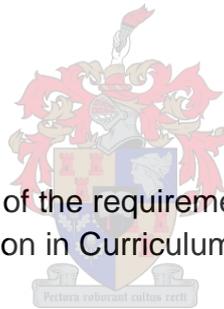


**Towards a unified curriculum for English language learners in South Africa:
Possibilities for academic language development at school level**

By

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Supervised by: Professor Christa van der Walt

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DECLARATION

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Abstract

South Africa is a diverse country in which multilingualism and bilingualism are normal occurrences. The importance of English is evident in its economic and political power, its representation of social cohesion and the global advantages it holds. Furthermore, it is seen as language of liberation. Currently, English is the preferred language of learning and teaching, attracting the highest number of learners in the National Senior Certificate examination, which means that many South African learners study through their second or even third language. South Africa's low numeracy and literacy rates, the high dropout rate and learners' struggle to meet the minimum requirements for university entrance is an indication that the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) fails to develop the academic proficiency of many South African learners.

This study problematizes the Home Language and First Additional Language distinction, and it explores the possibility of a new curriculum for English Language learners in order to develop academic language at school level. The CAPS documents for English Home Language and English First Additional Language acknowledge that, although learners should be reasonably proficient regarding interpersonal and cognitive academic skills by the time they reach Grade 10, many learners still cannot communicate well in their First Additional Language at this stage. Fundamentally, the acknowledgement means that CAPS fails to develop the academic proficiency of English learners. Furthermore, teachers are expected to continue teaching a curriculum that is failing the learners.

The main historical movements regarding second language teaching are discussed to show the incompatibility of bilingual and immersion programmes for today's South African English First Additional Language class. I discuss the basic interpersonal communication skills and cognitive academic language proficiency distinction to gain insight on learners' struggle to achieve the English academic language proficiency needed to be successful in academic learning situations. The CAPS documents for English Home Language and English First Additional Language were analysed using

directed content analysis to assess whether CAPS prepare learners for further academic study.

My research findings indicate that CAPS does not promote academic proficiency and that there is a mismatch between CAPS and learners' academic development. The two-curriculum scenario, with Home Language and First Additional Language, is found to be problematic because it does not promote academic proficiency. Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is discussed as an alternative to the two-curriculum scenario in South Africa. CLIL is found to increase learner motivation, promote language proficiency and foster multilingualism, and is beneficial for learning across the curriculum and for the social interaction of learners. Therefore, this study concludes that it is necessary that CAPS be revised and a CLIL-like curriculum be considered as an alternative curriculum to be implemented in South African schools.

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

ANA	Annual National Assessments
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
BSAE	Black South African English
CALLA	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CEMIS	Centralized Education Management Information System
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EFAL	English First Additional Language
EHL	English Home Language
ESL	English Second Language
FAL	First Additional Language
FET	Further Education and Training
GET	General Education and Training
HL	Home Language
HOD	Head of Department
LEP	Limited English Proficient
LiEP	Language in Education Policy
LOLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
LTSM	Learner and Teacher Support Material
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NEEDU	National Education and Evaluation Development Unit
NSC	National Senior Certificate
NSSF	Norms and Standards of School Funding
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SBA	School Based Assessments
SGB	School Governing Body
WCED	Western Cape Education Department

CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND, MOTIVATION AND METHODOLOGY

1.1 Introduction and Background

A new curriculum for English Language learners in South Africa? Possibilities for academic language development at school level.

As an educator with 27 years of experience in the English classroom, I have come to the conclusion that some English Home Language (EHL) and English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners struggle to transfer language competence to their other subjects, and from a teacher's perspective, it appears that learners do not comprehend what they read. The majority of learners' ability to relate to texts is not at the level necessary for managing their own studies (in other subjects) at secondary school level. This has serious repercussions for higher education or tertiary education enrolment or participation rates, the world of work and unemployment rates in South Africa.

Therefore, this study is concerned with assessing whether the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) EFAL curriculum contributes to the academic development of learners to prepare them for further education. A critical evaluation of the EFAL and EHL CAPS documents was therefore necessary to assess whether the curriculum documents fulfil the promise to develop the learners for academic learning and for the world of work.

1.2 Motivation

South Africa is a diverse country in which multilingualism and bilingualism are normal occurrences. Although African languages represent a variety of cultures, moral values and belief systems, Chetty and Mwepu (2008:333) recognise English as crucial to the government, businesses and commerce. It is also the preferred medium of instruction in most high schools and tertiary institutions.

The country's rich heritage is evident in the language and cultural diversity that exists within the borders of South Africa. South Africa's 11 official languages (Constitution, 1996:Chapter 1.6) are not the only languages spoken in the country. Languages spoken in South Africa that have not been granted official status, together with languages associated with immigrants from neighbouring countries and other countries, such as China, add to the language sphere of influence as more languages add to the complexity of the country's language situation. English plays a vital role in the structure of our society in the sense that it was chosen as the means of communication during the struggle years and now, through English, the government attempts to narrow the communication gap between different cultural and ethnic language groups. Chetty and Mwepu (2008:330) see English as an important vehicle for socio-economic cohesion and a linguistic bridge for communication amongst black South Africans in a changing society.

The Use of Official Languages Act (2012) instructs every government department to adopt a language policy and establish a language unit. One example of the importance of English in the government is the language policy of the Office of the Chief Justice (2016:8.1(a)), which recognises English as the general language of usage nationally and internationally.

The importance of English in South Africa is further emphasised in the 2001 Language Policy Framework for South African Higher Education. This document mentions that, out of the 21 universities in South Africa, 16 use English as the language of tuition and, with the exception of Stellenbosch, all former Afrikaans institutions have become parallel-medium in practice (Council on Higher Education, 2001:4). This confirms the status of English as the preferred language of higher education and the language of access and mobility and means that English at school level is crucial for admission to higher education institutions.

To be admitted to a tertiary institution in South Africa, candidates must at least have obtained 40-50% in one of the official languages of the country, provided that that language is the language of learning and teaching (LOLT) of the tertiary institution. This admission requirement by the Department of Basic Education does not guarantee

a candidate admission to the institution. Tertiary institutions have the right to set their own admission requirements to a specific higher education programme (Higher Education Act, 1997:37.4(a)). Applications to study at the University of Cape Town, for example, must be accompanied by proof of an acceptable level of English proficiency (University of Cape Town, 2013). Tertiary institutions also expect learners to write the National Benchmark Test, which is conducted in academic and quantitative literacy, as well as in mathematics. Tertiary institutions use these test results to determine the academic readiness of the learners. For some tertiary institutions, the National Benchmark Test results of the prospective student are used to accept the student for academic studies, while other institutions allow students with low National Benchmark Test scores to register with support programmes in the form of bridging courses, or to register for extended degree programmes.

Subsequently, the communicative, political, commercial and academic role of English is of utmost importance to the democracy of South Africa, and this should reflect in the curriculum offered to the learners of South Africa. In the foreword of CAPS, Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga, gives an overview of transformation in education in South Africa since 1994. She proclaims that the South African curriculum is built on the values that inspired the South African Constitution (1996), and that the curriculum has an important role to play in realising the aims of the South African Constitution.

Since the inception of the new democracy in 1994, transformation in South African education has seen the implementation of the following National Curriculum Statement (NCS) documents:

1. Curriculum 2005, implemented as Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) in 1998.
2. The Revised National Curriculum Statement Grade R-9 (RNCS), implemented from Foundation Phase in the year 2004 (Department of Education, 2002:2-6) and The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) for Grades 10-12, implemented from Grade 10 in 2006 (Pandor, s.a.).
3. The NCS, Grades R-12, comprising:

- a. The CAPS for the Foundation Phase, the Intermediate Phase, the General Education Training (GET) Phase and the Further Education and Training (FET) Phase, implemented in 2012.
- b. National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12.
- c. National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (Department of Basic Education, 2012b).

According to the RNCS, the Home Language (HL) assessment standards support the development of competence with regard to various types of literacy (reading, writing, visual and critical literacy). The First Additional Language (FAL) curriculum starts by developing learners' ability to understand and speak the language, and builds literacy until learners are able to transfer the literacy they have acquired in their HL to their FAL.

CAPS provides for HL language proficiency that reflects the mastery of interpersonal communication skills required in social situations and the cognitive academic skills essential for learning across the curriculum, with an emphasis on listening, speaking, reading and writing at this level. On the other hand, it is expected of FAL learners to be reasonably proficient in interpersonal and cognitive academic skills when they reach Grade 12, to such an extent that they are able to use their additional language at a high level of proficiency to prepare them for further or higher education, or for the world of work (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:8-9).

The question arises whether the current curricula promote the communicative, political, commercial and academic role of English. It appears that teachers doubt the success of the English curricula. Attending English meetings, whether subject meetings at school or English curriculum meetings called by the Metropole East Education District, one of the key concerns for discussion is usually learners' inability to grasp the curriculum of English. Teachers are concerned about the low proficiency levels of English second language (ESL) speakers as well as EHL learners. According to the 2011 census, the three most common languages spoken in the Western Cape are Afrikaans, isiXhosa and English (Statistics South Africa, 2012:23). I have found

that most learners in EHL classes speak either Afrikaans or isiXhosa with their peers and at home, which suggests that many learners in EHL classes are second or even third language speakers of English.

It is my view that the learners' incorrect LOLT – being taught in a language other than their home language – is one of the reasons why many learners do not reach their full academic potential. This has a negative impact on learners' lives and contributes to the already difficult circumstances in which they find themselves. My view on this is similar to Brock-Utne's (2000) finding that the inability of Basarwa children in Motokwe, Botswana, to understand the languages spoken by the teachers and the languages used as LOLT contributed to their academic challenges. The Basarwa children live in hostels while attending schools away from home. Education for these children is unsuccessful as they do not understand the official languages, Setswana and English, and Sekgalagadi, a language close to the language spoken in Motokwe, which are used as LOLTs and spoken by the teachers (Brock-Utne, 2000). Unsuccessful education for the Basarwa children has nothing to do with intellect, but with the possibility that learners have not yet developed the basic pronunciation, vocabulary and pragmatic skills needed for communicative purposes-in other words, what Cummins (2008) refers to as basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), in the LOLT.

Cummins presupposes that competence in BICS is necessary before the learner develops language skills such as comparing, analysing, classifying, synthesising, evaluating and inferring to process and make meaning of academic language, in other words, cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). The BICS/CALP distinction indicates the difference between using a language for communicative purposes and using the language for academic study; therefore, if the Basarwa children have not yet developed BICS in their LOLT, it is improbable that they have developed CALP in their medium of instruction. Haynes (2012) states that Cummins is of the opinion that the best way for learners to develop CALP in their second language is to first develop CALP in their home language. Because the Basarwa children are taught in their second language, it is also highly unlikely that they have developed CALP in their home language.

These unsuccessful educational practices of the Basarwa children coincide with the problematic distinction between HL and FAL that is highlighted by Lolwana (2006:25), who reports that, in 2003, ESL (now EFAL) attracted 80.7% of Grade 12 candidates – the largest number of candidates for a subject for that year. The academic performance of these candidates was extremely low, and the levels of achievement have not changed over the years. The academic circumstances of the ESL learners are comparable to that of the Basarwa children. Both the Basarwa children and the ESL learners are taught in a second language, both with questionable results, as the many tests of literacy and matric examination results show. Yet, it is expected of EFAL learners to use their additional language at a high level of proficiency to prepare them for further or higher education, or the world of work (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:9).

English teaching in South Africa is thus a very complex issue. Firstly, South Africa's diverse classrooms may have a negative impact on the teaching and learning as the majority of learners in the EHL classes are second language speakers and secondly, EFAL attracts a large number of matric candidates, but these candidates achieve poor results.

This argument is echoed by Brock-Utne (2000), who states that pupils might have difficulty understanding the content of various subjects when they are taught in a language other than their home language, especially if they are not yet deemed proficient in that language. She states that parents and learners erroneously believe that having a foreign language as LOLT aids the learning of that language. A lack of understanding in the classroom results in learners adopting strategies that are counter-productive to real learning.

The current distinction between *home language* and *first additional language* learners, despite the terminological change from *home* to *second* language learners, retains the two-curriculum scenario for languages by distinguishing between the skills and proficiencies to be attained by home language and first additional language speakers. As in the previous form of this curriculum, schools that offer both curricula could decide

to put 'clever' learners in the home language classes, irrespective of whether they are home language speakers of that particular language or not. As an educationalist, I can safely assume that many learners find both the EHL and EFAL curricula dreary and mind-numbing. Contrary to this, parents still prefer their children to be enrolled in EHL classes because they mistakenly believe that the EHL curriculum is superior to the EFAL curriculum and that their children would stand a better chance in life if they learn through the medium of English. Kaiser, Reyneke and Uys (2010:64) argue that the English medium of instruction, in its current form in South Africa, can be regarded a barrier to learning. The authors found no clear distinction between learning the language as a subject and using the language as a tool for learning.

The only indication of such a distinction can be seen in the NCS's exclusion of learning outcome five (Thinking and Reasoning) in the EFAL curriculum, which presumes that a person who uses a language for communicative purposes does not need to use the language to think and reason. This perception coincides with Bekisizwe's (2004:47) argument that the classroom discourse has not been successful in helping students of all cultural backgrounds to realise their educational dreams. The classroom discourse is unrepresentative of the form of language in most desegregated African public schools.

Critiques of the senior certificate for EFAL offered by Kapp and Arend (2011:13) indicate that the majority of second language speakers of English in EHL classes study through the medium of English in the same way that HL learners do, but they study the subject of English as an additional language. The home language of these learners is not their LOLT. Kapp and Arend (2011:13) allude to the difficult socio-economic circumstances of these learners and the classroom reality that teachers often have to use code-switching to compensate for the lack of proficiency of learners. This supports the assumption that learners have not yet developed BICS in English, the LOLT. However, Cummins points out that CALP is more difficult to achieve and that one needs to develop BICS before CALP in the home language. Only then can CALP be transferred to an additional language. The BICS/CALP distinction is confirmed by the EHL and EFAL CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:8, 2011c), admitting that many learners still cannot communicate well in their FAL although they are

supposed to be reasonably proficient in both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills in their FAL by the time they reach Grade 10. This means that CAPS acknowledges that many FAL learners struggle to achieve an acceptable level of BICS, and one can thus reasonably assume that developing CALP for these learners is problematic and elusive.

It is also important to disclose that, in South Africa's multicultural and multilingual classrooms, the democratic principles of the South African Constitution are challenged and tested in many ways and on multiple platforms. South African classrooms are very complex and challenge the democratic principles of our constitution in many ways. One example of this is Bekisizwe's (2004:47) conclusion that South African classroom dialogue has not been successful in helping students of all cultural backgrounds to realise their educational dreams. Bekisizwe (2004:47) further finds that the classroom discourse is unrepresentative of the form of language in most desegregated African public schools. This is contradictory to what CAPS advocates – HL proficiency that reflects the mastery of communication skills and the cognitive academic skills to learn across the curriculum.

Supporting the unsuitable nature of the current English curricula in the South African educational setting, Prinsloo (2006:188) argues that the English syllabus is constituted both as socially mobile and part of the global elite. Prinsloo (2006:188) maintains that English literary practices continue to be informed by developments in Britain and do not fall within the frame of reference of South African learners. The author refers to the broad aims of the syllabus that should generally promote pupils' intellectual, emotional and social development. The author recapitulates that English literacy practices are "cognitively demanding, while proposing an economically mobile subject as participant in the global elite" (Prinsloo, 2006:191). Prinsloo (2006:189) refers to English literature as being underpinned by a "cultural heritage" as it offers a spiritual, moral and civilising essence, and by a "personal growth approach" as it expects of learners to demonstrate knowledge, adopt a position and present a persuasive argument on a topic.

We make sense of the world around us through language and, in my professional opinion; the prescribed literature for Grade 12 may not be successful in strengthening the cultural heritage or promoting the personal growth of many South African learners. Grade 12 literature is not suitable for the South African learner of today as the chosen literature titles do not fall within the learners' frame of reference. Learners' language constraints add to their inability to develop a love and understanding for English literature. It is therefore widely understood that English literature offers very little spiritual, moral and civilising essence to the South Africa learner and, in my modest opinion, the selection of inappropriate literature may be one of the reasons why learners find it difficult to demonstrate "personal growth" in the English curricula. Selected literature for Grade 12 includes Hamlet by William Shakespeare, Othello by William Shakespeare, The Crucible by Arthur Miller, The Life of Pi by Yann Martel and The Picture of Dorian Gray by Oscar Wilde, which most learners not only find difficult to read but also cannot relate to. The poetry has a strong English influence or is politically motivated, with themes such as death, war and destruction, hence the inability of the many South African learners to relate to the literature curriculum.

Furthermore, the teaching of Afrikaans, Zulu and other African languages has been influenced by intellectual and political movements, with political and cultural implications, whereas the teaching of English has remained unaffected, with a strong British colonial influence (Prinsloo, 2006:192). This means that, while South Africa is in the process of transformation, converting itself and its citizens from a system of discrimination to a system of democratisation, the English curriculum, especially for EHL, still has a strong British colonial influence, which is not relevant for today's youth or today's learners of English.

In addition to the above, poverty levels, the lack of parental involvement, level of parental education and the economic and social inequality amongst learners in the South African classroom are factors that add to the demoralisation and demotivation of learners, their poor work ethic, and their inability to fully grasp or understand the curriculum.

I can conclude that CAPS is not very successful in realising the aims advocated by the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (Department of Education, 1997). Two of the objectives of the LiEP that are relevant to this study are: firstly, to develop learners to be full participatory members of society and the economy through equitable and meaningful access to education; and secondly, to support conceptual growth amongst learners to establish multilingualism as an approach to language in education. These two objectives of the LiEP are not met, as the EFAL CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:8) confirms that learners are not reasonably proficient in their FAL when they reach Grade 10, which means that CAPS fails to support the conceptual growth of learners to establish multilingualism. This inherently also implies that some learners do not have access to equitable and meaningful education; therefore, they cannot develop to be full participatory members of society and the economy.

Clear guidelines or implementation plans to improve learners' proficiency levels in their additional language is a matter of concern. The LiEP of 1997, CAPS and the National Language Policy Framework of 2003 promote multilingualism, but fail to provide a practical solution or a strategy on how to promote multilingualism in schools. An alternative method of teaching language and promoting multilingualism in schools must be explored if we wish to address the challenges of the current education system.

Looking beyond the South African borders, there are examples of how language teaching can be aligned with academic excellence in a language that is not generally used in the home. The language situation and the challenges in Europe are very similar to what we experience in South Africa, as Europe has approximately 80 languages, of which 24 enjoy official language status. This is besides the addition of foreign languages due to immigration.

Multilingualism and plurilingualism are of pivotal importance to European society, as language is seen as a fundamental right for enjoyment, political expression and education. This view on multilingualism is emphasised by Ján Figel', the Commissioner responsible for Education, who states that multilingualism is at the very heart of European identity, since languages are a fundamental aspect of the cultural identity of every European (Eurydice, 2006:3).

The European Commission concluded that multilingualism in Europe is a major concern as the communication gap between different cultures was identified as a major hindrance to the social and labour market. This resulted in the adoption of a policy that promotes language diversity and the expectation of European citizens to be proficient in three languages – the home language and two foreign languages (European Commission, 1995). Content and language integrated learning (CLIL), a dual-focus educational approach where content is taught through a foreign language, was identified as the most suitable approach to help European citizens to become proficient in three European languages, with the goal of developing proficiency in both the non-language subject and the language itself (Rosario & Martinez, 2011:110).

Through CLIL, students learn one or more of their school subjects in the target language. Because students do not speak or understand the target language yet, teachers have to facilitate the learning by showing students how to find information for themselves and how to work together to discover new ideas so that they can use the language as part of the process of learning. Teachers need to change their methodology to help learners to learn. CLIL does not teach BICS as outlined by Cummins, but CLIL learners are exposed to the following language that support the development of CALP (Montalto, Walter, Theodorou & Chysanthou, 2016):

- content-specific vocabulary;
- the language that needed to carry out activities during a lesson;
- functional language; and
- the sort of language that helps learners organise their thoughts and solve problems.

Whittaker, Llinares and McCabe (2011:344) state that, although CLIL programmes have only recently emerged in Europe, new schools are incorporating CLIL into their curricula, which has elicited more research on CLIL at different educational levels. This underlines the novelty of this approach to language development. CLIL involves the teaching of a curricular subject through the medium of a language other than the language normally used at home, and is an approach that uses the foreign language as a vehicle to master content subjects by integrating language teaching in the various

content subjects. Whittaker et al. (2011:344) are of the opinion that CLIL is a way to extend and enrich the input that students receive, and places students in a situation in which the use of a foreign language for communication is necessary to achieve an immediate goal.

The purpose of this study is twofold. Firstly, the study aims to critically evaluate and problematise the distinction between the current EHL and EFAL curricula. Secondly, the study aims to consider the possibilities of a single English Language curriculum to support the development of academic language proficiency at school level.

1.3 Research Question

The main research question that this study attempts to answer is: What are the possibilities of developing a single English academic language curriculum?

This question is answered by exploring the following sub-questions:

- What is the history of English language teaching curricula in South Africa?
- What alternatives to the two-curriculum scenario are offered by CLIL as implemented in selected European countries?

1.4 Research Approach and Methodology

This section describes my approach to the research, followed by the research methodology used in this study.

1.4.1 Research Approach

In this study, a qualitative research approach was followed to investigate and evaluate the policies that govern the implementation of the current English language curricula, as well as the broader South African curricula. This is a post-positivist study and the research was conducted under the critical research paradigm (Conole, 2011:62).

To answer the first sub-question, a historical study (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005) was conducted to trace the development of the two-curriculum scenario in language teaching in South Africa. The analysis of the curriculum documents from the 1970s onward was done using different theme identification methods and coding to interpret, analyse and discuss the way in which the two-curriculum scenario developed (Welman et al., 2005).

To answer the second sub-question, CALP development at school level, in the form of CLIL, was investigated in countries where it has been implemented. Content analysis (Silverman, 1993) was used to analyse reports, curriculum descriptions and academic articles from the Netherlands and Spain, as both countries have implemented different models of CLIL with great success. A directed approach to content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005:1281) was used because it is perceived as a more structured method. The directed approach uses current theory or past research in which key concepts or variables can be identified as initial coding categories. It can help researchers get clarity on the topic that is being studied as the research is growing, which often results in future naturalistic projects (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005:1283).

From a South African perspective, the CLIL approach to language development is a new area of study and a curriculum of this kind has not yet been developed and implemented. Content analysis allowed me to get clarity and information on strengths and weaknesses of the CLIL programmes as they are implemented in other countries, as well as insight into the successes and/or shortcomings of the current South African CAPS curricula.

1.4.2 Research Methodology

The subsequent chapters discuss the historical context of education in South Africa with special reference to the education of language in pre and post-democratic South Africa, and new curriculum development outside South Africa. This chapter describes the research methodology as applied in this study.

The aim of the study is to explore the possibility of developing a single English academic language curriculum. The next section explores and discusses the use of content analysis as an analytical tool to evaluate the current curriculum documents (CAPS) in South Africa.

1.5 Content Analysis

Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1277-1285) suggest the following three approaches to content analysis:

- conventional content analysis, where coding categories are derived directly from the data;
- directed content analysis, where the analysis starts with a theory or relevant research findings as guidance for initial codes; and
- summative content analysis, which involves counting and comparisons of keywords or content, followed by the interpretation of the underlying context.

In this study, directed content analysis was used as I needed to assess whether the EHL and EFAL curricula prepare the learners for further academic study. By using directed content analysis, I was able to identify and categorise themes or items that are necessary for learners to master for academic study and then determine whether the CAPS documents address those identified needs.

Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1278) believe that the goal of directed content analysis is to validate or extend a theoretical framework or theory conceptually. Existing theory or prior research is helpful in focusing on the research question. It can provide predications about the variables of interest or about the relationships amongst variables, thus helping to determine the initial coding scheme or relationships between codes.

Directed content analysis is guided by a more structured approach and the choice of method depends on the aims of the study. Coding is done via one of two methods, depending on the data and goals of the study. If the goal of the research is to identify and categorise all instances of a particular phenomenon, the researcher must read the

transcript, highlight the first impression and then code all highlighted passages using predetermined codes. Text that cannot be categorised is given a new code. Otherwise, the researcher can start with the coding immediately with the predetermined codes. Data that cannot be coded are identified and analysed, and the researcher later determines whether they represent a new code or a sub-section of a code. Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1281-1283) reiterate that the success of content analysis depends on the coding process. Categories are patterns or themes that stem from them through the analysis. With both strategies, additional codes are developed, and the initial codes are refined and revised; therefore, a directed approach to content analysis can extend or refine existing theory. Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1281-1283) issue a word of caution against starting coding immediately, as highlighting the text without coding might increase trustworthiness.

Since CAPS was introduced as recently as 2012, I was of the opinion that further research on the CAPS documents would be beneficial to determine the impact, whether positive or negative, on the education system of our country. The analysis of the CAPS documents in this research used a deductive approach to content analysis with a structured matrix; in other words, I began with predetermined keywords, categories or variables and sifted the data using these variables (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005:1281). With a structured matrix, only the aspects that fit in the matrix are chosen from the data – this is called testing categories, concept models or hypotheses. The researcher can either choose the data that fit the categorisation frame or alternatively choose the data that do not. The aspects that do not fit the predetermined categories can be used to create their own concepts.

Elo and Kyngäs (2008:111-112) state that the deductive approach is used in cases where the researcher wishes to retest existing data. Furthermore, they point out that, based on the aim of the study, a structured or unconstrained matrix of analysis can be used. In an unconstrained matrix, different categories are created following the principles of inductive content analysis (Elo & Kyngas, 2008).

1.5.1 Advantages of Content Analysis

Kondracki, Wellman and Amundson (2002:227) and Busch et al. (1994-2012) find content analysis to be a useful research method for the following reasons:

- It is possible to use retrospective data and to track changes over time.
- The costs are lower.
- Content analysis on the same subject can be useful for building a database.
- The retrospective aspect of content analysis allows it to be unobtrusive, thereby eliminating unwanted effects between subject and researcher.
- Looking directly at communication via the text or transcripts allows the researcher to get at the central aspect of social interaction.
- It allows both qualitative and quantitative operations.
- It provides valuable historical or cultural insights over time through analysis of text.
- It allows closeness to the text, which can alternate between specific categories and relationships.
- The coded form of the text can be statistically analysed.
- It can be used to interpret texts for a purpose.
- It provides insight to complex models of human thought and language use.

1.5.2 Limitations of Content Analysis

Kondracki et al. (2002:8) discuss the following concerns that the content analysts should be aware of and that is of relevance to this study:

- The content analyst should be aware that there could be limitations to the inferences drawn and the conclusions may be generalisable only to the text included in the sampling process.
- The content analyst should guard against disregarding the context that produced the text, as well be aware of the state of things after the text is produced.
- Content analysis could be labour-intensive and time-consuming.
- Content analysis can identify relationships and correlations between variables but cannot explain on its own how those relationships came to exist.

In addition to the above, Busch et al. (1994-2012) and Devi (2009) claim that content analysis is subjected to increased error, particularly when relational analysis is used to attain a higher level of interpretation. Content analysis is often devoid of theoretical base, or attempts too liberally to draw meaningful inferences about the relationships and impacts implied in a study. It is inherently reductive, particularly when dealing with complex texts. Content analysis can be difficult to automate or to computerise. To mitigate these problems, I attempted to increase the trustworthiness of my analysis, as discussed next.

1.6 Measures to Ensure Trustworthiness

In order to ensure that the findings of my research can be trusted and are believable, the steps discussed below were taken.

1.6.1 Trustworthiness

Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) point of view on trustworthiness of interpretation deals with establishing arguments for the most probable interpretations. According to their research, trustworthiness will increase if the findings are presented in a way that allows the reader to look for alternative interpretations. The analysis of the CAPS documents can be evaluated by anyone who is interested therein, as the CAPS documents are freely available. Trustworthiness is thus achieved by providing a clear description of the analytical process. Readers will be able to check the analysis and have a clear understanding of the process that was used to reach a particular conclusion.

I consulted reliable and dependable documents to increase the trustworthiness of my research, as Elo and Kyngäs (2008:112) suggest. Authentic citations should also be used to increase the trustworthiness of the research.

1.6.2 Validity

Content analysts must validate their results, whether those results are used to predict something, to inform decisions, or to help conceptualise the realities of certain individuals or groups. Brink (1993:35-38) identifies the following risks to validity and reliability: the researcher, the subjects participating in the project, the situation or social context, and the methods of data collection and analysis.

My experience of the implementation of CAPS is limited to the ordinary public school serving a poor community plagued with poverty and social evils associated with such a community. It is against this background that the research was conducted. To increase the validity of my research, I provide a detailed account of the context in which my study took place as well as a thorough description of the data that was collected and analysed (Brink, 1993:37-38).

Elo and Kyngäs (2008:112-113) explain that internal validity can be assessed as face validity or by using agreement coefficients, where each researcher interprets data subjectively and which subsequently means that co-researchers could come up with alternative interpretations. Although I did not do this, I have many years of experience teaching the subject and I support my findings with reference to the literature.

Questions and observations of peers' scrutiny (Shenton, 2004:67) could make allowances to challenge assumptions and findings by the researcher, which may enable the researcher to refine the research methods, develop a greater explanation of the research design and strengthen arguments in light of the comments made. The findings of my analysis of the CAPS document were presented to my colleagues for comment and for an objective critique of my analysis.

1.6.3 Creating Categories

Elo and Kyngäs (2008:112) are of the opinion that creating categories during the analytical process is an empirical and theoretical challenge, as the classifications should be conceptually and empirically grounded. The content analyst needs to

simplify and form categories that reflect the subject of study in a reliable manner. To increase reliability, it is necessary to demonstrate a link between the results and the data. Consequently, the researcher must aim to describe the analysis process in detail when reporting the results.

In the analysis of CAPS, the implementation of the curriculum as well as the external factors that may affect the implementation of CAPS are under scrutiny, as presented in Chapter 4.

1.6.4 Credibility

Credibility, or how consistent the findings are with reality, is seen as an important factor in establishing trustworthiness. Researchers (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008:107-115; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004:105-112; Shenton, 2004:64-69) discuss provisions that can be made to promote confidence that the phenomenon under scrutiny, the analysis of CAPS in this research, has been recorded accurately.

The following provisions were made to enhance credibility of this research:

- Firstly, Graneheim and Lundman (2004:109-110) state that the credibility of the research deals with how well the categories or themes cover the data. In this study, all data were checked and rechecked to ensure that the themes cover the data and that the unintentional loss of data, systematically excluded data or the inclusion of irrelevant data was avoided.
- Secondly, as Shenton (2004:67) suggests, a copy of the findings of my analysis was given to my peers to check for accuracy and how soundly the data and the process of analysis address the intended focus of my research.
- Thirdly, as Shenton (2004:68) further suggests, I evaluated and reflected on the project as it developed and recorded my initial impressions of each data collection session and the patterns appearing to emerge in the data collected. In addition, I provide a profuse description of CAPS (see Chapter 4) to ensure that the actual situation and the context surrounding CAPS implementation are understood.

1.6.5 Transferability

Shenton (2004:69) and Graneheim and Lundman (2004:109-110) refer to transferability as the extent to which the findings can be transferred to other settings or groups. Information should be available, and the researcher should give a clear description of the context, selection and characteristics of the participants, data collection and process of analysis before transference can be made. Demonstrations of the reliability of the findings and interpretations are needed to enable someone else to follow the process and procedures of the analysis. Chapter 4 gives a clear and distinct description of the context, data collection and process of analysis to permit interested readers to identify with the findings of the research and to apply the findings in their own classrooms.

1.6.6 Dependability

Shenton (2004:71) concludes that, to address dependability, the processes within the study should be reported on in detail to enable a future researcher to repeat the study. This is echoed by Graneheim and Lundman (2004:110), who allude to dependability as a means to consider factors of instability, and phenomenal or design-induced changes – that is, the degree to which the data change over time and alterations are made in the researcher's decisions during the analysis process.

Brink's (1993) view is similar to the previous authors', stating that reliability in content analysis refers to the stability of data, or the tendency for coders to re-code the same data consistently in the same way over a period. Reproducibility refers to the tendency for a group of coders to classify membership of categories in the same way, or the extent to which the classification of a text statistically corresponds to a standard or norm. This requires that researchers using the same or comparable methods obtain the same or comparable results every time they use the methods on the same or comparable subjects.

1.7 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to contextualise the second language scenario in the South African classroom. Consequently, the chapter focused on the language situation in South Africa and the current educational policies in place to promote multilingualism as stipulated in the South African Constitution and the South African Schools Act (1996). As an educator, I see the impact of these policies on the ordinary South African child in the ordinary South African classroom. For that reason, this chapter was concerned with the possibility of developing a single English curriculum – thus discarding the HL and FAL distinction. This chapter also described the research approach and content analysis as research methodology to investigate this problem.

CHAPTER 2: ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 Introduction

It is universally known and accepted that education is a means to influence the discourse of something, whether the expected outcome is deliberate or unintended. Hartshorne (1992:186) is of the opinion that language education is never neutral – it is a means to promote the beliefs and supremacy of the government – and that language policies for education are highly charged political issues and seldom decided on educational grounds alone. A reference is made to South Africa, where decisions have to do with issues of political dominance, the protection of power structures, the preservation of privilege and the distribution of economic resources (Hartshorne, 1992:186-187).

This study aims to investigate language policy, particularly the problematic distinction between EHL and EFAL, within the South African context and to look at the possibility of developing a single English academic language curriculum that will prepare South African learners for academic learning and for the global market.

South Africa is a multilingual and multiracial country. Current educational policies envision embracing our differences, with English as the common language that forms the basis for our dialogue. This vital role of English is further strengthened by the fact that most learners use English mainly for academic and professional purposes. Challenges with the intended outcomes of the current English curricula, the learning accomplished by learners, and whether these achievements are sufficient to continue tertiary studies and to survive in the global economy are areas of concern for most professionals.

In this chapter, the history of language education is contextualised by discussing the impact policies has on language education. I deliberate on education before, during and after the apartheid era from the perspective of the role of language in education, English in particular.

