists of an opening statement where the writer presents the main argument and provides background information on the topic or issue. The opening statement also outlines the different viewpoints that will be used (Ramagoshi, 2011). The second component of

the structure is the body which is made up of a series of paragraphs in which the writer outlines the arguments for and against, including the evidence for different points of view (Frost, 2013). Ramagoshi (2011) adds that learners should be encouraged to support their arguments by evidence such as examples or even quotes. MackenHorarik (2002) states that a conclusion provides the summing up of all the arguments and viewpoints presented in the discussion. The writer may offer a recommendation in favour of one side.

Recounts

A recount text tells events in a chronological order (Ramagoshi, 2011). This text can be factual or literary. In other words, learners can write about imaginative events or tell true-life events in a chronological manner. For example, teachers can give a topic “*Life in history*” or “*My adventure in Durban*”. What is important as Frost (2013) stresses is that learners understand that when writing a recount text they should use the past tense. The use of descriptive words paints a clear picture in the reader’s mind of what the writer is saying. To show the sequence between events, the writer may use time connectives such as firstly, secondly, etc. (Christie, 1986). Ramagoshi (2011) explains that the structure of a recount text has three parts: orientation, body and reorientation. In the orientation, the writer gives the reader information about who was involved, what happened, where it happened and when it happened. And then a series of paragraphs that retell the events in a chronological order forms the body of the text. The writer must write a new paragraph for each event or aspect of a recount. In the reorientation section, the writer provides his or her personal comment about the events he/she has just retold.

2.4.2. Procedures

Christie and Derewianka (2010) maintain that this type of genre is written to give instructions and inform people about how to do something through a series of steps. Learners at high school level are expected to show their competency in showing, through steps, how to do something. For example, in Maths, learners may be asked to provide procedures in subtraction, multiplication and so on. Or, in English, learners may be asked to inform the audience on how to play soccer or to make a salad, etc.

The key is to be as clear and concise as possible so as not to mislead the reader but to guide until the procedure is complete (Ramagoshi, 2011). According to Christie and Derewianka (2010), when writing a procedure, learners must pay attention to the language features. Procedures use commands, technical language, and they also use words and phrases to specify time, place, and participants (Ramagoshi, 2011). The structure of the procedure has an opening statement which gives the reader the goal or the aim of an activity. The writer will then list the equipment or materials required to carry out the activity from the beginning to the end. In the method section, the writer then guides the reader by listing the steps required to complete the goal in a chronological order. Learners are encouraged to use numbers to indicate or signal a new command or instruction (Christie & Derewianka, 2010; Ramagoshi, 2011).

2.4.3. Reviews

The purpose of review text is to summarise, analyse and evaluate work of art such as a visual art, books, music, film, and so on. A good review text uses descriptive language, modality and words that show cause and effect. Review texts also use technical language (Ramagoshi, 2011). Teachers must drive learners to understand that a review text is written in a present tense while persuasive language is also used abundantly. When writing a review text one should pay attention to the fact that the structure is composed of context, description and concluding statement (Frost, 2013). The context gives background information about the art work being discussed. The description section consists of a series of paragraphs that describe elements of the art work and, lastly, the concluding statement consists of a paragraph which summarises the writer's opinion about the art work and the writer's final judgment or recommendation (Ramagoshi, 2011).

2.4.4. Letters

Letters, formal (business) and informal (friendly) are also types of texts mostly taught in schools. Snodgrass (1997) argues that even in the advent of technology, letters, both formal and informal, are still used as substitutes for spoken conversations in many different contexts of society, from business fraternity to family social contexts. Letters, as means of communication, remain relevant and applicable. These are the reasons why teachers should effectively teach the writing of letters so that learners are

adequately informed of the strategies and formats of different types of letters and how different letters apply to different contexts (Burbidge, Gray, Levy, & Rinvolutri, 1996).

In teaching the letters, Burbidge et al. (1996) argues that teachers should make learners aware of their contextual use. Letters are generally spontaneous, private and personal. They are non-literary and they are not generally written for the public eyes. They normally serve as written proof of a person's message to another. Letters are written for different purposes. According to Snodgrass (1997), letters can be written to say thank you, to express sympathy, to congratulate, to invite someone to occasions, to reply to invitations, to ask questions, to order goods, to promote goods, to complain, to apply for jobs and so on.

Friendly letters or letters to friends and family are usually uncomplicated. They also have a personal tone and usually generous with details (Snodgrass, 1997). Business letters, on the other hand, communicate messages among business people like secretaries, executives, politicians or even sales people. Teachers should emphasise that business letters are written in formal tone. They are strictly informative and they also avoid emotional and personal responses. Teachers should also stress that business letters usually provide facts and they are concise.

Another important use of letters that is worth the teachers' focus is the structure of the letters. Snodgrass (1997) maintains that the main body of a letter usually consists of three parts: introduction, the main body, and the conclusion. In business letters, sometimes the heading is necessary to help the reader identify the reason of writing the letter. In most cases, the heading or the subject line is bolded or underlined which indicates that it is a formal letter. Learners must also understand that letters of different purposes take different structures and different organisation of information. The reason for writing is explained in the introductory paragraph and the other paragraphs contain the supporting reasons or elaborations of ideas. And then the ending contains the calling for action or indication of anticipation or even expectation (Burbidge et al. 1996).

They must avoid redundant words but should aim to transmit the message to the recipient, to move the recipient to take action, and to persuade the recipient with friendly feelings towards the writer or his or her company. Therefore, when writing formal letters, learners should always aim for clarity, simplicity as well as politeness.

Active voice is always encouraged for business letters as it is more forceful and direct (Burbidge et al. 1996).

Bosticco (1985) in Snodgrass (1996) noted that teachers, especially in secondary levels, often assume that learners have already acquired all the knowledge of producing a good letter which perfectly responds to the reason for writing and they barely teach letters. They only assign the writing tasks and expect learners to apply their previous knowledge to the tasks. In most cases, especially in second language classrooms, learners need reinforcement of the knowledge they already have for them to gain trust in their knowledge and develop confidence in their writing. Snodgrass (1996), therefore, encourages teachers to explicitly teach the writing of letters, regardless of the level of education. The following section discusses the EFAL FET writing curriculum.

2.5. THE EFAL WRITING CURRICULUM

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements for English First Additional Language, FET Phases (DoE, 2012) gives clear guidelines for the types of texts as well as approaches that the teachers should use to develop and to enhance the writing skills of learners. EFAL is the language learned by learners after a home language. In South Africa, most learners have home language that differ from the school language. For example, learners in this study have isiZulu as a home language and they acquire English as first additional language in school. EFAL has similar meaning with English Second Language (ESL) or English Foreign Language (EFL) as widely used globally. Table A below is a summary of written texts that the curriculum expects learners to produce within the three years of the FET phase.

Table A: Types of written texts to be suggested by EFAL FET learners

Texts	Grades	Number of words
Essays Narrative/ argumentative/ discursive/ descriptive/ reflective	10	150 – 200
	11	200 – 250
	12	250 – 300

<p>Longer transactional texts:</p> <p>Friendly/formal letters (request/ complaint/application/ business/ thanks/congratulations/ sympathy)/formal and informal letters to the press/ curriculum vitae and covering letter/obituary/agenda and minutes of meeting/report/book or film review/newspaper article/ magazine article/brochure/speech/dialogue/written interview</p>	<p>10 – 12</p>	<p>120 – 150 (content only)</p>
<p>Shorter transactional texts:</p> <p>Advertisements/Diary entries/ Postcards/ Invitation cards/Filling in forms/Directions/Obituary/Instructions/Flyers/ Posters/emails</p>	<p>10 – 12</p>	<p>80 – 100</p>

The first column of the table shows the types of texts (essays, longer transactional texts and shorter transactional texts) that teachers must teach in Grades 10, 11 and 12. The last column shows how much learners must write, in terms of the number of words, in each grade. For example, the curriculum suggests that learners in Grade 10 must produce essays of 150 – 200 words (approximately 1 to 1½ pages of hand written words). In Grade 11, learners must produce essays of 200 – 250 words (approximately 2 pages of hand written words).

The EFAL FET curriculum also specifies that teachers should use the process approach to teach writing. With this suggestion, the curriculum provides the stages of the writing process that teachers should teach as well as activities that teachers may use to engage learners in the different stages of the writing process. This study explored the extent to which the curriculum is linked to the practice in this study. The following section looks at the stages of the writing lesson.

2.6. STAGES OF THE WRITING LESSON

Unlike speaking, writing is not acquired in a natural way. Writing must be taught if learners are to write effectively, especially if they are writing in their second language (Maley, 2009). Maley (2009) argues that teaching writing is not only about teaching learners about grammar and the correct use of writing conventions but learners must also learn how to use conventions of different genres correctly in their second language writing. Explicit teaching of writing is therefore crucial. Based on the stages of the writing process, Flower and Hayes (1981) developed the following four stages of a writing lesson. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), the stages could be

implemented in a group learning classroom environment or when learners write as individuals.

Stage 1: Generating ideas

Before they begin their writing, learners should think about what they will or what they want to write about. For meaningful writing, learners must be given ample time to plan their writing and be guided into discovering ideas about their topic of writing (Badger & White, 2000). Generating ideas may not be an easy task for second language learners. Often, they run out of ideas for their writing and they need more support and assistance at the beginning of their writing. Flower and Hayes (1981) noted that at this stage, the teachers are more concerned with helping learners understand the writing task or problem. For second language learners, this might mean that the teacher breaks down the writing topic so that learners understand it clearly for them to be able to reflect creatively on the topic (Badger & White, 2000). Second language learners may even need a teacher's assistance to explain the topic by drawing from the learners' backgrounds so that they can relate it to their own experiences and backgrounds. Thorough understanding of the topic is important as it influences the writer's understanding of his or her audience, generation of ideas and how much he or she can write on the topic as well as organisation of ideas during the writing process (Flower & Hayes, 1981).

Furthermore, Flower and Hayes argue that it is difficult for learners who are uncertain about the writing topic or context of their writing to effectively progress to the second stage of writing which is implementing the writing strategies appropriate for the writing task. Badger and White (2000) assert that teachers can give different activities to help learners generate ideas for their writing, irrespective of the genre they are writing. For example, when learners are writing a letter of complaint, they can think about the time they have complained about bad service they received in a retail shop or when they received faulty goods. They role play the scenarios to generate vocabulary or they can tell their peers of such experiences.

Maley (2009) also observed that at the beginning of writing, second language learners often struggle to come up with original ideas on the topic. She therefore suggests that teachers may give learners an essay title and give them 3-4 minutes to work on the topic alone by writing down any ideas that come to their minds about the topic.

Learners should be encouraged to write as many ideas as they can. This may break the barrier of '*I can't think of anything*', says Maley (2009).

Stage 2: The Writer's long-term memory

The second stage of the writing model requires that learners utilise their knowledge of various writing strategies or techniques to select one suitable for the writing task at hand (Flowers & Hayes, 1981). The learners' long term memory where they store the knowledge of the various writing techniques is paramount for this stage. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), the writers' long-term memory is key as it serves as a reservoir for the writer in getting the knowledge that will help him to respond to the demands of the writing problem. Knowledge of various writing methods, for example, might help the learner to identify the appropriate technique to apply in order to solve the writing problem. However, the writer without any long-term memory or previous knowledge might struggle with choosing the writing strategy relevant for the topic.

Flowers and Hayes (1981) argue that weak writers may find this activity cognitively challenging and not easy to learn. Therefore, the teachers' varied instruction on writing techniques is important. Some learners may benefit from creating an outline before they write while others begin to write and develop their text through discoveries made during the writing process. Kellogs (2008) also found that gaining the domain-specific expertise allows learners to retrieve relevant knowledge from long-term memory at the right moment.

Without enough knowledge of writing strategies, learners are often not able to implement the appropriate writing techniques when they are required to craft their texts. In other words, the crafting stage requires that learners must have been exposed to different writing strategies to enable them to make appropriate choices (Flowers & Hayes, 1981). This implies that teachers must teach writing strategies such as brainstorming, free writing, drafting and peer-editing, for example, for learners to be able to store them in their long-term memory and be able to utilise them to manage their writing processes when crafting their texts, which is the next stage of the writing model (Kellogs, 2000).

Stage 3: Crafting the text

According to Flower and Hayes, the crafting stage engages the learners in the actual writing of their texts. In this stage, it is assumed that from the previous stage learners have successfully retrieved the writing strategies relevant for the writing task and the writing environment from their memories, or the teachers have taken them through the writing strategies to prepare learners for the writing stage. Now, they are actually implementing. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), the third element of the writing model consists of cognitive processes of planning, drafting, revising and editing. In this stage, learners are now actually writing their texts, implementing the writing stages they have retrieved from their long-term memories in the previous stage.

Flower and Hayes argue that this is a cognitive stage of the writing model. It is cognitive in a sense that learners are expected to think and reflect on their planning processes and continue to reflect on their ideas throughout the writing process. Flower and Hayes (ibid) discovered that even though writing does not improve for some learners, their reflective processes improved. They also maintain that the crafting stage is not linear but recursive in a sense that all the processes may overflow from one process to another. For example, during the planning process learners may generate ideas by brainstorming the topic, the audience and the context of writing. And then those ideas could be reviewed throughout the processes of drafting and revising as more thoughts and ideas are provided during the peer review or from the teacher's feedback sessions (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Furthermore, Flower and Hayes (ibid) are of the view that the writing process 'is a flow of activities in which the writer goes backward between drafting and revising' (p. 375).

The crafting stage may consist of pre-writing activities like brainstorming and discussion of the topic, audience and context of writing which can all encourage interactions between the teacher and learners, as well as interactions among learners. These pre-writing activities are important for learners as they get opportunities to confirm ideas that are relevant for the topic and to reject those ideas that do not respond to the topic of writing (Tribble, 1991). Steel (2004) also asserts that brainstorming activities are important as they motivate learners to freely express their thoughts and ideas on the topic of writing prior to writing.

Brainstorming also encourages learners to listen and to consider others' ideas (Tribble, 1991). It also promotes interactions among learners and the active use of language. The teacher may introduce brainstorming by posing a question related to the topic of writing or by introducing the topic. Learners then generate ideas and relevant words through free talk and debates. The teacher can also provide a brainstorming diagram on the board in which learners' ideas can be structured into different sections of the text such as introduction, body and conclusion.

Li (2007) also discovered that the free writing technique can be used by teachers as a pre-writing activity. Free writing is a pre-writing technique in which learners write continuously for a set of period of time without regard to spelling and grammar. Initially advocated by Elbow (1973, 1998), free writing is defined as "writing without stopping and editing" (Li, 2007, p.1). According to Li (2007), free writing is a powerful technique for helping learners develop writing. Elbow (1998) argues that "in the simplest terms, free writing refers to the act of writing quickly for a set time from ten to fifteen minutes, just putting down whatever is in the mind, without pausing and worrying about what words to use, and without going back to modify what has been written; it only requires that you never stop" (p. 3). In other words, free writing produces raw thoughts and ideas but it also helps learners to overcome blocks of apathy and self-criticism about their own writing (Klimova, 2013).

Free writing technique may help learners to think and come up with ideas about the topic without worrying much about the language structures such grammar and vocabulary. In other words, free writing promotes free thinking about the writing topic. Klimova (2013) also found that in multilingual classrooms, learners can also switch to their mother tongue during free writing when the second language becomes an obstacle to the production of quality ideas.

Klomova (2013) then suggests that observed ideas generated in a home language can be translated into the second language after the free writing session. All ideas generated during free writing may be important as the learners review and revise their writing (Klimova, 2013). Moreover, Yi (2007) also noticed that free writing is a writing strategy prevalent at university levels so secondary school learners can benefit from

being exposed to the strategy as this will put them at an advantage before they join the demanding writing contexts of the university (Yi, 2007).

The brainstorming stage is followed by the drafting process. Hassan and Akhand (2010) suggests that this process is more effective if it is done in the classroom in pairs or small groups so that learners share ideas and get opportunities to evaluate each other's idea with the assistance and guidance from the teacher. When it is done as homework, chances are high that learners may not be able to produce quality thoughts without the support of peers or the teacher (Hassan & Akhand, 2010).

Likewise, Flower and Hayes (1981) stresses that this cognitive process entails that learners work with brainstormed ideas to construct sentences and new ideas. In this recursive process, learners may formulate sentences, organise ideas and translate them into paragraphs and review this process to expand on the ideas if necessary. Flower and Hayes (1981) refer to this entire process of embedding and sub-process of writing as 'recursion' (p. 375). The system is recursive in a way that the processes are not viewed in isolation from one another but as sub-processes towards effective writing.

Stage 4: Feedback process

Feedback from the teacher and from peers during the drafting stage is an essential sub-process as it strengthens the recursive nature of the writing process. The teacher provides feedback through one-on-one meetings or the peers exchange drafts so that learners become the readers of each other's work. By reading each other's work and responding, learners actually gain awareness that they are producing texts to be read by someone else, and that alone can motivate and improve the drafts (White & Arndt, 1991).

Hassan and Akhand (2011) stress the importance of providing learners with some guidelines for peer feedback so that "learners can look for specific textual features" (p 375). Drafts are returned to the writers for improvement based on the feedback from the teacher or the peer. The final draft is then a produced text which can be evaluated by the teacher and further feedback provided for improvement towards the future tasks.

The model proposed by Flower and Hayes (1981) has been recognised for many decades in different language classrooms across the globe to successfully support writing development and to improve the writing of learners (Steel, 2004; Maley, 2009; Kellogs, 2008). Kellogs (2008) argues that “this writing model may support writing teachers and learners to get a clearer understanding of the key steps and thought patterns that occur throughout the writing stages and process” (p. 36). The model also supports teachers with explicit ways to follow as they attempt to teach writing in their classrooms.

In essence, teachers in language classrooms where learners are struggling with writing can scaffold writing development using this model. The model can also support writing pedagogical practices as it provides writing instruction stage by stage. In this study, the Flower and Hayes writing model was used to understand how much of these writing stages, if any all, were used to support the writing development in EFAL FET learners. That is, how much of the writing pedagogy among EFAL FET classrooms involved the writing stages as suggested by Flower and Hayes (1981) to enhance the writing skills of learners.

2.7. SOCIO-CULTURAL LEARNING THEORY

Much of the work on socio-cultural theory emanates from the ideas of Vygotsky (1978); however, scholars such as Christie (1989) have extended, elaborated and refined the theory over the decades. The following section expounds on the historical roots of the socio-cultural theory, the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development; the concept of scaffolding, as well as implications of the theory on the teaching and learning of writing in second language contexts.

2.7.1. Historical Background of the Socio-cultural theory

It is the Russian philosopher, Lev Vygotsky (1896 – 1934), who is mostly recognised for the socio-cultural theory. At the heart of socio-cultural theory is Vygotsky’s perspective that “the social dimension of consciousness is primary in time and in fact. The individual dimension of consciousness is derivative and secondary” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 30). Implied by this perspective is that the individual’s cognitive development is not simply a consequence of his social interaction, rather the specific constructions

and developments revealed in individuals can be traced to their interactions with others (Wertsch, 1998).

In fact, it was Wertsch (1991) who suggested three main tenets in Vygotsky's perspectives that connects individual, social processes and learning. The first notion, according to Wertsch (1991), is that the basis for an individual's development, including the development of higher cognitive functions, is the social connections. Vygotsky (1978) argues that cognitive development of a child occurs at two levels: at intermental level or social level between people and at intramental level or psychological level within the child.

What Vygotsky is saying is that in a learning context as learners work together in joint activities and embrace the effects of working together they develop new constructs of their world and of their culture. For further clarification, Vygotsky (1978) illustrates how a child gains cognitive development through interactions with adults or caregivers within the home environment. Vygotsky, however, highlights that the child's cognitive development is not only made possible by what the knowledgeable others bring into the interaction but also by what the child brings to the interactions; the interactions are shaped by the cultural and social backgrounds.

The second theme in Vygotsky's social theory according to Wertsch (1991) is the human action, both at social and individual levels. Wertsch (1991) identified that such human actions are facilitated by tools and signs including the language, symbols, numbers, work of art, writing, diagrams, maps, drawings, computers and calculators and all sorts of means which are useful in the facilitation and internalisation of knowledge and which assist towards the future independent problem solving abilities.

The third view of the socio-cultural theory as noted by Wertsch (1991) is the development process, as a result of both the first and the second tenets of the Vygotsky (1978) theory. In support of the theory, Wertsch (1991) argues for interdependency between development and interaction as pillars of the socio-cultural theory. According to Wertsch (1991), learning awakens a variety of internal

developmental processes which can function only when the child is interacting with people in his social environment and with his peers.

Werstch (1991) noticed that learning itself is not, however, actually developmental. But it is the well-structured learning activities that result in mental development and which set the development processes that would have been impossible without learning. Wertsch (1991), therefore, points out that it is learning that is properly organised that leads to cognitive development. In that sense, learning and development is interconnected. In support of these notions, Vygotsky (1978) developed a concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

2.7.2. The Zone of Proximal Development

The concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (proximal means 'next') refers to the difference between what learners can do without help of the adults or knowledgeable peers and what they cannot do. The concept recognises the significant role of interactions and social context in learning and development. According to Vygotsky (1978), ZPD is an area of learning that occurs when a learner in the social context such as a classroom or any collaborative context is assisted by a teacher or a peer with a higher set of skills. The ZPD concept was developed by Vygotsky (1978) as a new approach after noticing some learning tasks were more challenging than others and that some learners therefore require more support than the others.

Some learners are unable to complete a task without the assistance of the teacher or a peer. In fact, Vygotsky (1978) argues that in order to understand the relationship between development and learning, two levels must be observed: the learner's actual level of development and the potential level of development.

The learner's actual level of development refers to the achievement a learner can display independently as opposed to the accomplishment a learner can demonstrate with assistance from peers and knowledgeable others. ZPD therefore ensures that learning is matched in one way or the other with the learner's level of development (Vygotsky, 1978). The role of the teacher or peers will then be to help the learner achieve the skill that the learner is trying to master. The teacher or peers provide support until the learner is able to perform the task unassisted (Vygotsky, 1978).

Vygotsky (1978) maintains that ZPD is 'the distance is between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers' (p. 85). The ZPD was considered a better indicator of cognitive development rather than what learners achieved without any support. Effective and productive classroom interactions are therefore the ones that orient the learners towards their ZPD. Otherwise, there is a gap between instruction and the learners' development (Vygotsky, 1978).

According to Vygotsky (1978), "the only good learning is that which is in advance of development" (p. 89). For teachers, the ZPD perspective is significant in examining the nature of activities that learners participate in when they engage in collaborative exercises and how these engagements shape other learning activities. Furthermore, Vygotsky (1978) argues that any development maturity happens within a particular internal zone. For a complete developmental maturation within the ZPD, Vygotsky says that there are factors that are important. These include the types of support, the sequence in which the types of help are offered, the flexibility or rigour of previously formed structures, and how willing the learner is to collaborate. Such contextual factors can impact the level of potential development (Vygotsky, 1978). In the same vein, Vygotsky (1978) stresses that in a learning context, it is not only important to look at what learners are capable of doing on their own, but it is also essential to look at what they are capable of doing in a social setting or within a group. Vygotsky (1978) observed that learners are usually capable of completing a task within a group before they are able to complete it on their own. In this case, Vygotsky maintains that the teacher's responsibility is to move the learner's mind forward step-by-step.

While Vygotsky asserts that learning should match the level of learners in terms of complexity of knowledge, he also claims that teachers cannot teach all learners the same way. Teachers must determine which learners are ready for which learning and type of support. In a writing lesson, for example, teachers often give the same type of essay for their assessment. The problem with this, according to Vygotsky (1978), is that assessments only measure what learners can do on their own, not in a group

setting where their minds are challenged by their peers. Vygotsky, therefore, argues that before teachers set tasks for individual assessment, they should provide an environment for maximum cognitive development of the learner. In a second language classroom, like in the context of this study, Vygotsky (1978) says that scaffolding with the ZPD can be useful to learners and teachers.

2.7.3. Mediation of Learning

Vygotsky (1978) as cited by Akinyenye (2015) describes mediation as actions, in the form of learning processes, undertaken by the teachers and learners through interactions within their socio-cultural contexts. Vygotsky (1978) in Akinyenye (2015) argues that mediation is the cornerstone of the socio-cultural theory. Gibbons (2006) maintains that meaningful learning becomes possible only if a competent teacher understands how to mediate the learning process using various tools such as learning resources, learners' interactions, curriculum, and teacher-learner interactions in the classroom.

The methods and strategies employed by the teacher to manage the mediation process determine the extent to which the learners can move from one level of understanding to the next. Learners move from the level of what they already know to the level of what they do not know, where learning actually occurs. This means that mediation relies on two important elements: the teacher (human) mediation and the learning materials (symbolic tools), according to Kozul (2003) as cited in Akinyenye (2015). Both these elements play fundamental roles in enhancing learning and performance of the learner.

In other words, mediation emphasises that teachers are important facilitators of learning through the use of interactions, effective and relevant learning resources in their classrooms. Mediation also takes into cognisance the importance of active participatory learning through interactive activities. In that way, learners do not become passive participants who wait for the information from the teacher (Kozul, 2003) in Akinyenye (2015).

2.7.4. Scaffolding

Although the ZPD has been interpreted differently by different scholars over the decades, however, it is associated with “pedagogical approaches that explicitly provide support for the performance of tasks to be performed without assistance later” (Carstens, 2009, p. 69). It also refers to a variety of instructional techniques that teachers use to move learners progressively towards a stronger cognition and comprehension, and, ultimately, to a greater level of independency in their learning process (Vygotsky, 1978).

In the 1960s, psychologist Bruner also regarded scaffolding as a process in which teachers model or demonstrate how to solve learning problems and then take a step back and offer support while learners work together to tackle the problems using the skills learnt. Bruner (1978) believed that when learners are given support they need while learning new concepts; they stand a better chance of using that knowledge independently. However, Bruner (1960) realised the importance of interactions and three modes or representations during the learning process: actions, images and language.

Meanwhile, Lave and Wenger (1991) in Carstens (2009) identify two scaffolding domains: the cultural and the societal/collectivism features.

2.7.4.1. Two Domains of Scaffolding

The Cultural domain

According to Wenger (1991), in Carstens (2009) the cultural view of scaffolding is the “distance between the cultural knowledge provided by the socio-historical context - usually made accessible through instruction - and the everyday experience of individuals” (p. 48). This view, according to Carsten (2009), is based on Vygotsky’s (1978) distinction between complex or scientific concepts and everyday concepts, and on his opinion that an advanced concept is achieved when scientific and everyday concepts have fused. Cognition is completed when both the cultural knowledge and the scientific knowledge have been internalised. This notion places learners’ cultural backgrounds at the forefront of their learning process and acquisition of new abstract knowledge.

In support of the importance of advanced members to help novices in the process of learning, John (2002) in Carstens (2009) argues that teachers often expect that their learners will be able to write difficult genres without much support. John (2002) adds that “by their very nature, students are novices and apprentices, and we, as teachers, have an obligation to initiate them” in Carstens (2009, p. 69). Teachers are regarded as experts in the classroom and are, therefore, expected to guide and support learners as they learn new ways of writing. In that light, Gallimore and Tharp (1990) suggest methods through which teachers can scaffold writing.

Firstly, Gallimore and Tharp (1990) recommend modelling or the process of imitation. Secondly, they suggest monitoring or supervision through rewards and punishment. Teachers can also scaffold through constructive peer feedback and evaluation to guide the learners towards their writing goals; they can also provide cognitive structuring through structures of explanation or cognitive activities. Lastly, Gallimore and Tharp (1990) recommend that teachers can instruct through giving directives. All these strategies, according to Gallimore and Tharp (1990), strive on teacher guidance and collaboration among learners. The learner collaborations accounts for assumptions that learners process the concepts and skills better when multiple perspectives and information are provided by group members as opposed to a single view on the problem.

Hatch, Flashner and Hunt (1986) in Carstens (2009) refer to the collaborative peer assisted learning as “the experience model of language learning”. In their model, they explain how interactions between the expert language users and the learners are able to construct and refine knowledge systems. In a language classroom collaborative learning between expert language users and learners can ensure that when learners encounter new knowledge, it is cross-examined by experts against the previous knowledge and the new information is progressively refined and reorganised for efficiency (Hatch, Flashner & Hunt, 1986) in Carstens (2009).

Carstens (2009) argues that in the language classrooms the scaffolding perspective is significant as it provides a learning environment in which “the learning is guided via learners’ interactions with other learners who either explicitly or implicitly provide them

with information about preferred discourse structures and relevant linguistic features in their interactions” (p. 70). Ohta (2000) also makes a profound comment about how second language learners are able to reach maximum levels of achievement by working collaboratively and by providing help to one another. This was found to be more than what a learner can achieve when working individually (Ohta, 2000).