2.2 History of South African Language Education

Both Hartshorne (1992) and Kallaway (2002) emphasise the importance of the history of language education in South Africa to the educational community and policymakers. It is evident that past educational policies in South Africa promoted ideologies of the minority government, regardless of whether was in the best interest of learners or in the best interest of the entire nation. For example, colonial education protected the interests and language of the British, while Christian National Education, based on racial segregation, promoted the apartheid system under the National Party that favoured white, Afrikaans-speaking South Africans. Afrikaans was the language of the oppressor during apartheid. Although English was the language used by the missionaries to marginalise black people, it placed South Africa in a position to identify with the developments of the rest of the world. In addition, English played an important role in the struggle for freedom, as it was the language used to communicate the plight of non-white South African people to the outside world.

South Africa has a multifaceted history and, like Kallaway (2002:6) rightfully states, the decisions of policymakers and academics are not entirely their own, but depend on a host of complex factors. He argues that the theory of education was important for the apartheid social policy, especially in the 1950s and 1980s when it represented a flagship of policy reform.

2.3 Education before Apartheid: English Colonial Education

Colonisation brought with it western values, new cultures and religions. It led to the existence of mixed races, and the emergence of new languages such as Afrikaans. The role of English, a language introduced by colonisation, cannot be underestimated, as it was the language through which people were marginalised and exploited – as discussed below.

2.3.1 The Missionary Period: Pre-1910

Workers' English emerged from the contact between various English dialects and Dutch. More formal English, which formed the basis for the aspiring middle class, developed with the second arrival of British Settlers in South Africa (Gough, 1996). This global language became a language of dominance and power that altered the reality of black people in South Africa at the time.

The egotistical nature of the Settlers can be detected from the fact that, although they placed a high priority on education, they were only interested in educating their own children. Educating black people, to them, would spoil them and give them ideas above their station in life (Hartshorne, 1992:189). The government differentiated between cognitive skills and manual skills. Black children had to fulfil the menial-skills positions in the economy and were not allowed to do jobs that involved cognitive skills. In order to ensure that the capitalistic needs of the government were met, white learners were prepared to dominate black people. Mission schools were under-resourced, teachers were poorly paid and parents had to pay school fees; therefore, very few black children attended school (De Waal, 2004:33-34).

The exploitation of black people resulted in them doing menial and agricultural work. In addition, the industrial revolution and the discovery of diamonds increased the economic and political power of English, hence the importance for black people to understand English to survive in an unkind and hostile world. Black people learnt to speak English, providing that their knowledge of English did not advance their own needs and that they kept their stations. Missionaries believed that black people had the potential for spiritual and intellectual improvement but were prejudiced towards their traditions, culture and languages. Black people had to be transformed from their sinful environment; therefore, education was intended to provide salvation for black people from themselves (Hartshorne, 1992:182). The education of black people alienated them from their own culture and traditions. Through English, the language of the oppressor, black people were converted to Christianity – the very same religion that the white Afrikaner National Party used to tyrannise, oppress and to coerce them to accept an ideology that would be detrimental to their existence.

In an attempt to achieve Anglicisation, grants were only available to schools which offered English as the LOLT. Furthermore, the increased use of English in the judicial system and its exclusive use in Parliament since 1853 legally placed English speakers at an unfair advantage to the speakers of indigenous languages of the country (Hartshorne, 1992:189).

2.3.2 The Time of the Union: 1910-1948

In 1910, English and Dutch, together with a biased interpretation of Christianity as theological justification for Afrikaner supremacy and identity, formed the foundation of the apartheid ideology. Colonisation instilled racism, turned ethnic groups against one another and classified militant or more outspoken people as anti-white. Colonisation was negative and oppressive, and exploited the African people. Consequently, colonial policies resulted in the growth of African unhappiness, forced labour and over-taxation, while land alienation, racial discrimination and the forced growth of cash crops resulted in African people hating their masters.

Educating Africans made easy communication possible between the Africans and their white masters. The Africans' forced participation in World War 1 and 2 equipped them with the skills to use guns and, at the same time, the military weaknesses of the white people were exposed. The realisation that white people did not have super powers liberated black people; however, black education was antagonistic because it promoted Christianity, imported western values and raised productivity without empowering black people to challenge colonial rule. The adverse effect of colonial or mission education was that it equipped Africans with the skills to articulate and debate demands as well as to question the legitimacy of colonial rule. Colonial oppression created a shared identity amongst Africans with a collective desire to maintain own cultural, social and political values.

Until 1948, the vernacular (dialect) language was encouraged as LOLT for the first six years of education, after which, English, the official language and a prerequisite for state-aided education, was used. English-speaking missionaries involved with black

education, the availability of resources and difficulties with terminology in African languages contributed to the substandard education of black children. The decision to implement Afrikaans as LOLT was not accepted as a sound educational practice, as learners realised that it would be detrimental to their future should this practice be allowed to be implemented.

2.4 Education under Apartheid

Education under the apartheid government was biased, and again language was an important tool used to achieve the government's political and educational goals. Yet again, English played an important role in realising the political and educational aspirations of the apartheid government.

2.4.1 The Eiselen Report

The apprehension of the National Party government towards missionary schools and their inconsequential view of black children's education resulted in the founding of the Eiselen Commission in 1949, which supported apartheid theories. The Eiselen Commission report of 1951 resulted in the promulgation of the Bantu Education Act of 1953 (Booyse, 2011:240), which influenced the way education, of black children in particular, was structured during the apartheid era.

Home language education was encouraged and the Eiselen Commission recommended that the compulsory first official language be introduced in second year of schooling, with the optional second official language being introduced no later than fourth year of school. However, the Bantu Education Act of 1953, which aimed to reduce the influence of English, stipulated that Bantu children should receive home language education in their first six years of schooling and later a transition to English and Afrikaans should occur. Missionary schools either closed down or were placed under state control under white, Afrikaner Nationalist principals and teachers who were committed to the ideologies of apartheid and Christian National Education. Serving teachers had five years in which they could make themselves competent in Afrikaans. This resulted in Afrikaans becoming a dominant language in black education,

especially at the level of management, control, administration and teacher training (Hartshorne, 1992:197).

The objective of the government was to promote Afrikaans to a language of power and prestige. The government was concerned with protecting and expanding the influence of Afrikaans. Therefore, the recommendations of the Eiselen report were problematic as the fear was that, if they were followed, English would become the language of choice. This would result in Afrikaans being the second official language (the third language), which would then only be introduced in the fourth year of schooling. The fear of the degrading of Afrikaans to a third language resulted in the implementation of both English and Afrikaans in the first year of secondary school as language media for transferring from the home language instruction (Hartshorne, 1992:196-197).

Rakometsi (2008:49-50) argues that the Eiselen Commission operated on the principle of distinction between white and black education; therefore, it can be said that it formed the basis of apartheid education. Rakometsi (2008:49-50) alludes to the De Villiers Commission of 1948 on Technical and Vocational Training, which allowed equal education for all races with said consideration to background, environment and educational opportunities. However, only certain categories of jobs were available for black people, therefore the purpose of black education was to establish a reserved workers' class labour market.

Booyse (2011:241) explains that low-quality education in line with the ideology of "separate development" resulted in black people's education being centralised in a separate education department, but under the aegis of central government. The aim was to enhance the status of black people by allowing black communities to flourish in their own way, each with their own culture. The acquisition of the techniques of reading, writing and arithmetic were accentuated in Sub-Standard A to Standard 2. Up to Standard 6, two classes were established: an academic class, which provided an open door to university entrance, and a vocational class, which was aimed at teacher training programmes or technical training at post-matric level. Strong emphasis was placed on subjects such as agricultural studies, woodworking and religious education (Booyse, 2011:241).

It is the perspective of Rakometsi (2008:50) that the recommendations of the Eiselen Commission validated the findings of the Christian National Education, which provided academic rationalisation in support of the theories of apartheid and resulted in the adoption of Dr Verwoerd's implementation of the Bantu Education Act of 1953.

2.4.2 Education: 1948-1994

Between 1948 and 1994, South African education, which was based on racial segregation, was governed by the following: the Education for Indians Act of 1969, the Coloured Persons Education Act of 1965, the Christian National Education Act of 1962 for white South Africans, and the Bantu Education Act of 1953 (which later became the Education and Training Act of 1979).

As explained by Hartshorne (1992:186), education promotes philosophies, religious beliefs, ideas about the state and society (in particular the place of the individual), political ideologies and the working of economic forces in line with the dominant political ideology of the day. Education, language education in particular, thus coincides with the ideological aspirations of the government at the time. For Singh (2009:130), this is evident in the disparity in the South African educational system at the time, where Afrikaner domination saw a rivalry between the English and Afrikaans languages for dominance.

Education not only sanctioned the supremacy of white people but also secured black people's dependency on the government and their compliance to white ideologies. In fact, the well-being, academic ability and success of black people were never a priority for the government; therefore, the substandard education they received motivated them to protest against their oppressors. One can thus conclude that the state's patronising attitude and the egotistical nature of the missionaries are synonymous.

The white settlers, who desired superiority and the National Party Government, who was supposed to protect and serve their people, discriminated against non-white

South Africans. Language education in both cases played a key role in the survival and protection of the policies at the time.

To maintain and promote the white supremacy and to reduce the influence of English, the Afrikaans language, together with English, was instituted as the LOLT. Black teachers were forced to teach in Afrikaans, a language in which they themselves were not competent. Hartshorne (1992:197) refers to the fact that black teachers were given five years to become competent in Afrikaans. The government and the pupils understood the enormous implications of receiving tuition in a language other than one's home language. This resulted in a peaceful march of between 3 000 and 10 000 students on June 16, 1976 in Soweto, which turned violent with an unofficial death toll of 200 (South African History Online, 2013).

After the establishment of the Republic of South Africa in 1961, African languages continued to have no official status. English, together with the African languages of the regions, was used in the Independent Homelands as the official language of the authorities, rather than Afrikaans (Hartshorne, 1992).

With the adoption of a new constitution in 1984, and to maintain segregated education for non-whites, the education of white, coloured and Indian children was vested in the legislatures of the Houses of Assembly, Representatives and Delegates. However, education for black people remained under the Education and Training Act of 1979. The Department of Education and Training was responsible for the education of black people residing in white areas. Homelands and self-governing states were responsible for their own education. Under the General Education and Training Act 76 of 1984, the Department of National Education was established to regulate a policy framework in which education could be provided. Indian children attended coloured schools in areas where there were no Indian schools. Booyse (2011:230-239) found that Indian schools were more successful in contrast to coloured schools, which also disappointingly saw a high dropout rate.

2.5 Education after Apartheid

South Africa has a history of slavery and oppression and, for South Africans, democracy meant freedom from mental slavery. The policies that kept the missionaries in control of the indigenous people of South Africa and kept the apartheid government in power had to be re-written to erase and eradicate the mental and psychological problems that they had created, not only for individuals, but also for the nation. The indoctrination of South Africans as well as the economic and political imbalances that transpired from years of political, economic and social abuse had to be addressed by implementing sound educational policies. Needless to say, educational policies in post-apartheid South Africa have played an integral part in redressing the social challenges, poverty, illiteracy and educational challenges the nation experienced.

Statistics South Africa (2012) indicates that, in 1996, 77% of the people living in South Africa were classified as African people, 10.9% as white people, 6% as coloured people and only 3% as Asian or Indian people. These statistics show a slight increase in the number of black people to 79.2% in 2011, while the number of white people decreased slightly to 8.7%. The number of Asian and Indian people remained unchanged for the said periods (Statistics South Africa, 2012:9). These statistics are fundamental to redressing the inequalities of the past, as they emphasise the enormity of the challenge faced by the post-apartheid government.

The language structure in South Africa has undergone a major transformation after the inception of democracy. Gough (1996) alludes to the census 1991 report that indicated a general shift towards English amongst all the ethnic groups in South Africa. Eighty-nine percent of white people, 51% of coloured people and 99% of the South African Asian community indicated that they had a speaking knowledge of English (Gough, 1996). Although the 2011 census (Statistics South Africa, 2012) indicates a shift towards English, De Klerk (2003) criticises these statistics and is of the opinion that, in the South African context, it is problematic to gather information as census statistics could be compromised for many reasons. One reason worth mentioning is the geographical locations of some townships, as many South Africans live in rural

areas that are inaccessible by road. In these cases, the use of English may not be the same as in urban settings. Furthermore, illiteracy amongst many South Africans jeopardises the validity of statistics gathered by the census. Both De Klerk (2003) and Gough (1996) acknowledge that the establishment of English in South African society has resulted in the development of other varieties of English. De Klerk (2003) defines Black South African English (BSAE) as the variety of English commonly used by home language speakers of indigenous African languages in areas where English is not the home language of the majority of the people, but the language is used for intra-regional communication.

Many South Africans use English in an informal context and, for many, English is only a communication tool. Learners are often only exposed to English in the classroom setting. It is also true that many learners do not complete their schooling, as the dropout rate in South African public schools is very high. Hartnack (2017:1) states that most school dropouts in South Africa occur in Grades 10 and 11, with 50% of learners dropping out before reaching Grade 12. The author also refers to the even more worrying 2013 NCS statistics, which indicate that only 40% of learners, who had started school 12 years before, passed matric. The question is how long learners must have formal education in English to be regarded as speakers of BSAE. De Klerk (2003) is of the opinion that the existence of a single variety of BSAE is highly unlikely. BSAE is often used with the vernacular in the same conversation (De Klerk, 2003). Thus, De Klerk finds it improbable that census statistics are a true reflection of the number of English users in South Africa.

After 1994, with the need to prepare white schools for the transition to democracy, Model A, B and C schools were established and subsequently subsidised by the government. Model B and C schools could admit 50% non-white learners. Only parents who could afford the school fees would send their children to these schools, now commonly known as ex-model C schools. These schools relied on the school fees of rich communities and rich parents. They therefore violated the equality clause of the South African Constitution because high school fees were used as means to exclude black learners who could not afford school fees (Roithmaye, 2002). However, the South African Schools Act (1996) promotes equality and non-discrimination, which has

led to all schools, especially ex-model C schools, becoming more accessible to learners of colour.

A number of national policies form a framework that has acted as the basis of educational transformation since the start of democratic South Africa in 1994.

2.5.1 The South African Constitution

The South African Constitution (1996) requires that education be transformed and democratised in accordance with the values of human dignity, equality, human rights, freedom, non-racism and non-sexism. The Constitution guarantees access to basic education for all under the provision that everybody has a right to basic education, including adult basic education.

The South African Constitution advocates equality and states that everyone has the right to use language and participate in the cultural life of their choice, but no one exercising these rights may do so in a manner inconsistent with any provisions of the Bill of Rights (Constitution, 1996:Chapter 2). Section 6 of the Bill of Rights states that the Minister of Education may determine the language policy in schools. The language policy of a school is subject to the South African Constitution and the Bill of Rights, and determining such a policy for a school is a function that is given to the duly elected school governing body (SGB) of the school.

2.5.2 The National Education Policy Act

The National Education Policy Act (1996) was designed to inscribe in law the policy, legislative and monitoring responsibilities of the Minister of Education and to formalise the relations between national and provincial authorities. It established the Council of Education Ministers and the Heads of Education Departments Committee as inter-governmental forums to collaborate in building the new system. Additionally, it provides for the determination of national policies in general and further education and training for, amongst others, curriculum, assessment, language policy and quality assurance.

2.5.3 The South African Schools Act

The South African Schools Act (1996) promotes access, quality and democratic governance in the schooling system. Schooling is compulsory for all children aged seven to 14. Under the apartheid government, education was not compulsory for black African children. The previous different departments of education were dissolved and one education system, governed by the South African Schools Act (1996), was established. Two types of schools were identified: independent schools and public schools.

Democratic school governance is promoted through democratically elected SGBs, which must provide the framework and resources for schools to ensure that quality teaching and learning take place. The SGB, consisting of parents, teachers and non-teaching staff, is the custodian of the South African Schools Act (1996). It has the responsibility, together with the provincial education department, to put in place a coherent framework of policies, including a language policy, that does not violate the constitutional rights of learners, within which the school must operate (Clarke, 2009:17, 30, 40-41).

2.5.4 Language in Education Policy of 1997

The LiEP (Department of Education, 1997) advocates the following:

- To promote full participation in society and the economy through equitable and meaningful access to education.
- To pursue the language policy most supportive of the general conceptual growth amongst learners, and hence to establish additive multilingualism as an approach to language education.
- To promote and develop all the official languages.
- To support the teaching and learning of all other languages required by learners or by communities in South Africa, including languages used for religious purposes, languages that are important for international trade and

communication, and South African Sign Language, as well as alternative and argumentative education.

- To counter disadvantages resulting from different kinds of mismatches between home languages and LOLTs.
- To develop programmes for the redress of previously disadvantaged languages.

The Constitution (1996: Chapter 2) stipulates that all individuals have the right to use a language of their choice and that multilingualism has become a global norm. The LiEP of 1997 aims to develop all 11 official languages of South Africa and it promotes the notion that all of South Africa's official languages should be treated with equal respect. The aim of the policy is to ensure that individuals can exercise their right to use the language of their choice as stipulated in the Constitution (1996), thus giving parents the option to choose a LOLT within the framework of the educational system. The LiEP promotes full participation in society and the economy, and therefore supports conceptual growth to establish multilingualism.

It is important to note that one of the goals of this policy is to counter disadvantages resulting from the discrepancy between the home language and the LOLT. Multilingualism can be achieved by learning through one's home language and having additional languages as subjects, or it can be achieved by structured bilingual programmes that can be found in dual-medium schools, which are also known as two-way immersion programmes. The Department of Education has accepted an additive approach to bilingualism as the normal orientation to the LiEP. An additive approach contributes to the enrichment of learners' lives without the loss of the mother language, which is contrary to what I am experiencing at school level. Learners in the EHL classes are home language speakers of languages such as Afrikaans, isiXhosa, Zulu, Sotho and even French (with the influx of foreigners into the schools). We find that learners speak their home languages on the playground, where they are used for communicative purposes only.

With regard to the status of the official languages in South Africa schools, the policy states that all learners in Grades 1 and 2 must take one approved language, and from

Grade 3 onwards, learners must take their LOLT and at least one additional language as subjects. Promotion in Grades 1 to 4 is dependent on Language and Mathematics marks, and it is compulsory for Grade 5 to 7 learners to pass one language. In Grades 10-12, learners have to pass both their languages – the HL with 40% and the FAL with 30% (Department of Education, 1997).

With the implementation of CAPS in Grade 10 in 2012, Grade 11 in 2013 and Grades 8, 9 and 12 in 2014, the pass requirements have changed significantly for Grade 8 and 9 learners. The Department of Basic Education has raised the bar and learners now need to pass both languages, the HL with a minimum of 50% (Level 4) and the FAL with a minimum of 40% (Level 3). The School Based Assessment (SBA) mark for Grades 8 and 9 counts for 40% of the final mark, while the final examination mark counts for 60%. For Grades 10 and 11, the SBA mark counts 25% and the final examination mark counts 75%. In Grade 12, one of the pass requirements is that learners must pass their HL with at least 40% (Department of Basic Education, 2012a).

2.5.5 The Norms and Standards for School Funding

The Norms and Standards for School Funding (NSSF) (Department of Education, 1998) prioritise redress and target poverty in funding allocations to the public schooling system. In 1979, education was not compulsory for black children and the teacher-pupil ratio for black children was 1:47.6 compared to 1:19.6 for white children. The annual expenditure per learner in 1979 was R640.00 per learner for white children as opposed to R54.08 for black children. The norms and standards for school funding attempt to address the inequalities and discrepancies that existed in the previous educational dispensation.

All public schools in South Africa are ranked into one of five categories, called quintiles. These rankings are determined according to the poverty index of the community within which the school is located, with Quintile 1 schools being the poorest and Quintile 5 the least poor. The ranking system only considers the physical location of the school and does not take learner demographics into account. These rankings are of outmost

importance because a school's norms and standards for school funding are dependent on the quintile ranking of the school (Giese, Zide, Koch & Hall, 2009:34).

Quintile rankings are not always accurate, as they do not take into account the transformation of societies and change in learner demographics. Furthermore, once classified, it is very difficult for schools to overturn their ratings. However, the National Targets as well as the National Poverty Distribution Table have been updated (Department of Basic Education, 2016c). Furthermore, all learners in Quintile 1-3 schools were declared no fee-paying schools for 2016 and the Provincial Education Department may offer Quintile 4 and 5 schools no-fees status at the threshold of R1 316 (for the 2018 financial year) per learner, if funds are available.

For the 2018 financial year, Quintile 4 fee-paying schools received R660 per learner, as opposed to the meagre R228 that is allocated per learner in Quintile 5 fee-paying schools. The NSSF is very prescriptive about how the money must be spent – schools have to spend 30% of the funds on Learner Teacher Support Material (LTSM), 25% on municipal services, 25% on maintenance and 20% on local purchases. The department expects all learners to have textbooks for every subject, and shortfalls and other expenses must be covered from school fees (Schreuder, 2017).

Schools are also classified as Section 21 or Section 20 schools. Section 21 schools' funds are paid into their bank accounts and these schools are tasked with managing their own funds. With Section 20 schools, the allocated funds per learner are not paid to these schools directly but are managed by the Department of Basic Education.

At any given school, it is compulsory to inform parents that they have the option, if they qualify, for exemption or partial exemption of school fees. This has a significant financial implication for schools, especially schools that serve poverty-stricken communities. This policy, together with the admission policy of the Department of Basic Education and the school, prevents schools from discriminating against those learners who come from poor socio-economic backgrounds.

All schools received CAPS textbooks for all the grades. Textbooks were supplied according to the Centralised Education Management Information System (CEMIS) learner totals at the time at which the textbook orders were placed. Any shortfalls due to increase in the learner totals or the loss of already supplied books have to be covered by the school. Furthermore, Life Orientation books, core readers, novels and literature books have to be covered from the school's NSSF (Vinjevold, 2012, 2013).

The education system in the new democratic South Africa has seen a considerable improvement in the qualifications of educators, with the proportion of under-qualified and unqualified educators reduced from 36% in 1994 to 26% in 1998 by means of in-service or upgrading programmes. Educators have been redistributed, through redeployment and post provisioning strategies, to areas of greatest need (Department of Education, 2005). The government also reports an improvement in learner to teacher ratio from 43:1 in 1996, to 33:1 in 2000, to 30:1 in 2012 (Presidency, 2014).

2.6 Initiatives to Encourage Transformation

Various initiatives have been launched to support and encourage transformation to build an equal, non-racial and democratic society. This section refers to initiatives such as Tirisano, Batho-Pele principles and inclusive education that aim to demonstrate transparency, build confidence and build trust in the democratic country.

2.6.1 Tirisano

Tirisano, which means working together, was the action plan implemented by Kadar Asmal, Minister of Education, in January 2000. Tirisano aimed to develop the education and training system to a fully-functional, vibrant further education and training system that would grasp the intellectual and professional challenges and equip South Africans to meet the social and economic needs of the 21st century (Department of Education, 2001a).

Tirisano identified nine strategic priorities, two of which dealt with education. Firstly, Adult Basic Education and Training centres had to be established across the country

in an attempt to clear the backlog of illiteracy amongst learners and adults. Secondly, it attempted to ensure active learning to assure the success of the implementation of OBE (Department of Education, 2001a). To meet the objectives of the 21st century educational system, massive social mobilisation of parents, learners, educators, community leaders, non-governmental organisations, the private sector and the international community was needed. All these stakeholders had to be motivated by a shared vision and have the best interest of South Africa at heart. Unfortunately, school officials and academics report that a lack of parental involvement is one of the major challenges schools experience, which contributed to the failing of OBE (Department of Education, 2001a).

2.6.2 Batho-Pele Principles

The Batho-Pele strategy, based on eight national principles, was implemented to improve service delivery and accountability through setting of service standards by all government departments, non-governmental organisations, community-based organisations and the public sector. This strategy calls for national and provincial departments to publish standards for the level and quality of services they provide. In the case of certain services, such as health or education, the national departments, in consultation with provincial departments, may set standards, which will serve as national baseline standards. Individual provinces may then set their own standards, provided that these standards meet or exceed the national baselines. The focus of the government is to create a high-quality education system that is characterised by accountability, transparency and efficiency (Department of Public Service and Administration, 1997).

2.6.3 Inclusive Education

The South Africa government realised that, as a direct result of apartheid policies that allocated facilities on a racial basis, there is a mismatch between needs and provision for learners with special needs (Department of Education, 2001b:14). Therefore, White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education of 2001, which deals with inclusivity, promotes the accommodation of learners with special needs in public schools.

This policy makes provision for the inclusion of learners with different abilities and disabilities in mainstream schooling. It encourages teachers to incorporate learner barriers in their planning, teaching and assessment. This policy acknowledges that all children and youth can learn and that all children and youth need support (Department of Education, 2001b:6). This policy allows for learners to be placed in schools according to their learning challenges. According to the policy, learners who require low-intensity support must receive tuition in ordinary schools, learners who require moderate support will receive this support in full-service schools, whereas learners who require high-intensity educational support will continue to receive such support in special schools (Department of Education, 2001b:15).

The Specialised Learner and Educator Support units of each education district are responsible for placing learners correctly at appropriate institutions. It is my experience that the Specialised Learner and Educator Support units are unable to place all the learners with learning disabilities at appropriate schools for various reasons, such as staff shortages and a shortage of specialised schools. What is even more problematic is that too many learners with learning disabilities are not identified at primary school level and these learners end up in high schools where they cannot cope with the already overwhelming curriculum.

The Department of Education (2001b:20) states:

The most important way of addressing barriers arising from the curriculum is to make sure that the process of learning and teaching is flexible enough to accommodate different learning needs and styles. The curriculum must therefore be made more flexible across all bands of education so that it is accessible to all learners, irrespective of their learning needs.

On paper, this policy seems as though it acts in the best interest of the learner, but it does not. An inflexible curriculum, inappropriate LOLT and assessment methods are some of the curriculum and institutional barriers that may require different learning needs. To overcome these barriers, inclusive education advocates for the respect of

differences and requires schools to build on the similarities that exist within the school system. Multi-level instruction, which supports cooperative learning, is encouraged. Notably, schools are expected to develop the educators to deal with these barriers (Department of Education, 2001b), which adds to difficulties in curriculum implementation. Although this is an accepted policy within government, the implementation thereof is problematic.

The policy does not take into account classroom spaces and class sizes, or the resources available to the school. Currently, the teacher-learner ratio is 1:35 but, in reality, the class sizes in ordinary public high schools are as high as 50 learners per class. In addition, teachers in South Africa are trained in a particular of field interest; they are not all experts in dealing with learning barriers or learning difficulties, and the policy of inclusive education expects them to address the challenges and difficulties learners experience, which they are not equipped to do. Teachers have to be re-trained to deal with the different learner needs and most public schools do not have the infrastructure and the resources to deal with learners with special needs.

In my humble opinion, I feel that White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education and the language situation in South Africa add to the frustration of teachers and learners. The inability of learners to cope add to discipline problems and the ultimate failure of the curriculum implementation.

2.7 Curriculum Systems

In this section, curriculum systems after apartheid are discussed, as the newly founded democracy necessitated transformation in education. The following curricula have been implemented since the commencement of democracy in South Africa: OBE, RCNS and CAPS.

2.7.1 Outcomes-Based Education

In South Africa, the transition to democracy warranted radical change in the educational sector. South Africa's colonial past and apartheid policies resulted in the

uneven distribution of wealth, intellect and power. The segregationist ideologies implemented prior to 1994 indoctrinated people into accepting that one racial group was stationed above the other. Therefore, with the inception of democracy, a new educational system had to be introduced to redress the inequalities created by the separate education systems that existed during apartheid. After 1994, OBE was implemented as Curriculum 2005, which was later reviewed and implemented as RNCS. Malcolm (2001) argues that the rationale for the selection of an outcomes-based approach to education in South Africa was to promote democracy, improve equity and distribution of opportunities, and to emphasise competencies, creativity, self-management and teamwork.

OBE defines learning as what students can demonstrate that they know. Instead of specific content requirements, an OBE curriculum is derived from a set of broad, visionary goals designed to enable students to lead effective lives after they leave school. OBE aimed to democratise education and to eliminate the inequalities of the post-apartheid education. It focuses on values rather than skills. OBE is based on three principles: clarity of focus, expanded opportunities and high expectation of learners. OBE assumes that all learners can learn (Jansen, 1998).

In Spady's (1994:1) words:

Outcome-Based Education means clearly focusing and organizing everything in an educational system around what is essential for all students to be able to do successfully at the end of their learning experiences.

This means starting with a clear picture of what is important for students to be able to do, then organising the curriculum, instruction and assessment to make sure this learning ultimately happens (Spady, 1994:1). Such an approach presupposes that someone can determine what things are “essential that all students will be able to do”, and that it is possible to achieve these things through an appropriate organisation of the education system and through appropriate classroom practices.

Academics such as McNeir (1993:2) find OBE to be promising in principle, as he explains that OBE is derived from a set of broad visionary goals designed to enable students to lead effective lives after they leave school. It allows learners to demonstrate what they know, and thus encourages learners to change the way that they think and act. However, the reality in the South Africa classroom raised concerns from various educationalists who offered critique on the implementation of OBE in South Africa and encouraged discussions around the viability of OBE implementation in South Africa.

Jansen (1998) posed questions such as whether the outcomes in OBE can deliver what they claim, or how the outcomes play out in a resource-poor context and whether outcomes in different contexts mean the same thing. Jansen was of the opinion that OBE would fail, not because the politicians and bureaucrats were misinformed about the conditions of South African schooling, but because of the policy of OBE that was driven by imperatives, which had little to do with the realities of the classroom life.

Jansen (1998) identified 10 reasons why OBE would fail in South Africa. For the purpose of this paper, I focus only on the reason that deals with the classroom reality. Jansen mentions that the complexity of the language structures contributed to the failure of OBE implementation. It was expected of teachers to come to terms with more than 50 different concepts and labels. Most serving educators did not receive their teacher training in OBE methods and were set in their teaching ways. This consequently required educators to develop professionally to give OBE policies meaning through their classroom practices.

In addition to the classroom reality, very little support is available to teachers after they have been trained; it is just expected of them to implement what they have learnt. Plüddemann, Mati and Mahlalela-Thusi (1998) point to teachers' frustration with OBE because of the mixed messages, inadequate support of curriculum advisors, lack of LTSM and inadequate in-service training teachers received. They also allude to language barriers, which result in a communication breakdown between the learner and the teacher.

Knowledge transference and teacher training are also areas of concern. The Department of Basic Education makes use of the cascade model, where a cohort of teachers are trained on a particular topic, a new system or just for support. Once proficient, they become the teachers who train the second cohort of teachers. This training model resulted in teachers having different understandings of OBE. Dichaba and Mokhele (2012:251-253) found that, although teachers have the skills and knowledge needed to promote effective training and transfer of knowledge, crucial information is often misinterpreted or lost. There is no assurance that the trainees are capable of using their skills to train other teachers or that they will provide training or give support at school level. The inconsistency in the carrying over of knowledge and the little support given to teachers by curriculum advisors after the training makes cascade an ineffective model to train teachers and improve their performance. Chisholm et al. (2000) also criticise the cascade model. Of importance to this paper is their reference to the watering down of information, the misconception that content and knowledge were no longer necessary and teachers' inability to apply their new understanding of classroom practice.

In addition, teachers are inundated with work and development might not be a priority (Dichaba & Mokhele, 2012). High school teacher development is also a very complicated and complex process, as most high school teachers teach different grades or even different subjects or learning areas each year, meaning that teachers trained in a particular subject/learning area might not teach that subject/learning area in the next year.

Jansen (1998) concludes that, disappointingly, South African schools are outperformed by many countries with fewer resources. The misinterpretation of the South African classroom and the kind of teacher and learner in the system (Jansen, 1998), supported by the fact that there were very few guidelines on paper what must happen in the OBE class, all contributed to the failure of OBE. Malcolm (2001) mentions that the performance indicators of Curriculum 2005 were unclear, vague and uncertain. He alludes to the fact that little attention was given to achievements and how they might be used. Although outcomes were continuous through all the phases, each phase was treated separately.

OBE policy also dictated that no learner can spend more than four years in a phase. This became problematic when learners only achieved some exit levels from a phase and have easy access to the next phase. The same applied to learners who achieved and then slipped back in their competence (Malcolm, 2001). Taylor (2008:3-4) notes that disparities exist amongst schools due to a history of poverty and deprivation. Underperforming learners have a culture of complacency and low expectation.

Learner assessments, portfolio management and promotion requirements, coupled with the teacher-pupil ratio, increased the workload of learners and teachers. This, along with the increase in administrative duties of the teacher, contributed to the failure of OBE.

For OBE to be effective, teachers need to use various techniques to enhance the use of language. The teacher's role changes from the effective transmitter of information to someone that mediates competencies, from an instructor to a mediator or a facilitator; therefore, the role of the English teacher has to be redefined.

OBE supports a communicative approach to language teaching. Learners are taught to use language for a range of different purposes and functions. OBE is also learner-centred; it envisages that all learners learn from their own experiences and at their own pace.

Plüddemann et al. (1998:15) found that learning happened at a very low pace in the OBE classroom, as children needed a lot of scaffolding if they wanted to contribute in the classroom setting. Learners came from linguistically diverse backgrounds and, especially in the additional language classroom, teaching phonics and literacy became problematic. Pronunciation became an issue in multilingual classes, leading to miscommunication between teachers and learners. Pronunciation may confuse the learners even more if their spelling is not checked. The authors found that very little reading and writing was done in the classroom, and very little time was allocated for storytelling, which may have influenced the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom.

2.7.2 Revised National Curriculum Statement

The RNCS was introduced in 2001 as the curricular embodiment of OBE. Its purpose was to streamline and strengthen the curriculum, providing a common set of standards for teaching and assessing languages. The RNCS introduced separate curricula for HL, FAL and Second Additional Languages. Documents were set in English and then versioned in the other ten languages, meaning that the other 10 language curricula were versions of the English language curriculum. Versioning did not consider that the languages have different histories, syntax or language structures. It is important to note that only the English documents were published for public comment, adding to the notion that the English language curriculum is more important than the other 10 official languages of South Africa.

2.7.3 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

Learners not reaching the expected outcomes in OBE, teacher and learner work overload and confusion (Department of Basic Education, 2013b) are some of the reasons given for the need for the systematic implementation a new education policy document – CAPS.

CAPS recognises the vital role that education plays in realising the aims of the Constitution (1996). CAPS states that the South African Constitution aims to achieve the following (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:3):

- heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights;
- improve the quality of life of all citizens;
- lay the foundations for a democratic and open society; and
- build a united and democratic South Africa.

To improve curriculum implementation and assessment, the RNCS was amended and replaced by a single comprehensive curriculum and assessment policy for each subject that provides clearer specifications on what is to be taught and learnt on a

term-to-term basis. CAPS was introduced in high schools in Grade 10 in 2012, Grade 11 in 2013, and Grades 8, 9 and 12 in 2014. CAPS aims to facilitate the transition of learners from educational institutions to the workplace. This curriculum promotes active and critical learning rather than rote learning and uncritical learning of given truths. It also aims to provide education that is comparable in quality, breadth and depth to education in other countries. Furthermore, the curriculum endorses inclusive education – barriers to learning have to be identified and addressed using various curriculum differentiation strategies as set out in the Guidelines for Inclusive Teaching and Learning (Department of Basic Education, 2010a).

The aims of the NCS, as set out in CAPS, are to produce learners who can:

- critically analyse, identify and solve problems;
- work effectively in a group and in a team;
- organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;
- collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information;
- communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and language skills;
- use science and technology effectively; and
- demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:5).

The Department of Basic Education (2011b:8) acknowledges that many learners use a LOLT that is not their HL, as many South African schools do not offer the home languages of some or all of the enrolled learners. Therefore, the language level mentioned in CAPS refers to the proficiency level and not the native language or home language of the learner. Schools have the option to offer two official languages, one at HL level and the other at FAL level. HL level learners must have mastered the communication skills required in social situations and the cognitive academic skills that are essential for learning across the curriculum. At this level, learners are also provided with a literary, aesthetic and imaginative ability that will provide them with the ability to recreate, imagine and empower their understanding of the world in which they live.

At FAL level, learners' inter-communicative skills (the ability to speak and understand the language) are developed. Learners also develop literary and oral skills and they learn to apply the literary skills that they have already learnt in their home language. Greater emphasis is placed on thinking and reasoning, which enables the learners to develop their cognitive academic skills needed to study subjects such as science in English. The aim of EFAL is to equip learners with a high level of proficiency to prepare them for further or higher education and for the world of work. There are challenges, too, with regard to the FAL curriculum. This ambitious curriculum was conceptualised in English and had in mind learners using English as their LOLT.

Out of the 27.5 hours learners spend at school per week, four hours are allocated to FAL for Grades 7-9 and five hours are allocated to HL. For Grades 10-12, the time allocated for both HL and FAL is 4.5 hours (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:7, 9). Learners are exposed to English as an additional language throughout the school day. Murray (2012) is of the opinion that the curriculum would be extremely difficult for learners who were only studying their FAL as a subject for under four hours per week in the Foundation Phase and between four and five hours thereafter. It would be especially difficult for students learning a non-cognate language, for example, an English speaker learning isiZulu FAL. It is a matter of concern, therefore, that the opportunity to study a second additional language has been removed from the curriculum with the introduction of the CAPS. Although this problem is being addressed in the new provisions for African languages, these factors militate against English and Afrikaans speakers studying African languages at school (Murray, 2012).

The aim of CAPS is to move away from racism, apartheid and the rote-learning model of learning and teaching to a liberating, nation-building and learner-centred outcomes-based one. It is the objective of the government to provide every learner with a textbook. The CAPS document that guides the implementation of the curriculum is very prescriptive and provides clear guidelines as to what is expected of the teacher in terms of curriculum implementation.

Again, this curriculum was conceptualised and written in English, with only the English version being published for public comment. The final statement was versioned into

the other ten languages. The Department of Basic Education (2013b) admits that there may be vernacular inconsistencies with the translations but states that the documents are correct, as they have based on the English generic language documents. In reality, all languages differ and may need different approaches in teaching methods; therefore, the concern is that English is shaping the curricula of all the other languages (Murray, 2012).

2.8 The Impact of English on Education in South Africa

As seen in sections 2.3 and 2.4, the role of English in South Africa cannot be underestimated. Historically, English was one of the main role players in achieving the political and educational goals of the governments in power. Currently, English remains crucial to every South African citizen as it is seen as a global language, and a language of power and authority.

2.8.1 Effects of the Status of English on School Language Policy and Planning

It is clear that the status of English has an effect on the composition and structure of many South African schools. Lafon (2009:1) suggests that the discrepancy between the home language and the LOLT may be an immediate and tangible obstacle for black learners to gain access to certain schools and may contribute to school failure where the limited command of the LOLT by non-native speakers of the LOLT is a significant factor in poor school achievement.

In instances where the structure and composition of a school is changing, the school is placed in a position to reconsider its admission and language policies. Lafon (2009:7) identified factors such as re-zoning of school catchment areas, internal and external migration, and language shifts in some Afrikaans-speaking families as some of the reasons why many Afrikaans single-medium schools have become under-utilised.

The increase in EHL learner totals creates a demand for schools to offer English at HL level. The NSSF, as discussed in section 2.5.5, allocate funding for LTSM and human

resources according to the number of learners the school enrolls per year. In a school where the demography has changed so significantly that it influences the LOLT of learners, the SGB is forced to adapt its language policy to attract more learners or face the possibility of losing the funding for government teaching posts.

Therefore, some schools convert to either dual-medium instruction or pure English comprehensive schools. This has an influence on the quality of teaching and learning, as teachers are forced to use their second language when teaching English language learners who are not native speakers of English either. Clearly, a gap in understanding might develop if learners learn in a language in which they are not fully competent and receive instruction from a teacher who teaches in his/her second language. Adding to the already volatile situation in schools that are becoming dual medium or English comprehensive schools is the supply of LTSM. Funding to acquire the LTSM in the LOLT might be a problem as the NSSF do not make provision to replace or supplement already supplied material.

In schools where the LOLT might be a barrier to success and indirectly or directly affect school discipline, school policies (particularly language policies) must be revisited to address the shortcomings of both educators and learners.

2.8.2 The Power and Status of English in South Africa

Graddol (2000:10) refers to EHL speakers whose first language is English. The author then differentiates between English Additional Language and English Foreign Language speakers. This classification of English speakers mirrors the power and status of English, as in both cases English is used for communicative purposes. For the EAL speaker the language is used for internal communication. In this case, English is spoken in the community of the speaker and, according to Graddol, new “Englishes” emerge from this phenomenon. On the other hand, with the EFL speaker, the language is only used for communication with speakers from other countries. Graddol (2000:11) expects that English will soon be the language with the highest number of second language speakers, with the number of second language speakers of English exceeding the number of home language speakers. Graddol concludes that factors

such as migration, demographic change, age distribution, technology and the internet influence the language of a particular country.

Researchers (De Klerk, 2002:6-7; Lafon, 2009:8; Nomlomo, 2006:119-123) have ascertained the preference of South African parents for their children to be taught in English. One gets the impression that the language itself has a certain amount of airs surrounding it, as parents believe that English is an international language of prestige that will open the doors to better education and job opportunities. They believe English proficiency will allow their children to be treated with respect, will sharpen learners' intellect and will enable learners to communicate with other racial groups.

English, the language of prestige and power, is seen as the language of liberation and black unity (Gough, 1996). With this in mind, English is perceived as the language that will provide better education and more job opportunities. English has official status in many countries and is developing a special role that is recognised in many countries. In South Africa, for example, English is a language of power, one of the 11 official languages in the country, used by the government as a means of communication and widely used in South Africa as a lingua franca. In South Africa, English is also being used at the expense of Afrikaans and of late, African languages.

In his discussion on global language, Crystal (2003:7) states that becoming a global language has very little to do with the number of speakers of the language, but depends on the ears, hands, mouths, hands and eyes of its users. Thus, for a language to be used globally is very dependent on the power of the people speaking it. Crystal (2003:9-10) explains that power of the people, especially military and the political power, establishes a language, but it takes economic power to maintain the language. Because of its economic power, English cannot be thought of as owned by a single nation, which gives it a global status. Crystal (2003:10) maintains that being at the centre of an explosion of international activity can also give a language a global status, and the usage of such a language is not restricted to specific countries or governing bodies (Crystal, 2003:141). The author concludes that being a home language alone cannot give a language global status. Most compelling evidence of this is that, in South Africa, English home language users comprise only seven percent

of the people in South Africa, but it is the LOLT of 90% of learners in South African schools (Department of Basic Education, 2010b).

English serves as an important vehicle for socio-economic cohesion as well as a linguistic bridge for communication amongst the diverse South African population. During the apartheid era, the African National Congress (ANC) used English, together with African languages, to spread the message of liberation. After 1994, the ANC continued to use English in their cause for liberation, to promote democracy and to redress the evils of apartheid. Silva (1997) points out that Nelson Mandela's government changed the balance between the use of English and Afrikaans, whilst promoting the use of African languages. The author refers to President Mandela's speeches that were always conducted in English, the National Conferences that were held in English and the fact that English was the dominant language used in Parliament (Silva, 1997). One can say that the government was successful in its quest to democratise the country, and that they attained their political goals by using English, a common but neutral language.

It is common knowledge amongst the educational community that there are serious problems with South Africa educational system. In her discussion of the education crisis in South Africa, Modisaotsile (2012:1) reports that only approximately half of the learners who enrol in Grade 1 reach Grade 12. These statistics are extremely disconcerting as school dropouts intensify the burden placed on society to deal with unemployment and associated societal challenges. Even more disturbing is that the author states that the majority of matriculants do not meet the minimum requirements for university entrance. Low literacy and numeracy levels are amongst the reasons considered for the poor standard of South African education. Modisaotsile (2012:2) reiterates that, without secure foundations of literacy and numeracy, South African learners will never obtain the high-level skills needed by a nation to address poverty and inequity for development and growth.

The outputs of the current educational system are contradictory to what CAPS advocates. Two of the general aims of importance for the study are: firstly, ensuring that children acquire and apply knowledge and skills in ways that are meaningful to

their own lives; and secondly, equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:4). From the high dropout rates, the low literacy and numeracy levels of South African learners and my experience as an educator at an ordinary public school, I can infer that the government's educational policies fail to equip learners with the necessary skills to live meaningful lives as citizens of a free country. South Africa's constitution is rated amongst the best in the world, yet learners are not free – they are still oppressed and are the victims of a substandard educational system.

The English First Language curriculum before 1969 was influenced by the British curriculum, where the focus was on literature and the close critical reading of texts. In addition, grammar was taught and examined contextually using a variety of texts (Murray, 2012). Murray (2012) explains that the curriculum was aimed at fostering the self-confidence, originality, creativity and self-understanding of native speakers.

The Department of Basic Education (2011d) reports that English is regarded as the preferred language LOLT in South African classrooms. Even though in 1997 most learners in Grade 1-3 learned through their home language, English was the preferred LOLT from Grade 4-12. Most learners are taught in a language that is not their HL, but their first or second additional language. Research indicates that, in 2010, the HL of the majority of learners was isiZulu with 3 009 535 (25%) learners, followed by isiXhosa with about 2 423 549 (20%) learners. Ten percent of learners indicated that Afrikaans was their HL, while only approximately seven percent of learners used English as their HL and only two percent of learners indicated that isiNdebele was their HL. Statistics show that, although English is the HL of only approximately nine percent of the South African population, it is the LOLT of more than 90% of South African learners (Department of Basic Education, 2010b). The majority of learners in ordinary South African schools in 2010 were taught in English (approximately 64%). Although 25% of learners had isiZulu as their HL, only six percent indicated isiZulu as their preferred language (Department of Basic Education, 2010b). This shows that the

majority of the learners in South Africa schools are taught in a language (English) is their second language.

Therefore, the distinction between the labels of HL and FAL is the proficiency level at which the language is offered and not the native or acquired language of the learner. The aim of both EHL and EFAL is to develop learners' cognitive and interpersonal skills in order to prepare them for academic purposes and for the world of work (Department of Basic Education, 2013b). The Twenty Year Review of the Republic of South Africa also mentions the introduction of English as subject in early grades to ease the transition to instruction in English for those learners who are not first-language speakers of English (Presidency, 2014). Setati, Adler, Reed and Bapoo (2002:129) explain that second language acquisition happens when the language is spoken in the immediate environment of a learner who has good opportunities to use the language for participation in natural communication situations, but this language is not necessary supplemented in classroom teaching.

Learners being taught in a language that is not their HL results in a complex language issue that poses problems for the Department of Basic Education, the school, the educator, learner and the future of the nation. The increasing use of English as LOLT, advancement of technology and a linguistically diverse society put the oral tradition and languages of indigenous cultures in jeopardy. A study by De Klerk (2002) about language in schools found that the majority of isiXhosa speaking parents had no regrets with their children using English as the LOLT; they were, however, aware of the low status of isiXhosa and its negative associations of racial discrimination (De Klerk, 2002).

2.8.3 Proficiency Levels of English Language Learners

In South Africa, many parents consent to their children using a LOLT even if their children have limited or no proficiency in the LOLT of the school that they select, which is detrimental to the academic progress of the learners. Barry (1999:241-243) found that learners with limited English proficiency and inadequate cognitive academic skills underachieved across the curriculum; therefore, English second language learners

who use English as LOLT lack the English skills to demonstrate their knowledge on performance-based tasks.

Barry (1999) determined that many ESL have not yet acquired the necessary language skills to process grade appropriately written English text and to express themselves using appropriate, clear, well-formulated grammatically appropriate responses. In addition, it is required of learners to use English to demonstrate their knowledge by formulating, summarising, comparing and analysing text, something that learners find very difficult to do because of their low proficiency levels in their LOLT. According to Barry (1999), ESL learners lack the writing skills and the vocabulary to formulate their own answers and, as a result, they find it difficult to complete their writing responses where they have to comprehend and interpret the questions, recall the knowledge, and then formulate it in the appropriate written form and register. Barry also determined that ESL learners do not have the necessary competence in English to make inferences about and critically evaluate reading texts.

I agree with Barry's (1999:233) finding that ESL learners have not achieved the required level of competency to demonstrate their knowledge adequately in assessment tasks in order to meet the criteria stipulated in the National Qualifications Framework. As a teacher, I find that ESL learners and non-native speakers of English in EHL classes deliver work of poor standard as they lack the language, reading and writing skills, as well as the vocabulary to deliver academic work of an acceptable standard. The research findings of Barry (1999:241-243) also support Cummins' view on BICS and CALP, as many of the English language learners lack the CALP skills needed for academic proficiency.

English, as the language of liberation and black unity (Gough, 1996), has become the language of upward mobility (Alexander, 2003:14), hence the higher-order status of the language and the preference to use the language for political, academic, economic and social reasons. Alexander (2003:15) describes the new language policy of South Africa as a policy that is geared to a strategy of reconciliation and nation-building.

As expected, research done in the Helderberg area shows that the majority of learners enrolled in English HL classes come from Afrikaans homes and that English is replacing Afrikaans as LOLT. Surprisingly, although English is preferred as LOLT and for wider communication, research shows that Afrikaans still has a place as a vernacular dialect in the community (Farmer & Anthonissen, 2010).

Barry (1999:78) problematises the situation of South African ESL learners. These learners' inability to comprehend content because of their lack of background knowledge and linguistic structures needed for working in many public domains is an indication that they have not fully developed BICS in their FAL. Barry (1999) also makes reference to the many black learners who have not acquired the literacy or subject matter knowledge in their first language to reflect on the academic content in their own language and have not acquired the background knowledge to connect with the fundamental beliefs and cultures of the English schools in which they find themselves. One can thus surmise that the LOLT, in this case, is detrimental to learners' academic development, setting them up for failure and leading to learners becoming indifferent to their home language.

Hakuta, Butler and Witt (2000:10-13) state that it takes three to five years to develop oral English proficiency, while academic English proficiency takes four to seven years to develop. Poverty and lack of parental involvement play an important role in the academic performance of a learner; therefore, students with lower socio-economic status are learning English more slowly than their peers who live in better socio-economic conditions. ESL learners who use English as LOLT must acquire oral and academic proficiency while keeping up with the native speakers of English, who continue to develop and improve their use of the language. The diversity in the South African classroom fosters a situation where there are widening gaps between ESL learners and native English-speaking learners.

In South Africa, home language instruction is encouraged until Grade 3, after which English is preferred as LOLT for various reasons. As a measurement and control tool, the Department of Basic Education conducts annual assessments to monitor the success of the implementation of the curriculum. These tests, the Annual National

Assessments (ANAs), are written by learners in Grades 3, 6 and 9. Results of the 2011 ANA tests showed that the literacy rates amongst these learners were as low as 36% (Department of Basic Education, 2011f). However, the ANA 2013 results reported an increase in results of the HL tests taken by the Grade 4, 5 and 6 learners, with achievements of 49%, 46% and 59% respectively. The results of the Grade 9 HL learners remained unaffected at 43 %. The report acknowledges with concern the low level of performance of the FAL learners' test results. All grades tested below 40%, with the exception of the Grade 6 learners, whose scores showed an increase from 36% in 2012 to 46% in 2013. Given the importance of the FAL as LOLT, the report recommends that there needs to be a targeted programme to address these challenges of the low FAL results (Department of Basic Education, 2013a).

Despite the improvement in the ANA results, there are gaps in understanding in what the educator explains and what the learner understands. It is the finding of various researchers (Biseth, 2006; Brock-Utne, 2006; Nomlomo, 2006) that learners' proficiency levels in English are not good enough or high enough for academic purposes.

The WCED admits that learners in the province are not reading and writing at appropriate levels, which is the reason for the underperformance in languages. This is an area of concern as language influences performance in other subjects, hence the implementation of the WCED Five-Year Language Strategy 2015-2019. The language strategy reports that, for the NCS 2008-2014 examinations, the failures were higher in additional languages than HL, with the majority failures being in EFAL, which was taken by 32% of the NCS candidates (WCED, 2015-2019). It also reports on South Africa's participation in the Progress in International Reading and Literacy Study in 2006 and 2011, where the South Africa learners' average scores for Grades 4 and 5 were lower than the performance of most participating countries, including African countries.

To improve language proficiency amongst learners in the Western Cape, the language strategy attempts to address the language problem at the following levels: people development, productive pedagogies, resource/facility provision and use, and

monitoring and evaluation. Unfortunately, the language strategy was only released to high school educators in June 2016 and thus far only the teachers, one component of the people development, received once-off training during the June holidays. It is important to take into account that the widely criticised cascade model (as discussed in section 2.7.1) was used to train teachers. One can thus assume that the language strategy is unsuccessful in its attempt to improve the language proficiency of the learners in the Western Cape.

In addition to the South Africa's challenge of 11 official languages, the influx of foreigners to South Africa escalates the challenges relating to learning and teaching languages, EFAL in particular. The National Education and Evaluation Development Unit (NEEDU, 2013) indicates that children who speak an African language have to drop their home language too soon to learn a language that they do not understand. The report also found that a number of schools' LOLT for Foundation Phase learners is a language that is not their HL. The report also speaks of the problems relating to dialectisation of languages, which mostly affect African languages, as the insufficient production of reading material in African languages means that standardisation of these languages remains challenging. What is more interesting is that the report comments on incompetent teachers who do not have a grasp on the curriculum (NEEDU, 2013).

However, it is clear that the South African government is not taking any responsibility for the problems and challenges experienced in South African education. The poor ANA results are attributed solely to inadequate teacher competency, inadequate subject and curriculum knowledge, and weakness in school and district management (Presidency, 2014). The dissatisfaction of teachers and unions with the ANA led to the abandonment of the ANA in 2015. In the draft document, *Proposals on the Re-design of ANA for 2016 and Beyond*, the Department of Basic Education (2016b) deliberated on a number of limitations and weaknesses in the ANA process and came to an agreement with the unions why the ANA should be redesigned. Since ANAs were written annually, the unions were of the opinion that there was simply not enough time to remediate the content and they identified a need for teacher development programmes to address the needs identified through ANA (Department of Basic

Education, 2016b). In a press conference, Minister Angie Motshekga announced that the National Integrated Assessment Framework would replace the ANAs from 2018 (Etheridge, 2015). To my knowledge, thus far, schools have not been informed officially of any new developments regarding the ANAs, nor have teachers received any training to administer these new replacement assessments.

Gamaroff (1995:7) identifies limitations in English proficiency as a reason for poor performance of black learners. Gamaroff further explains that English is a non-cognate language – radical differences exist between English and African languages, and insufficient exposure to background knowledge may prevent learners from tapping into new knowledge at a later stage. This view is supported by Lafon (2009:12), who emphasises that the majority of underperforming learners do not learn in their home language. With reference to my own school community, I can surmise that the insufficient exposure to spoken English, limited access to English print materials, parents' illiteracy or limited proficiency in English, parents' inability to assist with homework, and the underdevelopment of fundamental literacy and numeracy skills impede the academic progress of Limited English Proficiency (LEP) learners.

Lafon (2009:13) found a close link between the average mark in the first language and other key subjects amongst learners who attended former coloured and white schools and whose LOLT was their native or near native language. In contrast, Xhosa-speaking learners showed a higher and above-average attainment in their first language but a significant drop in all other subjects, including their second language (English in most cases) that was used as the LOLT. This is confirmed by a later report which finds a low correspondence between performance on African home languages and successful completion of the NSC (Ministerial Task Team Report on the National Senior Certificate, 2014:177). The author concludes that these students' level of proficiency in English or Afrikaans is not high and these languages are therefore not appropriate to be used as a LOLT, as this will negatively influence any learning that may take place. Lafon (2009:12) is of the opinion that, if learners do not have sufficient academic proficiency in the LOLT, they often have problems in learning. This is not necessarily because they do not understand concepts or ideas, but rather because they fail to grasp their linguistic representation. Lafon is confident to conclude that the

academic achievement of learners whose home language differs from the LOLT is significantly dependent on their linguistic skills, and overcoming language barriers becomes even more difficult in unfavourable circumstances.

2.8.4 Challenges in the English Language Class

The EHL and EFAL curricula pose genuine challenges to learners. At the district English orientation meetings and in English subject meetings; educators often discuss the inability of learners to cope with the demands of the language curriculum and the choice of literature that they are expected to master. The concern is that learners show very little interest in the literature content and simply cannot apply language terminology. Some learners find it difficult to comprehend what they read and find it challenging to analyse and summarise texts. They often question the relevance and validity of the curriculum and want some clarity on the purpose of doing literature studies, writing essays, or they question why the curriculum expects them to show competency in English grammar.

Even more worrying for me, as an educator, is the frame of reference of most of the learners whom I teach. They only know what they are exposed to, and because they find themselves in a space of hopelessness, they are set in their ways and are not inclined to change. I share the sentiment of Martin Luther King who believes that education must enable one to become more efficient and must teach one to think intensively and critically.

Unfortunately, English language educators face LEP learners whose general knowledge in their HL very limited, who do not read in their home or additional language and who are not interested in gaining more knowledge. My concerns are supported by Barry (1999:78), who states that ESL learners lack the background knowledge and linguistic structures needed for working in an academic context. Lack of prior knowledge is also a major concern. Barry mentions that many black learners have not yet acquired the background knowledge to reflect on the academic content in their own language or the background knowledge to connect with the fundamental beliefs and culture in which they find themselves.

Nelson Mandela said: “Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world.” It is these words in mind that I have to express my concern about the ability of FAL learners. I find that, at Grade 10 level, CAPS expects learners to be reasonably proficient in English and to have developed CALP in their HL and FAL, but my experience is that many learners have not yet acquired BICS in English as their FAL. This is evident in the way that they execute their tasks or complete tests and examinations. For these struggling LEP learners, education is not a powerful weapon which can change their world.

Congruently, Kapp and Arend (2011:1, 5-6) provide their perspective on the curriculum outcomes and the matriculation examination. They conclude that there is very little correlation between the curriculum outcomes and the matriculation examination papers; consequently, they conclude that there is a mismatch between the curriculum outcomes and the undemanding matriculation examination papers. However, as the authors rightfully state, the matriculation examination plays a major role in determining classroom language and literacy practices because it is the criterion by which success or failure is measured, as the success or failure of a school is measured by its matriculation results.

Kapp and Arend (2011) are of the opinion that, even though the majority of learners use English as their home language across the curriculum, the language itself is taught as a second language. They allude to fact that the majority of non-English speaking learners who use English as a LOLT may be studying the EHL curriculum, but because the learners themselves are non-English speakers, they require that the EHL CAPS include elements of the EFAL CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2013b). Further, it is not a given that EHL learners will be successful in the matriculation examinations. A 40% HL pass is a prerequisite for the Grade 12 matriculation certificate (Department of Basic Education, 2011g) however, the literacy rates in South African schools are low and learners struggle with English, leading to low pass rates.

There has been an improvement in the Grade 12 EHL pass percentage in Western Cape schools, as the pass rate increased from 44.2% in 2011 to 48.2% in 2012. An

ex-model C school reported a negative result in learners' HL scores; however, this was with average pass percentage of 82.8%, which was much higher than the provincial average of 51%. These results reflect all the HL scores offered at the school and does not separate the scores of the different home languages offered at school level (WCED, 2013).

Although the pass requirement for Grade 12 HL, as stipulated in CAPS, remains the same at 40%, the pass requirement in the GET Phase increased significantly. Grade 8 and 9 learners now have to pass both their HL and their FAL with 50% and 40% respectively. In addition, they have to pass Mathematics with 40%, pass three other subjects with 40% and pass any two more subjects with 30%.

With the inception of the new CAPS, the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) once again used the widely criticised cascade model (as discussed in section 2.7.1) to train teachers on the new CAPS curriculum. "Lead teachers" received two days' training and in turn had to train a group of educators in one day during the holidays or on a Saturday. Training material was provided, and lead teachers were told to use the training material verbatim without deviating from the content of the training materials. Training sessions did not allow time for any discussions or input from teachers.

As a lead teacher, I found this method of training the teachers very disconcerting, as teachers are professionals in their field who can read and follow instructions. Not allowing discussions questions the ability of the professional and the method of training does not treat teachers as critical thinkers, which contradicts CAPS's vision for learners to be developed as independent and critical thinkers. Discouraged teachers, who have no forum to raise their concerns and had no input in the new curriculum that they are obligated to implement, voiced their frustration with learners' poor performances and the challenges they face with the curriculum itself and the implementation thereof. It was evident that teachers feel that very little support is available to them and to struggling learners. At these training sessions, educators raised concerns about learners' lack of competence in English, their inability to grasp concepts and understand content matter that lead to the underperformance of learners

and schools, disciplinary challenges, the lack of parental involvement, and the social context of the learners that result in learners who are indifferent to education. Educators at the training workshops were particularly concerned about learners' low proficiency levels in English and their inability to read with comprehension. The use of English as LOLT by non-English home language speakers places limitations on students' linguistic analytical ability to do an English language task and limits students' ability to any analytical task.

Barry (1999:78-79) supports these concerns of the teachers and concludes that learning cannot take place if the reading material is not understood. She alludes to the direct correlation between vocabulary knowledge, background knowledge and reasoning skills, hence the conclusion that English FAL learners who use English as LOLT lack the skills and competence in English to demonstrate their knowledge in performance-based tasks (Barry, 1999:253).

On the other hand, Lafon (2009:1) emphasises that a discrepancy between LOLT and home language may hamper educational access and that school failure is a result of the limited command of the LOLT by learners who are not native speakers of the LOLT. An important comment of Barry (1999:71) that I concur with is that there is no official assessment policy in place to assess the levels of English proficiency to ensure that learners are able to proceed to the next academic level.

There seems to be a link between low academic performance and limited English proficiency. This view coincides with Barry's (1999:76) findings that learners with limited English proficiency and inadequate cognitive academic language skills are underachieving across the curriculum as they lack the ability to demonstrate higher-order thinking such as generalising, hypothesising or arguing as they lack the CALP required to perform higher cognitive tasks through the medium of English.

Besides the limited English and academic proficiency reported by teachers, some learners are also seen as undisciplined and demotivated. Learners' high absenteeism rate learners, tendency to bunk classes and limited proficiency in their HL are often

reasons given by teachers, school principals and district officials for learners' low academic performance throughout the year, leading to learners repeating the grade.

If the parents of learners who are using English as a LOLT but are not HL speakers of English have high proficiency levels in English, it should have a positive impact on the academic performance of the learners. Barry (1999:80-81) supports this view by demonstrating that high levels of literacy impact beneficially on learners' overall achievements. The author maintains that children who are exposed to a culture of reading (both at school and at home) and enjoy parental support, progress academically more successfully than children who only experience books in schools.

Plüddemann et al. (1998:15) find that there is a communication breakdown if learners are taught in a language that is not their HL. Teachers cannot communicate effectively with the majority of their learners and the learners need scaffolding if they say anything in their additional language. This leads to a teacher-dominated approach to learning, which is inconsistent with what OBE promulgates. The communication breakdown also results in the stunting of learner-to-learner interaction. Learners cannot function effectively in a team; therefore, one of the critical outcomes of Curriculum 2005 is almost never met. In addition to this, the breakdown in communication has a negative impact on discipline. Learner discipline seems to be less of an issue if the teacher shares a HL with the learners whom he/she teaches (Plüddemann et al., 1998).

A worrying finding by Brock-Utne (2006:23) is that of concomitant learnings or unintended learnings, which refer to the hidden curriculum that is in sharp contrast with the official aims and objectives of curriculum the teachers are supposed to follow. The author found that, although the government admitted that the proficiency of the learners in English is not good enough to have the language as a LOLT, learners are still being taught in English. Brock-Utne (2006:24-26) found that the labour force in Tanzania is trained through the following educational qualifications: firstly, proficiency qualifications, which refer to skills directly necessary in a given work process; secondly, adaptability qualifications, which have to do with attitudes desirable in the labour force; and thirdly, creative qualifications, which refer to the qualifications needed for the development of productive forces. Education in Tanzania is meant to

give learners proficiency, inculcate self-confidence and enhance the creative qualifications needed to make advancements in science and technology (Brock-Utne, 2006:27). However, because the learners have limited English proficiency, they learn to obey and keep quiet – they are punished if they use the incorrect language, and they memorise and become indifferent. They inherently learn that they are dumb, that they are unlikely to succeed, that they may give up and that they are learning to fail and become losers (Brock-Utne, 2006:30).

The argument to be taught in one's HL is strengthened by Biseth (2006), who maintains that language difficulties marginalise one's future. Biseth (2006:140-141) is in agreement with Cummins' explanation of BICS and CALP. Biseth maintains that being taught in one's HL for only the first three years, as with many isiXhosa learners, has a negative impact on one's achievement of academic and conceptual skills in one's HL, which are necessary to achieve good skills in the additional language. In a similar vein, Biseth (2006:161) finds that using a LOLT other than one's HL functions as a barrier and threat to the democratic values of South Africa. It is an obstacle to acquiring knowledge and gaining access to the public discourse. Biseth (2006) is of the opinion that the majority of South Africans cannot participate in public discourse and decisions regarding their own future and that of this country. The majority of people are not able to express themselves confidently in English, which is a violation of their democratic right to freedom of speech (Biseth, 2006).

2.8.5 English and African languages

Kadar Asmal, former Minister of Education, said the following (Department of Education, 2001a):

Our vision is of a South Africa in which all people have equal access to lifelong education and training opportunities, which will contribute towards improving the quality of life and build a peaceful, prosperous and democratic society.

It seems as though westernisation and globalisation result in diminishing African folklore and traditions. Lafon (2009:10) confirms this by noting a growing contingent of African youth from elite families who find it difficult to communicate with their underprivileged peers and older family members. If learners lose knowledge of their own home language, it is only a matter of time before the traditions and folklore are lost to future generations. There is also the possibility that English will become the sole first language of learners, with the home language just becoming an additional language. For example, in the Western Cape, black learners who use English as a LOLT are studying Afrikaans as a FAL. They communicate fluently in isiXhosa, which is their home language, but are not able to read and write in isiXhosa, which means that the isiXhosa, the HL of these learners, is used for communicative purposes only.

The LiEP (Department of Education, 2007) is aimed at reconciliation and nation building; therefore, the government acknowledges all 11 languages spoken by South Africans, as well as South African Sign Language, as languages that enjoy equal status and are recognised as official languages. The policy promotes multilingualism in the classroom and mandates SGBs to determine the language policy of schools (Department of Education, 1997). However, the question remains: How equal is equal?

Lafon (2009:6) refers to the status of Afrikaans and English when she says that some languages are more equal than others and have more prominence than others. This is evident in the disclaimer which stipulates that the CAPS documents were written in English and later versioned in other languages (Department of Basic Education, 2013b). The curricula of all the languages are versions of the English curriculum. It is not the study of the official language, for example, isiXhosa, but rather a study of the official language in English.

Statistics released by the Department of Basic Education (2010b) indicates that the majority of people have a speaking knowledge of English. This is supported by Webb's (2006) findings that there is a tendency towards using English for academic purposes. Webb (2006:3) states that an enormous strength and popular demand of English, the

negative social meaning of Afrikaans and African languages and the “Englishification” of higher education contribute to inhibiting and perpetuating inequality and exclusivity.

Since the South African classroom is a multilingual platform (see Department of Education, 1997; Setati et al., 2002), it should be a space where respect and admiration for one’s own language and culture, as well as of those of one’s classmates, should be fostered. Important to mention is what Alexander (2005:4) refers to as static maintenance syndrome, which refers to the notion that, although the primary use of most African languages is in the context of family, community and religious practices, it is disheartening that speakers of African languages do not believe that their languages can develop into languages of power (Alexander, 2005:4).

English can be seen as a language that is impartial in a country that is plagued by prejudice and biased behaviour. In addition, it could be seen as a language that could facilitate promoting the values of our Constitution in an attempt to work towards an all-inclusive society, free of oppression and racism. In a sense, one can argue that English equalises our society – but at what price?