The collectivist or societal domain

Lave and Wenger (1991) in Carstens (2009) argue that the societal view of scaffolding is the “distance between the everyday actions of individuals and the historically new form of the societally embedded I [...] everyday action” (p. 49). According to Carstens (2009), this view of scaffolding emerges from the perspective that learning is not limited to the classroom context but it extends to the socio-cultural contexts where the adults and the newcomers exchange practices. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), this view supports the idea of the role of social interactions in the learning process. This is also echoed by Vygotsky (1978) when he states that “... all higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals” (p. 57). Complete development and cognition therefore requires social interaction.

2.8. WRITING AS A SOCIAL PRACTICE

Scholars like Barton and Hall (2000) and Zamel (1992) view writing as a social practice. A social practice, according to Scriber (1990), is “a socially-constructed activity organised around some common objects ... [and] is comprised of current and interrelated goal-directed actions. Participants in a practice master its knowledge and technology and acquire the mental and manual skills needed to apply them to the accomplishment of action’s goals” (p. 89).

Relating writing to social practice, Barton (2000) argues that what we write, how we write and why we write are largely defined by our social participation within a particular social context. A school, for example, is a social context in which learners, through participating in the school culture and through sharing of ideas and issues, gain knowledge of writing and resources that are constituent to the school community (Bloome, 2000).

As early as the 1960s, language theorists like Kaplan noticed the influence of culture on the writing practices of second language writers. Kaplan (1978) notes that since writing is the articulation of the writer's thought processes and since the writer's thinking processes are largely influenced by his or her background or culture, it is highly possible that culture and writing are interconnected. In the same way, Atikson (2004) asserts that writing should not be viewed as an isolated classroom activity or 'product' independent of cultural and social influences. It is vital to take into consideration "the processes that produce the product" (p. 282). In the same way, O'Connor (2004) explains that:

....the field has moved to emphasize the social situation of writing. Today writing is increasingly regarded as being socially situated; each situation may entail special consideration to audience, purposes, level of perfection and correspondingly may require varying amounts of revision, collaboration and attention to detail (p. 293).

Emerging from these explanations by O'Connor (2004) is the significance of context in second language writing. Similarly, language theorists (Mascla, 2013; Zamel, 1992) have also long proclaimed writing as a social practice. According to Barton and Hall (2000), what learners learn about writing, whether right or wrong, is mostly influenced by their social practices.

As Julius (2013) puts it, "learners' homes, family, neighbourhood, school and local community, all offer relevant social contexts for learners writing practices" (p. 8). Similarly, Hayland (2007) asserts that learners develop and learn writing skills through 'active' participation with their social and cultural contexts, including their classroom. Julius (2013) also observed an inextricable connection in which classrooms influence the ways of reading and writing.

In the same way, Zamel (2000) argues that writing as a social practice depends largely on the language and teachers' ways of facilitating writing development. The role of the language teacher is to present writing as means of interaction with others within the social context and, thus, use writing to share ideas about relevant issues affecting their social contexts. Teachers, according to Mazur (2014), should also provide

opportunities in the classroom for such articulation of ideas to take place through writing.

According to Keaster (2014), “the ultimate aim, of any comprehensive approach to teaching writing, is to produce confident, competent and independent writers who write for people” (p. 55). Keaster maintains that if learners are to be effective writers, they must approach writing as a social practice and a purposeful task with intended readers in mind. Bloome (2000) maintains that the crucial role of language teachers is to make learners discover that writing can be used as a tool for expressing issues relevant to their lives and to provide writing opportunities for that to happen. Julius (2013) also emphasises that “learners, as writers, must learn how they influence and affect their readers” (p. 9). Therefore, it is important for learners to write with clear understanding of their audience. This study investigates EFAL FET classrooms as a social context to understand the nature and pedagogical implications of writing in EFAL.

The following sections discuss issues of bilingualism, multilingualism and translanguaging. These concepts are important for this study of writing practices in language classroom contexts characterised by two languages: isiZulu which is the home language of the learners and teachers sampled in this study and English which is the second language of teachers and learners as well as their language of teaching and learning.

2.9. BILINGUALISM AND MULTILINGUALISM

This study of writing among EFAL learners and teachers was conducted in a multicultural and multilingual post-apartheid South Africa. This means that the teaching and learning across the five FET schools was underpinned by the Language in Education Policy (LiEP, 1996) whose aim is to redress linguistic imbalances of the apartheid system by promoting eleven languages into official languages. Of these eleven official languages, nine were previously marginalised African languages: isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, siSwati, Sepedi, Sesotho, Tshivenda Setswana and Xitsonga. In fact, Bengu (1997) argues that multilingualism is the main aim of the LiEP.

According to Bengu (ibid), the LiEP aims to “promote multilingualism...through additive approach to bi- and multilingualism” (Bengu, 1997, p. 1). Furthermore, the LiEP

advocates that where possible, learners and teachers can use their home languages for teaching and learning purposes (Bengu, 1997). Despite these intentions of the LiEP, however, twenty four years post-apartheid, English still remains the only official language of teaching and learning in many African secondary schools. Many African secondary school classrooms will, therefore, have two languages in operation: the learners and teachers home language (HL) and English as the language of teaching and learning. As such, many African classrooms in South Africa are bilingual in nature.

Richards and Schimdt (2010) in Sarmiento (2013) define bilingualism as “the use of at least two languages either by an individual or by a group of speakers” (p. 55). The knowledge of two languages by an individual is known as individual bilingualism while the presence of two languages within a society is called a societal bilingualism (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). Multilingualism, on the other hand, is defined by Richards and Schmidt (2010) in Sarmiento (2013) as the “use of three or more languages by an individual or by a group or by a nation” (p. 379-380). According to Richards and Schmidt (ibid), both bilingualism and multilingualism signify the speakers’ competence in several languages. To the definition of bilingualism and multilingualism, Sridhar (1996) adds that these two terms refer to the use of more than one language by a community or an individual.

As societal phenomena, bilingualism and multilingualism are more concerned with the number of languages spoken in that particular community. Ntombela (2008) substantiates these arguments by referring to the case of multilingualism in South Africa. He argues that South Africa, at a societal level, is regarded as a multilingual country due to the fact that eleven languages are officially recognised. However, at individual level, people acquire languages they were socialised into through home environment, school environment and so on.

The concept of a societal multilingualism can, therefore, be associated with the statuses and roles of the languages in a particular society, as well as attitudes towards languages by society. In South Africa, for example, 25 years after democracy, English and Afrikaans still enjoy a prominent role in education, business and parliament, while the indigenous languages remain inferior.

Nevertheless, learners and teachers in this study were bilinguals in a sense that they were first language speakers of isiZulu, and second language speakers of English. That is, they first acquired isiZulu at home and later acquired English through socialisation in school. Baker (2001) argues that even though learners and teachers could be bilinguals, there may be, however, distinctions between the ability and use of a language and there may be differences in proficiency between the two languages. Many people, for example, usually become bilingual because they need the two languages for various reasons in their daily lives. For this, the degree of bilingualism may differ from one person to the next. That is, bilinguals may not necessarily be perfectly fluent in both languages.

According to Baker (2001), bilinguals often have one language which often becomes dominant, depending on the degree to which the language is used daily. A person may be able to speak two languages but in practice tends to speak one and in this way competence in one language may be limited (Baker, 2001). However, Swain and Cummins (1986) in Ntombela (2008) define bilinguals “as those who demonstrate complete mastery of two different languages without interference between the two linguistic processes” (p. 49). In other words, bilingualism refers to the highest level of mastery or a native-like competency in two languages as opposed to being more proficient in one language than the other. In reaction to Swain and Cummins’ arguments, Sridhar (1996) maintains that native-like control of two languages is rare and as such, bilinguals and multilinguals have different degrees of proficiency across the languages they speak. The varying degrees, according to Sridhar (1996), may range from the command of different repertoires to basic expression such as greeting, to excellent command of grammar and vocabulary.

William and Snipper (1990) in Ntombela (2008) distinguish between being bilingual and being biliterate, where a bilingual is a person who can process and understand and respond to a message written in each of the languages he speaks. Being biliterate, on the other hand, is the ability to only read and write in two languages (p. 27). In fact, William and Snipper (1990) claim that the higher the person’s ability to process the four skills in each of the language he speaks, the greater is his level of bilingualism. The point being made by William and Snipper (ibid) is that a bilingual differs from a

biliterate, where the former is higher than the latter. In other words, people cannot be bilingual and not be biliterate but they can be biliterate and not be bilingual.

Learners and teachers in this study were bilinguals because not only were they able to read and write in both isiZulu and English but they were also able to process and understand as well as respond to communication in both these languages (William & Snipper, 1990). The following section discusses code-switching, code-mixing and translanguaging.

2.10. CODE-SWITCHING, CODE-MIXING AND TRANSLANGUAGING

In South Africa, the majority of teachers and learners are either bilingual or multilingual. This means that they can speak two or more languages. Learners and teachers in this study speak isiZulu as their home language and English as a second language; the latter is their language of teaching and learning. Issues of codeswitching, code-mixing and translanguaging, therefore, remain relevant and important to discuss in this study of EFAL FET learners.

2.10.1 Code-switching and Code-mixing

Code-switching has been generally defined by various scholars (Hoffmann, 1991; Kamwangamalu, 1994; Myers-Scotton, 1993) as the alternate use of two or more languages within the same conversation, usually within the same speech turn or same sentence. Similarly, Cook (2001) argues that code-switching is a bilingual-mode activity in which more than one language; typically a speaker's native language and second language are used interchangeably in a conversation.

Code-switching and code-mixing are sometimes used interchangeably or are sometimes confused. Keiswatter (1995) clarifies that code-mixing differs from codeswitching in a sense that it is "the use of morphemes from more than one language variety within the same word" (p. 22) while code-switching, as explained above, is the use of two or more languages interchangeably in the same sentence or conversation (Myers-Scotton, 1993). While both code-switching and code-mixing refer to the coming together of two languages, these two terms, however, differ in a sense that codemixing mostly occurs at word, phrase and clause levels (or intra-sentential) while codeswitching is inter-sentential (Myers-Scotton, 1993).

In many classrooms where learners and teachers have a home language that is not a language of teaching and learning, like in South Africa, code-switching becomes a norm (Mokgwathi, 2011). Furthermore, Mokgwathi (2011) argues that code-switching does not necessarily take place simply due to lack of knowledge in a particular language, but occurs for different communicative functions. In line with these views, Hoffmann (1991) observed that multilinguals often manipulate their linguistic codes in order to establish multilingual or multicultural identities among themselves. Furthermore, in multilingual classrooms, teachers and learners often switch codes when they carry out cognitively demanding tasks or when they want to convey the meaning of the intended idea more accurately (Mokgwathi, 2011). Mokgwathi (2011) adds that code-switching has interpersonal and social functions where the multilingual speakers consistently attempt to accommodate the interlocutors' language use.

Earlier scholars like Weinreich (1953) in Moodley and Kamwangamalu (2004) rejected the value of code-switching in multilingual classrooms and argued that code-switching had no place in the English classroom. Weinreich (ibid) considered code-switching as "corrupt linguistic behaviour" (p. 73). On the other hand, King and Chetty (2014) argue that the lack of training on code-switching leaves teachers using code-switching indiscriminately and this defeats the pedagogical benefits of code-switching. Nevertheless, Moodley and Kamwangamalu (2004) demonstrated that code-switching between English and isiZulu could be used as a tool for second language acquisition and could provide meaningful insights into English literature.

In a study of two Grade 10 classes of isiZulu home language in Port Shepstone, KwaZulu-Natal, Moodley and Kamwangamalu (1994) explored code-switching as a technique in teaching literature in a secondary school ESL classroom. The control group was taught by an English home language (L1) teacher who used only English for teaching while the experimental group of 55 was taught by an isiZulu home language teacher who deliberately switched between English and isiZulu while teaching. Seven lessons were tape-recorded. At the end of the lessons the learners wrote a test. Findings of the study revealed that code-switching fulfilled both the social and pedagogical roles in the context of the study.

In Moodley's and Kamwangamalu's study above, code-switching provided opportunities for explanation, elaboration, provision of new or content information, quotation, referential, interjections, use of proverbs in another language and enabled learners to display knowledge of their home language (Moodley & Kamwangamalu, 2004). However, this study was limited to the teaching and learning of literature across two classrooms.

In a Swedish secondary school, Edvinsson (2015) explored code-switching in an English second language oral classroom. The aim of the study was to investigate how teachers use code-switching in their second language classrooms and purposes for which they use code-switching. Data were collected through observation of a 45 minute lesson. Findings show that the teacher used code-switching for mainly three purposes: classroom management; scaffolding and social purposes (Edvinsson, 2015). Collectively, much research (Moodley & Kamwangamalu, 2004; Mokgwathi, 2011; Edvinsson, 2015) informs this study of writing among learners and teachers who share a home language isiZulu.

2.10.2. Translanguaging

Discussion on bilingualism and multilingualism is not complete without a discussion on translanguaging. The term translanguaging has recently been used in multilingual classroom contexts along with code-switching (Makalela, 2015; Madiba & Mbuleni, 2014). Makalela (2015) argues that, like code-switching, translanguaging refers to multilingual speakers' shuttling between languages in a natural manner. However, translanguaging uses two languages in more systematic and strategic way (Garcia & Wei, 2014).

Garcia and Wei (2014) argue that strategic classroom language planning that combines two or more languages in a structured manner within the same learning activity, can assist multilingual learners in making meaning, shaping experiences, and gaining deeper understanding and knowledge of languages in use and even of the content that is being taught. In a recent study of translanguaging among university students in South Africa, Madiba and Mbuleni (2014) also discovered that

translanguaging has many benefits for multilingual university students. Through the analysis of a sample of reflective dialogues of three multilingual students, Makalela (2015) discovered that translanguaging gave rise to hybrid greeting forms, multiple identities and intergenerational languaging among participants. Makalela (2014) also found that translanguaging was used by students to indicate their negative attitude towards English monolingualism practices. Moreover, Makalela (2014) argues that translanguaging can also be used to merge languages. In his study, for example, Sotho and Nguni utterances were merged.

In the United Kingdom, researchers like Creese and Blackledge (2010) have also found that translanguaging creates positive learning experiences and pedagogic and cognitive benefits. These studies on translanguaging, and others (Blommaert, 2010; Garcia, 2012), show that translanguaging allows multilingual learners to freely incorporate their home language repertoires into their second language practices for maximum learning opportunities. This study of writing practices among multilingual learners and teachers was interested in understanding whether translanguaging, along with code-switching and code-mixing, were used in the writing classrooms and the implications of such practices on the writing development of EFAL FET learners. The following section discusses classroom discourse. Classroom discourse explores how teachers and learners use language for the learning of writing skills.

2.11. CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Teaching and learning occurs mostly through the use of a language as means of communication between teachers and learners. Teachers and learners engage in greetings, dialogues, turn-taking, meta-language and more. Stubb (1978) argues that a classroom is in fact a context rich in discourse. In other words, classrooms are rich contexts for authentic use of language. Analysis of classroom discourse provides critical information on how the language is used in the classroom to achieve educational purposes (Stubb, 1978). Stubb (1978) further argues that “ultimately, the classroom dialogue between teachers and pupils is the educational process or at least, the major part of it” (p. 1). In other words, classroom discourse between teachers and learners holds a key for learning in the classroom.

In relation to classroom discourse, Cazden (2001) as cited by Marshall (2014) states that the differences in how teachers often say something and when they say it can seriously “impair effective teaching and accurate evaluation” (p. 24). In fact, Cazden (ibid) in Marshall (2014) raises three important questions about classroom discourse: How do patterns of language use affect teaching and learning in the classroom? How does the use of these patterns ensure that all learners enjoy equal learning opportunities? What competencies do these patterns require learners to have? Cazden (2001) in Marshall (2014) then draws our attention to different types of discourse, created by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) which are most common in many language classrooms.

The most common classroom discourse pattern is the Initiation-ResponseFeedback/Evaluation (IRF/E) sequence. In this sequence the teacher initiates a topic, usually in the form of a question for consideration by the learners. One or more learners may respond to the teacher’s initiated question. The teacher will provide feedback to the learner’s response. The teacher may also evaluate the learner’s response. The IRF/E may be repeated many times in a lesson. In fact, Cazden (2001) in Marshall (2014) argues that in a typical classroom, the classroom discourse is characterised by the teacher’s control of the classroom talk. She has the right to speak to anyone and at any time of the lesson.

The teacher also decides who speaks by allocating turns to the learners. She also decides how long each speaker will speak by limiting the time. In many classrooms, the teacher asks more questions than the learners. The teacher allocates roughly twothirds of speaking to himself or herself through presenting, clarifying, asking, evaluating, responding, directing, rephrasing and probing. Marshall (2014) then makes the following suggestions as an ideal in the classroom to support the language classrooms:

- The classroom discourse used by the teacher should accommodate different linguistic competencies and backgrounds of learners.
- Spoken words in the classroom during learning should be understood by learners and they should also be aimed at realising the goals of learning, and thus, bring about the change within learners.

- Teachers should take into account the importance of planning for classroom interactions, bearing in mind the relationship between how learners think or process knowledge and language development.
- Teachers should acknowledge that group interactions are an important aspect of a learning process in a language classroom, even if the group interactions are noisy as opposed to formal classroom learning.
- Classroom discourse takes various forms as the language teacher searches to create the best possible opportunities to achieve the learning goals.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), on the other hand, discovered that in traditional teacherled classrooms where the teacher and learner roles were well defined, interactions were highly structured. In their model for classroom discourse analysis, Sinclair and Coulthard describe categories of classroom discourse. The model consists of five ranks: lesson, transaction, exchange, move and act (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). The highest rank in the model is the lesson and the lowest is the act (Sinclair & Coulthard, *ibid*). Even though it is not clear how a lesson is structured into transactions (Coulthard, 1988), the other four ranks have well defined structures. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) transactions are made up of exchanges. Exchanges consist of moves. Moves are made up of one or more acts (Coulthard, 1988).

In 1992, Sinclair and Coulthard discovered two major classes of exchange in their model: boundary exchanges and teaching exchanges. Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) describe boundary exchanges as those utterances that signal the beginning or the end of a lesson, transaction or a change of topic. Examples of such utterances are 'right', 'alright', 'now', 'ok', etc. Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) observed that all these utterances are spoken with falling or rising intonation and a short pause.

Teaching exchanges, on the other hand, are described as the 'individual steps by which the lesson progresses' (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992, p. 25). In the model, the teaching exchanges are made of a minimum of one move and a maximum of three. These moves are opening move (initiation), followed by an answering move (response) and then the follow-up move (feedback) (Coulthard, 1992). These three moves are famously labelled as Initiation (I), Response (R) and Feedback (F) (Sinclair

& Coulthard, 1992). In typical classrooms, Initiation (I) is the move made by the teacher. Initiation is often followed by a student verbal or non-verbal Response (I) move. And then the teacher makes some form of a Feedback or Follow-up (F) move to accept, reject, evaluate or to comment on the learner response move (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992).

Sinclair and Coulthard (ibid) further divided the teaching exchanges into eleven subcategories of which six are labelled as 'free exchanges' and the other five are 'bound exchanges'. Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) argue that the bound exchanges "are exchanges which are tied to the immediate preceding free exchange" (p. 25). Sinclair and Coulthard (ibid) further state that the 'bound exchange' usually occurs when the teacher or the learner needs the previous exchange to be repeated. Conversely, the 'free exchanges' have four main functions: informing, directing, eliciting and checking (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992).

Finally, the model presents the lowest rank, the *acts*. The Sinclair and Coulthard model identified twenty-two acts. Each act has a "code and has a general interactive function" (Coulthard, 1985, p. 126) which is realised by the speaker's utterance. Even though some moves consist of several acts, there is usually one 'free standing' act which can stand on its own without being dependent on the other acts in a move. This 'free standing' act, which is sometimes called a 'head' in an initiating move, serves a purpose to indicate or label the type of exchange that is, eliciting, informing or directing.

This study employed Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) model of classroom discourse to analyse writing lessons across the five schools. Analysing the errors that learners make in their writing was also important to understand the quality of writing among learners. Error analysis is, therefore, discussed in the following section.

2.12. ERROR ANALYSIS

Error analysis (EA) is more concerned with errors that second language learners make as they learn the second language (James, 1998). Richards and Schimidt (2002) also define error analysis as "the study and analysis of the errors made by second language learners" (p. 184). Similarly, James (1998) argues that EA compares how second

language learners are 'ignorant' about linguistic rules of the target language such as grammar and semantic rules.

Another view of EA comes from Brown (1994) who asserts that "EA is the process of observing, analysing and classifying the deviations of the target language rules and then to reveal the system operated by the learner" (p. 26). In other words, EA is an important aspect of language learning as it reveals the language aspect which needs more attention in the classroom. Hasyim (2002) concurs that error analysis may also help teachers to understand, firstly, how well learners know a language. Secondly, EA may be used to find out how learners learn a language. Lastly, Hasyim (ibid) argues that EA can help teachers in obtaining information on common difficulties in language learning and thus help them in preparing materials for their lessons.

In relation to EA, Norrish (1987) maintains that there is a difference between an error and a mistake. A mistake is an "inconsistent deviation that sometimes the learners get it right and sometimes wrong" (p. 95). Richards (1974) adds that the mistakes that learners make in their writing are caused by carelessness, tiredness and poor concentration, among other things. In other words, when a learner fails to apply a language rule that he knows, we can say that a learner has made a mistake. Similarly, Norrish (1987) argues that a mistake is inconstant deviation in a way that a learner sometimes 'gets it right' and sometimes 'gets it wrong' (p. 8). As result, Richards (1974) concludes that learners' mistakes in writing are often caused by lack of attention, carelessness, tiredness and other aspects of learning. He further claims that mistakes are therefore not necessarily as a result of ignorance of language rules as James (1998) claims. An error, on the other hand, emanates from the lack of linguistic knowledge (Richards & Schimdit, 2002). In other words, an error indicates an underlying problem in second language learning. As Nzama (2011) in Ntombela and Riyaz (2015) emphasise "errors should be understood as the deviation from the target language standard rules that second language learners make due to not having mastered linguistic elements of the second language" (p. 43).

On the same note, Richards and Schmidt (2002) classify errors that second language learners make into interlingual and intralingual errors. They argue that interlingual

errors result from a learner's first language features, for example, grammatical, lexical or pragmatic errors. Intralingual errors, on the other hand, result from overgeneralisation in the target language which is caused by ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete applications of rules and false concepts hypothesised (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

Corder (1967) believes that errors made by second language learners are significant for investigating their language learning. In other words, EA provides teachers with a representation of the linguistic development of learners and may, therefore, indicate to teachers the learners' learning process. Corder (1980) suggests that teachers can use EA to design exercises that focus on the challenging areas identified. Corder (1980) argues that it is learners who determine the learning input, as opposed to where the teachers decide on the input which, often, is not necessarily what learners need. EA is important as it indicates the type of errors learners make and why. It shows teachers the strategies learners use to learn a second language (Hasyim, 2002).

Recent studies, like the one conducted by Maruma (2017), show that teachers can use error analysis to identify errors and thus be able to help learners improve their second language competency. Maruma (2017), for example, investigated errors in writing among Grade 10 EFAL secondary school learners in Limpopo, South Africa. The aim of the study was, firstly, to identify errors committed by learners in their essays with the focus on the causes behind such errors. Secondly, the study wanted to provide strategies to eliminate errors as a way of improving learners' writing. Findings from the study indicated that the use of technology such as cell phones has an impact on most of the spelling errors learners committed in their essays. The study also revealed that interference of mother tongue and partial learning of the target language were also responsible for grammatical errors found in the essays. Practice of spelling through dictation and a practice in writing essays under the guidance of experts like teachers were recommended for the learners (Haysim, 2002).

In an attempt to help teachers utilise error analysis effectively for the development of second language learning, Corder (1981) developed an EA structure consisting of identifying errors, categorising errors, classifying errors and then explaining them. In

this study, EA was important to understand the language errors that EFAL learners make in their writing so that strategies to support their writing development could be devised. Therefore, the EA structure that was followed was the one suggested by Coder (1981) and modified by Brown (1994).

2.13. Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the nature of writing, elements of writing and the importance of writing. It also explained the four writing approaches: product, process, genre-based and reader-focused approaches in relation to second language classrooms, which was the focus of this study. The chapter also discussed the concept of writing and the importance of effective writing skills among second language learners. It also considered the types of writing prevalent at secondary schools (FET) levels and how teachers should teach them at FET levels. Furthermore, the stages of the writing model as suggested by Flower and Hayes (1981) was also examined. Pertinent issues among second language contexts such as bilingualism, multilingualism, translanguaging and code-switching were also discussed. Lastly, the chapter reviewed discourse analysis and error analysis. The following chapter focuses on research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter firstly provided an overview of the concepts of writing, teaching and learning of second language writing and then looked at English First Additional Language (EFAL) writing curriculum and approaches to writing. Theories underpinning the study, the Genre theory and Socio-cultural theory were also discussed as well as related aspects on multilingualism. Furthermore, the chapter expounded on the concepts of classroom discourse and error analysis.

This chapter attempts to provide a detailed description of research design and methodology employed in this study. It firstly describes the research paradigm and research design employed in this study. Secondly, the target population, sampling procedures and data collection instruments are explained. Thirdly, the chapter expands on the strategies used to collect and analyse data. Fourthly, the summary of the study, data analysis procedures and ethical clearance issues are discussed. Finally, techniques used to ensure validity and reliability of this study are explained vividly as well as limitations of this study.

The principal objectives of the study are to find answers to the following research questions:

- What type of writing do students produce?
- What are the pedagogical implications arising from the classroom writing tasks?
- Is there a relationship between the CAPS suggested writing approach and classroom practice?
- What is the quality of writing produced by learners?
- What is the writing pedagogy suggested by classroom discourse?
- What type of writing approach is suggested by classroom discourse?

3.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Within the qualitative interpretivist paradigm, this study attempted to understand the writing practices of learners and pedagogical practices of their teachers within their natural classroom settings. Naicker (2000) agrees that interpretivist theorists “attempt

to understand reality by making perspectives meaningful” (p. 77). In defining the interpretivist paradigm, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) argue that it is a theory that seeks to understand individuals’ experiences, their actions and their point of views within their world.

The interpretivist paradigm was therefore viewed as appropriate for this study. Wahyuni (2012) concurs regarding the relevance of this paradigm for this investigation as he points out that it helps researchers gain deeper insights and understanding of human behaviours and perspectives about their social phenomena.

In the same manner Check and Schutt (2012) contend that the research process within the interpretive paradigm provides participants a voice for them to be heard through practices and views. Similarly, Cohen et al. (2011) maintain that interpretivist researchers are driven by a concern to uncover the truth and knowledge about how people in a particular situation and context feel and go through experiences and practices.

Creswell (2013) points out that through interactive social constructions and interrogation of documents, artefacts and tools, interpretivist researchers are able to gain reality of participants and make judgement based on those shared meanings. It is against these arguments that this study observed writing practices and interactive process in selected EFAL FET classrooms and analysed documents for a deeper understanding of the experiences, will be undertaken. In this way, the study was able to discover the type and quality of writing among EFAL FET learners and the implications of pedagogical practices across five EFAL FET schools in one district. By means of close observation in the participants’ natural setting, the classroom, this study was able to gain insight into how learners construct their meaning through writing and how teachers support the development of writing practices. Observation enabled the researcher to spend time with participants within their context and as an interpretivist researcher I was able to share experiences and interpretations of the participants.

Adam (2010) noted that interpretivists assume that knowledge and meaning are actions of interpretations and, therefore, cannot be objectively obtained independent of human thinking and reasoning. In essence, interpretivists obtain their sense of truth

through in-depth investigation of the social context in which the phenomena of interest naturally exist. After taking into consideration advantages and benefits of the interpretive paradigm discussed in the above section, this study of action and experiences of EFAL FET learners and teachers within their writing contexts views this paradigm as relevant.

This study, therefore, does not seek to control and quantify the experiences of teachers and learners as positivists would; neither is it concerned with political emancipation of participants which is the focus of critical post-modernism. Within the interpretivism paradigm, this study seeks to obtain a deeper understanding with regard to learners' writing practices and teaching strategies through in-depth observations of the natural settings, that is, the EFAL classrooms.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

This study adopted a qualitative approach. Cohen et al (2011) argues that a qualitative approach is most appropriate for studies like this one which seeks to tell the story of learners' and teachers' experiences of writing practices. Qualitative studies make sense of participants' experiences in order to understand their social reality in their natural settings. Like in this study, qualitative studies make use of classroom observation, among other data collection tools such as interviews, diaries and journals, to explain 'how' and 'why' the phenomena under investigation occurs or functions in that particular context (Cohen et, 2011).