2.9 Conclusion

In conclusion, the role of English in the history of South Africa cannot be underestimated. As English has been a deciding factor in the successful implementation of policies at any given time in South African history, it is likely that English will continue to be part of our decision-making processes and, in that way, it will continue to contribute to the successes and failures of our nation. One of the general aims of the South African curriculum states that the curriculum serves the purpose of human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice, infusing the principles and practices of social and environmental justice and human rights as defined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:5).

This study considers English language teaching as a vehicle to achieve social justice. I refer to Chipkin and Meny-Gibert’s (2013:5) definition of social justice as a situation

corresponding to economic justice, public participation and social cohesion. In light of this definition, and keeping in mind the diversity of our nation, it is understandable that educational policies and practices need to be in place to ensure equal access to opportunities and privileges be available all South Africans in order to guarantee economic justice, public participation and social cohesion. As mentioned, the foreword of CAPS states that education and the curriculum have an important role to play in realising the aims of the South African Constitution, one of which is social justice.

In terms of social justice and the history of English language teaching, two requirements and expectations emerge that dictate the form and content of the English language teaching curricula. These are:

1. It is imperative to find common linguistic ground if we want social justice for all, hence the importance for learners to be competent and deemed academically proficient in English if they want to be participatory members of the South African society as well as in the world. Academic English proficiency and English competence are promising means to realise the constitutional goals of South Africa. This coincides with Alexander's (2005:4) suggestion that it is in everyone's best interest to learn the dominant language of power as it will help to provide equal opportunities in the labour market as well as in other markets.

As discussed in section 1.2, the designation of HL and FAL as proficiency levels at which the language is offered and not the native (home) or acquired (additional) language (Department of Basic Education, 2011e:8) is problematic for two reasons. Firstly, the EHL learner must mirror a language proficiency that reflects the mastery of interpersonal communication skills required in social situations and the cognitive academic skills essential for learning across the curriculum, which in my opinion learners struggle to master. Secondly, CAPS acknowledges that EFAL learners still cannot communicate well in their additional language when they reach Grade 10 (Department of Basic Education, 2011e:8), which means that CAPS is ineffective in understanding the specific aims of Additional Languages as set out in CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:9). CAPS then indirectly but rightfully implies that it is

unsuccessful in developing FAL learners' academic language proficiency needed for further or higher education or for the world of work.

Because English is the choice of LOLT for many learners, the distinction between home language and first additional language seems irrelevant. Proficiency in English will aid learners in developing a better understanding of their other learning areas or subjects. An English curriculum that supports learning across the curriculum must prepare learners for tertiary education and the world of work, and such a curriculum should be implemented for all learners of English.

2. It is important to promote bilingualism or multilingualism. Currently, many people of South Africa and the South African government use English as a lingua franca. Given our rich history and diversity, English should acknowledge its place as one language amongst many, by teaching respect for other languages and cultures. Learners of English must also be taught how to conduct themselves in a professional manner and in the social context.

The analysis of the two CAPS documents in Chapter 4 discusses the form and content of the curricula in detail. Developing English proficiency levels has many challenges for all English learners in the current curriculum. Therefore, the need to investigate an alternative English to the current EHL and EFAL curricula is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3: POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVE TEACHING MODELS AND APPROACHES TO THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULA IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 Introduction

In my study of second language acquisition, I consider the relevance of the two-curriculum scenario (HL and FAL English curricula) in my quest to find a possible alternative to the teaching models and approaches implicit in the curriculum documents. As pointed out in section 2.9, it is in the interests of social justice that English teaching should increase learners' academic proficiency, and it should promote multilingualism in schools. Proficiency in English will help learners to realise their goals in life and potentially make a success of their lives, will contribute significantly to social unity and, very importantly, will encourage public participation and in this way promote the democratic principles on which our constitution is built.

South Africa's 12 official languages (including South African Sign Language), underscore the diversity of HLs, which means that the LOLT is almost inevitably learners' second or third language. The LOLT problem in South Africa is intensified by the influx of foreigners from neighbouring countries, as they all bring their own indigenous languages to the already diverse South African classroom. I once again draw on my own experiences. At school, we have 63 foreign learners, according to our CEMIS information, from the following countries: Democratic Republic of Congo, Cameroon, Zimbabwe, Somalia and Malawi, of whom 18 are in Grade 8 and 17 in Grade 9. The school also attracts learners from the Eastern Cape and the Northern Cape. All of these learners have their own home language and our teachers, who are mainly proficient in English and Afrikaans, have to offer the curriculum to classes potentially representing more than two home languages other than English.

Learners' prior knowledge or lack thereof, demotivated learners, cultural differences and learners' difficult social circumstances are challenges that an English teacher has to face on a daily basis. Consequently, to be successful in developing academically proficient learners, teachers need to be aware of the classroom situation, adapt their attitudes accordingly and be aware of past and present teaching methods in order to

choose the most effective teaching methodology for their classroom situation and to suit LEP learners.

This chapter looks at past and present second language teaching approaches and methodologies. The notion of the distinction between BICS and CALP, as discussed by Cummins (2008), is of interest to this study and is discussed in this chapter. This chapter also looks at the cognitive academic language learning approach (CALLA), immersion programmes in which the usual curricular activities are conducted in a foreign language and CLIL as possible alternative approaches to English language teaching in the South African context. This chapter also discusses CLIL in Europe with a focus on Spain, Poland and the Netherlands.

The European Union has 500 million citizens, 28 member states, three alphabets and 24 official languages. Sixty other languages are also spoken in Europe. With the inclusion of immigrant languages, it is estimated that at least 175 nationalities are now present within the European Union's borders. Language barriers result from this phenomenon and have repercussions for access to content, education, services and online services and the economy, hence the European Union's attempt to promote multilingualism with the aim of all European citizens being proficient in at least three European languages. CLIL implementation, which implies the use of a foreign language as a LOLT, is seen as successful and therefore needs to be considered as a possible alternative to the two-curriculum scenario for English language teaching in South Africa. However, it is necessary to see CLIL in the context of second language teaching methods and approaches, as presented in the next section.

3.2 Second Language Teaching Methods: A Historical Perspective

As mentioned above, the diverse South African classroom represents multiple HLs and cultures, which might be detrimental to the academic development of the learners. Because the LOLT is not the home language for most or all of the learners, teachers might not be able to explain concepts in ways that learners fully understand, and the same time learners might not have the insight or linguistic ability to grasp the message the teacher is trying to get across. Besides, as I argue in Chapter 4, the reason for

using English as a LOLT, which is primarily to understand and use the language for academic purposes, may not be acknowledged in the form and content of the current curriculum documents. For these reasons, many second language teaching methods, as discussed below, fail to prepare learners sufficiently for academic purposes.

CAPS expounds on HL and FAL terminologies, stating that HL refers to the language first acquired by learners, while FAL refers to the language learnt in addition to their HL. However, CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:8) admits that many South African schools do not offer the HL of some or all of the enrolled learners but rather have one or two languages offered at HL and at FAL level, mainly Afrikaans and English. Therefore, the terminologies HL and FAL refer to the proficiency levels at which the language is offered and not native (home) or acquired (additional) languages.

Below, I briefly discuss the main historical movements with regard to language teaching, to show that past bilingual and immersion programmes are unsuitable for today's South African EFAL class.

3.2.1 Grammar-Translation Method

Larsen-Freeman (2000:13) explains that the intention of the grammar-translation method is to help learners grow intellectually, read and appreciate foreign literature and improve their competence in their native language. Larsen-Freeman (2000:17-19) concludes that the fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language using the grammar-translation method is to be able to read literature written in the target language. Grammatical rules and vocabulary are used to teach the foreign language and learners are required to read literature in the foreign language as well as translate texts to and from the foreign language. There is very little emphasis on speaking, listening and pronunciation. The teacher is the authority figure in the classroom and student initiation and interaction are not encouraged.

The grammar-translation method assumes that learners have accomplished BICS and developed CALP in their HL and FAL. Since many South African learners are not

deemed reasonably competent in their FAL, they have not developed the CALP necessary for academic language (see sections 2.8.3 and 2.8.4). The diversity of the South African classroom will therefore make the implementation of the grammar-translation method difficult. In addition, society expects learners to be assertive, which makes role of the teacher in the grammar-translation method inappropriate and irrelevant for today's educational purposes.

3.2.2 Direct Method

With the direct method, the second language is learned in the same way that children learn their first language. Richards and Rodgers (1986:9) explain that the principles underlying the direct method are believed to conform to the principles of naturalistic language learning in young children. Using this method is impractical because of the language and cultural diversity present in the South African classroom which resulted in referring to HL and FAL as the proficiency levels at which languages are offered and not the languages themselves (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:8). The direct method accentuates oral interaction and spontaneous use of the language. There is no translation between first and second language and little or no analysis of the grammar rules. The HL is never used. This would require learners to read, write and communicate in the foreign language consistently, which is problematic because of the challenges faced in the South African English language class (see section 2.8.4). Because of these challenges, learners might find it difficult to understand the concepts or the learning that is supposed to take place.

3.2.3 Behaviourism

Since an individual learns to speak before learning to read and write, the foundation of behaviourism is in the spoken language. This habit-forming theory of teaching and learning depends on mimicry and memorisation. Subsequently, learning is socially conditioned and can be the same for each person; therefore, each person can learn equally given the same learning conditions. The process of stimulus and response creates habits, and in the learning environment, the teacher is in control and the

learners collect and gain the knowledge the teacher has to give. Pritchard (2008:15) states that:

Behaviourists see learning as a relatively permanent, observable change in behaviour because of experience. This change is effected through a process of reward and reinforcement but has little regard, initially, for mental process or understanding.

3.2.4 Audiolingual Methods

Ogbonna, Chinwe and Loyce (2014:69) refer to audiolingual methods as methods based on the habit formation model of behavioural psychology and on a linguistic theory of language, which were developed after World War 2 through a United States Army programme to produce speakers proficient in the languages of friends and rivals. They emphasise memorisation through repetitive pattern drills and conversation practices rather than promoting communicative ability. These characteristics of audiolingual methods are quite the opposite of what is expected of the contemporary learner as encapsulated in the specific aims for Additional Languages (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:9).

Alemi and Tavakoli (2016:2-3) mention that audiolingual methods place emphasis on vocabulary and grammatical sentence practice based on learners' context. There is no room for error and the goal is that students assimilate the content of the lessons without feeling any kind of threat, stress or boredom. In view of that, the classroom atmosphere is comfortable and non-threatening in order for learners to be successful in their learning process. Unlike the grammar translation method, there is little or no focus on grammar studies, while native-like pronunciation is of great importance.

3.2.5 Natural Approach

The natural approach distinguishes between acquisition as a natural subconscious process and learning as a conscious process. This approach maintains that learning cannot lead to acquisition. Krashen and Terrell (1988:58) explain that the goal of the

natural approach is to communicate with speakers of the target language, and this approach maintains that learners acquire language when they understand messages in the target language. Language is seen as the means to communicate meanings. The emphasis is on teacher monologues, direct repetition, formal questions and answers, and less on accurate production of target language sentences. Krashen and Terrel (1988:58) state that people acquire second languages without the help of formal education.

3.2.6 Communicative Language Teaching Approach

Richards and Rodgers (1986:66) describe communicative language teaching as an approach rather than a teaching method, with the aim to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and developing procedures for the teaching of all four language skills.

Communicative language teaching is a learner-centred approach, with the objective to provide learners with the skills to use language accurately and appropriately, to and provide them with opportunities to communicate in the target language. The target language is used in the classroom, and Richards and Rodgers (1986:68) state that students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work or in their writings. Communicative activities enable the learners to attain communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information-sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:76). While using the communicative language teaching approach, the teacher fulfils the role of a facilitator in the class who should facilitate the communicative process between all participants and the various activities and texts. The teacher should act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:77).

CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:16) identifies three approaches to language teaching, one of which is the communicative approach. According to CAPS, a communicative approach suggests that, when learning a language, learners should

have a great deal of exposure to the target language and must have many opportunities to practise or produce the language. Learners learn to read by doing a great deal of reading and learn to write by doing much writing.

CAPS follows a communicative and a text-based approach (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:11-16). The HL CAPS curriculum places a strong emphasis on reading and writing, and encourages learners to participate by asking questions and providing answers. CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:11-12) states that the teacher should ensure that learners listen to and speak the additional language for a wide range of purposes, and provide opportunities for learners to read, view and use (write and present) their additional language frequently for a range of purposes. Learners need to expand their vocabulary, and need to know the basics of language, grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation. Teachers need to facilitate this learning and must provide high-quality feedback in order to facilitate the learning process.

3.3 Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

The distinction between BICS and CALP, as discussed in this section, is crucial for understanding why learners struggle to achieve the English academic language proficiency they need to be successful in academic learning situations.

3.3.1 Defining Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

Cummins (2008:71-83) was the first researcher to use the terms BICS and CALP. This distinction was initially made to draw educators' attention to the different timelines and challenges that second language learners experience when acquiring an additional language, which is used as a LOLT.

BICS refers to conversational fluency that includes the basic vocabulary and pronunciation skills that are present during a conversation, whereas CALP refers to

students' ability to understand and express written and oral concepts and ideas that are relevant to the success of their academic work. BICS can be described as the language skills needed in social situations, whereas CALP refers to the formal academic language¹ needed for students to succeed in school. Although Cummins did not intend to rank BICS and CALP, it is necessary in his framework for BICS to precede CALP, since it is hardly possible to build academic language proficiency without having some control over basic and general language features and conventions. In a school context, the difference can be explained as in the framework developed by Roessingh (2006:92), shown in Figure 1 below.

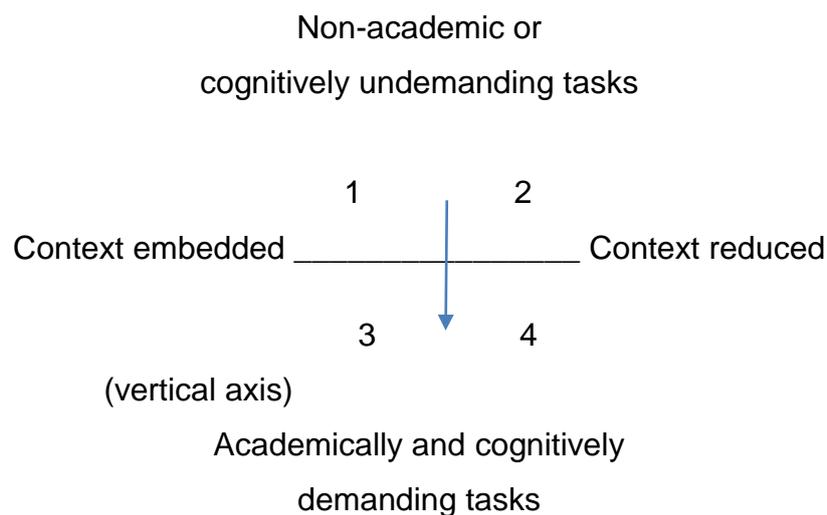


Figure 1: Framework for development of language proficiency (Roessingh, 2006:92)

Roessingh (2006:94) explains that BICS, the language that the learner experiences daily, is illustrated in quadrants 1 and 2, whereas CALP is represented in quadrants 3 and 4. Quadrant 3 embodies the important transitional phase as learners shift from learning to read to reading to learn, which is embodied in the “there and then” language.

Quadrant 4 is characterised by the acquisition of metaphoric competence. Roessingh (2006) draws attention to the ever-widening gap in vocabulary size that will forever

¹ Academic language refers to understanding the vocabulary of the content area as well as the skills to compare, evaluate, classify and make inferences.

obstruct the development of English for second language learners. For Roessingh (2006:95), the ideal age for learner to immigrate is at age 15-16, when the learner is in Grade 10, assuming that the learner has good academic background and study skills in his/her first language, as an imbalance between the HL and the additional language could be the cause of people not reaching academic proficiency.

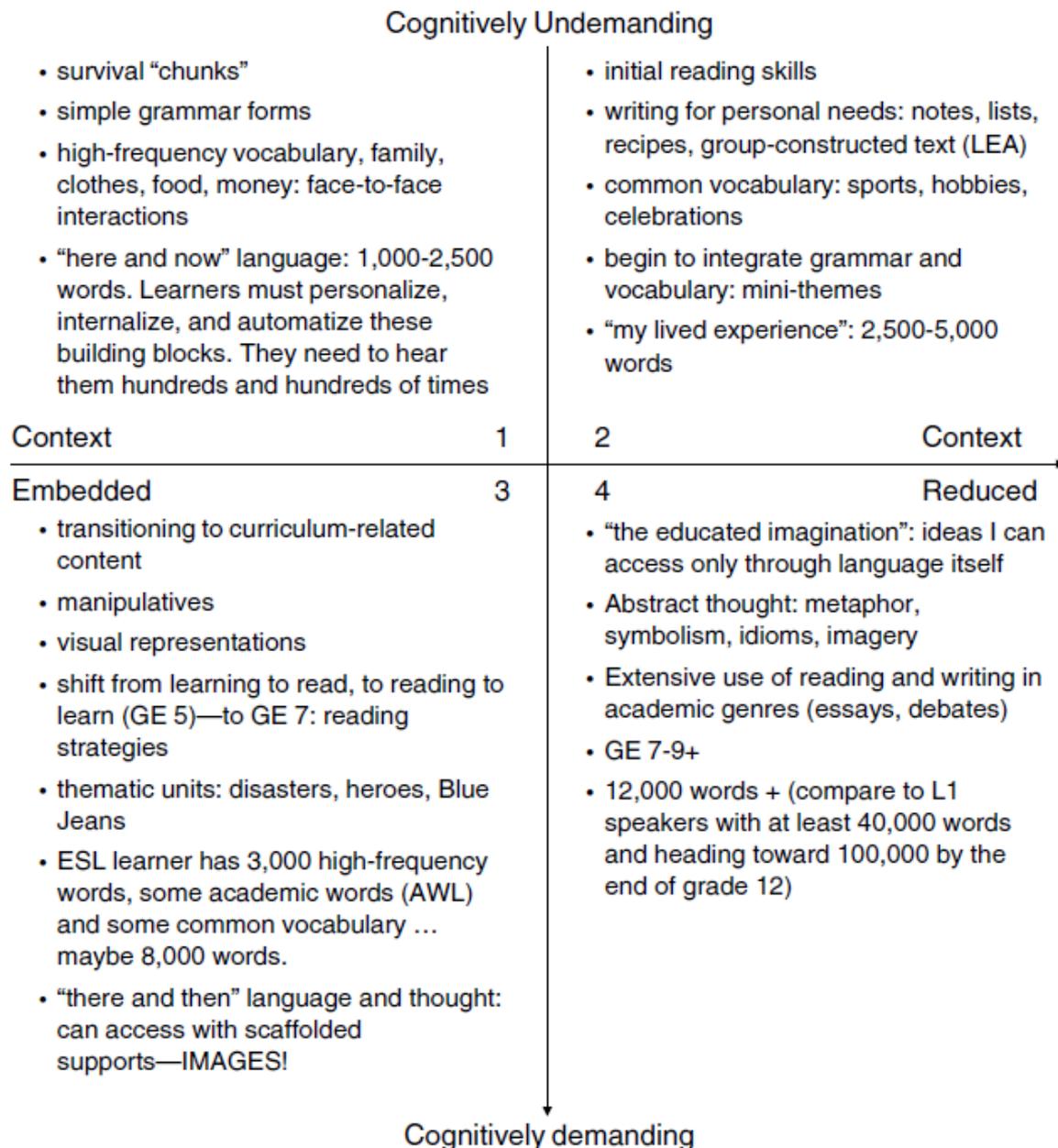


Figure 2: From BICS to CALP: Cummins’ framework for the development of language proficiency (Roessingh, 2006:93)

In Figure 2, Roessingh (2006) demonstrates the below-surface or cognitively demanding factors that learners must develop in either their home or additional language to reach their full academic potential.

Some scholars are critical about the BICS/CALP distinction. Scarcella (2003:5-7) finds the BICS/CALP distinction problematic because, firstly, the author discovered that the BICS/CALP distinction is not useful for understanding the intricacies of academic English or the multiple variables affecting its development. In addition, Scarcella (2003:5) states that the distinction implies that the development of academic English is fixed: either it has been acquired or it has not. However, some aspects of BICS are acquired late and some aspects of CALP are acquired early, and the author argues that variables might encourage the development of both CALP and BICS. The example referred to is rudimentary phonemic awareness (sensitivity to sounds in spoken words) that may facilitate the development of beginning oral proficiency (BICS) as well as the development of advanced reading proficiency (CALP), since it aids learners in accessing difficult academic words when reading.

Scarcella (2003:6) finds the notion of BICS and CALP in the classroom environment of limited practical value because of its failure to operationalise and generate tasks; therefore, the author finds it is unsuccessful in helping to develop students' academic English. In addition, learners who live in communities that are linguistically isolated and not exposed to academic English often never acquire CALP in English, and the BICS/CALP perspective does not provide teachers with sufficient information about academic English to help their students acquire it. The Basarwa children discussed in section 1.2 are linguistically isolated as they do not understand the LOLT and are not exposed to any academic language in their HL. It is thus a huge challenge for them to reach academic proficiency. The same principle applies to learners in my own school context – they are limited in the sense that the only exposure they have to English is in the classroom; thus, one can argue that they will also struggle to achieve English academic proficiency.

Crucial to the academic development of the learner is the teacher's language awareness and ability to use and manipulate the language. Teachers need to be

proficient in English in order to facilitate learning and improve academic proficiency. Cases where the teacher struggles with the LOLT (as it might be in the case in some rural schools) and where the LOLT is the learner's second or third language are a recipe for disaster, as there is a high possibility that learners might not achieve an acceptable level of academic proficiency.

For MacSwan and Rolstad (2003:329), the BICS/CALP distinction is problematic as they are of the opinion that the distinction confuses language ability and academic achievements and does not take into account the crucial differences between first and second language development. MacSwan and Rolstad (2003:336) draw attention to the natural ability to acquire a first language as opposed to acquiring a second language, which materialises only with effort and purposely-structured input. The authors elucidate that second language speakers develop incomplete awareness of the structure of their target language, demonstrate considerable errors with the grammar and language of the target language and only achieve limited success with speech acquisition. Therefore, they recommend that language proficiency must differentiate between language ability and academic achievement. Similarly, Bylund (2011:4) interprets CALP as the language skills that allow an individual to process and make meaning of language depending on situational clues, which is the language required for meaningful engagement in most academic tasks.

This concurs with my discussion in section 2.8.2 on English as the preferred LOLT for many South African learners. Unfortunately, as discussed in section 2.8.3, many additional language learners are not considered academically proficient in English. Moreover, as discussed in section 1.2, learners might not be academically proficient at Grade 10 level, which implies that they do not have the language skills needed for meaningful engagement in most academic tasks.

This means that English second language learners who use English as LOLT must master academic content at the same time as learning the LOLT. CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:8-9) suggests that teachers provide support for these learners whilst teaching the curriculum in order for learners to use their additional language for tertiary education and the world of work. However, CAPS does not spell

out what kind of support that must be given to these learners and the teacher is left with an additional burden to teach these learners the competencies (that they should have acquired already, but could not) needed for academic learning at the same time as teaching the full curriculum. The question remains: How does one teach learners the skills (that they should have acquired already) that are essential for continuance of learning the curriculum? One must bear in mind that the proficiency skills that these learners are lacking are vital for them to make meaning of the academic content presented to them in the classroom setting.

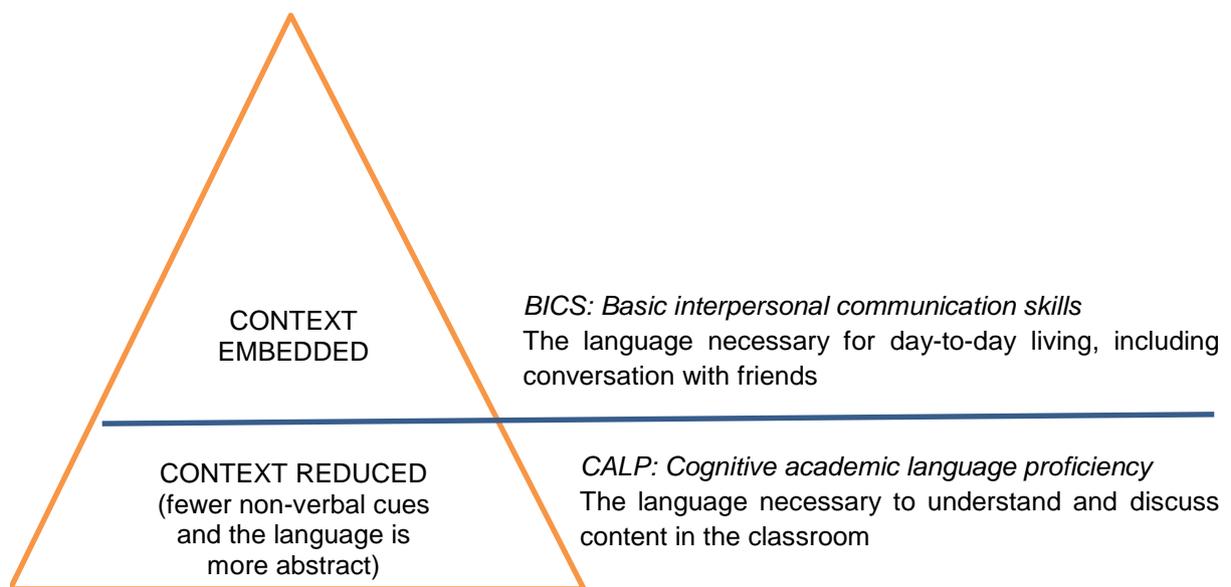


Figure 3: Cummins' iceberg theory

Roessingh (2006:92) indicates that BICS may only represent 10% of the overall proficiency of an academically proficient learner. She is of the opinion that BICS can be acquired in two years, whereas CALP takes much longer to develop. In addition, the vocabulary deficit of ESL learners plays an enormous role in their academic progress. Roessingh (2006:92) explains Cummins' notion of BICS/CALP with an iceberg metaphor as illustrated above. BICS is represented above the surface and CALP is denoted below the surface of the iceberg.

3.3.2 Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency in the South African Context

A learner who has developed CALP has the ability and skills to use complex language and formal register when giving facts precisely and objectively. The question is: Can the poor performance in the National Senior Certificate (NSC) language examinations, ANAs, systemic tests as well as the Progress in International Reading and Literacy Study be the result of the LOLT situation in South Africa, where many learners are taught in a language other than their home language? Moreover, is this the reason why learners find it difficult to develop CALP?

Although the dawn of democracy in South Africa promised equality to all, in reality there is a vast difference between the haves and the have-nots. Financially strong schools and families can offer children more opportunities to develop academically. The support that learners enjoy influences their academic performance, and the experiences and opportunities offered by these schools and middle-class parents are advantageous (MacSwan & Rolstad, 2003). Learners from disadvantaged communities, like the learners whom I teach, have limited opportunities for academic growth.

Subsequently, I can identify with MacSwan and Rolstad (2003), who believe that the BICS/CALP distinction reflects an autonomous perspective on language use and ignores the location of the student in social practices, as well as the power relations that exist in the students' lives. I concur with MacSwan and Rolstad (2003:229) that the BICS/CALP distinction confounds language ability and achievement and does not take into account the crucial differences between first and second language development. In the community where I teach, the academic proficiency levels of the EHL language learner (see discussion in section 2.8.3) are low. In general, learners have achieved BICS in their LOLT, but they have not fully developed CALP in the LOLT because of social and economic circumstances beyond their control. The same applies to Afrikaans HL learners. MacSwan and Rolstad (2003:229-230) refer to a concept called second language instructional competence, discussed in the next section, which defines the stage of second language development at which the learner

is able to understand instruction and perform grade-level school activities, using the second language alone, in the local educational context.

The success of a school is also dependent on its educators and leadership. Teachers and policymakers frequently integrate second language conversational fluency and academic proficiency, which creates academic difficulties for students learning English as an additional language. The assumption that students have overcome all difficulties when they can converse in English has often led to the incorrect placement of bilingual speakers (Cummins, 2008).

In Chapter 2, I discussed the role and history of English, and the degree to which it may stand in the way of learners' schooling and academic development. Clearly, the development of English language proficiency is incredibly important to help deliver competent and fluent users of the language for the workplace, further and higher education and international collaboration. As shown in this section, approaches to developing learners' proficiency so that they can study successfully have a number of theoretical and practical weaknesses. In the next section, I discuss the CLIL approach to consider its possibilities for English language learning and teaching in South Africa.

3.4 Content and Language Integrated Learning vs Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach vs Immersion Programmes

The problem of teaching a language while teaching academic content has been approached in a variety of ways, often in situations where learners are recent immigrants who need to learn the language of the school and society as soon as possible. In this section, CLIL, CALLA and immersion programmes are distinguished as the main approaches that have been developed to address this problem. Similarities and differences between these approaches to second language teaching must be acknowledged by South African policymakers in order to address the medium of instruction dilemma, as discussed in section 2.8.

CLIL, which is discussed in depth in section 3.5, refers to a teaching methodology where students learn one or more of their subjects in the target language, which is an

additional language. This means that, in CLIL, the content of the subject and the language are taught at the same time, which means that learners are exposed to and being taught the second language while they study their content subjects.

Building on the distinction between BICS and CALP, Chamot and O'Malley (1987) developed an instructional programme in the United States of America for LEP students who encountered severe difficulties with the academic programme and who were unable to do grade-level work in content areas even though their oral ability was judged as proficient (Chamot & O'Malley, 1986:5). This approach, CALLA, is discussed as an example of how the concept of CALP can be operationalised.

CALLA combines English language development, content-based ESL and learning strategies derived from a cognitive model of learning as aids to comprehension and retention of concepts in the content area. CALLA is aimed at:

- students who have developed social communicative skills but have not yet developed grade-appropriate academic language skills;
- students exiting bilingual programmes but who need assistance in transferring concepts and skills learned in their native language to English; and
- students who have limited academic proficiency and who are in need of developing their academic English skills (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987:229).

Chamot and O'Malley (1986:6) believe that CALLA can help high school learners to meet the minimum competency goals by showing them ways to approach the academically demanding activities in which they will need to demonstrate competence.

Chamot and O'Malley (1986:6) describe CALLA as follows:

A programme, a curriculum and an instructional approach that is transitional that follows an ESL instruction and preceding the mainstream programme. CALLA prepares LEP students for success in the mainstream by using English as a tool for learning other subject matters. CALLA is not an immersion programme, and it does not substitute for either the ESL or the mainstream programme. CALLA is a content-based curriculum designed to

prepare upper elementary and secondary LEP students for a transition to the mainstream subject areas of mathematics, science, and social studies. CALLA does not teach language in isolation, it focusses on the literacy skills needed to read for information and it developed the skills to write expository reports. The CALLA instructional approach is a cognitive one that develops students' ability to use effective learning strategies for both language and content-area tasks.

Although CALLA programmes generally aim to prepare learners to become proficient in communicative English, they do not focus on the development of the English language skills needed in content-area subjects, such as science, mathematics and social studies. Learners are expected to have mastered reading skills, listening for new information, speaking and writing skills to express understanding of new concepts, mathematical skills to solve problems, and skills to apply effective strategies for learning across the curriculum before they can be mainstreamed in an English curriculum class (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987:228). English as a tool for learning a subject entails additional language demands and language proficiency that focus on academic competence instead of communicative competence, hence the difficulty of LEP learners to cope with the academic programme.

CALLA, an approach based on the cognitive learning theory, prepares LEP students to function successfully in a classroom where English is the LOLT for all subject areas, by teaching vocabulary, structures and functions and using concepts drawn from content areas. Students are taught to use learning derived from a cognitive model of learning strategies to comprehend, remember and retain language skills and concepts in the content areas.

Immersion programmes are generally less focused on the language learning aspect. They are organised and planned forms of bilingual education in which learners are immersed in a second language instructional environment with the goal of developing proficiency in another language by being exposed to it. The classroom instruction is through the learner's second or third language. The amount of support to learners varies as specialist language teachers provide support to learners to acquire

proficiency in the language in some cases, while in other cases learners are left to “sink or swim”.

Swain and Lapkin (2005:172) discuss the following core features of immersion programmes, as identified by Swain and Johnson in 1997:

- The second language is the medium of instruction.
- The immersion curriculum parallels the first language curriculum.
- Overt support exists for the first language.
- The programme aims for additive bilingualism.
- Exposure to the second language is confined to the classroom.
- Students enter with similar and limited levels of second language proficiency.
- The teachers are bilingual.
- The classroom culture is that of the local first language community.

As discussed in sections 1.2 and 2.8.3, it is clear that the South African classroom situation displays strong similarities to the features of immersion education as mentioned in this section. The South African learners are assumed to have a strong command of the second language (Kaiser et al., 2010:52; Department of Basic Education, 2011b:8) and are expected to learn through their second language without any focused scaffolding or additional language lessons. Kaiser et al. (2010:52-53) refer to the advocates of home language education who argue that second language medium of instruction is the reason for poor academic achievements, lack of functional literacy, high dropout numbers and a general loss of cultural pride.

Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) expound on the differences and the similarities between CLIL and immersion programmes. In essence, both CLIL and immersion programmes are communicative approaches with the objective for learners to be taught a new language and to become proficient in that language. In both cases, teachers are expected to be proficient in both the target language and the home language of the learner.

There are, however, fundamental differences between CLIL and immersion programmes that are worth mentioning. The LOLT for immersion programmes is

present in the learner's context whereas, in CLIL, the LOLT is a foreign language that most learners only have contact with in formal contexts. Therefore, learners in immersion programmes have more exposure to the target language outside the classroom than their peers in CLIL programmes. Most immersion teachers are native speakers of the target language and have formal training in the particular target language, as opposed to the shortage of formal training opportunities for teachers in CLIL. Learners are enrolled in immersion programmes at a very early stage in their development, as opposed to CLIL, which attempts to develop the language skills of students who have had traditional language teaching throughout their primary education. Teaching materials used in immersion programmes are aimed at native speakers, whereas CLIL teachers use abridged materials.

To summarise, CALLA is a bridging programme that leads to mainstream classes, rather than a mainstream teaching approach that substitutes mainstream content-area instruction. In South Africa, such a model, whereby learners get separate instruction and are supported for a while before they join mainstream classes, would mean that most learners would have to be in such a bridging programme. Immersion programmes, which are meant to be mainstream, assume the continued development of learners' home languages and comprehensive exposure to the target LOLT outside the classroom. For these and the other reasons mentioned in this section, neither CALLA nor immersion programmes are suitable for teaching English in the South African context. However, CLIL may offer more possibilities and is discussed next as a possible alternative for South African schools.

3.5 Content and Language Integrated Learning

This section looks at a description and the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL. Poland, Spain and the Netherlands are chosen as examples of CLIL implementation as multilingualism must be promoted in all of these countries for various reasons. Each country has seen the successful implementation of different models of CLIL, as discussed later.

3.5.1 Delineation of Content and Language Integrated Learning

CLIL is a European platform for an innovative methodological approach of far broader scope than target language teaching. Accordingly, its advocates stress how it seeks to develop proficiency in both the non-language subject and the language in which this is taught, attaching the same importance to each (Eurydice, 2006:7).

In the quest to achieve multilingualism of its citizens, the European Commission in 1995 focused on the importance of innovative ideas and the most effective practices for helping all European citizens to become proficient in three European languages. Legislation regarding European cooperation in CLIL, the 1995 Resolution of the Council, refers to the promotion of innovative methods and, in particular, to teaching of classes in a foreign language for disciplines other than languages, thus promoting bilingual teaching. Coyle, Holmes and King (2009:6) refer to CLIL as a pedagogic approach in which language and subject area content are learnt in combination, and where the language is used as a tool to develop new learning from a subject area or theme.

CLIL takes different forms in different schools or countries. However, the objective of CLIL remains the same – it is meant to increase multilingualism and to address the difficulty of foreign language teaching. Banegas (2012:46) states that CLIL creates the expectation that the deficiencies in foreign language teaching can be overcome to meet socio-economic needs. Harrop (2012:67) concludes that, although there is increasing evidence that CLIL leads to a higher level of linguistic proficiency and heightened motivation, and despite the fact that it suits learners of different abilities and affords a unique opportunity to prepare learners for global citizenship, the limitations of CLIL, as described in the previous section, cannot be ignored.

In CLIL, the content of the subject and the language are taught at the same time, which means that learners are exposed to and being taught the second language while they are studying their content subjects. Harrop (2012:57) expounds on the two features of CLIL, which are that the language and content are integrated and are of equal

importance, and that the flexibility of CLIL allows it to accommodate a wide range of socio-political and cultural realities in the European context.

As justification for CLIL implementation, Coyle et al. (2009:11) state that learners often perceive languages to be difficult, unenjoyable and irrelevant, and their lack of confidence in their language capability often creates negative attitudes that influence their subject choices. The authors are confident that effective CLIL methodology can extend the role of language across the curriculum, as well as improve teacher and learner motivation and raise the quality of teaching and learning.

Marsh (2000:3) thinks that CLIL offers a natural way for learners of any age to acquire content-specific language, as it builds on other forms of learning. The author upholds the belief that CLIL offers many opportunities for learners to practise what they have learnt (Marsh, 2000:7) and offers all learners, irrespective of social and economic positioning, an opportunity to dismantle the legacies of the past and to acquire and learn additional languages in a meaningful way (Marsh, 2000:9). Marsh also refers to the notions that CLIL promotes linguistic competence and modifies learners' conceptualisation or the way that they think. He explains that, if they have the ability to think in different languages, their understanding of the concepts is enriched, which helps to broaden conceptual mapping resources. CLIL shifts the attention to the learning activity and not the language; therefore, it provides learners the opportunity to think in the target language and not just learn in the language (Marsh, 2000:8). Coyle et al. (2009:6), who consider CLIL a comprehensive teaching methodology that can be adapted to a variety of teaching models, as well as learners' age, ability, needs and interests, support this view. CLIL implementation aims for greater language competence and aims to adapt existing teaching methods to improve academic language proficiency in content subjects.

3.5.2 Theoretical Underpinnings of Content and Language Integrated Learning

The core elements of CLIL theory are content, language, integration and learning. The White Paper on Education (Eurydice, 2006) argues that contact with other languages makes it easier to become proficient in one's home language. Eurydice (2006) finds

CLIL to live up to that expectation, as it improves overall target language competence and raises awareness of both home language and target language while encouraging learners to develop pluri-lingual interests and attitudes.

This is echoed by Dalton-Puffer (2008:4), who finds that CLIL learners achieve higher levels of success and competence in the additional language than in conventional foreign language classes. Darn (2006) reports that students can use knowledge learned in one context as a knowledge base in other contexts. Darn finds that interdisciplinary or cross-curricular teaching helps learners to apply, integrate and transfer knowledge, fosters critical thinking and can increase students' motivation for learning. Learners see the value of what they are learning and become more actively engaged in the learning process. As the CLIL learner retains a larger vocabulary, the learners are also considered to be more confident when using the foreign language.

3.5.3 Pedagogic Principles in Content and Language Integrated Learning

Research done by Cross and Gearon (2013) indicates that CLIL is guided by the following six rational pedagogic principles:

1. Learners construct their own knowledge and develop skills that are relevant and appropriate.
2. Learners acquire knowledge and skills that involve learning and thinking.
3. Learners need to do thinking that requires analysis to facilitate development.
4. Language should be learnt in context – it requires the reconstruction of the subject matter or themes in cognitive processes in the second language.
5. Learners receive opportunities for exploratory talk. Here, learners have a chance to think things through and create their own meaning.
6. There is a complex interrelationship between culture and language.

These principles link with the 4 Cs conceptual framework in CLIL, as discussed next.

3.5.4 The 4 Cs in Content and Language Integrated Learning

The 4 Cs in CLIL: content, communication, cognition and culture (see Figure 4 below), make up a conceptual framework that links with the guiding principles upon which a CLIL lesson can be built (Coyle et al., 2009). The principle of acquiring knowledge links with content. Constructing knowledge and developing thinking skills link with the cognition. Interaction and exploratory talk link with communication. Finally, the interrelationship between culture and language principle links with culture. The 4 Cs constitute a way to ensure that all the elements of CLIL are connected.

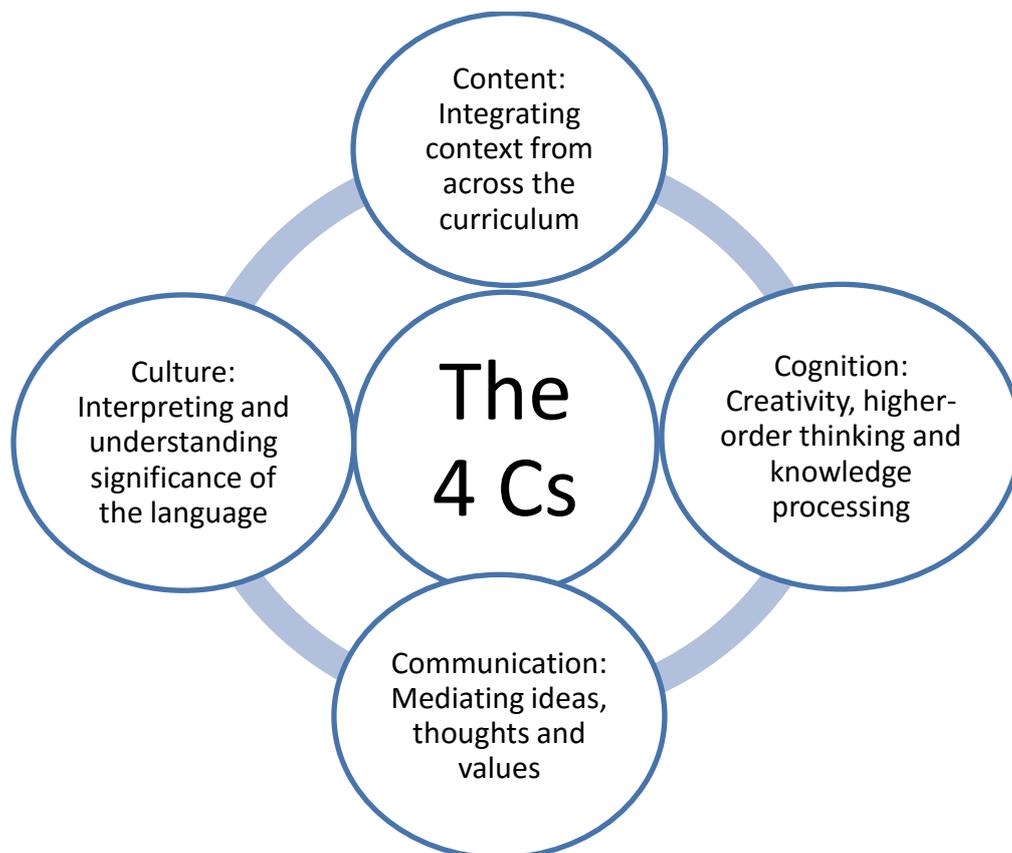


Figure 4: The 4 Cs Framework in CLIL

The 4 Cs can be outlined individually, but they are connected and integrated with each other. When planning a CLIL lesson, the first step is to consider the content. The teacher must consider suitability, assessment and progression when choosing the content. Guillamòn-Suesta and Renau (2015) refer to content as the individual acquisition of knowledge, understanding and development of skills in a specific content subject. Content is about acquiring knowledge and skills, as well as about learners

creating their own knowledge and understanding; thus, it provides a suitable platform for personalised learning (Coyle et al., 2009:14).

The second step is to connect the content and cognition. The aim is that the cognitive level of CLIL connects with the learners' own development. The teacher needs to analyse and select the thinking skills, problem-solving and creativity that connect with the content. In this way, learners learn to use the language and use the language for learning. In CLIL, learners must be challenged and must be allowed to construct their own meaning. Cognition can be summarised as engaging in higher-order thinking and understanding, problem-solving, and accepting and reflecting on challenges. Learners must be challenged to create new knowledge and develop new skills through reflection and engagement in higher-order as well as lower-order thinking. Individual learners must be allowed to construct their own understanding and be challenged.

The third step, communication, involves defining language learning and usage, and is regarded as the most detailed stage in the planning phase as it involves careful analysis of the different elements of CLIL as suggested in the 4 Cs framework. This step links the content and cognitive demands with communication. Teachers need to be aware of the different types of language that is being used for different situations. Language must be used for conceptual understanding of the content, and at this stage, grammar is addressed through the content demands. The language for learning is regarded as the most important element, as it refers to the language the learners need to operate in a learning environment where the language medium is not their first language. New language emerges through learning, and the development of knowledge, skills and understanding leads to new language. As language is linked to cognitive processes, teachers need to encourage learners to articulate their understanding, which in turn advances new learning.

The fourth step, culture, refers to the development of cultural awareness and opportunities that infuse through the other Cs. It is regarded as a key player in plurilingualism and pluri-culturalism. The CLIL teacher needs to investigate means through which learners of different languages and cultures can learn and share their experiences with each other. Culture can be understood as awareness of the self and

other, identity, citizenship and progression towards a pluri-cultural understanding. Learners need to be tolerant and show understanding for otherness. Coyle et al. (2009:14) state that this approach helps learners to redefine the familiar offering of multi-perspectives and to develop knowledge and understanding of issues of global relevance.

3.5.5 Towards successful implementation of CLIL

CLIL advocates learning content through the means of the second or additional language. It is not required of CLIL learners to be proficient in the second language. In the CLIL classroom, the teacher needs to find innovative ways for the learners to understand the content that is being taught, since learners are not proficient in the LOLT in the classroom. Learners are taught to work independently and in a team to learn and to discover new ideas. All of this happens through the medium of the additional language. Meyer (2010:13) stresses that classroom material should be meaningful, challenging and authentic. Topics should be presented in such a way that the effective filters of the students remain wide open and so that students can link new input to prior knowledge, experiences and attitudes. In addition, Vázquez and Ellison (2013:72) suggest that the CLIL classroom be transformed from instructional class to participatory class, with teacher and student interaction as well as interaction amongst peers through cooperative and collaborative work.

CLIL classrooms must be print rich and CLIL material must engage with a wide range of media, because the aim of CLIL is that learners make meaningful experiences by making connections with other areas of the curriculum (Coyle et al., 2009:20).

3.5.6 Language in the CLIL Class Versus Language in the Language Class

Montalto et al. (2016:9) reiterate that CLIL teachers do not teach BICS, nor do they teach the language that is normally found in a language class. The language taught in the CLIL class is different to the normal language lesson in the sense that there is no set grammar or syntax curriculum and development, and language is taught in context of the subject taught. In other words, the subject teacher focuses on the language that

is relevant to the content lesson, while the language teacher uses the content as a vehicle for introducing language. Language is a tool for communicating within the framework of the content.

The aim is to communicate and not to merely learn the grammar and syntax of a language. Montalto et al. (2016:9) describe the language taught in the CLIL classroom as language associated with CALP. It can be divided into three categories:

1. Content-specific vocabulary, where learners need to know the vocabulary for the topic that they are learning. Here, they also learn the grammar needed for the subject. Coyle et al. (2009:14) state that learners are exposed to a wide range of unedited resources at an appropriate level, which promotes linguistic progression.
2. Functional language that learners need to know to carry out activities during the lesson. This language learning strategy supports learners in working out the meaning of what they hear and read. Key words, high frequency structures and using prior knowledge to predict content are part of this strategy (Coyle et al., 2009:14).
3. The third category Montalto et al. (2016:9) refer to is the language that helps learners organise their thoughts and solve problems.

3.5.7 Benefits of Content and Language Integrated Learning

Various educationalists (Coyle et al., 2009; Cross & Gearon, 2013; Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Darn, 2006; Guillaumon-Suesta & Renau, 2015; Harrop, 2012; Vázquez & Ellison, 2013) concur that CLIL has significant benefits (linguistic, social and academic) for the learner. CLIL is known to increase learners' motivation, knowledge and competence in the foreign language, and to improve the quality of teaching and learning in doing so.

It is generally believed that learners benefit more from CLIL class streams than non-CLIL classes. In CLIL classes, the language and content are taught and learned together in a dual-focused classroom context. The CLIL classroom provides an even playing field in the classroom. All learners are seen as equal as they are taught through

one common language, which is not their HL. Learners' exposure to the foreign language and their interaction with their peers improves their knowledge and understanding of the language and the culture while they are gaining subject knowledge.

3.5.7.1 Learner Motivation

Darn (2006:2) and Harrop (2012:61-62) argue that CLIL increases students' motivation for learning when they become more actively engaged, and for Darn, these are the conditions under which effective learning occurs. Students learn more when they use language skills to explore, to write and to speak about what they are learning. This view is supported by Harrop (2012:58), who concludes that CLIL boosts learners' motivation as it provides a more naturalistic environment that reinforces language acquisition and learning, and thus leads to greater academic proficiency in learners of all abilities.

It seems that CLIL has a positive influence on learners' attitude towards their academic work, as Dalton-Puffer (2008:4-7) claims that CLIL learners are strong, positive, assertive, focused and more confident than their peers in immersion classes. Dalton-Puffer (2011:188) indicates that CLIL learners work more persistently on tasks and show higher tolerance for frustration than their peers, while their spontaneity when using the foreign language allows them to feel more secure in what they say, as it will not be mistaken for their personal voice.

3.5.7.2 Language Proficiency

As indicated by Harrop (2012:59) and Guillaumon Suesta and Renau (2015:7-8), CLIL learners display a higher level of proficiency and communicative competence than their peers in non-CLIL classes. Harrop points out CLIL students outperform their peers in listening and reading comprehension, fluency and vocabulary. CLIL learners are deemed to be more competent in language, display a higher degree of accuracy in spelling and verb tense, and possess larger vocabularies of technical and semi-

technical terms of possible academic nature. Therefore, they can reach higher levels of second language proficiency than conventional foreign language learners.

Language benefits portrayed by CLIL learners are higher oral fluency proficiency and enhanced communicative competence, improved listening and reading comprehension, improved fluency, and increased range of vocabulary (Dalton-Puffer, 2008:4-6; Guillaumon-Suesta & Renau, 2015:7-8; Harrop, 2012:59). Learners possess a larger vocabulary of technical and semi-technical terms, as well as general academic language. In general, CLIL learners are found to have stronger reading habits, which would then put them in a better position to develop academic proficiency in the target language than their counterparts in non-CLIL classes.

When encountering linguistic problems, the CLIL learner intensifies mental construction activity so that deeper semantic processing and better understanding of curricular concepts can occur (Dalton-Puffer, 2008:4). CLIL students switch to their HL when a conceptual problem has occurred. Dalton-Puffer (2011:187) comments on CLIL students' flexibility, their listener-orientedness and their self-assuredness in conveying their intended meanings. Some learners believe that CLIL helps them to concentrate more in class, thus building their confidence, widening their skills base and making them feel ahead of the game in terms of life skills.

3.5.7.3 Cross-Curricular Benefits

Darn (2006:2) explains that CLIL has its foundation in interdisciplinary or cross-curricular teaching, which provides a meaningful way for students to use knowledge learned in one context as a knowledge base in other contexts. This fosters critical thinking, and helps learners to apply and integrate learning and transfer knowledge. Since CLIL integrates language with content, it promotes the development of cross-curricular skills through a focus on enquiry, information processing and problem-solving. This view is supported by Coyle et al. (2009:7, 14), who point out that CLIL promotes the development of cross-curricular skills through a focus on enquiry, information processing and problem-solving, and extends the role of language across the curriculum. Learners develop skills across the curriculum, which enables them to

transfer knowledge across the curriculum. This means that important concepts, strategies and skills taught in the language can be transferred to other content areas.

3.5.7.4 Social Benefits

Because all learners in the CLIL classroom use a LOLT other than their home language, all learners are regarded as equal. This presents an opportunity to promote tolerance for each other's differences in terms of language and culture, thus promoting intercultural relations amongst learners. It is widely agreed that CLIL in general prepares learners for the global world and develops overall communication skills, and researchers agree that CLIL promotes intercultural awareness. Cross and Gearon (2013:17) find that CLIL students demonstrate higher levels of intercultural competence, sensitivity and positive attitudes towards other cultures. This coincides with Coyle et al.'s (2009:9, 14) belief that CLIL makes a valuable contribution to personal and cultural development when reflecting on different cultures, traditions, values and behaviours. These authors further state that CLIL provides a platform to challenge ideas and foster a human rights perspective on individual roles and responsibilities, as well as preparing learners for global citizenship. This argument is strengthened by Harrop (2012:66-67), who finds that CLIL in English has a greater potential to develop intercultural awareness than CLIL in other languages. With the need for preparing learners for international citizens, Harrop (2012:67) finds this element of CLIL an extremely valuable.

3.5.7.5 Foster Multilingualism

Harrop (2012:59) suggests that CLIL is an efficient way of encouraging multilingualism, as it provides more opportunities for learners to practise their learnings in the language and the content classroom. This is because it offers more exposure to the foreign language or the second language without using extra time for the curriculum. Cross and Gearon (2013:17) find that CLIL students are more engaged in second language learning and do better on tests of second language competence compared to students in regular second language programmes. This strengthens learners' competence in the second language.

As discussed above, various researchers (Barbero, 2012; Cross & Gearon, 2013; Dalton-Puffer (2008, 2011; Harrop, 2012) agree that CLIL learners achieve better results than their peers who are in non-CLIL classes.

3.5.8 The Content and Language Integrated Learning Teacher

The general purpose of education is to transfer knowledge and to develop learner skills. CLIL is no different. The CLIL teacher must have subject knowledge, the ability to use the foreign language for communicative purposes, as well as the capacity to promote the academic language of the content matter through the medium of a foreign language. CLIL teachers must also be able to help learners to develop the skills to learn in the foreign language and to manage the classroom in order for learning to take place. Novotná and Hofmannová (2005) identified the following teacher competencies that would allow the teacher to achieve the above educational goals: language/communication-based competencies, methodology-based competencies and class management competencies. This is in agreement with Vázquez and Ellison (2013:75) and Milne, Llinares and Morton (2010:14), who identify and discuss eight areas of competencies needed for CLIL teachers to achieve their educational goals, namely, learner needs, planning, multi-modality, interaction, subject literacies, evaluation, cooperation and reflection, and context and culture.

A key duty of any teacher is effective classroom management. Learning needs to take place and learners need to be motivated. In a classroom environment where the LOLT is not the HL of the learners, effective classroom management can be a very daunting task. Therefore, it is a prerequisite for the CLIL teacher to have the skills and ability to decide on appropriate teaching and learning strategies, which would enable learners to learn the language and the content at the same time. Novotná and Hofmannová (2005) think it important that qualified CLIL teachers should have the skill to decide on the appropriate teaching methodology and classroom management relevant for particular learning opportunities. Teachers should also be in a position to identify and address hindrances that might have a negative effect on teaching and learning in the CLIL classroom.

To keep learners captivated and motivated, Novotná and Hofmannová (2005) point out the importance of time management in the classroom for the successful implementation of CLIL. Furthermore, Milne et al. (2010:16) reiterate that CLIL teachers need to be dedicated to curriculum planning and must be aware of the options for focusing on language forms. CLIL teachers need to appreciate the role of language in developing understanding, and they need to understand that learning goes hand in hand with using language for different purposes. CLIL teachers need to know how negotiating meaning can support language and content learning and how contingent scaffolding supports CLIL. CLIL teachers need to create opportunities for interaction involving negotiating meaning and to identify key features of contingent scaffolding that supports CLIL.

The importance of teamwork cannot be underestimated, as the success of CLIL depends on it. This is echoed by Coyle et al. (2009:16), who state that CLIL supports teamwork and gives creative opportunities for interpreting the new curriculum according to the needs of individual schools and learners.

3.5.9 Challenges in the Implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning

CLIL is a fairly new approach to second language teaching and, as with any educational approach or method, it has its challenges, as discussed in this section.

3.5.9.1 Misinterpretation of the Topic

If learners have a low level of proficiency in English, their knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary is most likely limited and, as a result, their understanding of the content taught will be limited. Consequently, a worrying fact is that CLIL learners might misinterpret the content that they are being taught because they simply do not have the skills, language ability and vocabulary to comprehend the content. Floimayr (2010:26) identifies content-related misunderstandings as a possible problem in CLIL material.

The misinterpretation of the topic is a reality that is identified by Guillaumon-Suesta and Renau (2015:7-8), who determined that both content and language teachers believed that lack of awareness of technical terms in the students' own language and the low proficiency level of both the learners and the teachers may lead to no acquisition of the content.

3.5.9.2 Shortage of Trained Teachers in Content and Language Integrated Learning

Since CLIL has a relatively short history as a teaching methodology, it is understandable that there would be a shortage of teachers trained in it. A situation could arise that a teacher could end up teaching a subject or a language for which he/she is not trained. Teachers have difficulties with the process of content and language integration, the coordination of disciplinary and language teachers, the development of specifically-designed CLIL material, and the lack of a comprehensive language programme which would set goals and tasks for all languages and areas in the curriculum (Lorenzo, 2013).

Formal training in CLIL is virtually non-existent; teachers interested in integrating language and content can attend short-term courses as a part of their in-service training only. This is an area of concern that is echoed by various researchers. Czura and Papaja (2013), Vázquez and Ellison (2013), and Banegas (2012) claim that only a small number of teachers have formal qualifications to teach both the content and the language subject, and the majority of content teachers have no education in second language methodology. In his discussion on the challenges of CLIL implementation, Banegas (2012:47) sees the lack of knowledge and of awareness amongst the administrators of CLIL as problematic and an area of concern.

The lack of formal training in CLIL compromises teachers' identity – whether they are language or content teachers – which could result in teachers not being clear on their role in the classroom. Banegas (2012:47) mentions that teaching practices could improve if teachers improved their own understanding of English. If teachers are

competent in English, they can summarise the content in the foreign language that has been explained in the HL, which could enhance teaching.

Teaching could be compromised by content teachers spending too much time on providing linguistic explanations to learners, resulting in the lesson becoming a language lesson. Language teachers, on the other hand, could feel that they bear the responsibility for transmitting academic content. They could also feel redundant or that their role in the CLIL class is secondary. Current teachers have to be retrained if a school decides to implement CLIL. The lack of teacher supply in CLIL classes constrains the implementation process.

Guillamòn-Suesta and Renau (2015:8) found that content teachers were not confident or prepared to perform a class in the foreign language. Teachers admitted that they were sometimes not methodologically prepared to teach English, showing that content teachers' insecurities may lead to a deceleration of the rhythm of the course. Content teachers agreed that the absence of adapted materials was a disadvantage to the implementation of CLIL. Language teachers, on the other hand, admitted that excessive focus on linguistic components was detrimental to content acquisition.

3.5.9.3 Support of Senior Management

Coyle et al. (2009:16-17) refer to the time factor as well the availability of staff. CLIL teachers need to invest time in rethinking how they will teach through a foreign language. The authors emphasise that CLIL is not a teaching method that can be operated on its own – it needs the full support of the senior management. If the support is not there, implementation of CLIL can be problematic. In addition, it can be a costly exercise if teachers have to be retrained in CLIL.

3.5.9.4 Management of Content and Language Integrated Learning in Class

Vázquez and Ellison (2013:71) document two main problems that could arise in the CLIL class. Firstly, the lack of a high level of competence in the language could lead to compensatory tactics, whereby lessons conducted in the second language become

those that simply summarise content which has already been explained in the HL. Secondly, content teachers, in a quest to help their learners' understanding of the language, could spend more time on linguistic explanations and turn their content lesson into a language lesson. Similarly, the language teacher could summarise content matter that was already explained in the HL and spend more time on language instruction. Likewise, Guillaumon-Suesta and Renau (2015:6-7) found that, from teachers' point of view, the vocabulary of the subjects and the expressions required for classroom interaction; the structures and terms to explain, summarise and solve doubts; and the low levels of English competence of learners were some of the main difficulties that they experienced in the CLIL class.

Riera and Romero (2010) indicate that the interference of the HL on the foreign language brings about syntactic and semantic calques. The position of the adverbial phrases within the sentence and the dropping of the compulsory subject, followed by the formation of questions, are responsible for most of the calques. The erroneous construction of reported questions and sentences with duplicated subjects are also present.

Insufficient knowledge of the foreign language on the part of the teachers (who have also been learners of that language) with their HL acting as a direct cause of erroneous performance indicates that there may be a need to assist CLIL teachers with the tools and resources to facilitate their foreign language production with less HL interference.

Banegas (2012:48) discusses with concern national academic subject examinations that only assess content. This creates a gap in the system as educational processes have one set of aims and the examinations are guided by another. Consequently, Banegas suggests that there is a need to do adequate research in classroom practice.

Banegas (2012:48) further mentions with concern that, in many cases, an elitist group of learners occupies the CLIL classroom, where the best learners from the mainstream classes are placed in a CLIL class. This means that research may be skewed, as learners in CLIL classes have already obtained adequate levels of academic performance.

3.5.9.5 Learning and Teacher Support Material

The success of the CLIL programme is dependent on the teaching material available. Since teachers are reluctant to work as a team, the sharing and the development of teaching material is problematic. Teaching materials should also be learner-centred and should reflect the learners' reality. Various researchers have found that suitable teaching materials remain a constraint in the successful implementation of the CLIL teaching strategy. This is resonated by Guillamòn-Suesta and Renau (2015:7), who conclude that the elaboration of customised materials and the implementation of appropriate teaching methodologies are difficulties experienced in a CLIL class.

Banegas (2012:48) refers to the limited availability of suitable published teaching materials, which interferes with the implementation of CLIL. Harrop (2012:58) finds that teachers find it difficult to source teaching materials, while Czura and Papaja (2013) claim that teachers in Poland are forced to develop and source their own teaching materials, or they rely on textbooks in the target language. This is echoed by Banegas (2012:48), who is of the opinion that the lack of resources places more pressure on the CLIL teacher because of the greater workload.

CLIL textbooks are constricted and do not offer adequate explanations in the HL, nor do they give sufficient language support. Therefore, these textbooks do not support the CLIL teaching methodology. The deficient language support and communicative and interactive activities make it difficult to create an environment where oral communication takes place, learners respond to input and learners learn from each other. Furthermore, the lack of sufficient summaries or translations the HL creates room for misinterpretation of the content. Floimayr (2010) suggests that CLIL textbooks should provide appropriate and sufficient HL language support, which would then reduce the fear of the foreign language and consequently develop learning in the CLIL classroom.

3.5.10 Assessment in Content and Language Integrated Learning

In any learning environment, it can be assumed that lack of language proficiency could prevent learners from successfully demonstrating what they have learnt, which might be a disadvantage to them when they are assessed. Kiely (s.a.) describes assessment in CLIL as complicated because the assessment must cover both language and content, which Kiely identifies as a major challenge for CLIL organisation at school and curriculum level. The issue, as Kiely explains, is the extent to which the assessments in language and content are integrated. Similarly, Barbero (2012:40) asks “what to assess” when assessing in CLIL. Teachers must first determine whether the assessment will assess the content, or language and content separately. Learners and teachers must be clear on the purpose of the assessment and the assessment tools that will be used. It could be challenging to decide which assessment tools are most appropriate for measuring performance in subjects learned in the foreign language.

Kiely (s.a.) perceives it as a challenge for CLIL teachers to engage with assessment in two fields, namely, subject and language. CLIL teachers need to determine what learners can do with support before they can assess what learners can do without it. Therefore, Barbero (2012:41) recommends that specific strategies of scaffolding be applied to ensure that learners understand what is expected from them. Barbero (2012:39) refers to three main concepts associated with assessment that are of importance, namely, assessment for learning, assessment as learning and assessment of learning.

Assessment for learning or formative assessment aims to inform the planning of future learning and teaching. Barbero (2012:39) describes this assessment as planned, reactive and reciprocal, and this assessment refers to those assessment tasks and activities where a learner’s attitude, habits, skills and knowledge are gathered over a period of time. These activities are then analysed with the aim to inform the teaching and learning, with the objectives of improving teaching practices and expanding learning opportunities. Formative assessment intends to encourage learner and teacher independence. Specific assessment tools, which Barbero (2012:39) reiterates

must comply with the criteria of reliability and validity, are used in formative assessment to provide feedback to both teacher and learner which can be used to improve their teaching and learning practices. Formative assessment could support CLIL in the sense that it encourages the development of both content and language. As Kiely (s.a.) points out, the valuable feedback from the assessment for learning must be used as feedback to modify teaching and learning activities that will enable teachers and learners to identify and address challenges.

Barbero (2012:39) states that assessment as learning increases awareness about the learning processes, as students and teachers share learning intentions and success criteria and evaluate learning. This is also done through alternative forms of assessment, such as self- and peer assessment, and through tools such as portfolios, observation grids and other instruments. Coyle et al. (2009:20) assert that the portfolio approach to assessment is ideal as a method of assessment in CLIL because it can encompass skills development over time and can include the assessment of a language other than English.

Barbero (2012:39) refers to summative assessment, or assessment as learning, as gathering information on a learner's progress at the end of a year or at the end of a completed unit. This type of assessment is used to determine whether the learner has achieved an appropriate level of competence; that is, whether the learner passes or fails a particular unit or year. Kiely (s.a.) is of the opinion that teaching practices are also under scrutiny because the learner's success or failure is the teacher's success or failure.

According to Eurydice (2006), most learners in CLIL classes in Europe receive assessment reports on their CLIL learnings. In some countries, learners can choose whether they will be assessed in their HL or in the target language. In some countries there are no provision made for CLIL assessments. Some countries offer an additional examination in English, the target language, through which learners can demonstrate their proficiency in the target language. CLIL learners may also be awarded a certificate to prove their proficiency in the target language. Although it seems as though there is no uniformity with regard to assessment in CLIL in European countries,

some countries have bilateral agreements that allow learners with CLIL certificates to continue their studies in higher education in the partner country without having to write a language test.

CLIL instruction is meant to ensure firstly that pupils acquire knowledge of curricular subject matter and secondly that they develop their competence in a language other than the normal language of instruction (Eurydice, 2006). The teacher needs to take into consideration the target language and the subject knowledge when assessing the learner. Assessment tasks must then be set based on what and why the assessment must take place. Therefore, both the teacher and the learner must have absolute clarity on what will be assessed (the content of the curricular subject or the target language) and how the assessment will take place. Assessment tasks must be set and carried out in such a way that the language is not a barrier to demonstrating the learners' understanding of the content. At the same time, the teacher should be cautious not to oversimplify the assessment tasks.

The lack of teacher supply in itself has an effect on assessment in CLIL. This is a growing teaching method and it is logical that teachers have to receive training in CLIL methodology and assessment methods. Teachers need to be confident to assess learners in this dual focus teaching methodology.

3.6 Content and Language Integrated Learning in European Countries

The fourth general objective of the European White Paper for Education and Training emphasises that all European citizens should be proficient in at least three community languages, of which one must be the HL. In addition, communication in the HL and communication in foreign languages are two of the eight key European competences that are essential for lifelong learning.

Multilingualism is at the heart of every European identity. Since languages are fundamental aspects of the cultural identity of each European, multilingualism is seen as the key to overcome barriers, promote intellectual capability, increase cultural perspective, and facilitate the acceptance and tolerance of the diverse European

citizens. Proficiency in three European languages has therefore become a necessity for all European citizens (Eurydice, 2006:14).

According to Eurydice (2006), CLIL is not a new teaching phenomenon. It has been introduced in countries such as Luxembourg and Malta as early as the 19th century. In these two countries, unlike the rest of the European countries in which CLIL is practised, CLIL-type education exists in all schools on a general basis (Eurydice, 2006:14).

In CLIL schools in some European countries, pupils are taught different subjects in the curriculum in at least two languages. The European system allows for a language to be studied as a subject, as a foreign language, as HL or through a subject. In CLIL, the language other than the native or home language is taught through a subject. The language and the subject content are equally important, as development in one supports the development in the other. Learning the language through the subject and the subject through the language therefore promotes academic proficiency and supports the learning of the target language, promoting multilingualism.