This study which investigates writing practices among EFAL FET learners and teachers, therefore, used the qualitative approach to understand the types, quality and implications of writing in EFAL. It also seeks to understand writing pedagogy employed by teachers in the EFAL classroom contexts.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Within the qualitative approach framework, this study employed a multi-case design to explore the nature of writing skills across five selected EFAL high schools in one district. Creswell (2013) argues that qualitative case methods "explore a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information....and reports a case description in descriptive and themes" (p. 97). In defining a multi-case or a multi-site study, Mirriam (1998) explains that it is the process

of collecting and analysing data from several sources about a particular phenomenon (Mirriam, 1998). Yin (2003) also expounds that a multi-case study allows the researchers to analyse the data collected from different sites about a common phenomenon, which is unlikely when a single case study is used. Similarly, Baxter and Jack (2008) explains that multi-case studies afford researchers an opportunity to understand the similarities and differences between cases being studied, and with such information, be able to provide the literature with important influences from the differences and similarities.

The use of multi-case design in this study provided the researcher with a wider exploration of theoretical underpinnings and research questions across different EFAL FET situations under investigation. Although Baxter and Jack (2008) caution that multicase studies can be time consuming and often expensive for researchers, the advantages of using multi-case design in this study outweighed the disadvantages. Moreover, the research sites were purposefully selected to allow easy access and convenience for the researcher.

3.3 TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

The target population for this study was EFAL FET teachers and EFAL FET learners in schools in the Pinetown District. Barbie and Morton (2001) refer to the population of the study as the “group of people about whom we want to draw conclusions” (p. 34). Investigating all learners and teachers from 85 EFAL FET schools within the Pinetown District would have been impossible and not feasible given the timeframe of this study; therefore, a sample was selected to represent the whole population. Only learners and teachers in Grades 10-12 from five schools participated in the study.

Sampling

This study was conducted in five high schools within the Pinetown District, KwaZuluNatal. The district consists of 84 EFAL FET schools. The choice for the five schools was purposively influenced by four factors: firstly, all the selected FET schools offered English First Additional Language (EFAL) which made them information-rich contexts for this study of writing practices among EFAL FET learners. Secondly, all schools were reasonably closer to the researcher’s place of work, which reduced

travelling costs during data collection. Thirdly, as a former high school teacher, the researcher selected the schools based on the positive working relationships with the teachers which gave an easy access to the schools. Lastly, since this is a multi-case study, it was presumed that observing similarities and differences in learners' writing practices and pedagogy across the five schools might yield rich data for this study. Purposive sampling method was used.

Creswell (2013) defines purposive sampling as a non-probability sampling technique which relies on the judgement of the researcher when it comes to selecting the units, people or cases to be studied. Cohen et al. (2011) add that the sample being studied is usually small when compared to the probability sampling techniques such as simple random, stratified random and so on. In fact, within the purposive sampling, the objective of this study was to select particular cases which hold characteristics to answer the research questions of this study. Participants were homogenous in a sense that they were EFAL FET learners and teachers in the Pinetown District.

Data for this study were drawn from observing 10 EFAL teachers who were willing to participate in the study in the selected schools. In other words, 10 classroom observations were conducted across the five schools. Also, 40 samples of learners' written tasks were collected among different learners across the classrooms that were observed. The samples consisted of narrative essays, formal letters, friendly letters, Curriculum Vitae, invitation cards, obituary texts, directions and diary entries.

Teachers assisted in the collection of learners' written tasks.

Research Sites

Patton (2002) defines a research site as a 'real world of programs, organisation, neighbourhoods, street corners and getting close enough to the people and circumstances to capture what is happening' (p. 48). Furthermore, Patton (2002) argues that it is important that researchers get closer to research contexts "where action can be explored, observed and best understood" (p. 48). The research sites were five EFAL FET high schools in the Pinetown District. The District is made up of four circuits: KwaMashu, Phoenix, Hammardale and Umhlathuze. KwaMashu and Phoenix circuits are located in urban areas around Durban. Hammarsdale and Umhlathuze circuits are largely made up of rural areas such as Inchanga, Bothas Hill,

Indwedwe and Umzinyathi areas. The aim was to represent these demographics as much as possible in the data; however, some of the districts were far away from the researcher's place of work. So, three schools in KwaMashu Circuit (1 school in Ntuzuma, 1 school in Lindelani and 1 school in Inanda) were selected.

Of the other two schools, one was located in a semi-rural Umhlathuze Circuit (Umzinyathi) and another school in a rural Hammarsdale Circuit (Bothas Hill). These demographics brought rich data in terms of the types of writing practices and pedagogy across urban schools and rural schools. The researcher was eager to explore and understand similarities and differences in EFAL FET writing practices and writing pedagogy among learners and teachers in urban and rural contexts. In order to protect the participants' identities, the school names were not used in this study but were referred to as: School A, School B, School C, School D and School E.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Data were collected through video-recorded observations, notes, and document analysis.

Classroom Observation

Observations were used to collect data across the five selected EFAL FET schools. Observation is described by Cohen et al. (2011) as a systematic way of 'looking' and noting people, events, behaviours, settings, artefacts, routines and so on. Observation as an instrument is in line with the interpretive paradigm informing the qualitative nature of this study. As a research tool, observation offered an opportunity to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring social situations, the EFAL classrooms. It enabled the researcher to look directly at what was happening in the EFAL FET classroom in time, thus, collecting first-hand data instead of relying on second-hand information (Creswell, 2009). The researcher assumed the role of a non-participant observer which meant that she was not involved in the classroom activities that were being observed (Cohen et al., 2011). Observation gave an advantage of collecting first-hand data. Visiting the classroom prior to the actual observation helped to get the learners used to the video camera. Through observation it was intended to achieve the following objectives:

- To examine the pedagogical implications arising from the classroom writing tasks;
- To investigate the writing pedagogy suggested by classroom discourse; and
- To explore the type of writing approach suggested by classroom discourse.

Notes

In addition to observations, notes were taken during the schools visits. Creswell (2009) suggests that notes be taken of everything observed immediately after observation before the crucial information is forgotten. Notes included aspects like duration of the writing lessons, number of learners in the classroom, classroom arrangement and timetables indicating the number of EFAL periods. Notes supplemented data from recordings.

Documents Analysis

Documents analysis was also used as another method of data collection. Documents can provide rich data for educational studies. Data from documents can be used to supplement other data collection strategies or without them. In this study, documents such as learners' written tasks were important to analyse the types of writing prevalent among EFAL FET classrooms and the quality of writing produced by learners.

A total of 40 samples of written tasks were collected from the five schools from Grades 10, 11 and 12 learners. Learners' written tasks were collected in the form of essays, formal letters, friendly letters, obituary, invitation cards, CV, directions and diary entries. Permission from the school principals, teachers and learners to use the written tasks as data for this study was obtained. All written data were analysed to reveal the types of writing and the quality of writing among the EFAL FET learners, thus addressing the following research objectives:

- To analyse the types of writing across the five EFAL FET schools.
- To examine writing tasks in the selected EFAL FET classrooms.
- To investigate the link between the CAPS suggested writing approach and the actual classroom practice.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

Lessons were transcribed and analysed using boundary exchanges and teaching exchanges model as proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Boundary exchanges signal the transition from one section of the lesson to the next and are initiated by the teacher, whereas teaching exchanges are where questions are asked and answered, and feedback is given on the answers. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), there are five main classes of moves: the *framing* and *focusing* moves which realise boundary exchanges and *opening*, *answering* and *follow-up* moves which realise teaching exchanges. As elements of structure, these exchanges are labelled as I (Initiation), R (Response) and F (Feedback). As a result, this model is referred to as IRF or three-part structure. Three major categories: meta-interactive, interactive and turn-taking were also used to analyse the lessons.

Error analysis (Coder, 1967; Brown, 1980, Richards, 1984) was used to analyse the sample of learners' written tasks. As suggested by Brown (1980) and Richards (1984), error analysis follows a process of observing, classifying and categorising of errors to reveal the system operated by the second language learners in their writing. Error analysis structure followed in the study is, therefore, the one suggested by Coder (1967).

The first step was to identify the errors made by learners in their written tasks. Secondly, the errors were categorised into global errors and local errors. Thirdly errors were classified to reveal the types of errors learners made. Lastly, errors were explained. The total number of errors committed was also calculated and presented by means of a table. By calculating the total number of errors committed by learners, it was not meant to quantify the writing errors per se but to expand on the most occurring errors across the sample of learners' written tasks.

3.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND PROCEDURES

Firstly, the permission to conduct research in schools was sought from the Department of Education (see Appendix A) and from the school principals of the five selected schools in Pinetown District (see Appendix B). Secondly, both educators (see Appendix C) and learners (see Appendix D) completed consent forms. Furthermore, consent letters for learners' permission to participate was sought from parents and

guardians. Consent letters were written in isiZulu (see Appendix E) and in English (see Appendix F). The consent letters included all relevant details regarding the study, including the topic, the purpose, the participants' contribution to the study and methods of data collection; this would make parents aware and informed before they agreed to grant permission to enable their children to participate (Cohen, et al., 2011).

Parents and learners were made aware that participation was voluntary. Furthermore, the consent letters explained explicitly that participants' identities would be protected through the use of pseudonyms and that they had the right to withdraw at their discretion. Moreover, the consent letters provided assurance that participants would not be harmed in any way, physically and psychologically during the study (Creswell, 2009).

3.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Cohen et al. (2011) argue that validity and reliability are key to effective research. "If a study is invalid and unreliable then it is worthless" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 179). Likewise, Creswell (2009) maintains that validity and reliability are two essential aspects which any qualitative researcher should be concerned about. According to Creswell (2009), validity refers to "the extent to which a researcher's interpretations of the data can be judged as logically derived and credible" (p. 54).

Reliability, on the one hand, "is the degree to which different researchers might make similar findings given the same research framework" (p. 54). Cohen et al. (2011) claim that validity cannot be avoided completely, rather, qualitative researchers can minimise the effects of these factors through various strategies. Selliger and Shohamy (1990) contend that the key criteria for validity in qualitative research are: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability; accordingly, these shall be explained how they were achieved within the current study.

Credibility

In qualitative studies, credibility refers to the extent to which the data and data analysis are believable and trustworthy. Cohen et al. (2011) argue that qualitative research is valid to the researcher and not necessarily to others due to its possibility of multiple realities. Qualitative research, therefore, depends upon the reader to judge the extent of its credibility based on the reader's own understanding of the study. From the

interpretative view, there is no objective truth or reality to which the findings of a qualitative study can be compared but each individual constructs his or her personal reality.

Transferability

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), transferability refers to the extent to which the findings of one study can be replicated to other situations or be generalised. The concern of qualitative studies often lies in demonstrating that the results of the study under investigation can be applied to a wider population. According to Cohen et al. (2011), the generalisability of qualitative studies may best be resolved by the reader of the research report based on how close the researcher context of the study is to that of the reader. It is, therefore, an issue of judgement of the context and the investigation which allows others to assess the transferability of the findings to another context (Cohen, et al., 2011).

Confirmability

Seliger and Shohamy (1990) state that the aspect of confirmability in qualitative studies is related to the extent to which the findings are representative and retrievable. They further argue that confirmability is ensured by the researcher's ability to confirm the findings through re-inspection or by demonstrating the same findings through different sources. Seliger and Shohamy (1990) maintain that even though in theory triangulation may seem possible, it is, however, not always feasible, especially in second language studies. Data collected immediately after the action, for example, and data collected at a later stage is not drawing from the same source.

Similarly, asking learners to evaluate a learning strategy immediately after learning and asking them to evaluate the same learning strategy at a later stage is not drawing from the same source as these separate data collections are likely to produce different findings. In such cases, Seliger and Shohamy (1990) argue that we may not use one finding to support the other. However, data drawn from the observation could be confirmed by data from the video recording made at the same time with the observation. In this study, to achieve confirmability, the data that were drawn from recorded observations were confirmed with the manual transcriptions of the same recorded observations.

3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided an overview of the qualitative research methodology employed in this study in order to achieve the research objectives. The chapter explained the research paradigm, research design, sampling procedure, ethical considerations as well as data collection methods and methods of data analysis, used in this study. It also discussed how validity and reliability of the study through triangulation of data were strengthened. Finally, it discussed how ethical considerations were observed prior to the study and throughout the data collection.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present and analyse the data generated through classroom observation, written tasks, notes and document analysis. The data from these different instruments were triangulated and used to address the purpose of this study which is to understand the nature of writing practices in five EFAL FET schools in the Pinetown District, South Africa; and, to explore the writing pedagogy used by teachers in the classrooms. Before the presentation and the analysis of data, the chapter begins by providing the reader with some insights into the selected EFAL FET classrooms in which the teaching and learning of writing occurred. This is done through description of each school referred to as School A, B, C, D and E to ensure confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of the participants.

After the description of schools, the study then presents data from classroom observation (writing lessons) to address the questions on writing approaches and writing pedagogy used by the teachers. The question on the types of writing produced by learners and on the quality of writing is addressed by the data from written tasks. Finally, the data from the curriculum document is presented and analysed to understand the relationship between the curriculum and the writing practice which is the last question of this study.

4.1 BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE FIVE SCHOOLS

4.1.1. Description of School A

School A was located in a former squatter camp urban area. It was a no-fee paying school. Learners were provided one meal a day through government School Nutrition Programme. The school infrastructure was not in good condition. The school had no library or resource centre. Teachers used only the chalkboard for teaching. During the school visit, the researcher noticed that learners did not use EFAL textbooks or any language enrichment resource like dictionaries, newspapers or magazines. The chalkboard was the only resource that the two observed teachers used for writing the notes or summaries of the lessons. Learners were expected to copy from the

chalkboard into their language exercise books. In the two classrooms the researcher observed, the desks were arranged in a row facing the front. Learners were seated in pairs facing the front. Mainly, the teachers taught from the front of the classrooms. Even though English is the LoTL, isiZulu was also frequently used in the writing lessons. Of the two narrative lessons that were observed, one had 48 and another had 52 learners.

4.1.2. Description of School B

School B was a township school. The school was clean and well-kept in terms of clean paintings and well maintained garden. The EFAL classes were large, with 56 and 59 learners in the two classes observed. Like School A, School B had no library. The textbooks were kept in a steel container located next to the Principal's office. Learners did not pay school fees and they were provided with a meal. The only teaching and learning materials were the chalkboards which the two teachers used throughout the lessons. Learners were seated in a traditional seating arrangement, all in pairs facing the front. The writing lessons were taught mainly in English, however, isiZulu utterances were made by the teachers now and then.

4.1.3. Description of School C

School C was also a township school. Opened in 1998, the school was regarded as new compared to the other township schools which were opened in the 1960s and 1970s. Like all township schools, it was a no-fee school. It had government Nutrition Programme that provided meals to the learners. It was also inadequately resourced with no library. In one class, Grade 10, learners had EFAL textbooks on their desks; these were never used throughout the observed writing lesson. In a Grade 11 classroom, learners had no textbooks. The teachers mainly used a chalkboard for their writing lessons to provide some brainstorming of the writing topics. Notes on narrative writing were also mainly used by the teachers to lead the writing lessons. There were 46 learners in Grade 11 and 52 learners in Grade 10.

4.1.4. Description of School D

School D was located in a semi-rural area. A semi-rural context is neither urban nor completely rural. The school was a comprehensive high school. It offered mainstream

and technical curriculum. The school was big in terms of the infrastructure. Learners were provided free meals under the government scheme. It had a library, although not well resourced. The researcher noticed old books in the shelves. Traditional seating arrangement was followed in both classrooms. Learners' textbooks were packed in one corner of the classrooms. The teachers mainly used the chalkboard for the lessons. Both lessons lasted for 60 minutes each.

4.1.5. Description of School E

School E was located in the rural area. The area was rural in a sense that it was quite far from modernisation of urban areas. The area was still administered by *Inkosi* (Chief). The school was small in terms of infrastructure, i.e. the number of classrooms. However, the language classrooms were large. In a Grade 11 class, for example, there were 58 learners against the inadequate available number of desks. As a result, more than two learners shared a desk. No language textbooks were on sight. The only teaching resource was a big chalkboard in each class.

The Grade 11 and 12 classes shared one big classroom partitioned by a corrugated iron roller-up door. The researcher could actually hear the noise in the adjacent Grade 12 classroom which seemed to have no teacher. Although the school was relatively small in terms of the buildings, the premises and classrooms were clean and well maintained. Two lessons from the school: a Grade 11 narrative lesson and a Grade 10 friendly letter lesson were observed.

Now that the study has briefly discussed the circumstances under which the teaching and learning of EFAL writing occurred, the following section elaborates on the data collected from classroom observation of the writing lessons.

4.2. DATA FROM CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

As discussed in Chapter 3 (methodology section), classroom observations were used to gain insight into the teaching and learning of writing among the five selected schools instead of using documents such as written tasks only. Classroom observations enabled the researcher to gain access to the classroom contexts which provided live

data from the socio-cultural environments of the writing practices (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011).

Classroom observations also revealed the writing pedagogy that the teachers used to develop writing skills among learners. It was also important for the researcher to understand the learning conditions under which writing is learned in the selected schools. Therefore, classroom observations provided in-depth information that the researcher would have missed with a data collection instrument such as the interviews. Classroom observations occurred from the third week of January to the second week of April 2018. The following section presents data from the observed writing lessons in the five schools.

4.2.1. Presentation and Analysis of Writing Lessons

One of the research objectives of this study was to understand the writing approaches and the pedagogy utilised by the teachers in teaching writing in the selected schools. Research question 1 determines the approaches arising from the classroom discourse, while question 2 establishes the pedagogy employed by the teachers in teaching writing. To respond to these questions, 10 lessons were observed and recorded across the five schools (School A, B, C, D and E). All 10 lessons were recorded and transcribed verbatim for presentation and analysis. However, only five of the ten lessons are analysed and presented below. With the five lessons, data were considered to have reached saturation.

As discussed in the methodology section, the writing lessons were analysed using Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) model of classroom discourse. Classroom discourse is structured into transactions which consist of exchanges (Sinclair & Coulthard, *ibid*). Exchanges are in turn made up of moves. The moves are then made up of one or more acts. Sinclair and Coulthard (*ibid*) also noted that a typical classroom will consist of three moves: Initiation (I), Response(R) and Feedback/Follow-up (F). The initiation moves are made by the teacher. This includes the directives, elicitation, information, acknowledgement, and so on. All these moves could be in the form of questions, comments or statements. Response move, on the other hand, is made by learners. It includes replying to the teacher's elicitation, directives, and so on. Learners' response

could be verbal or non-verbal. Feedback/follow-up is made by the teacher. It involves accepting, evaluating or commenting on the learner's response (Sinclair & Coulthard, *ibid*).

The IRF moves consist of turn-taking acts such as cue where the teacher indicates that learners must raise their hands if they want to be nominated; bidding where the learners compete for the floor by raising their hands for the teacher's attention, and nomination where the teacher nominates the learner to speak. The classroom discourse also consists of meta-interactive acts such markers, for example, 'right', 'now' and meta-statements such as 'pardon', 'again' and so on.

The writing lessons were further analysed to establish the extent to which they meet the four stages of the writing lesson as recommended by Flower and Hayes (1981). These four stages of the writing lesson are: generating ideas (stage 1); writer's longterm memory (stage 2); crafting the text (stage 3) and feedback (stage 4). Badger and White (2000) also noted that all these stages are essential for the proper scaffolding of writing among second language learners as they allow teachers to carefully guide learners through the writing processes using small group learning or individual learning methods.

The following section presents lessons from School A.

4.2.1.1. Presentation and Analysis of a Writing Lesson from School A

Grade: 11

Duration of lesson: 55 minutes

Number of learners: 54

Focus of the lesson: Narrative Essay

The lesson began with a greeting which is a normal exchange in a classroom where the pattern is not T-P-T (IRF) but is T-P (I-R).

(1) TEACHER: Good morning class (initiation)

LEARNERS: Good morning Mam (response)

After the greetings, the lesson proceeds as follows in (A1:6-27): (A stands for School A; 1 stands for lesson 1 and 6-11 stands for line numbers in the transcript). Letter X is used to replace the names of learners to protect their identities.

- (6) TEACHERS: Okay [frame] today we are going look at the narrative essay [focus].
What does the word narrate mean? [elicitation] Yes X? [nomination]
- (8) LEARNER: To narrate, eeh...is to tell a story [response]
- (9) TEACHER: Good, to narrate is to tell a story. It is very important. So, what are the element of a narrative story? What things must be included in the story? Yes, X?
- (12) LEARNER: Introduction
- (13) TEACHER: Introduction. Very good. You introduce your essay. What else? Yes X?
- (14) LEARNER: The body
- (15) TEACHER: Yes the body of the essay. But what must be in the body? What things are important in the body of the essay? The story.
- (16) LEARNER: The place
- (17) TEACHER: The place very good you must have setting of the story. You must know where the story took place. What else must be in the story? Yes X?
- (19) LEARNER: The plot
- (20) TEACHER: Yes, the plot. What is the plot?
- (21) LEARNER: Main idea
- (22) TEACHER: She is saying main idea, what do others say? What is the plot? Yes X?
- (23) LEARNER: The main idea of what the story is about
- (24) TEACHER: And what? She is saying the main idea of what the story is about, and what? (pause). And the supporting ideas. The sequencing of events.
Do you understand what I am saying?
- (27) LEARNERS: Yes

To indicate a change from greetings to another topic, the teacher begins a T-P-T pattern with a frame “okay” (line A1:6). This is followed by the focus of the lesson which is a narrative essay. The lesson has an elicitation (A1:7) where the teacher elicits the definition of a narrative. This may suggest that this is not the first time learners learn a narrative. There is teacher nomination (A1:7) and a learner response (A1:8). This TP-T pattern indicates a flow of teacher-learner interaction in the classroom. It also shows that interactions are regulated by the teacher. It also shows that learners do not speak randomly in the classroom; they wait for the teacher to nominate them to speak. This is a common practice to maintain order and to control proceedings in the classroom (Oliver, 2007).

Learners' responses are one-word or short responses, for example in A1:12 (Introduction), and in A: 14 (The body). In A1: 8 the teacher provides feedback by accepting the learner's response. The teacher uses question and answer method to invite learner participation and their thinking on the different elements of a narrative such as the introduction, the body, and the conclusion.

The teacher also elicited important information which should be included in the body of a narrative. The learners responded in A1:16 that the body of a narrative should contain the place and the plot. This also suggests that learners know what a narrative is and they also understand the elements of a narrative. The teacher then moves to the second stage of the lesson.

The second stage of the lesson (A1:28-40):

(28) TEACHER: Good. Now [*frame*], let us move on to the stages of a narrative writing. [*directive*] What is the first stage of writing? [*elicitation*]

(30) LEARNERS: Free writing (31)

TEACHER: Free writing and?

(32) LEARNERS: Free writing and planning

(33) TEACHER: Second stage?

(34) LEARNERS: Drafting (35) TEACHER: Third stage?

(36) LEARNERS: Revision (37)

TEACHER: Fourth stage?

(38) LEARNERS: Editing

(39) TEACHER: Editing and the last one?

(40) LEARNERS: Publishing

In the above extract, the teacher uses the frame 'now' to indicate the move to the next stage of the lesson which is the stage of a narrative essay. The teacher uses the same technique of elicitation as she did in the previous stage. The learners' responses remain one, two words or short answers. For example, in A1:31 (Free writing), A1:11 (Introduction), and in A1:13 (the body). The focus of the stage is on the stages of writing.

The learners seemed to know these stages as they provide all the stages of the writing process when the teacher elicits them, for example in A:32 (planning), A:34 (drafting),

A:36 (revision), A:38 (editing), and in A:40 (publishing). Badger and White (2000) also agree that these are the stages of the writing process. The learners did not seem to be struggling with providing the teacher with the stages of the writing process. This implies that they have learnt the stages of writing prior to the lesson observed. CAPS curriculum suggests that teachers use the process approach to teach writing. The teacher, therefore, seems to be following the curriculum. The lesson then progresses to the third stage.

The third stage of the lesson A1:40-57:

(41) TEACHER: So we all know that when you are writing a story you follow the stages of writing. So today I am gonna give you a topic and you gonna do it to know or to show how you can write a narrative essay. I will just choose a topic "That night that drastically changed my dreams" (*writing the topic on the board*). Here is the topic. You are given a topic and you have to write a narrative essay. When you look at the topic what comes to your mind? Or what key words are very important? The words you gonna write about. Is "That" in the topic important?

In the above extract, the teacher gives a topic that students must write about and begins to help the learners analyse the topic by asking them what comes into their minds when they see the topic. The teacher continues with the question and answer method as she provides more elicitations to help learners to understand the key words in the topic which is another process of writing as explained by Flower and Hayes (1981) in their model of writing stages. Flower and Hayes (1981) argue that a difficult topic could be a barrier to second language learners' effective writing.

The teacher then moved to the fourth stage of the lesson:

(71) TEACHER: And then free writing, what did we say we gonna do when we write the essay?

(72) LEARNER: You decide on the purpose of the text and audience you are writing to

(73) TEACHER: Yes you decide on the purpose of the text and audience. And then on the next stage what do you do?

(75) LEARNER: Use the flow chart or listing ideas to brainstorm your ideas (76)

TEACHER: Ok, let use a flowchart to brainstorm your ideas. You don't use listing your ideas, you write a sign and then you write the ideas that come to your mind when you think of the night that drastically changed your dreams. What comes to your mind? What could have happened? Yes?

(80) LEARNER: What kind of a night

(81) TEACHER: Yes, what kind of a night that was. And what else? What ideas you can use? *Phela* [isiZulu word for 'Indeed'] you are writing a story to someone you want to tell him or her about the night that changed your dreams. Yes X?

In this stage, the teacher used a technique of brainstorming the topic as a class. All the ideas were written on the board. The teacher continues to invite learner participation through the question and answer method. Learners sometimes waited for the nomination to respond (A1: 83 and A1:87) but most of the time they responded without a cue (A1:90; A1:92; A1:94; A1:101; A1:125; A1:128). This implies that learners were actively involved in the lesson. From observation, they also seemed to enjoy the lesson.

This lesson has many examples of meta-interactive acts; for example, A1:58 (Ok) and A1:67 (So) etc. These frames are used to focus a lesson for example, in A1: 76 (TEACHER: Ok, let use a flowchart to brainstorm your ideas [*focus*]).

The extract below shows how initiation is realised through informative act.

(166) TEACHER: In Grade 10 it is imperative that you do not write less than 5 paragraphs. *Siyezwana?* [isiZulu word for 'Do we understand each other']

There is teacher code-switching in line A1:166. To ensure that learners are listening, the teacher often used isiZulu phrase "*Siyezwana?*"

The lesson has a directive:

(275) TEACHER: Now, start writing your paragraph. Write today's date, your topic and then begin your paragraph. Please we write in full sentences. Put a full stop or a question mark if needs be. We use a comma or whatever punctuation mark. Don't write the dashes at the beginning of the sentences. Remember that we don't use capital letter anyhow.

The above lesson shows how the teacher used the process approach which is recommended by the curriculum to teach writing to her learners. As suggested in the curriculum, teachers may not necessarily teach all the stages and writing processes but they may select the stages they want to teach in that particular lesson. For

example, the teacher in the above lesson seemed to focus on teaching brainstorming and the planning for the introduction. After teaching these two writing processes, she gave learners a task to write their own paragraph.

The following section presents a lesson from School B.