Eurydice (2006) established that the target language has no effect on the choice or provision of subjects chosen to be taught in the target language. The choice of subjects to be taught in the target language differs from school to school and from region to region. In CLIL institutions, decisions regarding the teaching methodology, the choice of subjects and time allocated to CLIL provision are determined not only by the educational traditions of a given country, but also by the primary linguistic needs.

In some instances, the school decides to implement CLIL in all the modules of a subject or only in certain sections of the subject. In other countries, the decision on CLIL implementation is made at national or federal level; therefore, the choice of subjects, the time allocated to CLIL as well as the teaching methodology is taken at national level. Czura and Papaja (2013:321-333) argue that top-down regulations often determine the choice of the content subjects, the proportion of CLIL and non-CLIL classes, the recruitment process, or the type of school in which CLIL is

introduced. One can thus assume that there is no uniformity concerning the implementation of the CLIL teaching practice at European educational institutions.

Luxemburg and Malta are the only two countries in Europe where the CLIL teaching methodology forms part of the curriculum (Eurydice, 2006). In Luxemburg, there is uniformity in the educational institutions and all learners in the first year of primary school are taught in German, after which subjects are allocated to be taught in French, the target language. In European CLIL, the focus is on the content, and the language is intended to contribute to the development of the content. As a result, the time allocated to the CLIL teaching also differs, as schools are free to determine the nature and scale of their own CLIL based activity. The time allotted for CLIL lessons each week is completely dependent on the type of CLIL offered, which varies from school to school and from region to region.

In Malta, 98% of the population speak Maltese and the majority of the population are proficient in English and Maltese. In addition, one third of the population are fluent speakers of Italian. CLIL education forms part of the curriculum in all schools. Approximately half of the curriculum is taught in English, the target language, regardless of the year of study. In both Malta and Luxemburg, schools have the freedom to choose the nature of their own CLIL teaching practices.

3.6.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning in Poland

Czura and Papaja (2013) report that in Poland, CLIL practice is implemented in only certain classes at a school and it is only available in upper secondary schools that cater for learners aged 16 to 19. A zero class, in which learners underwent an intensive course aiming at developing their second language skills, especially in writing and reading, preceded CLIL education in some schools. With the first implementation of CLIL, English was used as the medium of instruction but currently CLIL streams also use German, French, Spanish and Italian as medium of instruction. Benefits of CLIL streams in Poland include benefits in terms of socio-cultural, language-related and educational ability.

Czura and Papaja (2013:231-333) refer to the following Polish educational regulations that provide a clear definition of CLIL:

- Education must be conducted in two languages, which are the HL and one foreign language.
- A minimum of two content subjects must be taught in the target language, with the exception of Polish, History of Poland and the Geography of Poland.
- School-leaving exams must be taken in Polish and the target language and, for that reason, learners need to learn the same content in Polish and the target language.

CLIL in Poland is seen as a means to enhance competence in the target language. There is a recruitment procedure in place because space is limited, and applicants must have a good command of the target language. Applicants are expected to pass a diagnostic test, which might include an aptitude test and a language competence test. CLIL curricula streams attract the most ambitious students who are most likely to succeed in mastering the curricular requirements in both Polish and the target language.

3.6.1.1 Curricular Models of CLIL Education in Poland

Czura and Papaja (2013) differentiate between the different CLIL models in Poland. One can place these models on a continuum, with teaching mainly in English (with little or no Polish used in the classroom) at the one end and teaching mainly in Polish (with some English used in the classroom) on the other.

Model A

This model involves teacher-based instruction with the use of tasks requiring student pair work or group work. The focus is on content and language, with 80% of the classes conducted in English or German and 20% of the classes conducted in the HL.

This model is divided into two types, Type A and Type B, which are both learner-centred. Type A focuses mainly on the content, with only occasional reference to

pronunciation and spelling of the new terminology, whereas Type B is based on the needs of the learners. This type focuses on both the content and the linguistic features of the target language.

Model B

This model involves mostly teacher-based instruction with the limited use of tasks requiring student pair work or group work. In Model B, which is referred to as partial second language medium instruction, considerable code switching can be observed as both the HL and the target language are used in the CLIL classroom. Half of the content is taught in the target language and the other half in Polish. Polish is used when new terminology is introduced and to ensure that learners understand the concepts in the target language.

This model also differentiates between two types: Type A is a single-focus approach that only focuses on content, with switching between languages done according to a variety of functions, whereas Type B is a dual-focus approach that focuses on content and language, and the degree of code-switching varies from lesson to lesson.

Model C

Model C involves limited foreign language medium instruction, with teacher-centred classroom instruction and limited use of student pair or group work. The foreign language is only used to introduce some terminology. The absence of communicative activities puts learners at a disadvantage with regard to acquiring content in the target language. Specialised written texts are given in English or German and are analysed by teachers in Polish. Czura and Papaja (2013:321-333) conclude that this method is not effective as it does not facilitate the development of communicative competence.

Model D

In Model D, English and Polish are used for teaching and learning, and only a limited amount of time is allocated for the use of English.

3.6.1.2 Relevance to South Africa

In Poland, CLIL takes on many forms. The most suitable for the South African situation could be Model A, Type B, which is based on the needs of the learners and which focuses on both the content and the linguistic features of the foreign language. In the South African situation, instruction is mostly in English, with some support offered by the use of the HL. This model's focus is on learner interaction (as required by an approach that wants to build language proficiency) and content. Language elements are also included in the teaching plan.

3.6.2 Content and Language Integrated Learning in Spain

Spain consists of 17 autonomous communities and two autonomous cities, each with political and administrative power to govern its education system. Hence, there are diverse CLIL models in different regions with the same main objective – to achieve communicative competence in the second and foreign language across the curriculum. The role of the minority language in each region has been determined by historical and political factors (Munoz & Naves, 2007).

Spanish was the first and only language until an influx of circumstances resulted in a new language scenario with different languages and a revised view on multiculturalism. Various projects aided the implementation of educational programmes to address the issue. The *Plan De Formento del Plurilingüismo* of 2005-2008, supported and funded by Europe, invested in 400 bilingual secondary and primary schools to promote bilingualism. This plan mandated an early start of the first foreign language in infant school, whereas the *Bilingual and Bicultural Project* aimed to raise English proficiency levels and to provide learners with the opportunity to follow a bilingual and bicultural curriculum. In addition, the *Comunidad Autónoma del País Vasco* enhanced multilingualism while promoting the use of the minority language.

Educational policies in Spain underpin and support CLIL programmes. Consequently, CLIL is implemented in mainstream schools with direct support from the educational

authorities. The CLIL experience, expertise and example for design and implementation of CLIL programmes in different regions across the country are being transferred, enabling monolingual communities to keep pace with bilingual communities. In bilingual communities, CLIL has evolved as the best approach to incorporate foreign languages in a system where two languages are already accommodated by the curriculum. Regional languages in bilingual communities have official status and thus have a place in the educational system.

3.6.2.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning Models in Spain

Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010:8) mention that Spain is rapidly becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research. Spain's cultural and linguistic diversity has led to a wide variety of CLIL policies and practices that provide many examples of CLIL in different stages of development that are applicable to contexts both within and beyond Spain. The three main emphases of CLIL in Spain are promoting bilingualism in a monolingual community, fostering multilingualism in an already bilingual community and improving competence in English.

Andalusian Content and Language Integrated Learning Model

The Andalusian CLIL model, as discussed by Lorenzo (2010:1-6), promotes bilingualism in a monolingual community as it promotes the official language of the state, Spanish, and a joint official language. Assessment plans incorporate the Common European Framework of Reference, for two reasons. Firstly, it provides a more manageable, compartmentalised description of skills development (competences), and secondly, it brings consensual external evaluation criteria to the classroom. It is worth mentioning that all teachers receive state-funded training in the Common European Framework of Reference.

The Andalusian model tapped into the resources of EU mobility programmes such as Socrates, Leonardo Da Vinci, Comenius and Grundtvig, and Minerva to improve classroom language, develop teacher-training schemes, facilitate overseas immersion for teachers, increase exchange programmes and work opportunities, promote school

twinning initiatives, support curriculum development, and expand the possibilities for adult education and lifelong learning (Lorenzo, 2010:5). To address the home language competences issue, Lorenzo (2010:8-9) mentions that the following initiatives were considered for foreign language education: genre approach, task-based methods, centrality of texts, and continuous assessment.

Valencian Model

In the Valencian model, CLIL lies in fostering multilingualism in an already bilingual community. The Valencian community presents a bilingual background in which both Spanish and Catalan or Valencian co-exist with official status (Guillamòn-Suesta & Renau, 2015).

The Bilingual and Bicultural Project in Madrid

The Spanish Ministry of Education, in conjunction with the British Council, promoted the Bilingual and Bicultural Project to improve the English competence of the young generation in Madrid, as well as to provide learners with the opportunity to follow a bilingual and bicultural curriculum. Vázquez (2015:144) believes the aim of the project is to incorporate English as an essential subject in school curricula and as the language of instruction for other subjects. All students are enrolled in the bilingual programme and the project is implemented as a whole-school project. Thirty percent of the curriculum has to be taught in English. This programme increases the number of native language assistants who help teachers design teaching materials for the classroom, reinforce speaking activities and bring the target language closer to the students.

Vázquez (2015:145-146) points out that the programme works with two components of bilingual education. The first component, the Bilingual Programme, dictates that it is compulsory for learners to be exposed to five hours per week of traditional English language classes, and at least one content subject of the curriculum (Physical Education, Art or Music) must be taught in English. The second component, the Bilingual Section, is more selective as it includes students from bilingual primary

schools and whose proficiency levels in the target language allow them to cover the syllabus of the programme. Throughout secondary school, students receive between 30% and 50% of the curriculum in the target language, as it is compulsory for certain subjects, such as Geography, History, Social Science and Natural Science, to be taught in English.

An external official evaluation to measure the students' linguistic competence, conducted annually at the end of the cycle of primary education, has delivered positive results thus far. It seems that these exams are not compulsory, as Vásquez (2015:145) mentions that only those public schools whose teachers deem to be prepared take the examination.

Similarities and Differences Between the CLIL Models in Spain

Time spent in the CLIL classroom varies per region. In Madrid, where the focus of CLIL is to improve the competence in English, three hours per week per subject (Science and Social Science) is spent on CLIL, as opposed to three to four hours in the Andalusian and Valencian models.

All three CLIL models are biased towards content subjects at secondary level. In general, in-service training, courses and seminars are available to improve teacher competence in CLIL. Secondary school CLIL subjects vary and are subject to teacher availability. It is, however, a requirement in Valencia that Science be taught in Valencian and in Andalusian, and primary schools must offer at least two subjects in CLIL, of which one must be Science.

Assessment methods differ in all three models. In Valencia, the subject teacher and the English teacher assess the content and language separately. In the Andalusian model at primary school level, the content teacher assesses the content. At secondary school level, CLIL subjects are evaluated the same as non-CLIL subjects. In Madrid, however, in primary school, assessment for both content and language is via classroom observation. Learners get a certificate upon completion stating that they have completed the CLIL programme. A competency test in English is compulsory for

learners to assess their competence in English. Assessment in Spanish is conducted every three months to assess the content taught in CLIL. Learners are also expected to take the ICGSE Cambridge exams at the end of the secondary school cycle.

The main reasons for the implementation of CLIL in all three models, except Andalusian at primary school level, are the same: to improve language competence, increase learner motivation and confidence towards English prepare for future studies and working life, and enhance school profile and regional profiles. For Andalusian at primary school level, the reason is to build intercultural knowledge and understanding, enable students to access international certification and build self-confidence towards English.

3.6.2.2 Relevance to South Africa

As far as the relevance of these models for South Africa is concerned, one would have to say that the Valencian model, combined with the Madrid model, seems most appropriate, because the focus is on fostering multilingualism in a multilingual community and improving competence in English.

3.6.3 Content and Language Integrated Learning in The Netherlands

The Netherlands can be regarded as an immigrant country to some extent because immigrants of non-Western origin represent approximately 10% of the population. This could cause many challenges in terms of education and cultural integration. The Netherlands has two official languages, Dutch and Frisian. Prior to 1989, CLIL in the Netherlands was offered in international education and was only available to expats and children of diplomats. At that stage, international schools could not accept learners without international backgrounds (Maljers, 2007:130). The introduction and implementation of bilingual education commenced after 1989 in schools with the highest academic levels and entrance requirements (Denman, Tanner & De Graaff, 2013:285) and, taking into account the level of education, parents and students may choose to attend a bilingual or a non-bilingual stream.

According to Maljers (2007:130), the objectives of CLIL in The Netherlands are twofold. Firstly, CLIL anticipates a better command of the target language, which will be achieved by studying some subjects in another language as more exposure to the language improves the learner's command of the language. This is the methodological principle, namely, that foreign language development is facilitated in subject classes and subject knowledge development is supported by content-based language learning strategies in language classes. Secondly, there is the organisational principle, which allows CLIL to be structured and monitored by a network of bilingual schools. Within the requirements of the Dutch educational system, the expectation is that CLIL will prepare and orient learners towards a more international society.

The exposure to intercultural and international programmes via CLIL might broaden learners' view of the world and could change their perception on certain subjects, and after completion of their studies, CLIL students have the option to study abroad or to study English Language Education. CLIL provides learners with practical familiarity with study and work materials in another language and the ability to work with fellow pupils in that language.

3.6.3.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning Implementation in the Netherlands

An understanding of the Dutch educational system is crucial to comprehend CLIL implementation in the Netherlands. A description is offered by Denman et al. (2013). At the end of primary school, at the age of 12, learners are assessed by a national standardised test that is administered by the Central Institute for Test Development. Taking into consideration their summative and formative tests at primary schools, learners are directed to one of the following types of secondary schools:

1. VWO or pre-university education (six years).
2. HAVO or general secondary education (five years).
3. VMBO or junior vocational secondary schools (four years), which have four sub-streams that range from more demanding to less demanding and from more theoretical to more practical.

About 40% of Dutch students attend pre-university or general secondary education, and the other approximately 60% attend a sub-stream of the junior vocational secondary schools. English is the main target language of bilingual education in the Netherlands, and CLIL is the underlying principle for that education. Although the Netherlands has seen a rapid growth in bilingual education, there is no prescribed model for CLIL. In CLIL schools, however, the Dutch curriculum must be followed and CLIL schools cannot be financially elitist. In addition, up to half of the total lessons may be taught in English.

Denman et al. (2013:286) are of the opinion that the junior vocational educational stream is the largest and most diverse educational stream, as it has a higher percentage of learners with a home language other than Dutch. Many learners also have learning challenges such as dyslexia or dyscalculia, or behavioural disorders such as attention deficit disorder or attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. Furthermore, a high percentage of these students from lower socio-economic backgrounds.

Junior vocational secondary schools have developed the following set of CLIL principles that should be adhered to:

1. Thirty percent of the curriculum should be offered in the target language. This percentage is based on a balance of time for the target language and the main language of education to ensure additive bilingualism. This 30% must be spread over different subjects and domains.
2. Schools have freedom to choose subjects in the target language, methodology and didactic activities, and the degree to which cross-curricular collaboration and projects are included in the CLIL curriculum.
3. Requirements for a European and International Orientation is a vital part of the Junior Vocational Standard, and the Common European Framework of Reference target attainments are lower than for the general and pre-university levels but higher than for the non-bilingual junior vocational stream.

Second language attainment goals are described in terms of the Common European Framework of Reference and the European and International Orientation. In

cooperation with the European Platform, the National Network of Bilingual Schools drew up the following standards that CLIL schools should adhere to:

1. Fifty percent of the curriculum must be taught in the target language and at least one subject must be offered from the main knowledge domains, namely, Science, Social Science, and Arts & Sports.
2. CLIL programmes must focus on additive bilingualism; therefore, they must not result in a decline in Dutch language or subject proficiency.
3. Schools assessment results for subjects taught in the target language and Dutch may not fall under the national average scores for the standardised tests in these subjects from comparable non-CLIL students (tested in Dutch).

There is no selection procedure for 'ordinary' primary schools. However, since CLIL is seen as demanding on learners, nearly all CLIL schools have a selection procedure that varies from school to school before learners are admitted to secondary school.

CLIL implementation in the Netherlands shares some concerns with CLIL implementation in Spain. The lack of adequate training and lack of resources are some of the challenges that both countries experience. In the Netherlands, the fear of linguistic and methodological challenges represented by CLIL and the coordination between primary and secondary school are seen as difficult. Parental support also is seen as problematic, as immigrant parents do not have a good command of English, and children do not receive enough support from their families. One of the standards that CLIL needs to adhere to is additive bilingualism, and fostering multilingualism while preserving and promoting minority languages is one of the great challenges facing CLIL implementation in the Netherlands.

CLIL in the Netherland is funded through the resources of the secondary schools. CLIL schools have more expenses because of the extra teaching materials needed in the target language, as well as costs incurred in the extra-curricular programme. CLIL programmes sometimes require extra teaching time, which is an expense that the ministry does not cover. As a result, parents may have to contribute towards the cost of the CLIL stream.

3.6.3.2 *Relevance to South Africa*

As far as relevance to the South African context is concerned, we share the problems of parents not being able to support learners and inadequate teacher training. Since South Africa does not seem to be willing to develop textbooks and materials in African languages, the Dutch models of CLIL schooling do not seem to offer much. Although teachers tend to code switch, there is no possibility of their teaching subjects for 30% or 50% in a language other than English (or in some cases, Afrikaans).

3.7 Conclusion

CLIL models are diverse and differ per model and per country, but they have the same main objective, namely, to improve communicative and academic competence in the second or foreign language. All CLIL models expose learners to the content of other subjects or learning areas through the foreign language. CLIL models are mostly aimed at the implementation and the fostering and development of English at school level. The objectives are to provide learners with the opportunity and skill to increase their proficiency levels in English, and to follow a bilingual or multilingual and bicultural curriculum. A general improvement in English language levels, fluency in English, improved expressions and an expansion of vocabulary are some of the advantages that are reported by schools using CLIL models. In addition, CLIL models are said to improve classroom language, nurture academic programmes, improve language competence and increase learner motivation. Through CLIL, learners also build confidence towards English in preparation for future studies and working life.

Kaiser et al. (2010:54) determine that CAPS is not clear on how the development of CALP would differ from BICS. They argue that there is no coherent plan in place to teach academic literacy skills across the curriculum. The authors argue for a combination of content-based instruction and CLIL as an alternative to the medium-of-instruction dilemma in South Africa, a point that this study also makes. Subsequently, Kaiser et al. (2010:52-67) propose an English medium of instruction syllabus that focuses on the acquisition of semantic, syntactic and pragmatic knowledge about how English is used in specific subject areas and the development

of academic literacy. The target language is used as the medium of instruction and it involves both language and content teachers. The content in the FAL class will be taken from the learners' school subjects and the subject teacher will be trained to deliver language-sensitive content instruction.

Vital characteristics of CLIL that would be beneficial to second language learners in South Africa are the following: the need for elaborate scaffolding to ensure successful learning, and opportunities for problem-solving, risk-taking, confidence building, communication skills, extending vocabulary, self-expression and spontaneous talk (Kaiser et al., 2010:59).

According to Kaiser et al. (2010:59), CLIL fuses language and content. It calls for learner activity, learner autonomy and task involvement to achieve academic literacy in the second language and to promote a gradual transition and cautious switch to the second language. CLIL respects the role of the HL in second language acquisition, which is contrary to South Africa's current practice, which displays characteristics of an immersion programme that results in subtractive bilingualism.

The models that are followed in Poland, Spain and the Netherlands offer a few glimpses into possibilities for South Africa. The Spanish principle of using CLIL to develop multilingualism in an already bilingual community (which can be seen in the Valencian model) and to build proficiency in English seems eminently suitable. At the same time, Model A, Type B of the Polish system seems to be closest to the South African situation, where the HL is allowed in the classroom and proficiency in English is built through the conscious integration of language and content.

In the next chapter, the focus is on the CAPS document and the affordances for CLIL that may be present there.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS OF THE CAPS DOCUMENTS

4.1 Introduction and context

It is my argument, supported by Kaiser et al. (2010) and Van der Walt (2010), that the CAPS curriculum for both EHL and EFAL do not fulfil the promise to prepare learners for academic learning. Kaiser et al. (2010:52) argue that there should be a distinction between teaching English as a LOLT and teaching the language as a subject, and they explore why the EFAL syllabus is not sufficient for promoting the level of academic literacy required for learning across the curriculum. They find that the themes, topics and subsequent language skills developed focus little on the acquisition of academic skills across the curriculum. They also allude to the opinion of researchers that general-purpose language instruction that is taught in isolation from the rest of the school curriculum will not necessarily be transferred or be useful for coping with academic instruction (Kaiser et al., 2010:57).

Academic language is different from the language spoken in social interactions. Proficiency in academic English means to be competent in a comprehensive range of language and grammar skills to express oneself correctly and appropriately in academic writing. Kinsella (2010:2) offers the following definition of academic language: "...specialized vocabulary, grammar, discourse/textual and functional skills associated with academic materials and tasks." Kinsella (2010:3) argues that academic language consists of academic vocabulary (language that is critical to understand the concepts of the content used in schools, which includes content-related vocabulary and high frequency academic words) that is used in academic discourse (provides students with the language tools to discuss the topic).

So, what is needed then for learners to be academically literate in English? The issue of academic language has been widely discussed by many researchers, such as Lynch and Anderson (2013), Krashen and Brown (2007), Coxhead (2000), Weideman (2003) and Kinsella (2010). Lynch and Anderson (2013) recommend that learners need to understand the verb tense system, the use of modal verbs to express degrees of certainty and commitment, and alternative ways of grouping and ordering written

information to highlight the flow of an argument. Complementing their view on academic writing, Krashen and Brown (2007:1) propose that academic proficiency consists of knowledge of academic language, knowledge of specialised subject matter, and strategies, which refer to competence in the use of strategies that aid in the acquisition of academic language. Here, I draw on the report of Coxhead's (2000:213-238) academic word list. Coxhead (2000:214) believes that the academic word list should play an important role in setting vocabulary goals for language courses, guiding learners in their independent study, and informing course and material designers in selecting texts and developing learning activities (see Addendum C).

In addition, academic writing requires learners to understand the concept of hedging. Hedging in academic writing is the use of thoughtful writing where claims can be made with caution. Hyland (1994:240) explains that effective academic writing alerts the reader to the writer's opinion. Hyland's discussion of how hedging can be achieved, namely, by the use of modal verbs, lexical verbs, adverbials, nouns and adjectives, overlaps with the aspects mentioned by Lynch and Anderson (2013).

Weideman (2003:61) spells out the following abilities and competencies that students are required to have at tertiary level:

- Understand a range of academic vocabulary.
- Interpret and use metaphor and idiom, and perceive connotation, word play and ambiguity.
- Understand relations between different parts of a text, be aware of the logical development of an academic text via conclusions and know how to use the language that serves to make different parts of a text hang together.
- Interpret different text types (genres), and show sensitivity for the meaning that they convey and the audience that they are aimed at.
- Interpret, use and produce information presented in graphic or visual format.
- Make distinctions between essential and non-essential information, fact and opinion, preposition and arguments, distinguish between cause and effect, and classify, categorise and handle data that make comparisons.

- See sequence and order, and do simple numerical estimations and computations that are relevant to academic information, that allow comparisons to be made and that can be applied for the purposes of an argument.
- Know what counts as evidence for an argument, extrapolate from information by making inferences, and apply the information or its implications to other cases than the one at hand.
- Understand the communicative function of various ways of expression in academic language (e.g., defining, providing examples, arguing).
- Make meaning (e.g., of an academic text) beyond the level of the sentence.

To achieve the above academic competencies, learners are required to use language to:

- find, review and summarise information;
- compare and contrast information;
- structure, categorise and analyse ideas;
- interpret, make inferences and hypothesise;
- justify ideas;
- present own point of view and convince the reader;
- provide a solution to a problem;
- integrate ideas; and
- evaluate, assess or verify information.

It is against the above criteria on what constitutes academic language proficiency that this chapter explores the academic language elements found in the EHL and EFAL CAPS and attempts to determine the extent to which CAPS achieves the aim of preparing learners to use English as a LOLT. The chapter starts with a reflection on the external factors that affect the implementation of CAPS. Then, an analysis of the teaching plans of both the EHL and EFAL CAPS is presented.

4.2 External Factors

The following external factors that influence the implementation of CAPS are discussed below: planning, time allocation, overcrowded classes, promotion and progression policies, and the role of the NSC examinations.

4.2.1 Planning

Both the EHL and EFAL CAPS documents state that comprehensive and appropriate moderation practices must be in place for quality assurance of all subject assessments, and it instructs the subject advisor to moderate a sample of the SBA tasks to verify the standard of the tasks and for internal moderation (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:87, 2011b:84). The purpose of internal moderation is not only for quality assurance, but also as a measure to control the pace of the curriculum implementation.

To develop academic literacy, it is of utmost importance that thorough planning takes place at macro level. According to the Personnel Administrative Measures (PAM) document (Department of Basic Education, 2016a:36-38), heads of departments (HODs) are in charge of a subject and need to provide support and guidance to teachers with regard to the subject or learning area. The WCED also monitors whether the pace of curriculum implementation is on track through CEMIS via the mandatory online monitoring tool – School Improvement Monitoring. The CAPS document, however, only refers to the moderation of the SBA tasks, not the moderation of the implementation of the curriculum, thus creating a loophole in the implementation process.

The EHL CAPS document states that lesson plans are guidelines only (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:41). These lesson plans allow teachers to adapt their teaching plans according to what the learners can handle. Given the flexibility of CAPS, the HOD should play an active role in achieving excellence and academic proficiency. The HOD can either allow planning to promote academic proficiency and excellence or just plan for their learners to pass.

4.2.2 Time allocation in the curriculum

Learners spend nine hours per two-week cycle (4.5 hours per week) in the English class (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:12). Most learners are only exposed to English at school, in the classroom situation. After careful scrutiny of the learning programme, it is clear that the execution of the learning programme might be a challenge in most public schools, for many reasons. For example, for a class of 45 learners, approximately seven periods of 45 minutes each are needed to assess the prepared speeches. This does not take into account teaching time, late coming or absenteeism, and learners not being prepared for the assessment. The CAPS curriculum allocates one hour per week for listening and speaking, in which a wide variety of activities must be covered.

4.2.3 Overcrowded classrooms

Learning involves planning, researching, organising, practising and taking into consideration class size. Achieving desirable learning outcomes might be an unrealistic expectation when classes become too big. For example, in Writing and Presenting (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:35-45), learners are required to write essays and transactional written work pieces as assessment tasks. It is an enormous and almost impossible task for the teacher to teach and assess the practice pieces before the actual assessment tasks are given to the learners. Time constraints simply do not allow teachers to mark written practice work pieces, and in the process, learners are denied valuable feedback from the teacher. This compromises the quality of the teaching and learning process as the focus is on completing the assessment tasks rather than teaching the curriculum.

4.2.4 Promotion and Progression

Progression and promotion remain one big thorn in teachers' sides and stymie learners' academic development. Firstly, promotion requirements (Department of Basic Education, 2011g: 9, 16, 23, 34), dictate that learners cannot be retained in a

phase more than once. For that reason, it is highly possible that learners will be promoted to the next grade without achieving the curriculum outcomes of the previous grade. Secondly, because of learners failing, the Department of Basic Education has lowered the pass requirements each year so far, to allow more learners to go over to the next grade. This is a clear indication that CAPS is not as successful as the Department advocates it to be. In turn, the failing system has a ripple effect on discipline as learners are indirectly being taught that failing is an option.

It is my opinion that the demographics of the school have an enormous impact on the quality of the results that a school delivers. Discussions with colleagues have made it clear that they struggle with learners who cannot read, which is a reality in South African public high schools. Those learners were enrolled at the school with acceptable results from their primary schools; in other words, they passed a grade without the requisite proficiency. This, along with the fact that the Intermediate CAPS document does not address the challenges that learners experience in this phase, is detrimental to learners' development of academic competency.

The pass requirements for the GET Phase differs from the FET Phase. In addition to the three level four passes and the two level two passes, it is compulsory for learners to pass their HL with 50% and Maths and FAL with 40 % (Department of Basic Education, 2011g: 23). For the FET Phase, the only compulsory pass is passing HL with 40 % (Department of Basic Education, 2011g: 33). The big headache is the promotion adjustments that the Department of Basic Education forces on the schools when they realise that learners are going to fail on a large scale. No corrective measures are taken on the part of the Department and very little support is given to schools, as the focus is on the Grade 12 pass rate. Moreover, educationalists see it as problematic that CAPS continues to be taught, even to those learners who have not mastered the skills to progress to the next level. It is a vicious circle.

4.2.5 Role of Grade 12 Exit Examination

I agree with Kapp and Arend (2011:8) that too much emphasis is placed on the matriculation examination. South Africa is an examination-driven society, where the

matriculation results are used as a single measure of educational success as they are used to measure success or failure. Similarly, the success of a school is determined by the matriculation results. As Kapp and Arend (2011) point out, the best intentions of curricula are often subverted by the exit examination as it determines the classroom language and literacy practices. The authors maintain that, by making it possible for learners to pass as a very basic level, the examination system obscures the contradiction that English is taught as a second language although it is the medium of instruction.

Although the Ministerial Task Team report (2014:178) finds that the Afrikaans HL and EHL pass rate is a good predictor of candidates' ability to pass the NSC, Du Plessis (2014:13) cautions that the credibility of the examination results for EHL remain questionable. She states that "the HL papers fail to meet the objectives of the NCS and CAPS to provide evidence of high language ability" (Du Plessis 2014:13).

Learners need to obtain a minimum of 40% in their HL to qualify for a bachelor's pass. It is important to note that, although there has been an increase in bachelor's passes in the Western Cape from 2009 to 2016, the bachelor's pass rate remains low and, in 2016, only 40.9% of matriculants managed to achieve a bachelor's pass. For that reason, the Department of Basic Education is providing extra resources to Grade 12 learners and offer programmes like spring and winter schools to improve their Grade 12 results, rather than launching similar initiatives for the lower grades, where I think more support is needed.

One needs to ask why the pass requirements for the GET – Grades 7-9 – differs vastly from that of the FET Phase – Grades 10-12. It is compulsory for GET learners to pass their HL with 50% and their FAL with 40%, as opposed to FET learners who only have to pass their HL with 40%, and although they must take a language at FAL level, it is not compulsory to pass their FAL (Department of Basic Education, 2012a:23, 27).

Worth mentioning are the objectives of the systemic tests in Grades 3, 6 and 9 in the Western Cape and the ANAs that were abandoned in 2015. The aim of these benchmark tests is to evaluate learner progress in Mathematics and Languages.

These results are just for diagnostic purposes, as schools have to use the results to inform their planning – they receive no directive from WCED and no support to better the results. For high schools, using these test results is very difficult as learners from different feeder schools are on different academic levels.

Kapp and Arend (2011:8) conclude that, although CAPS EFAL caters for the level of cognitive academic language proficiency needed to use English effectively across the curriculum, where students are conceptualised as critical, creative and independent thinkers, the cognitive challenge of the examination papers has not changed from factual retrieval, recall and labelling. In addition to their findings, it is my opinion that too many external factors, inconsistencies and discrepancies in implementing CAPS impede the development of the cognitive academic language proficiency needed to learn and teach across the curriculum, as the next section shows.

4.3 CAPS from the Perspective of Academic Language Proficiency Development

In my analysis of the EFAL and EHL CAPS, I used the section of the curriculum that details, in two-weekly plans, what needs to be done. These two-weekly plans constitute the largest part of the curriculum and therefore provide the most detail about what teachers should do in their classes. This level of detail makes it possible to determine to what extent elements of academic literacy are included. Where necessary, other parts of the CAPS documents are included as support for the analysis of the two-weekly plans. The four categories (listening and speaking, reading and viewing, writing and presenting, and language structure and conventions) within the two-weekly plans are used to structure the analysis. In each case, I look at the demands of that particular category in view of the aspects of academic literacy described in section 4.1.

Both the EHL and EFAL CAPS were analysed by the use of a deductive approach to content analysis with a structured matrix, as discussed in section 1.5. I began with the categorisation of the themes per grade and counted the themes as they appeared in the teaching plans, to determine the frequency of usage, consistency and importance.

I then used the same method to draw an analogy between the actual teaching plan and the skills, content and strategies in the language curriculum.

4.3.1 English First Additional Language Curriculum and Policy Analysis

The EHL and EFAL CAPS share the same concerns with regard to the influence of South Africa's 11 official languages on learners' education, as well as the inadequate proficiency levels of FET EHL and EFAL learners in South African schools.

The teaching plans for the EFAL CAPS are divided into four sections. These four sections, listening and speaking, reading and viewing, writing and presenting, and language structures and conventions, are all covered in two-week cycles and are discussed in this section.

4.3.1.1 Listening and Speaking

In Grade 10, listening comprehension is taught during all four terms (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:53-76), but it is only assessed in term 1 (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:81-83). The listening exercises in Grade 10, terms 1-3, focus on the following listening activities: listening for information and opinions, listening to songs and audio texts, and listening for attitude, position and viewpoints. Only one reading comprehension exercise is scheduled for term 1. The following is covered in term 4: listening for note-taking, listening for main points, and critically listening to a recorded text for bias and prejudice. Only one listening test is required for assessment purposes and, if the listening test is completed in term 1, it can be concluded that learners will not be properly prepared for the test.

Although learners have to complete one prepared speech for Grades 10-12, (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:79-80), very little time is allocated to the complete this oral activity. In Grades 10 and 11, the prepared speech, together with another oral activity, is allocated two timeslots, in weeks 13-14 and 25-26 (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:53,58). In Grade 12, the teaching plan makes provision for one formal speech in weeks 15-16 (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:67). The

teaching instruction for Grade 12 is as follows: role playing a formal speech by introducing a speaker and offering a vote of thanks, and a formal researched speech on an aspect of visual media. There is no mention of teaching and practising of a prepared speech and teaching of research skills. Yet this forms part of the formal assessment in the FET Phase and it is worth mentioning that assessment tasks must be set, which are separate from the teaching plan. Although prepared speech is covered in weeks 13-14 and 25-26 in Grades 10 and 11, and in weeks 15-16 in Grade 12, the teaching instructions are very specific and do not include the assessment of the prepared speech. The teacher must still find time to assess the prepared speech, which is an individual learner activity, and which can be hampered by external factors as discussed in section 4.2.

For tasks such as the prepared speech, learners are often asked to do research. However, very little attention is paid to the teaching of research skills, which is an important aspect of academic competence. No teaching time is allocated to research – it only appears with the instruction of the orals and forms part of the assessment of the orals. The assessment rubric allocates 10 out of the 50 marks for evidence of research (see Addendum D: FAL assessment rubric for prepared speech).

Debating, which can be seen as an academic activity, forms part of the many forms of orals that can be done in the classroom, but it does not form part of the orals that are assessed in the classroom. Debating is only covered in Grade 11, term 2 in weeks 17-18 (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:59). Considering the washback effect of the NSC examination, it is a distinct possibility that debating will not form part of everyday teaching.

4.3.1.2 Reading and Viewing

The teaching of language and figurative language is limited to the network chosen and to cartoons and advertisements. CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:44) states that language structures and conventions should be taught in the context of reading and writing, and should also be part of a systematic grammar programme. Grammar and language skills are regarded as important by researchers such as

Kinsella (2010:2), as it is vital to express oneself correctly and appropriately in academic writing.

It is important to note that EFAL literature is assessed in any two of the following genres: short stories, novels, drama or poetry (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:37). Therefore, one can conclude that not all the figurative language in the reference sheet will be of importance to the chosen network, and learners might not be exposed to it. CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:37) also dictates that, in addition to literary texts for formal studies, learners are compelled to read additional texts (written, visual and multimedia texts) for different purposes – some texts will be studied for their aesthetic qualities and others as examples and models for writing.

Vocabulary development happens in the context of the texts discussed. Texts range from literary texts to visual texts, which Weideman (2003:61) regards as academic texts (see section 4.1) that learners are required to study at tertiary level. Remedial grammar gives the teacher the opportunity to find common mistakes and implement corrective measures. However, bearing in mind the class sizes in most public schools, this might be a daunting task. Peer editing in large classes where learners are struggling to master the curriculum might be of little academic value, thus not promoting academic competence.

4.3.1.3 Writing and Presenting

CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:53,58) states the following:

In order to write well, learners need knowledge of different text types, a wide vocabulary, and a good control of English grammar, spelling, and a critical understanding of the potential effects of their writing.

Time constraints and overcrowded classrooms (see sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3) affect the teaching of writing and presenting. This section is a clear example of what Van der Walt (2010:327) means when she states that the FAL CAPS tries to do too much and,

in the absence of clear and specific guidelines about the development of academic literacy, learners have to cover all possible bases in the FAL curriculum.

Narrative and descriptive essays are taught from the Intermediate Phase onwards (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:19), and argumentative, reflective, discursive and expository essays are taught as from the Senior Phase (Department of Basic Education, 2011:40-41).

Thirteen longer transactional texts are prescribed in CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:35-45) that should be completed throughout Grades 10-12, of which only two, the information report and review, are classified under cognitive academic and creative tasks. Three of these tasks, the business letter, CV, and agenda and minutes, fall under business transactional writing, while newspaper and magazine articles are covered under informative transactional writing.

Van der Walt (2010:327) questions the suitability of the writing that is classified under personal or interpersonal writing, namely, the friendly letter, personal recount, obituary, dialogue, interview and speech, as these tasks are not of academic nature and do not promote academic proficiency. Furthermore, shorter transactional texts – diary or journal entries, e-mails, invitations, filling in of forms, flyers, advertisements and giving directions – are of non-academic nature, and are activities that Van der Walt (2010:327) would describe as tasks that develop personal communication skills and not academic proficiency.

Examination guidelines (Department of Basic Education, 2017a:14-16) advise that essays not be labelled, which would enable candidates to interpret a particular topic in the way they see fit. In sections B and C of the examination, activities are categorised and learners only need to answer one question from the four categories in section B (longer transactional) and one question from the three categories in section C (shorter transactional). This allows the educator to focus on assessments and examination preparation. Consequently, it is highly possible that not all the transactional pieces will be taught at school level, which handicaps the learners' development of academic proficiency. Moreover, examination prescriptions allow

learners to choose from a wide variety of tasks, which in turn gives learners the option to avoid writing tasks of academic nature in the examinations. This implies that the teacher has the leeway to teach what his/her learners can manage, which is contrary to development of academic language because learners are not compelled to master academic genres.

Considering that one of the specific aims of CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:9) is to use the language as a means for critical and creative thinking and for expressing opinions on ethical issues, one would expect the teaching plans and assessment requirements to follow suit and support this specific aim. However, as discussed, there is very little evidence of texts of academic nature. Additionally, there are loopholes in the implementation of CAPS that allow the teacher to shy away from the development of critical and creative thinking. One example that comes to mind is the writing of argumentative and discursive writing, where learners have the option to complete it or not. In terms of assessment, only 20% of the question papers deal with judgements, value and worth, as well as questions intended to assess the psychological and aesthetic impact of the text; therefore, it can be said that CAPS does not fully support the development of critical and creative thinking.

Weideman (2003:61) mentions summary writing as a key aspect of academic writing, as learners must be able to make distinctions between essential and non-essential information, fact and opinion, preposition and arguments, distinguish between cause and effect, and classify, categorise and handle data that make comparisons. Regrettably, no reference is made to any guidelines for summary writing skills in the teaching plans (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:49-71). The explanation of summary and note-taking (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:34) is inconsistent with the guidelines for the assessment of the summary (Department of Basic Education, 2017a:6) in Paper 1. The guidelines for summary writing in CAPS are: skim and scan for main ideas, separate main ideas, paraphrase, sequence and use conjunctions to link sentences. Although summary writing is developed under the writing and presenting section, it is applied in the reading and viewing section, where learners have to write a simple summary and read for summary. However, it is assessed in Paper 1, which is a language paper. Summary writing in Paper 1 takes

the form of a point-form summary which counts for 10 marks, seven of which are allocated for facts. The other three marks are a language mark allocated according to the correct facts given. Marks are only deducted from the given language mark if the learner uses direct quotes from the text. The learner is not penalised for any incorrect language, although the CAPS instruction talks about sequence and conjunctions.

The disjointing of the curriculum is once again evident in this teaching of the summary. For academic purposes, more time should be allocated to developing summary writing skills. For example, in Grade 10, under the reading and viewing section, summary writing in weeks 1-2 (term 1), 15-16 (term 2) and 21-22 (term 3) takes the form of a simple summary and reading for summary with reference to the literary text, while in weeks 33-34 (term 4), under the writing and presenting section, learners have to revise the summary – which was never taught. Strategies for summary writing (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:34-35) suggest that conjunctions and logical connectors should be used to sequence summarised sentences, but these are only covered in weeks 11-12 under the language structures and conventions section, with no reference to summary writing. Although summary assessment forms part of the formal examination in term 2, up to the point of the Grade 10 June examination, summary writing is never taught.

4.3.1.4 Language structures and conventions

The teaching of specific grammatical elements is paramount for the development of academic language, as pointed out in section 4.1. Referring to language structures and conventions (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:46-48) as a reference list, and not including all language concepts in the teaching plans, is inconsistent with what CAPS advocates and negates the importance of teaching language structures. Kinsella's (2010:2) argument that the intentional teaching of language structures enables students to internalise the patterns needed to express concepts, ideas and thinking confirms the importance of language structures and conventions for academic proficiency. Kinsella believes that teaching English from the perspective of language functions will help learners to identify the language demands of specific academic tasks and content concepts. Kinsella (2010:2) believes that "learning to use the

language”, in other words, learning to use a language function such as comparing, has extended benefits for the learner as the learner can apply the skill of comparing across the curriculum. Academic language is developed, and the language becomes a vehicle for rather than a barrier to learning.

CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:20) advocates for grammar and vocabulary to be part of a systematic programme and for grammar to be taught purposely. However, in my analysis I found that the teaching of language structures and conventions is unsystematic and incoherent, as discussed next.

Bailey (2011:212) comments on the importance of accurate punctuation and use of capitals in academic writing to help the reader to understand the meaning of the text. However, for the FAL learner, the use of punctuation is only addressed with regard to sensitising learners to the correct conversion from direct to reported speech and vice versa. Throughout Grades 10-12, teaching punctuation is restricted to direct and reported speech, and includes the following: hyphen, colon, semi-colon, apostrophe, quotation marks, parenthesis and ellipsis (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:48).

Inconsistencies occur with the teaching of concepts in chronological order. I draw on the example of the teaching of verbs in Grade 10. Week 1 of Grade 10 starts with the use of simple present tense. Verb tenses are taught in term 3, weeks 23-24, and modal verbs in term 3, weeks 27-28. Which leaves the question, why are learners supposed to revise verbs (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:61) in term 1, weeks 9-10? Additionally, having knowledge of and understanding the verb system are crucial to converting from direct to reported speech, but direct and indirect speech is dealt with in Grade 10, weeks 7-8, while verb revision (integrated with reading and writing: explain meaning of verbs in use) is dealt with in term 1, weeks 9-10 and verb tenses are only dealt with in term 3, weeks 23-24.

Another discrepancy with regard to chronological order is the inverse teaching of nouns. A sound understanding of what constitutes a noun or a verb is necessary to teach the concepts of adjectives and adverbs (both of which are identified by Hyland (1994) as crucial to academic competence). It is thus of great concern that nouns are

only dealt with in Grade 11, term 1, weeks 5-6 (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:53). Adjectives and adverbs, on the other hand, are taught in Grade 10, term 1, weeks 3-4 (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:53), Grade 11, term 1, weeks 3-4 (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:61) and Grade 12, term 2, weeks 15-16 (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:63).

Vocabulary development happens in relation to the reading text that is being studied, whether it is a literary text, poem, cartoon, film, illustration, photograph or advertisement. No reference is made to high frequency academic words or the academic word list as highlighted by Coxhead (2000:213-238), as discussed in section 4.1, which are vital to academic proficiency or academic writing.

Although some grammatical aspects are taught incoherently, they do support academic development. Structures such as passive and active voice, verbs and verb tenses, and concord are taught in Grades 10-12. Passive voice is important in academic writing, as it emphasise the person or object that is being acted on, thus giving the reader a more objective point of view. Verbs, verb tenses and concord are imperative to our understanding of English and are important for conveying our thoughts effectively as mentioned by Kinsella in section 4.1, thus promoting academic development.

Other grammatical features of importance to academic learning are hedging and boosting. Hyland (2000:1) refers to hedging as the absence of categorical commitment, the expression of possibility rather than certainty, which is realised by lexical devices such as the modal verbs may/might, will/would, can/could, should, must, probably and seem. Hedges may also represent a weakening of a claim, may be used to show doubt and may serve as an indication that information is presented as an opinion rather than an accredited fact. Hyland (2000:2) sees hedging as important to academic writing because academic writers communicate ideas as well as their attitudes towards ideas. On the other hand, words such as clearly, obviously and of course are booster words, which allow writers to express conviction, assert a proposition with confidence and present a strong argument. Researchers such as Lynch and Anderson (2013), Hyland (2000) and Hardjanto (2016) express the

importance of conditionals and modal verbs to hedging and boosting as a means to express a degree of certainty and obligation or boost the argument. Modal verbs are only covered in Grade 10 and no mention is made of the concepts of hedging and boosting.

It can thus be argued that elements of the language structure and conventions category do not promote the development of academic learning literacy. The above grammatical elements underlying academic proficiency are part of CAPS teachings but are developed in isolation from the school curriculum and taught in the context of texts being used for listening and speaking, reading and viewing, and writing and presenting. In addition to this, the teaching of language structures and conventions is incoherent and unsystematic. Hence, I can infer that CAPS does not promote “learning to use the language” as Kinsella (2010:2) advocates, as CAPS is not supportive of learning across the curriculum and the EFAL CAPS cannot be regarded as a vehicle for learning, but a barrier to learning.

4.3.2 English Home Language Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement Analysis

The CAPS document for EHL cautions teachers that the teaching plans (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:41) are guidelines only and are not intended to prevent the implementation of alternative teaching methods that might work in the classroom. The EHL CAPS covers all the intended topics in two-week cycles, but it is flexible and gives the teacher a great deal of scope to choose the topics to teach. The two-weekly teaching plan for Grades 10-12 EHL are almost identical, with only minor differences. CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:41) states that the curriculum is packed in such a way that learners must participate in listening and speaking exercises, write an essay or transactional piece, read prescribed literature, and develop and practise knowledge of language structures and conventions for communicative purposes every two weeks.

CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:8-9) acknowledges with concern the influence the 11 official languages have on the education system of South Africa. Since many South African schools do not offer the HL of many or all of the enrolled

learners, CAPS' labels of HL and FAL refer to the proficiency levels of the learners and not the language itself, thus acknowledging that, for many learners in the EHL class, English is in fact their second or even third language. The EHL CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:9) further acknowledges (as in the EFAL CAPS) that, by the time learners enter Grade 10, they should be reasonably proficient in their FAL with regard interpersonal and cognitive academic skills, but in reality, many learners still cannot communicate well in their FAL at this stage. This is also applicable to many learners in the EHL class whose home language is not English and who are not adequately proficient in English by Grade 10.

The South African curriculum aims to produce learners who are able to identify and solve problems, make decisions using critical and creative thinking, and who are independent, analytical and critical thinkers.

4.3.2.1 Listening and Speaking

Oral assessment comprises two prepared speeches, one listening comprehension and one unprepared speech (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:78).

Although adequate opportunities are set aside for prepared and unprepared speeches in all grades, assessing orals is time-consuming, and can easily take six to eight periods to complete for a class of 50 learners. Oral assessment in Grade 12 is more challenging, as external moderation dates often compromise teaching time by causing the focus to shift entirely to completion of the oral assessment.

CAPS states that the listening comprehension exercises and assessments give an opportunity to teach learners how to listen (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:14-21). Moreover, CAPS gives clear instructions how on the listening process (pre-listening, during listening and post-listening) should happen. CAPS deems it good practice for learners to listen to a text (during listening) several times. However, this does not reflect in the FET Phase teaching plan. The teaching plan suggests that the listening comprehension be completed in term 1. Accordingly, it is covered in term 1, but it is also covered in term 3 for Grades 10 and 11. In my experience, the listening

comprehension is a very challenging exercise as learners find it very difficult to listen for information. This can be a consequence of their limited proficiency in English, which results in their inability to grasp concepts and make sense of the listening comprehension text.

The following communicative oral activities (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:43-73) have little academic value, and one can question the inclusion thereof as part of the teaching plan for learners at HL level: informal discussions and conversations (Grades 10-12), dialogues, interviews and speeches (Grades 10-12), introducing a speaker or delivering a vote of thanks (Grades 10-12), and storytelling (Grades 10-11).

4.3.2.2 Reading and Viewing

This section covers the following: reading for comprehension, literature study, summary writing, interpreting visual texts and language in context.

Literature study titles, as discussed in section 1.2, are important for the academic proficiency development of the learners. Learners have to complete and are tested on 12 poems, one drama and one novel. As discussed in section 4.1, Weideman (2003:61) finds that interpreting different kinds of text types (genres), and showing sensitivity for the meaning that they convey and the audience that they are aimed at, are crucial to academic writing, hence the importance of exposing learners to more academic texts.

4.3.2.3 Writing and Presenting

Writing and presenting are tested in Paper 3, with a mark allocation of 100. The examination guidelines are very specific. The paper consists of two sections: section A, which covers essays, and section B, which covers transactional writing. Presumably, presenting is taught and assessed as part of oral language proficiency development. There are no clear indications in the EHL CAPS of developing presentation skills.

In Grade 10, the focus is on reflective, narrative and argumentative essay writing, in Grade 11, the focus is on reflective, discursive and argumentative essay writing, and all of the above essay types are accommodated in Grade 12. Topics tested should be representative of all of these essays types, but according to CAPS, the paper must not label any of these essays as the candidate has the freedom to write the essay type of his/her choice (Department of Basic Education, 2017c:21). These guidelines give the teacher the leeway to focus on and teach any of these essay types; therefore, the possibility exists that the teacher might ignore those challenging essays that represent academic writing. The teaching plan and assessment requirements do not support the specific aim in CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:9) to use language as a means for critical and creative thinking, and for expressing opinions on ethical issues.

Transactional writing is clustered as follows: (1) friendly and formal letters, (2) reports, newspaper articles and magazine articles, and (3) speech, dialogue and interviews. The formal letter category contains many formats that must be covered, and in Grade 12, the CV and letter of application are added to the formal letters. Examination guidelines stipulate that the HL learner must answer two of the six questions from these four categories (Department of Basic Education, 2017c:21-22). Although CAPS does not instruct the teacher to focus on examination preparation only, nothing prevents the teacher from focusing on certain categories for examination purposes and excluding the others.

The writing and presenting strand covers the same type of essays and transactional writing pieces as in the EFAL curriculum. As discussed in section 4.3.1.3, some of the prescribed writings that the learners have to master do not support the learners' development of academic proficiency or academic writing.

If planning is done correctly and thoroughly according to CAPS, the teacher can cover all the transactional pieces in Grade 10 and 11. In addition, the clustering of the formats allows the teachers to cover all the formats in clusters 2 and 3 in Grade 10. CAPS also states that not all the oral and written work produced by the learner needs to be assessed by the teacher. CAPS draws on the example in Grade 10 where two

essays and three transactional pieces are written by the learners and only one essay and one transactional piece must be marked for an assessment mark (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:41). This is another complex issue; as constructive feedback is invaluable for teaching and learning, the absence of feedback may impact negatively on teaching and learning.

If one looks at the timeframe in which these tasks have to take place from a teacher's point of view, it is understandable that in some, if not most, cases, not all the work as set out in CAPS can be covered. CAPS works in two-week cycles, which means, for example, that one essay must be taught, written and marked in two periods of 40-50 minutes. Having said the above, the proficiency levels of the learners, the logistics of the school, the physical and emotional state of the learner, available resources, class sizes, and the workload of the learners and the teachers are all factors that influence the delivery of any curriculum and are not taken into account by CAPS.

4.3.2.4 Language Structures and Conventions

The language structures and conventions category does not form part of the formal teaching plans for the EHL CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:43-73). The insignificance of teaching the language structures and conventions is further highlighted by referring to them as Appendix 1, Language Structures and Conventions Reference Chart (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:93-94). CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:40) assumes that learners are familiar with the basics of grammar, namely, parts of speech, rules of concord, use of tense, auxiliaries and modals, and sentence structures. The teaching of grammar is thus unimportant. The Language Structures and Conventions Reference Chart is not a compulsory teaching aid, but a reference chart that could be used during lessons. The majority of the learners following the EHL CAPS are EFAL or ESL learners, as discussed in section 2.8.3; therefore, not focusing on the teaching of language structures and conventions is problematic, particularly since CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:8) acknowledges that many learners are still not proficient in their additional language when they reach Grade 10.

As discussed in sections 4.1 and 4.3.1.4, a sound knowledge of language structures and conventions is imperative for academic proficiency and academic writing. Vocabulary development and language use are covered under the reading and viewing section of the teaching plans (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:43-73). Vocabulary development and language use, as well as sentence structures, are dealt with in four two-week cycles in Grades 10 and 11 and in two two-week cycles in Grade 12. CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:23) stresses that knowledge of vocabulary items and language use should be introduced to learners only as they appear in real text – prose and poetry, fiction and non-fiction. There is no reference to the teaching of grammar, which is crucial to academic proficiency, or to promoting an academic word list as discussed in section 4.1.

Language structures and conventions are referred to in the writing and presenting section as well, focusing on register, style and voice, word choice, sentence construction, paragraph writing, and punctuation and spelling in the essay or transactional writing being taught. The teaching of language structures and conventions in the EHL CAPS does not focus on the teaching of specific grammatical elements, which are paramount for the development of academic language. This suggests that the EHL curriculum is not supportive of using the language for learning across the curriculum or using the language to learn (Kinsella, 2010:2), as discussed in sections 4.1 and 4.3.1.4.

4.4 Conclusion

Van der Walt (2010:327) states the following:

In the absence of clear and specific (non-generic) guidelines about the development of academic literacy, learners have to cover all possible bases in the FAL curriculum: fluent communication as well as cognitive academic language proficiency.

Yes, the CAPS documents for both EHL and EFAL include many aspects of academic literacy. Learners must be able to interpret texts, write reviews, summarise texts, do

research and so on, but these aspects are scattered and poorly integrated. This, together with the progression and promotion protocol, fails to develop the academic competency of the South Africa learner. The incompatibility between academic texts in the CAPS and the academic development of the learner is echoed by Van der Walt (2010:327), who refers to the minimal evidence of the primary importance of using language for academic purposes when comparing the cognitive academic language skills required for thinking and learning with the tasks and texts in the curriculum.

What is more significant is the problematic distinction between HL and FAL, and the fact that CAPS acknowledges that learners should be proficient in the additional language when they reach Grade 10, but are not. This is perhaps that the reason why the calls for revision of CAPS in its current form are increasing.

The language structures and conventions in the EFAL curriculum are a section on their own, in contrast to the EHL curriculum where they are integrated with reading and viewing, and writing and presenting. CAPS presupposes that learners should be familiar with the basics of grammar (parts of speech, word clauses, rules of concord, use of tense, auxiliaries and modals, and sentence structures) (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:40). The EHL CAPS refers to language structures and conventions (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:93-94) which *should be* taught as required in the context of different types of oral and written text, and that learners *may use* during listening, speaking, reading and writing processes. CAPS suggests that one lesson per week *may be* used to teach other language structures as required (Department of Basic Education, 2011c:41). The teaching of language structures and conventions is integrated with the teaching of comprehension texts, advertisements and cartoons. There is no specific time set aside or a development plan in place to teach and develop the grammar of English in the EHL CAPS.

Kaiser et al. (2010:54) point out that the current EFAL curriculum fails to promote adequate academic literacy for learning across the curriculum. The authors find that there is no clear distinction between learning the language as a subject and using the language to learn. Kaiser et al. (2010:55-57) find that the focus of the EFAL curriculum is on the attainment of general language skills for social purposes, as opposed to

acquiring academic literacy skills for learning across the curriculum, which include abstract, cognitive academic language skills required for thinking and learning. No coherent plan is in place to teach academic literacy skills across the curriculum. In addition, the EFAL and EHL CAPS are similar in terms of creative writing, the study of literature and the study of grammar instead of equipping learners with the academic literacy skills (Kaiser et al., 2010:54).

General language instruction that is taught in isolation from the rest of the school curriculum will not necessarily be transferred or useful in coping with academic instruction. When a language has to be used for learning across the curriculum, academic literacy will be acquired more effectively when the language is learned in conjunction with the meaningful content and purposive communication, and where the language is not the object or purpose of the learning but the only the vehicle of instruction.

This raises the question whether the EFAL CAPS in the Intermediate (Grade 4-6) and Senior (Grade 7-9) Phases delivers on the expectation to develop language for the “purpose of thinking and reasoning” (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:8), which develops learners’ cognitive academic skills needed to study other academic subjects through the medium of English. It seems as though CAPS is not successful in the Intermediate and Senior Phases either, as it states that, although learners should be reasonably proficient in their FAL with regard to both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills, the reality is that many learners still cannot communicate well in their additional language in the Senior Phase (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:14)

It is seen as a challenge to support these learners and prepare them to meet the standards required in Grade 12, as well as to teach them to use their additional language at the high level of proficiency needed for further or higher education or for the world of work (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:9). The CAPS for the FET Phase is dependent on learners having successfully achieved the competencies in the GET Phase, but it acknowledges that learners have not achieved those competencies (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:8). Therefore, the responsibility is placed on the teacher to develop those competencies to ensure success at Grade 12 level.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to look at the problematic distinction between the two-curriculum scenario (EHL and EFAL) in South Africa and investigate the possibility of developing a single English academic language curriculum.

The main research question that this study attempted to answer was the following:

What are the possibilities of developing a single English academic language curriculum?

This question was answered by investigating two aspects of English language teaching, its history and rationale for the current two-curriculum setup, as well as the possibilities offered by CLIL curricula, as formulated in the two sub-questions:

- What is the history of English language teaching curricula in South Africa?
- What alternatives to the two-curriculum scenario are offered by CLIL as implemented in selected European countries?

In the rest of this chapter, I answer the two sub-questions on the significance of the history of English language education and the possibilities CLIL has to offer as an alternative to the two-curriculum scenario in South Africa.

5.2 Significance of the History of English Language Education in South Africa

The history of English language teaching in South Africa forms part of the focal point of past South African education policies, which were instituted to oppress and disempower black people. Through education, the realities of people, especially the realities of non-white people, were steered in a direction that not only benefited the white minority government in power, but oppressed the majority of black people living in this country. Although apartheid was formally legalised in 1948, the cornerstones

of apartheid were formed when missionaries used education to teach black people to do menial and agricultural work. These educational practices were further strengthened from 1910-1948 when colonially-instilled racial segregations and the education of black people endorsed and enabled participation of black people in World War 1 and 2. Education after 1948 further alienated black people by means of slavery and the institution of apartheid laws, and promoted Christianity, the religious beliefs of the white minority. A prevalent reason for uprisings in South Africa was the fight for equal and quality education, hence the Soweto uprising on June 16, 1976. At that point, separate educational systems existed for different ethnic groups because of apartheid.

The imbalances that arose from political, economic and social abuse had to be addressed by the democratic government; therefore, education is seen to play an intricate part in redressing the social challenges, poverty, illiteracy and educational challenges the nation experienced and still experiences.

In each era, as discussed in Chapter 2, education altered the social reality of the people that it served. It created different value systems for each ethnic group, and increased the power relationships that existed amongst people of different ethnic groups, a reality that the post-democracy educational policies had an obligation to demolish. The different educational systems from the apartheid era were demolished to make place for a single unified educational system for all people of South Africa.

Current educational policies are similar in purpose to pre-democracy educational policies because they idealise the beliefs of the post-apartheid government. English is seen as a crucial instrument for social mobility and high-level employment. Solid NSC results (*written in English*) and access to further and higher education (*in English*) are prerequisites to such ambitions. Although educational policies after 1994 are in line with the South African Constitution, which is based on the promise that all South Africa citizens have equal rights, including the right to education, in practice the English CAPS fails to prepare learners for further education. It is true that this is a very complex issue, as it is difficult to apply the principles of equal rights to education in such a

diverse context; however, the problems of English as LOLT need to be addressed to ensure greater participation in further and higher education.

The need for a South African educational system that promotes and supports a democratic educational system that is equal, free of oppression and racism, and that supports economic growth gave birth to the educational policies: OBE, NCS, RNCS and now CAPS. In addition, the South African democratic principles allow all 11 official languages to have equal status, which created a new problem as English advanced to the position of the preferred LOLT. CAPS concedes this and clarifies the distinction between EHL and EFAL as based on proficiency levels and not the language that has been acquired first (HL) and the language that has been acquired second (FAL).

The current South African educational system fails to ensure that South Africans receive social justice as defined by Chipkin and Meny-Gibert (2013) (see section 2.9). Uneven distribution of wealth with many South Africans living in poverty, corruption that is a normal occurrence, societies that are infested with gangsterism, and violence are indicative of the lack of social justice in South Africa. As education is a key aspect to advance the interests of the nation, the argument is that current educational policies do not successfully ensure public participation and social cohesion, and definitely do not create a situation where they attempt to eradicate poverty and ensure economic justice for all. English, as discussed in section 2.8.2, is perceived as the language of liberation and emancipation, a language that embodies hope and wealth, and a language that strives for social justice for all. However, is this indeed what is happening?

5.2.1 Equal Education for All in South Africa

I believe that it is necessary to invest in a type of bilingual education, as MacSwan and Rolstad (2003:229-230) suggest, that would allow all learners to cope academically while they are learning English. Once they have learned English sufficiently to understand content through English instruction, they would have developed second language instructional competence, which denotes a stage where the learner is able to understand instruction and perform grade-level activities in the second language.

This would give all learners equal opportunities and a better chance to achieve their goals.

The language dilemma South African classrooms find themselves in is exposed through CAPS' clarification of HL and FAL as proficiency levels of a particular language and not learners' actual home language and additional language, as discussed in section 2.9. In addition to this dilemma, English is identified as the preferred LOLT in South African classrooms, creating a situation where the LOLT of a school might be the second or third language of the learners, as discussed in section 2.8.

The goal of the LiEP (Department of Education, 2007), as discussed in section 2.5.4, is to counter disadvantages resulting from the discrepancy between the HL and the LOLT, and to promote multilingualism. It argues for promoting learning through one's home language and having additional languages as subjects. However, this does not happen in practice. As demonstrated in sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2, the EFAL and EHL CAPS fall short in countering the discrepancies between learners' home language and LOLT. CAPS indirectly admits that it fails to develop academically proficient learners by saying that learners should be proficient by the time they reach Grade 10, but in reality, they are not.

Both the EHL and EFAL CAPS ignore the fact that English is learnt mainly for academic purposes. Although academic language proficiency is mentioned as one of the goals of CAPS, this aim is not realised in the teaching plans and this state of affairs creates a disparity in terms of equality in education. The lack of purposeful development of CALP components is one of the reasons why learners do not reach their full academic potential and proficiency as promulgated by CAPS. It does not seem as though CAPS succeeds in eradicating the inequalities that exist because of our past; instead, it adds to the dilemma in which we find ourselves.

5.2.2 Critical engagement with academic texts

In order to redress the political imbalances of the past and in an attempt to eradicate the aftermath of the apartheid regime, it is of utmost importance that South African curricula encourage learners to be critical thinkers². The HL and FAL CAPS promise to develop learners to be critical thinkers, but it seems as if the curriculum has the opposite effect when one looks at the NSC examinations and their effects on everyday teaching practices (Kapp & Arends, 2011).

CAPS' aim is to produce learners who can critically analyse, identify and solve problems, work effectively in a group and in a team, and organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively (Department of Basic Education, 2011b). In other words, CAPS attempts to develop learners to be independent, be critical of their social reality and have respect for themselves and others. It is about teaching learners to take responsibility for their own development. Conversely to its intentions, as the analysis of the documents in sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2 shows, CAPS does not fully succeed in producing learners who are independent, problem-solvers, team players, organisers and critical of their surroundings. Both the HL and FAL CAPS advise teachers to engage with the learners in the class to encourage them to think independently, but then teaching persuasive or augmentative arguments, evaluating, and responding to counterarguments receives very little attention in CAPS.

It is evident that research skills, as discussed in sections 4.1 and 4.2, are obscured in CAPS, as no time is set aside to teach and develop those skills. They merely form part of the oral activity, where learners have to show evidence of research, and it is highly possible that learners will not be exposed to these types of academic activities.

² Critical thinking is the ability to recognise problems and raise questions, gather evidence to support answers and solutions, evaluate alternative solutions, and communicate effectively with others to implement solutions for the best possible outcomes. Critical thinking occurs when students are analysing, evaluating, interpreting, or synthesising information and applying creative thought to form an argument, solve a problem or reach a conclusion.

It is problematic that both the EHL and EFAL curricula are open to many interpretations, opening the door for teachers to avoid the more difficult, academic types of reading and writing, as discussed in section 4.3. For example, the writing and presenting sections discussed in sections 4.3.1.3 and 4.3.2.3, where examination guidelines allow learners to be assessed for certain competencies only, make it possible for the teacher to avoid argumentative writing. As explained in section 4.3.2, the EHL CAPS cautions teachers that the teaching plans are guidelines.

5.2.3 Inclusive Education

As mentioned in section 2.6.3, White Paper 6 makes provision for inclusive education, which means that learners of all abilities and challenges may be accommodated in public schools. This arrangement contributes to the challenges that teachers and learners are facing.

As mentioned in section 2.9, some learners already start the Senior, GET and FET Phases with gaps in their ability to comprehend what they are reading. To add to this dilemma, learners with challenges, learning disabilities included, are expected to perform and develop their academic competence in overcrowded classes, and with teachers who are not trained to deal with learners with learning disabilities. In addition to the already difficult classroom situation, CAPS is packed with expectations and the promise to develop learners to be academically proficient. As discussed in section 2.9, although CAPS acknowledges that learners' proficiency levels are below standard, it does not make provision for the shortcomings and challenges learners are facing. CAPS does not have any contingency plans in place to incorporate White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education to accommodate learners with challenges in mainstream schools.

5.3 The possibilities offered by CLIL

As a solution to the problem of the EFAL/EHL distinction, it is argued that a CLIL approach can even the playing field, as all learners will be taught the language of their school subjects. CLIL is said to improve language competence and confidence in second language speaking, and to increase learner motivation.

Sub-question 2 was answered by studying CLIL education in countries such as Poland, Spain and the Netherlands, in which the CLIL model is widespread and well developed (see section 3.6). When considering the possibilities for a single curriculum focused on academic literacy, support was found from Kaiser et al. (2010), who also argue that, for academic literacy to be improved, the distinction between the language of learning and language as a subject should be acknowledged. The purpose of this study was not to discuss the possibility of a separate, traditional literature and creative writing subject, but I agree that there should be a subject which fosters academic literacy in English.

For many learners of English, the LOLT and the home language differ. Although one has to acknowledge that for many learners in a European CLIL environment the HL is well established as an academic language the argument in this thesis is as follows: to promote multilingualism in this already multilingual society, a single *CLIL-like*, English curriculum, where learners learn the content through English, would be advantageous. The various possibilities for CLIL are discussed below.

5.3.1 Strengthening subject terminology/discourse

A CLIL approach undertakes to teach a non-language subject through the medium of a foreign language, and in this way, it seeks to develop proficiency in both the non-language subject and the language in which this subject is taught, appointing the same importance to each.

CLIL language and content teachers need to work together to teach the content through the foreign language. Meaning is negotiated in the class, and the teacher needs to exhibit creative and innovative teaching methodology (see section 3.5.5) to teach the content. At the same time, the teacher must develop the learners' communicative competence and their academic proficiency in the target language, without including aspects of language that are irrelevant to the development of academic proficiency. Here, I refer to the teaching of certain writing and presenting pieces (sections 4.3.1.3 and 4.3.2.3), and the emphasis on the teaching of literature, which takes time away from the teaching of academic language (see section 2.8.4).