4.2.1.2. Presentation and Analysis of a Writing Lesson from School B

Grade: 12

Duration of lesson: 60 minutes

Number of learners: 48

Focus of the lesson: Narrative Essay

The lesson begins with a normal exchange for a greeting:

- (1) TEACHER: Good morning class
- (2) LEARNERS: Good morning Miss

The above classroom exchange is a normal exchange for a greeting in a classroom where the pattern is not T-P-T (IRF) but is T-P (I-R). After the greetings the teacher introduces the lesson in the following manner (B2:3-17):

- (3) TEACHER: Today we are going to be doing a narrative essay [*focus*]. Put off your exercise books and take out handouts on narrative essay [*directive*]. I am sure you are familiar with the concept. Anyone who has idea of what a narrative essay is? [*elicitation*] Yes X [*nomination*]
- (7) LEARNER: A narrative essay tells a story. [*response*]
- (8) TEACHER: Yes, a narrative essay tells a story [*feedback*] (*writing on the board*). Narrative is an account of events or incidents (*reading from the handout*). It revolves around a plot or a story-line and it may encompass a morale. So [*frame*] what does this tell us, a narrative essay? Firstly it should have a story-line and what is a story-line? A story should have different but coherent ideas. Okay?
- (14) LEARNERS: Yes Mam
- (14) TEACHER: You only talk about one thing but of course you are going to present different ideas within the body of your essay but they be coherent or follow one another from the introduction to your conclusion. *Siyezwana?*
- (17) LEARNERS: Yes

In the first part of the lesson the teacher gives a focus of the lesson (B2:3) which is a narrative lesson. The teacher then gives a directive (B2:4) for the learners to take their

notes on a narrative essay. This implies that the learners have learning resources to help and support their writing development. In B2:6 the teacher elicits the definition of a narrative essay from learners. The teacher makes a nomination in B2:6. B2:7 is a response from the nominated learner who responded that a narrative essay tells a story. To complete the T-P-T pattern, the teacher provides feedback by accepting the learner's response in B2:8. Learners seemed to know the definition of a narrative because the first learner who was nominated by the teacher responded correctly. This implies that this was not the first narrative lesson for the learners.

Nevertheless, the teacher moved to the second stage of the lesson (B2:18-58):

- (18) TEACHER: Okay [*meta-interactive act*] let us move on [*directive*].
- (19) TEACHER: What is the important thing to consider when writing your essay?
[*elicitation*]
- (20) LEARNER: Introduction [*response*]
- (21) TEACHER: No. Before you even get to an introduction. Raise your hands [*cue*]. Yes, X [*nomination*]
- (22) LEARNER: The topic of the essay
- (23) TEACHER: Good X (*name of the learner*). Your topic of writing is the most important element that shapes your lines of thinking [*feedback*]
- (25) TEACHER: After the topic, what else must you think about?
- (26) LEARNER: Planning, Sir
- (28) TEACHER: So how do you do the planning for your essay?
- (29) LEARNER: You brainstorm the topic, Sir
- (30) TEACHER: Yes you can brainstorm, you can brainstorm the topic, generating ideas or do a mind map, a flow chart or float lines. Now, why is planning important when you doing a narrative essay? So when you are going to do an essay you should have a planning, a planning is going to serve as a guide as to how you going to go about presenting your story to us hence you have mentioned that a narrative essay it tells a story so you should a guide so this guide is going to help you with presenting to us these ideas in a coherent manner. Let us look at the second bullet. The orientation or introduction indicates two things it should be the time and the setting. The time what do we look at when we looking at the time? The time has two components, yes X?
- (42) Learner: Date and era
- (43) TEACHER: We look at the date and era and it introduces the main characters so the main character of your story should be introduced in your introduction because we need to know whom is story about who is going to carry out most action in your story. A gripping opening sentence is effective and essential so gripping meaning your first sentence in your narrative essay it should be interesting and it should what? entice a reader so you should you have interest

in learning more about this character and your story we want to see as the story and the characters evolve you must make sure that it interesting.

In the second section the teacher elicited the most important aspect learners should consider when writing their essays. The teacher stressed that the topic of the essay is the most important aspect of writing the essay as it shapes their thinking (B2:23-24). This implies that the teacher is well informed about the writing process that she is using to teach writing in her class. The teacher then solicited the learners' understanding of the stages of writing through the question and answer method. The teacher elicits what learners think about the topic. The learner responded that planning is important (B2:26), and so is brainstorming (B2:29). This shows that learners are well informed about the stages of writing as suggested by the process approach. It also implies that the school follows the process approach to writing as recommended by the curriculum.

Nevertheless, the lesson progresses to the next stage (B2:52-68):

(52) TEACHER: The body consist of a number of paragraphs. In Grade 12 when you writing your narrative essay it should consist of a number of paragraphs and the length it should be one page or a page and a half nothing less and nothing more than that. (*Reading*) This series of events contain the development complications or the plot so this may lead to a climax or anti-climax so in the sentence in your development they lead to climax or anti-climax that is not always the case that is why here they use the word may be it is possible but it is compulsory that your essay should have a climax or anti-climax.

In this stage of the lesson, the teacher spent more time explaining different aspects that form the body of a narrative essay such as the plot (B2:56); climax (B2:57) and the characters (B2:61). The teacher also stressed that the body of a narrative consists of a number of paragraphs (B2:52). The focus on the structure of the body, that is, the paragraphs, is influenced by the product approach. This shows that the teacher draws from the process approach and the product approach to teach writing.

After discussing the body of the narrative essay, the teacher then moved to the next stage of the lesson:

(115) TEACHER: Ok, the present tense is sometimes used to create immediacy. We have mentioned that the tense of the narrative essay it should be in

the past we use a past tense but you can opt or choose to use a what? A present tense. Do you get me?

(120) LEARNERS: Yes

(121) TEACHER: Present tense but that is only, you can only use that for immediacy to create effect or emphasis.

In the above section of the lesson, the teacher explains the tense that is used for a narrative essay. She informs the learners that a narrative normally uses the past tense. Flower and Hayes (1981) argue that for second language learners the issues of second language rules cannot be undermined in the writing process. They further argue that for second language learners, second language acquisition and second language writing often occur simultaneously.

As the learners edit their own texts or each other's texts, they learn the language process while developing the writing process. Scholars like Badger and White (2000) concur that even though the product approach has been criticised for too much reliance on the linguistic structures more than the ideas in the text, the approach may not necessarily be all that disadvantageous, especially for second language learners who may need linguistic and grammatical assistance in the development of ideas.

Badger and White (2000) also reiterate that the product approach does recognise the learners' need for linguistic development and competence across different texts for them to become efficient writers. Imitation is one method by which people learn. In other words, teachers are encouraged to balance the product approach with other writing approaches in order to effectively support the development of writing skills of their learners.

Nevertheless, the lesson moved to the next stage:

(136) TEACHER: And then second to last the mood should be created by the use of powerful and precise selection and remember for every text we consider the tone and the mood and for the tone what do we consider? For the tone we consider the feelings whose feelings do we consider when we talking about the tone? Feelings of the narrators. And then the mood, whose feelings do we consider?

(142) LEARNERS: My mood

(143) TEACHER: Yes your mood as the reader.

In the above stage of the lesson, the teacher put emphasis on the feelings, the mood, the tone and diction of a narrative as a genre. These aspects are specific to genres and they vary according the type of texts learners are learning to write. The teaching of these aspects of writing implies the use of a genre approach in addition to the process and product approaches that the teacher used in the earlier stages of the lesson.

In the last stage of the lesson (B2:164-208), the teacher provided a sample or a model of a narrative essay for the learners to learn how a narrative is written.

Teacher: This is a sample, this is an example of a narrative essay now that you know the components of a narrative essay let us identify them from this essay using this worksheet and also looking at an essay. In your introduction two things must appear in your introduction, that is the time, setting and it should also introduce the main characters now can we identify those in the introduction so now we only looking at the first paragraph the time and date? Are we given the time and date?

Having discussed different elements of a narrative essay in the earlier stages of the lesson, in the above extract the teacher now provides a model for learners to learn how different aspects discussed earlier are used in an essay. White (2000) supports the use of a model text of a particular genre and suggests that it provides learners with important information about the structure and functions of syntactical and lexical aspects required by the genre learners are learning.

All in all, the teacher in the above lesson used three approaches: process, product and genre approaches at different stages of her lesson to teach writing.

The following section presents a lesson from School C.

4.2.1.3. Presentation and Analysis of a Writing Lesson from School C Lesson

Grade: 10

Duration of lesson: 65 minutes

Number of learners: 52

Focus of the lesson: Letter of Invitation (Invitation card)

In C3: 1-17 is the first stage of the lesson, which is the greetings and introduction:

- (1) TEACHER: *Yini kwenzenjani van Damme?* (What's wrong van Damme?)
Uyagula? (Are you sick?) *Unani?* (What [sickness] do you have?)
- (4) LEARNER: *Umzimba ubuhlungu* (My body is sore) [*feedback*]
- (5) TEACHER: *Kubuhlungu umzimba?* (Your body is sore?) *Yini ubuwenzani izolo?*
(What were you doing yesterday?) *Uyayifaka into yokukhipha inyongo?* (Did you drink anything to cleanse your body?) *Ekhaya ubatshelile?* (Did you tell them at home?)
- (9) LEARNER: Yes mam
- (10) TEACHER: *Bathini* (What did they say?)
- (11) LEARNER: *Bathi ngizoya clinic after school* (They said I will go to the clinic after school).
- (13) TEACHER: *Namhlanje sivakashelwe u Mrs X, she works at the ... she works at the university. She is a lecturer. She with us today because she wants to experience the actual teaching when it comes to writing. Ngithemba ukuthi nizoziphatha kahle, sizo* behaviour [I hope you will behave].

After the greetings and the introduction, the teacher moves to the second stage of the lesson (C3: 13-25):

- (13) TEACHER: *Ngicela ningisulela ibhodi* (Please clean the board for me).
[*directive*]
- TEACHER: *Sizohlehla ke mah eh, sibuyele emuva kancane nje.* Okay? (We will go back a little bit my friends)
- (16) LEARNERS: Yes
- (17) TEACHER: Keep quite so that we can start our lesson.
- (18) TEACHER: *Konje ke iyini writing?* (What is writing?)
- (19) LEARNER: (*silence*)
- TEACHER: *Uma sibhala sibeka imicabango yethu, angithi?* (When we write we express our thought, isn't it?)
- (22) LEARNERS: Yes
- (23) TEACHER: Today I want us to look at invitation letter. Alright? [*frame*]
- (24) LEARNERS: Yes
- (25) TEACHER: Did you bring your writing exercise books?
- (26) LEARNERS: Yes

In the above stage of the lesson, the teacher recaps the previous lesson on writing by eliciting the learners' understanding of the previous topic. The teacher invites learner

participation through the question and answer method. The teacher also uses examples to explain what she is writing (C3:20). C3:23 has a frame “Alright”.

In B36-82 the teacher explains what she expects from learners when they write their texts. The teacher explains that writing begins with sentences and that sentences join together to form paragraphs.

In the next stage of the lesson the teacher provided a focus of the lesson (C3:96-157):

(92) TEACHERS: Okay. Let us now move on. You have *i* diary writing *niyayikhumbula*? [Do you remember?]

(93) LEARNERS: Yes

(94) TEACHER: *Zonke lezinto ziyini*? [What are all these things?] They are part of writing *angithi*? [Isn't it?]

(95) LEARNERS: Yes

(96) TEACHER: What is the reason for writing an invitation? X?

(97) LEARNER: To invite

TEACHER: Yes, (*writing on the board*) we write an invitation to invite someone to an occasion. What occasion can that be?

(100) LEARNER: A wedding

(101) TEACHER: A wedding (*writing on the board*). Or what?

(102) LEARNER: Birthday party

TEACHER: A birthday party, good. So, let us draw a birthday invitation card (*drawing a card*). What information must be on your card? Does anyone know? X?

(105) LEARNER: Address

(106) TEACHER: Address. What is your address X?

(107) LEARNER: 101 Nyamazane Road, Ntuzuma

(108) TEACHER: (*writing the address on the board*). Ok. And what else?

(109) LEARNER: A date, Mam

(110) TEACHER: Yes, a date. When is the event? (111) LEARNER: 12 April.

(112) TEACHER: 12 April. Is that your birthday X?

(113) LEARNER: Yes Mam

(114) TEACHER: Ok. What other information should be on the invitation card? (115)

LEARNERS: (*silence*) (116) TEACHER: Eeeh? X.

(117) LEARNER: Time. Good.

(118) TEACHER: Time, good.

(119) LEARNER: A dress code Mam

(120) TEACHER: A dress code. Yes (121) LEARNER: Cell phone number

(122) TEACHER: yes, RSVP. What does RSVP stands for?

(123) LEARNER: (*silence*)

Teacher: If we write RSVP in an invitation what do we want? To send you your reply *usho ukuthi uyeza emcimbini angithi*? [You say whether you are coming to the function isn't it?] Yes. So you reply very soon *usho* you will be coming and you

phone the person whose number is given on the card. Why must you phone *usho uyeza*? X?

(128) LEARNER: So that they know that how many people *abazayo emcimbini* [coming to the function].

The teacher mainly used isiZulu to teach and to provide clarification on the important points of the lesson. D4: 92 has a frame followed by a directive and then an elicitation. In D4: 96 the teacher elicited the reasons for writing an invitation letter. There is no bidding but there is nomination and a response in this stage of the lesson.

The teacher concluded the lesson by giving the writing of an invitation as homework D4: 164-166.

4.1.2.4. Presentation and Analysis of a Writing Lesson from School D

Grade: 11

Duration of lesson: 55 minutes

Number of learners: 50

Focus of the lesson: Friendly Letter

D1-40 is the first stage of the lesson.

(1) TEACHER: Good morning class

LEARNERS: Good morning Mam

TEACHER: Before you sit down, let me introduce to you Mrs X, a researcher from UKZN. She is joining us for this lesson. Please greet Mrs X.

LEARNERS: Good morning Mrs X. (*the researcher greeted back*)

TEACHER: Okay. Yesterday we learned about..., who remembers what we learned about *izolo* [yesterday]? [*elicitation*]

(7) LEARNER: (*Raising their hands*) [*bidding*] TEACHER:

Yes, X

LEARNER: We learned about a formal letter

TEACHER: What we did learn about in a formal writing? Yes, X

(11) LEARNER: Eer we learned about how to write it

TEACHER: Good. We learned about how to write a formal letter or a..?

LEARNER: Business letter

TEACHER: Yes, a formal letter or a business letter. Quickly give me three important characteristics, elements or aspects of a formal letter. How does it differ from other types of longer transactional writing like essays?

(17) LEARNERS: (*silence*)

TEACHER: *Hhayi bo abantu bebengekho yini izolo* [What is it were people absent yesterday]? Yes X?

LEARNER: It has two addresses

TEACHER: Good. We learned that a business letter has two addresses. Whose addresses are those?

(22) LEARNER: My address and the manager

TEACHER: *Hhayi bo* we didn't say my address *izolo*. Whose address are those? Yes X?

LEARNER: The writer and the receiver

TEACHER: Good. The sender's address and the receiver's address. What else? For the receiver's address we also add the name or the position of the receiver. What else?

LEARNERS: (*silence*)

TEACHER: *Eeeh?* What other aspects makes a formal letter?

LEARNER: Dear Sir or Madam

(30) TEACHER: *Eeerrrh*, what do we call that part of the letter? LEARNER: Opening

TEACHER: Good. Opening or salutation. So, how is salutation of a formal letter?

LEARNERS: Formal

TEACHER: Now, give me the last thing, *eeeh* X?

LEARNER: We underline the heading TEACHER:

Did we say the heading *izolo*?

(38) LEARNER: The subject of the letter

TEACHER: Good, X. We called it the subject of the letter and we underline it, isn't? And one more important thing is that we use a formal language to write a business letter. Ok?

LEARNERS: Yes Mam.

In the first stage of the lesson the teacher recapitulated the previous lesson on the formal letter. The teacher invited learner participation through elicitation in D4: 5, D4: 9 and in D: 11. In D4: 7 learners bid for nomination. The teacher nominated a learner to respond in D4: 8. A learner responded in D4: 9. The teacher provided feedback in D4: 10.

The directives continued to the next stage as the teacher asked different learners to read different sections of the previous examination paper as shown below:

(12) TEACHER: Someone read the question for us. Section B longer transactional text

(13) LEARNER: (*reading from her copy*). Respond to one of the following transactional

writing texts. The body of your text should be between 120 and 150 words in length. Write down the number and the heading of the text you responding to for example 2.1 friendly letter. Pay particular attention to

format, language and register. Spend approximately 40 minutes on this section.

(19) TEACHER: You will notice that the front cover says that your question paper take one hour to write. But you don't write for one hour, you write for 40 minutes, you must spend the other 20 for planning. Okay?

(22) LEARNERS: Right.

(23) TEACHER: Then what happens to that other 20 minutes? It's the drafting right? so you cannot write this peace unless you make sure that you have the adequate information. Now remember we are saying that every text you need to focus on the format, the language, the register (*writing these words on the board*). What comes to your mind when doing a task?

Format *ikhuluma ngani?* [What does format mean?] (29) LEARNER:
The structure

TEACHER: The format is about the structure or the layout. *Kusho ukuthi* [It means] the type when it is the friendly letter *izobukeka kanjani* [how it will look like] without even reading it I must that it is a friendly letter so every piece is unique so you need to observe all of those rules, right?

(35) LEARNERS: Yes

In D4: 12 the teacher gave a directive for the learner to read the question for the class. There was no nomination. In the above stage of the lesson, the teacher guided learners on how to write a friendly letter for their examination. The teacher explains the format of a friendly letter in D: 23. The teacher also explains that learners must observe the language rules when writing their friendly letter in D: 34. This implies that the product approach is used in the classroom.

In the next stage of the lesson moved from teaching the format of a friendly letter into teaching writing of a speech. This is how the next stage of the lesson unfolded:

TEACHER: Because I am sure that you that when you writing a speech what type of things that come into your mind? Let us put them on the board and then we can come back to the question. If you are writing a speech what come into your mind before you even put it down? In terms of the structure? How must it look like? Is it in point form or in a paragraph?

(50) LEARNERS: Paragraph form.

TEACHERS: So when you writing a speech it must be in a paragraph form remember your paragraph try to make it one because the moment you skip too many lines you are going to an impression that may be you have exceed the number of words for these short text it is about 150 to 160. Alright?

The above exchange opens with a teacher elicitation (E5: 45–49). The teacher elicited answers on how the structure of a speech looks like. The focus on the structure implies

the product approach. There was no cue or nomination but the learner responded. In E5: 51-55 is the teacher's acceptance of the learner's response.

The lesson continued with teacher-centred explanations of how to write a speech in the examination. Most of classroom talk was done by the teacher while the learners passively listened to the teacher.

Nevertheless, the lesson concluded in the following way:

TEACHER: Yah, at the back of your mind so you must be able to write this and then remember after you have written this *wenzenjani* [how do you do]? You cancel (*crossing out all the points on the board*) right? You cancel but I think that examiners don't have a problem cause you always write what? What it is a?

(201 LEARNERS: Draft

(202) TEACHER: You take this as your homework because the time is up. I will check tomorrow.

(End of period)

As shown in the above extract, the teacher concluded the lesson by stressing that learners must strike out their first drafts during their examination. The writing of a speech was given as homework (E5: 202).

The analysis of the five lessons shows the process approach to writing being mostly used by the teachers in the five schools. The emphasis on the structure, format and language conventions in their lessons shows that the teachers belong to the product approach which stresses the importance of these aspects more than ideas and the process of writing (Badger & White, 2000). The lessons were also teacher-centred. From the lesson extracts we can see that most of the explanations or talking was provided by the teachers. In all the five lessons, the learners' talk was limited to oneword or short responses. The lesson extracts also show little interactions among the learners. These are characteristics of traditional teaching styles (Ahmed & Ahmed, 2017).

4.2.1.5. Presentation and Analysis of a Writing Lesson from School E

Grade: 10

Duration of lesson: 55 minutes

Number of learners: 58

Focus of the lesson: Narrative Essay

The lesson began in the following T-P-T pattern:

(1) TEACHER: Good morning class

LEARNERS: Good morning Sir

TEACHER: Yesterday I mentioned that we will have a visitor for this period. This is Mrs X from UKZN.

(5) LEARNERS: Good morning Mrs X (*the researcher greeted back*)

The above extracts show the normal classroom greeting pattern. However, instead in this lesson, the teacher first introduced the researcher to the learners. The teacher then moved to the first stage of the lesson E5: 6-23:

TEACHER: Today we are going to revise writing of a narrative essay. But first, how we define a narrative essay? How does it differ from other types of essays? A narrative essay, how do we write it?

(10) LEARNER: It is a short story that talks about what happened

LEARNER: A life story

LEARNER: The writer is the narrator of the story

TEACHER: Good. So we say its short story (*writing on the board*). We also say, a writer could be sharing life experiences and thirdly, the writer is also the narrator of the story. That is, it is written in the first person narration. Right? (16) LEARNERS: Yes Sir TEACHER: What else?

LEARNER: You write the story in the past tense

TEACHER: Good. Those are just the basics. There is more to writing a narrative essay. You must think about you tell your story in an interesting way. *Ukubhala ngendlela ehehayo* [To write in an inviting way]. There are steps that we follow when we write a narrative essay, right?

(23) LEARNERS: Yes Sir

To introduce the lesson, the teacher provided the focus of the lesson (E5: 6) which is to revise the writing of a narrative. This shows that the teacher is not teaching the narrative for the first time. The teacher then elicited the meaning of a narrative. The teacher nominated learners to speak. In E5: 5 the first learner provided a response. This is followed by another learner response in E5: 6 before the teacher's feedback.

The T-P-T discourse pattern is then disrupted into T-P-P-T which shows that learners' speaking turns are not controlled by the teacher in the classroom as we have seen in other lessons in this study.

Nevertheless, before moving to the next stage, the teacher explained that the narrative is mostly written in the first person narration. In E5: 19-20 the teacher used codeswitching to explain how learners should write their narratives "*Ukubhala ngendlela ehehayo*" (writing in a captivating way). The teacher then moved to the next stage of the lesson which is the stage of the writing:

TEACHER: What the first step of writing an essay? Anyone who knows? Yes, over there?

LEARNER: We brainstorm the topic

TEACHER: No. I said the first step. You were not listening. Anyone?

LEARNER: We first choose a topic

TEACHER: Yes, we choose a topic for writing. What else?

LEARNER: We brainstorm the topic

TEACHER: Yes, we brainstorm the topic. What is it that we do when we brainstorm the topic?

(28) LEARNERS: (*silence*)

TEACHER: What do we mean by brainstorming? What exactly do we do there?

LEARNERS: We do the planning for the essay

TEACHER: Yes, brainstorming is part of planning. But I want to know *ukuthi* if *sithi* we are brainstorming the topic, *senza ini* [what do we do]?

LEARNER: We take the topic and draw a spider diagram and then find make ideas for the topic. Like, what you will write about in the introduction, body and conclusion.

TEACHER: Good. Brainstorming is thinking about ideas for your writing. Yes you can use a spider-diagram, you can list your points down or you free write your ideas. To free-write is to write all the ideas that you think of in your mind about the topic, right?

(38) LEARNERS: Yes Sir.

In the second phase of the lesson the teacher focused on the stages of the writing process. Through elicitations, the teacher invited learners' participation in the discussion of the stages of the writing process beginning with brainstorming of the topic. The teacher emphasised that when brainstorming the topic, learners can use a spider diagram to generate ideas for the introduction, body and conclusion (E5: 3537). This classroom discourse implies the use of the process approach to teach writing. Brainstorming or planning is the first stage of the writing process followed by drafting, revising, editing and publishing (Badger & White, 2000). After teaching the

brainstorming skills, the teacher then moved into the next stage of the lesson where he gave learners the topic for their writing task.

TEACHER: Now I want you to choose a topic from a list of topics in your notes. Choose the topic and create a spider diagram and start to think about what information you need for your topic. Write as much information as you can. I give you 20 minutes to do that. You can use the back of your exercise books for this activity. Write the topic clearly so that I can check if your ideas are in-line with your topic. Alright?

In the extract above, the teacher provided learners with the time to implement the spider diagram technique to brainstorm ideas for their writing. The teacher also explained that he will check their ideas to provide feedback on whether the ideas are in line with the topics chosen by the learners. This classroom discourse further confirms the implementation of the process approach in the writing classroom. By providing feedback on the learners' ideas, it could be said that the teacher understands writing as a social practice. That is, the teacher understands his role of providing guidance and support as the knowledgeable adult in the classroom context. In the next stage of the lesson the teacher instructs learners to start writing the introductions:

TEACHER: We still have some 10 minutes. We can start our introductions. Remember that in the introduction you put ideas that belong there. Let us say you chose the topic "*That night that drastically changed my life*" Anyone who chose that topic?

(66) LEARNERS: Yes

TEACHER: Yes. That topic sounds interesting and not difficult at all to write about. So, for those who chose this topic, what ideas did you put in the introduction?

In the extract above, the teacher chose one topic and engaged learners in brainstorming the ideas for the introduction. The teacher continued to use the question and answer strategy to invite learners to think about the ideas for the introduction part of the narrative. After brainstorming for the introduction, the teacher gave learners time to start writing their introductions. In this lesson more time was provided for learners to actually practise the writing stages. In the earlier section of the lesson, the teacher provided time for the learners to write and show their planning. In the above extract, the teacher provides time for the writing of the introduction. This implies that teachers understand that in order for learners to learn writing they should actually engage in the writing process (Hyland, 2001).

The teacher concluded the lesson in the following way:

TEACHER: Okay, we running out of time. So, you will take your ideas home, continue to work on them at home. Tomorrow we will begin to write our first draft. Okay? Any questions?

LEARNERS: No.

(117) TEACHER: Okay. I want to see all the ideas tomorrow before we start writing tomorrow.

All in all, this writing lesson used the process approach to teach the brainstorming of the writing topic and the writing of the introduction. The teacher also provided time for the learners to actually engage with writing in the classroom. Furthermore, the teacher also provided time for feedback and guidance on the learners' ideas which indicates that the classroom, to some extent, is underpinned by the social learning theory.

The following section presents and analyses data from the learners' written tasks.

4.3. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF WRITTEN DOCUMENTS

Of the five objectives of this study, two were to analyse the types of writing across the five schools and to examine the writing tasks in the selected schools. Therefore, the two research questions the study sought to answer were 1) What types of writing do learners produce?, and 2) What is the quality of writing produced by learners?. To answer these two questions, documents such as learners' written tasks were collected and analysed. A sample of learners' tasks was collected from teachers in the five schools to determine the types of writing learners produced across the three grades (10, 11, 12).

4.3.1. Analysis of the types of writing produced by learners

To understand the types of writing produced by the learners, the researcher, with the assistance of the teachers, was able to collect learners' written tasks from the five schools. In total, 40 tasks were received. When analysing the tasks, the researcher found that across the three grades (10, 11, 12), texts collected could be categorised into five types: narrative essays, formal letter, diary entry, directions and invitation letter, covering letter and dialogue.

The narrative essays were mostly produced by the learners in all the five schools across all the three grades (copies of the essays attached in the appendices). Because

the researcher did not spend much time in the schools, she could not tell whether other types of essays were ever taught to the learners. So the popularity of the narrative essays could only be associated with the narratives being the most famous types of essays among learners as they are able to freely express their experiences, feelings, ideas, thoughts and feelings (Macken-Horarik, 2002 in Ramagoshi, 2011). All the copies of the learners' narratives are attached in this study.

Because narratives were collected by the teachers, the researcher assumed that they were final drafts since some were marked to indicate that they were part of an assessment. Nevertheless, the essays varied in length according to different grades. Grade 10 essays were one and a half pages on average, while Grade 11 and 12 essays were mostly two pages to two and a half pages. The curriculum expects Grade 10 learners to write essays of 150-200 words, which was the number of words counted by the researcher in Grade 10 essays selected for analysis.

The curriculum also recommends that Grade 11 learners should write between 200-250 words, while Grade 12 essays should not be less than 250 words and not more than 300 words. In most of the essays analysed, the learners matched the required number of words. Most essays followed the accepted structure of introduction, body and conclusion. However, in some essays it was clear that learners were not sure what information should be in the introduction, body or conclusion. Again, in some essays, the last paragraphs did not sound like the conclusion; however, the researcher took them as conclusions because they were the last paragraphs. Nonetheless, some essays were well-written, neat and the coherence across the paragraphs was achieved by the writers.

Letters were also mostly produced by the learners in all the five schools. Formal letters such as letters of application for bursaries, for admission to study at a university and for a job were mostly produced by Grade 11 and 12 learners. Some formal letters followed the expected structure of two addresses (the writer's address and the recipient's address); some letters indicated a lack of understanding that the recipient's address begins with the title of the receiver. Instead of writing "The Manager", one learner wrote "Mr Mbatha" and did not write the company name but instead gave the

post box address of the company. Friendly letters, like a letter to the grandmother or aunt, were mostly produced by Grade 10 learners.

Diary entries were also mostly produced by the learners. In most cases, the learners wrote three entries in their diaries sharing their feelings of joy, happiness or even fear about experiences such fear of the first day of presenting in front of the class, fear and joy of auditioning for the best role in the school play, and so on. A diary entry is a short transactional text. Learners are expected to write for not more 100 words. Each entry must show a date and then reflection.

Normally, learners are expected to write diary entries in the past tense. However, the text should be informal as the learner is writing for himself or herself. Diary entries were mostly produced by Grade 10 and 11 learners. In general, all the texts analysed adhered to the number of words and the format. The message in all the texts was personal and reflective of the daily or weekly experiences as expected.

Directions were produced mostly by Grade 10 learners where learners are expected to tell someone how to get somewhere. They are expected to translate directions usually given in the form of a map into words using the landmarks and signs and precise distance. Directions are short transactional texts. The curriculum expects learners to write between 80-100 words. In most cases, the directions that were produced by learners were well-written, clear and concise except one that was not legible at all and the directions were not given correctly.

Learners also produced letters of invitation. They were inviting family members to their birthday parties, their family member's graduation parties, their university send-off parties and so on. While the curriculum gives learners a choice of using a format of an informal letter or a card format, all the letters produced by the learners were in the format of an invitation card. A letter of invitation is also a short transactional writing. If a task is done in the classroom or as homework, learners are expected to decorate their invitation cards or letters to resemble real invitation cards. However, in an exam context or assessment, learners are only expected to provide information.

Learners are expected to adhere to a certain number of words, usually 80-100 words, and the structure of the invitation that clearly shows the event, date of the event, who is sending the invitation, place of the event, dress code, and so on. All the invitation cards produced by learners were not colourfully decorated and they were marked which implies that they may have been written for assessment or examination.

Obituaries were also produced by learners. As a longer transactional text, learners are expected to produce this type of text to commemorate and inform others of someone's death. A well-written obituary should indicate the names of the deceased, date of death, where the person was living at the time of death, date of birth, birthplace, key survivors (children, spouse, parents, etc.) and their names, time and place of the funeral. Biographical information and cause of death may be added. Learners are expected to follow a formal style of writing and be concise with language conventions, such as 'passed away' instead of 'died' and so on. Obituaries were mostly produced by Grade 12 learners. The researcher could not make any deductions for this preference of type of writing by Grade 12 learners.

All in all, learners in this study produced a range of texts as expected at FET levels. However, the researcher noticed that while the curriculum suggests that learners should produce a range of types of essays such as argumentative, discursive, descriptive and reflective, the learners in this study, mostly produced narrative essays. Since the researcher also observed most of the narrative lessons, she deduced that narrative writing was the most common and preferred type of writing across in the five schools. Again, other academic genres such as reports, procedures, explanations, reviews, curriculum vitae, to name just a few, were not produced by the learners in this study. Neither were these genres or types of texts observed among the lessons taught. This also implies that these other text types were less preferred by teachers. If this was the case, learners might be deprived an opportunity of learning other types of essays which are also critical for their writing development at FET phase -- a phase that marks three years before they leave the basic education to join higher education or professional world of work.

Derewianka (1990) argues that secondary school learners should be exposed to different genre types, especially the academic types of texts to help them acquire the structure, arguments, vocabulary and conventions before they join universities where these types of texts are mostly favoured over creative texts.

4.3.2. Analysis of the Quality of Learners' Writing

Data collected from different types of writings (essays, formal letters, diary entries, interviews, directions, covering letter) were analysed to establish the quality of writing among the FEAL FET learners through error analysis (EA) (Corder, 1967; Brown, 1994). EA is a system of analysing the types and causes of errors among second language learners (Corder, 1967). Corder (1967) argues that in the process of learning to write in a second language, learners normally deviate from the rules of the target language.

EA, therefore, becomes a valuable tool for teachers to identify and explain difficulties faced by second language learners in their writing (Maruma, 2017). On the same note, Ellis (1994) argues that in identifying learners' errors, the researchers must be aware of the differences between an error and mistake. The former being a repeated or consistency in breaking the rules of the language, while the latter being a one-time occurrence of the violation of the language rule.

The four steps of EA developed by Corder (1967) were followed in this study. These four steps are: collection of learners' written sample; identification of error; description of error; and explanation of error. In this study, the steps followed were identification of error; description of error; and correction of error. To show that writing errors were common across the five schools, the researcher selected one text from each school represented as Text 1, Learner A, School A; Text 2, Learner B, School B and so on to protect the participants. Error analysis is presented by means of tables for simplification purposes. In the first column, errors are identified and underlined. In the second column, errors are described and in the third column, errors are corrected.

Text 1, Learner A, School A

Identification of Error	Description of Error	Correction of Error
Dear GRANDMOTHER	Error in capitalisation	Dear Grandmother
<u>Unfortunatly</u> we did not meet this year....	Error in spelling	<u>Unfortunately</u> we did not meet this year.....
...we did not meet this year in <u>january</u>	Error in capitalisation	...we did not meet this year in <u>January</u>
...because of <u>my self</u> not being well	Error in possessive pronoun	...because of <u>myself</u> not being well.
we have last seen each other <u>on november</u>	Error in capitalisation; error in preposition; wrong tense	<u>We</u> have last seen in each other <u>in November</u> .
Before <u>i</u> could say anything else <u>_</u> would like to apologise for not coming <u>and visiting</u> you <u>durring december</u> time.	Error in capitalisation/ conjunction/verb/ spelling/missing possessive pronoun	Before <u>I</u> could say anything else <u>I</u> would like to apologise for not coming <u>to visit</u> you during <u>December</u> time.
...only words would express the amount of <u>happeness</u> that <u>i</u> have for you.	Error in capitalisation; error in spelling	...only words would express the amount of <u>happiness</u> that <u>I</u> have for you.
Would <u>lik</u> to thank you very much for this beautiful gift you have <u>gaven</u> me <u>*</u>	error in spelling/ error in punctuation	<u>I</u> would <u>like</u> to thank you very much for this beautiful gift you have <u>given</u> me.

Text A from Learner A, School A above is a friendly letter to the learner's grandmother. Error analysis revealed errors mainly in capitalisation and spelling. As seen from the table, the learner repeatedly started all the names of the months with a small letter "january", "november" and "december". The analysis of the learner's writing also showed some spelling mistakes in the learner's text. Ellis (1994) states that if the learner misspelt the same word only once, it could be a mistake, not an error. However, if the same word is wrongly spelled more than once, then it is an error (Ellis, 1994). In

the case of Learner A, many words were misspelled but none of them were misspelled more than once since they appeared once in the text. Nevertheless, spelling errors were committed in words like: *Unfortunatly (unfortunately), happeness (happiness), durring (during), gaven (given).*

Text 2, Learner B, School B

Identification of Error	Description of Error	Correction of Error
Even when happy times <u>comes</u> and <u>goes</u> but....	Error in concord	Even when happy times <i>come</i> and <i>go</i> but....
That day will never be <u>forgoten</u> in my life.	Error in spelling	That day will never be <u>forgotten</u> in my life.
I was blinded by their love and <u>effection</u>	Error in spelling	I was blinded by their love <u>affection</u> .
I couldn't see or <u>differeciate</u> between what was wrong or right.	Error in spelling	I couldn't see or <u>differentiate</u> between what was wrong or right.
She was <u>jelousey</u> because I was brighter than her	Error in spelling	She was <u>jealousy</u> because I was brighter than her.
It <u>_</u> a good thing nobody is perfect.	Omission of verb	It <u>is</u> a good thing nobody is perfect.
Greatest <u>lesson</u> are learned	Concord error	Greatest <u>lessons</u> are learned
I just <u>dont</u> understand why!!!	Omission of apostrophe	I just <u>don't</u> understand why?
<i>But</i> there is this day that will never be <u>forgoten</u> even though <i>i</i> will be in good mood or happy times.	Error in spelling	There is this day that will never be <u>forgotten</u> even though <u>I</u> am in good mood or happy times.

Text 3, Learner C, School C

This is how a Grade 10 obituary writing looked like (original copy attached):

Nomzamo winile Mkhize was born in 1984 and died in 2016- She was born by Maria Mkhize and Sphesihle Mkhize also born in Mthwalume grow up in Potshepston. She started her primary school at Sezela Primary- she then went to Roseville high school where she finished her matric. She then went to study medicin at Durban University of technology for 3 years. She started her first work at Ntuzuma clinic and then she went back at Potshepston where she grow up in. She play an important role in the community because she used to give clothes to the disabled children. She left behind her two sisters mbali and mandisa and one brother sizwe also her mother. May her soul rest in peace.

The following errors were identified from the learner's writing:

Identification of Error	Description of Error	Correction of Error
Line 1, Nomzamo <i>winile</i> Mkhize	Error in capitalisation	Nomzamo <u>Winile</u> Mkhize
Line 1, ...and she died in 2016 * She was.....	Error in punctuationand she died in 2016. She was.....
Line 2, born in Mthwalume * <i>grow</i> up in <i>Portshepstone</i> .	Error in tense/ conjunction/ punctuation	...born in Mthwalume <u>and</u> <u>grew</u> up in <u>Port Shepstone</u> .
Line 3, She started her <i>primary</i> school at Sezela <i>Primary</i> * she then went to Roseville High School...	error of punctuation	She started her schooling at Sezela Primary, she then went to Roseville High School...
She then went to study <i>medicin</i> ..	Error in spelling	She then went to study <u>medicine</u>
Durban University of <i>technology</i>	Error in capitalisation	Durban University of <u>Technology</u>
She went back at <i>Potshepston</i> where she <i>grow</i> up <i>in</i> .	Error in preposition/ error in spelling/ error in tense	She went back <u>to</u> <u>Portshepstone</u> where she <u>grew</u> up.
She <i>play</i> an important role in the community because	Error in tense	She played an important role in the community because...

She left behind her two sisters <i>mbali</i> and <i>mandisa</i> and one brother <i>sizwe</i> also her mother.	Error in capitalisation	She left behind her two sisters <u>Mbali</u> and <u>Mandisa</u> and one brother <u>Sizwe</u> and her mother.
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Text 4, Learner D, School D

Error Identification	Error description	Error Corrections
Bessie was born in <i>Petermurisburg</i>	Spelling	Bessie was born in <u>Pietermaritzburg</u>
Because her mother died <u>befor</u> she could raise her	Spelling	Because her mother died <u>before</u> she could raise here
<u>bessie</u> was taken to the court <u>ofernage</u>	error in capitalisation	<u>Bessie</u> was taken to the court <u>orphanage</u>
She is <u>an</u> coloured	Error in Article	She is coloured
She <i>had been born</i> in <u>Petermurisburg</u>	Error of aspect ; error in spelling	She <u>was</u> born in Pietermaritzburg
<u>bessie</u> was taken to the orphanage	Error in capitalisation	<u>Bessie</u> was taken to the orphanage

Text 5, Learner E, School E

Identification of Error	Description of Error	Correction of Error
You <i>wont</i> regret later.	Error in punctuation	You <u>won't</u> regret later.
From my childhood i had allways wanted to achiev better.	Error in lower case / error in spelling;	From my childhood I had <u>always</u> wanted to achieve better.
I had <i>alway</i> told <i>my self</i> <i>i'm</i> the best.	Error in spelling/ error	I had <u>always</u> told <u>myself</u> I <u>am</u> the best.
I <i>work</i> hard from primary school <i>till</i> I am in high school now.	Error in past tense/ incomplete word	I <u>worked</u> hard from primary school <u>until</u> high school.

<i>i</i> knew that at the end it will <u>somhow</u> make me <u>happiness</u> .	Error in spelling; capitalisation	I knew that at the end it will somehow make me <u>happy</u> .
The roles that were played by those people <u>will never</u> * <u>wash</u> away.	Wrong word	The roles that were played by those people <u>will never</u> <u>be forgotten</u> .
When you have * negative mind you <u>are not</u> going to achieve what you want.	Omission of an article/ error in punctuation/ error in auxiliary	When you have <u>a</u> negative mind, you <u>will not</u> achieve what you want.

The above analysis of learners' errors reveal that spelling errors were the most common occurring errors committed by learners in the writings across the five schools. Another most occurring error was the error of capitalisation where learners failed to capitalise proper nouns and correctly capitalise words at the beginning of the sentences. Errors in punctuation (missing full stops at the end of the sentence, missing commas, missing apostrophes) were also common in learners' written tasks.

Errors of articles (omission, unnecessary insertion and wrong substitution) were also found among the learners' writings. Lastly, the tables also show that error of tense (wrong verb form and use of the present tense instead of the past tense) was also a common error found in learners' written tasks.

Errors affect learners' expressions and effective articulation of ideas and thoughts in their texts. Errors also affect learners' performance in written tasks. Tasks with many errors are normally scored low marks as the researcher noticed in some of the tasks that she analysed. Learners in this study were second language speakers of English. Their writing incompetence could be associated with them being second language learners (Nunan, 1999). Nunan (1999) further relates second language learners' errors to tenets of Contrastive Analysis which accounts for the differences between the learners' first and second language rules. In that case Nunan (1999) claims that errors are likely to occur as a result of interference between the two languages.

The following section presents data collected through notes.

4.4 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM OTHER WRITTEN DOCUMENTS

As explained in the methodology section, documents such as the curriculum and timetables were also collected for comprehensive understanding of the teaching and learning of writing practices in the EFAL FET schools.

4.4.1. Lesson Timetables

The timetables across the five schools showed that learning begins at 7h45 and ends at 14h45 from Monday to Thursday and on Fridays learning ends at 13h45. The allocation of the EFAL periods across the five schools was 60 minutes from Monday to Thursday and 45 minutes on Friday since the schools close early. All schools followed a five day cycle (Monday to Friday) timetable. In all five schools, the timetables showed 4 EFAL periods in a week. It was noticed that the periods were sometimes in the morning, mid-day or in the afternoon.

The documents also showed that the number of EFAL classes teachers taught varied across the five schools; the sizes of the EFAL classes across the schools also varied. It was noticed that some schools had an average number of learners while other classes were large. For example, School A observations were made in two classes where one had 48 learners and another 52 learners, while the two School D observed classes had 58 and 62 respectively. School B had 56 and 59 learners; School C had 46 and 52 while School E had 58 and 49 learners in each class observed.

4.4.2. Notes

Notes taken during classroom observations reveal the nature of classroom setting in the five schools. The researcher noted that in all schools, the desks were arranged in rows all facing the front. Learners were not flexible enough to interact with peers seated behind them or in front of them. Such sitting arrangement which limits interactions and movement is more popular in traditional classrooms. All learners sit in pairs or in threes facing the teacher in the front. The researcher also noted that the

chalkboard was the only teaching resource available for teachers in the writing classrooms. As a result, the teachers mainly used the chalkboard for writing notes.

4.4.3. CAPS Writing Curriculum

As discussed in Chapter 2 of this study, the writing curriculum is fundamental and central to the teaching and learning of writing in EFAL FET classrooms. The curriculum document sets specifications in terms of the writing approaches that teachers should use. This section presents an analysis of the curriculum to understand the writing approaches, types of writing and teaching strategies recommended for the learners and teachers. Analysis of the curriculum is important for the research question that seeks to understand the extent to which the curriculum is implemented in the EFAL FET classrooms.

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements for English First Additional Language, FET Phase (CAPS for EFAL, FET, 2012) gives clear guidelines for the types of texts and approaches that teachers should use to develop and to enhance the writing skills of learners. The curriculum specifically recommends the use of the process approach as a writing approach at the FET phase. The CAPS for EFAL FET (2012) specifies that the “writing instruction will usually involve working through the writing process” (p. 35). It then suggests the six steps of the writing process for teachers: pre-writing or planning; drafting; revising, editing, proofreading and presenting.

To support teachers, the curriculum provides ideas for each of the writing stages. For the pre-writing or planning stage the curriculum recommends that teachers should assist learners in analysing the structure of the text, its language features and register, decide on the purpose, audience and context. In this stage, the curriculum insists that learners should brainstorm the ideas for the topic using a mind map, for example. Teachers are also encouraged to discuss with their learners the criteria that will be used to evaluate the piece of writing. It is also in the pre-writing stage that learners are tasked to research the topic for their writing using their library resources to select the relevant information. In the planning stage, the curriculum also emphasises that the teachers should teach learners how to identify the main ideas and supporting ideas for their texts.

In the drafting stage of writing, the curriculum advocates that learners should write a rough draft first. The first draft should take into account the purpose, audience and text types that learners are writing. This process will allow teachers to help learners choose the appropriate words for the genre they are practising to write. The drafting stage also enables learners to organise their ideas so that their stories make sense. The curriculum also maintains that it is within the drafting stage that learners establish their voice and style. The drafting stage also affords learners with an opportunity to critically read their drafts and obtain feedback from their teachers and peers.

Afterwards, the revising, editing and presenting stage ensues. At this stage, the curriculum advises that the learners are guided towards evaluating their own writing for empowerment using the criteria discussed at the planning stage. They also refine their word choice, sentences and paragraph structure. With the help of the editing peers or the teachers, the learners' writing gets edited to avoid ambiguity and any offensive language. The texts are also edited for correct use of grammar, spelling and punctuation so that they are finally ready for presentation to the readers.

Even though the curriculum acknowledges that the writing processes may sometimes overlap and that not all stages will be used in every writing occasion, it advises that teachers should be guided by their lesson objectives and their learners writing skills in deciding whether to teach the stages of the writing process or skip to language skills, for example. The curriculum does not explicitly say that teachers may revise the stages of the writing process; however, it does imply that teachers may not always teach the stages of the writing process. In that case, teachers in this study might have been guided by the curriculum in not teaching the stages in the lessons observed but they decided to revise the stages just to remind the learners about the stages of the writing process. This implies that the teachers may have been following the curriculum instruction in not explicitly teaching the stages of writing.

It has been alluded to in the earlier sections of this study that most of the texts that learners produced in this study were in line with the texts suggested by the curriculum. Essays, mostly narrative, letters (formal and informal), directions, diary entries,

dialogues, invitation letters/cards covering letters were produced by the learners in the five schools as suggested by the curriculum. However, there were some texts that were not accounted for in the texts that were collected from schools for analysis. Based on the fact that the study was conducted early in the year and the texts were collected in the first term of the year, the study cannot conclude that the other texts were not taught or produced by the learners throughout the academic year.

4.5. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented and analysed the data that was collected in the five selected schools to answer the five research questions of this study. Firstly, data collected through classroom observation was presented and analysed. Five writing lessons were presented and analysed to reveal the prevalent discourses among teachers and learners in the writing classrooms. The writing lessons were further analysed to determine the extent to which they meet the requirements of the three stages of the writing lesson. The chapter also presented data from the documents such as the notes taken during the classroom observations. Learners' written tasks were also presented and analysed to show the types of writing produced by learners in the five schools. Furthermore, the data from documents such as the curriculum was presented and analysed to expose whether the writing approaches used by teachers and the types of writing produced by learners are in line with the curriculum. Lastly, the chapter presented and analysed data from the notes to show information such as the time allocated by the timetable for the teaching of writing in the selected schools.

CHAPTER 5 DATA INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings drawn from the analysis of observed writing lessons in the five EFAL FET schools in the Pinetown District, the analysis of written documents collected in the five schools such as the learners' written tasks and from the analysis of other documents such as notes taken during school visits and the CAPS curriculum. The findings are discussed in relation to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and the analysis made in the previous chapter, Chapter 4. The following six research questions guide the interpretation and discussion of the findings in this chapter:

- What type of writing do students produce?
- What are the pedagogical implications arising from the classroom writing tasks?
- Is there a relationship between the CAPS suggested writing approach and classroom practice?
- What is the quality of writing produced by learners?
- What is the writing pedagogy suggested by classroom discourse?
- What type of writing approach is suggested by classroom discourse?

The following findings arose from the research questions:

5.1 Different types of writing produced by learners

An analysis of the learners' written tasks collected from the five selected schools reveals that EFAL FET learners produce different types of writings. Samples of learners' written tasks show that, across the five schools, learners are mostly writing the narrative essays when compared with the other types of essays such as argumentative, reflective, discursive and so on. Ramagoshi (2013) argues that learners, mostly the second language ones, are attracted to narrative writing because of its creative and free expression attributes. In a narrative essay second language learners are able to express their innovative thoughts, ideas and feelings freely without concern for supporting their arguments like in the argumentative essays (Derewianka, 1990).

Nevertheless, the analysis of learners' written tasks shows that other types of writing, other than the narrative, were produced by learners in the five schools. Letters (formal and informal), diary entries, obituaries, invitation cards, dialogues, covering letters and directions were also collected from learners in the five schools. Exposing learners to different types of writing is in line with the curriculum which agrees with that "teachers should ensure that learners write a range of texts during the year. There should be a range of balance between short and long texts and writing for different purposes: cognitive academic, creative, personal/interpersonal and work related" (CAPS for EFAL FET, 2012, p. 37). Teaching various types of writings implies that teachers follow their writing curriculum.

Derewianka (1990) supports the different types of writing produced by learners in secondary schools as she argues that across the secondary school years, learners should be gradually exposed to different types of texts which they are expected to learn and understand as they are supposed to apply them in their different writing contexts across schooling curriculum (Derewianka, 1990; Swales, 1990). Moreover, Derewianka (1990) maintains that after three years, the secondary school learners are expected to enter higher education institutions where they are expected to produce various academic texts. Therefore, exposure to different texts and, more importantly, competence in the writing of various texts is of utmost significance to FET learners (Derewianka, 1990).

Findings of this study on different types of writing produced by learners at FET levels are in line with those of Applebee (1980, 2013) on national studies which examined the kinds of writing produced by high school students in their writing classrooms across the 5 states in the US. Similar to this study, Applebee (2013) found that high school students across 20 secondary schools produced business writing, reflective writing, argumentative writing and storytelling in narrative forms. However, unlike in the Applebee (2013) study, learners in this study did not produce argumentative writing and reflective writing. Possibly, these types of essays were produced later in the year as the data for this study was collected in the first term of the year.

All in all, learners in the EFAL FET selected schools produced different types of writing which indicates that teachers teach different types of writing in their classrooms.

5.2 Relationship between CAPS Suggested Writing Approach and Classroom Practice

The curriculum suggests that teachers should use a process approach to teach writing. Classroom observations and analyses of writing lessons reveal that teachers follow the curriculum. They use the process approach to writing. This was evident in their emphasis of the stages of the writing process in their lessons. For example, in A1: 28 the teacher indicated the use of a process approach to teach a narrative in the following way:

(28) TEACHER: Good. Now [*frame*], let us move on to the stages of a narrative writing. [*directive*] What is the first stage of writing? [*elicitation*]

And in B2: 19-29 as shown below:

(19) TEACHER: What is the important thing to consider when writing your essay? [*elicitation*]

(20) LEARNER: Introduction [*response*]

(21) TEACHER: No. Before you even get to an introduction. Raise your hands [*cue*]. Yes, X [*nomination*]

(22) LEARNER: The topic of the essay

(23) TEACHER: Good X (*name of the learner*). Your topic of writing is the most important element that shapes your lines of thinking [*feedback*] (25)

TEACHER: After the topic, what else must you think about? (26) LEARNER: Planning, Sir

(28) TEACHER: So how do you do the planning for your essay?

(29) LEARNER: You brainstorm the topic Sir

In the above narrative lessons the teachers elicited the stages of the writing process in the early stages of the lessons to ensure that learners remember them before they embark on their writing tasks. In their responses, learners did not seem to struggle with the different stages of the writing process. In fact, they seemed well informed about the five stages of the writing process: planning; drafting; revising; editing and publishing as suggested by Badger and White (2000). This suggests that the teachers are familiar with the writing approach and they teach writing.

Silva (1990) argues that teaching writing through the process approach is more than providing learners with the theoretical knowledge of the writing stages. It entails that the teachers make assertive efforts to provide learners with support and collaborative instructional learning environments within which the learners, with sufficient time, can work through the processes of composing their texts. In a nurturing writing environment, Silva (1990) maintains that

the teacher's role is to facilitate students to develop workable strategies for getting started (helping students to find topics, generate ideas information, focus and plan structure and procedure), for drafting (encouraging students to do multiple drafts), for revising (encouraging students to add, delete, modify, and rearrange ideas), and for editing (attending to vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar and mechanics) (p. 15).

Hyland (2003) contends that the process approach is developmental in nature. It assumes that some learners have little knowledge of writing when they enter the classroom and the teacher's role is to scaffold and support the development of writing through provision of adequate writing opportunities in the classroom. All in all, this study found that teachers in the EFAL FET selected schools use the process approach to teach writing.

These findings differ from the recent findings of other studies (Allen, 2015; Julius, 2013; Mpithi, 2016) on the implementation of the curriculum writing approaches in the teaching of writing in the EFAL classrooms. Findings from Allen (2015), for example, suggest that teachers do not understand their writing curriculum and because of this, they use other writing approaches, other than the one suggested, to teach writing in their classrooms. Mpithi (2016) also found that teachers at FET levels lacked knowledge of the teaching approaches.

5.3 Quality of Writing Produced by Learners

Analyses of the sample of the learners' written tasks showed recurring incorrect spelling, misuse of capitalisation, violation of punctuation rules and incorrect use of tenses. The incorrect use of these writing mechanics does not necessarily affect comprehension or meaning of the learners' texts which is central to language as a social practice; however, it does affect the presentation of the texts and the reader's

judgement of the texts (Ellis, 1994). A recent study (Maruma, 2017) on the analysis of written errors among the secondary school learners in South Africa also found spelling errors to be the most persistent errors in the learners' essays.

Research on the incorrect use of writing mechanics by second language learners provides a clear distinction between an error and a mistake. Brown (1994), for example, argues that an error is the use of language in a way which a native speaker of that language regards as faulty or incomplete learning. Richards and Schmidt (2002) refers to errors as a systematic deviation from the norms of the target language. These views of language learning as isolated linguistic competencies deviates from the views of holistic approach to language learning embedded in the socio-cultural language theory. Brown (2002) argues that the socio-cultural theory stresses meaning as the important aspect in the learning of writing. Brown (2002) maintains that the knowledge of language mechanics or skills is therefore taught in context rather than as isolated concepts.

On the other side, the strength of language learning within socio-cultural theory lies in participation or interactions among individuals in the learning context (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky (1978) maintains that competency in second language writing does not result from the individual effort but it necessitates interactions and peer support that is within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Collaborative writing tasks may support second language writing and enhance writing competence (Brown, 2002). Brown (2002) noticed that second language writing may consist of covert and overt errors. According to Brown (2002), covert errors occur when the text is grammatically correct but is not understood within the context of communication. The overt errors, on the other hand, occur when the written piece has no obvious grammatical errors. On the same note, Corder (1967) provides a distinction between an error and a mistake. An error is a consistent deviation from the language rules while a mistake is an occasional deviation from the second language rules. Ellis (1994) argues that errors require remediation while mistakes may require on the spot correction.

Nevertheless, Brown (2002) argues that when errors are persistent and are common in most of the learners' writings, teachers should immediately bring such errors to the

attention of the learners. One way of doing this is through corrective feedback that a teacher can provide with the learner's ZPD. Furthermore, collaborative writing tasks enable an expert peer to provide formative feedback that can close the gap between the learner's limited knowledge of the writing skills and the mastery level. Social interactions in the writing classrooms, therefore, remain significant for the second language writing development (Brown, 2002).

5.4 Teacher-Centred Writing Pedagogy Suggested by Classroom Discourse

Analyses of the five writing lessons show that the teachers used the whole class teaching methods. Learners were not divided into small groups so that they learn together and from each other which is the characteristic of a socio-cultural learning classroom. Even though learners were seated in pairs, the classroom observations revealed limited interactions among the learners during the learning of writing in the five schools. In such a classroom environment learners think individually and respond to the questions as individuals (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007).

All classroom interactions were controlled by the teachers through the elicitation and response method. Classroom interactions were mostly from the teachers to the learners through the question and answer method. The teachers initiated the talk through elicitation and they often nominated learners to respond. Even though elicitation, nomination and response patterns ensured participation, classroom observation indicated that some learners remained passive -- particularly, those who were not nominated to speak.

Social interactionists like Vygotsky (1978) believe that effective learning occurs through interaction between learners and teachers. William and Burden, (2007) add that through interactions with the teachers and peers, learners make sense of what they already know and they also make sense of what they do not know (Gibbons, 2015). Vygotsky (1978) concludes that the secret to effective learning of writing lies in the nature of social interactions between two or more learners with different levels of writing skills and knowledge. According to Vygotsky (1978), in such a learning environment the role of a peer with more knowledge is a way of helping the other less knowledgeable peer.

Gibbons (2015) explains the crucial role of interactions and scaffolding in the writing classrooms. Gibbons (2015) says that in a socio-cultural classroom, a knowledgeable peer can create, by means of interaction, an environment in which a less informed or novice peer can participate in and extend the current knowledge to the next level.

In social interaction a knowledgeable participant can create, by means of speech, supportive environment in which the novice can participate in, and extend current skills and knowledge to higher levels of knowledge (p. 158).

It could be said that the limited learner-learner interactions in the five schools deprived second language learners an opportunity to produce the target language which is vital for their writing development. For example, B2: 14-18 below shows how the teachers dominated the classroom talk while the learners' talk was limited to "Yes" or "No".

(14) TEACHER: You only talk about one thing but of course you are going to present different ideas within the body of your essay but they be coherent or follow one another from the introduction to your conclusion. *Siyezwana?*

(18) LEARNERS: Yes

In the above extract, the teacher made more utterances while the learners responded with one word "Yes". This shows limited learners' talk which could be equated to the limited production of the target language.

Shulman (1987) argues that "pedagogy refers to ways of talking, showing, enacting or otherwise representing ideas so that the unknowing can come to know, those without understanding can comprehend and discern and the unskilled become adept" (p.7). In their work titled *The Power of Pedagogy*, Leach and Moon define pedagogy as "more than the accumulation of techniques and strategies, more than arranging a classroom, more than formulating questions and developing explanations, but it is informed by a view of mind, of learning and learners and the kinds of knowledge and outcomes that are valued" (p.6). In a writing classroom, pedagogy would be influenced by the teacher's beliefs and attitude about writing, his or her knowledge about writing, learners' writing abilities and proficiency levels, curriculum, as well as his or her objectives of the writing lessons (Lee, 2008).

Analyses of the writing lessons also show that teachers used code-switching to teach writing. While some teachers used code-switching to a limited degree, analyses of the writing lessons reveal that some teachers used code-switching throughout the lesson. The researcher also noticed that the teachers used code-switching to achieve different pedagogical purposes as seen in the following extracts for example in A1:59-68:

(59) TEACHER: Ok. And then the night did not just changed your dreams it drastically changed your dreams. So it the shift of the things. Something that you have been believing in changed drastically. *Syatholana lapho* [Do we understand each other]?

(62) LEARNERS: Yes

(63) TEACHER: And what did it changed?

(64) LEARNERS: My dreams

(65) TEACHER: Yes, your dreams not your mother's dreams or your father's dreams or whatever, *siyezwana* [do we hear each other]?

(67) LEARNERS: Yes

(68) TEACHER: So it means that you had dreams before the night and then after that night the dreams changed. *Siyatholana?* [Do we get each other]?

In the above extract the teacher frequently switched to isiZulu during the lesson. The extract shows that the teacher used isiZulu phrases in A1: 62, "*Syatholana lapho?*" (Do we get each other there?), A1: 66 "*Siyezwana?*" (Do we hear each other?), and in A1: 69 "*Siyatholana?*" as a teaching strategy to ensure that learners were listening and following the teacher's explanations. After each phrase the learners responded with a 'yes' to indicate that they were actively listening to the teacher. This implies that the teacher used code-switching as a teaching strategy.

Code-switching in C3: 1-11

TEACHER: What is wrong? *Yini kwenzenjani* my boy? *Uyagula? Unani?*
[What's wrong my boy?] [Are you sick?] [What illness do you have?] LEARNER:
Umzimba ubuhlungu [My whole body is sore].

TEACHER: *Kubuhlungu umzimba?* [Your body is sore?] *Yini ubuwenzani izolo?*
(What were you doing yesterday?) *Uyayifaka* into

yokukhipha inyongo? [Do you ever drink take anything to cleanse your
system?] *Ekhaya ubatshelile?* [Did you tell your parents?].

LEARNER: Yes mam

TEACHER: What did your parent say? *Bathini?* [What did they say?]

LEARNER: *Bathi ngizoya* clinic after school [They said I will go to the clinic after
School].

In the lesson above, the teacher introduced the lesson by addressing learners in their home language, isiZulu. The relaxed atmosphere and the flow of interactions between the teacher and learners indicated that use of isiZulu in the classroom is a normal practice. In the above lesson the teacher used the learner's mother tongue isiZulu to establish parental role within which the learner would feel comfortable to interact with the teacher on issues of well-being.

In the extract below, the teacher used code-switching from English as the LoLT to isiZulu as the home language with the learners, fulfilled the purpose of pastoral care to ensure that the personal and social well-being of the learner was taken care of before beginning with the lesson. Since the role was not part of formal teaching and learning, the teacher and the learner chose to interact in their home language which they were most comfortable in, which is isiZulu, not their second language, English, as seen in the extract above.

C3: 18-21

TEACHER: *Konje ke iyini* writing? [What is writing?]

LEARNERS: (*silence*)

TEACHER: When we writing we expressing our ideas and thinking. *Uma sibhala sibeka imicabango yethu, angithi?* [When we write we express our thoughts, isn't?].

LEARNERS: Yes

In the above lesson extract the teacher used isiZulu (in C3: 18) to elicit what writing is: '*Konje iyini writing?*' The aim of code-switching could be to help simplify the question for the learners so that they begin to think about the responses. In C3: 21 the teacher first explains what writing is in English and then explains it again in isiZulu. In both code-switching scenarios, it can be said that code-switching is used as a learning tool to simplify the question so that the learners understand the question and in the second code-switching scenario to support learning and to help learners understand the concept being taught better. Similar use of code-switching is also found in E5: 19-21.

D4: 59

(59) TEACHER: I mean, tell me *zihluke kanjani* these two types of letters?

In the above extract the teacher seemed to rely on code-switching to clarify the question so that learners understand. This implies the use of code-switching for a pedagogical purpose, that is, to support learning.

5.5 Different Writing Approaches Suggested by Classroom Discourse

Classroom observation and analysis of the five writing lessons shows classroom discourse that suggests different approaches to writing being implemented across the five schools:

A1: 28-40:

(28) TEACHER: Good. Now [*frame*], let us move on to the stages of a narrative writing. [*directive*] What is the first stage of writing? [*elicitation*]

(30) LEARNERS: Free writing (31) TEACHER:

Free writing and?

(32) LEARNERS: Free writing and planning

(33) TEACHER: Second stage?

(34) LEARNERS: Drafting

(35) TEACHER: Third stage?

(36) LEARNERS: Revision (37) TEACHER: Fourth stage?

(38) LEARNERS: Editing

(39) TEACHER: Editing and the last one?

(40) LEARNERS: Publishing

The above extract shows the T-P-T classroom discourse in a narrative writing classroom from School A. It shows the teacher eliciting the stages of the writing process from the learners. Different learners provide responses and they all give different stages of the writing process. These classroom interactions suggest that the teacher uses the process approach to teach writing. It also suggests that the teacher promotes classroom interactions and participation through elicitation-response technique. To ensure that more learners participate, the teacher nominates different learners for each turn of the elicitation-response pattern.

The following extract shows how the teacher from School B taught writing in her classroom, in B2: 30:

(30) TEACHER: Yes you can brainstorm, you can brainstorm the topic, generating ideas or do a mind map, a flow chart or float lines. Now, why is planning important when you doing a narrative essay? So when you

are going to do an essay you should have a planning, a planning is going to serve as a guide as to how you going to go about presenting your story to us hence you have mentioned that a narrative essay it tells a story so you should a guide so this guide is going to help you with presenting to us these ideas in a coherent manner. Let us look at the second bullet. The orientation or introduction indicates two things it should be the time and the setting. The time what do we look at when we looking at the time? The time has two components, yes X?

In the above extract of a narrative lesson from School B, the teacher explains to learners how they should approach their own writing by brainstorming their topics to generate the ideas for the writing. The teacher emphasises the use of a mind map or a flow chart diagram for the planning stage of writing. They also stress that the planning will help learners to produce coherent ideas in a coherent manner. This extract suggests that the teacher used the process approach to teach the writing of a narrative in her classroom. Traces of the genre-based approach to writing were also noticed in this lesson when the teacher encouraged learners to also consider the tone and the mood as well as feelings when crafting their texts (B2: 136-142).

Classroom discourse from School C also revealed the writing approach that the teacher values. The following extract shows how the teacher taught the invitation card:

TEACHER: A birthday party, good. So, let us draw a birthday invitation card (*drawing a card*). What information must be on your card? Does anyone know? X?

(105) LEARNER: Address

(106) TEACHER: Address. What is your address X?

(107) LEARNER: 101 Nyamazane Road, Ntuzuma

(108) TEACHER: (*writing the address on the board*). Ok. And what else?

(109) LEARNER: A date, Mam

(110) TEACHER: Yes, a date. When is the event? (111) LEARNER: 12 April.

(112) TEACHER: 12 April. Is that your birthday X?

(113) LEARNER: Yes Mam

(114) TEACHER: Ok. What other information should be on the invitation card?

The above classroom discourse from Lesson 3, School C, shows how the teacher elicited information that should appear on the invitation card. By drawing the card on the board, the teacher is providing a model for the writing of an invitation card for the learners to learn from for the development of their own invitation card. The modelling approach is mostly prominent in the genre-based approach to writing where the

teachers bring a model text to be learned for learners to practice and master. The teacher did not actually bring the invitation card into the classroom; however, by drawing on the board she wanted the learners to see both the structure and the content of the invitation card. Through the question and answer method, the teacher also engaged the learners in the brainstorming of the content for the invitation card. It can, therefore, be said that the lesson followed both the process and the genre approach to writing.

Analysis of Lesson 4 from School D revealed the following classroom discourse for the teaching of speech writing:

TEACHER: So when you writing a speech it must be in a paragraph form remember your paragraph try to make it one because the moment you skip too many lines you are going to an impression that may be you have exceed the number of words for these short text it is about 150 to 160. Alright?

The above extract shows the teacher is putting more emphasis on the structure of the text, the paragraphs as well as the number of words that learners must produce. These elements are most prevalent in the product approach to writing where the focus is mostly on the final product more than on the processes of writing. It could be speculated that the focus of the lesson was on the structure of the text, which is the revising stage of the process, and not necessarily the planning or the drafting stage, as the curriculum suggests that teachers may not necessarily teach all the stages of the writing process in one lesson but they may select the stage they want to emphasise. Nevertheless, based on the classroom observation, the focus on the structure implied a product approach. This suggests that teachers also used the product approach to teach writing. Lesson 5, which was a narrative lesson, followed the process approach.

The teacher first elicited the elements of a narrative (E5: 22) and then through question and answer engaged learners in the brainstorming of the topic (E5: 35-37). The teacher then instructed learners to choose a topic and directed them to use the spider diagram technique he had taught them to generate ideas for their topics (E5: 41-45). Learners were provided with the time to practice the stages of writing in the classroom. In the later stages of Lesson 5, the teacher also provided time for the learners to write

their introductions so that he could provide feedback. This indicates the social role of the teacher as the knowledgeable adult in the writing classroom, that is, the role of providing support and guidance through feedback.

All in all, the classroom discourse across the five schools revealed different writing approaches for the teaching of different types of writing. However, the process approach was prominent in all the classrooms to engage learners in the stages of the writing process such as the pre-writing (brainstorming), drafting, revising, editing and publishing. According to Badger and White (2000) these four stages allow learners to generate ideas before they begin to write, to revise their ideas back and forth and to edit their ideas before the publication of the final product.

Similarly, Hyland (2007) believes that the writing process allows the learners to go through different writing activities independently towards the production of a coherent piece of writing. Likewise, Tribble (1996) argues that in the process approach the emphasis is on the learners' independent ability to produce coherent texts after going through writing activities in stages. This implies that in the process approach, the learners are given opportunities to be in control of their writing while the teacher plays the role of supporting the development of writing by guiding and supporting.

The product approach was also used by the teachers to emphasise the structure (introduction, body, conclusion), paragraphs and linguistic structures of the genres they were teaching. The use of the product approach in the development of writing has long been viewed negatively by many scholars for the reasons of the approach's reliance on the grammatical features and organisation (Hedge, 2001; Nunnan, 1999; Tribble, 1996) instead of the ideas and the process of producing the final text; however, the product approach has also been favoured for the second language writing classrooms. For example, Badger and White (2000) argue that the product approach may not necessarily be all that disadvantageous, especially for second language learners who may need linguistic and grammatical assistance in the development of ideas.

Badger and White (2000) also reiterates that the product approaches do recognise learners' need for linguistic development and competence across different texts for

them to become efficient writers. Imitation is one method by which people learn. In other words, teachers are encouraged to balance the product approach with other writing approaches in order to effectively support the development of writing skills of their learners.

The study also found that the genre-approach was also used by the teachers to highlight the schematic structures of genres such as the friendly letter, narrative, speech writing and the invitation card. Derewianka (1990) claims that all these types of texts serve different social purposes, in turn, they all decide the linguistic conventions, schematic structure and linguistic features of each text. Swales (1990) describes the linguistic schematic structure of a text as internal structure or text organisation in terms of introduction, body and conclusion, whereas linguistic features refer to the linguistic aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, connectors and so on which the writer uses for the expression of ideas or information into a coherent text.

Even though the genre approach is not explicitly suggested in the writing curriculum of the teachers and learners in this study, Bazerman (1997), a writing scholar, argues that the genre-based approach holds many pedagogical benefits for the second language writing classrooms. Bazerman (1997) claims that central to the genre-based approach is the perspective that the teachers should teach learners the explicit and systematic explanations of the ways language functions in social contexts.

Teachers in genre-based classrooms should, therefore, encourage learners to explore and exploit texts from different types of genres and thus be able to communicate in different contexts for different purposes and for different audiences. In explaining the role of the genre-based teacher, Gibbons (2015) stresses that the teacher takes the 'authoritative' role to 'scaffold' or support the learners through guided activities as they move towards their writing goal and potential level. This scaffolding pedagogical approach is underpinned by Vygotsky's (1978) socio-linguistic theory which capitalises on the interactive and collaborative nature of a writing classroom.

Vygotsky (1978) suggests that effective genre-based classrooms are the ones in which learners are provided with models and with the support of the teacher. Together, they

discuss and analyse language and structure of the presented text. Such scaffolding pedagogy, according to Vygotsky, gradually lightens as the learners independently produce their own texts parallel to the model. At such level, the role of the teacher then moves from explicit instructor to that of facilitator until learners gain writing independence.

5.6 Summary of the chapter

This chapter discussed the findings drawn from analyses of the observed writing lessons, analysis of written tasks and from documents such as the curriculum. The findings were therefore discussed in relation to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and analysis made in the previous chapter. The six research questions of this study guided the interpretation and discussion of the findings in this chapter within the five themes that emerged from the research questions: types of writing produced by the learners; relationship between the CAPS suggested writing approach and the practice; quality of writing produced by learners; writing pedagogy suggested by the classroom discourse; and the writing approach suggested by the classroom discourse. The following chapter presents the summary of the findings, recommendations and conclusion.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.0 INTRODUCTION

This study set out to explore the nature and pedagogical implications of English First Additional Language (EFAL) writing among FET phase learners in five schools in the Pinetown District. Summary of findings and conclusions are presented in this chapter. For a better understanding of the conclusions and recommendations, the researcher reiterates the research questions that guided this study as they are stated in Chapter 1. The research questions are:

- What type of writing do students produce?
- What are the pedagogical implications arising from the classroom writing tasks?
- Is there a relationship between the CAPS suggested writing approach and classroom practice?
- What is the quality of writing produced by learners?
- What is the writing pedagogy suggested by classroom discourse?
- What type of writing approach is suggested by classroom discourse?

In an attempt to answer these research questions, the researcher made use of qualitative methods to collect data in the five schools as discussed in the methodology section of this study. The researcher also conducted an in-depth review of literature to understand issues of writing in second language classrooms since this study investigated writing in second language high school classrooms.

Within the lenses of the Socio-cultural theory the writing lessons were captured and observed to understand the learners' writing practices as well as teachers' pedagogical practices. The observed writing lessons were transcribed to determine the classroom discourses, pedagogy as well as the approaches used by the teachers to teach writing. Written tasks were also analysed to understand the types and quality of writing produced by learners in the EFAL FET selected schools. Furthermore, documents such as the curriculum were also examined to understand the suggested writing approaches and to explore the link between the curriculum and the practice.

Guided by the research questions, the researcher, therefore, referred to the Sociocultural theory, analyses of lessons transcripts and analyses of the written tasks to make meaning of the findings that emerged in this study. Furthermore, the findings, recommendations and conclusions presented in this chapter are in line with the aims and objectives of this study as they are deliberated in Chapter 1. The following section presents the summary of the findings.

6.1 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The summary of the findings from study relates to the types writing produced EFAL FET learners; quality of writing produced by learners; relationship between the curriculum and practice; writing pedagogy in EFAL FET classrooms; and the type of writing approach used by teachers.

6.1.1 Different Types of Writing Produced by EFAL FET Learners

Findings from the analyses of the sample of written tasks collected from the five schools indicate that learners produced different types of writing: narrative essays; formal letters; friendly letters; formal letters; obituaries; diary entries; directions; interviews; invitation cards and covering letters. This study found that this is in line with the curriculum which suggests that learners should be exposed to different types of texts to develop their cognitive and creative writing skills. However, the findings reveal that narrative writing was most produced by learners while other types of essays such as argumentative, reflective, descriptive and expository were not accounted for.

The curriculum also stipulates that FET learners should also be able to produce other types of writing such procedures, instructions, explanations, review of books/films, advertisements, posters and magazine articles. All these types of writing were also not part of the sample of writings collected from the selected schools. This, however, does not mean that the learners do not produce these types of writing at all. The study is cognisant of the fact that the data were collected in the first term of the school year and, therefore, the other types of essays may have been produced after the data collection.

Nevertheless, these findings are in line with the studies of second language writing among secondary school learners (Mpithi, 2016; Akinyenye, 2012; Ramagoshi, 2011). In other countries such as Nigeria, scholars like Akinyenye (2015) found that high school learners mostly preferred narrative writings. However, in the US, Applebee (1980, 2017) found that high schools mostly produced argumentative essays and explanation writing with little room for creative writing or narrative writing.

6.1.2 The Quality of Writing Produced by Learners

The study found that the learners' writing contained recurring incorrect spelling, misuse of capitalisation, violation of punctuation rules and incorrect use of tenses. Even though the analysis of the learners' written tasks revealed that such incorrect use of writing mechanics does not necessarily affect comprehension or meaning of the learners' texts, they do, however, affect the overall judgement of the learners' writing.

Maruma (2017) also found spelling errors among secondary school learners' essays. Maruma's (2017) study discovered that the use of technology such as cell phones has an impact on most of the spelling errors learners committed in their essays. Furthermore, the study also revealed that interference of mother tongue and partial learning of the target language were also responsible for grammatical errors found in the essays.

6.1.3 Relationship between CAPS Suggested Writing Approach and Classroom Practice

Data from classroom observations, lesson analyses and analyses of the curriculum show that, at most, the writing approaches used by the teachers were in line with the writing approach suggested by the curriculum. The curriculum advocates for the use of the process approach to writing and teachers in the five schools seemed to understand the curriculum expectations. As explained earlier on, with regard to the types of writing produced by the learners in the FET phase, the curriculum suggests that for essays learners produce different types of essays (narrative, argumentative, reflective, discursive, and descriptive). At the time of the data collection, the study found that the learners had mostly produced the narrative essays. For longer transactional texts the curriculum expects teachers to teach letters - friendly or formal

letters (request / complaint / application / business / thanks / congratulations / sympathy) / formal and informal letters to the press / curriculum vitae and covering letter / obituary / agenda and minutes of meeting / report / book or film review / newspaper article.

The study found that the sample of written tasks collected from the five schools were short of texts such as curriculum vitae, report, book/film review, minutes of minutes and newspaper article. Teachers might have taught these types of writing after the data collection in this study. Since the curriculum does not specify when should the teachers teach different types of writing in the year, the study cannot conclude that the practice was not in line with the curriculum in the selected schools.

6.1.4 The Writing Pedagogy

Findings from the analyses of the writing lessons indicate the teachers mostly used question and answer method to teach writing in the five schools. This method entails that the teachers controlled the interactions in the classrooms through nominationresponse cycle. Without teacher nomination, the learners remain passive. On the flip side, the study observed that the teachers used this method to invite participation from different learners in the classroom. However, the study found that the types of questions that the teachers asked solicited one-word response or short responses.

This meant that learners' second language production remained limited.

The study also found limited interactions between learners in the writing classrooms. Even though the learners were seated in pairs, the classroom pedagogy did not promote learner-learner interaction which is mostly favoured for the second language writing classrooms as it provides learners an opportunity to learn together and to help each other. Vygotsky (1978) socio-cultural learning theory connects learning and social interaction.

Vygotsky (1978) argues that in a learning context as learners work together in joint activities and embrace the effects of working together they develop new constructs of their world and of their culture. In a writing classroom, peer learning supports writing

development as the knowledgeable peer may provide feedback on the writing tasks and enable learning that was not possible for the individual effort. Limited peer learning in the writing classroom could mean that the teachers are not aware of the sociocultural learning theory and the learning benefits of peer learning for the development of writing skills.

Analyses of the written lessons also found the use of code-switching in the teaching of writing. Findings revealed that different teachers in this study used code-switching for different pedagogical purposes as well as pastoral care purposes in their writing classrooms. Code-switching is defined differently by different scholars. Kamwangamalu (1994) defines code-switching as an alternative use of two or more languages in a sentence or speech.

In South Africa, code-switching is a frequent and accepted mode of communication among bilingual or multilingual speakers. Edvisson (2015) observes it has become a natural aspect of bilingual or multilingual classrooms in South Africa. Similarly, Moodley (2010) reports that code-switching is used in many second language classrooms to tackle a number of classroom issues including curriculum access, classroom management and interpersonal relations.

6.1.5 Translanguaging as a Pedagogical Tool

The findings from the analyses of lessons suggest that teachers creatively employed both code-switching and translanguaging for pedagogical and pastoral purposes. In situations where switching to isiZulu explained concepts better, the study found code-switching to enhance learners' understanding and thus fulfil an academic purpose. The notions of the use learners' home languages to enhance cognition and development is iterated by Vygotsky (1978). Furthermore, using learners' home language for non-academic purposes such as pastoral care helped to establish positive relationship between teachers and learners since they shared a home language.

Using isiZulu was also found to be an effective tool for pastoral purposes, ensuring that personal and social well-being of learners were met in the learning environment.

Informed by these findings, the study concludes that code-switching is a useful learning resource in multilingual teaching contexts where English is an obstacle to effective teaching and learning.

6.1.6 Writing Approaches Employed by Teachers

Findings from the analyses of writing lessons indicate that the teachers in the five schools used three approaches to writing. Most prevalent in the writing classroom was the process approach which views writing as a process which consists of different stages such as a planning/pre-writing (selecting a topic and planning what to say); drafting/writing (putting a draft version on paper); revising (making changes to improve writing); editing/proofreading (evaluation of written work for refinement and improvement); and publishing (presenting the work for the reader) (Badger & White, 2000).

Analyses of the lessons show that the teachers did not implement all these writing stages in their lessons. However, they selected the stages they wanted to teach in that particular lesson. In that way, the study did not observe the use of all the stages of the writing process across the five schools.

Over and above the process approach, this study found that the product approach was used by some teachers to supplement the process approach. In such cases, the study showed that the teachers used the approach to emphasise the structure, organisation and conventions of different genres they were teaching. Badger and White (2000) also found that the product approach recognises learners' need for linguistic development and competence across different texts. This supports second language development and helps learners to become efficient writers. Data from lesson observations and analyses of writing lessons also reveals the use of genre approach by the teachers to highlight the schematic structures of genres such as the friendly letter, narrative, speech writing and the invitation card (Gee, 1997).

6.2. RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

From the literature and findings presented in the section above, this study makes the following recommendations:

6.2.1 A Need for Collaborative Writing Activities in the Learners' ZPD

According to Vygotsky (1978) ZPD is an area of learning that occurs when a learner in the social context such as a classroom or any collaborative context is assisted by a teacher or a peer with a higher set of skills. Some learners are unable to complete a task without the assistance of the teacher or a peer. The role of the teacher or peers will then be to help the learner achieve the skill that the learner is trying to master.

The teacher or peers provide support until the learner is able to perform the task unassisted (Vygotsky, 1978). For a complete developmental maturation within the learners' ZPD, Vygotsky argues that teachers must consider the types of support; the sequence in which the types of help are offered; and the flexibility or rigour of previously formed structures and how willing the learner is able to collaborate so that they help one another. Such contextual factors can impact the level of potential development (Vygotsky, 1978).

Collaborative learning activities, therefore, enable learners to work together to produce a text through practising the stages of the writing process such as brainstorming, drafting, revising and editing (Rice & Huguley, 1994 in Akinyenye, 2015). Furthermore, collaborative writing activities help learners to develop not only writing skills but also the social and cognitive skills. This study suggests that teachers need to encourage learners to work collaboratively with one another. Teachers must also promote interaction in their writing classroom, especially in the target language, as discussions and debates in the second language have been found to help learners practise the second language skills as well (Hyland, 1991).

6.2.2. A Need for a Learner-Centred Writing Pedagogy

A learner-centred writing pedagogy is central to socio-cultural theory. In a learnercentred writing classroom, teachers perceive writing as a social process in which learners are guided and encouraged to construct meaningful texts through interactive activities that promote understanding of the writing process (Badger & White, 2000). This is contrary to the teacher-centred classrooms where the teachers assume most of the responsibility for teaching writing processes and presenting aspects of writing instead of having the classroom filled by learners engaging in the writing processes on their topics of interest (Badger & White, 2000). Furthermore, learner-centred classrooms promote active learning instead of passive learning. In a

learner-centred writing classroom, the teacher takes the peripheral role of guiding the writing processes while learners are actively engaged in the writing processes in a peer supportive environment.

Learner-centred teachers provide a classroom environment that is conducive to the learning of writing. They achieve this by creating a context where learners have supportive relationships and where learners can learn from and with each other in a safe and trusting learning environment (Brown, 2003). Brown (2003) argues that in a learner-centred writing classroom, teachers cultivate peer support and this diffuses teacher-learner power relations. In a learner-centred pedagogy learners become active partners in the creation of knowledge thus diffusing teacher domination of the learning process (Brown, 2003). Learners are given autonomy to suggest the topics for writing which they can relate to, as opposed to the teacher-centred classroom where the teacher decides on the writing topics and impose them. Learner-centred pedagogy, therefore, empowers learners to take ownership of the writing processes and their writing development.

6.2.3. Recognition of isiZulu as a Learning Resource for English Writing The Constitution of South Africa (1996) promotes the use of learners' languages, where feasible, for teaching and learning. In fact, it says learners have a right to learn in their home languages. However, the Language in Education (LiEP, 1996) contradicts these children's rights by recommending only English as the medium of instruction in African schools.

This study found that the use of learners' home language, isiZulu, facilitated pedagogical as well as social aspects in the EFAL FET classrooms. Using isiZulu was also found to be an effective tool for pastoral purposes, ensuring that personal and social well-being of learners were met in the learning environment. Informed by these findings, the study recommends that teachers should use the learners' home languages to address the learning obstacles in second language classrooms.

6.3 CONCLUSION

This qualitative study investigated the nature and pedagogical implications of English First Additional Language (EFAL) writing among Further Education and Training (FET) phase learners in the Pinetown District, South Africa. Due to the nature of the study being a case study of five selected schools, findings from this study are not generalisable. These limitations do not, however, lessen the contribution of this study to the body of knowledge to the teaching and writing in EFAL FET contexts in South Africa.

In conclusion, the researcher brings forward the nature of writing among EFAL FET learners in the five schools in the Pinetown District as well as pedagogical practices in these selected schools. As summarised in the above section, the success or limitations of teaching and writing, depends on a number of factors. Firstly, it depends on the teachers' knowledge and understanding of writing and approaches to writing. In this study the teachers seemed to understand the process approach they are expected to implement in their classroom. This was evident in the manner in which they engaged learners in the stages of the writing processes during the observed writing lessons.

Secondly, the researcher believes that successful teaching and learning of writing also depends on the instruction methods. The teaching of writing in the five schools was shadowed by teacher domination of the classroom talk. Teacher-centred pedagogy undermined learner-learner interactions and peer learning which are central to the socio-cultural theory that underpinned this study.

Thirdly, limited learner-learner interactions hindered second language development among learners. While the question and answer method that was prevalent in most of the writing classrooms was used to motivate learner participation, the types of questions asked by the teachers only necessitated that learners provide one word answer or short responses. This again provided limited second language output in the writing classrooms. The traditional classroom also promoted individual thinking and learning. In the absence of collaborative writing tasks and peer support, weak learners remained weak (Badger & White, 2000).

The researcher considers collaborative writing classrooms. Besides, Vygotsky (1978) insists that writing is a socio-cultural practice that necessitates mediation and

scaffolding through interactions between expert writers and novice writers. As such, collaborative activities allow learners to exchange ideas, write together, share feedback, support each other's language development and develop social skills and confidence in their writing (Vygotsky, 1978; Flower & Hayes, 1981). In this aspect, the researcher, therefore, feels that teachers need to be trained on interactive classroom pedagogy so that they are able to transform their writing classroom into social and supportive writing spaces for learners.

Lastly, the researcher found code-switching to be inevitable in second language writing classrooms where the teachers and learners are competent in more than one language. With that in mind, the researcher believes that teachers should use codeswitching such that it does not hinder the learners' development of the target language.

Besides, Adendorf (1993) argues that code-switching does not hamper the learners' development of the second language. This follows Vigotsky's (1978) perception of interconnectedness of languages in the human minds. As a result, Vygotsky's (1978) socio-cultural perspective views the teacher's and learners' language background as a resource for teaching and learning as it connects learning to cultural backgrounds of learners. The researcher, therefore, believes that code-switching, where it affords teachers and learners an opportunity to enhance teaching and learning of writing, should be used (Adendorf, 1993).

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APPENDIX A:

LETTERS SEEKING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION

INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION

(Participant: learner)

Project Title: The Nature and Pedagogical Implications of English First Additional Language Writing among FET Phase Learners in the Pinetown District.

The researcher is registered for the Doctor of Education (D.Ed.) degree at the University of Zululand, Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies.

The nature and the purpose of the research project and of this informed consent declaration have been explained to me in a language that I understand. I am aware that:

1. The purpose of the research project is to understand the nature of writing practices of FET phase English First Additional Language learners in the Pinetown District.
2. The University of Zululand has given ethical clearance to this research project and I have seen/ may request to see the clearance certificate.
3. By participating in this research project I will be contributing towards the improvement of the teaching and learning of FET phase English First Additional Language, especially writing practices.
4. I will participate in the project by participating in an English First Additional Language lesson taught by my teacher in the classroom at my school.
5. My participation is entirely voluntary and should I at any stage wish to withdraw from participating further, I may do so without any negative consequences.
6. I will not be compensated for participating in the research, but my out-of-pocket expenses will be reimbursed.
7. There may be risks associated with my participation in the project. I am aware that
 - a. the following risks are associated with my participation: information disclosure and identification of the participants
 - b. the following steps have been taken to prevent the risks: consideration of ethical issues.
 - c. there is no chance of the risk materialising.

PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION

INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION

(Participant) (teachers)

Project Title: The Nature and Pedagogical Implications of English First Additional Language Writing among FET Phase Learners in the Pinetown District.

The researcher is registered for the Doctor of Education (D.Ed.) degree at the University of Zululand, Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies.

The nature and the purpose of the research project and of this informed consent declaration have been explained to me in a language that I understand. I am aware that:

1. The purpose of the research project is to understand the nature of writing practices of FET phase English First Additional Language learners in the Pinetown District.
2. The University of Zululand has given ethical clearance to this research project and I have seen/ may request to see the clearance certificate.
3. By participating in this research project I will be contributing towards the improvement of the teaching and learning towards the FET phase English First Additional Language, especially writing practices.
4. I will participate in the project by granting permission to be observed while teaching FET phase English First Additional Language, especially writing practices and will make available all my necessary planning and preparation for the lesson taught.
5. My participation is entirely voluntary and should I at any stage wish to withdraw from participating further, I may do so without any negative consequences.
6. I will not be compensated for participating in the research, but my out-of-pocket expenses will be reimbursed.
7. There may be risks associated with my participation in the project. I am aware that
 - a. the following risks are associated with my participation: information disclosure and identification of the participants
 - b. the following steps have been taken to prevent the risks: consideration of ethical issues.
 - c. there is no chance of the risk materialising.
8. The researcher intends publishing the research results in the form of journal article and forwarding them to the Department of Basic Education. However, confidentiality and anonymity of records will be maintained and that my name and identity will not be revealed to anyone who has not been involved in the conduct of the research.

9. I will receive feedback in the form of empirical findings and access to the copy of this report regarding the results obtained during the study.

10. Any further questions that I might have concerning the research or my participation will be answered by Ms Nomalungelo Isabel Ngubane on the following mobile number: 0794710483 and office number 0312603466 or email: NgubaneN3@ukzn.ac.za

11. By signing this informed consent declaration I am not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies.

12. A copy of this informed consent declaration will be given to me, and the original will be kept on record.

I,have read the above information / confirm that the above information has been explained to me in a language that I understand and I am aware of this document's contents. I have asked all questions that I wished to ask and these have been answered to my satisfaction. I fully understand what is expected of me during the research.

I have not been pressurised in any way and I voluntarily agree to participate in the abovementioned project.

.....
Participant's signature

.....
Date

University of Zululand
Faculty of education
Private Bag X1001
KwaDlangezwa
Empangeni
3886

01 June 2017

The Circuit Manager
Department Of Basic Education
Durban North West Circuit
Pinetown

Dear Sir/Madam

REF: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS

I am employed by the Department of Higher Education and currently teaching at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I am currently registered for a Doctor of Education degree (D.Ed.) at the University of Zululand within the department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies. The topic of my research project is: *The Nature and Pedagogical Implications of English First Additional Language Writing among FET Phase Learners in the Pinetown District.*

I wish to seek permission to conduct research in schools under Pinetown district in the Durban North West circuit. The educators who teach grades 10, 11 & 12 and the learners that are in the mentioned grades will be used as participants to collect data for the study. The researcher will observe 15 educators teaching in the department of Languages in the sampled schools in Kwamashu Central urban and Mafukuzela Gandhi rural ward. The researcher will seek permission from the principals, then schedule an appointment with the educators and conduct lesson observations during their EFAL scheduled timetable periods to minimize disturbance of the functionality of the school. Cordial request will be sought also from Heads of Departments to observe the learning and teaching.

I hope the findings of this study will benefit and assist the Department of Basic Education and educators teaching in EFAL at FET phase.

Yours faithfully

Ms Nomalungelo Ngubane (Student No. 201759986), Email: nomahngubane93@gmail.com
Contact numbers: 0794710483 (mobile) 031-2603466 (work)
Dr BXS Ntombela (Supervisor) Dr S Govender (Co-Supervisor)

University of Zululand
Faculty of education
Private Bag X1001
KwaDlangezwa
Empangeni
3886

15 May 2017

The Principal

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN GRADES 10, 11 & 12

I am employed by the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I am currently registered for a Doctor of Education degree (D.Ed.) at the University of Zululand within the department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies. The topic of my research project is: *The Nature and Pedagogical Implications of English First Additional Language Writing among FET Phase Learners in the Pinetown District.*

I cordially request for permission to conduct research in your school. The educators that teach Grades 10, 11 & 12 and the learners in same grades will be used as participants to collect data for the study. The researcher requests to observe one educator teaching grades 10,11 & 12 and learners.

The researcher will schedule observations during the EFAL timetable periods so as not to disrupt other lessons.

I hope the findings of this study will benefit and assist the Department of Basic Education and educators teaching in grade 10, 11 & 12.

Yours faithfully

Ms Nomalungelo Ngubane (Student No.:201759986)

Contact numbers: 0794710483 (mobile)

031-2604366 (work)

Email: nomahngubane93@gmail.com / NgubaneN3@ukzn.ac.za

Doctor BXS (Supervisor)

Doctor S Govender (Co-Supervisor)

APPENDIX B:

LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Phindile Duma

Tel: 035 352 1041

Ref: 24/2017/263

Ms Ml Mqubane
6 Hake Place
Newlands East
4057

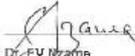
Dear Ms Mqubane

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: "**THE NATURE AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF WRITING IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL AMONG FET PHASE LEARNERS IN THE PINETOWN DISTRICT**", in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions, where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 05 July 2017 to 09 July 2020.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s) please contact Mrs Conie Khehlogile at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full research/assessment/thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Office of the HOD, Private Bag X8137, Pietermaritzburg, 3205.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to schools and institutions in KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

Pinetown District


Dr. EV Ntshona
Head of Department: Education
Date: 05 July 2017

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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„Championing Quality Education - Creating and Securing a Brighter Future“

APPENDIX C:
ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**
(Reg No: UZREC 171110-030)



RESEARCH & INNOVATION

Website: <http://www.unizulu.ac.za>
Private Bag X1001
KwaDlangezwa 3886
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Fax: 035 902 6222
Email: MdulshaneN@unizulu.ac.za

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Certificate Number	UZREC 171110-030 PGM 2017/423			
Project Title	The Nature and Pedagogical Implications of English First Additional Language Writing among FET Phase Learners in the Pinetown District			
Principal Researcher/ Investigator	Ngubane NI			
Supervisor and Co-supervisor	Dr BSX Ntombela	Dr S Govender		
Department	Curriculum and Instructional Studies			
Faculty	Education			
Type of Risk	Medium risk -- Data collection from people			
Nature of Project	Honours/4 th Year	Master's	Doctoral	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Departmental

The University of Zululand's Research Ethics Committee (UZREC) hereby gives ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project. The Researcher may therefore commence with data collection as from the date of this Certificate, using the certificate number indicated above.

- Special conditions:
- (1) This certificate is valid for 2 years from the date of issue.
 - (2) Principal researcher must provide an annual report to the UZREC in the prescribed format [due date-01 July 2018]
 - (3) Principal researcher must submit a report at the end of project in respect of ethical compliance.
 - (4) The UZREC must be informed immediately of any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the documents that were presented to the meeting.

The UZREC wishes the researcher well in conducting research.


Professor Gideon De Wet
Chairperson: University Research Ethics Committee
Deputy Vice-Chancellor: Research & Innovation
23 October 2017

CHAIRPERSON
UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND RESEARCH
ETHICS COMMITTEE (UZREC)
REG NO: UZREC 171110-30
10 OCT 2017
RESEARCH & INNOVATION OFFICE

**APPENDIX D:
LESSON TRANSCRIPTS**

School A, Lesson 1, Narrative Essay, Grade 11

- (1)Teacher: Good morning class
- (2)Learners: Good morning Mam
- (3)Teacher: Today we have a visitor, Mrs X, she is here to observe how we teach and learn writing. So don't mind her just be yourself, okay? Please greet Mrs X.
- (5)Learners: Good morning Mrs X
- (6)Teachers: Okay, today we are going look at the narrative essay. What does the word narrate mean? Yes Ayanda?
- (8)Learner: To narrate, eeh..is to tell a story
- (9)Teacher: Good, to narrate is to tell a story. It is very important. So, what are the element of a narrative story? What things must be included in the story? Yes, Aya?
- (12)Learner: Introduction
- (13)Teacher: Introduction. very good. You introduce your essay. What else? Yes Thando?
- (14)Learner: The body
- (15)Teacher: Yes the body of the essay. But what must be in the body? What things are important in the body of the essay? The story.
- (16)Learner: The place
- (17)Teacher: The place very good you must have setting of the story. You must know where the story took place. What else must be in the story? Yes X?
- (19)Learner: The plot
- (20)Teacher: Yes, the plot. What is the plot?
- (21)Learner: Main idea
- (22)Teacher: She is saying main idea, what do others say? What is the plot? Yes X?
- (23)Learner: The main idea of what the story is about
- (24)Teacher: And what? She is saying the main idea of what the story is about, and what? (pause). And the supporting ideas. The sequencing of events. Do you understand what I am saying?
- (27)Learners: Yes
- (28)Teacher: Good. Now let us move on to the stages of a narrative writing. What is the first stage of writing?
- (30)Learners: Free writing (31)Teacher: Free writing and?
- (32)Learners: Free writing and planning
- (33)Teacher: second stage?
- (34)Learners: drafting (35)Teacher: third stage?
- (36)Learners: revision (37)Teacher: fourth stage?
- (38)Learners: editing
- (39)Teacher: editing and the last one?
- (40)Learners: publishing
- (41)Teacher: So we all know that when you are writing a story you follow the stages of writing. So today I am gonna give you a topic and you gonna do it to know or to show how you can write a narrative essay. I will just choose a topic "That night that drastically changed my dreams" (writing the topic on the board).

Here is the topic. You are given a topic and you have to write a narrative essay. When you look at the topic what comes to your mind? Or what key words are very important? The words you gonna write about. Is “The” in the topic important?

(48)Learners: No (49)Teacher:
Night?

(50)Learners: No

(51)Teacher: eehh?

(52)Learners: Yes

(53)Teacher: Night is very important because it means you won’t write about the day. Do get what I am saying?

(55)Learners: Yes

(56)Teacher: You won’t say it was 8 o’clock in the morning because it says it’s the night that changed your dreams. Do you get what I am saying?

(58)Learners: yes

(59)Teacher: Ok. And then the night did not just changed your dreams it drastically changed your dreams. So it the shift of the things. Something that you have been believing in changed drastically. *Syatholana lapho?*

(62)Learners: Yes

(63)Teacher: And what did it changed?

(64)Learners: My dreams

(65)Teacher: Yes, your dreams not your mother’s dreams or your father’s dreams or whatever, *siyezwana?*

(67)Learners: Yes

(68)Teacher: So it means that you had dreams before the night and then after that night the dreams changed. *Siyatholana?*

(70) Learners: yes

(71)Teacher: And then free writing, what did we say we gonna do when we write the essay?

(72)Learner: You decide on the purpose of the text and audience you are writing to

(73)Teacher: Yes you decide on the purpose of the text and audience. And then on the next stage what do you do?

(75)Learner: Use the flow chart or listing ideas to brainstorm your ideas

(76)Teacher: Ok, let use a flowchart to brainstorm your ideas. You don’t use listing your ideas, you write a sign and then you write the ideas that come to your mind when you think of the night that drastically changed your dreams. What comes to your mind? What could have happened? Yes?

(80)Learner: What kind of a night

(81)Teacher: Yes, what kind of a night that was. And what else? What ideas you can use? *phela* you are writing a story to someone you want to tell him or her about the night that changed your dreams. Yes Zekhethelo?

(84)Learner: How the night changed my dreams

(85)Teacher: Yes, the how. How your dreams were changed. What else? We said that when we writing a story we must have a setting, a time, you must have a plot. we said that. What else, yes Siza?

(88)Learner: Where did it happen

(89)Teacher: Where did it happen is the what?

(90)Learners: the place

(91)Teacher: The place, the setting. And what else?

(92)Learner: When did it happen

(93)Teacher: When did it happen, so its what?

(94)Learners: the time

(95)Teacher: the time is when?

(96)Learners: At night

(97)Teacher: so we said that when you talk of the time you don't just say at night, the date must be there, the year must be there and say whether it was summer or winter. So in the night drastically changed your dreams what are the dreams were having? What else?

(101)Learner: Who were the person that you were with

(102)Teacher: The person you were with, your company may be you were with your mother, father or sister or your cousin. What else?

(104)Learner: What changed your dreams

(105)Teacher: Yes what changed your dreams. It also fits with how were your dreams changed.

(106)Learner: What feelings I had

(107)Teacher: Yes how did I feel about my reams changing. What else could have happened that changed your dreams. What drastic things can happen and change your dreams? Like for example you are doing grade 10 and in 2019 you planning that you will be doing grade 11 and something suddenly happen. What can happen and make you not do grade 11 in 2019. Cammon guys.

(112)Learner: fail

(113)Teacher: Can you fail at night? This must happen at night remember. Yes?

(114)Learner: The roles of your house

(115)Teacher: What happen to the roles of your house? Meaning that role of the parent is to provide angithi? So what would happen to your parent that could change the role of your parent?

(117)Learner: Death

(118)Teacher: Death. Very good. Death can change your dreams. May be one of your parents can dies and then you were relying on her or him and if she has died than you don't know who will take care of you. Is it clear?

(121)Learners: yes

(122)Teacher: What other can happen? Common guys think. Other people have changed their names to Thulani, Thulile, Thulebona. No ways, you in class you must talk. What else may happen?

(125)Learner: Car accident

(126)Teacher: Car accident very good. You can get a car accident and break your leg and then your dreams change. What else?

(128)Learner: Low-self esteem

(129)Teacher: What can cause low self-esteem? At night? Death can happen at, car accident can happen at night. What else?

(131)Learner: pregnancy

(132)Teacher: Pregnancy? Yes, I was dreaming to do my grade 11 in 2019 then there is something that happen at night. Pregnancy can cause your dreams to change (134)Learner: Arrest

(135)Teacher: That's right. An arrest can cause your dreams to be shattered. What else?

(136)Learner: Rape

(137)Teacher: Rape can happen at night

(138)Learner: Robbery

(139)Teacher: Yes robbery can happen at night. The thieves can come and do something bad

(140)Learner: burn the house

(141)Teacher: Fire can happen at night and change your dreams. All your clothes and also your school uniform and books can burn and you can't come to school. May be your house is totally burned and you lost everything *siyatholana bazalwane?*

(145)Learners: Yes

(146)Teacher: So that brainstorming you write all the ideas. After writing all your ideas you then try arrange them in your head. Mmmmmh how am I going to write this?

Where am I going to talk about time? Where am I going to talk about place and all that and then you follow the planning. Your free writing and then

planning I hope that you are taking notes of what I am saying. When you planning we know that in an essay writing there are paragraphs *angithi?*

are

(152) Learners: yes

(153)Teacher: First paragraph you write your introduction. Second paragraph may be you will be writing about setting and also time and also feelings *siyezwana lapho?* You choose from the brainstorming ideas which one fits which paragraph. *Siyezwana?*

(157)Learners: Yes

(157)Teacher: In grade 10 it is imperative that you do not write less than 5 paragraphs. *Siyezwana?*

(159)Learners: Yes

(160)Teacher: So must have three ideas. Introduction and your three ideas and the fifth is your conclusion and you know that a paragraph cannot be 2 lines or twenty lines. A paragraph if you have a big hand writing is 5 or 6 lines so let us write our introduction. We are going to use our exercise books. You can the back of your exercise books because you are still drafting. Write today's date and write narrative essay. You may copy the ideas on the board at the back of your exercise books just to remember what we talked about. Now when you look at the topic and ideas we brainstormed there are ideas I forget its not that you are going to give these ideas all of you. You can give other ideas other than these ones and then you write your introduction. Don't write the word introduction, but just start your first paragraph as an introduction

get what I am saying we just write it no heading you don't write and underline it no we don't do that because we are in grade 10. So you write a topic we have written the planning and brainstorming ideas up to the fifth paragraph and yours is to write an introduction. When you writing an introduction what is important? What must be contained in the introduction? Important key words?

(178)Learner: the place

(179)Teacher: Yes the setting

(180)Learner: The time

(181)Teacher: Good the time and I said when you say time don't say 8h00 o'clock time includes the day, the year, the decade and century and whatever so you

explain and also to make your introduction spicy, because it must spicy.
When you writing creative writing you take all what is in you because you have everything within you so you take it out. Firstly let us start it like this....(writing on the board) It was, time? you said time is the first thing that we use, so it was?

(189)Learner: 16th of November

(190)Teacher: 16th of November 2017 you cant say it was 2018 because now we are in 2018 January. *Siyatholana?*

(191)Learners: yes

(192)Teacher: You must be careful of the time 2017. How was the weather?

(193)Learner: It was raining

(194)Teacher: It was raining? Raining is one word be descriptive, the weather was?

(195)Learner: Very hot

(196)Teacher: Very hot okay and how hot? You can even mention the degrees like 32 degrees celcius neh? Science people?

(198)Learners: Yeees

(199)Teacher: You can add that the weather was very hot or it was raining or it was drizzling *syatholana?*

(200)Learners: Yes

(201)Teacher: And then where were you?

(202)Learner: I was at home

(203)Teacher: At home doing what?

(204) Learner: Washing dishes

(205)Learner : Watching TV

(206)Teacher: Remember the time

(207)Learner: Studying

(208)Teacher: You were studying, 16 November you have completed your exams. So you were studying. Studying what?

(209)Learner: Mathematics

(210)Teacher: Mathematics, why you studying?

(211)Learner: Because we gonna be writing it tomorrow

(212)Teacher: Okay because we had an exam tomorrow on which date?

(213)Learner: On the 17th

(214)Teacher : Okay (writing on the board) on the 17th of November or the following day you can say that, Okay? And who was with you at home?

(216)Learner: Father

(217)Learner: Mother

(218)Learner: My uncle

(219)Teacher: Others say uncle so my uncle was doing what?

(220)Learner: Was helping me

(221)Teacher: Oh helping me doing what?

(222)Learner: Studies

(223)Teacher: Or with what be specific what topic in mathematics

(224)Learner: Simplification

(225)Teacher: Okay so my uncle was helping me with simplification (writing on the board).

And Then. Now we have to know the trouble is coming

(226)Learner: Yes

(227)Teacher: At what time?

(228)Learner: At 8h00

(229)Learner: Hhayi bo at 8h00 pm

(230)Teacher: Ok at 8h00 pm or at 20h00 pm let us say at about 8h30 pm. What did you hear? Because all your senses must be at work

(232)Learner: Gun shot

(233)Teacher: Gun shot? You heard noise what noise?

(234)Learner: Screaming

(235)Teacher: Screaming? This thing must be coming its not a real thing, what noise?

(236)Learner: The barking of dog

(237)Teacher: The dog barked at half past 8 what is the name of the dog?

(238)Learner: Bhoza

(239)Learner: Spotty

(240)Teacher: And how was the dog barking? Was it like it normally bark?

(241)Learners: No

(242)Teacher: How was it barking?

(243)Learner: Loudly

(244)Learner: Curious

(245)Learner: Angrily

(246)Teacher: how does a dog bark curiously?

(247)Learner: Angrily

(248)Teacher: Ok let us angrily and then what? Why was the dog barking

(249)Learner: It see someone a thief

(250)Teacher: So someone was in your yard may be peeping through the gate

(251)Learners: yes

(252)Teacher: Can you see now the introduction is okay the person reading your introduction is curious was it somebody in the yard? What was the dog barking? It making the person reading your essay curious more because if you tell the whole story in the introduction he wont read the other paragraphs *siyatholana*?

(256)Learners: yes

(257)Teacher: Then you have written your paragraph your introduction must be linked, there must be logic *angithi*?

(259)Learners: yes

(260)Teacher: You can't write that it was at night on the 16th of November in your first paragraph and something else in the other paragraphs. The other paragraphs must link to this one. You cant in the other paragraphs then I moved out of the room and saw my
father coming inside of the house and say its your climax of the story
siyatholana lapho?

(266) Learners: yes

(267)Teacher: There must be something that goes up up up until it reaches a climax, *siyezwana*?

(269)Learners: Yes

(270)Teacher: Now, start writing your paragraph. Write today's date, your topic and then begin your paragraph. Please we write in full sentences. Put a full stop or a question mark if needs be. We use a comma or whatever punctuation mark.

Don't write the dashes at the beginning of the sentences. Remember that we don't use capital letter anyhow.

We use punctuation correctly. If you can read through your process of writing you will that we use capital letters for name of people, name of places and all that so we are all writing an introduction on the topic. Any questions?

(279) Learners : no

(280)Teacher: I will start marking introduction right now. Don't change only dates and place and then you say it's your introduction write it as it is but in your own words *siyatholana*?

(283)Learners: Yes

(284)Teacher: When you are done with your introduction raise your hand so I can read it and see if its correct. Is that the bell ringing. Okay?, finish your writing at home. I will check tomorrow. (the teacher leaves the classroom).

School B, Lesson 2, Narrative Essay, Grade 12

(1)Teacher: Good morning class

(2)Learners: Good morning Miss

(3)Teacher: Today we are going to be doing a narrative essay. Put off your exercise books and take out handouts on narrative essay. I am sure you are familiar with the concept. Anyone who has idea of what a narrative essay is? Yes X?

(6)Learner: A narrative essay tells a story.

(7)Teacher: Yes, a narrative essay tells a story (writing on the board). It give an account of events or incidents (reading from the handout). It revolves around a plot or a story-line and it may encompass a morale. So what does this tell us, a narrative essay firstly it should have a story-line and what is a story-line? A story should have different but coherent ideas. Okay?

(13)Learners: Yes Mam

(14)Teacher: You only talk about one thing but of course you are going to present different ideas within the body of your essay but they be coherent or follow one another from the introduction to your conclusion. *Siyezwana*? (17)Learners: Yes

(18)Teacher: Okay, let us move on.

(19)Teacher: What is the important thing to consider when writing your essay?

(21)Learner: Introduction

(21)Teacher: No. Before you even get to an introduction. Raise your hands

(23)Teacher: Yes X

(24)Learner: The topic of the essay

(25)Teacher: Good X (name of the learner). Your topic of writing is the most important element that shapes your lines of thinking

(27)Teacher: After the topic, what else must you think about?

(28)Learner: Planning, Sir

(29)Teacher: So how do you do the planning for your essay?

(30)Learner: You brainstorm the topic Sir

(31)Teacher: Yes you can brainstorm, you can brainstorm the topic, generating ideas or do a mind map, a flow chart or float lines. Now, why is planning important when you doing a narrative essay? So when you are going to do an essay you should have a planning, a planning is going to serve as a guide as to how you going to go about presenting your story to us hence you have mentioned that a narrative essay it tells a story so you should a guide so this guide is going to help you with presenting to us these ideas in a coherent manner. Let us look at the second bullet.

The orientation or introduction indicates two things it should be the time and the setting. The time what do we look at when we looking at the time? The time has two components, yes X?

(42)Learner: Date and era

(43)Teacher: We look at the date and era and it introduces the main characters so the main character of your story should be introduced in your introduction because we need to know whom is story about who is going to carry out most action in your story. A gripping opening sentence is effective and essential so gripping meaning your first sentence in your narrative essay it should be interesting and it should what? entice a reader so you should you have interest in learning more about this character and your story we want to see as the story and the characters evolve you must make sure that it interesting. The body consist of a number of paragraphs. In grade 12 when you writing your narrative essay it should consist of a number of paragraphs and the length it should be one page or a page and a half nothing less and nothing more than that. (reading) This series of events contain the development complications or the plot so this may lead to a climax or anti-climax so in the sentence in your development they may lead to climax or anti-climax that is not always the case that is why here they use the word may be it is possible but it is compulsory that your essay should have a climax or anti-climax. The high point of the story that is the definition of a climax, the characters know that they are people who are carrying out action your story so characters should be limited you cannot have twenty characters in a narrative essay because of its length it should only be a page and a half. These characters should be thoughtfully described so that the reader can identify and relate to them. Now why should we have limited characters? Because they should be thoughtfully described and you as a reader you should be able to identify so how is this going to help? It is going to help you as a reader not to confuse the characters if there are any who have similarities. Your characters how should the writer present the characters to us or what it is that you look at when you talk about characters. For characters we look at three things, does anyone have an idea? Yes X?

(71)Learner: Main character

Teacher: Yes of course there are going to be different characters in the story there is the main character there is the protagonist and maybe there is going an antagonist. Do you know what an antagonist is?

(75)Learners: Yes

(76)Teacher: What is an antagonist? Yes, X?

(77)Learner: A person against the main character in the story

(78)Teacher: Yes, the person who is against the main character. There are also supporting characters those that may not be very important but they help in carrying out the

action. So in your characters you look for three things, firstly you look for appearance (writing the word 'appearance' on the board) you look at personality (writing the word 'personality on the board) and you look at their actions (writing the word 'action' on the board). The characters if you are going to be composing a narrative essay you should make sure that you have or you look at those aspects to be to distinguish your characters and how must we do this? Thoughtfully. We thoughtfully describe your characters. Let us move on to the style as to how should one go about writing a narrative essay. (reading) A dialogue is often for effect, it is often not always it is often used but it should be used sparingly so now if

You are writing a narrative essay we have two options you either use a dialogue or you use descriptions so descriptions you are going to describe your characters and you going to describe the events that are taking place in your story it does not always have to descriptive you can use it in order to make emphasis or for effect. We usually narrate in the past tense tense for narrative essay it should be in the past, why should be in the past? Yes?

(95)Learner: Because its an event that has taken place Miss

(96)Teacher: Yes, you telling us about an event that has already taken place and it should be in the first or third person so the narration or a narrator is should be first or third we should not use a second person and if it is going to be in the first or third person we use words pronouns such as I, she, he, they and them, these are the list of examples. What does that tell us if the story is narrated in the first person? What does tell you as a reader? Yes?

(102)Learner: the person telling the story in involved

Teacher: yes, the person telling the story is carrying out action and when the narration is in the third person what that mean? Mandisa?

(105)Learner: the person telling the story was not there

(106)Teacher: how can you tell a story when you were not there?

(107)Learner: you are listening to other people

(108)Teacher: so your story is going to be hear say. You are going to write a story based on what other people said. What is a third person narration? Anyone wants to try?, X?

(111)Thabani: A person came up with a story (112)Teacher:

Oh so it fiction. Yes X?

(113)Learner: It could be that the person telling the story was being observe it but not involved in the story

(114)Teacher: Thank you Walter third person narration is not directly involved but the person is observing so the person is there to watch as other characters carrying out action. Ok, the present tense is sometimes used to create immediacy. We have mentioned that the tense of the narrative essay it should be in the past we use a past tense but you can opt or choose to use a what? a present tense. Do you get me?

(120)Learners: Yes

(121)Teacher: Present tense but that is only, you can only use that for immediacy to create effect or emphasis. Sentence structure. Do you know the type of sentences?

Mmmmh, you do? Can you remember them? Yes X?

(124)Learner: A simple sentence

(125)Teacher: A simple sentence, ok, what else? You said yes.

(126)Learner: A compound sentence

(127)Teacher: Compound sentence, and then lastly?

(128)Learner: A complex sentence

(129)Teacher: We have a complex sentence and we know the differences between these three types of sentences?

(131)Learners: Yes

Teacher: We do, ok. We are not going to dwell on that but it is important that you know the different types of sentences and they may vary for effect so you use a simple sentence for a specific reason, you use a complex sentence also for a specific reason so the reasons that you are going to use these different types of sentences they vary the differ. And then second to last the mood should be created by the use of powerful and precise selection and remember for every text we consider the tone and the mood and for the tone what do we consider? For the tone we consider the feelings whose feelings do we consider when we talking about the tone? Feelings of the narrators. And then the mood, whose feelings do we consider?

(141)Learners: My mood

Teacher: Yes your mood as the reader. So the mood should be created by use of powerful and precise diction. What is diction? Eeeeh?

(144)Learners: (silence)

(145)Teacher: What is diction mmmh? So this term is new to us?

(146)Learners: No

(147)Teacher: Then tell me what is diction? What is that?

(148)Learners: (silence)

(149)Teacher: Yes X

(150)Learner: Words

Teacher: Yes diction are words but it's a choice of words it a language that the writer uses it could literal or figurative. Lastly when you writing or composing a narrative essay it should have a satisfactory resolution or conclusion. A conclusion ties up the loose ends and they include a coder or morale so these two terms are new to you. What is coder or morale, it is an afterthought. So for your conclusion you may present to us a new idea but this idea that you going to present to us it must be in line with your storylines or your plot. It shouldn't be a different idea that has nothing to do with a text do we understand?

(159)Learners: Yes

(160)Teacher: And also in your conclusion you tie up the loose end. Do you have questions?

(161)Learners: No

(162)Teacher: Do you need clarity?

(163)Learners: No

(164)Teacher: Ok. Let us look at the sample of a five paragraph narrative essay so you going to have an idea. So know how to write a narrative essay now we going to look at this narrative essay and we are going to try and identify these elements of a narrative essay from the sample. I am going to read the essay for you and you going to identify these elements. The essay has no title but for you but when you write your in the exams you will be given a title or you will have to come up with the title your own but this one has no title. Simple paragraph narrative essay (starting to read the essay)(copy in the appendices). (the reading went on for the next 10 minutes of the lesson).

(173)Teacher: this is a sample, this is an example of a narrative essay now that you know the components of a narrative essay let us identify them from this essay using this

worksheet and also looking at an essay. In your introduction two things must appear in your introduction, that is the time, setting and it should also introduce the main characters now can we identify those in the introduction so now we only looking at the first paragraph the time and date? Are we given the time and date?

(179)Learners: No

(180)Teacher: Are we given the setting of the story?

(181)Learners: No

(182)Teacher: What is the setting of the story anyway? Anyone who knows?

(183)Learners: Mam

(184)Teacher: Yeas X?

(185)Learner: Eeeer, it's where the story takes place Mam.

(186)Teacher: ok the date is the 24th, the characters, are there any characters?

(187)Learners: Yes

(188)Teacher: Okay name them, yes my boy?

(189)Learners: Jerico

(190)Teacher: We are looking at the first paragraph not the entire text. Yes X?

(191)Learners: Narrator

Teacher: Yes, we the narrator in the first paragraph we are not given the name of the narrator we do know who this person is but the narrator is included here and how we know this? Yes?

(195)Learner: I

Teacher: Yes there is word I so the person telling the story is directly involved here in the story and is carrying out action. Now from this activity can we write our own narrative essay?

(199)Learners: Yes

(200)Teacher: After going through the notes do we all know what to do?

(201)Learners: Sir

(202)Teacher: Is everything clear?

(203)Learners: Yes

(204)Teacher: Do you have any questions?

(205)Learners: No Sir

(206)Teacher: Our lesson ends here. Tomorrow we are going to attempt our own introductions following the same elements we learned today. I will see you tomorrow.

School C, Lesson 2, Invitation Card (Grade 10)

(1)Teacher: *Yini kwenzenjani van damme? Uyagula? Unani?*

(2)Learner: *Umzimba ubuhlungu*

(3)Teacher: *Kubuhlungu umzimba? Yini ubuwenzani izolo? Uyayifaka into yokukhipha inyongo? Ekhaya ubatshelile?*

(4)Learner: Yes mam

(5)Teacher: *Bathini*

(6)Learner: *bathi ngizoya clinic after school*

(7)Teacher: *Eeeh bantabami, today, hhayi bo yesterday I told you we have a visitor tomorrow angithi niyakhumbula?*

(9)Learners: Yes

Teacher: *Namhlanje sivakashelwe* u Mrs X, she works at the...she works at the university. She is a lecturer. She with us today because she wants to experience the actual teaching when it comes to writing. *Ngithemba ukuthi nizoziphatha kahle, sizo* behaviour.

(13)Teacher: Ngicela ningisulela ibhodi. (Please clean the board for me)

Teacher: Sizohlehla ke mah eh, sibuyele emuva kancane nje. Okay? (We will go back a little bit my friends)

(16)Learners: Yes

(17)Teacher: Keep quite so that we can start our lesson.

(18)Teacher: *Konje ke iyini writing?* (What is writing)

(19)Learner: (silence)

Teacher: Uma *sibhala sibeka imicabango yethu, angithi?* (When we write we express our thought, isn't)

(22)Learners: Yes

(23)Teacher: Today I want us to look at invitation letter. Alright?

(24)Learners: Yes

(25)Teacher: Did you bring your writing exercise books?

(26)Learners: Yes

(27)Teacher: By the way, Happy Valentines.

(28)Learners: Thank you. Happy Valentines to you too

Teacher: Okay, *uma sikhuluma* about writing, *i* writing is all about what? The writing everything that we write, remember yesterday the day before yesterday we said when we are making a sentence is group of?

(32)Learners: Words

Teacher: From a group of words we form what we call a paragraph. From a paragraph that is where *sesike sibhala i* information *yethu ibe* information *esike isihlangene ndawonye* about the topic. If I may ask, Ayanda, can you tell me about your first day at Sensokwethu? When you come what were your expectations, what did you get?

(38)Learner: (silence)

Teacher: Ayanda, I want you to tell me about your first day at this school, what were you expecting or when you wake in the morning how did you feel what did you expect and did we meet your expectations?. Expectations *izinto obuzilindele.*

(41)Learner: You didn't meet my expectations

(42)Teacher: We didn't meet your expectations? What were your expectations?

(43)Learner: Sensokwethu white people

(44)Learners: (laughs)

(45)Teacher: You expected Sensokwethu to have white people? Like private schools?

(46)Learner: Like my previous school

(47)Teacher: like your previous school? Did you have white people at Sondelani?

(48)Learner: Yes

(49)Teacher: And then what else?

(50)Learner: I was excited

Teacher: You were excited. Let me write it down (writing sentences on the board) I was Excited I came in. Right? (writing another sentence) I also met new people. Right?

(53)Learner: I expected to welcome friends

(54)Teacher: Eeeeh?

(55)Learner: (silence)

(56)Learners: (laughter)

Teacher: Is there anything else? Expectations? We didn't meet your expectation of white people eeh?

(59)Learner: I said q-u-i-t-e people not white

(60)Teacher: Oooh q-u-i-te people.

(61)Learner: Yes

(62)Teacher: Esethu, what did you expect?

(63)Learner: I expected to be welcomed

(64)Teacher: okay (writing on the board) you expected to be welcomed. Yah?

(65)Learner: And I expected to study with good people

(66)Teacher: (writing on the board) And you expected to study with good people, right?

(67)Learner: What I like about the school is the good matric results.

(68)Learner: Matric results are good?

(69)Learner: Yes

Teacher: Okay, the question was how did you feel when you come, what were your expectations, did we meet your expectation *angithi*?

(72)Learner: Yes

Teacher: The first one, Ayanda, *utheni*, (reading from the board) I was I came in, *angithi*?

What did Ayanda do? He took a group of words and what did he do? He formed a?

(74)Learners: Sentence

Teacher: Still talking about Senzokwethu, he said (reading from the board) I also met new people, *angithi*? That is another sentence (reading the next line) I was welcomed by everyone. I was expecting to study with quite people and my expectations were not met. How did he come to these expectations? Now he has spent time with you *angithi*?, he has met *u Zahara wabona ukuthi* this girl is very quite in the classroom, *wahlala no Dube wambona uDube ukuthi* what kind of a person he is *angithi*? All these things *ezishiwo* Ayanda they started from words and it became sentences and it became what?

(83)Learners: A paragraph

(84)Teacher: A very meaningful paragraph *angithi*?

(85)Learners: Yes

Teacher: Let us read Ayanda's words (reading from the board), I expected to be welcomed and study with good people. The reason I came to this schools was that it catered for all subjects I needed and the matric results are good. This a paragraph *angithi*?

(89)Learners: Yes

(90)Teacher: Anyone who doesn't know a paragraph?

(91)Learners: No

(92)Teachers: Okay. Let us now move on. You have *i* diary writing *niyayikhumbula*?

(93)Learners: Yes

(94)Teacher: *Zonke lezinto ziyini*? They are part of writing *angithi*?

(95)Learners: Yes

(96)Teacher: What is the reason for writing an invitation? Zola?

(97)Learner: To invite

Teacher: Yes, (writing on the board) we write an invitation to invite someone to an occasion. What occasion can that be?

(100)Learner1: A wedding

(101)Teacher: A wedding (writing on the board). Or what?

(102)Learner2: Birthday party

Teacher: A birthday party, good. So, let us draw a birthday invitation card (drawing a card). What information must be on your card? Does anyone know? Luyanda?

(105)Learner: Adress

(106)Teacher: Address. What is your address Luyanda?

(107)Learner: 101 Nyamazane Road, Ntuzuma

(108)Teacher: (writing the address on the board). Ok. And what else?

(109)Learner: A date, Mam

(110)Teacher: Yes, a date. When is the event?

(111)Learner: 12 April.

(112)Teacher: 12 April. Is that your birthday Zipho?

(113)Learner: Yes Mam

(114)Teacher: Ok. What other information should be on the invitation card?

(115)Learners: (silence) (116)Teacher: Eeeeh? Sandile.

(117)Learner: Time. Good.

(118)Teacher: Time, good.

(119)Learner: A dress code Mam

(120)Teacher: A dress code. Yes

(121)Learner: Cell phone number

(122)Teacher: yes, RSVP. What does RSVP stands for?

(123)Learner: (silence)

Teacher: If we write rsvp in an invitation what do we want? To send you your reply *usho ukuthi uyeza emcimbini angithi?* Yes. So you reply very soon usho you will be coming and you phone the person whose number is given on the card. Why must you phone *usho uyeza?* Zakhona?

(128)Zakhona: So that they know that how many people *abazayo emcimbini*

(129)Learner: So that you bring a present Mam

Teacher: Yes so that they keep a seat for and they know how many people are coming. And what do we write on the invitation card?

(132)Learner: Dress code

(133)Teacher: Good, (writing on the board) dress code. What else? Yes Akhona?

(134)Akhona: Bring your own transport

(135)Teacher: Good, (writing on the board) you must bring your own transport. Is that all?

(136)Learner: No children allowed

Teacher: Yes, sometime they don't want children and they say so on the invitation *angithi?*

(138)Learners: yes

(139)Teacher: Anything else we must include?

(140)Learners: No

(1410)Teacher: *Hhayi bo kanti* what is the event about? Why are you inviting people?

(142)Learner: Because it's my birthday party

Teacher: Yes, you must have a reason for making the invitation. The reason for inviting people. What is the event *kanti?* The birthday party *angithi?* How old are turning?

(145)Learner: 15

(146)Teacher: Okay so you write on the invitation that it's your 15th birthday party *angithi?*

(147)Learners: Yes

(148)Teacher: Anything else?

(149)Learner: Bring presents (150)Learners:
(laughs)

Teacher: Oh yes! You remind people to bring presents *angithi, uyazicelela bandla*. Anything?

(152)Learners: (silence)

Teacher: So our invitation has (pointing at the board) the address of the event, the date of the event place of the event, dress code, what the event is about, RSVP number, instructions no children, bring your own car. Bring presents. Is it ready to be sent out to people?

(157)Learners: Yes

(158)Teacher: Yes, its ready to be sent to people you inviting *angithi*?

(159)Learners: Yes

(the bell ending the period rings) (160)Teacher:
You get my point?

(161)Learners: Yes Mam

(161)Teacher: Good

(162)Teacher: So *ukhona onombuzo*?

(163)Learners: No

(164)Teacher: Okay. Now, here is your instruction on page 126 to write your own invitation. Let us all choose topic 2. You can finish at home.

School D, Lesson 4, Friendly Letter

(1)Teacher: Good morning class

Learners: Good morning Mam

Teacher: Before you sit down, let me introduce to you Mrs X, a researcher from UKZN. She is joining us for this lesson. Please greet Mrs X.

Learners: Good morning Mrs X. (the researcher greeted back)

Teacher: Okay. Yesterday we learned about....., who remembers what we learned about *izolo*?

(7)Learners: (Raising their hands)

Teacher: Yes, X

Nokwazi: We learned about a formal letter

Teacher: What we did learn about in a formal writing? Yes, X

(11)Lwandle: Eeer we learned about how to write it

Teacher: Good. We learned about how to write a formal letter or a..?

Learner1: Business letter

Teacher: Yes, a formal letter or a business letter. Quickly give me three important characteristics, elements or aspects of a formal letter. How does it differ from other types of longer transactional writing like essays?

(17)Learners: (silence)

Teacher: Hhayi bo *abantu bebengekho yini izolo?* Yes X?

Nothile: It has two addresses

Teacher: Good. We learned that a business letter has two addresses. Whose addresses are those those?

(22)Learner2: My address and the manager

Teacher: *hhhay bo* we didn't say my address *izolo*. Whose address are those? Yes X?

Phiwa: The writer and the receiver

Teacher: Good. The sender's address and the receiver's address. What else? For the receiver's address we also add the name or the position of the receiver. What else?

Learners: (silence)

Teacher: *Eeeh?* What other aspects makes a formal letter?

Learner3: Dear Sir or Madam

(30)Teacher: Eeerrr, what do we call that part of the letter?

Learner4: Opening

Teacher: Good. Opening or salutation. So, how is salutation of a formal letter?

Learners: Formal

Teacher: Now, give me the last thing, *eeeh* Njabulo?

Learner5: we underline the heading Teacher: Did we say the heading *izolo*?

(38)Learner6: The subject of the letter

Teacher: Good, Mpilo. We called it the subject of the letter and we underline it, isn't? And one more important thing is that we use a formal language to write a business letter. Ok? Learners: Yes Mam.

(43)Teacher: Ok. Today we will look at the informal or friendly letter. I want us to know both the business letter and the friendly letter because in the exam you will be asked may be to choose between the two. So it is important to know both them, *siyezwana?*

(47)Learners: Yes Mam

Teacher: How does a friendly letter differs from a business letter? Let say you are writing friend or your family member, how will your letter differ from the letter you write to your principal? Learners: (silence)

Teacher: Think of the things we just mentioned about the business or formal letter. Do we keep them in the friendly letter?

(54)Learners: No

Teacher: how these two types of letters similar or different? Learners: (silence)

Teacher: Eeeeh, anyone?

Learner: They are the same

(59)Teacher: I mean, tell me *zihluke kanjani* these two types of letters

Learners: (Raising hands) Teacher: Yes X?

Zakhona: A friendly letter have one address

Teacher: The friendly letter has one address. That is important. Whose address is that?

(64)Learner4: Writer's address

Teacher: The sender's address. What else?

Learner5: Eerhh, no subject line

Teacher: Yes, no subject line. What else? Please don't say no second address.

Learners: (laugh)

(69)Learner6: we say only name of the friend in the greeting

Teacher: Good. In the salutation we write Dear Zozo or Dear Mom, or My dear friend, etc. What about the language? Is it formal?

Learners: No

Teacher: Yes, the language is informal or friendly. Remember we writing to our loved ones. We use soft word and casual words. Isn't?

(75)Learners: Yes Mam.

Teacher: The letter can be long as well because we sharing a lot of information with our friends *Angithi*? But remember *ke* in the exam not to write more than what you are required to write. Stick to the number of words you are asked to write, *siyezwana*?

(79)Learners: Yes Mam.

Teacher: Ok. Let move on. Can someone clean the board for me? I want us all now to write this big letter to our friend Zoey who had just moved to a new place with her family. Let us take out our exercise books so that we can write down our thoughts.

Remember we use the back of our exercise books because we only generating ideas. Ok?

(85)Learners: Ok Mam.

Teacher: So we all going to talk. We are writing a letter to our friend Zoey. Zoey's family has just relocated to where? Anyone?

Learner7: to Joburg

(89)Teacher: Where about in Joburg?

Learner 8: Soweto

Teacher: Oh ok, Soweto. Where about with Soweto? Remember Soweto is big. Where Exactly?

Learner: Zola 7

(94)Learners: (laugh)

Teacher: So, they have moved to Zola, Soweto. Why is it important that we know exactly where Zoey now stays?

Learners: (silence)

Teacher: Hhawu, remember we are writing to her. Why should we know exactly where she stays?

(100)Learner5: For the address

Teacher: Yes, we must have the correct recipient's address. Why?

Learners: (silence)

Teacher: If you don't raise your hands, I will point you anyway. Why must we know the correct address?

(105)Learner: So that our letter *ingaduki*.

Teacher: Very good. So that our letter does not get lost. So that it goes straight to Zoey, isn't?

Learners: Yes

Teacher: So, Zoey' family has just moved to Soweto, Zola section. And Zoey has just moved to a new school, isn't?

(110)Leaners: Yes Mam

Teacher: What is the name of Zoey's new school?

Learner9: Lwazi High School

Teacher: Ok. Lwazi High School. So, now we are writing a letter to Zoey. What it is that we want to say to Zoey? Let us list things we want to say to Zoey here on the side

(drawing a horizontal line on the board). So, tell me, what do we say to Zoey?

(116)Learner1: We ask how is Soweto
Teacher: (write on the board)

Learner2: We ask about how is the new school Teacher:
(writes down). What else?

Learner3: We ask about new friends
(121)Teacher: (writes down)

Learner4: We ask about her new teachers
Teacher: (writes down). What else? *Lapho emuva, give me something.*

Learner5: We tell her we miss her
Teacher: Good. What do we miss about Zoey?

Learner 6: Going to the movies
(127)Teacher7: Good. Anything else we want to tell Zoey?

Learner8: Ask to visit us on holiday
Teacher: (writing down). Ok, we have quite a lot of things we will say to Zoey, isn't?

Leaners: Yes
Teacher: Ok. We will add more as we write. At least we have ideas to begin with, isn't?

(132)Learners: Yes, Mam.
Teachers: Now, let us start writing our letter to our friend Zoey. Where do we begin?

Learners: address
Teacher: Whose address, Zoey's address?
Learners: No. Our address
Teacher: Then, what is our address? Remember it must be the address that Zoey will reply to,
Angithi?

(138)Learners: yes
Teacher: So what is our address?

Learner9: 159 Bhejane Road, Kwa-Mashu
Teacher: Good. So we stay in Bhejane Road, Kwa-Mashu? (writing on the board). Which
Section is this?

(143)Learners: K section
Teacher: Ok. So, we write K159, Bhejane Road, Kwa-Mashu Township. When we write our
letters in the exam, do we all stay in Bhejane Road? All of us?

Learners: No
Teacher: Good. We write our own home addresses. Buyile, what's your home address?

Buyile: K 65, Bhejane Road **(149)**Teacher: Amanda? Amanda: J 102, Mzulwini Road
Teacher: Freedom?
Freedom: L 88, Thekwane Road, Kwa-Mashu.
Teacher: Good. We all have different addresses. So I don't want to see Zoey's address in all
the letters. Alright?

(155)Learners: Yes Mam
Teacher: Good. So, now we write our letter. We have the address. What else now?

Learners: Greetings
Teacher: Salutation. How do we greet Zoey
Learners: Dear Zoey
Teacher: (writing on the board), Ok. And then?

(161)Learners: Introduction

Teacher: Yes, introduction. So we choose from the sentences on the side what we want to say Zoey. We can add more. Phela Zoey is our friend, we can start by asking her *impilo* Isn't?

Learners: Yes

Teacher: And then we can ask if everyone at home is okay. And then we move on to our friendly talk. An introduction is how many lines?

(168)Learner1: 3-4 lines

Teacher: Yes, 4 -5 lines. The body of the letter?

Learners: Two paragraphs

Teacher: Yes, 2 paragraphs of 6-7 lines. And we talk about different things in the each paragraph, *angithi*? We skip a line between the paragraphs

Learners: yes

Teacher: And after the 2 paragraphs, what else?

(175)Learners: Conclusion

Teacher: yes, we skip a line and then we write the conclusion. How do we sign our letter

Learner2: we say yours sincerely Teacher: Or?

(179)Learner3: Your truly Teacher:

Or?

Learners: (silence)

Teacher: Or, your friend Musa.

Learners: Ohhhhhh

Teacher: Yes, she is your friend *angithi*?

(185)Learners: Yes.

Teacher: Now, our letter is complete. We have our home address, salutation or greeting, introduction, 2 paragraphs of 6 -7 lines, and conclusion.

(the bell rings)

Teacher: So I want each and everyone now to take these ideas home and to add your personal flavour to our friend Zoey and finish the letter. Let us not all write to Zoey. You write to your own friend, but you can talk about the same ideas of moving away to another place. It could be any other town or city of province or even a country. Is that clear? (188)Learners: yes

Teacher: any questions

Learner3: We write at the back or front?

Teacher: Oh, good question. We write at the front because I will mark the letter. Due date is (192) tomorrow.

(The teacher leaves the class).

School E, Lesson 5, Narrative Essay

(1)Teacher: Good morning class

Learners: Good morning Sir

Teacher: Yesterday I mentioned that we will have a visitor for this period. This is Mrs X from UKZN.

(5)Learners: Good morning Mrs X (the researcher greeted back) Teacher: Today we are going to revise writing of a narrative essay. But first, how we define a narrative essay? How does it differ from other types of essays?

Learners: (silence)

Teacher: A narrative essay, how do we write it?

(10)Learner: Its is a short story that talks about what happened

Learner: A life story

Learner: The writer is the narrator of the story

Teacher: Good. So we say its short story (writing on the board). We also say, a writer could be sharing life experiences and thirdly, the writer is also the narrator of the story.

That, is, it is written in the first person narration. Right? (16)Learners: Yes Sir

Teacher: What else?

Learner: You write the story in the past tense

Teacher: Good. Those are just the basics. There is more to writing a narrative essay. You must think about you tell your story in an interesting way. *Ukubhala ngendlela ehehayo.* There are steps that we follow when we write a narrative essay, right?

(22)Learners: Yes Sir

Teacher: What the first step of writing an essay? Anyone who knows? Yes, over there?

Learner: We brainstorm the topic

Teacher: No. I said the first step. You were not listening. Anyone?

Learner: We first choose a topic

Teacher: Yes, we choose a topic for writing. What else?

Learner: We brainstorm the topic

Teacher: Yes, we brainstorm the topic. What is it that we do when we brainstorm the topic?

(28)Learners: (silence)

Teacher: What do we mean by brainstorming? What exactly do we do there?

Learners: We do the planning for the essay

Teacher: Yes, brainstorming is part of planning. But I want to know *ukuthi* if *sithi* we are brainstorming the topic, *senza ini*?

Learner: We take the topic and draw a spider diagram and then find make ideas for the topic.

Like, what you will write about in the introduction, body and conclusion. Teacher: Good. Brainstorming is thinking about ideas for your writing. Yes you can use a spider-diagram, you can list your points down or you free write your ideas. To free-write is to write all the ideas that you think of in your mind about the topic, right?

(38)Learners: Yes Sir.

Teacher: And then after brainstorming now have ideas to write about, right?

(40)Learners: Yes

Teacher: Now I want you to choose a topic from a list of topics in your notes. Choose the topic and create a spider diagram and start to think about what information you need for for your topic. Write as much information as you can. I give you 20 minutes to do that. You can use the back of your exercise books for this activity. Write the topic clearly so that I can check if your ideas are in-line with your topic. Alright?

(46)Learners: Yes Sir

Teacher: Do we all understand what to do?

Learners: Yes Sir

(49)Teacher: Good. So start now. You have 20 minutes.

(The teacher moves around the class checking if all learners are doing the task. He stopped now and then to clarify the task and then start to move again).

(After 20 minutes)

(50)Teacher: I think we all have our ideas now in the spider diagram, isn't?

Learners: (silence)

Teachers: Even if you are not yet done but at least you have started something. Now, I want to look at your spider-diagram again. You have your ideas. Which ones do you think belongs to the introduction? Which ideas belong to the body and then to the conclusion? Now, label them according to the introduction, body and conclusion. Five minutes to do that? Right?

(57)Learners: Yes Sir

(Learners begin to sort their ideas as instructed by the teacher. The teacher moves to ensure that learners are doing the task and give more explanations)

(After 5 minutes)

Teacher: Okay, now we have identified which idea belongs where. That was planning for our writing. Right?

(62)Learners: Yes Sir

Teacher: We still have some 10 minutes. We can start our introductions. Remember that in the introduction you put ideas that belong there. Let us say you chose the topic "That night that drastically changed my life" Anyone who chose that topic?

(66)Learners: Yes

Teachers: Yes. That topic sounds interesting and not difficult at all to write about. So, for those who chose this topic, what ideas did you put in the introduction?

Learners: (silence)

Teacher: Eeeeh? Share with us your ideas. Let with us hear. Yes, X? What ideas did you in the introduction?

(72)Learners: Eeerrr, eish, I talked about when was the night.

Teacher: Ok, you mentioned you mentioned the time. Good. Others? Let us hear *bo*.

Learner1: I talked about what who was there

Learner2: *Mina* I explained where I was on the night.

Learner3: In the introduction I will talk about myself and where I was on the night.

Teacher: Good. At least we have ideas for the introduction. So in the introduction what is important is to provide the setting for the story. Right?

(79)Learners: Yes Sir

Teacher: So the setting will be normally introduce the story-line. You briefly set the time of action, the place of action and people involved in the action how did you find yourself in that terrible night. You creatively make the reader want to read your story, *angithi*?

(83)Learners: Yes Sir

Teacher: Now, let us look at our introductions again. Do they cover these questions: When did action take place? Where did the action take place? Who are the people involved in the story? How did the action begin? How did the night begin before it got worse or better to change your life? *Siyabona*?

(88)Learners: Yes Sir

Teacher: Now, look at your spider-diagram again. Add information that will answer these questions. I give you 5 minutes. Don't change the topics. Just work on your topic and add these questions and see what information will answer the questions.

(after 5 minutes)

Teacher: Now, your introduction is better. More information added. Now, we ready to write introductions. But, is the essay all about introductions?

(94)Learners: No

Teacher: What other sections do we still need to think about?

Learners: The body

Teacher: Yes, the body of your essay and conclusion. Those are the biggest sections of your essay. Isn't it?

(99)Learners: Yes

Teacher: So now, let us think about what do we want to include in the other paragraphs. What should your reader read about in the after the introduction? Remember your reader must be interested in the story. So how do we make the story more interesting? Go back to your spider-diagram and add more points that you feel important for your story. Now that you have told your reader about the setting, time, characters and did the action began. What else should the reader know about the story? Do you get me?

(106)Learners: Yes Sir

Teacher: I will give you 5 minutes to add on your spider-diagram. Ask yourself, and then what? Events the way they occurred that night. One event after the other. For example, on that night you went out to the movies with your friends. Or you invited your friends for an afternoon at your place. And then what happened? *Uyangithola?*

(111)Learners: Yes Sir.

Teacher: Now start working on those ideas. You have 5 minutes.

(Learners work on their ideas. The teacher moves around the class)

(The bell rings to end the period)

Teacher: Okay, we running out of time. So, you will take your ideas home, continue to work on them at home. Tomorrow we will begin to write our first draft. Okay? Any questions?

Learners: No.

(117)Teacher: Okay. I want to see all the ideas tomorrow before we start writing tomorrow.

(The teacher leaves the class).

APPENDIX E – SAMPLE OF LEARNERS’ WRITTEN TASKS