There is no evidence in the two-weekly plans of the CAPS documents that the curriculum pays any attention to subject terminology and discourse in a purposeful way.

5.3.2 Strengthening academic reading and writing abilities

Academic writing requires learners to do research, organise ideas, edit and reference, whereas academic reading expects learners to read interactively, critically and with understanding. Learners must also be able to extract the necessary information and using it correctly.

As discussed in section 3.5.1, CLIL provides more opportunities for practice as it offers more exposure to the target language without using extra time for the curriculum. In this way, it shifts the attention to the learning activity instead of learning the language, and learners have the opportunity to think in the target language.

Planning the CLIL lesson starts with acquiring skills and knowledge in the content through the target language. Learners are enabled to create their own knowledge and understanding, and to make meaningful connections with the content. Academic writing and reading skills, as explained above, are skills that the CLIL learner develops. Here I refer to the 4 Cs in CLIL as discussed in section 3.5.4, namely, content, cognition, communication and culture, which are connected and integrated with each other. Montalto et al. (2016), as quoted in section 3.5.6, argue that the language taught in the CLIL classroom is associated with CALP, in other words, content-specific vocabulary, functional language learners need to know how to carry out activities, and language that help learners organise their thoughts.

5.3.3 Strengthening mastery of the grammatical system

As discussed in sections 4.3.1.4 and 4.3.2.4, CAPS disregards the importance of language structures and conventions, particularly those elements that develop CALP. The assumption that HL learners are familiar with the basics of grammar, namely, parts of speech, rules of concord, use of tense, auxiliaries and modals, and sentence structures (see discussion in section 4.3.2.4) results in not teaching specific

grammatical elements that are vital to the development of academic language, as pointed out in sections 4.1 and 4.3.2.4. This suggests that the EHL curriculum is not supportive of using the language for learning across the curriculum or using the language to learn (Kinsella, 2010:2). Grammar taught in the EFAL curriculum is staggered and inconsistent, and in general does not support learning across the curriculum (see section 4.3.1.4).

On the other hand, CLIL (see discussion on CLIL in 3.5.5) promises more motivated learners who are able to use knowledge in one context as a knowledge base in another. CLIL promotes learner confidence, language proficiency, listening and reading comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, spelling, and verb tense – all the grammatical aspects that are crucial to academic writing.

It must be emphasised that although the focus in this thesis is on a more equitable and empowering English language curriculum, I do not see English as the panacea to cure all social and academic ills. That is why English must always be seen in the context of the other South African languages. In this case the advantages of a *CLIL – like* approach, with its emphasis on multilingualism, are obvious as will be argued in the next section.

5.3.4 Multilingualism/Bilingualism

The objectives of a CLIL approach in the South Africa context would then be to promote multilingualism, improve learner competency in English and develop learners' academic proficiency skills. A CLIL approach will aim to improve learners' subject knowledge as well as develop their English language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing skills), as discussed in sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2. In this way, learners will develop their vocabulary, practise their reading and writing skills, and while discussing the content, they will learn to use the language across the curriculum (as mentioned in section 4.1). In the process, they will develop their communicative skills.

Life is full of surprises, challenges and complications. The world is getting smaller and the difficulties are becoming more complicated. Moreover, the education system must produce a learner that can handle surprises – good or bad – and be in control when faced with challenges and complications. This implies that the curriculum must produce academically proficient learners, or at least learner that can reason and think critically to survive in the world of today. As discussed, it is highly unlikely that the HL and FAL CAPS promote equal education for all, support the development of academically strong learners, promote learners as critical thinkers, and support and develop multilingualism and bilingualism in education.

The main research question that this study attempted to answer was: What are the possibilities of developing a single English academic language curriculum? The study explored the history of English language teaching curricula in South Africa and alternative curricula to the current two-curriculum scenario in South Africa. I can therefore say that a CLIL perspective, as discussed in Chapter 3, offers the opportunity to do away with an artificial distinction between EHL and EFAL, as discussed in Chapter 4, by offering all learners the opportunity to use English at a high level of proficiency for their academic needs.

5.4 Recommendations for Practice

Promotion policies often result in learners being left with gaps in their academic development and in their understanding of the English Curricula. It is a common understanding that one needs to be knowledgeable about a topic before being able form an opinion about it, and one needs to be competent and proficient in terms of the requirements for one level to progress to the next. Inferences drawn from the EFAL CAPS analysis done in section 4.3.1 show that there are challenges in terms of EFAL learners' development when they reach the FET Phase. CAPS fails to address these shortcomings in the Senior and Intermediate Phases, and it is concerning to note that FET CAPS continues with the curriculum as though learners have reached an acceptable level of English competency at senior level.

It is a matter of social justice that policymakers, curriculum developers and teachers objectively assess the impact of this inadequate curriculum on the individual learner, the community and the country as a whole.

Curriculum developers need to recognise the importance of academic literacy in English and do away with the notion of distinguishing between EFAL and EHL curricula to ensure social justice for all learners. An English curriculum must be implemented that will develop the learners to be competent in English so that they are able to pursue their academic goals and are in a position to use the academic opportunities on offer.

Teaching academic literacy cannot happen in a vacuum. It is the responsibility of both content and English teachers to develop academic literacy. Therefore, English and content teachers need to support each other, but they must also to be supported by an English language curriculum that results in critical, competent learners who can go on to higher education. Training must be provided for both subject and English teachers to develop the academic literacy of the learners.

The importance of sound school policies cannot be underestimated. For the successful implementation of an English curriculum that supports academic literacy, school management teams and SGBs must make sure that systems and structures are in place to support a CLIL-type approach to language teaching at school level.

5.5 Recommendations for Further Research

For further research in CAPS, my recommendations are as follows:

- This was a desktop study and no fieldwork was done to test the outcome of my analysis of the CAPS documents. Although my peers reviewed my analysis of CAPS, the analysis was not assessed or reviewed in the classroom situation. It is in the interest of all English language teachers to conduct intensive research on the effect CAPS has on developing learners' academic proficiency.

- It is necessary for future research to look at the implementation of CAPS on a larger scale by conducting research in schools to determine the success of CAPS, or the lack thereof. This is important, as I am an experienced teacher teaching at an ordinary public high school plagued with economic, social and educational challenges, delivering a judgment on the EFAL and EHL CAPS – with no insight of what is happening at primary school level or in schools in more affluent areas. I am of the opinion that not all the learners are struggling; therefore, one needs to look holistically at the South African educational system, from preschool to Grade 12. The main purpose of education is to develop the learners, and if learners reach Grade 8, the beginning of high school, with a gap in understanding, it means that something is not right at primary school level – and that must be then addressed.
- CAPS also cannot be analysed in isolation because there are many external factors that contribute to the success or failure of any curriculum. Policies such as the promotion and progression policies, assessment policies, NSSF and learner-to-teacher ratios must all be taken into account if one wants to evaluate any educational policy.

For further research in CLIL, my recommendation is as follows:

- CLIL schools discussed in this study are all schools situated outside of the borders of South Africa. All of these schools have the social and financial support to implement the CLIL curriculum. Practically all the countries in the study implementing CLIL report that CLIL is advantageous to their learners. To implement a CLIL approach is a political decision, as policies need to be put in place to support a CLIL curriculum. In South Africa, given our unique circumstances and challenges, we cannot conclude that CLIL will have the same effect as it does in the schools mentioned in this study. More research is necessary to determine the viability of CLIL-like teaching methods in South Africa schools before it can even be recommended as an alternative to the two-curriculum dilemma.

5.6 Limitations to the Study

Although I have completed the research and drawn conclusions, there are limitations that need to be acknowledged.

Firstly, as researcher, I have my own limitations. I have 27 years of experience as an English educator, but my experience is limited to the average high school that experiences many challenges, such as poverty, substance abuse amongst learners, lack of learner discipline, and learners with low self-esteem, hopelessness and lack of aspiration. These socio-economic challenges have a negative impact on learners who reach this high school. This is a limitation to my study, as my experience of CAPS is one-dimensional. There are learners and schools or even districts that produce excellent results, and they succeed in producing academically proficient learners. In addition, as the deputy principal of my current school, not only am I confronted with the abovementioned, but I also have to deal with challenges associated with women in leadership.

Secondly, the analysis of the CAPS document was done using content analysis and was reviewed by my peers. Although all my peers are experienced educators with more than 15 years of experience, they have not done any further academic studies after qualifying as teachers. They are set in their ways and did not offer anything new to the research. They, too, are overwhelmed by time constraints and tend to agree with my findings. They do not question the CAPS and as they are experienced teachers, CAPS is merely seen a guideline for assessment purposes. They too agree that CAPS expects too much from learners and they find it challenging to complete the curriculum and marking assessment activities.

Finally, I am not aware of any schools in South Africa using the CLIL teaching method. All the conclusions drawn about CLIL are from studies done at schools abroad. Given our unique situation – a young democratic constitution with 11 official languages, an influx of foreigners from neighbouring countries, which brings additional language challenges, and the perplexing situation our learners and curriculum find themselves

in – makes it difficult to determine whether CLIL will have the same impact on the South African situation as on the schools used in the study.

5.7 Personal Note

I have had the opportunity to teach learners from all walks of life, and it is worth mentioning that the problems learners experience (abuse, poverty, dysfunctional families, etc.) are very similar. Learners' personal circumstances and personal problems do influence their ability to learn, and sometimes learners allow their circumstances to define their personalities. Some learners are motivated by their problems, but for others these problems lead to failure and disappointments. Unemployment, financial difficulties, emotional and physical abuse, and overcrowded classes are only some of the issues young adults have to deal with, and the inadequate curriculum only adds to their hopelessness.

My experience has taught me that the plight of the teachers is the same. Teachers are frustrated with the current curriculum, but learners are just as frustrated. The learners I teach are content with what I offer them – the standards are low and they are only interested in going through the day. Passing the grade is something that they only worry about when their report cards are handed to them. This is my reality.

Writing this thesis made me look at the curriculum through different lenses, as I only realise now that there is something wrong with our curriculum. On paper, CAPS looks attractive to any teacher. The teaching plans are well worked out and all teachers have to do is follow the plan, but in reality, learners and the country as a whole are suffering due to this insufficient curriculum.

With this thesis, and with the help of my mentor, I could objectively assess my own teaching practice and in my own humble way try to adjust and focus on the teaching of academic content, such as research methods, prepared speeches and summaries. Turning things around for our school is an impossible task when the HODs, school management team and senior management have no vision to take the school to the next level.

Through the eyes of my mentor, I gained the essential and much-needed knowledge to be an agent for change – even if it is just for the learners for whom I am currently responsible. I am aware that adopting another curriculum for South Africa will not happen overnight, but should the opportunity arise, I intend to advocate for a different approach to the implementation of CAPS and to transform the Teaching Language Across the Curriculum Policy of the WCED into a CLIL approach to language teaching.

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Addendum A: CAPS Home Language Analysis: Reading and Viewing

1. Reading and Viewing

1.1 Reading for Comprehension, Vocabulary Development and Sentence Structure

WEEK	GRADE 10	GRADE 11	GRADE 12
5-6	Reading for Comprehension: Interpretation of Visual Texts	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure
7-8	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure		
11-12	Reading for Comprehension: Strategies	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure	Reading for Comprehension: Strategies
15-16	Reading for Comprehension:	Reading for Comprehension	Reading for Comprehension
17-18	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure	Reading for Comprehension: Strategies	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure
21-22	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure	Reading for Comprehension	Reading for Comprehension: Strategies
23-24	Reading for Comprehension: Strategies	Reading for Comprehension	Reading for Comprehension
25-26	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure	
27-28			Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure
	Reading for Comprehension: Strategies	Reading for Comprehension: Strategies	
31-32	Reading for Comprehension	Reading for Comprehension: Strategies	
33-34	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure	Reading for Comprehension : Vocabulary Development and Language Use Sentence Structure	

1.2 Interpretation of Visual Texts

WEEK	GRADE 10	GRADE 11	GRADE 12
5-6	Interpretation of Visual Texts		
7-8		Interpretation of Visual Text, e.g. adverts, cartoons, pictures	Interpretation of Visual Text, e.g. adverts, cartoons, pictures
15-16	Interpretation of Visual Text, e.g. adverts, cartoons, pictures	Interpretation of Visual Text, e.g. adverts, cartoons, pictures	Interpretation of Visual Text, e.g. adverts, cartoons, pictures
21-22		Interpretation of Visual Text, e.g. adverts, cartoons, pictures	
23-24			Interpretation of Visual Text, e.g. adverts, cartoons, pictures
31-32	Interpretation of Visual Text, e.g. adverts, cartoons, pictures		

1.3 Summary Writing

	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
9-10	Summary Writing	Summary Writing	Summary Writing
13-14	Summary Writing	Summary Writing	Summary Writing
25-26			Summary Writing
27-28	Summary Writing	Summary Writing	
35-36	Summary Writing	Summary Writing	

2. Writing and Presenting

2.1 Transactional Writing

Week	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
1-2	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes
5-6	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles
7-8		Speech, Dialogue, Interview	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes
9-10	Speech, Dialogue, Interview	Speech, Dialogue, Interview	
11-12	Speech, Dialogue, Interview	Speech, Dialogue, Interview	Speech, Dialogue, Interview
15-16	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes
17-18	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles	Speech, Dialogue, Interview	Speech, Dialogue, Interview

21-22	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles
25-26	Speech, Dialogue, Interview	Speech, Dialogue, Interview	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes
29-30	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles	Speech, Dialogue, Interview	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles
31-32	Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes		
33-34		Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes	
35-36	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles	Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles	

FREQUENCY

	GRADE 10 FREQUENCY	GRADE 11 FREQUENCY	GRADE 12 FREQUENCY
Friendly and Formal Letters, CV and Covering Letter, Obituary, Agenda and Minutes	4	3	4
Report, Review, Newspaper or Magazine articles	4	3	3
Speech, Dialogue, Interview	3	6	2

2.2 Essay Writing

Week	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
1-2	Narrative/Descriptive/Argumentative	Reflective, Discursive, Argumentative	Reflective, Argumentative Discursive, Narrative, Descriptive
7-8	Narrative/Descriptive/Argumentative		
9-10			Reflective, Argumentative Discursive, Narrative, Descriptive
13-14	Narrative/Descriptive/Argumentative	Reflective, Discursive, Argumentative	Reflective, Argumentative Narrative
23-24	Narrative/Descriptive/Argumentative	Reflective, Discursive, Argumentative	
27-28	Narrative/Descriptive/Argumentative		
29-30		Reflective, Discursive, Argumentative	
31-32		Reflective, Discursive, Argumentative	
33-34	Narrative/Descriptive/Argumentative		

FREQUENCY

	GRADE 10	GRADE 11	GRADE 12
ESSAY WRITING	6	5	3

3. Listening and Speaking

	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
Listening for Comprehension	1-2, 5-6, 29-30	1-2, 5-6, 11-12, 29-30	1-2, 5-6
Debate	3-4	3-4	
Informal Discussion/ Conversation	7-8, 15-16	17-18, 33-34	15-16, 21-22
Prepared/Unprepared Speech	9-10, 13-14, 25-26, 27-28	7-8, 9-10, 13-14, 25-26, 27-28	7-8, 9-10, 17-18
Dialogue, Interview, Speech	11-12		11-12
Panel Discussion	17-18, 33-34, 35-36	15-16, 35-36	
Meeting and Meeting Procedures	21-22	21-22,	
Story Telling	23-24,	23-24	
Introducing Speaker, Vote of Thanks	31-32	31-32	23-24
Forum, Group, Panel Discussion	37-38		
Report, Review		37-38	
Discussion, Review Conversation, Report			3-4
Debate, Forum, Group, Panel Discussion			13-14

Addendum B: CAPS First Additional Language Analysis

1. Reading and Viewing

1.1 Summary Writing

Grade	Week	Reading and Viewing	Writing and Presenting
10	1-2	Simple Summary of important facts	
	15-16	Revision of Summary	
	21-22	Read for summary Simple argument for and against an issue	
	33-34		Summary Revision
11	1-2	Simple Summary	
	5-6		Point Form Summary, Extend notes to full text- Paraphrasing
	21-22	Read for summary, Discursive text which balances with grammar	
	33-34		Summary Writing revision
	35-36	Revision/ Summary-Literary Text	
12	1-2	Reading for Summary Summary Revision –Newspaper/Reporting/ Media	

1.2 Additional Literary Texts

TEXT TYPE	GRADE 10	GRADE 11	GRADE 12
Fact and Opinion	1-2	1-2	
Explain and explain attitude/ opinion	5-6		
Visual Text related to music (graph, diagram, photograph)	9-10		
Humorous Text (cartoon, comic strip/video)	15-16		
Visual text illustrating viewpoint (photograph, film, cartoon, advertisement, illustration)	17-18		
Visual text on a place of public interest		11-12	
Multimodal advertisement		17-18	
Mass media shorter text: notices, advertisements, brochures, obituaries		25-26	
Critical Language awareness		29-30, 31-32	
Visual text for information relating to set work study			7-8
Research from web page, encyclopedia, reference work,			9-10
Advertisements for prospective job/bursary			11-12, 13-14
Scene from a film or a review of a film			15-16

2. Language Structures and Conventions

LANGUAGE STRUCTURES AND CONVENTIONS				
Text Type		Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
Nouns	Countable & Uncountable			
	Number			
	Singular/Plural			
	Common, Abstract, Possessive, Collective			
	Revision		X	
Determiners	Indefinite, Definite, Demonstrative			
	Use of Determiners		X	
Pronouns	Personal as a subject			
	Personal as direct or indirect object			
	Reflective, Relative, Interrogative			
	Use of Pronouns			X
	Sequencing			X
Adjectives	Position of adjectives, Forming Adjectives			
	Comparison of adjectives	X	X	
	Revision	X		X
Adverbs	Manner, Time, Frequency			
	Probability, Duration , Degree, Phrases			
	Forming Adverbs	X		
	Revision	X	X	X
Prepositions	Place, Direction, Adjective and Preposition			
	Noun and Preposition			
	Revision	X	X	X
Verbs	Transitive and intransitive			
	Verbs with two objects			
	Verb Tenses	X	XX	X
	Simple Present Tense	X		
	Verbs_ Chronological Order		X	
Tense	Present Tense, Past Tense			
Future Tense	Will/ shall + Infinitive, Going to + Infinitive			
	Future progressive (continuous)			
	Future perfect, Future perfect progressive			
Concord	Subject - Verb	XX		
	Context Examples		X	
	Revision			X
Modals	Inability/ Ability	X		
	Permission/ Instructions/Request			
	Probability/ Improbability			
	Possibilities/ Impossibilities			
	Revision			X
Conditional Sentences (integrated in writing)				

	1st, 2nd, 3rd conditional			
Passive/ Active	Passive and Active Voice	X	X	
	Passive Voice	X		X
Speech	Direct Speech/Indirect Speech	XX		
	Reported Speech	XX		
	Punctuation	XX		
	Revision		X	X
Punctuation	Hyphen, colon, semi-colon, Apostrophe			
	Quotation Marks, Parenthesis, Ellipsis			
Spelling/	Spelling Patterns			
Vocabulary	Spelling Rules and Conventions			
	Abbreviations	X	X	
	Acronyms			
	Dictionary Work/ words	X	X	X
	Jargon Words			
	Texting Symbols	X		
	Conjunctions / Logical Connectors	XXX	X	XX
	Tone/Effect	X		
	Synonyms	X	X	
	Antonyms	X		
	Denotation and Connotation	X	X	
	Assumptions and Implied meaning			X
Formal Structures	Honorifics		X	
	No Contractions		X	
	Slang/Colloquial Language		X	
	Euphemism		X	
	Formal Style Elements			X
Language	Polite/ Cultural/Thanks	X	X	
	Multi-modal + Visual			X
	Idioms/ Proverbs/ Sayings	X	X	
	Meeting/ Minutes/Debate	XX	X	
Paragraph	Topic Sentences	X	X	
	Parag Structure in Emotive Writing			
Sound Devices	Rhyme, Rhythm, Refrain	X		
Figurative L	Simile, Alliteration , Repetition	X	X	
	Rhetorical			
Sentence Structures	Subject-Verb-Object	X	X	
Emotive Lang	Generalizing and Stereotyping			
	Emotive Writing	XX		X
Meta Lang	Lang related to Cartoons	X		
	Lang related to Advertisements	X		
	Literal and Figurative	X		
	Image and Symbols		X	

3. Listening and Speaking

Activity	Grade 10 Weeks	Grade 11 Weeks	Grade 12 Weeks
Listen	1-2, 3-4, 9-10, 27-28, 31-32, 33-34, 35-36	1-2, 5-6, 9-10, 27-28, 31-32, 33-34, 35-36	3-4, 5-6, 11-12, 25-26, 29-30
Prepared Reading	21-22	29-30	21-22, 23-24
Explain	11-12	11-12	
Panel Discussion	17-18	21-22	
Unprepared Reading		3-4, 7-8,	9-10
Speaking and Listening	5-6, 23-24, 15-16		
Reading Comprehension	7-8		
Meeting Procedures	29-30		
Researched Speech	13-14, 25-26	13-14, 25-26	15-16
Debate		17-18	
Discuss		23-24	1-2, 7-8, 17-18, 27-28, 33-34

4. Writing and Presenting

TEXT TYPE	Purpose	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
ESSAYS				
Descriptive	To describe something in a vivid way	X	X	X
Discussion Discursive	To present arguments from differing viewpoints			
Narrative	To entertain	X	X	X
Persuasion Argumentative	To argue for a point of view; to attempt to convince the reader	X	X	X
Reflective	To give emotional reaction and feeling on a specific matter		X	
Longer Transactional				
Agenda and Minutes	Agenda-provides structure Minutes provide a record of the meeting	X	X	
Business Letter	Various; to apply for a job or bursary, to complain, to request	X	X	X
CV	To provide a summary of a person's life and qualifications			X
Dialogue	It is a record of the exchanges as they occurs, directly from the speaker's point of view	X	X	
Filling in Forms	Various, to apply for a job, place at a university	X		
Information Report	To Classify and describe phenomena			
Interview	One or more persons question, consult or evaluate another person			
Obituary	To commemorate and inform others of someone's death			

Personal Recount	To tell about a personal experience	X		
Personal Friendly Letter	To inform and maintain a relationship	X		
Review (Book/Film)	To summarize, analyze and respond to literary texts or performances	X		X
Speech	To inform, educate, enlighten and entertain the public			
Advertisements	To persuade someone to buy something or use a service	X	X	
Diary/ Journal	To record and Reflect on personal experience			X
SHORTER TRANSACTIONAL WRITING				
E-Mail	To inform and maintain a relationship	X		X
Explanation	To explain how or why a process occurs	X		
Flyer	To persuade someone to buy something or use a service			X
Invitation (and reply)	To invite someone to an event or to do something (and either accept or decline)	X		
Procedures	To describe or instruct how something is done through a series of sequenced steps		X	
Opinion		X		
Literary Paragraph		X	X	X
Imaginative		X	X	
Informative Paragraph		X	X	
Summary		X	X	X
Response to Photograph			X	

Addendum C: Coxhead (2000) -Academic Word List by Frequency

analyse	1	achieve	2	alternative	3	access	4	academy	5	abstract	6	adapt	7	abandon	8	accommodate	9	adjacent	10
approach	1	acquire	2	circumstance	3	adequate	4	adjust	5	accurate	6	adult	7	accompany	8	analogy	9	albeit	10
area	1	administrate	2	comment	3	annual	4	alter	5	acknowledge	6	advocate	7	accumulate	8	anticipate	9	assemble	10
assess	1	affect	2	compensate	3	apparent	4	amend	5	aggregate	6	aid	7	ambiguous	8	assure	9	collapse	10
assume	1	appropriate	2	component	3	approximate	4	aware	5	allocate	6	channel	7	append	8	attain	9	colleague	10
authority	1	aspect	2	consent	3	attitude	4	capacity	5	assign	6	chemical	7	appreciate	8	behalf	9	compile	10
available	1	assist	2	considerable	3	attribute	4	challenge	5	attach	6	classic	7	arbitrary	8	bulk	9	conceive	10
benefit	1	category	2	constant	3	civil	4	clause	5	author	6	comprehensive	7	automate	8	cease	9	convince	10
concept	1	chapter	2	constrain	3	code	4	compound	5	bond	6	comprise	7	bias	8	coherent	9	depress	10
consist	1	commission	2	contribute	3	commit	4	conflict	5	brief	6	confirm	7	chart	8	coincide	9	encounter	10
constitute	1	community	2	convene	3	communicate	4	consult	5	capable	6	contrary	7	clarify	8	commence	9	enormous	10
context	1	complex	2	coordinate	3	concentrate	4	contact	5	cite	6	convert	7	commodity	8	compatible	9	forthcoming	10
contract	1	compute	2	core	3	confer	4	decline	5	cooperate	6	couple	7	complement	8	concurrent	9	incline	10
create	1	conclude	2	corporate	3	contrast	4	discrete	5	discriminate	6	decade	7	conform	8	confine	9	integrity	10
data	1	conduct	2	correspond	3	cycle	4	draft	5	display	6	definite	7	contemporary	8	controversy	9	intrinsic	10
define	1	consequent	2	criteria	3	debate	4	enable	5	diverse	6	deny	7	contradict	8	converse	9	invoke	10
derive	1	construct	2	deduce	3	despite	4	energy	5	domain	6	differentiate	7	crucial	8	device	9	levy	10
distribute	1	consume	2	demonstrate	3	dimension	4	enforce	5	edit	6	dispose	7	currency	8	devote	9	likewise	10
economy	1	credit	2	document	3	domestic	4	entity	5	enhance	6	dynamic	7	denote	8	diminish	9	nonetheless	10
environment	1	culture	2	dominate	3	emerge	4	equivalent	5	estate	6	eliminate	7	detect	8	distort	9	notwithstanding	10
establish	1	design	2	emphasis	3	error	4	evolve	5	exceed	6	empirical	7	deviate	8	duration	9	odd	10
estimate	1	distinct	2	ensure	3	ethnic	4	expand	5	expert	6	equip	7	displace	8	erode	9	ongoing	10
evident	1	element	2	exclude	3	goal	4	expose	5	explicit	6	extract	7	drama	8	ethic	9	panel	10
export	1	equate	2	framework	3	grant	4	external	5	federal	6	file	7	eventual	8	format	9	persist	10
factor	1	evaluate	2	fund	3	hence	4	facilitate	5	fee	6	finite	7	exhibit	8	found	9	pose	10
finance	1	feature	2	illustrate	3	hypothesis	4	fundamental	5	flexible	6	foundation	7	exploit	8	inherent	9	reluctance	10
formula	1	final	2	immigrate	3	implement	4	generate	5	furthermore	6	globe	7	fluctuate	8	insight	9	so-called	10
function	1	focus	2	imply	3	implicate	4	generation	5	gender	6	grade	7	guideline	8	integral	9	straightforward	10
identify	1	impact	2	initial	3	impose	4	image	5	ignorance	6	guarantee	7	highlight	8	intermediate	9	undergo	10
income	1	injure	2	instance	3	integrate	4	liberal	5	incentive	6	hierarchy	7	implicit	8	manual	9	whereby	10
indicate	1	institute	2	interact	3	internal	4	licence	5	incidence	6	identical	7	induce	8	mature	9		

individual	1	invest	2	justify	3	investigate	4	logic	5	incorporate	6	ideology	7	inevitable	8	mediate	9		
interpret	1	item	2	layer	3	job	4	margin	5	index	6	infer	7	infrastructure	8	medium	9		
involve	1	journal	2	link	3	label	4	medical	5	inhibit	6	innovate	7	inspect	8	military	9		
issue	1	maintain	2	locate	3	mechanism	4	mental	5	initiate	6	insert	7	intense	8	minimal	9		
labour	1	normal	2	maximise	3	obvious	4	modify	5	input	6	intervene	7	manipulate	8	mutual	9		
legal	1	obtain	2	minor	3	occupy	4	monitor	5	instruct	6	isolate	7	minimize	8	norm	9		
legislate	1	participate	2	negate	3	option	4	network	5	intelligence	6	media	7	nuclear	8	overlap	9		
major	1	perceive	2	outcome	3	output	4	notion	5	interval	6	mode	7	offset	8	passive	9		
method	1	positive	2	partner	3	overall	4	objective	5	lecture	6	paradigm	7	paragraph	8	portion	9		
occur	1	potential	2	philosophy	3	parallel	4	orient	5	migrate	6	phenomenon	7	plus	8	preliminary	9		
percent	1	previous	2	physical	3	parameter	4	perspective	5	minimum	6	priority	7	practitioner	8	protocol	9		
period	1	primary	2	proportion	3	phase	4	precise	5	ministry	6	prohibit	7	predominant	8	qualitative	9		
policy	1	purchase	2	publish	3	predict	4	prime	5	motive	6	publication	7	prospect	8	refine	9		
principle	1	range	2	react	3	principal	4	psychology	5	neutral	6	quote	7	radical	8	relax	9		
proceed	1	region	2	register	3	prior	4	pursue	5	nevertheless	6	release	7	random	8	restrain	9		
process	1	regulate	2	rely	3	professional	4	ratio	5	overseas	6	reverse	7	reinforce	8	revolution	9		
require	1	relevant	2	remove	3	project	4	reject	5	precede	6	simulate	7	restore	8	rigid	9		
research	1	reside	2	scheme	3	promote	4	revenue	5	presume	6	sole	7	revise	8	route	9		
respond	1	resource	2	sequence	3	regime	4	stable	5	rational	6	somewhat	7	schedule	8	scenario	9		
role	1	restrict	2	sex	3	resolve	4	style	5	recover	6	submit	7	tense	8	sphere	9		
section	1	secure	2	shift	3	retain	4	substitute	5	reveal	6	successor	7	terminate	8	subordinate	9		
sector	1	seek	2	specify	3	series	4	sustain	5	scope	6	survive	7	theme	8	supplement	9		
significant	1	select	2	sufficient	3	statistic	4	symbol	5	subsidy	6	thesis	7	thereby	8	suspend	9		
similar	1	site	2	task	3	status	4	target	5	tape	6	topic	7	uniform	8	team	9		
source	1	strategy	2	technical	3	stress	4	transit	5	trace	6	transmit	7	vehicle	8	temporary	9		
specific	1	survey	2	technique	3	subsequent	4	trend	5	transform	6	ultimate	7	via	8	trigger	9		
structure	1	text	2	technology	3	sum	4	version	5	transport	6	unique	7	virtual	8	unify	9		
theory	1	tradition	2	valid	3	summary	4	welfare	5	underlie	6	visible	7	visual	8	violate	9		
vary	1	transfer	2			undertake	4	whereas	5	utilize	6	voluntary	7	widespread	8	vision	9		

Addendum D: FAL Assessment Rubric for Prepared Speech- Grades 10-12

Code		Outstanding Code 7 16 – 20	Meritorious Code 6 14 – 15	Substantial Code 5 12 – 13	Adequate Code 4 10 – 11	Moderate Code 3 8 – 9	Elementary Code 2 6 – 7	Not Achieved Code 1 5 – 0
Criteria	Planning	Outstanding evidence that more than the minimum of two relevant resources have been effectively consulted and acknowledged.	Convincing evidence that more than the minimum of two relevant resources have been consulted and acknowledged.	Very good evidence that a minimum of two relevant resources have been consulted and acknowledged.	Good evidence that a relevant resource has been consulted and acknowledged.	Some evidence that a relevant resource was used.	Limited evidence of use of a resource.	No evidence of resources used.
	Content	Outstanding choice of topic which is original, relevant and sensitive to the audience. Outstanding introduction which immediately grasps audience attention, outstanding development of ideas and argument, outstanding conclusion that ends the speech skilfully.	Convincing choice of topic which is largely original, relevant and sensitive to the audience. Convincing introduction which grasps audience attention, convincing development of ideas and argument, convincing conclusion that ends the speech skilfully.	Very good choice of topic which is original and sensitive to the audience. Very good introduction which grasps audience attention, very good development of ideas and argument, very good conclusion that ends the speech skilfully.	Good choice of topic which is original and sensitive to the audience. Good introduction, good audience attention, good development of ideas and argument, good conclusion that ends the speech.	Choice of topic shows some originality and sensitivity to the audience. Some evidence of introduction, audience attention, development of ideas and argument, and some attempt at a conclusion.	Choice of topic shows limited originality and sensitivity to the audience. Limited evidence of introduction, audience attention, development of ideas and argument, and a limited attempt at a conclusion.	Choice of topic shows little or no originality or sensitivity to the audience. Little or no evidence of introduction, audience attention, development of ideas and argument, and no attempt at a conclusion. Speech completely plagiarised.
	Critical use of language	Outstanding ability to manipulate language Outstanding vocabulary.	Convincing ability to manipulate language Convincing vocabulary.	Very good ability to manipulate language. Very good vocabulary.	Good ability to manipulate language. Good vocabulary.	Some ability to manipulate language. Moderate use of vocabulary.	Limited ability to manipulate language Limited vocabulary.	Unable to manipulate language. Very limited vocabulary.
	Presentation	Impressive presentation with outstanding style, register, eye contact, facial expression, gestures and body language. Confident delivery with very effective use of cue cards.	A well structured presentation with convincing style, register, eye contact, facial expression, gestures and body language. Cue cards used effectively and with confidence.	A structured presentation with very good style, register, eye contact, facial expression, gestures and body language. Cue cards used effectively.	Adequate presentation with good style, register, eye contact, facial expression, gestures and body language. Some dependency on cue cards, but still good contact.	Moderate presentation with some use of style, register, eye contact, facial expression, gestures and body language. Use of cue cards often distracts from the presentation.	Elementary presentation with limited use of style, register, eye contact, facial expression, gestures and body language. Dependent on cue cards.	Ineffective presentation with little or no style, register, eye contact, facial expression, gestures and body language. No use of cue cards.
	Use of audio and/or visual aids	Impressive choice and presentation of visual / audio aids	Convincing choice and use of visual / audio aids	Very good choice and use of visual / audio aids	Good choice and use of visual / audio aids	Some use of visual / audio aids but not always appropriate	Limited use of visual / audio aids	Makes no use of visual / audio aids

Comments: