



Challenges faced by learning support teachers when
teaching English as First Additional Language

by

NTEBOHENG SYLVIA TSHATSHELO

submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MAGISTER EDUCATIONIS (EDUCATION PSYCHOLOGY)

in the Faculty of Education

at the

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

Supervisor: Prof. Funke Omidire

February 2021

Declaration of originality

I, Nteboheng Sylvia Tshatshelo (student number 16047011), declare that the dissertation, which I hereby submit for the degree Magister Education is in Educational Psychology at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other tertiary institution.

Nteboheng Tshatshelo

05 February 2021

Ethical clearance



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	CLEARANCE NUMBER: EP 17/04/05
DEGREE AND PROJECT	MEd Challenges faced by learning support teachers when teaching English as first additional language
INVESTIGATOR	Ms Molebogeng Tshatshele
DEPARTMENT	Educational Psychology
APPROVAL TO COMMENCE STUDY	20 November 2017
DATE OF CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	29 January 2021
CHAIRPERSON OF ETHICS COMMITTEE: Prof Funke Omidre	
	
CC	Ms Bronwynne Swarts Prof Funke Omidre

This Ethics Clearance Certificate should be read in conjunction with the Integrated Declaration Form (IDF) which specifies details regarding:

- Compliance with approved research protocol,
- No significant changes,
- Informed consent/assent,
- Adverse experience or undue risk,
- Registered title, and
- Data storage requirements.

Dedications

I dedicate this research to my late parents, Khubedu and Malebohang Makhetha who taught me that it is never too late to pursue my passion.

Acknowledgement

As God created this path for me long before I was born, He also provided me the strength, knowledge and perseverance to complete this study. I have relied on the following people for support and encouragement:

To, Dr Annelize Du Plessis I will forever appreciate your unwavering support and guidance.

To my supervisor, Professor Funke- thank you for your guidance and support, your knowledge and skills has made this study a success.

To my family, my husband, Zola Shepherd and my children, Zimkhitha, Lisakhanya, Imbaliyethu and Misokuhle thank you for being the source of strength in my life

Special thanks to the learning support teachers of the Gauteng Province, who took part in my research. I could not have done this research without your willingness to participate in my study.

Abstract

Language issues among learners in the intermediate phase remain increasingly challenging to identify and resolve. In turn, teaching and learning development strategies are adversely impacted. Categorically, learners experiencing scholastic difficulties, as a result of language difficulties fall under Learners with Special Needs (LSN). Subsequently, with the advent of Inclusive Education policy, particularly the Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS), LSNs are supported by Learning Support Teachers (LST) to gain access to the curriculum. However, language problems remain barriers to learning for many learners. This study seeks to identify the challenges and the resulting implications that LST face on teaching English First Additional Language (EFAL).

The study is qualitative in nature using exploratory case study as a research design and adopts the use of qualitative methods – such as the participatory reflection and action (PRA) workshops, focus group discussion, observation, field notes – when getting data for research participants who were serving in the LST role in Tshwane South District. The audio-visual tools and a diary were the instruments used to record data. Inductive thematic analysis was used to code and identify themes.

The most outstanding themes were information seeking and understanding teaching through practice, and shortage of skills and resources.

The findings showed that EFAL teachers were vital in helping learners gain access to the curriculum despite significant challenges that were faced. It is recommended that non-LST Educators receive more training on SIAS policy and improve collaboration between parents and educators. Future research should investigate the influence of the specific values such as patience and compassion on EFAL delivery.

Key Terms: Language, Learning Support Teachers, EFAL

Language editor

Letter from language editor to indicate that language editing has been done.

CERTIFICATE OF EDITING

I, NTOAGAE ISAK PHOLO, hereby certify that I have edited in part the course work of Nteboheng Sylvia Tshatshele.

The edit profile includes language and grammar, punctuation, spelling, wording, phrasing, sentence construction, content coherence, content relevance.

This certificate of editing is signed by me on the 14 December 2020 in Welkom, Free State.



Mr NI PHOLO

Physical address

10071 Mokatsane Street
Oppenheimer Park
Motse-Thabong
Welkom
Free State Province
South Africa

Contact details:

Email address: isakpholo906@gmail.com

Telephone: 0670997096

List of Acronyms

Acronym	Description
ATP	Annual Teaching Plan
DBST	District-Based Support Team
EFAL	English First Additional Language Learner
ESL	English Second Language Learner
FSS	Full School Service
ISP	Individual Support Plan
IEP	Individual Education Plan
ILST	Institutional-Level Support Team
SBST	School Based Support Team
ISP	Individual Support Plan
LSN	Learners with Special Needs
LST	Learning Support Teacher

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration of originality.....	i
Ethical clearance.....	ii
Dedications.....	iii
Acknowledgement.....	iv
Abstract.....	v
Language editor.....	vi
List of Acronyms.....	vii
List of Figures.....	x
List of Tables.....	x
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Background and context.....	2
1.3 Problem statement and rationale.....	3
1.4 Research questions.....	5
1.5 Aim of the study.....	6
1.6 Concept clarification.....	6
1.6.1 Learning Support Teachers (LST).....	6
1.6.2 English as First Additional Language (EFAL).....	6
1.7 Theoretical framework.....	7
1.8 Research approach.....	9
1.9 Quality criteria.....	11
1.9.1 Trustworthiness of the study.....	11
1.9.2 Credibility.....	11
1.9.3 Confirmability.....	11
1.9.4 Transferability.....	11
1.9.5 Dependability.....	11
1.10 Significance of the study.....	12
1.11 dissertation Outline.....	12
1.12 Summary.....	13
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	15
2.1 Introduction.....	15
2.2 Global discourse on challenges with LSEN teaching.....	16
2.3 The South African discourse on teaching LSEN.....	17
2.4 Teaching learners with special needs.....	18
2.4.1 Learner diversity.....	21
2.4.2 Teaching English as First additional language (EFAL).....	22
2.4.3 Reading difficulties as one of the underlying factors.....	23
2.4.4 Learning Support Teacher (LST).....	24
2.4.5 Teacher's personal resources.....	26
2.5 Challenges related to teaching and learning EFALI.....	27
2.5.1 Personal factors.....	27
2.5.2 External factors.....	28
2.5.3 Environmental factors.....	29
2.6 Challenges with implementing inclusive education policy.....	30
2.7 Strengthening support through collaboration.....	31
2.8 Teaching strategies for LSN.....	33
2.8.1 Differentiation.....	33
2.8.2 Differentiation for the 21 st century.....	34
2.8.3 Scaffolding.....	36
2.8.4 Direct teaching.....	37
2.9 summary.....	37
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	39
3.1 Introduction.....	39
3.2 Research perspectives.....	39
3.2.1 Interpretivist perspective.....	39
3.2.2 Qualitative approach.....	40
3.3 Methodological choices.....	41

3.3.1	Explorative case study	42
3.3.2	Selection of case	44
3.3.3	Selection of research participants	44
3.4	Data collection and documentation	45
3.4.1	Participatory Reflection and Action (PRA) activities	46
3.4.2	Focus group discussions.....	49
3.4.3	Observations	50
3.4.4	Field notes.....	52
3.4.5	Audio and visual data collection and documentation strategy	52
3.5	Data analysis and interpretation.....	53
3.6	Quality criteria	54
3.6.1	Credibility.....	55
3.6.2	Transferability.....	55
3.6.3	Dependability.....	55
3.6.4	Confirmability.....	56
3.6.5	Authenticity.....	56
3.7	Ethical consideration	57
3.7.1	Permission.....	57
3.7.2	Confidentiality, privacy and anonymity.....	57
3.7.3	Nonmaleficence and trust	57
3.8	Summary	58
CHAPTER 4: THE PRESENTATION OF RESULTS		59
4.1	Introduction.....	59
4.2	The results.....	59
4.2.1	Theme 1 – Seeking and understanding information through practice	60
4.2.2	Theme 2 – Skills and resources.....	75
4.3	Summary	79
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		80
5.1	Introduction.....	80
5.2	Summary of chapters	82
5.3	Research conclusion	82
5.3.1	Conclusions on the secondary research question 1	83
5.3.2	Conclusions on the secondary research question 2	84
5.3.3	Conclusions on the primary research question 3.....	85
5.4	The study contributions to the extant knowledge.....	88
5.5	Limitation of the study	88
5.6	Recommendations	89
5.6.1	Recommendations for training	89
5.6.2	Recommendations for practices.....	90
5.6.3	Recommendation for further research	90
5.7	Concluding remarks	91
BIBLIOGRAPHY		ERROR! BOOKMARK NOT DEFINED.
APPENDIX A: PARTICIPATION INVITATION LETTER.....		106
APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT.....		107
APPENDIX C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE		108
APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE.....		110
APPENDIX E: PRA-BASED ACTIVITIES.....		111
APPENDIX F: EXCERPT OF TRANSCRIPTIONS		113
APPENDIX G: REFLECTIVE JOURNAL.....		118
APPENDIX H: OBSERVATION NOTES.....		119
APPENDIX I: OBSERVATION SCHEDULE		121
APPENDIX J: POST-CONSENSUS POSTER FOR MEMBER CHECKING.....		121

List of Figures

Figure 1-1 A visual illustration of the theoretical model.....	7
Figure 1-2. A dissertation chapter layout.....	13
Figure 3-1 A photograph of participants in a PRA- based group activity.....	48
Figure 3-2 A photograph of one group documenting their experiences	48
Figure 3-3 A photograph of PRA poster by group 2.....	49
Figure 3-4 A photograph of group 2 documenting their experiences	51
Figure 3-5 The steps of data analysis and interpretation process.....	54
Figure 4-1. High-level patterns of challenges LST face teaching EFAL to LSEN	59
Figure 5-1. Research conclusions according to the research question and themes	83
Figure 5-2. A visual summary of the implementation strategies that teachers use..	86

List of Tables

Table 1-1. Research methodological summary.	10
Table 2-1 Manifestation of reading difficulties	24
Table 2-2 The key components of differentiation and techniques for support.....	35
Table 3-1 Demographic information about the participants of PRA –based activity	45
Table 3-2 The field visits for the PAR workshops and focus group discussion	47
Table 4-1 Abbreviations used.....	60
Table 4-2 Theme 1 and identified sub-themes, together with inclusion and exclusion criteria	61
Table 4-3. Educators’ pedagogical practices used in the classroom.....	62
Table 4-4. Educators' knowledge in accordance with teaching EFAL as specified in the inclusive education policy	67
Table 4-5. Educators' support structures.....	72
Table 4-6. Educators’ collaborative relationship with parents	73

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Learners with Special Needs (LSN), like all the other learners, begin their education with expectations to make it through the academic year. Nowadays, with the introduction of the inclusive education policy, in particular, the Policy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS), LSN are supported by Learning Support Teachers (LST) for the sole purpose of helping learners gain access to the curriculum (Johnson et al., 2016). However, with such educational changes, so has been an ideological paradigm shift which has placed high demands and expectations on LST. Some of the demands include attending to the socio-emotional and learning needs of LSN. The changes demand LSTs, among others, to regularly communicate with parents, collaborate with colleagues, attend to referral matters, plan and prepare lessons, and develop Individual Support Plan (ISP) for learners (Johnson et al., 2016). LST are also required to implement ISP, adhere to administrative rules and district requirements for differentiating instruction including adaptation of learning materials in order to facilitate learning for LSN (Johnson et al., 2016; Sari & Er, 2016; Villa et al., 2005). When so much is expected of LST, accomplishing set goals can become difficult, resulting in a negative working environment. Overtime, because of continuous failure to accomplish what is expected of them, LST feel frustrated, experience and develop feelings of burnout and harbour negative feelings towards the profession (Alson, 2019; Kerry-Henkel, 2018).

Although the extant literature abounds with knowledge explaining the relevance of inclusive education policy and how best it can be adapted for the benefit of learners, there is yet sufficient knowledge on the impact it has had on the LST, especially the challenges LST face when teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL). The problems with teaching English Language to Intermediate Phase learners have increasingly become difficult to resolve. In most cases, language problems have affected learners and the development of teaching and learning when it is not properly and adequately attended to or addressed (Makhwathana, 2015). Thus, unattended language problems have turned out to become barriers to learning for many learners. This study sought to identify challenges LST face when teaching EFAL to LSN, and the implications thereof to teaching and learning together with the role of the EFAL teacher in helping LSN access the curriculum.

In the subsequent sections, I discuss in Section 1.2 the background and context of the study; section 1.3 is the problem statement; section 1.4 is about the research questions; section 1.5

refers to the aims for the study; section 1.6 provides clarification on the key concepts in the study. In sections 1.7 you will find the discussion on the theoretical framework adopted for the study whereas section 1.8 is the summary of the research approach used and section 1.9 deals with the quality criteria to provide validity of the study. Sections 1.10, 1.11, and 1.12 you will find the discussions on the significance of the study, the thesis outline and the summary respectively.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

Several studies on teachers for Special Education have found that there were high expectations regarding inclusive teaching instruction, the implementation of behavioural intervention plans and the increase in the load of paperwork which heightened the risk of developing burnout (Alson, 2019; Johnson et al., 2016). In the South African context, it has been argued that the greatest demands on LST emanated from learners in resource constrained schools or in schools serving learners from resource constrained communities (Dreyer, 2013; Zimmerman & Smit, 2014) especially teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL) (Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016). LST are expected to teach EFAL and yet lack proficiency in the subject matter, particularly, content knowledge. This has created a perception that LST are as incompetent when unable to successfully achieve the needed goals, thus leading to feeling emotionally drained, isolated and ultimately burnt-out (Alson, 2019). Faced with some, if not all of the aforementioned challenges and its environmental factors, LST often feel discouraged and at a loss for self-esteem (Maddock & Maroun, 2018; Sedibe & Fourie, 2018). The exposure to unnecessary emotional and physical pressure does influence how LSTs instruct in a class, their interactions with learners, parents and colleagues that often result in LST becoming less concerned about diverse teaching instruction that could benefit LSN (Ngubane, Ntombela, & Govender, 2020).

The aforementioned challenges create a need to understand the characteristics of LSTs who educate LSN, particularly grades 4 and 5 (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019; Hansen, Buitendach, & Kanengoni, 2015). In a study that was conducted in Greece that investigated the difficulties experienced by LST in a secondary school, it was highlighted that 94.5% of participants emphasised teaching instruction as a challenging task due to LSN's diverse needs. This demanded LST to implement the grouping ability as an alternative instructional method for LSN. Evidence has significantly demonstrated that the quality of instruction provided by teachers does indeed determine a learner's way of learning (Crawford et al., 2013). However, not much is known regarding the impact that quality of instruction has on learners' academic skills, particularly LSN, in the intermediate phase (Feng & Sass, 2013). Therefore, this study

attempts to explore and fill this gap by focusing on the challenges LST experience when teaching EFAL to LSN, particularly in grade 4 and 5 of the intermediate phase.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RATIONALE

South African education policy has faced challenges towards achieving national aspirations to improve education across the board since the era of apartheid (Howie et al., 2017). As a result, inclusive education policy was implemented and has been regarded as an alternative option for LSN (DoE, 2001). To date, ensuring sufficient availability of resources in the implementation processes (be it in the form of human resources, scholastic and financial) remains a challenge for successful and sustainable inclusive education policy. In this regard, the deployment of LSTs is an indication of commitment and obligation on behalf of government to forge ahead with inclusive education practices (Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016). In spite of the imperative necessity of keeping up with the latest international trends, transformation of education has instead created an atmosphere of unpredictability for LSTs career. This is because LSTs have been required to adjust to the modifications brought by inclusive education practice in order to support LSN effectively (Dreyer, 2013; Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001). Nonetheless, it is notable that people's competency to adjust and manage the situations at hand is interconnected to the context in which they exist. Hence, the capability to successfully find one's feet does not only depend on the degree to which the person operates within a supportive environment, but on one's dispositional characteristics (Gist, 2014).

As the LSTs are confronted with many challenges, so are the learners taking English as First Additional language (Bracken, Driver, & Kadi-Hanifi, 2016). This was evident in the recent Progress in International Reading Literacy (PIRLS) 2016 study, which placed the South African learners in Grade 4 and 5 at the lowest level, with 80% of the learners unable to achieve the international benchmark (Howie et al., 2017). Only 7% of the learners attained the advanced level in PIRLS 2011 (Howie et al., 2012). Further, PIRLS 2016 study clarified that more than 50% learners who were tested in Sepedi (a dominant language in township schools of Pretoria) had had their assessment made easier but could not read for meaning. This outcome suggested possible challenges with reading for meaning in EFAL. However, it would serve well to be mindful of the hindsight on the languages in South Africa, hence the existence of 11 official languages. The Gauteng province accommodates different linguistic, ethnic and cultural demographics in their schools (Zimmerman & Smit, 2014). Consequently the school environments demand LSTs to be culturally mindful when delivering EFAL content (Lucas & Villegas, 2011, 2013). Indisputably, the changing role of LST is increasingly becoming a challenging prospect in the contemporary era as increased emphasis is now placed on accountability for LSN (Bandeira de Mello et al., 2015). This has led to overstated reports on

the statistics of learners who meet grade-level outcomes, particularly in Grade 4. In some instances it has resulted into discrepancies in the provision of learner support (Bandeira de Mello et al., 2015).

Nonetheless, I would like to argue that LSTs must be provided with sufficient support such as resources to work collaboratively in ensuring positive outcomes for LSN and facilitating collective engagement at the school level for LST to become effective in transformation (Dreyer, 2013). The evidence brought to the fore by Vlachou, Didaskalou and Kontofryou (2015) as well as Anthony and Kritsonis (2006) showed that, although LSTs are required to follow CAPS policy, scholastic demands of LSN necessitate LSTs to adapt to the curriculum and assessment standards, leading to deviation in assessment principle which calls for grade level assessment not to be compromised. This created difficulties for instructional balance between learners' level of functioning and curriculum goals together with scarcity in material and human resources to address learners' needs effectively (Vlachou, Didaskalou, & Kontofryou, 2015). My 18 years of experience as LST with the experience of being assigned a newly established Full-Service School situated in a township with low socio-economic factors, the high unemployment rate and high incidents of theft and violence pose significant challenges and impact on teaching and learning. Furthermore, diversity of languages among learners (that includes, isiZulu, Sepedi, Setswana, isiXhosa, Ndebele, Xitsonga, Tshivhenda, and Sesotho) coupled with parents' low levels of education has made English a Third Additional Language for some learners, resulting in more responsibilities fulfilled by LST and the school and less on parents (Levine & Munsch, 2016).

It should be noted that the diversity of LSN in grades 4 and 5 brings along challenges such as language assessment. I had in the past conducted a scholastic assessment with LSN and it showed gaps in basic language skills with difficulties in writing and spelling, and 55 % of learners with reading difficulties. Such learners included those who could decode but struggle to comprehend and learners who could identify few single sounds but could not construct meaningful high frequency words. Others were able to decode but could not construct a coherent paragraph, while others were unable to read for meaning, making it difficult to support a diverse group effectively at once. It should be noted that the majority of the learners were without clinical diagnosis, except for the scholastic assessment that was administered to determine learners' reading and spelling age in First Additional Language. The high number of learners with First Additional Language challenges in grade 4 resulted into collaboration between LST and English teacher in grade 4. LST- general- teacher- interactions through co-teaching brought forth an idea on how English FAL in grade 4 was taught. That enabled the LST and the general teacher to plan lessons together and to deliver the content together.

However, human resource challenges halted such an initiative. During co-teaching, one of the most notable contextual challenges was the overcrowded classes which made the learner-teacher interaction difficult. It is worth noting that these challenges in the general classroom may have influence not only on the LSN but also on LST. In addition, LSNs were granted LSN numbers (support numbers) which qualified them to be weighted so that the learner-teacher-ratio can be in proportion to weighted learners (ELRC, 2018) as a result there was no reflection of weighting in the grade 4 classroom.

One of the biggest challenges experienced by the LST was the issue of class timetables that did not accommodate similar barriers that were addressed together. The issue of insufficient time became a pressing one when one considered that these learners (LSN) were from resource –constraint backgrounds (with insufficient learning resources and support) (Hoadley, 2012). It should be noted that support provision by the LST required consistent and prolonged interactions with the learner (Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart, 2011, 2016). As a result, when support provision by the LST was compromised due to time factor, the gaps for learning development continue to increase for learners requiring individualized support. Negative consequences on learners' individual needs for achievement may surface. Therefore, I need to find out challenges that are faced by other LSTs in my district when teaching English as the First Additional language focusing on reading.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following primary research question guides the study and literature review:

What are the challenges faced by Learning Support Teachers (LST) when teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL) to Learners with Special Needs (LSN)?

In order to answer the main research question, the following secondary research questions were needed

- I. What is enabling the teaching of English as First Additional Language to learners with special needs?
- II. What support do LSTs require to teach English as First Additional Language to learners with special needs?

1.5 AIM OF THE STUDY

Given the above background and rationale, this study seeks to explore the challenges that are faced by Learning Support Teachers (LSTs) when teaching English as First Additional Language to Learners with special Needs (LSN) in the Intermediate Phase (Grades 4 & 5).

1.6 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

1.6.1 Learning Support Teachers (LST)

Learning Support Teachers (LST) work closely with classroom teachers. They co-plan, co-teach and assess learners in an effort to meet the varying needs of learners within the school (Dreyer, 2013). LSTs predominantly work with English First Additional Language learners who have mild and moderate learning needs. LSTs play a pivotal role in developing collaborative relationships with administrators, teachers and parents in order to create individual learning support plans with clearly articulated goals and strategies (Bojuwoye et al., 2014; Mfuthwana & Dreyer, 2018).

A common feature of LSTs' responsibilities includes but is not limited to delivering instruction in the resource class and matching content of the curriculum while modifying learning objectives of instruction (Vlachou, Didaskalou, & Kontofryou, 2015); assessing learners that are considered to be experiencing difficulties in achieving mainstream curriculum so as to determine the support needed; developing Individual Support Plans (ISP) for each learner in consultation and collaboration with School Based Support Team (Dreyer, 2013; Vlachou, Didaskalou, & Kontofryou, 2015). For the purpose of this study, Learning Support Teachers are qualified educators who are assigned the role of providing additional support to learners, including those with special needs.

1.6.2 English as First Additional Language (EFAL)

Language is an extremely important way of interacting with people around us. We use language to ask questions and to let others know how we feel and what we need (Makhwathana, 2015). A first language is the mother tongue or native language of a person while a second language is a language a person learns in order to communicate with the native speaker of that language (Mahlo & Hugo, 2013). The first language is like an instinct which is triggered by birth and developed with the experience of being exposed to it. English as First Additional Language focuses on learners' communicative competencies involving oral work, creative writing, language and grammar and literature in English. Language problems affect learners and the development of teaching and learning if they are not properly attended to or addressed (Dreyer, Engelbrecht, & Swart, 2012; Makhwathana, 2015).

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The ecology of developmental Interacted Systems Model (Bronfenbrenner, 2010) that was adopted for the study is based on Developmental Ecological Systems by Bronfenbrenner and Morris (1998). Bronfenbrenner (2010) describes the interacting systems in an ecological systems model with a view of the child (learner for the sake of this study) as “existing within a complex ecological context consisting of numerous intrafamilial and extrafamilial systems that affect children’s development”. Specifically, there are four interconnected systems that comprise the model (as seen in Figure 1-1).

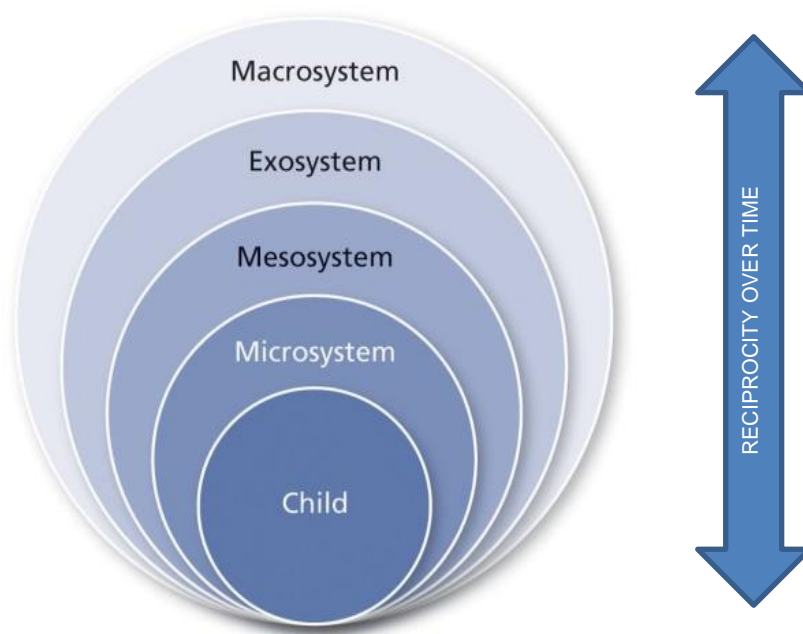


Figure 1-1 A visual illustration of the theoretical model

Braaten (2018) asserted that the structure of Bronfenbrenner’s environment consists of four levels.

The levels are:

- 1) Microsystem incorporates the relations and influences children have with immediate surroundings such as family, school or neighbourhood environment.
- 2) Mesosystem provides interaction between structures of children’s microsystem. For example, the connection between the child’s educator and their parents.

3) Exosystem are the structures which impact child's development by connecting with the child's microsystem such as family resources based on the community, the child might not be directly involved in this system, but the actions of the family have an impact on them.

4) Macrosystem includes customs, laws and cultural values and is considered the outermost system in the child's development. The reciprocity over the time (as seen in Figure 1-1) is the Chronosystem that encompasses the dimension of time as it relays to child's development such as the timing of a parent's death (Braaten, 2018).

The microsystem consists of the immediate family environment or setting in which the child lives, such as parent and sibling interactions that exert an influence on the child. The mesosystem refers to inter-connections between two or more settings or the interactions outside the family environment such as school and peer influences (Geldenhuys & Wevers, 2013). The exosystem is the community context that may not be directly experienced by the child, but which may influence the elements of the microsystem, such as sibling interactions. The macrosystem is the wider social, cultural, and legal context that encompasses all the other systems. An ecological system view of inclusive education denotes that children with or without disabilities develop in a complex social world and that it is necessary to observe interactions at multilevel contexts and examine changes over time at all levels. It is critical to integrate individual and contextual processes and to examine interrelations among these systems in order to ensure the success of inclusive educational programming (Noonan & McCormick, 2006). As shown in Figure 1-1, among the multiple levels of influence within the global system, the child's development is most directly affected by the immediate family environment that provides a connection between the child and the outside world (Collier, 2016).

Bronfenbrenner (1989) believed that schools and educators should work to support the child's primary relationships and to create an environment that accommodates and nurtures children and their families (Paquette & Ryan, 2001). It was in this aspect that this model of the theory was adopted to understand challenges that are faced by LST teaching EFAL. The way educators understand and implement teaching practices does impinge on learning and language problems do influence learners' behavioural patterns and attitudes towards schooling. Schools and educators form part of the mesosystem level which is the crucial level according to this theory (Paquette & Ryan, 2001). The learners' interaction with their parents (microsystem level) as well as all other levels has the strongest influence and greatest effect on the child's development. It is important and essential for schools and educators to provide supportive learning environments for learning. This theory stresses the significance of

children's individual differences that are there during their development. This has influenced how people view and assist Learners with Special Needs.

One of the disadvantages with this theory is that all factors then become mutually and systematically influential, even the smallest factor, which can make the theory very difficult to implement in practice (Nicolize, 2016). This challenge is overcome by delimiting the study only to theory's view on microsystemic and mesosystemic factors. The limitation enabled the researcher to scrutinize contributing factors to teaching and learning, with an understanding that, the closer the influences to the individual, the greater the impact on learning over time (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Accordingly, it enables the teacher to understand how previous experiences that are associated with being unsuccessful to a learner might have negative impact on the current expectations and reactions.

Consequently, the complexity of relationships at multiple levels of the environment affects the nature of interaction between the LSNs and their learning environment (Donald, Lazarus, & Moolla, 2014). For example, a teacher who experiences external pressures in a certain way, may have less patience to provide additional support to a learner who requires more support to understand a task and may fail to provide necessary support that the learner has come to expect. This type of behaviour by the teacher can have a lasting consequence on the overall learning and development of the learner and general perception thereof. Hence it becomes important to understand the detriments that LSN are subjected to owing to their individual characteristics that are affected by the environment. Meanwhile, Tudge et al (2009) observed that a lack of harmony within the systems causes an imbalance in the proximal processes leading to malfunctioning that bears failure in the realisation of learning outcomes. For this reason, teacher-learner interactions and the characteristics of LST including teacher self-efficacy and motivation for teaching, may support or prevent the learning and the development of the LSN (Patrick, 2016).

1.8 RESEARCH APPROACH

This study was qualitative in nature and exploratory according to Creswell and Clark (2007). Qualitative research is of benefit to understand underlying reasons, opinions and motivations of certain behaviours or attitudes in different situations. Creswell and Clark (2007) further aver that qualitative research method also generates openness, encouraging participants to multiply on their responses and has an ability to open ideas for future research (Breakwell, Smith, & Wright, 1995). They further attest that qualitative research is also used to expose thoughts and opinions and looks deeper into the problem. I chose this method because I did

not want to limit participants in sharing their lived experiences. As seen in Table 1-1, it provides the summary of the research methodology and detailed discussion is provided in chapter 3.

This study adopted an explorative case study research design. Yin (1994, p. 23) asseverates that a case study research method is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence can be used. Purposive sampling was used to select participants based on certain characteristics of a population and the objective of the study (Tongco, 2007). Crossman (2018) elaborates that purposive sampling is also used when a study requires one to capture knowledge based on particular form of expertise. There were 13 participants that were selected from 8 public primary schools with LST in Tshwane South District, ranging from the age group 30 to 62 years. More information about the sampling in my study is given in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.3). Data generation and documentation strategies included co-generation using Participatory Reflection and Action (PRA) based activity, observations and interviews (Gill et al., 2008). Meanwhile, data was analysed using thematic analysis in NVivo 12 Pro software. Inductive thematic analysis means developing categories into a model or framework which reviews raw data and conveys it to key themes and processes (Thomas, 2006).

Table 1-1. Research methodological summary.

Research strategy summary	
Epistemology	Interpretivism
Ontology	Qualitative
Research Design	Explorative case study
Data collection methods	PRA-based activity, Focus group discussion, Observation, and Field notes
Data analysis	Inductive Thematic Analysis using NVivo 12 Pro software
Quality criteria	Trustworthiness, Credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability
Ethical Consideration	Anonymity, confidentiality, informed consent, voluntary participation

1.9 QUALITY CRITERIA

Lincoln and Guba (1985) initially outlined four quality criteria to ensure trustworthiness in qualitative research, namely credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transparency. They later on added authenticity (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). All of these criteria are discussed in detail in Chapter 3 (Section 3.6).

1.9.1 Trustworthiness of the study

I maintain the trustworthiness for my qualitative study by ensuring that rigour and quality assurance are strengthened (Shenton, 2004).

1.9.2 Credibility

In order to increase credibility, I have prolonged the engagement in the field (Bitsch, 2005). Anney (2014) recommended applying member checking to improve credibility and minimise bias during data collection, analysis and interpretation. Data gathering techniques that are used do strengthen the integrity of the findings (Brantlinger et al., 2005).

1.9.3 Confirmability

In terms of reporting, the explicit data collection and analysis processes enable the reader to verify the findings derived from the data and as such minimise researcher's bias (Plummer, 2017). This was further enhanced by my supervisor on reviewing data collected for consistency and that improved confirmability. In ensuring that the interpretation was accurate, member checking was done. I have taken necessary steps to ensure that the findings are limited to data and do not reflect my preferences in this study.

1.9.4 Transferability

Transferability indicates the degree to which the results may be applicable to other settings or elsewhere (Anney, 2014). Therefore, transferability is possible in my study because of the rich and detailed data which may assist other researchers to reproduce the study within related environments (Shenton, 2004). In addition, the choice of my sampling technique which was purposively selected comprised of participants who were knowledgeable of the issue under investigation, and that facilitated transferability of the study (Brantlinger et al., 2005).

1.9.5 Dependability

Dependability refers to the degree of consistence and reproduction of a study by other researchers (Shenton, 2004). Integration of data collection strategies, drawn on gaining

deeper understanding of the phenomenon and analysis of all data, generated rich and thick descriptions of data that allowed relevant theoretical constructs to emerge from the process (Anney, 2014). The process of moving back and forth in ensuring that coding results tally, heightened dependability and also improved presentation of participants' narrations (Shenton, 2004).

1.10 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study originates from the topic it aimed to study; hence it allowed the LST an opportunity to take ownership of their teaching. By applying a case study, a rich detailed description of the challenges of LST in primary schools provided insights into the status of newly established Full Serving Schools (FSS) serving learners from resource constrained communities. The results of this study could lead to thorough evaluation of current practices in similar contexts and could be used to improve daily practices of LST in Gauteng province as they act as key players in transforming policy into practice. Furthermore, the study is intended to contribute to the advancement of knowledge on challenges experienced by the LST in similar context, while providing possible solutions to assist LST with the teaching of EFAL.

1.11 DISSERTATION OUTLINE

The dissertation consists of five chapters (as seen in Figure 1-2):

Chapter One: Introduction - this chapter includes an introduction, the background and reasons for undertaking this study. This chapter covers aspects such as the problem statement, rationale, research questions, theoretical framework, concept clarification as well as the aims and objectives of the study. It also includes a brief review of the literature as well as the discussion of what is included in the methodology.

Chapter Two: Literature review and key theoretical concepts. This chapter provides a review of the literature, which has been consulted for this study, including journal articles, books, the internet, web article, and other relevant sources that have been consulted for the study. In addition, several sources of literature were scrutinized to avoid using irrelevant and unverified sources. Thus, only literature that gave information about LST challenges were consulted in vivid details as part of the study.

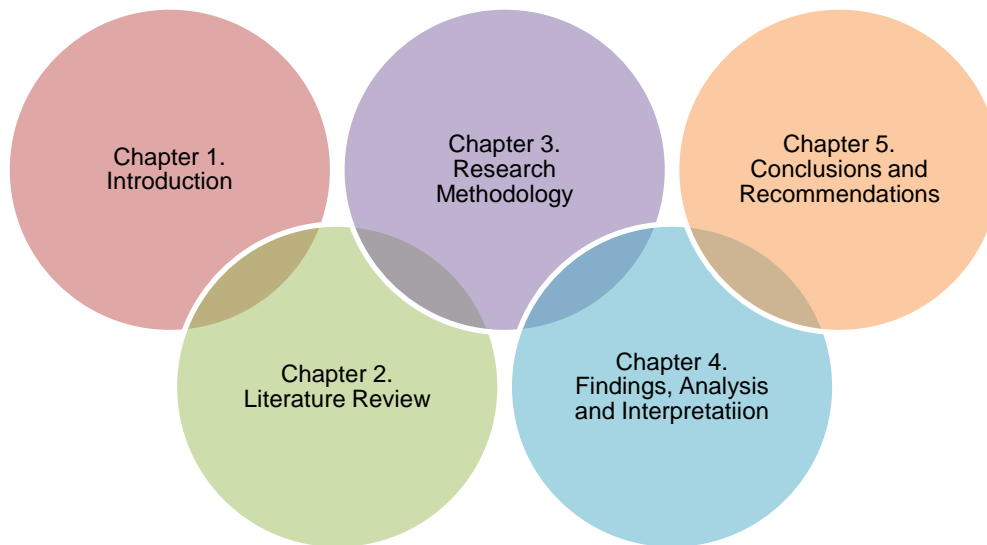


Figure 1-2. A dissertation chapter layout

Chapter Three: The Research Methodology and Research design. This chapter discusses the approach which was chosen and also put forth justification for the choice thereof. A qualitative method was selected as it was most suitable to interrogate the nature of the topic. Qualitative research methods have shown that a situation should be followed naturally without adding anything as they develop and that situations have to be viewed from the participants' perspective. Since the researcher was interested in Educators whose role included Learning Support, the qualitative research method was the most appropriate method to utilise for this study. Furthermore, this chapter includes the way participants were chosen to partake in this study.

Chapter four: Findings, analysis and interpretation. In this chapter, a detailed reasoning that guided the collection of data from the participants is furnished. It also expands on the method used to collect data such as face-to-face discussion. It provides information on how the analysis was conducted and which method was utilised to analyse the collected data.

Chapter five: Recommendations and Conclusion. This chapter aims to establish whether this study responded to the research question, which is the focus of the study. Educators supporting learners play a major role nurturing learners' academic performance in an inclusive context. Finally, the recommendations and conclusion thereof are incorporated and have led to the conclusion of the study based on the aforesaid findings.

1.12 SUMMARY

This chapter provides a general overview of the study I conducted, with key summaries contained therein. I started the discussion which introduced the general overview, and then

the background and context which led to the rationale and research purpose. Important in achieving this was to get the research questions stated outright and the key concepts and then introducing the theoretical framework in adopting the positioning of the study. In addition, briefly summarised was the research methodology, including research design I selected, as well as the methodological strategies I employed in getting and analysing the data. I wound up the chapter explaining the handling of ethical concerns during the study. In order to enhance rigour to the study, I explained ethical guidelines I followed and explained how trustworthiness was maintained.

The next chapter deals with detailed review on the extant literature on the teaching of English as First additional language and positioning arguments for the need of knowledge and understanding on the challenges faced by Learning Support Teachers teaching EFAL to LSN.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Language problems in relation to medium of instruction for education in South Africa is an old and contentious topic, so has been the role and use of English versus Home Languages when teaching in the post-apartheid era (Amuzu, 1992; Beukes, 2009; Sepeng, 2015). Nevertheless, usage of language of choice as a medium of instruction in education remains a 'living problem' which will continue to generate new debates (Mogashoa, 2017). In this study, which is specifically on highlighting and understanding the challenges faced by Educators teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL) to Learners with Special Needs (LSN), I did not intend to join the contention around choice of language for medium of instruction. I did not also seek to renew the debate about which language is best suitable as a medium of instruction in schools. Neither did I intend to get into the discourse around the advantages and disadvantages of home-language in education. The literature reviews on issues around language usage as a medium of instruction, I should say, have long been decided and settled. Rather, I focussed on a discourse that highlighted challenges faced by Learning Support Teachers (LST) when teaching EFAL to LSN.

In this chapter, what I did was three-fold. Firstly, I have briefly reviewed the global discourse on the challenges of teaching LSN in section 2.2. I have brought that discourse into the context of South Africa in section 2.3. Lastly, I have highlighted the challenges with teaching LSN in section 2.4. The sole intention was to identify some of the problems that have been encountered. I have critically examined the educational needs of LSN, many years later into the post-apartheid era South Africa (Amuzu, 1992). Secondly, I have moved the debate reviews, starting from section 2.4.4, focussing on why LST is established to accelerate inclusiveness; then I have looked at the teachers' personal resourcefulness in section 2.4.5. I have related all that to the challenges of teaching and learning in section 2.5. This has helped in understanding idiosyncrasies surrounding LST when teaching LSN. Lastly, I went on to review the challenges with the implementation of inclusive education policy in section 2.6. At the same time, I solicited views that may have proposed certain measures of any kind, like strengthening support through collaboration in section 2.7 and the teaching strategies used for LSN in section 2.8. The intention is to ascertain the discourse on measures that would have allowed LSN to get the benefits of learning in English as an international language and that which would make LST comfortable with teaching EFAL to LSN as a language of education that can enhance LSN's cultural sense (Makhwathana, 2015; Vlachou, Didaskalou, & Kontofryou, 2015).

2.2 GLOBAL DISCOURSE ON CHALLENGES WITH LSEN TEACHING

Although there are improvements worldwide with regard to education opportunities for LSN, there are still concerns about teachers working with learner population (Cooc, 2019). A significant body of empirical evidence globally has identified a wide gap between current policies and practices in education. The lack of effective regulatory and quality control on special education services has created many challenges to LST throughout the world (Bradshaw, 2009). As a result, the Convention of the Rights of People with Disabilities had to be signed by 160 countries to oblige countries to respect the Convention's key element that put emphasis on LSN's rights to be part of the general system and be accorded proper instructional support for the purpose of equal learning opportunities (Cooc, 2019; Obiakor & Eleweke, 2014). As a result, various global initiatives such as the Salamanca Declaration, Education for All Movement (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDG or now the Sustainable Development Goals-SDG) championed by the United Nations (UN) have enacted goals for broadening access to education for LSN (Peters, 2007; Winzer & Mazurek, 2014). This perspective has led to the adoption of models that are aimed at removal of barriers to learning in primary and secondary schools.

Nonetheless, various approaches of educating LSN have been attempted. For example, the placement of LSN amongst their peers in general classrooms without support was the first model; then emerged the pull-out system – that enabled LSN to be supported in resourced classrooms by the teacher for special education needs within the schools. Another approach consisted of having a qualified special teacher and general teacher delivering instruction in the same classroom (Cooc, 2019). All the aforementioned models, in a way, considered the important role played by the special education teachers in delivering instruction to LSN. However, due to the scarcity of these teachers worldwide, the employment of personnel without proper credentials proliferated without consideration of their needs and potential (Kalyanpur, 2008). As a result, for example in the USA, teachers' licensure for special education needs was established to certify personnel in terms of subject knowledge and pedagogy (Rotatori et al., 2014). This led to various views among scholars about teacher licensing for special education needs, some considering it difficulty in explaining what special teachers should do or could be able to do over the time (Mitchell et al., 2001).

It is now well-documented in literature that educators for special education serving in schools with learners from low socio-economic backgrounds are dealing with more learners with special needs (Abongdia, Foncha, & Dakada, 2015; Mapfumo, Mukwidzwa, & Chireshe, 2014). Yet, most of them (these teachers) still lack adequate professional skills-in particular organisation of instructional content that ensures balance between methodology and content

knowledge (Abongdia, Foncha, & Dakada, 2015; & Cooc, 2019). Nevertheless, it should be noted that educators for special education needs are central in adjusting teaching and learning processes and the challenges such as lacking of resources make instructional practices more difficult (Cooc, 2019). It becomes more challenging when instructional provision for LSN requires the involvement of other professionals, such as Speech Therapists, Occupational Therapists, including Educational Psychologists to address the classroom realities (Obiakor & Eleweke, 2014).

Cooc (2019) conducted a study using secondary data of 121 173 teachers from the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) that examined the developmental needs of special education teachers working with LSN. Cooc (2019) found that many special educators were less qualified when compared with general teachers. Another study conducted in Turkey to determine qualifications of special teachers, found that they were unable to address teaching and learning challenges due to limited knowledge about learners' different disabilities and characteristics (Rasmussen & Kış, 2018). Most probably, this could be the grounds from which other countries like Canada and the USA, require special teachers to hold extra qualifications to ensure individualised support for LSN and for the implementation of research-based instructional strategies (Loreman, 2014). Teachers for special education needs serving in such contexts have been found to be highly regarded, qualified and certified, very experienced and with in-depth subject area and pedagogical knowledge competencies (Feng & Sass, 2013; Quigney, 2009).

2.3 THE SOUTH AFRICAN DISCOURSE ON TEACHING LSEN

Founding special education in South Africa originated from the past colonial systems and was rooted with inequalities and racism, making special education support provisioning racially prejudiced (Beukes, 2009; Engelbrecht, 2006; Maguvhe, 2015b). After the transition of South Africa into a democratic state in 1994, government put in place measures that created conditions for the transformation of special education. This proceeded to the adoption of Inclusive Education White Paper 6 on special education needs in which potential barriers to learning were clearly spelt out (DoE, 2001; Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001). Consequently, an ecological system of intervention was implemented with an agenda leading to the macro-system that enabled provisions for enacting a three-tier inclusive education system. It consisted of Full-Service Schools (FSS), District-Based Support Team (DBST), and Special Needs Schools (SNS) as Resource Centres (Rotatori et al., 2014).

In retrospection, the conversion of designated mainstream primary schools into FSS was advanced by force with little attention to the pedagogical settings needed for LSTs' work. Many

FSS were then established almost instantly, without having prepared general teachers with essential skills to address LSN's unique learning needs (Halvorsen & Neary, 2009). At present, the form of organising support for LSTs is through pull-out model – which sets expectations for the general teachers – that often results in frustrations when instructional objectives are not met by the LSTs. This has caused an unnecessary pressure for the LST (Abongdia, Foncha, & Dakada, 2015; Makhwathana, 2015). Government may have banked on LST's characteristics to change the environment when placed in FSS, assisting government's initiatives to advocate for inclusive education policies that would ensure LSN access general curriculum support. This follows the establishment of School Based Support Teams (SBST) to determine and coordinate support needs for learners, teachers, and schools (DoE, 2014). For example, when support is provided to a teacher for the benefit of the learner (such as Individual Support Plan), it is assumed that the general teachers would be able to provide support to the individual learners. Whereas, LST would instead be assigned to those schools without a history of school-based support and would be assumed to be catalysts in the Individual Support Plan (ISP) development. What is neglected, though, is that any such ISP developed has to be linked to the general curriculum, and the instructions often require adapting what the learner is expected to learn. In some instances, the creation of opportunities to access curriculum content without alteration of performance standards (accommodation) has resulted in a clash with general teachers, whose existing mainstream philosophy upholds the preservation of curriculum standards for all (Okeke & Mazibuko, 2014).

Nonetheless, there are arguments in the literature that suggest that positive results of LST are conspicuously emanating from and are related to the use of certain instructional techniques which require acquisition of certain personal resources (Santangelo & Tomlinson, 2009). Podell and Tournaki (2007) noted evidence in their study that demonstrates that LSTs have become the main providers of support to LSN because general teachers have limited knowledge regarding characteristics of disabilities and difficulties in addressing them (Okeke & Mazibuko, 2014). It can then be concluded that most general teachers are not aware of their roles and responsibilities in the inclusive education context. Hence, it is negatively affecting LSTs overwhelmingly and giving rise to frustration (Podell & Tournaki, 2007).

2.4 TEACHING LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

The increase in knowledge on learners with special educational needs has-in itself-posed challenges and ambiguities for educators, policymakers, and scholars, especially the precise definition (Swanson, Harris, & Graham, 2013). McCulley, Katz and Vaughn (2013) suggested that learners with special needs can be defined as learners that exhibit learning challenges with variations in terms of cognitive, physical, sensory and learning barriers. Whereas Jena

(2013) expounded that learners with special needs as individuals identified with learning disability that experience difficulties in one or several of the basic cognitive processes involved in the understanding of using written as well as spoken languages. Recently, children are considered to fall within a special needs category if they have either a diagnosis of the disability, display greater difficulty when compared to the majority of his/ her peers of the same age group or require additional support in the form of specialized devices and resources, in the absence of which no significant achievement can be realized (Nxumalo, 2017; Pather & Nxumalo, 2013).

In spite of the varying definitions of learners with special needs, it is clear that there are many different characteristics associated with learning disability, most of which are not reflected in each and every learner identified with learning disability. The types of children considered to experience learning disabilities pose diverse needs with varying characteristics (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Lerner and Johns (2012) explicitly asserted that the two major causes of learning disability are due to neurological and environmental factors. Learners whose learning barriers are of neurological origin are believed to have deficiencies in the functioning of nervous system consequent to genetic factors and/or developmental lag, while environmental risk factors such as instructional teaching practice among other things could either impede or enhance learner's potential (Henley, Ramsey, & Algozzine, 2012; Swanson, Harris, & Graham, 2013)

The argumentation focus of this study is not on the LSN per se, however, it was critical to understand how LSN learn, including the challenges they experience when learning. D. Mitchell and Sutherland (2020) and Nel et al. (2016) argued that in order for LSN to be able to respond to task demands they ought to be able to attend, perceive and understand features of the task by interacting with a more knowledgeable person in order to help stimulate active learning and engagement. Hence, the instruction for LSN should include methods of direct and explicit instruction that are culturally affirming, since most of these learners display a lack of cognitive awareness necessary to assess their understanding. Eventually this results in challenges with basic study skills particularly when reading (Liasidou, 2013a; Orosco & Abdulrahim, 2017).

Within the interacting systems, creation of instruction that addresses different visual, auditory, kinaesthetic learning styles influence the process of learning. Therefore, understanding the different learning modalities that learners adopt with learning tasks and situations is tied to quality instruction (Nel et al., 2016). As a result, in ensuring that classroom environment provides learning opportunities for all learners, techniques that are more learner-centred ought

to be employed (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019). This can include techniques such as presenting the lesson in ways that allow learners to engage physically while activating prior knowledge.

Tanyi (2016) concurs with du Plessis and Mestry (2019) that classroom sitting arrangement often plays a vital role in the classroom learning. Hence, du Plessis and Mestry (2019) provided some practical suggestions on how teaching can be successfully implemented in the classroom environment. Some suggestions included allowing a kinaesthetic oriented learner who always needs to be active to be seated at the back of the class in order to minimise disruption. The teacher engaged the learners on activities that made use of movement through demonstrations, active learning, group work, including drawing activities. A visual-oriented learner ought to be positioned in front of the class to gain full view and be stimulated by visual cues, such as posters, models and diagrams and should be allowed to take notes. Lastly but not least, an auditory-inclined learner sat in the middle of the class since eye contact was regarded as unnecessary to such learners as they did not rely much on note taking.

The class settings and environments mentioned above promote self-advocacy skills that can assist learners to communicate their needs effectively. Furthermore, it can influence provision of self-advocacy goal in the ISP to facilitate learner participation and active engagement (Halder & Argyropoulos, 2019). The teacher will then provide feedback in a manner that conveys realistic expectations, associated with efforts. Not only the LSN will perform better in these environments, the interactions in such environments will promote learners' autonomy in learning (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019; Lerner & Johns, 2012; Tanyi, 2016).

Nel et al. (2016) asserted that differentiated learning can also be used to support LSN. This is also a key strategy that responds to learners with different learning styles as it considers learner's background, ability levels and interests in modifying, changing, extending or varying teaching strategy (DoE, 2011). Challenges are still experienced in South Africa, with LSTs failing to utilise methods that would accommodate diverse learning styles (Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart, 2016). Some believe that approaches that employ manipulative strategies require a level of creativity (Obaid, 2013). However, utilising computer-manipulatives or interactive software may be alternative to concrete manipulation more so as they provide ready-made creativity. This can include programs that are designed to teach oral language skills to learners, such as training in learning vocabulary, turn-taking skills, cognitive concepts, auditory processing and reading (Lerner & Johns, 2012).

It is now common knowledge that conducting regular assessment and continuous monitoring of learner literacy skills assists in improving positive outcomes. Hence, before an intervention program can be selected for a group of learners, a diagnostic test such as non-word reading

tests, reading fluency tests, tests of vocabulary knowledge and tests of spelling skills can help to pinpoint the exact nature of any difficulty (Kennedy, 2010; Solity, 2000). Even so, Nel et al., (2016) cautioned that perceptual difficulties such as auditory perception relate strongly to difficulties with spelling and reading. Therefore, the learner who cannot hear the sounds or words correctly may pronounce and spell them incorrectly leading to loss of meaning and understanding. Teachers are cautioned, if not demanded of them, to use teaching strategies that would increase learners' motivation to engage, as the task of reading elicit negative emotions to struggling readers (Orosco & Abdulrahim, 2017; Tanyi, 2016).

2.4.1 Learner diversity

Today, the population in most classrooms has learners from different language, ethnic and cultural backgrounds with the inclusive education dominating the landscape in education that requires teachers' preparedness in accepting learners' differences. This increase in cultural and linguistic diversity compels teachers, including LSTs not only to recognize the impact of culture and language on learners' performance in school, but to impart culturally responsive teaching (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Tachelle, Andrei, & Dohy (2019) determined that building a culturally responsive teaching begins with the teachers (including LST) scrutinizing their own cultural presumption in order to discover how it influences their teaching approaches in a diverse classroom. Teaching multi-culturally does not only promote a diversified culture within the school, it also promotes acknowledgement, mutual acceptance and respect for all learner differences while creating opportunities for learners to succeed in the classroom (Cole, 2008; Cubukcu, 2008; Liasidou, 2013a).

Notably, the learners' success in school often depends, to a greater extent, on the teachers' ability to respond to learners' varying experiences, some of which, may have resulted from, variations in socio-economic status, languages, culture and ethnicity among others (DoE, 2001; Liasidou, 2013b). One of the mechanisms applied to respond to learner diversity is to begin with thorough assessment to determine both the needs and the strengths of the learners (DoE, 2014; Liasidou, 2013a).

Liasidou (2013a) suggests that diverse learners need to be assessed in relation to their cognitive, social and cultural needs and not only in relation to their linguistic ability. For that reason, learners' needs can be complex and multifaceted. The assessment ought to be multi-dimensional and systemic in nature, providing a holistic picture of the learner in order to provide support that responds to the learner's needs (DoE, 2010). It is important to highlight that LSN bear talents and they need to learn in ways that will develop their full potential,

particularly in the learner-centred age which advocates that teaching should be structured in a way that emphasizes the best interest of the child (Halvorsen & Neary, 2009).

2.4.2 Teaching English as First additional language (EFAL)

The adoption of eleven official languages in post-apartheid South Africa created logistical complications for language policies across all schools (Mogashoa, 2017; Sepeng, 2015). The use of English as a medium of instruction remains a widespread preference for many schools since English language abodes well within the contemporary economic and social advancement globally (Amuzu, 1992; Mulholland & O'Connor, 2016). Of late most schools are teaching English Language in grades from the foundation phase (Erling, Adinolfi, & Hultgren, 2017). Therefore, many teachers have been unable to differentiate between a language-based problem and a learning difficulty. This has created unnecessary referrals (Henley, Ramsey, & Algozzine, 2012).

The transition from one phase to the other is argued that it requires direct support from parents (Makhwathana, 2015). Many parents who have competing demands of balancing provision for families and supporting their children feel less capable of providing direct support to their children (Weiss & Lopez, 2015). Moreover, teachers themselves are not confident with English and have limited English competency such as drilling, that limits learners' development of language learning including practices that do not support active learning (Makhwathana, 2015; Opoku-Amankwa, 2009b). Code switching is assumed as a necessary strategy to teach certain concepts, however, not all learners benefit from the code-switching strategy due to the learners' diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Erling, Adinolfi, & Hultgren, 2017). Thus, evidence from the international PIRLS test study displayed grade 4 and 5 difficulties in reading, indicating an aspect of learning to read and reading to learn which was not addressed effectively in the latter part of the Foundation Phase, grade 3 (Howie et al. 2017). The result becomes the lack of understanding in the language which creates anxiety for learners with special needs and can lower EFAL learners' confidence and self-esteem while preventing learner-teacher engagement (Makhwathana, 2015; Opoku-Amankwa, 2009a, 2009b).

The pressure that is exerted upon educators teaching EFAL, particularly those of grades 4 and 5, demanded that teachers understood the principle of interdependency. Equally, teachers with LST roles, have expressed concerns with regard to the lack of parental involvement in supporting their children's additional language (Watts-Taffe et al., 2012). School interventions, such as provision of standardized measures such as intelligence tests, do not really assist the teachers as the tests primarily assess language skills. This places an

EFAL learner at a disadvantage as the assessment measure tends to validate the prevalence of learning difficulty, while overlooking the EFAL issue (Henley, Ramsey, & Algozzine, 2012).

2.4.3 Reading difficulties as one of the underlying factors

Literacy in all academic subjects is dependent on the learner's ability to read and it is a basic skill that is fundamental to proficiency for all future endeavours (Bakken, Obiakor, & Rotatori, 2013). Swanson, Harris and Graham (2013) posit that in today's information age, it is crucial for learners to have a capacity to gain information from the text hence poor reading ability poses a threat to opportunities for academic achievement and can be directly linked to poor reading skills (Lerner & Johns, 2012). In addition, there seemed to be an agreement that, later reading difficulties are related to deficit in phonological awareness (Boscardin et al., 2008). Thereupon, reading is not a natural process, very often learners with reading difficulties have difficulties in recognizing letters and words and sometimes deducing information in print (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Bakken, Obiakor and Rotatori (2013) concluded that such learners are easily detectable in school context as they struggle to perform phonemic awareness tasks.

Phonemic awareness skill is the initial skill in the reading and learning process that a learner is required to master first (Swanson, Harris, & Graham, 2013). Understanding phonemics helps the learners to recognize correspondence between letters and sounds (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Basically learners with reading difficulties show phonological processing gap in areas that involve a variety of skills essential for reading (Swanson, Harris, & Graham, 2013). This is further exacerbated by irregular spelling pattern that the English language has, as learning such rules becomes a demanding process to learners with reading difficulties (Lerner & Johns, 2012). In addition, the process of reading requires the reader to analyse critically and interpret the information gathered for effective problem solving. Interpreting printed text can be difficult to master for those learners who lack analytical abilities (Henley, Ramsey, & Algozzine, 2012).

Stone et al. (2016) cited that learners with reading difficulties have difficulties in working memory and planning, which are essential for comprehending written language. Moreover, poor comprehension of English appears to be the major cause of poor reading performance for learners with reading difficulties (Sawyer & Jarrahi, 2014). There is tremendous consensus in literature that reading comprehension is governed by working memory and that cognition of learners with reading disability can be enhanced through teaching techniques that capitalize on learners' strengths (Stone et al., 2016).

Lerner and Johns (2012) contended that comprehension skills do not happen spontaneously after word recognition skill has been mastered. Likewise, an ability to recognize a word does

not equate understanding the meaning. Therefore, it is important for learners to have knowledge for meaning of words (Stone et al., 2016). For this reason, Lerner and Johns, (2012) caution that numerous meaning of words frequently causes confusion in reading for second language learners. Such confusion is often aggravated by auditory perception and discrimination difficulties during reading process, especially for children who come from homes in which English is not home language (Martin, 2009). Wallach (2011) points out that, auditory perceptual process is influenced by and is dependent on language abilities. From a South African perspective, it can be challenging to precisely define reading difficulties due to classroom environments that are multi-lingual in nature especially in the Gauteng province (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2012).

Table 2-1 Manifestation of reading difficulties

The learner
Tends to read aloud and sound out the words that fail to recognize
Puts extreme emphasis on decoding of words
Displays incoherent, slow and inaccurate reading
Displays little interest or willingness to read
Squirms while reading
Has difficulty remembering phonemes
Finds it hard to discriminate between different sounds (e.g. fin and thin)
Has challenge to remember or discriminate between the letters visually
Reads word for word with incorrect phrasing
Repeats or omits words and sentences
Invents letters (me / we)
Reverses letters (dog / bog)
Inserts letters (pick / prick)
Omits letters (string /sting)
Sounds out words voicelessly or in a soft whisper
Points a finger at specific letter or move his /her head in an effort to process each letter.
Has difficulty with compound words containing two root morphemes
Fails to recognize prefixes and suffixes instantly.

2.4.4 Learning Support Teacher (LST)

Different countries use different names to refer to learning support personnel in the education field, hence various titles and names are used, such as teachers for special needs, support teachers or the learning support teacher. Learning Support Teachers are teachers that provide

additional support to Learners with Special Needs (LSN) particularly with literacy and numeracy through teaching instruction intended to meet their unique needs that enable them to access the curriculum (Dreyer, 2013; Erling, Adinolfi, & Hultgren, 2017; Watts-Taffe et al., 2012). The term “learning support teacher” is used in South Africa, so it is in Australia (Carrington & Robinson, 2004; Fielding-Barnsley, 2005)

In Sweden teachers that are assigned the role of providing additional support are considered to have the most inclusive education system. They are categorised into two groups – those that are highly qualified with equivalent qualification and those with undefined qualifications (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2005; Lindqvist et al., 2011). The former group are those teachers that are assigned the role of Educators for Special Needs and possess a post graduate degree and require three years of teaching experience. These educators fulfill the role, inter alia, of developing programs, evaluating programs of intervention for different grades, working with learners from pre-primary to compulsory school-going age, consulting with teachers and supervising and teaching LSN. The group consists of Teachers for Special Education Needs and Resource Teachers, mostly with teaching qualification of different courses and responsibilities that include teaching Languages and Mathematics to learners of compulsory school-going age (Göransson et al., 2017; Lindqvist et al., 2011). Although Sweden is considered to have the most inclusive education system, the role of specialized teachers is not reflected in any of their national policy. That is why each and every municipality has to determine the professional knowledge and skills relevant as an LST (Göransson et al., 2017).

In South Africa, the option taken was the latter group of LST with qualifications in varying content. As a result, professional skills considered for LSTs are determined at the provincial level (Sedibe & Fourie, 2018). The majority of provincial authorities, including those from Gauteng, have adopted a pull-out approach system – which seeks to support primary school learners to access a specific grade level curriculum (Sepeng, 2015; Themane & Thobejane, 2019). LST are then assigned various primary schools to support LSN on the withdrawal basis, while ensuring that collaborative approach to support provisioning in primary schools is adhered to (Dreyer, 2013). In those primary schools, LST assume the key role-players in developing teaching methods and techniques while also providing accommodation, support and intervention (Emanuelsson, 2001; Ramberg, 2013; Wasburn-Moses, 2005). A common feature about LST’s responsibilities (like their counterparts across the world) includes but is not limited to delivering instruction in the resource class and matching content of the curriculum while modifying learning objectives of instruction (Vlachou, Didaskalou, & Kontofryou, 2015); assessing learners who are considered to be experiencing difficulties in achieving mainstream curriculum when determining needed support; developing Individual

Support Plans (ISP) for each learner in consultation and collaboration with School Based Support Team (SBST) that may or may not include other specialists (Dreyer, 2013; Vlachou, Didaskalou, & Kontofryou, 2015).

2.4.5 Teacher's personal resources

In spite of the changing roles related to LST, over time however, they develop positive attitudes towards their profession as well as add to their skillset human relations competency needed to facilitate teaching and learning (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Self-efficacy can be taken into contextual description as an individual's personal resources that include competence or perceived mastery; which becomes evident in individuals' actions, thoughts and feelings (Bandura, 1994; Patrick, 2016). One way to determine self- efficacy is to discover one's belief regarding their capability to influence a situation, particularly in environments where the principle of interdependence is enacted. Yunus & Wan Ali (2008) and Carver (2013) describe individuals who perceive the demands of the task as threatening and having a low sense of self-efficacy.

There is a general agreement about self-efficacy and motivation as being the personal resources for dealing with environmental stressors (Wentzel & Miele, 2016). For this reason, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, (2001) paid attention to the role of personal resources and conceptualized teacher self-efficacy as having three domains: learner engagement, classroom management and instructional strategies. Research has shown that learner engagement is enhanced when teacher engagement is meaningful to learners (Guo et al., 2010; Lerner & Johns, 2012). Thus, meaningful engagement requires the teacher to foster a sense of competence to learners by stimulating motivation to engage, through instructional activities that are designed to develop confidence in learning (Malmberg, 2006).

It is well documented that teachers' sense of efficacy increases levels of sensitivity in teacher-learner interactions, including instruction, that takes into account learners' cultural practices and effects of those practices in the classroom (Guo et al., 2010). It is for this reason that Schunk et al., (2008) concluded that teachers' sense of self-efficacy is an essential resource for interactions with LSN, as these learners often display challenging behaviours. Furthermore, Schunk et al (2008) established that learner engagement, as a dimension of teacher self- efficacy could be found in classroom environments that valued a search for understanding social norms that enable learners to use language as a communication tool to ask questions when they do not understand, Schunk et al (2008). Such activities facilitate not only support for learning, but encourage teacher feedback to influence learner motivation and self-efficacy, while learner feedback improves teaching and learning that increases teacher

motivation (Wentzel & Miele, 2016). Consequently, learners may take risks if they value teachers' feedback or peer approval, making the classroom environment an important factor in the learning (Patrick, 2016; Wentzel & Miele, 2016). For this reason, teachers who perceive themselves as competent make use of instructional practices that challenge LSN to make use of their internal resources and put into practice participation in a group that may require openness to other members' viewpoints (Moley, Bandré, & George, 2011).

2.5 CHALLENGES RELATED TO TEACHING AND LEARNING EFAL

2.5.1 Personal factors

In supporting education for all, LST have been recognised for-apart from methods and material resources they use-being central to improving English as First Additional Language teaching and reading(Dreyer, 2013). It is important, though, to understand LST's knowledge base now that there is a proliferation of learners with barriers to learning in comparison to the number of LST who are likely to enter the school system through alternative routes (Bishop et al., 2010). Brownell et al. (2008) reflected on other scholars' attempts to understand the relationship between learner achievement and teacher characteristics. They concluded that beliefs, knowledge and teacher characteristics are amongst factors that are reflected for high quality teachers (Göransson et al., 2017). Some of those factors have been advanced as blueprints for prequalification of LST; sometimes, in a way that it has delineated the high quality LST (Goe, 2007). In response, Quigney (2009) suggested that LSTs must possess knowledge and skills built from preparatory training programs that embrace pedagogical tools for teaching a language. Some studies have indicated that practicum training has enabled in-service LST to enact practical experience of content knowledge that is essential in fostering beliefs, understanding, as well as teaching experience that depicts resulting in effective teaching (Al-Hiary, Almakani, & Tabbal, 2015).

Nonetheless, Bishop et al. (2010) highlighted complexities encountered by the LST when trying to apply comprehensive teacher training knowledge. Some of the complexities are due to various duties they are assigned to. They included the identification of learners' strengths and weaknesses, developing ISPs, progress monitoring and assessment and workplace support that makes their practice more challenging (Bishop et al., 2010). Often, not taken into consideration is that LSTs are skilled teachers with an in-depth understanding of diagnostic skills. They are also equipped with a variety of strategies that are beneficial for a diversity of learners (Knechtel, 2005; Lucas & Villegas, 2013). Bishop et al. (2010) argued that it was crucial to take note of an individual's personal traits as they signal the importance of the role in how LST ought to respond to challenges they will come across when entering the special

resource classrooms. The argument is that LST ought to embrace internal experiences willingly, remain flexible and adaptable while seeking the means for better management of the environment (Bishop et al., 2010; Major, 2012). This can be achieved when an LST reflects on their teaching practices in order to improve their teaching (Loughran, 2002). However, Bishop et al. (2010) cautioned that some LSTs might be able to reflect on their own teaching approaches to instruction. But they may lack knowledge and skills to implement instruction that is tailored for LSN's needs – highlighting time constraints as a contributing factor.

The surviving literature has emphasized essential skills that LST ought to possess when teaching diverse classrooms. This includes the knowledge of the curriculum content and instructional approach that are designed to meet learners' individual needs (Loreman, Sharma, & Forlin, 2013). Bucholz & Sheffler (2009) cited classroom strategies as an area that LST need most in order to consider for instructional purposes for a diverse classroom. Du Plessis (2015) observed that teaching different levels of learners in the classroom requires flipped classrooms which Cash (2017) described as those with teachers that make use of various mediums to deliver the content. Cash (2017) further contended that flipped classrooms promote not only learner-centred learning in a diversified class, but also create greater opportunities for learner engagement. Lerner and Johns (2012) argued that active engagement of learners is dependent on the learning material used in the classroom and they suggested the use of high impact learning materials.

Notwithstanding the importance of cooperative learning and the value of working together - since grouping alone does not guarantee effective learning - it is the differentiation of the content and strategies used in the class that provide effective learning (Cash, 2011). For example, say, in a jigsaw group activity, learners can be assigned differentiated tasks to match their ability of reading. Learners are then granted ample time to study the material and later hold discussions with other learners with similar reading as assigned (Estes & Mintz, 2015). The teachers who make use of graphic organizers during reading instruction can indirectly motivate learners to do the same when sharing the information from the material to the rest of the group (Praveen Sam & Rajan, 2013).

2.5.2 External factors

Like everything else, there seems to be a limit to what LST alone can do to overcome the challenges they experience in the inclusive classrooms. For example, LST do not have control of the home circumstances of learners they are supporting, especially those learners from township communities who are often unstable. Some have discouraged parents who feel less capable of providing additional support to their children (Adams, Harris, & Jones, 2016). The

parents' feelings of inadequacy or the lack of interest in supporting learners has been attributed to parents' education background and the lack of educational resources (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2018).

Like all other learners, the parents of LSN are expected to be highly involved in the education of their children, by developing knowledge about their educational needs and the facilities accessible to address those needs (Al-Shammari & Yawkey, 2008). Parents from communities with low socio-economic status are often less involved in the education of their children and sometimes tend to leave the responsibility of educational decision-making to the school (van der Berg, 2008). As a result, strategies for increasing meaningful involvement through ISP engagements to facilitate direct interactions between the LSTs and the parents remain not very effective. To some extent, poor parent-school partnerships resulted in emotional tolls on LSTs and parents (Burke & Goldman, 2015). This has led to many schools making it a policy mandating parents to sign and endorse LSN ISP documents that have already been prepared and to provide consent before a special education support program can be initiated (Adams, Harris, & Jones, 2016; Soodak & Erwin, 2000).

Some parents hold differing beliefs about their child's educational goals because of the limited understanding of some children's special need. This has created challenges when ISPs' goals are not met and a continuum of educational placements becomes the only solution to address the learner's needs (Soodak & Erwin, 2000). Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart (2016) suggested that parental resources need to be preserved by ensuring that special education practices are parent-friendly in terms of supporting parents' competencies on matters related to knowledge development. This is not only a means by which to determine LSN academic achievement but also a good balance of emotional and social competence. LSN can be impacted positively if their parents are informed and choose to get involved in the learners special education programmes (Adams, Harris, & Jones, 2016; Al-Shammari & Yawkey, 2008).

2.5.3 Environmental factors

It is presupposed to recognise that people often bring with their own prior perspectives and perceptions to work. This should provide a basis for LST to understand the importance of becoming part of the school in order to advocate learning support for LSN (Major, 2011). Some extant studies have showed that – in environments marked by access to materials – high feelings of self-worth among educators and the support received from school administrators or education officials did, indeed, facilitate social interaction and enabled LSTs to develop skills (Bishop et al., 2010; Maphalala, 2006; Maphalala & Mpofu, 2018). One of the important benefits highlighted was LST's understanding and recognising their own talent, leading to high

self-esteem and developing confidence in their own skills (Dettmer, Thurston, & Dyck, 2005). It is therefore important for the LSTs to be aware and understand habits carried out as customs in schools. It may include the labelling of LSN in various forms that subsequently reflect differences in embracing education for all learners (Dettmer, Thurston, & Dyck, 2005; Major, 2011). This makes the LST role more crucial in identifying trends while at the same time they support school initiatives for meeting the needs of LSN.

Recently, there has been an emphasis on inclusive environments and this has resulted into diversified classrooms (Cole, 2008). When the classroom environment promotes growth and development, learners feel free to express their ideas and feelings and respond to the instruction. The development of the positive classroom atmosphere that promotes learning should begin with LST having an understanding of physical and instructional aspects of the classroom environment (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Looking at the physical aspect of the classroom, some evidence has suggested that classroom should be arranged in such a way that facilitates learning. For example, arrange learners with inattentive behaviour to sit in a position with minimal distraction and nearer to the teacher. Whereas, learners with visual and hearing difficulties can sit in front, giving an opportunity to those with hearing difficulties to lip read. It was also suggested that lighting may be adjusted to allow learners to engage freely with learning activities that include reading, writing, and the viewing of the pictures and charts (Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart, 2016). Modifying classroom space and providing structure through classroom routines enhances learning in a classroom with learners experiencing difficulties (Lerner & Johns, 2012).

2.6 CHALLENGES WITH IMPLEMENTING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION POLICY

The issue of addressing literacy challenges in the intermediate phase in grade 4 and 5 is neither linear nor easy, due to the language policy that makes provision for the learner to elect a Language of learning and teaching (DoE, 2010). A language shift becomes a complicated matter, owing to the majority of learners (80%) that speak and learn in African Languages in the Foundation Phase (Gr R-3), but learns through English medium from Grade 4 (Howie et al., 2017). This does not only pose a challenge to the grade 4 general teacher and LST who have to provide support to a second or third additional language speaking learner, but also poses a challenge to parents who may experience difficulty to support their children due to language difference, while learners on the other hand are set up for failure in the learning process when the language of learning and teaching is different to their home language (Sibanda, 2017). Given these perspectives it is perhaps not surprising that parents may be viewed as being not involved in supporting their children, who may need additional support as a result of the language barrier (Abraham & Barksdale, 2017).

Policy implementation and efforts to ensure that learners are supported and educated regardless of their disabilities and challenges to learning, remain a challenge. Inclusive education is an internationally mandated education policy that advocates learners' access to quality education and is based on the principle that all children can learn, hence it appreciates the difference in the ways in which learners acquire learning (Luger et al., 2012). It is worth noting that in South Africa worthy initiatives to implement inclusive education policy at National level are hampered by the lack of capacity at district level and lack of accountability in schools, proven by the lack of commitment from the government in promulgating White Paper 6 into law (Maguvhe, 2015a; Maphalala & Mpofo, 2018). Nevertheless, the implementation of standardization procedures for support provision across the provinces, such as Screening Identification Assessment and Support (SIAS) is a step in the right direction in supporting all learners including Learners with Special Educational Needs so that they may access the curriculum and achieve to the best of their abilities (DoE, 2014).

The SIAS policy supports ecological approach to intervention. However, Landsberg, Kruger and Swart (2016) posited that general teachers including LST often fail to recognize parents or community assets when solving problems. Following on from the above, it is worth noting that, the SIAS policy considers parents' and caregivers' role to be the rich resources of information and assets in the identification of strengths and needs of their children, adding that they (parents) are the first to witness if the child has a developmental milestone (Bakken, Obiakor, & Rotatori, 2013; DoE, 2014). This focus on improving learner support has subsequently given rise to increased emphasis on collaboration.

2.7 STRENGTHENING SUPPORT THROUGH COLLABORATION

Learning Support Teachers have varied responsibilities beyond teaching and that includes collaborating with other educators to help LSN achieve in school. The idea that LSEN should receive instruction in the least restrictive environments has compelled teachers to collaborate (Friend et al., 2010). Not only has collaborations helped in building relationships, collaboration also buffers stress and encourages social interaction (and asking for assistance does not equate to incompetence) (Dettmer, Thurston, & Dyck, 2005). Friend et al. (2010) dogmatically asserted that when collaboration and teamwork are embraced as best practices, general teachers and LST will jointly deliver instruction, not only to facilitate learning for LSN, but to learn from each other to the benefit of the learner when their expectations are met. It is notable though that not teacher is comfortable in working with other teachers in collaborative environments (Dettmer, Thurston, & Dyck, 2005).

Vlachou et al. (2015) noted that general teachers perceive LST as not their equal while others believed that specialized instructional strategies are relevant only in the resource classroom. Halvorsen and Neary (2009) argued that the process of collaboration depended on the willingness of both parties [general educators and LST] to engage, and it entails skills that some teachers may not have acquired. Strogilos, Nikolarazi and Tragoulia (2012) argued that colleagues and professionals- when working in isolation-are less likely to share the same goals and explore possibilities for coordinated outcomes. Furthermore, joint responsibility for learner achievement facilitates the implementation of Individual Support Plans (ISP) and in ensuring that instruction is aligned with the grade-level standards, including its accommodation or modifications (McLaughlin, 2004).

Although parental involvement is crucial, the subsequently increased emphasis on collaboration can be a challenge to parents who might not know how to support their children as per the expected collaborative activities initiated by the schools, most importantly the development of their children's ISP (Okeke & Mazibuko, 2014). The lack of involvement can then be exacerbated by problems of poverty and a lack of English literacy to support their children's foreign language of learning and teaching. This creates a situation that makes parents to appear as being non-committal in supporting school initiatives that are aimed at supporting their children (Okeke & Mazibuko, 2014).

Paliokosta and Blandford (2010) found that School Management Team (SMT) did not regard inclusion as important and there was little effort to promote inclusive education practice. Following this, teachers' impression to deal with various methods of learning was lacking since the collaboration between the teachers and LSTs was not evident. Donald, Lazarus and Moolla (2014) realised through observation that teachers were seldom expected to make an impact particularly when dealing with LSN, unless they collaborated with each other for the benefit of the learner. Some studies have illustrated that collaborations do not only facilitate school and home partnership and interdependence amongst people in the society, but they also destroy misconceptions about differences in people (Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart, 2016). Insights on parents and their children can be used as cross verification tool by teachers who wish to get a comprehensive understanding about the learners. Such contextual knowledge can bring about different perspectives about the learner such as a situation where a teacher learns about an issue that poses as a threat to the learners' learning and development or a situation where a teacher gets to know more about learner's strengths to facilitate teaching and learning. Some studies have found that countries that invest in collaboration, teacher training, teacher development, and induction – like in the United States, Japan, Australia, and

Finland – are among the high performing countries in learner achievement (Abbott, Middlewood, & Robinson, 2014; Li & Fang, 2015; A. Moore, 2016).

2.8 TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR LSN

2.8.1 Differentiation

When differentiation was introduced in South Africa as an alternative strategy to respond to the diverse needs of learners-including those with reading difficulties-its application has required teachers' full understanding of learners' strengths and weaknesses (Estes & Mintz, 2015). This perspective posits an understanding that in teaching and learning, there has to be a match between the teachers' expectations about the learner and outcomes preferred (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Therefore, adjustment in lesson presentation and varied levels of challenges for learners are highly recommended because learners do not process information the same way as they have their preferred modes to demonstrate knowledge and skills acquired (DoE, 2014; Lerner & Johns, 2012). This suggests that learners' interest, abilities and backgrounds should be considered during teaching and learning. Hence pace adjustment may be required due to learners' level of functioning (DoE, 2011). Phillips and Kelly (2016) cautioned about pace adjustment during instruction adding that in cases where learners with reading difficulties receive special education provision such as this, other learners may be disillusioned and bored, viewing the process as a waste of time. On the other hand, disillusioned learners may be viewed or misjudged as problematic learners (Tanyi, 2016). Engaging learners individually using differentiated teaching prevents boredom as it caters for learners at different levels (DoE, 2012).

The teaching methods that are provided for learners with difficulties to learning and those with reading challenges should take learners' readiness, developmental level, and their characteristics into cognisance when differentiating content, processes, products and the learning environment (Halvorsen & Neary, 2009). The emphasis has been on collaboration. This means that collaborative planning between the Learning Support Teachers and educators can provide learners access to core curriculum in a meaningful way in addition to differentiation and curriculum. It should also be noted that learners with learning difficulties, including those with reading difficulties, often have different learning styles. That is why the most appropriate teaching strategy will have to involve the use of two or more of the learners' senses, especially the use of touch and kinaesthetic movement which help the brain to connect to the word being written (Ureno, 2012). The Department of Education (2014) draws an attention to specific learning and teaching support material, suggesting that learners' difficulties can be reduced through use of differentiated learning material that caters for

different abilities and styles. In the same view, Tanyi (2016) proposed the use of learning material that were designed for free interaction and communication amongst learners, including use of white boards, flip charts, models and technological equipment.

Owing to the technological era that we are living in, the use of computers or tablets can assist learners with reading difficulties by having difficult words read aloud electronically while other learners engage with the reading material silently (Abdul Rahman et al., 2012). In instances where learners have trouble in remembering words teachers can allow learners in pairs or groups to discuss visual patterns of the word. That allows auditory inclined learners to listen to the sounds within the words and further enhance by making use of mnemonic strategies (mnemonic strategies are techniques that assist learners to remember information (Lerner & Johns, 2012) while bringing their own strategies that they use to remember the word (Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart, 2016). Alternatively, learning support materials that contain text can be presented in auditory forms because learners with reading difficulties are able to understand meaning from spoken language (Abdul Rahman et al., 2012). In addition, making use of digital material to develop learners' understanding of different modes of reading and writing such as drawings, videos, poetry or other forms of presentations increases the opportunities of engagement and interest by learners (Graham & Kelly, 2008).

2.8.2 Differentiation for the 21st century

Today's diverse society often reflects classrooms diversity in schools' call for teaching techniques and tools that will appeal to different learners, the school and the society. In the contemporary times of the enhanced information age, technology is an integral part of our daily lives and learning fields (Alias et al., 2013). Nowadays, school going children are familiar with the use technology.

Table 2-2 The key components of differentiation and techniques for support

(Van Garderen & Whittaker, 2008)

Key components of differentiation	Techniques for support
<p>Content: Emphasis is placed on <i>what</i> is taught and <i>how</i> to access what is being taught</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide reading material at varied levels, to optimize challenge, while at the same time ensuring that it is connected to what has been learnt previously. • Illustrations and examples must be based on learners' interest. • Clarify vocabulary for second language learners • Offer alternatives for auditory and visual information • Support decoding skills
<p>Process: Guidance in terms of information processing, visualization and manipulation to develop skills and understanding.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activate prior ground knowledge using advance organizers (advance organizers help the learner to place in context the material to be learnt) • Vary the pacing of learners' work • Develop activities that seek multiple perspective on topics and issues • Provide options for comprehension • Highlight critical passage in a text using different colors • Differentiate tasks and assignments
<p>Product: Provide options for learners to demonstrate knowledge and skills, by varying methods for response and navigation.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Optimize access using learners' preferred approach to demonstrate knowledge and skills
<p>Affect/ Environment: The climate or tone of the classroom</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive environment that fosters sense of • belonging for learners to tackle challenge and take risks • Providing opportunities to build social skills.

It therefore requires teachers to make use of information technologies such as tablets, computers or smart phones to enhance teaching and learning process (Tamim et al., 2015). Although differentiated instruction is rarely integrated with technology in the teaching and learning in the township Full Service Schools environment, research findings have provided supporting evidence that consistently points out higher achievement rate when technological

materials are used to support cognitive strategies that may later assist learners with reading difficulties to develop reading ability (Schwab et al., 2015).

Nevertheless, little attention is paid to pedagogical challenges faced by teachers when using technology to support teaching instruction, while it is well attributed that, regardless of the degree of heterogeneity of the classroom, any technology related and assistive device foster belonging, promotes engagement while contributing to improved motivation to learners during instruction (Tamim et al., 2015). In addition, tablets or computers are essential in the resource classroom (DoE, 2012) due to the permissible accommodations that are required by law to learners with difficulties to learning, as well as those with reading difficulties (Tamim et al., 2015). For example, use of accommodations in the presentation of test material for a learner with reading difficulties may include use of text to speech software to compensate reading difficulty while the teacher ensures that the construct is not altered (Wolf et al., 2008).

2.8.3 Scaffolding

When learners are assisted in a language classroom with shifting their attention on specific parts of the tasks, they develop language and literacy skills (Shatz & Wilkinson, 2010), given the premise that individuals learn by applying combination of their prior-knowledge and scaffolding when learning (Halvorsen & Neary, 2009). Lerner and Johns (2012) are of the view that scaffolding entails specific support that the teacher provides to the learner who encounters difficulty in managing a task. Since today's classroom is more diverse than before, modelling of complex task by the teacher becomes important. This includes use of pictures or objects to facilitate better understanding of the topic at hand (Halvorsen & Neary, 2009; Lerner & Johns, 2012). It stands to reason that when the teacher speaks, oral language vanishes and the learner who is not auditory inclined cannot go back to discover something he did not understand (Halvorsen & Neary, 2009). This suggest that exposing learners to key concepts before presenting the tasks through brainstorming, enhance learners' thinking skills, facilitates better understanding and provides the learners with the opportunity to tap into their prior knowledge to connect new academic content. For learners to be able to read they need to have knowledge of the concepts and knowledge of the meaning of the words to read (Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart, 2016).

The K–W–L strategy further facilitates differentiation in a scaffolded manner by allowing groups of learners to pool their knowledge together and state what they know, or come to understand while providing opportunity for the individuals within the group to state in writing what they want to know from the lesson, and further elaborate what they have learnt (Lerner & Johns, 2012). By understanding individual learners' needs, the teachers will be able to find learners

where they are. So differentiation requires the teachers to establish where learners are in the content knowledge first so as to provide them with differentiated levels of support for them to master the content (Levy, 2008). Competency in reading with understanding does not occur spontaneously, it depends on individual's metacognitive skills and such skills require the learner to acquire procedural knowledge (Cubukcu, 2008). Shannon (2008) described procedural knowledge as the knowledge on how to execute a technique or procedure and the nature of what is essential to complete it. For example, a teacher can think through the actions by encouraging the learners with difficulties in comprehending the text to think within the text, through observing the teacher modelling the technique while the learners may not be able to accomplish the task independently (Fisher & Frey, 2004).

2.8.4 Direct teaching

The task of teaching reading, is far more than transferring vocabulary, it is about ensuring that learners understand and display ability to comprehend the text and read effortlessly (Lerner & Johns, 2012, 2014). Estes and Mintz (2015) defined direct teaching instruction as a very useful teaching skill that is characterized by short instructional periods followed by practice until the learner masters the learning. When learners are making transition into new linguistic environment, such as those of grade 4 learners, the transition from one level to next requires the teacher to explicitly state what is to be taught in a structured and controlled manner (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Exposing learners to pre-reading activities becomes a starting point when teaching reading, as it integrates meaning and communication to support explicit teaching, this provides learners with the opportunity to draw from their prior knowledge (Shatz & Wilkinson, 2010). Shatz and Wilkinson (2010) further implied that allowing learners to make use of their home language and code switch between the two languages for concept clarification, enhances vocabulary in their additional language. Consequent to that, it reduces anxiety as they draw from their vocabulary knowledge in their Home Language. Learners then develop their vocabulary as they experience new words when they are modelled by the teacher (Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2009). In each step of the presentation, the teacher gives clear instructions that are varied with examples and corrective feedback (Estes & Mintz, 2015).

2.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter, I discussed existing literature on challenges that are generally faced by Learning Support Teachers, highlighting difficulties in supporting learners from communities with low socio-economic status. The associated challenges with low socio-economic status communities have hampered the holistic development of many learners as well as teaching and learning situations. It is not improbable to comprehend that achieving positive outcomes

for learners depends on the settings, which includes the quality of the school settings and the teachers' attitudes. Therefore, there is the understanding that middle childhood represents an important period in the socio-emotional and cognitive skills of the developing learner. This includes the mastery of language development which enforces a greater responsibility on the providers of additional support, such as LST.

Various challenges encountered in the contexts where LSTs were situated have been discussed, including the kind of support required that possibly give LSN the opportunity to become successful readers in EFAL. The potential changes that occur in schools as a result of teacher engagement and the relationship intensity between multi-factors affect learners' academic development. To overcome challenges of teaching EFAL, it seems likely that improved LSTs knowledge and skills have to be deliberately perpetuated over the time. In the next chapter I discuss the research methodology I have undertaken. I have explained the paradigm I have selected, including research design of my study. I have also explained the procedure I have undertaken in selecting research site and participants and concluded the chapter by discussing the quality criteria and ethical considerations I have undertaken.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I present the nature of the research and an account of the methods that were used in carrying out the study and the research design. Firstly, the epistemology and ontology perspective that are underpinning this study are examined and discussed in the section 3.2. This is then followed by the discussion of the methodological paradigm and research design in sections 3.3 and 3.4 respectively. The selection of participants has covered section 3.5, while the data collection techniques are used in section 3.6, and the analysis strategies are used in section 3.7. To conform to rigour, I have presented the quality criteria and ethical principles that were undertaken such as confirmability, credibility, dependability, and transferability in sections 3.8 and 3.9 respectively.

3.2 RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES

Croker (2009) stated that judgements about any methodology to adopt when conducting a study depend on researcher's epistemological stance. As a result, methodological organisation produced necessary data on which findings were based, which were also supported by the way questions were organised and that were the strategies employed for data collection and analysis purpose, including interpretation of results (Croker, 2009; Ponelis, 2015).

3.2.1 Interpretivist perspective

For me to understand the challenges related to teaching English as First Additional Language to learners with special needs, I used the interpretivist paradigm. An interpretivist views the world as having multiple realities which are shaped and constructed by social actors, who develop their own meanings and understandings of their experiences as they occur (Wahyuni, 2012). My role as the researcher was to understand the specific context of the LST from their subjective point of view rather than from the perspective of an objective observer (Mack, 2010; Ponelis, 2015). As the focus of interpretivist researcher is primarily on meanings, researchers often use various methods to obtain the multiple views of participants in a specific context (Dudovskiy, 2018). The core characteristic of the different methods I followed was the opportunity I had as a researcher to engage and interact with participants in their natural settings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Wahyuni, 2012). Through the interpretivist lens of engagement, I was able to explore the real-life contexts of LST through direct involvement in their environment. This enabled me to gain insight into the challenges related to teaching learners with special needs. My data-collection methods of observation,

field notes and co-facilitation of PRA-based activities provided me as the researcher with opportunities to gain a better understanding of the LSTs' experience (Ponelis, 2015; Riyami, 2015).

An advantage of using interpretivism in this study was that participants were able to express their views openly because in the interpretivist paradigm the assumption is that constructions of reality are based on people's own "preferences and prejudices" (Crawford, 2007, p. 92), as well as their "views, feelings and perspectives" (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007, p. 81). Therefore, it was imperative that I, as the researcher, respected and appreciated the viewpoints of the LST from both full service schools and ordinary schools as different people understand and interpret situations and experiences differently (Crawford, 2007). A potential challenge of interpretivism was that I could potentially have had an influence on the atmosphere of the setting in which I was present (Riyami, 2015). Participants could have altered their behaviour from the way they normally behaved due to my presence. I was fortunate that I had a professional relationship with the participants and administrators where I collected my data. Thus, effectiveness in PRA-based activities is highly dependent on trust, empathy and fairness between the participants and the research team (Coghlan, 2019) were further enhanced by the ethical relations between the researcher and the participants that were negotiated before the study was conducted (Guillemin & Heggen, 2009). Finally, following proper ethical procedures by means of a thorough explanation of the research process, allowing questions for clarity and gaining consent assisted with developing a trusting relationship between the participants and myself, as researcher (Lopez-Dicastillo & Belintxon, 2014).

3.2.2 Qualitative approach

I chose the qualitative methodological approach for this study. The qualitative methodology allowed me to observe and study Learning Support Teachers in their real-world context (Creswell, 2007). Furthermore, it enabled me to have in-depth view and the understanding of the settings, as experienced in Intermediate Phase and influence the teaching of English as First Additional Language (EFAL) to Learners with Special Needs (LSN). Qualitative methodology emphasises the characteristics suitable for the interpretivist paradigm (Yavuz, 2012). Yavuz (2012) illustrated that qualitative studies are characterised by the belief that multiple realities or perspectives exist in the world and that there is no single reality (Kielmann, Cataldo, & Seeley, 2012). Another characteristic is that there is interaction between participants and the researcher. The behaviour of participants is observed where it would occur naturally, without recreating it or taking it out of its natural context (Croker, 2009; Moore & Llompart, 2017).

Since I relied on the qualitative methodology, it was therefore important for me to understand the participants in their natural setting in which they made sense of the situation. I visited LST which enhanced my understanding that was pertaining to challenges they encountered when teaching EFAL. I had access to their real-world context. I was able to document their actions and behaviours relating to how they increased accessibility for the LSN to the EFAL curriculum (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). I ensured the primary focus was on the personal accounts expressed by the LST based on their experiences when teaching EFAL to LSN. This first-hand experience allowed for the discovery of new insights and knowledge which granted me the ability to identify themes relating to common implementation strategies. However, a potential challenge that presented itself in the study was the subjective nature of qualitative research. As the researcher, I had to be cognisant of any personal assumptions during the study. I constantly had to engage in reflexivity and regularly I had introspection sessions about any influence I, both as a researcher and existing Learning Support Teacher, might have had on the research process. Personal and subjective views were circumvented using a researcher's diary, in which I recorded any subjective notions.

3.3 METHODOLOGICAL CHOICES

Punch (2009) affirmed that a research methodology involves all the aspects in carrying out a research project, from the initial phase that includes planning, the execution of the project, reporting and the final stage on which results are published. Based on the interconnection that exists between interpretivism paradigm and qualitative approach, I utilised qualitative approach to conduct my study. In line with interpretivism, qualitative method prefers to put emphasis on understanding than explaining causes and change in social phenomenon (Welman et al, 2007). Zucker (2001) confirms that qualitative research involves enquiring about participants' opinions, behaviours, perceptions and experiences. Therefore, I could understand and describe participants' viewpoint because qualitative research provided a thorough understanding of human experience (Lichman, 2006). Based on its subjectivity, participants expressed their perceptions, beliefs, and challenges they experienced when teaching English as First Additional Language to LSN in Intermediate Phase. Additionally, the natural setting into which qualitative research was studied, qualified it to be holistic in nature, as there were no individuals that were brought into a laboratory nor sent out instruments for individuals to complete (Creswell, 2009). Instead, I focused on the meaning that the participants held about what was being studied, and not the meaning I expressed in the literature.

Qualitative research is regarded as a flexible approach to collecting data in natural settings. However, generalization of research findings is not possible to the greater population but is

relevant to the context on which research study was conducted (Basit, 2010). It was not my intentions to generalize, from that reason my focus was to understand participants' viewpoints, beliefs and perceptions to make sense of the situation (Maree, 2013). I utilized data collection strategies, that permitted application of some of the concepts that were essential in qualitative research such as, description, understanding and interpretation of human interactions while providing access to verify data gradually to get a deeper understanding of LST's perceptions (Welman et al 2007). The natural setting and the description of the research process was comparable; in other words, the findings of the study may be transferrable (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

It should be noted that, even though qualitative approach is flexible for collecting information in natural setting, there were implications of results to be influenced by researcher's prejudice and bias (Mayoux, 2001). I remained aware of subjective influences driven by my assumptions and professional orientation. It was for this reason that I made field notes and reflected on my own biases to ensure that subjective views of the research participants were reflected in my interpretation and not my own. I aligned myself with the suggestion by Maree (2012) that researchers need to be culturally competent when familiarising themselves with the context. At this point I was at an advantage, as my relationship with participants was professional and did not occupy any position of power. It further contributed to the accuracy of the findings (Creswell, 2009)

3.3.1 Explorative case study

A case study design was utilised (Maree, 2012) due to its flexibility (Hyett, Kenny & Swift, 2014) which permits researchers to make use of Participatory Reflection and Action principle (PRA) to deepen the understanding of the case. It is recommended to utilise a single case study when choosing a specific phenomenon (Yin, 2003), hence the study focused on a single phenomenon from the same district and not multiple case study. This study used an exploratory case study. This method of selection enabled me to illustrate a concern in a bounded system (Creswell, & Poth, 2017) with an attempt to expand my understanding of the phenomenon (LSTs' experiences of teaching English as First Additional Language to LSN) (Hancock, & Algozzine, 2011; Maree, 2012).

Using case study- while applying PRA principle- enabled me to approach the phenomena under investigation from different epistemological perspectives (Maree, 2016). It allowed me to gain information regarding the selected case (i.e., Tshwane Education District) with a view to arriving at an in-depth description and understanding of the case (Creswell, 2014). Given that, the researcher is afforded an opportunity to answer the "how and what" types of questions

that were formulated as research questions to better understand participants' experiences in their environment (Baxter & Jack, 2008)

According to Breakwell, Wright, and Smith, (2012) the philosophy encompassing a case study design argues that views and perception are embedded on individual's world view. This perspective highlights the value of language in making meaning, while making application of PRA principles relevant and suitable for both collaborative reflections between participants and researcher, which are aimed not only on raising awareness but on solving problems while gaining new knowledge through interactions (Coghlan, 2019). I obtained first-hand account of those who had direct experience of the phenomenon, while simultaneously verifying my understanding in order to be publicly tested minimised the bias (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006; Coghlan, 2019).

Maree (2012) criticised case study design for its lack of validity and reliability. In contrary, Creswell (2013) emphasized the merits of using case study when multiple sources of information are utilised. I used multiple data generation and documentation techniques which provided in-depth understanding of the participants' experiences (Yin, 2009) in support of trustworthiness.

To this end, case study design is criticised for its results that cannot be generalised. In the current study, the results that are obtained cannot be generalised to the wider education context due to the limited number of participants. However, detailed data may assist researchers within the related environment to reproduce the study (Shenton, 2004). One other weakness was that of the participants' likelihood to change their behaviour in the presence of the researcher. It should be noted that, the participant did not display any behavioural change as it was assumed by the researcher when the study was conducted based on the researcher's background. It is assumed that the conclusion above was further enhanced by the ethical relations between the researcher and the participants that were negotiated before the study was conducted (Guillemin & Heggen, 2009).

Being an insider qualitative researcher was worth it to understand that rich data generation highly depends on researchers' interpersonal relations with the participants. As such, the effectiveness of PRA-based activities was highly depended on trust, empathy and fairness between the participants and the research team (Coghlan, 2019) while case study design enabled close collaboration between the participants and the researcher (Baxter & Jack, 2008) to facilitate good human relations. Set against the backdrop of the statement above, I examined my own disposition while ensuring that respect is maintained at all time.

3.3.2 Selection of case

Wahyuni (2012) recommended that research questions should be the determining factor when deciding on a selection process in order to offer features of the case to be studied. In this study the researcher was concerned primarily with inferences that were descriptive, focusing on small group of individuals that would provide an in-depth description of the phenomenon. I required insights from LST as these individuals had experience in teaching LSN, in particular English as First Additional Language. The carefully selection of the case study qualifies the case study research to be credible (Wahyuni, 2012).

3.3.3 Selection of research participants

According to Maree (2010) sampling is a process of selecting a representation from a larger population to conduct a study. I used purposive sampling for my research case to select the participants. Purposive sampling was best suited for exploratory studies where participants selected were to meet specified criteria to provide rich data related to the research question (Emmel, 2013). Moreover, my epistemological orientation facilitated the selection of purposive sampling so as to get insights on the participants' inhibited experiences of the phenomenon (Smith & Osborn, 2007). In addition, I had no intensions of generalising the findings I obtained from the sample.

I opted to follow the strategy above based on the connection the study has with the on-going Professional Learning Communities (PLC) that the Tshwane Education District provided to the participants. In purposefully selecting 12 people who participated

I applied the following criteria:

The participants had to be Learning Support Teachers from the same district in Tshwane Education District. The participants had to be members of School Based Support Team. The participants had to be based at a Public Primary School. The participants had to be from 8 Public Primary School that are assigned LST by the Gauteng department of Education, with 1-3 participants from each school depending on the school roll number. Participants' demographics included age, gender, qualification, teaching experience. The participants had to provide informed consent for their participation. The participants had to teach English as First Additional Language to LSN.

Table 3-1 Demographic information about the participants of PRA –based activity

Participant	Qualification					Teaching Experience (years)		Age	Gender	
	Diploma in Education	Degree	Certificate in Specialised Education	Diploma in Specialisation Education	Degree in Specialisation Education	General Teacher	Support Learning Teacher		Male	Female
P1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>					3	17	49		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P2	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			5	8	48		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P3	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	6	15	54		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P4	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				5	10	39		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P5	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>					9	3	35		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P6	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		15	3	53		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P7	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>					3	3	30		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P8	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				2	3	31		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P9	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>					20	15	60		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P10	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>					11	5	40		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P11	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			12	6	59		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P12	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>					23	16	62		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
P13	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				14	1	57		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

3.4 DATA COLLECTION AND DOCUMENTATION

In this section, I present the data collection methods and techniques that were used when getting data from the participants. For the purpose of triangulation and crystallisation, I relied on multiple data collection methods and techniques in order to substantiate data and to gain comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. Also, to enhance the robustness of findings (Breakwell, Wright, & Smith, 2012; Wahyuni, 2012). Table 3.2 indicates an overview of the field visits that were done during the data-collection process.

I utilised Participatory Reflection and Action (PRA-based) activities, focus group discussions, visual data documentation technique and participant observations discussed in the subsequent sections. As for the context of interaction, a research journal comprising of reflective thoughts and field notes as well as audio recordings to record focus group interview were made of use too (Wilson & Creswell, 1996).

3.4.1 Participatory Reflection and Action (PRA) activities

Participatory Reflection and Action is a process in research that allows for constant participation and co-learning between the researcher and the participants (Paz & Morales, 2016). It involves a process of conditions being created that might lead to new possibilities and transformational outcomes and further invoke self-reflection (Wittmayer & Schöpke, 2014). Moreover, the phenomenon being studied is often co-defined by participants and the belief is that the solution could be found within the confines of their natural setting without generalising outside of their specific context (Paz & Morales, 2016; Whitman, Pain, & Milledge, 2015). PRA is characterised by a shared responsibility between the researcher and the participants in the co-creation of knowledge as well as co-ownership of the research findings (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Clark, 2007; Wilson & Creswell, 1996). In addition, PRA seeks to transform the power relationships that are often experienced with the traditional research approaches (Raynor, 2019). To facilitate the PRA process, it was important for me to enter into the research process open-mindedly and free from any preconceived notions or assumptions (Kidd et al., 2018).

During the PRA-based activities, participants worked in groups and discussed the questions that were on the posters. The PRA session involved participants from 8 public primary schools in Tshwane District. On one poster, participants were asked to discuss what they did for LSN in the classroom when teaching them EFAL. Also, to explain what they thought about LSN with regard to learning English as First Additional Language. During the discussion, participants were required to write down their responses on the poster. On the other poster (as seen in Figure 3.3), participants were asked to explain what they believed were the challenges of teaching EFAL and what the LST teachers needed regarding knowledge, skills and resources in order to help LSN achieve learning. For this study an advantage of the aforementioned exercise was that the posters with questions pertaining to EFAL enabled participants to express their knowledge of the implementation of inclusive education policy with respect to LSN. Furthermore, it facilitated a process for the transfer of knowledge not only between researcher and participants but also among the participants themselves. Finally, participants were able to learn from each other about strategies they might not have been aware of which they could implement in their classrooms.

PRA can be of different kinds. However, an exploratory exercise was undertaken to enable LST to reflect on their experiences in order to facilitate shared solutions. Other forms of PRA such as one- to -one interactions, were deemed irrelevant in creating joint discussion and reflection. Flipchart paper newsprint was available, allowing participants to document their experiences and thoughts concerning challenges they face when teaching English as First

Additional Language. For discussions, participants were divided into groups of about four, and were provided with different coloured pens and newsprint to document their experiences. I oversaw directing the scope of the discussion by providing participants with a single question at a time to reflect on as seen in Figure 3-3. At most, there were three participating groups in the session, each provided with one poster (as seen in Figure 3-2). The desired purpose of PRA approach was an opportunity for learning obtained from the planned and unplanned outcomes of the process; which could influence practice (Coghlan, 2019). I facilitated PRA activities at Tshwane South District on 6 March 2020, the session took up to 2 hours. During the sessions, LST were encouraged to be creative, by illustrating their ideas in any way that would make meaning to them with the purpose of complementing the ideas on the poster. Report back session that was planned to take place immediately after all groups were completed, did not happen, thus, feedback could not be recorded, due to the changing needs of the administrators. Thereby, I was allocated 120 minutes that I had to share with the participants for their 40 minutes lunch time, hence 80 minutes was only enough for group discussions and participants did not get enough time to record their responses on the posters on the second poster. One representative from each group was selected by members to participate in focus group interviews for clarity seeking and member checking.

Table 3-2 The field visits for the PAR workshops and focus group interviews.

Date and duration	Workshop	Sessions held	Attendance (participants)	Schools represented	District and Province
6 March 2020, 2 hours	PAR	1	13	Full-Service, Ordinary schools	Tshwane South District, Gauteng
18 March 2020, 1 hour	Focus group	1	3	Full-Service, schools	Tshwane South District, Gauteng



Figure 3-1 A photograph of participants in a PRA- based group activity



Figure 3-2 A photograph of one group documenting their experiences

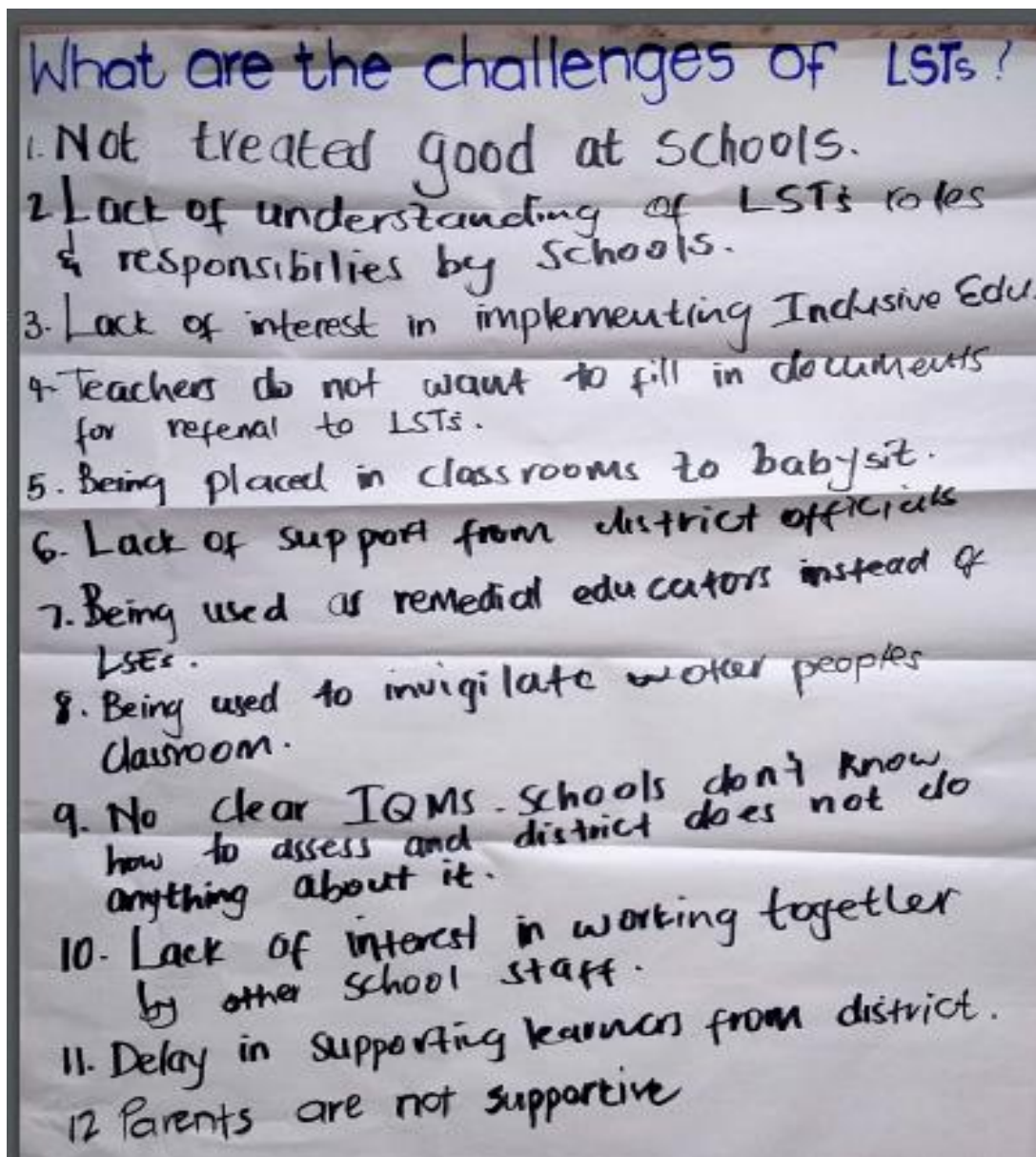


Figure 3-3 A photograph of PRA poster by group 2

3.4.2 Focus group interviews

Focus group interactions can generate detailed data, peculiarly for participants who know each other and share similar experience (Breakwell, Wright, & Smith, 2012; Maree, 2016). I used focus group interviews to supplement PRA- based activities. A selected number of participants based on their involvement in the PRA- based activities and willingness to represent their groups (teaching EFAL to LSN) was asked to share their experiences (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009; Onwuegbuzie, Johnson, & Collins, 2009). I organised the focus group interviews and ensured that at least one participant from each group was selected from the PRA-based activities and were represented purposely to guard against personal and social interplay of group dynamics, which can be dominated by coalesced participants (Swann et al., 2009).

The focus group interview took place on 18 March 2020 and lasted between 45-60 minutes. The session was audio-recorded. All the three participants had experience as Learning Support Teachers and wilfully participated as permitted by their availability. The participants were aware of the ethical conditions relating to confidentiality, as stated in the consent form (see Appendix B) and there were no participants who did not want to be audio-recorded. In order to prevent the discussion in the group from being too general, I had focus group questions that I had organised prior to the interactions, so as to remain focused (see appendix D) while discussions were carried out (Croker, 2009; Maree, 2016; Webb & Doman, 2008). I was responsible for and responded to clarity-seeking questions in order to ensure better understanding of the phenomenon and the enhancement of trustworthiness (Breakwell, Wright, & Smith, 2012).

3.4.3 Observations

Maree (2016) cited observation as the most important method of collecting data, fundamental to human interactions, adding the notion of first hand data that has got to be generated on events as they occur (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). In the course of observing the participants' interactions in PRA- based activities I paid attention to the world around me through participants' lens so that I could clarify meaning directly rather than bringing personal experiences and assumptions. This enabled me to pay more attention on participants' behaviours. Having refined the purpose and the focus of the observation, I created a structured observation schedule (see appendix I) in a format that could allow for desired information to be easily recorded during PRA -based activities allowing behaviours to be recorded for quality purpose (Breakwell, Wright, & Smith, 2012). Of interest, were participants' behaviours such as non- verbal communication between the participants with specific occurrences like voice tones, body languages that could be used as reference points (see figure 3.4) (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The observation-sheet allowed me to remain flexible while observing events as they occurred, hence I withdrew myself when participants respond to each other's questions during discussions. I did not want to ignore what was potentially important and that would enhance the quality of data collection and interpretation (Musante & DeWalt, 2011) This kind of interaction facilitated the exchange of knowledge and skills amongst participants which were particularly valuable for me to determine nonverbal expression of feelings triggered by reflective exercise.



Figure 3-4 A photograph of group 2 documenting their experiences

Yin (1994) cautioned against researcher observations as it could be viewed by participants as intrusive, leading to participants reacting in spurious ways. I directed the focus group discussion and interview towards the purpose of the study, guided by the interview schedule while maintaining objectivity in recording data using field notes and photographs (see appendices G, H & I) to reduce threats to credibility such as bias and inaccuracy as a result of pre-existing relationships with the participants prior to research study. Rather, that increased dependability. Furthermore, prior relationships made it easy to conduct member checking when confirming the interpretation of data to achieve confirmability.

3.4.4 Field notes

Field notes provided comprehensive information to record thoughts about the setting, people and activities and could be utilised at any time during research process to add to the valuable data obtained (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). I used descriptive and reflective field notes. Descriptive notes consist of participants' statements that included accurate description of occurrences in the field. The purpose of reflective field notes was to document researcher's subjective meaning processes and to supplement descriptive notes (Mohammed, 2019; Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2018). Reflective field-notes during PRA activities, focus group discussions and member checking sessions provided opportunity for on-going data-analysis. It also allows the researchers to reflect on personal experiences including biases, emotions and actions, thus enhancing trustworthiness (Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2018). All the reflections were captured in the research journal as reflective thoughts which included reflections on personal experience, emotions elicited during the interactions, as well as my personal interpretation, thus promoting reflexivity (Gutmann, 2014).

3.4.5 Audio and visual data collection and documentation strategy

Posters that were used during PRA-based activities captured visual data to elicit participants' understanding of the events, while at the same time, used as visual representation of participants' experiences, knowledge and skills. From the ethical point of view, pseudonyms and numbers were used in the study while visual data was encrypted to protect the identities of participants. The use of posters enabled me to get an understanding about the participants' experiences while I critically reflected on my own biases as the research process evoked connections with and between the participants (Gutmann, 2014). Having considered audio-recording for focus group discussions, I made use of audio-recordings for participants' feedback during focus group discussions and transcribed these verbatim in order to mirror their perspectives. Nonetheless, audio-recordings could be viewed as intrusive by the participants who felt uncomfortable to engage freely in focus group discussions or feared that they may be exposed during such engagements. To alleviate such fears, when obtaining informed consent and prior to the interactions as well as during field work, participants were duly informed of audio-recordings taking place (Jewitt, 2012).

I ensured that the audio-recording put in place did not distract participants. It is noteworthy that audio-recordings record events as they happen. The transcription of audio-recorded data can be time consuming and that technical challenges often impede its value (Babey, 2020). This was overcome by familiarising myself with the audio-recording equipment beforehand as

well as the acquisition of high-quality voice recording tools. I was able to transcribe all discussions verbatim and capture the participants' actual words.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Data analysis is a key part of the research process as this informs the research outcomes through seeking concepts, themes and patterns in the data that had been generated (Flick, 2014; Srivastava & Hopwood, 2009). The objective of the data analysis process was to have a thorough understanding of the accounts given by the participants on their experiences in the natural settings possible (Green et al., 2007). Notwithstanding that there are several methods I could have used to get insight from the data generated (Liamputtong, 2009). In this study I chose the inductive thematic analysis approach to uncover the meaning behind the stories which participants told but also to analyse the ways in which such stories may have shaped their experiences teaching EFAL to LSN (Green et al., 2007; Srivastava & Hopwood, 2009). I used the inductive thematic analysis method to detail participants' experiences encountered and strategies used in teaching EFAL to LSN. Inductive thematic analysis enables reporting on participants' experiences in their natural settings.

A five-step process was followed, as seen in Figure 3-5, when conducting data analysis and interpretation, which included familiarisation with data generated, creating initial codes from data, identifying and organising initial themes, reviewing codes and themes, and finally, interpreting themes generated according to the literature review. It is important to mention that the whole exercise was iterative and not one time. The first step involved perusing through recorded data to have some general insights of key ideas and concerns or the initial impressions (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). After gaining some initial insights, codes were generated and organised, followed by identifying the emerging patterns or themes. This involved my reading the data iteratively until patterns and meanings began to emerge. The initial codes and themes had to be systematically organised by generating codes and themes that focused on specific aspects of the data related to the research questions. Thereafter, the themes that had been identified by grouping the initial codes were critically reviewed to ascertain whether they were an accurate representation of the data which were set (Nowell et al., 2017). The process culminated in the write-up of the data analysis (see chapter 4), in which I have presented a logical and comprehensive interpretation of the challenges LST experience teaching EFAL to LSN (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The conducting of thematic analysis enabled an exploration of the different perspectives as presented by the participants and gaining insight that emerged from the data, and also to generate strategies that I might not have anticipated. Nonetheless, there are potential

drawbacks using thematic analysis. One of the drawbacks is the potential for the researcher's personal inferences having a bearing on the interpretation of the data generated (Javadi & Zarea, 2016). This would affect the researcher's findings and the thematic analysis would lose its validity and value (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In an effort to overcome this challenge I engaged in reflexivity by capturing my thoughts about the findings in my researcher diary to ensure compatibility between my interpretations and what the data reflected. I then employed member checking to ensure that participants' meaning is conveyed.

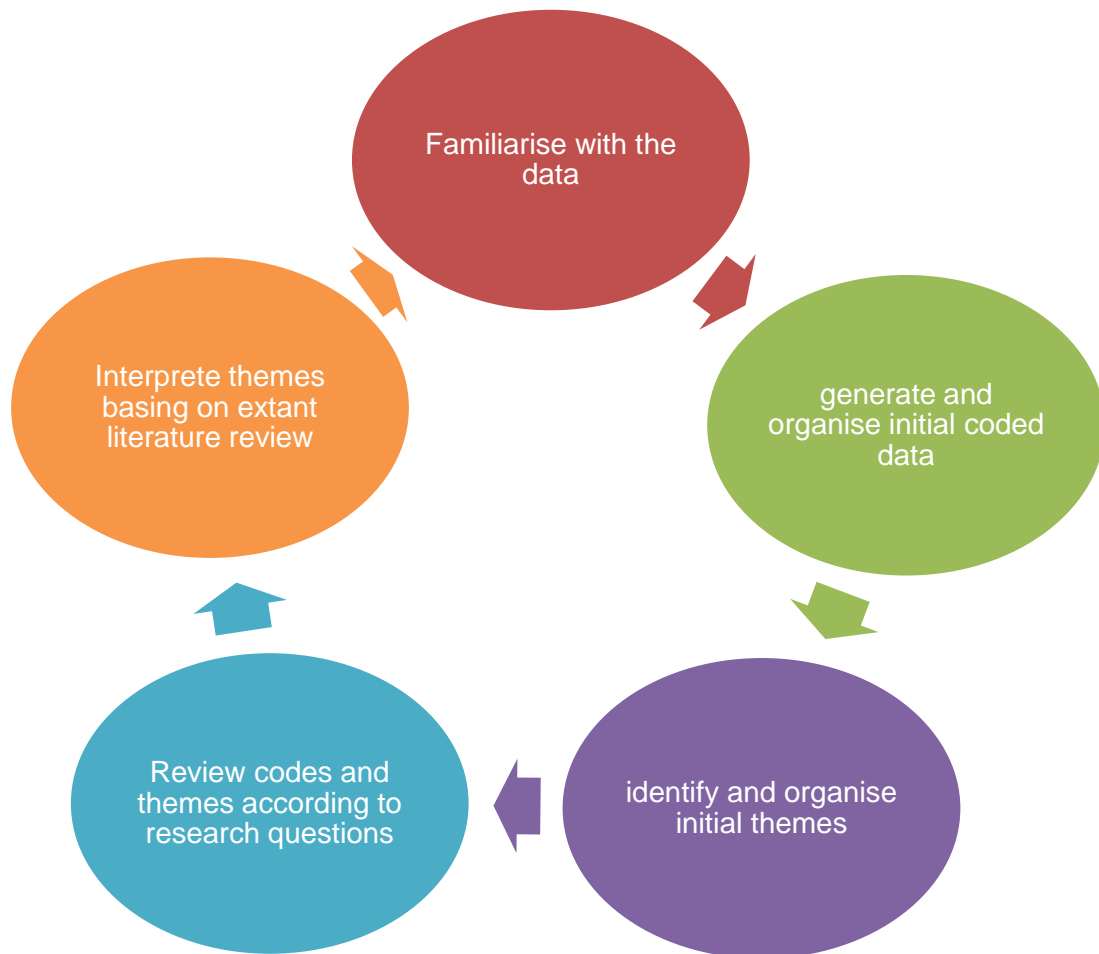


Figure 3-5 The steps of data analysis and interpretation process

3.6 QUALITY CRITERIA

Throughout I strove for high levels of trustworthiness by adhering to rigorous methods of data generation to maintain credibility, confirmability, transferability, authenticity and dependability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

3.6.1 Credibility

Credibility is explained as the degree of accuracy in portraying participants' viewpoints and soundness in the results of qualitative research study (Riet & Durrheim, 2008). To convince the audience that credibility was maintained, I employed various data generation techniques and documentation strategies as Cresswel (2013) suggested that crystallisation enhances credibility. The sources of data included posters, verbatim transcripts, field notes and reflective notes. Furthermore, I relied on participants' responses extracted from description data that was generated through PRA-based activity (posters). Member checks were adopted as another strategy to improve credibility as it eliminated bias during data analysis and interpretation (Anney, 2014). I had a debriefing session with my supervisor. A poster was designed, that summarised the themes that emerged from the data collected (See appendix I) and was sent to all participants. On 03 December 2020, I had a virtual meeting with 3 participants that were selected as representation from the PRA groups, and participated in focus group interviews to check with the participants that the themes that had emerged from all the data sets were in line with what they had explained in the data collection procedures. The poster was sent to the participants via email before the meeting in order to allow them to either accept or refute the findings in the poster. The participants agreed that the themes were a true reflection of what they experienced and had reported during the data collection process. In promoting credibility, as a major instrument in the data collection and analysis, I provided my credentials, which included my experience that is significant to the phenomenon under study (Shenton, 2004).

3.6.2 Transferability

Transferability is explained as an extent to which the outcomes of the qualitative research can be replicated to other settings (Anney, 2014). Transferability is possible in my study because of the rich and detailed data that included sufficient contextual information, thick descriptions as well as study processes that included verbatim transcripts of PRA-based activity and focus group interviews, field notes, reflective journal and notes provided in the appendices to assist other researchers who may wish to reproduce the study within related environments in other settings (Shenton, 2004). Furthermore, the sampling technique comprised of participants who were knowledgeable of the issues under investigation and that facilitated transferability of the study.

3.6.3 Dependability

Dependability entails the constancy and the extent of reliability of research outcomes and the manner of documentation of the research techniques, affording someone not involved in the

research to understand, appraise, and make an assessment of the research process. (Riet & Durrheim, 2008). I included extensive documentation of data detailing methods and processes in an attempt to meet the dependability criterion (Shenton, 2004). Although detailed account of research processes was documented and executed, I cannot guarantee that the same results can be achieved because a human being is an open being than can change anytime, thus the researcher's personal involvement and interactions are difficult to reproduce. However, the analysis of all data to check for and inconsistencies in order to address inconsistencies that might have been found, was done in conjunction with the recode strategy and a comprehensive audit trail to promote dependability (Anney, 2014; Shenton, 2004).

3.6.4 Confirmability

Plummer (2017) stated that confirmability implies verification of findings derived from participants which can be scrutinized, by relating back to data. This implies the importance of researcher's mindfulness in the research process so as to ensure that participants' meaning is conveyed while employing reflexivity to recognise researcher's own personal beliefs and attitude that might be influenced by the researcher's subjective direct encounter (Shenton, 2004). I relied on constant discussions with the supervisor to improve confirmability. In this study, I increased participants' possibility of being actively involved during member check by exposing them to data analysis so as to counteract the notion that researchers identified with the theme (Kornbluh, 2015).

3.6.5 Authenticity

Authenticity in qualitative research is explained as a degree to which a researcher adheres to the principle of transparency and truthfulness of the results, while being honest and true about the likelihood of influence and own bias in the research process (Tracy, 2010). Scott (2007) postulated that the criterion of authenticity is valuable in the assessment process of studies regarding accuracy of data when multiple sources were used to come to conclusion. To this end, an audit trail was employed, encompassing all textual material, including field notes to allow the reader to make sense of the processes in order to determine whether the results of the study can be trusted. In addition to this authentic findings can be achieved through multiple sources (Scott, 2007). A provision that I made to remain authentic, included use of my reflective journal to document my views, beliefs and perceptions to reduce bias. The notion of respect was warranted by ensuring that the individualistic and collectivistic cultures among participants were valued by ensuring that their expressions were produced as both collective (PRA-based activity) and single voices (focused group discussions).

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

3.7.1 Permission

Creswell (2013) asserted that ethical practices involve more than just following a set of static guidelines. Before conducting the study, I obtained ethical clearance from the relevant organisation (Appendix C) and the Department of Basic Education (Appendix A). The Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education (University of Pretoria) was also consulted. Once approval was received from the Ethics committee, a meeting was held with the organisation head and participants to clarify the content of the letter outlining nature of the study. Informed consent was obtained from the participants (Appendix C) before the study commenced. During the meeting with the participants, I gave details about their involvement and participation, highlighting voluntary participation, where participation was not forced, and I allowed the withdrawal of participants anytime they felt to do. (Maree, 2016). I made participants aware of the data collecting strategies that I was to employ.

3.7.2 Confidentiality, privacy and anonymity

Confidentiality is a level of protecting participant's identity that may be accessed as personal information by others (Sanjari et al., 2014). In an attempt to maximise participation, participants were informed that their identity would remain anonymous to earn their trust and to validate rights of their privacy (Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2005). Since the study was PRA in nature, participants gave consent to be photographed, and were captured during focus group discussion for visual data generation. The purpose thereof was explained to participants at the beginning of the study. In an attempt to maintain confidentiality, participants' faces were blurred, to protect their identity. I maintained confidentiality and privacy, consequently, pseudonyms were used during focus group discussion and the purpose was clearly stated in the consent form at the beginning of the study. I valued the participants' contribution both as collective (PRA-based activity) and individual (focus group discussions) in order to commit to the participants' cultural values in their context (Molyneux et al., 2005)

3.7.3 Nonmaleficence and trust

Patton (2002) argued that protection from harm is an act undertaken by the researchers to ensure emotional and physical wellbeing of the participants. Although the current study is not harmful by its nature, I considered the probability of distress that might have had a negative impact on the participants' reputation (Sanjari et al., 2014). I did not ask personal questions that could lead to emotional reactions. Instead, I was observant during interaction to ensure that there was not any harm. I remained empathic while actively listening and I ensured that participants were not deceived. The debriefing sessions allowed the participants to process

the data gathering procedures, express any concerns, ask questions and discuss the purpose of the research study.

3.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter I presented an in-depth look at the research methodology that underpinned the study. A detailed description was given of the selected paradigm, the research design of the study, which was followed by the data-collection and data- documentation methods. I then turned the focus to the data-analysis procedure which was used and concluded by giving the ethical standards that were adhered to during the study. In the next chapter, I present the results and interpretation of data analysis from having followed the research methodology discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4: THE PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I present the results of my study. The results are presented through themes, and where possible, the sub-themes. The themes discussed herein emerged after an inductive thematic analysis of the data generated from the PRA-based activities, focus groups, the audio-visual recordings, participant observations, field notes, and the researcher's diary. Various excerpts from the different methods, including transcripts of audio recordings, are presented to support the themes and the sub-themes. The discussion hereafter starts with the results of the study broken down at high level based on the themes in section 4.2 as was derived and supported by participants' data, whereas section 4.3 contains the concluding remarks for this chapter.

4.2 THE RESULTS

In the subsequent sections, I discuss the themes in detail (as seen in Figure 4-1), supported by excerpts from participants' data. The major themes included how the LST seek and understand information through practice (which has four sub-themes) and the inadequacies of the skills and the resources. Shortly after the presentation of results, I discuss the results in relation to the extant literature.

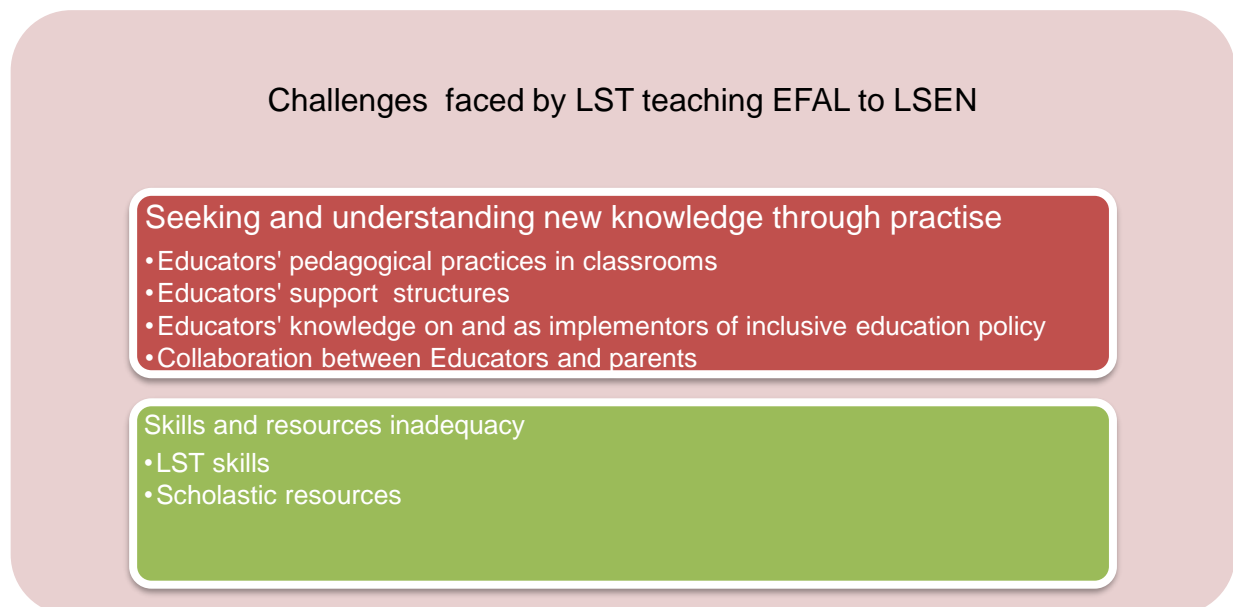


Figure 4-1. High-level patterns of challenges LST face teaching EFAL to LSEN

Table 4.1 below provides the abbreviations that were used when quoting data from different sources. The schools attending the PRA sessions are referred to as C(1..n), the PRA

workshop sessions are referred to as PRA (1..n), while the focus group discussions FGD(1..n), and the participants as P(1..n). When quoting from the participants, the numbering was based on the respective workshop sessions. For example, if quoting Participant 3 (P3) from PRA workshop session, P3 is referred to as PRA, P3. If it was from the focus group discussions, then it would be FGD, P3.

Table 4-1 Abbreviations used

Name of School	Abbreviation used
School 1	C1
School 2	C2
School 3	C3
School 4	C4
School 5	C5
School 6	C6
School 7	C6
School 8	C7

PRA-based workshop Sessions

PRA-based workshop Tshwane South District PRA (n = 12)

Participant Focus Group Discussion
Participant focus group Session,

FGD (n = 3)

Participants

Participant 1 P1

Participant 2 P2

Participant 3 P3

4.2.1 Theme 1 – Seeking and understanding information through practice

This theme explores Information seeking and understanding through practice. It highlights the concerns around knowledge of inclusive education policy that LST experience with other

educators whose practices would be influenced by the understanding of the policy. This has a direct impact on their practices concerning the curriculum that they ought to cover. The theme also covers the support that educators get from school authorities as well as the collaboration with parents when soliciting information about the learners. The sub-themes (as seen in Table 4-2) that were considered, included the educators' pedagogical knowledge of inclusive education that enables them to provide a classroom that caters for and accommodates the needs of learners faced with challenges of learning EFAL.

Table 4-2 Theme 1 and identified sub-themes, together with inclusion and exclusion criteria

Theme 1: Information seeking and understanding through practice

Sub-themes	Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
Sub-theme 1-1 Educator's pedagogical practises used in the EFAL classes	Educators' pedagogical practises that facilitated the ease of learning EFAL.	Educators' pedagogical practises that facilitated the ease of learning but not for EFAL.
Sub-theme 1.2 Educator's knowledge as an implementer of inclusive education policy in accordance of teaching EFAL	Educators' knowledge that enables them to provide a classroom that caters for and accommodates the needs of EFAL learners.	Educators' knowledge that does not contribute to accommodating learning EFAL.
Sub-theme 1.3 Support structures from which information can be sourced and shared to advance EFAL	Support that enhances educators' ability to deliver curriculum according to EFAL requirements.	Support that does not enhance educator's ability to deliver curriculum according to EFAL requirements.
Sub-theme 1.4 Collaboration between parents and Educators	Communication methods used to facilitate or establish the relationship between EFAL learners, parents, and educators	Any communication attempts not purposed for advancing the learning EFAL

Subtheme 1-1: Educators' pedagogical practices used in the classroom

This theme highlights the pedagogical practices that Educators use in the classroom. As seen in Table 4-2, are the factors used as basis for the criteria in determining certain pedagogical practices when teaching a class. The criteria were then used in determining which data to code under this theme from the scripts.

These included:

- 1) the learner [LSN] being active and autonomous in the class
- 2) Educators understand learners' strengths and weaknesses
- 3) Educators adjust lesson presentation to cater for varied levels of challenged learners
- 4) during the teaching and learning, an educator considers the learner's interests, abilities, and background
- 5) teaching content, processes, products, and the learning environment caters for the learners' readiness, developmental level, and their characteristics.

The challenges LST noted most point towards pedagogical approaches (teaching strategies) that Educators apply within the classrooms; which often did not consider the understanding of learners' strengths and weaknesses when delivering teaching and instruction.

Table 4-3. Educators' pedagogical practices used in the classroom

Sub-Theme 1: Educators' pedagogical practices used in the EFAL class

Inclusion criteria

- The learner [LSN] is active and autonomous
 - The educator has full understanding of learners' strengths and weaknesses
 - The educator adjusts lesson presentation to cater for varied levels of challenged learners
 - During teaching and learning, an educator considers the learners' interest, ability and background.
 - Teaching content, processes, products, and the learning environment considers the learners' readiness, developmental level, and their characteristics.
-

In reminiscing her experiences while still teaching in an ordinary school, Participant P3 offered a hindsight on difficulties once encountered in a classroom with a learner suffering from epilepsy. P3 said

"...before I could get experience on how to work with "eh eh eh" learners with diverse needs, neh... I've encountered a problem at the mainstream, I had a one child who was attacked by epilepsy, this kind of epilepsy without "eh eh eh eh" fitting neh... that child neh will just disengage and switch off then I could not

understand hore(that)... I thought that this child was spoilt, I thought this child did not want to work, wabona(you see). Each time she would say “ma’m I’ve switched off” “while you supposed to be doing your work you always say, you’ve switched off” Only to find that when I start with my eh eh eh eh eh course of knowing about inclusive education, I realized that no! I deprived that child, I denied that child an opportunity, I did not have the knowledge, the knowledge that I’ve got now, I ve acquired now as an inclusive education specialist, I could have applied there, cause most of the learners are now being labelled as being you know uh uh uh uh, misbehaving, they are, you know being given all these kinds of names, only to find its us.” (FGD, P3).

In P3’s hindsight she raised a lot of other challenges attributed to poor teaching, some of which suggested insufficient training or the lack of capacity development for educators to be able to handle diverse learners with barriers to learning. Also highlighted is poor teacher attitude when they thought of the learner as being of “spoilt” behaviour. To supplement the concerns raised by P3, P1 and P2 ‘delivered home’ the challenges around pedagogical practices. P2 said:

“...Yah... may be another thing is to have a knowledge to understand that learners learn differently. Learners are different so that you can be able to..., can help to include them in your teaching, ja I think so. The knowledge of... that learners are different, are learning differently.” (FGD, P2).

While P1 said it clearly: P1 stated that “... mostly, you’ll find that they [educators] focus more on the learners that are performing very well.” Some other factor notably highlighted as impacting pedagogical practices was the educators are undergoing pressure from authorities, especially, school authorities and education officials. As a result, educators who are pressured by the authorities tended to focus most on curriculum coverage than good pedagogical practices. This was highlighted when P2 observed, saying:

“...when we do the follow up to find out why they[educators] do it like this ...you’ll find that the curriculum they are supposed to or they are expected to fill the ATP (Annual Teaching Plan) the way it is because when they come - the officials they don’t even ask who are the learners, the learners who experience barriers, they just take the examples randomly, so they feel that the officials will come and find that this learner was not in the class, he did not write the classwork, you see, so that’s the challenge they have, Curriculum coverage” (FGD, P1).

and “...Yes, they focus more on curriculum coverage...” (FGD, P1)

P2 professes with “Exactly...” (FGD, P2)

P3 stated:

“...because they [the authorities and officials] are putting pressure on teachers...”
(FGD, P3)

and P1 confirms with

“...Yes, ...the teachers they just run with the curriculum wabona(you see) ja and denying these ones that need additional time and additional resources you know an opportunity, they are being deprived”, “...And shouldn't be like that, akere(is it so)?” (FGD, P1).

In instances like those concerning curriculum coverage, Estes, et al. (2011) recommended adoption of teaching strategies that would require a match between educators' expectations about the learner and the outcomes preferred as a remedy. That can only be achieved by adjusting the presentation of lessons depending on the varied degree of learning challenges that a learner(s) could be faced with (Learner & Johns, 2012). Certainly, to remedy curriculum coverage challenges, LST were applying curriculum differentiation strategy as noted in P2's comments above. However, P2, as consented to by P1 and P3, was more explicit on strategy, saying:

“...And now that there is decaps, it gives us opportunity to apply differentiated curriculum. We are given an opportunity to do the fast-tracking to do the back tracking, you know we are given an opportunity to do learner-base and learner pace. So now as a teacher if you have that knowledge you can do curriculum- the curriculum straddling, a grade 4 learner who did not acquire the curriculum requirement in that phase in that current grade you can bring out that in the lower grade ja(yah) so that we avoid the one size fits all...” (FGD, P2)

and “...so the curriculum differentiation must be on board” (FGD, P2) respectively.

Unfortunately, the application of differentiated curriculum has yet to be adopted by all Educators. When participants were asked whether the teachers in their schools do differentiated curriculum approach, P3 was resolute when answering and said

“...You know that’s the main problem, that’s the main worry, ...you know when they [learners with special needs] go back to their class you know they are treated exactly as other learners, you know they ignore the fact that the learners are not the same, you know that’s our main worry, that’s our main worry” (FGD, P3).

Language came out as an interesting element to fall under pedagogical practices, though it would have been warranted as a stand-alone theme, since it is discussed in the extant literature as a barrier to accessing education than a pedagogy issue. This arises from the plurality of languages used in grades at foundational phase *visa viz* the introduction of English as a medium of instruction starting from the intermediate phase (Sibanda, 2017). It seemed to contribute to challenges of pedagogical practises at schools, in imparting culturally responsive teaching (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Notable in the comments were those relating to language as a barrier during the PRA workshops. With P5 saying:

“...We are supporting language which is English and Mathematics, so from my experience learners are the most because they don’t know how to read and if you and obviously if you struggle to read you cannot write a sentence. They cannot read, so obviously during the exam time when they are writing a test you must go through step by step.” (PRA, P5)

P3 linked up commenting

“...Ja(yah), and this language, the home language and the first additional language there’s a problem especially in grade 3, they start “eh eh eh” school using their home language in grade R, 1 and 2 and there is a transition to grade 3, they only start using English where ‘as now the demand is too huge now, they must apply these different languages in grade 3, and grade 4 is totally, the First Additional Language, it becomes a problem [in terms of how best to teach]. I think that one is a national cry out, it needs to be changed.” (PRA, P3)

P8 clarified by saying

“The problem is what she was saying, they struggle to construct words and the reason of doing this first additional now in grade 3, is a huge problem because they start using this language while the demand is now increasing in grade 4, they must apply English, and they only started English at Grade 3.” (PRA, P8)

Along in the focus group discussions, P3 observed the challenges of language plurality. P3 said:

“...but even in their home language, you know in our township you’ll find that the LOLT differs a lot you know with the home language...eh eh you know this things of the relationships, you’ll find that the mother is using Sepedi and the fathers speaks Xhosa or isiZulu, and you’ll find that when these parents speak, they use different languages when they communicate with the child, they use a language that is different to the language that is used at the school, so the learner cannot acquire the skills that are needed here, so only the teachers are the only ones mainly the ones who are trying to teach these concepts to the learners, whereas at home its different , so the support is not enough.” (FGD, P3)

P3’s observation also highlighted the challenges relating to support systems (see section 4.3) that are needed in place in order to achieve effective and responsive teaching (Lerner & Johns, 2012). The difficulties with some learners not being able to read and write in EFAL seem more associated with plurality of language use in the prior grades as well as at learners’ homes. Although, brought to the fore language use was the learner’s deficit in the phonological awareness as attributed to P2’s statement during the FGD.

P2 observed

“...Maybe to add on there, we are giving the basics. You’ll find that the learner is in grade 3 maar can’t even associate letter sounds, these are the gaps we’re..., are trying to fill in.” (FGD, P2)

The challenges around Educators’ pedagogical practises in the classes are not new and the finding corroborated the studies by Boscardin et al. (2008), Sibanda (2017), and Howie, et al. (2008). The shift in language used as medium of instruction remains a major factor that complicates teaching practices. The results indicate that good pedagogical practices are yet to be fully realised in inclusive education classrooms. In the current literature, it is recommended that effective teaching ought to involve the adoption and use of ideal pedagogy at different times and in different contexts to support the very best learning outcomes (Estes & Mintz, 2015; Halvorsen & Neary, 2009; Lerner & Johns, 2012). This can only be possible when there is deliberate investment in collaboration, teacher training, teacher development and induction for learner achievement (Abbott, Middlewood, & Robinson, 2014; Li & Fang, 2015; A. Moore, 2016). Good pedagogical practices are often described on a spectrum with teacher-centred pedagogy on the one end, and the learner-centred pedagogy on the other. Also, great pedagogical practices include the use of responsive teaching strategies, responsive interaction between an educator and learners, the instructive content used, the combined goals of the learner and educator, and the way the content is presented and

delivered to the learner. However, the findings do not aptly highlight that learner-centred pedagogy, especially for those with learning challenges as precisely practiced in schools. Teaching multi-cultural classes does not only promote a diversified culture within the school, but promotes acknowledgement, mutual acceptance and respect for all learner differences while creating opportunities for learners to succeed (Cole, 2008). Learners' opportunity to succeed in school is equally dependent on teachers' pedagogical practices that fittingly respond to learners' varying experiences as a result of socio-economic, language, cultural, religious, ethnic, racial, gender, sexual orientation and ability groups (DoE, 2011).

Subtheme 1-2: Educator's knowledge and as an implementer of inclusive education policy in accordance with teaching EFAL

Educators are embodiments of the inclusive education policy implementation in the classroom of learners with special needs. It can, therefore, be denoted that the values which educators exemplify when teaching should be aligned with the provision of inclusive education policy in the treatment of learners. This theme deduces that educators as implementers of transformation in education should transcend beyond positive attributes and not just the considerations of educators' attitudes. An educator ought to act as support, at all the times, for all learners in the class as stated in the inclusive education policy. As seen in Table 4-4, is the summary of this theme along with its inclusion and exclusion criteria.

During the second PRA activity in the data collection period, three participants reported that acting as a support system for LSN was imperative in the implementation of inclusive education.

Participant P5 said:

"...We give them any support. And sometimes far more than what is expected from us. Sometimes the parents don't even know it. We don't tell them because they don't need to know." (PRA, P5)

Table 4-4. Educators' knowledge in accordance with teaching EFAL as specified in the inclusive education policy

Sub-Theme 2: Educator's knowledge and as an implementer of inclusive education policy in accordance of teaching EFAL

Inclusion criteria

- Educator provides support in the form of emotional, social and physical support to learning EFAL
- Educator's personal values and skills that are used to teach EFAL aligning with inclusive education policy
- Processes, products and the learning environment for EFAL take into account the learners' readiness, developmental level and their characteristics as prescribed in the inclusive education policy on SIAS.

Exclusion criteria

- Emotional, social and physical support given by a non-teaching figure (anyone other than an LST teacher)

The same participant P5 added that the support was not limited to one side, rather taking an all-inclusive view of the learners. P5 added:

"...they are really our children; you will see how much mommy the money didn't have to buy, then you make a plan. Anything that the child needs, it doesn't matter what, emotionally, physically, whatever." (PRA, P5)

Educators ought to act as a support system for all the learners, and Participant P1 agreed with P5's view when she said:

"...wabona(you see), whenever the learner is having challenges in class, you are there as the support."

Whereas, P11 said: *"... all learners need love, support and inclusivity in class."* (PRA, P11)

Nonetheless, not all is cosy and warm in the inclusive classroom. In the focus group discussions, participants expressed concerns about the values and the treatment of learners that fellow educators embody, not at all representative of what is stated in the inclusive education policy. Some of the observations related to the personal attributes which educators demonstrate when teaching in the class. The three participants were consistent in stating that it was important to demonstrate certain values when teaching learners, more so a deliberate sensitivity when there are LSN involved. The data suggests dire challenges around inclusive education policy implementation and the educators' knowledge of it, including the education officials responsible for monitoring its implementation.

Here is what P3 expressed about fellow educators:

“...we are telling them, even if the person is from the district, you must tell them about the SIAS, the policy. Explain, don’t just be submissive and agree to anything, show them policies here... eh eh eh eh this one is performing at a lower level, this one needs a high level of support hence his work is like this he, is different to others, you know.” (FGD, P3)

As if in retrospection, P3 then added:

“...I think even the curriculum facilitators themselves they don’t have this knowledge.” (FGD, P3)

It seemed a moment of deep contemplation. This was an indication suggesting that either there is deliberate disregard of the inclusive education policy or the lack of knowledge and understanding among those meant to enforce the implementation and monitoring of inclusive education. However, teacher training and development maybe an issue at hand as P3 had stated earlier in reminiscence of her experience with a learner with epilepsy at the previous school prior to her training on inclusive education. This is what P3 had to say observing her own experience in an ordinary school that

“...before I could get experience on how to work with eh eh eh learners with diverse needs, neh... I’ve encountered a problem at the mainstream, I had a one child who was attacked by epilepsy, this kind of epilepsy without eh eh eh eh fitting neh... that child neh will just disengage and switch off then I could n’t understand hore(that) I thought that this child was spoilt, I thought this child did not want to work, wabona(you see). Each time would say “ma’m I’ve switched off” “while you supposed to be doing your work you always say, you’ve switched off” Only to find that when I start with my eh eh eh eh eh course of knowing about inclusive education, I realized that no! I deprived that child, I denied that child an opportunity, I did not have the knowledge, the knowledge that I’ve got now, I’ve acquired now as an inclusive education specialist I could have applied there, because most of the learners are now being labelled as being you know uh uh uh uh , misbehaving, they are you know being given all these kinds of names , only to find its us.” (FGD, P3)

It was a direct admission of lack of knowledge and skills necessary to handle LSN, which can be directly associated with its acquisition when appropriate training and development is offered to the educators. Nonetheless, there were indications suggesting that educators were less inclined, and if not, deliberately disinterested in implementing inclusive education.

For example, P3 affirms her experiences saying:

“...we are in a full-service school, the Full-Service School strategies, the Full-Service School model is only applied by the Learning Support Educator when we are doing pull-out, ...you know when they go back to their class you know they are treated exactly as other learners, you know they[educators] ignore the fact that the learners are not the same, you know that’s our main worry, that’s our main worry but now and then we are trying to educate the SBST, the school assessment team you know all the teachers, when we are doing the management plan, we include the trainings on how to deal with learners with diverse needs.” (FGD, P3)

LST seem frustrated with the lack of effort among fellow educators as they eschew values enshrined in the inclusive education policy on LSN.

P1 observed that

“...mostly you’ll find that they [educators] focus more on the learners that are performing very well”, (FGD, P1)

with P3 continuing

“...they [Educators] say hey you’ve got your teachers there, you’ve got your teachers there, plus the fact of pulling them out of the class they [Educators] think eh eh eh that even their assessment tasks must be planned by us[LST]. You know there’s still a confusion. It’s like now we are doing the exclusion. These learners with barriers to learning it’s like... you’ve got their own teachers [LST], you know, we are still you know we are worried” (FGD, P3)

and P1 quipped saying

“...and we [Educators] should not be like that, akere(is it so)?” (FGD, P1)

The aforementioned observations affirm the challenges experienced with implementing inclusive education policy, with a significant likelihood that educators in inclusive classrooms context, school authorities and district education officials have, over the time either become- for whatsoever rationale- ignorant, complicit or lost interest in implementing the policy.

The findings in this theme align with the study by Gist (2014) as well as Maphalala and Mpofo, (2018), that in South Africa, worthy initiatives to implement inclusive education policy at National level remain hampered by either the lack of capacity at the district level and or the

lack of accountability in schools. Although the implementation of standardization procedures for support provision across the provinces, such as Screening Identification Assessment and Support (SIAS) were a step in the right direction in supporting all learners including Learners with Special Needs, the access to the curriculum is still a challenge (DoE, 2014).

However, what the existing knowledge has so far explicitly acknowledged, is the effort that LST put in creating awareness of inclusive education within schools, to the extent that some of them bore the responsibility to roll out awareness programmes and training fellow Educators. This is happening in the midst of the lack of support as discussed in the next section. In inclusive classroom settings, educators have to acknowledge the responsibility for both the personal and social education of learners in order to bring inclusive education as a transformation tool (Maguvhe 2015a). Maguvhe (2015a) found that teachers who promoted advocacy and positive values helped to create an atmosphere of respect and understanding leading to equality, equity and empowerment in the classroom. This can be linked to the results of this which show that Learning Support Teachers expressed providing an environment of respect and one that is non-discriminatory and took it as of paramount importance of inclusive education.

Subtheme 1-3: Educators' support structures

Support could have been reviewed in different forms and dimensions (as seen in Table 4-5 for the inclusion and exclusion criterion). It could have been the discussion in the ambit of either supporting LSN that LST oversee, the LST themselves when carrying out their duties, or both the LST and LSN. In this study, I chose to focus the discussion on the support explicitly intended for, in any way possible, the successful implementation of inclusive education policy. The findings suggested strongly that support systems and structures are integral and pervade both the learners and educators when implementing inclusive education. Notable, was the financial support, peer support (fellow educators), auxiliary staff like psychologists, training, parental support, resources, and support from authorities and officials. Ostensibly, all forms and dimensions of support should bear the results of learner support. Support is indispensable and central for learners' academic achievement and educators' effective teaching and instruction.

The participants highlighted key challenges when it comes to support structures, for example, P3 said with frustration

"...you know when they go back to their class you know they are treated exactly as other learners, you know they ignore the fact that the learners are not the

same, you know that's our main worry, that's our main worry but now and then we are trying to educate the SBST, the school assessment team you know all the teachers, when we are doing the management plan, we include the trainings on how to deal with learners with diverse needs" (FGD, P3)

then P1 accentuates the above statement

"...mostly you'll find that they focus more on the learners that are performing very well"; (FGD, P1).

and P3 again added

"...they say hey you've got your teachers there, you've got your teachers there, plus the fact of pulling them out of the class they think eh eh eh that even in their assessment tasks must be planned by us. You know there's still a confusion. It's like now we are doing the exclusion. These learners with barriers to learning it's like... you've got their own teachers, you know, we are still you know we are worried." (FGD, P1)

Table 4-5. Educators' support structures

Sub-Theme 3: Educators' support structures	
<p>Inclusion criteria</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peer Educators as a support system for the LST – fellow educators provide support in the form of emotional, social and physical support • Support from those in authority – any support given to LST from those in authority, like the school authorities and district officials • Resources – available resources intended for supporting the implementation of inclusive education 	<p>Exclusion criteria</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional, social and physical support given by a non-educator figure (anyone other than a teacher), and anyone not in authority from the school or district level in the department of education • Resources that are not explicitly intended towards inclusive education policy implementation

Other support areas mentioned were financial resources for the acquisition of scholastic resources like, for example P3 describe as follows:

"...financial support from the SMT [School Management Team] that like eh eh eh ...for instance when we are doing the concepts that need concentration, there are resources that needs to be purchased that will bring interest, you know that will

attract these learners to focus more. You'll find that those assistive devices are very expensive, they need to be financed, so instead of finding the correct or suitable device you just take anything then the impact becomes negative you see, so I'll ask for some kind of financial assistance to can provide alternative LTSM like assistive devices. Some are, they are suffering from the... bare keng?(what is it called?) hard of hearing, sight, they will need a magnifying glass something like that."

In terms of auxiliary support, P3 highlighted the need saying

"...some hard of hearing they will need tape recorders, or hearing aids and then sometimes you'll need. bare keng(what is it called)? personal support, a support from le service providers like OTs [Occupational Therapists] to come maybe just once ja, ja Occupational Therapists or speech therapist, and some kind of finance that we can order one of these service providers to come and give us the support that we don't acquire here as teachers have to and the impact becomes..." (FGD, P1)

Subtheme 1-4: Collaboration between parents and Educators

Inclusive education policy emphasises a collaborative team approach for addressing the curricular needs of all learners in an inclusive classroom. A collaborative approach involves educators, learners and the parents for decision making and the potential to produce high quality learner outcomes. Educator-parent collaboration optimises learners' monitoring and learning and can lead learners to achieve their full potential.

Table 4-6. Educators' collaborative relationship with parents

<i>Sub-Theme 4: Educators' collaborative relationship with parents</i>	
Inclusion criteria	Exclusion
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Educators have a collaborative relationship and there is healthy communication with parents concerning learning EFAL.</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The collaborative effort not concerning EFAL

The challenges of collaboration between Educators and parents about the learner's learning progress and or achievement was P2's observation as illustrated below

"...especially in township schools where parents eh eh eh eh doesn't have this knowledge [inclusive education], they don't understand their own children you

know, they don't understand the barriers, the barriers that the learners are encountering, so us[LST] in the schools, you know we must have this information so that we can apply it to these learners ..." (FGD, P2)

The observation above that parents may not understand their own children has prompted actions such as what P1 further indicated, in addition to P2's observation, that

"...most parents do not know their children, so usually what we do at the beginning of the year we would invite the parents here and then we workshop them about eh eh eh differentiated curriculum what they could do with the learners at home." (FGD, P1)

The challenges of Educator-parent collaboration often led to outcomes that P2 noted like

"...the learner cannot acquire the skills that are needed here, so only the teachers are the only ones mainly the ones who are trying to teach these concepts to the learners, whereas at home its different, so the support is not enough." (FGD, P2)

The difficulties come as a result of some parents not getting interested in their children's education, most probably, attributing bad behaviour to learners' poor performance.

This is how P3 observed

"...whereas [some]parents don't believe in those things [special needs education]. They just say their children[learners] are naughty, their children[learners] are disrespectful. So, there is just a lot of work to be done. We need to even educate their parents."

The findings align with observations from the extant literature on a limit to what LSTs alone can do to overcome the challenges they experience, given that home circumstances the learners supported from township communities, were usually unstable and oftentimes discouraged parents felt less capable of providing additional support to their children due to parents' education background and lack of educational resources (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2018).

Nonetheless, parents of LSN are expected to be highly involved in the education of their children, by developing knowledge about their educational needs and the facilities accessible to address those needs (Al-Shammari & Yawkey, 2008). Unfortunately, the findings indicate a disturbing trend where parents seemingly attributed learners' poor performance to their bad behaviour. The parents' disinterest is even heightened if they are from resource-constrained

communities, with a great degree of tendency to leave the responsibility of educational decision-making to the school (Van der Berg, 2008).

4.2.2 Theme 2 – Skills and resources

The skills, instruction practices, and resources characterise the most pivotal part towards the rendering of pedagogical practices for educators in any class. Some of the issues from above form part of the factors considered as criteria in determining certain practices when teaching for compliance with the inclusive education policy. Educators should understand learner strengths and weaknesses. They must adjust the presentation of lessons to cater for varied levels of challenged learners during instruction and learning of EFAL, at the same time, taking into consideration learners' interests, abilities and their background.

Subtheme 2-1: Educators' skills as a result of instructional style and practises

Participants were asked about the most crucial skills they thought they needed to have when delivering curriculum in an inclusive classroom when catering and supporting EFAL learners.

Participant PRA P5 said the following:

“Coping with multi-challenged learner such as those we're teaching, you should have patience, unconditional love for the children, willingness to go the extra mile, the willingness to provide pastoral care.” (PRA, P5)

Participant P4, from C4 on the EFAL support programme, mentioned that it did not only end with the curriculum but they oftentimes needed to extend their learners' daily living skills since it affected their performance in the classroom:

“Skills and knowledge of different barriers to learn that learners experience in EFAL, the knowledge of diagnostic measures, knowing how to teach learners activities of daily living, know how to teach skills that learners may need in life outside school ... focusing on the development and progress of learners even if is slow progress” (PRA, P4)

Participants in the PRA activity session were consistent and concurred with their views, stating that it was important to demonstrate certain values when teaching EFAL to learners for example, participant P2 said:

“Teachers should not discriminate against learners challenged with EFAL, rather, they should teach other learners to respect and support one another...” (PRA, P2).

PRA P5 and P11 shared similar sentiments as the former participant:

“Learners should be treated equally ... have compassion for learners with impairment; ... to respect and understand learners with disabilities...” and “...they are really our children; you will see how much mommy didn’t have the money to buy, then you make a plan. Anything that the child needs, it doesn’t matter what, emotionally, physically, whatever.” (PRA, 5).

“... all learners need love, support and inclusivity in class.” (PRA, P11)

In reminiscing on the experiences of teaching at a full-service school, a participant in FGD session, with hindsight, shared some of the difficulties encountered in a classroom with a learner who was suffering from epilepsy due to her lack of training and skills, which directly impacted how she was delivering the curriculum to her learners:

“Before I could get experience on how to work with learners with diverse needs, ... I’ve encountered a problem at the mainstream, I have a one child who was attacked by epilepsy, this kind of epilepsy without fitting ... that child will just disengage and switch off then I could not understand that, I thought that this child was spoilt, I thought this child did not want to work, wabona (you see). Each time the child would say “ma’am I’ve switched off” “while you supposed to be doing your work you always say, you’ve switched off” Only to find that when I start with my course of knowing about inclusive education, I realized that no I deprived that child, I denied that child an opportunity, I did not have the knowledge, the knowledge and skills that I’ve got now, I’ve acquired now as an inclusive education specialist I could have applied there, cause most of the learners are now being labelled as being you know, misbehaving, they are you know being given all these kinds of names , only to find its us.” (FGD, P1)

When it comes to commitment in supporting EFAL, notable and contrasting were the comments and views by participants, who happen to be LST in their respective schools, in comparison to those from full-service schools and were in LST roles. Educators’ attitudes when it comes to skills in full-service schools; they did not share the same sentiments towards learners faced with challenges in EFAL. For example, Participant P6 and P7 at a PRA session had the following to say, concerning EFAL respectively:

“We are in a full-service school, the full-Service School strategies, the Full-Service School model is only applied by the Learning Support Educator when we are doing pull-out ... You’ve got your teachers there, plus the fact that we are pulling them out of the class they think eee that even their assessment tasks must be planned by us. You know there’s still a confusion. It’s like now we are doing the exclusion. These learners with barriers to learning it’s like ... they’ve got their own teachers, you know, we are still you know we are worried.” (PRA, P6)

“It is hard to receive quality because we have large numbers in a class, which makes it difficult for the teacher to manage ...” (PRA, P7)

Subtheme 2-2: Scholastic resources

School resources were identified as making a major contribution to the educators’ ability to deliver curriculum in an inclusive classroom. Personal reflection by P5 during PRA session captured succinctly challenges she experienced from both the educators and learners’ perspective as follows:

“The number one challenge was interaction – how to interact socially with LSN with a very huge back log, ...the pace at which the work in Intermediate phase is presented can be very challenging. Teachers in a Full-Service School are to adapt to the pace their learners can manage, whereas no such a thing happens at our full-service schools, ... having used a slate and stylus at school to write with, I got to know computers only when I started to go to university and that proved to be a huge challenge as today’s generation particularly LSN LSN learn better when using manipulatives like computers.” (PRA, P5)

While participant P3 was exasperated at how difficult it was for them in schools to identify the extent of a learner’s challenges due to lack of resources:

“We must give them materials to read so that they can be easily identified, colourful materials and the notes given to them ... we do not have any resources in the school, that is zero.” (PRA, P3).

P4 mentioned facilities in similar challenges faced when learners have already been placed in schools:

“We don’t have enough facilities to cater for such learners, e.g., school yard is not proper and LTSM.... there is lack of resources.” (PRA, P4).

P8 went further on to indicate resources needed by learners:

“Painted windows for sunlight not to affect them, books, assessment papers and teaching slides ...” (PRA, P8)

while P11 had this to say about resources:

“Every child has a right to learn, regardless of their learning disability, e.g. hearing impaired wheel chair learners, or poor sighted learners ... we need relevant resources, like overhead projector; bold font readers etc. use of tactile resources ... you know specialists, conducive and friendly environment, e.g., walkways must be flat ...” (PRA, P11)

P1 observed the need for educators to be trained to acquire the relevant skills needed in an inclusive classroom:

“Teachers should acquire different skills, e.g. How to operate certain devices.” (PRA, P1)

P13 shared the same sentiments as P1 stating the following:

“Teachers should be equipped with skills that will allow them to cater for all the needs of the child through workshops and training ... they should also be equipped in such a manner that they can be able to turn ordinary school into one having the potential to cater for all learners of different social and economic background ...” (PRA, P13)

So was P12 who shared the following view on training programmes:

“Teachers must be prepared or trained to achieve relevant qualifications to deal with the barriers of learning and infrastructure in the school must be improved to accommodate learners with diverse needs ...” (PRA, P12).

Overall, the participants seemed passionate about teaching learners in an inclusive context regardless of the conditions in which they found themselves and readily shared experiences. Implicitly, their experiences seemed hopeful for learners with varying degrees of learning impairments. The participants pointed out that in the past there were attempts to use available

platforms to share inclusive classroom experiences to encourage and motivate other educators to remain hopeful despite the challenges that they faced.

4.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter I discussed the findings and when necessary and possible I related to the extant literature to either affirm or highlight the variation in knowledge. I identified and discussed two themes, the first with four subthemes and the second one with two sub-themes. That is, first, the pedagogical practices – which include the issues around curriculum differentiation, curriculum coverage and language challenges. The second theme involved support challenges from peers, auxiliary staff, the resources (especially financial resources) and learner related support. The last two themes discussed were inclusive education policy and collaboration between parents and educators respectively. In the next chapter, which concludes my work, I integrate the themes to provide a final answer to the research questions. The next part in the same chapter also includes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

I began this study with an observation that Learners with Special Needs (LSN), like all other learners who are sent to schools, often began their education with their parents and or teachers anticipating that they could also make it through the learning years. From the policy standpoint, the introduction of the inclusive education policy, per se, the Policy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS), meant that LSN have been seriously taken into consideration. Soon after, Learning Support Teachers (LST) roles were established solely to support and to help LSN gain access to the curriculum (Dreyer, 2013; Mfuthwana & Dreyer, 2018; Nel et al., 2016). Nonetheless, I have discovered earlier that with such educational changes, came along an ideological paradigm shifts which have given rise to placing high demands and expectations on LST who are teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL).

Some of the demands include to attend to the socio-emotional and learning needs of LSN. The changes demand LST to, among others, regularly communicate with parents, collaborate with colleagues, attend to referral matters, plan and prepare lessons and develop Individual Support Plan (ISP) for learners (Johnson et al., 2016). Also, LST are required to implement Individual Support Plans (ISP), adhere to administrative rules, district requirements for differentiating instruction and adapt learning materials in order to facilitate learning for LSN (Johnson et al., 2016; Sari & Er, 2016; Villa et al., 2005). When so much is demanded from LST, accomplishing set goals can become difficult and probably present in a negative working environment. Over the time, because of continuous failure to accomplish what is expected of LST, frustrations set in and plausibly leading to experiences of feelings of burnout and of harbouring negative feelings toward the profession (Alson, 2019; Kerry-Henkel, 2018). From this insight, the primary research question was formulated to explore the challenges faced by educators teaching EFAL to LSN, especially, LST teaching Grade levels four and five, as English Language becomes de facto medium of instruction.

In this chapter, I start off a discussion with providing a brief overview of the preceding chapters of this study. Then following this are the conclusions based on the research questions and the themes identified from Chapter Four. After which, I have laid out some of the key limitations of the study and made recommendations for further study.

5.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS

In Chapter One, I gave an introduction and outlined the research strategies for the topic of interest, starting with providing a background overview and setting the context, then the research problem and rationale. I then stated my research questions, defined and clarified the key terms for the study as well as a summary of the research methodology that I used in the study – which included the data-analysis process, the quality of the criteria used, and the ethical considerations of the study.

In Chapter Two, I explored the discourse on LST in the extant literature, seeking insight into the challenges faced and opportunities for improving Educators ability to teach EFAL to LSN, although highlighting the global trend I was interested in the developments in the South African context. I followed this up with providing an in-depth background of inclusive education, highlighting policy initiatives undertaken so far in South Africa. I subsequently described some of the teaching strategies adopted in teaching EFAL from an inclusive classroom context, considering what is achieved globally and in South Africa.

Whereas, in Chapter Three, I exclusively discussed the research methodology guiding my study, detailing the theoretical paradigms – both meta-theoretical and methodological. A research design and a description of the data-collection and data-documentation techniques as well as data analysis strategies were discussed therein. The data collection techniques included PRA-based activities, participant observation, field notes, a research diary as well as audio-visual records for documentation purposes. At the end of the chapter, I gave an explicit explanation of the ethical procedures that were undertaken.

In Chapter Four, I presented the themes and sub-themes that emerged from an inductive data-analysis process and related the findings of the study to the extant literature. In the subsequent sections, I discuss the conclusions I arrived at in answering the research questions in the subsequent sections.

5.3 RESEARCH CONCLUSION

In this section and the subsequent subsections, I present the conclusions derived from the findings of study from Chapter Four, arranged in the order starting with the secondary research questions and winding up with the summation of my primary research question. As seen in Figure 5.1, it illustrates how the themes identified in Chapter 4 eventually provided the answers to the research questions. Figure 5-1 is subdivided into the research questions, with the identification of key factors such as the awareness of inclusive education policy statements,

the resources, support from either school authorities or district officials, as well as collaboration with the parents, and the pedagogical practises as critical for the LST to teach EFAL.

5.3.1 Conclusions on the secondary research question 1

The first secondary research question for this study was: What is enabling the teaching of English as First Additional Language to learners with special needs? This question helped explore the extant factors with which LST are making use of to effectively teach EFAL to LSN. The key component of the question was “enabling” – as in what is currently making it possible for LST to teach EFAL. Three factors were noticeable from the findings as the backbone for the teaching of EFAL to LSN. First, the Educators’ knowledge and awareness on the inclusive education policy statements such as the Policy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS). SIAS provides a policy framework for the standardisation of the procedures to identify, assess and provide programmes for all learners who require additional support to enhance their participation and inclusion in schools (Bruwer, Hartell, & Steyn, 2014; DoE, 2014).

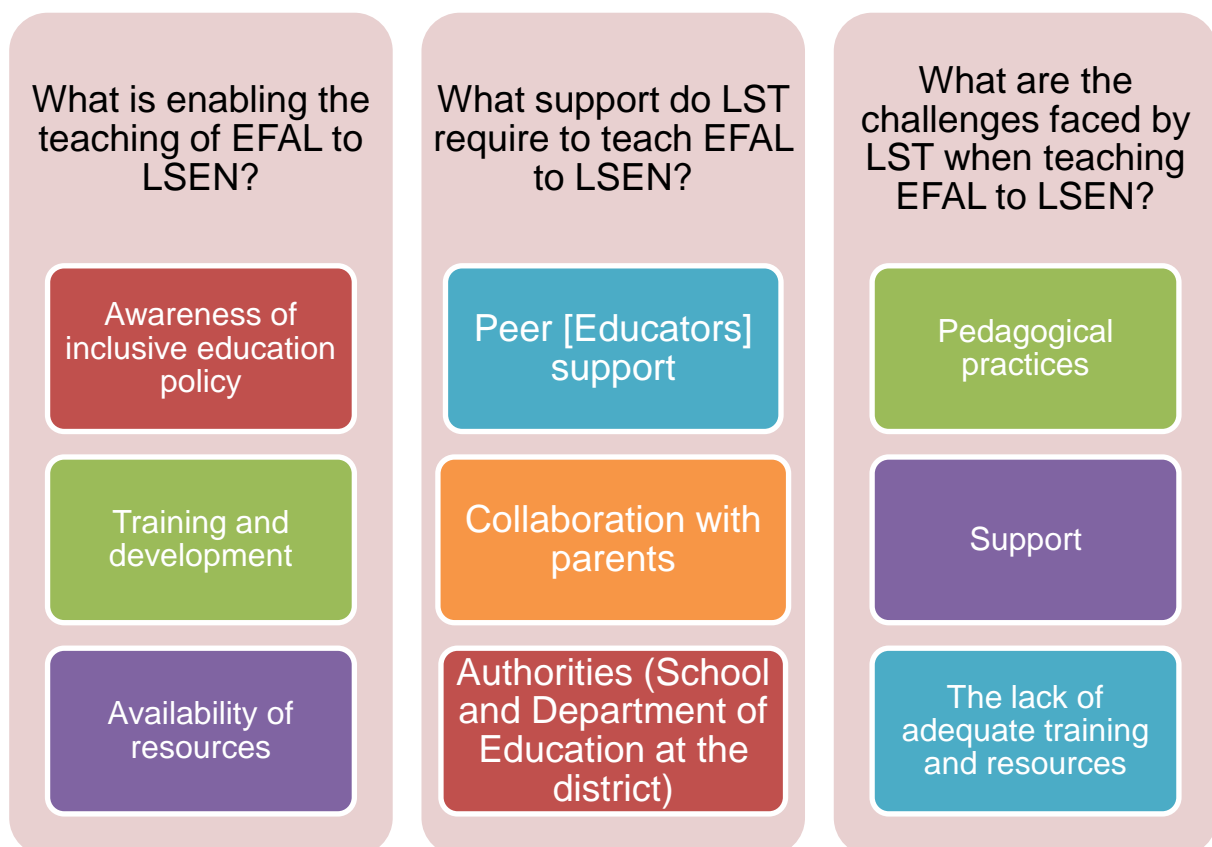


Figure 5-1. Research conclusions according to the research question and themes

LST from the schools whose Educators had an adequate understanding and awareness of inclusive education policy statements, reported smoother teaching of EFAL to LSN. Besides, there were concerted efforts among Educators to collaborate in supporting and granting curriculum access to the LSN as well as ensuring the school environments were in alignment with the expectations set out in the policy. This included infrastructure upgrade, classroom settings, and the adaptation of learning materials. Consequently LST roles were acknowledged and these roles played an important part in helping LSN experience and overcome language problems identified (Bracken, Driver, & Kadi-Hanifi, 2016; Makhwathana, 2015).

Nonetheless, the awareness of the inclusive education policy statements comes as a result of the perpetual training and development programmes educators undertook. The trainings and development programmes often helped educators understand the trends in policy statements and implementation. Lastly, the LST from schools with enough resources found it easier to teach EFAL to LSN. Therefore, I can conclude with an absolute degree of certainty that the availability of resources, training and development programmes and the overall understanding of the inclusive education policy statements among educators, make it possible for LST to teach EFAL to LSN. These factors are key in setting the imperative to provide emotional support to learners as that would make them feel valued, included and supported in the classroom (Maguvhe, 2015a; Maphalala & Mpofu, 2018).

5.3.2 Conclusions on the secondary research question 2

The other secondary research question was: What support do LST require teaching English as First Additional Language to learners with special needs? In this question, I sought to identify the support base, structures and systems LST count on when teaching EFAL to LSN. Some studies have found that teachers often act as a direct support and advocates for learners with special needs (Johnson et al., 2016). Despite there being some research looking at the teaching role as being a support system, it does not exclusively pertain to Learning Support Teachers for English as First Additional Language in intermediate phases of the education system (Makhwathana, 2015). This indicates silence of the extant of literature on the provision of support specifically to LST who teach EFAL to LSN.

This study finds that in order for LST to effectively and successfully teach EFAL to LSN, they rely on fellow educators, school authorities as well as district officials, and the collaboration with parents (Adams, Harris, & Jones, 2016). This serves as the foundations of support for LST, and from whom it can be extended to the learners as well. Fellow educators in general, when working in tandem with LST, make it easy to screen, identify, assess, and support LSN.

Whereas the parents help to support the LSN in their home environments that which started from school, without which, the LST become the sole support system. Support systems and structures are integral and pervade both the learners and educators when implementing inclusive education (Adams, Harris, & Jones, 2016; Makhwathana, 2015; Salter, Swanwick, & Pearson, 2017).

5.3.3 Conclusions on the primary research question 3

With the two research questions answered, now I turn to conclusions for the main research question of the study. The research question was: What are the challenges faced by Learning Support Teachers (LST) when teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL) to Learners with Special Needs (LSN)? This question arises in the context of LST teaching EFAL to the intermediate phase grade levels, that is grades four and five (Bruwer, Hartell, & Steyn, 2014; Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart, 2016; Makhwathana, 2015). The findings of the study showed that LST are central figures and thus play an important role in catering for the unique needs of learners who are challenged with several learning impairments, apart from teaching EFAL to LSN (Bracken, Driver, & Kadi-Hanifi, 2016; Fielding-Barnsley, 2005).

As seen in Figure 5-2, supported by the answers to the secondary research questions – as derived from the themes that emerged from Chapter Four, are the highlights of the key implementation bottlenecks that LST were faced with when teaching EFAL to LSN at the intermediate phase. Also, as seen in Figure 5.2 is a visual representation of the relationship between themes, indicating how these themes are inter-related to each other when answering the primary research question. Each of the themes are discussed further detail in the subsequent paragraphs.

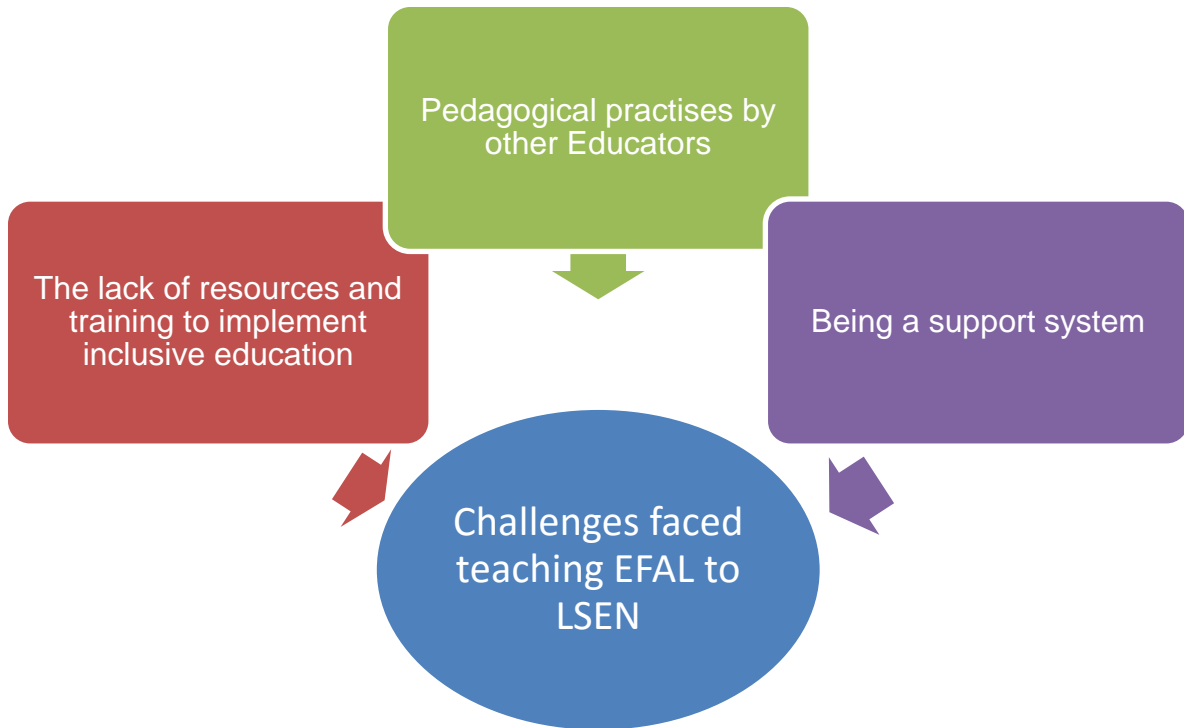


Figure 5-2. A visual summary of the implementation strategies that teachers use

Pedagogical practices by other Educators are among the bottlenecks in successfully teaching EFAL to LSN. In the first place, teachers reported that being a support system for the learner was imperative as an implementation strategy for learners with special needs. In the current literature, discourse affirms that teachers are the primary pillars in supporting learners that needed help and they feel included during the classroom instruction. Educators make a difference when the pedagogical practises adopted are accommodative of LSN. The teaching and instruction practices should ensure that all learners [LSN] are active and autonomous. These imply an educator has full understanding of learners' strengths and weaknesses and make an Educator adjust lesson presentation to cater for varied levels of challenged learners. Also highlighted as pedagogical practices involves the educator taking into account the learners' interest, ability and background during teaching and instruction as well as the teaching content, processes, products, and the learning environment take into account the learners' readiness, developmental level and their characteristics (Bracken, Driver, & Kadi-Hanifi, 2016; McCulley, Katz, & Vaughn, 2013).

Now to successfully adopt appropriate pedagogical practises, LST explained that educators ought to show their learners various values in the classroom, such as the patience and compassion they have for their learners (Maphalala & Mpofu, 2018). Some of these values and practices enhance learning as they create a classroom atmosphere in which understanding and being responsive prevail beyond the barriers of learning impairment. The

study finds that LST who were teaching EFAL to LSN often experienced emotional and psychosocial difficulties as a result of fellow educators' pedagogical practices not being commensurate with LSN, both in the classrooms and school context (Makhwathana, 2015; Maphalala & Mpofo, 2018). Majority of LSN would be excluded from inclusive classrooms (through the pull-out system) on the premise that there were LST responsible for their learning. This kind of premise was accompanied with Educators adopting a single strategy in delivering teaching and instructions.

LST just as the learners [LSN], cannot be limited to emotional support but also to the resources and financial support. LST teaching EFAL to LSN highlighted the challenges of not being supported by fellow teachers with whom they should collaborate. In this study teachers reported that focusing on the overall domains of the learner in the classroom within the context of the school should facilitate inclusivity. This includes support from fellow educators, those in authority like school authorities and district officials and the collaborative support from parents. Just as with the LSN, LST teaching EFAL experience emotional and psychosocial difficulties (Makhwathana, 2015; Maphalala & Mpofo, 2018). Thus, to successfully teach EFAL, both the LST and LSN emotional and social needs needed attention either in the classrooms or schools or their environments (Adams, Harris, & Jones, 2016; Makhwathana, 2015). It cannot be presumed that the role of the teacher alone is to be the provider in meeting the emotional and social needs of the learner, the teachers also are the recipients (Bruwer, Hartell, & Steyn, 2014; DoE, 2014; Nandini & Taj, 2014).

Notwithstanding the above, LST reported taking all means possible to being a direct support for the learners, particularly in the provision of emotional support, adoption of differentiation strategies for teaching and instructions and in securing the necessary resources. Also, some LST reported taking initiatives to train fellow educators on the inclusive education policy by conducting regular workshops and invited parents when commencing an academic year to highlight to them [parents] their expected roles. To some extent, some LST were courageous enough to confront school authorities or district education officials whom fellow educators reported as problematic towards the proper implementation of the inclusive education.

In the broader aspect, the literature has focussed most on the institutional support, support in the form of specialist teachers, therapists, psychologists and other stakeholders. Also, acknowledged in the literature, is the linking of how the attitudes of teachers and their skills and knowledge might have an influence on the outcomes of inclusive education. All this is possible only when teachers are well-equipped with the necessary resources, training and skills equipping them with appropriate pedagogical practices responsive to the inclusive

classrooms, and the right authorities that create a supportive environment, and collaborative support from parents (Engelbrecht et al., 2015, 2016).

5.4 THE STUDY CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE EXTANT KNOWLEDGE

This study provided information about what challenges LST face in the implementation of teaching EFAL to LSN. The study furthermore provided insights into the ways in which the different implementation strategies as well as the specific resources they required to adequately teach EFAL to LSN. Specifically, the study provided details of how LST contributed to the implementation of inclusive education policy based on the principles in White Paper 6 in respect of learners with special needs (DoE, 2001). The study also provided insights into the specific resources that learning support teachers needed in teaching strategies for EFAL to LSN. Thus, this study explored a body of knowledge regarding LST which has yet to report extensively in the South African context.

Furthermore, this study added to the knowledge base in this field, complementing existing literature, which shows how LST teachers are actually implementing inclusive education. Rather than report briefly on implementation in general, the study looked at the teaching strategies for EFAL in intermediate phase grade levels, specifically, naming the strategies employed, affording the LST the opportunity to share the knowledge that they had with regard to LSN. As previously mentioned, LST lacked the appropriate authority, though with sufficient knowledge and skills, to implement inclusive education within inclusive classrooms. Instead, LST embarked on knowledge-sharing with other teachers who have the responsibility of including LSN in their classrooms. Although it is facilitated by LST as their own initiative, the outlook and LSN fate would be different had peer educators, school authorities, district education officials worked in tandem with LST in creating awareness of inclusive education. Similarly, the study also highlighted the importance of general educators to acquire adequate knowledge to be effective implementers of inclusive education policy. Educators therefore, ought to be provided with more opportunities to enhance their knowledge base to include LSN so they would be able to fulfil their responsibility as the primary source of implementation.

5.5 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

A common limitation often expressed with regard to qualitative studies is the inability to generalise the findings to other populations (Chua, 2019). However, this case study was not designed to generalise but rather to gain in-depth insight into the challenges LST face when teaching EFAL. The findings could potentially be used to draw conclusions in similar contexts, that is, in full-service schools, and ordinary schools with LST. Another possible limitation lies with the subjectivity of the researcher. Researcher subjectivity often has the potential to have

an impact on the way the findings of the study are reported and interpreted. Having been a learning support teacher in the same district, I was already aware of certain challenges that LST faced and I was accustomed to what it meant to consider the needs of all learners in a classroom. However, in order to avoid this limitation, I engaged in regular reflection and debriefing with my supervisors and co-researcher to ensure that my own assumptions, derived from my own teaching experiences, did not have any bearing on my interpretation of the findings.

Furthermore, during the PRA-based activities some of the participants did not turn up, in so reducing the number of participants that was originally anticipated. The workshops venue was changed in the last minutes, and the session was interrupted due to religious practices, as a result, the participants could not document the second activity after their discussions. This could have contributed to some of the poster-related data-collection processes being rushed, and participants not being fully engaged. However, I viewed the data-collection process as a positive experience, and it assisted me with developing my skills set as a qualitative researcher.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following sub-sections include recommendations for training, practice and further research.

5.6.1 Recommendations for training

The findings of this study show that educators, in general, have a role to play in identifying their most pertinent needs with regard to the training and preparation of teaching learners with special needs. For the teachers in the full-service schools, this may be particularly beneficial since they are tasked with providing support for all learners in the classroom with varied learning needs. The implementation strategies that were mentioned in this study could be used to enhance teacher training programmes at universities and colleges, workshops provided by other relevant stakeholders such as the Department of Education, the District-Based Support Teams (DBST) and the School-Based Support Team (SBST), also called Institutional Level Support Team (ILST) and other professional development opportunities specifically designed to improve inclusive education implementation strategies. In receiving such training, teachers would be better equipped to provide sufficiently for LSN.

5.6.2 Recommendations for practices

In considering the findings of this study, educators ought to enhance their knowledge base relating to inclusive education implementation strategies in which they might be lacking. This may be extended to include the members of the SBST and DBST to assist them with gaining a deeper understanding of the ways in which they could best support teachers in the full-service and ordinary schools in respect of implementing inclusive education with learners who have special needs. This could further inform them to engage actively with teachers in schools to contribute positively to resolving the specific challenges and meeting the needs of the schools in their community.

I suggest the findings can be extended to include the beginning of an active process of information-sharing and meaningful collaboration amongst educators in charge of inclusive classrooms towards successful implementation strategies for teaching EFAL to LSN. The opportunities of collaboration may provide a platform for EFAL to LSN. The findings could be used for purposes of sharing resources, training in the use of resources as well as the provision of information on relevant institutions where teachers might seek further opportunities for professional development, outside of their immediate school community. The implication of the aforementioned suggestion of training is linked with research which shows that there is an increasing number of collaborative programmes that aim to enhance teachers' knowledge and practices, bear positive outcomes for implementation (Lerner & Johns, 2012, 2014).

5.6.3 Recommendation for further research

Literature on implementation strategies of teaching English as First Additional Language to LSN as well as the opportunities to improve on the LST role is scarce in South Africa. Therefore, it is recommended to conduct more case study research that focuses on the needs of learners with special needs from the learners' perspective as this could possibly contribute the most effective implementation strategies to this knowledge base.

Building on the findings of the current study, more research could be done to investigate the influence of the specific values such as patience and compassion, which were identified in this study, on implementation of teaching strategies for EFAL to LSN. The outcome of the recommended further study could assist with helping teachers to be more aware of the influence of their own values on inclusive education outcomes. Further study would probably highlight the importance of the role of the teacher as emotional support system in the classroom.

5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The purpose of the study was to describe the implementation strategies that learning support teachers in full-service schools and ordinary schools employed according to the inclusive education policy in White Paper 6 (DoE, 2001). The specific focus of this study was the teaching strategies that the teachers employed. The findings of the study showed that there were various ways in which teachers could be implementers by acting as a direct classroom support system for the LSN. Equally important, teachers needed to be knowledgeable about appropriate adaptations to learning materials to suit the diversity of learners with reading difficulties, or learners with low vision. The findings highlighted the different ways in which teachers in full-service schools and ordinary schools used teaching strategies to assist the learners with reading difficulties.

The findings confirmed that learners challenged with English as First Additional Language required differentiated teaching strategies to facilitate learning. Teachers needed to ascertain what adaptation was suitable for each learner to ensure that all learners had equal access to the curriculum. The LST demonstrated a great deal of teaching strategy among peer educators when it came to implementation.

REFERENCES

- Abbott, I., Middlewood, D., & Robinson, S. (2014). Prospecting for support in a wild environment: Investigating a school-to-school support system for primary school leaders. *School Leadership and Management*, 34(5), 439–453.
- Abdul Rahman, F., Mokhtar, F., Alias, N. A., & Saleh, R. (2012). Multimedia Elements as Instructions for Dyslexic Children. *International Journal of Education and Information Technologies*, 6(2), 193–200.
- Abongdia, J.-F. A., Foncha, J. W., & Dakada, A. (2015). Challenges Encountered by Teachers in Identifying Learners with Learning Barriers: Toward Inclusive Education. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 8(3), 493–501.
- Abraham, G., & Barksdale, M. (2017). *Literacy and democracy in South African primary schools*.
- Adams, D., Harris, A., & Jones, M. S. (2016). Teacher-Parent Collaboration for an Inclusive Classroom: Success for Every Child. In *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences*.
- Al-Hiary, G. M., Almakani, H. A., & Tabbal, S. A. (2015). Problems faced by preservice special education teachers in Jordan. *International Education Studies*, 8(2), 128–141.
- Al-Shammari, Z., & Yawkey, T. D. (2008). Extent of Parental Involvement in Improving the Students. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 35(2), 11.
- Alias, R., Alias, N. A., Ibrahim, A. B., & Jalaluddin, J. (2013). Proposed Technology Solutions for Special Educational Needs (SEN) Learners: Towards Inclusive Education in Malaysian Universities. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 206–210.
- Alson, J. (2019). Stress Among Public School Teachers. *Journal of Research Initiatives*, 4(2), 3.
- Amuzu, K. (1992). The role of english in education in the New South Africa. *English Usage in Southern Africa*, 23(1), 129–141.
- Anney, V. N. (2014). Ensuring the Quality of the Findings of Qualitative Research: Looking at Trustworthiness Criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS)*, 5(2), 272–281.
- Anthony, T., & Kritsonis, W. (2006). Bilingualism and How it Impacts the African American Child. *Online Submission*, 3(1).
- Babey, A.-M. (2020). Doing your research project. A guide for first-time researchers. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 39(4), 852–854.
- Bakken, J., Obiakor, F., & Rotatori, A. (2013). *Learning disabilities: identification, assessment, and instruction of students with LD*.
- Bandeira de Mello, V., Bohrnstedt, G., Blankenship, C., & Sherman, D. (2015). Mapping State Proficiency Standards Onto the NAEP Scales : Results From the 2013 NAEP Reading and Mathematics Assessments (NCES 2015-046). *U.S. Department of Education, Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics*.
- Bandura, A. (1994). *Social Cognitive Theory and Exercise of Control over HIV Infection*.
- Basit, T. N. (2010). *Conducting research in educational context*. New York, NY: Continuum.**
- Beukes, A. M. (2009). Language policy incongruity and African languages in post-apartheid South Africa. *Language Matters*, Vol. 40, pp. 35–55.
- Bishop, A. G., Brownell, M. T., Klingner, J. K., Leko, M. M., & Galman, S. A. C. (2010).

- Differences in beginning special education teachers: The influence of personal attributes, preparation, and school environment on classroom reading practices. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 33(2), 75–92.
- Bitsch, V. (2005). Qualitative Research: A Grounded Theory Example and Evaluation Criteria. In *Journal of Agribusiness* (Vol. 23).
- Bojuwoye, O., Moletsane, M., Stofile, S., Moolla, N., & Sylvester, F. (2014). Learners' experiences of learning support in selected Western Cape schools. In *South African Journal of Education* (Vol. 34).
- Boscardin, C. K., Muthén, B., Francis, D. J., & Baker, E. L. (2008). Early Identification of Reading Difficulties Using Heterogeneous Developmental Trajectories. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100(1), 192–208.
- Braaten, E. B. (2018). Ecological Systems Theory. In *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Intellectual and Developmental Disorders*.
- Bracken, S., Driver, C., & Kadi-Hanifi, K. (2016). Teaching English as an additional language in secondary schools: Theory and practice. In *Teaching English as an Additional Language in Secondary Schools: Theory and Practice*.
- Bradshaw, K. (2009). Teachers' Attitudes and Concerns towards Integrating Students with Special Needs in Regular Classrooms: A United Arab Emirates Perspective. *Journal of the International Association of Special Education*, 10(1), 49–55.
- Brantlinger, E., Jimenez, R., Klingner, J., Pugach, M., & Richardson, V. (2005). Qualitative studies in special education. *Exceptional Children*, Vol. 71, pp. 195–207.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101.
- Breakwell, G. M., Smith, J. A., & Wright, D. B. (1995). Research methods in psychology. *Choice Reviews Online*, 33(01), 33-0597-33-0597.
- Breakwell, G. M., Wright, D. B., & Smith, J. A. (2012). Research Questions and Planning Research. In *Research Methods in Psychology* (pp. 1–14).
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments in nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (2010). Interacting systems in human development Research. In *Persons in Context* (pp. 25–49).
- Bronfenbrenner, U., & Morris, P. A. (1998). The Ecology of Developmental Processes. In *Handbook of Child Psychology: Volume 1: Theoretical Models of Human Development* (5th ed., pp. 993–1028).
- Brownell, M. T., Leko, M. M., Kamman, M., & King, L. (2008). Defining and preparing high-quality teachers in special education: What do we know from the research? *Advances in Learning and Behavioral Disabilities*, Vol. 21, pp. 35–74.
- Bruwer, M., Hartell, C., & Steyn, M. (2014). Inclusive education and insufficient school readiness in Grade 1: Policy versus practice. *South African Journal of Childhood Education*, 4(2), 18.
- Bucholz, J. L., & Sheffler, J. L. (2009). Electronic Journal for Inclusive Education Creating a Warm and Inclusive Classroom Environment: Planning for All Children to Feel Welcome. *Number 4 Electronic Journal for Inclusive Education*, 2(4).
- Burke, M. M., & Goldman, S. E. (2015). Identifying the Associated Factors of Mediation and Due Process in Families of Students with Autism Spectrum Disorder. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, 45(5), 1345–1353.
- Carrington, S., & Robinson, R. (2004). A case study of inclusive school development: a journey of learning. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 8(2), 141–153.

- Carver, S. M. (2013). Cognition and Instruction. In *Cognition and Instruction*.
- Cash, R. M. (2011). *Advancing differentiation : thinking and learning for the 21st century*.
- Chaiklin, H. (1991). Case Study Research: Design and Methods. *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 179(2), 115.
- Chua, W. F. (2019, March 1). Radical developments in accounting thought? Reflections on positivism, the impact of rankings and research diversity. *Behavioral Research in Accounting*, Vol. 31, pp. 3–20.
- Coghlan, D. (2019). *Doing action research in your own organization*.**
- Cole, R. W. (2008). Educating Everybody's Children: Diverse Teaching Strategies for Diverse Learners. *Educating Everybody's Children*, p. 317.
- Collier, D. (2016). Young Children with Disabilities in Natural Environments: Methods and Procedures. *Adapted Physical Activity Quarterly*, 24(1), 84–88.
- Cooc, N. (2019). Teaching students with special needs: International trends in school capacity and the need for teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 83, 27–41.
- Crawford, A. D., Zucker, T. A., Williams, J. M., Bhavsar, V., & Landry, S. H. (2013). Initial validation of the prekindergarten classroom observation tool and goal setting system for data-based coaching. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 28(4), 277–300.
- Crawford, F. (2007). Investigating the Social World: The Process and Practice of Research [Book Review]. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 7(2), 76–79.
- Creswell, W. (2009) *Research Design* third ed. London Sage**
- Creswell, J.W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed methods Approaches*, Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications**
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A Concise Introduction to Mixed Methods Research*. SAGE Publications Inc.
- Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2007). Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health*, 31(4), 388–388.
- Croker, R. A. (2009). An introduction to qualitative research. In *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction* (pp. 3–24).
- Crossman, A. (2018). Understanding purposive sampling. *Research Methods*, 2, 140–150.
- Cubukcu, F. (2008). Enhancing vocabulary development and reading comprehension through metacognitive strategies. *Issues in Educational Research*, 18(1), 1–11.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research Ethics* (3rd ed., pp. 1–32).
- Dettmer, P., Thurston, L. P., & Dyck, N. (2005). *Consultation, collaboration, and teamwork for students with special needs*.
- DoE. (2001). EDUCATION WHITE PAPER 6 - Special Needs Education: Building an inclusive education and training system. In *Government Printers*.
- DoE. (2010). Guidelines for Full-service/Inclusive Schools. In *Government Printers*. Pretoria.
- DoE.(2011). National Protocol for Assessment Grades R – 12. Government Printing Works.**
- DoE.(2012). Report on the Annual National Assessments 2012. Pretoria: Department of Basic Education.**
- DoE. (2014). Policy on screening, identification, assessment and support (SIAS): Draft | South African Government.

- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2012). English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges. In *English-Medium Instruction At Universities: Global Challenges*.
- Donald, D., Lazarus, S., & Moolla, N. (2014). Educational Psychology in Social Context: Ecosystemic Applications in Southern Africa. In *South African Journal of Psychology* (5th ed.). Capetown, South Africa: Oxford University Press.
- Dreyer, L. M. (2013). Exploring the changing role of learning support teachers in the Western Cape, South Africa. *Perspectives in Education*, 31(2), 54–64.
- Dreyer, L. M., Engelbrecht, P., & Swart, E. (2012). Making learning support contextually responsive. *Africa Education Review*, 9(2), 270–288.
- du Plessis, P., & Mestry, R. (2019). Teachers for rural schools – A challenge for South Africa. *South African Journal of Education*, 39(1).
- Dudovskiy, J. (2018). The Ultimate Guide to Writing a Dissertation in Business Studies: A Step-by-Step Assistance. *Research Methodology*, 1–6.

Education Labour Relations Council 2018, August 28th & 29th. Second Annual Education Indaba.

- Emanuelsson, I. (2001). Reactive versus proactive support coordinator roles: An international comparison. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, Vol. 16, pp. 133–142.
- Engelbrecht, P. (2006). The implementation of inclusive education in South Africa after ten years of democracy. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, Vol. 21, pp. 253–264.
- Engelbrecht, P., Nel, M., Nel, N., & Tlale, D. (2015). Enacting understanding of inclusion in complex contexts: Classroom practices of south african teachers. *South African Journal of Education*, 35(3).
- Engelbrecht, P., Nel, M., Smit, S., & Van Deventer, M. (2016, May 3). The idealism of education policies and the realities in schools: The implementation of inclusive education in South Africa. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, Vol. 20, pp. 520–535.
- Erling, E. J., Adinolfi, L., & Hultgren, A. K. (2017). Multilingual Classrooms: Opportunities and Challenges for English Medium Instruction in Low and Middle Income Contexts. In *Education Development Trust*.
- Estes, T. H., & Mintz, S. L. (2015). *Instruction: A models Approach* (Seventh).
- Feng, L., & Sass, T. R. (2013). What makes special-education teachers special? Teacher training and achievement of students with disabilities. *Economics of Education Review*, 36, 122–134.
- Fielding-Barnsley, R. (2005). The attributes of a successful Learning Support Teacher in Australian inclusive classrooms. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 5(2), 68–76.
- Fielding-Barnsley, R., & Purdie, N. (2005). Teachers' attitude to and knowledge of metalinguistics in the process of learning to read. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 33(1), 65–76.
- Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2004). *Improving adolescent literacy: Strategies at work*.
- Flick, U. (2014). The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Data Analysis. In *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Data Analysis*.
- Friend, M., Cook, L., Hurley-Chamberlain, D., & Shamberger, C. (2010). Co-teaching: An illustration of the complexity of collaboration in special education. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 20(1), 9–27.

- Geldenhuys, J. L., & Wevers, N. E. J. (2013). Ecological aspects influencing the implementation of inclusive education in mainstream primary schools in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. *South African Journal of Education*, 33(3), 1.
- Gill, P., Stewart, K., Treasure, E., & Chadwick, B. (2008). Methods of data collection in qualitative research: Interviews and focus groups. *British Dental Journal*, 204(6), 291–295.
- Gist, C. D. (2014). The Culturally Responsive Teacher Educator. *Teacher Educator*, 49(4), 265–283.
- Goe, L. (2007). The link between teacher quality and student outcomes: A research synthesis. *National*, (October), 1–72.
- Göransson, K., Lindqvist, G., Möllås, G., Almqvist, L., & Nilholm, C. (2017). Ideas about occupational roles and inclusive practices among special needs educators and support teachers in Sweden. *Educational Review*, 69(4), 490–505.
- Graham, J., & Kelly, A. (2008). *Reading under control: Teaching reading in the primary school*.
- Green, J., Willis, K., Hughes, E., Small, R., Welch, N., Gibbs, L., & Daly, J. (2007). Generating best evidence from qualitative research: The role of data analysis. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health*, 31(6), 545–550.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 104–116). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Guillemin, M. & Heggen, K. (2009). Rapport and respect: negotiating ethical relations 709 between researcher and participant. *Medical Health Care and Philosophy*, 12, 291-299
- Guo, Y., Piasta, S. B., Justice, L. M., & Kaderavek, J. N. (2010). Relations among preschool teachers' self-efficacy, classroom quality, and children's language and literacy gains. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(4), 1094–1103.
- Gutmann, J. (2014). Qualitative research practice: a guide for social science students and researchers. *International Journal of Market Research*, 56(3), 407.
- Halder, S., & Argyropoulos, V. (2019). *Inclusion, Equity and Access for Individuals with Disabilities*.
- Halvorsen, A. T., & Neary, T. (2009). *Building inclusive schools: Tools and strategies for success*. Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon.
- Hancock, D. R., & Algozzine, B. (2006). Doing case study research: A practical guide guide for beginning researchers. *Columbia University, NY: Teachers College*.
- Hancock, D., & Algozzine, B. (2011). *Doing case study research: A practical guide for beginning researchers (2nd ed.)*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Hansen, A., Buitendach, J. H., & Kanengoni, H. (2015). Psychological capital, subjective well-being, burnout and job satisfaction amongst educators in the Umlazi region in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(1).
- Henley, M., Ramsey, R., & Algozzine, R. (2012). Characteristics of and Strategies for Teaching Students with Mild Disabilities.
- Hoadley, U. (2012). What do we know about teaching and learning in South African primary schools? *Education as Change*, Vol. 16, pp. 187–202.
- Hofisi, C., Hofisi, M., & Mago, S. (2014). Critiquing interviewing as a data collection method. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(16), 60–64.
- Howie, S., Combrinck, C., Roux, K., Tshele, M., Mokoena, G., & Palane, N. M. (2017). *Pirls literacy 2016 Progress in International Reading Literacy Study 2016: South African*

Children's Reading Literacy Achievement.

- Howie, S., Venter, E., Van Staden, S., Zimmerman, L., Long, C., Du Toit, C., ... Archer, E. (2012). *PIRLS 2011: Summary Report: South African Children's Reading Literacy Achievement.*
- Hyett, N., Kenny, A., & Virginia Dickson-Swift, D. (2014). Methodology or method? A critical review of qualitative case study reports. *International journal of qualitative studies on health and well-being*, 9.
- Javadi, M., & Zarea, K. (2016). Understanding Thematic Analysis and its Pitfall. *Journal of Client Care*, 1(1).
- Jena, S. (2013). *Learning disability: Theory to practice.*
- Jewitt, C. (2012). *An introduction to using video for research.*
- John, P.D. (2001). Winning and losing: A case study of university tutor-student teacher interaction during a school-based practicum. *Mentoring and Tutoring*, 9(2), 153–168.
- Johnson, E. S., Crawford, A., Moylan, L. A., & Ford, J. W. (2016). Issues in evaluating special education teachers: Challenges and current perspectives. *Texas Education Review*, 4(1), 71–83.
- Kail, R., & Cavanaugh, J. (2018). *Human development: A life-span view.*
- Kalyanpur, M. (2008). Equality, quality and quantity: Challenges in inclusive education policy and service provision in India. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 12(3), 243–262.
- Kennedy, E. (2010). Improving Literacy Achievement in a High-Poverty School: Empowering Classroom Teachers Through Professional Development. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 45(4), 384–387.
- Kerry-Henkel, L. A. (2018). Teacher burnout, self-efficacy, and the identification and referral of at-risk students. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences*, 78(10-A(E)).
- Kidd, S., Davidson, L., Frederick, T., & Kral, M. J. (2018). Reflecting on Participatory, Action-Oriented Research Methods in Community Psychology: Progress, Problems, and Paths Forward. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 61(1–2), 76–87.
- Kielmann, K., Cataldo, F., & Seeley, J. (2012). Introduction to Qualitative Research Methodology: A Training Manual. In *Department for International Development under the Evidence for Action Research Programme Consortium on HIV Treatment and Care (2006-2011).*
- Kivunja, C., & Kuyini, A. B. (2017). Understanding and Applying Research Paradigms in Educational Contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(5).
- Knechtel, T. (2005). Preparing teachers for a changing world: what teachers should learn and be able to do. *Choice Reviews Online*, 43(02), 43-1083-43–1083.
- Kornbluh, M. (2015). Combatting challenges to establishing trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 12(4), 397–414.
- Landsberg, E., Kruger, D., & Swart, E. (2011). *Addressing Barriers To Learning A South African Perspective.*
- Landsberg, E., Kruger, D., & Swart, E. (2016). *Addressing barriers to learning: A South African perspective* (2nd ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Lems, K., Miller, L., & Soro, T. (2009). *Teaching reading to English language learners: Insights from linguistics.*
- Lerner, J. W., & Johns, B. H. (2012). *Learning disabilities and mild disabilities: Characteristics, teaching strategies and new directions.* (12th ed.). Boston: Houghton

Mifflin.

- Lerner, J. W., & Johns, B. H. (2014). *Learning disabilities and related disabilities : strategies for success*.
- Levine, L. E., & Munsch, J. (2016). *Child development from infancy to adolescence: An active learning approach*.
- Levy, H. M. (2008). Meeting the Needs of All Students through Differentiated Instruction: Helping Every Child Reach and Exceed Standards. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 81(4), 161–164.
- Li, L., & Fang, Z. (2015). Beginning teachers' induction in Australia: Characteristics, experience and development trend. *Studies in Sociology of Science*, 6(1), 35–39.
- Liamputtong, P. (2009). Qualitative data analysis: conceptual and practical considerations. *Health Promotion Journal of Australia*, 20(2), 133–139.
- Liasidou, A. (2013a). Bilingual and special educational needs in inclusive classrooms: Some critical and pedagogical considerations. *Support for Learning*, 28(1), 11–16.
- Liasidou, A. (2013b). Intersectional understandings of disability and implications for a social justice reform agenda in education policy and practice. *Disability and Society*, 28(3), 299–312.
- Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. London: SAGE Publications. 1-416.**
- Lindqvist, G., Nilholm, C., Almqvist, L., & Wetso, G. M. (2011). Different agendas? the views of different occupational groups on special needs education. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 26(2), 143–157.
- Lomofsky, L., & Lazarus, S. (2001). South africa: first steps in the development of an inclusive education system. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 31(3), 303–317.
- Lopez-Dicastillo, O., & Belintxon, M. (2014). The Challenges of Participant Observations of Cultural Encounters within an Ethnographic Study. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 132, 522–526.
- Loreman, T. (2014). Special education today in Canada. *Advances in Special Education*, Vol. 28, pp. 33–60.
- Loreman, T., Sharma, U., & Forlin, C. (2013). Do pre-service teachers feel ready to teach in inclusive classrooms? A four country study of teaching self-efficacy. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(1), 27–44.
- Loughran, J. J. (2002). Effective reflective practice in search of meaning in learning about teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(1), 33–43.
- Lucas, T., & Villegas, A. M. (2011). A framework for preparing linguistically responsive teachers. In *Teacher Preparation for Linguistically Diverse Classrooms: A Resource for Teacher Educators* (pp. 76–93).
- Lucas, T., & Villegas, A. M. (2013). Preparing Linguistically Responsive Teachers: Laying the Foundation in Preservice Teacher Education. *Theory into Practice*, 52(2), 98–109.
- Luger, R., Prudhomme, D., Bullen, A., Pitt, C., & Geiger, M. (2012). A journey towards inclusive education; a case study from a 'township' in South Africa. *African Journal of Disability*, 1(1).
- Mack, L. (2010). The philosophical underpinnings of educational research. *Polyglossia*, 19, 5–11.
- Maddock, L., & Maroun, W. (2018). Exploring the present state of South African education: Challenges and recommendations. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 32(2), 192.
- Maguire, M., & Delahunt, B. (2017). Doing a thematic analysis: A practical, step-by-step

- guide for learning and teaching scholars. *Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 9(3), 3351.
- Maguvhe, M. O. (2015a). Equality, equity and empowerment: The place for advocacy. In M. O. Maguvhe & M. D. Magano (Eds.), *Disability in context: A socio-educational perspective in South Africa* (pp. 128–143). Hampshire: CENGAGE Learning EMEA.
- Maguvhe, M. O. (2015b). Inclusive education: A transformation and human rights agenda under spotlight in South Africa. *African Journal of Disability*, 4(1).
- Mahlo, D., & Hugo, A. (2013). Learning Support Teachers' Views on the Implementation of Inclusive Education in the Foundation Phase in Gauteng, South Africa. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 37(3), 301–306.
- Major, A. E. (2011). *A Survival Guide for New Special Educators*.
- Major, A. E. (2012). Job design for special education teachers. *Current Issues in Education*, 15(2).
- Makhwathana, R. M. (2015). Language problems among foundation phase learners: What is the role of the English first additional language teacher? *Journal of Educational Studies*, 14(1), 86–100.
- Malmberg, L. E. (2006). Goal-orientation and teacher motivation among teacher applicants and student teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(1), 58–76.
- Mapfumo, J., Mukwidzwa, F., & Chireshe, R. (2014). Sources and Levels of Stress among Mainstream and Special Needs Education Teachers in Mutare Urban in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 6(2), 187–195.
- Maphalala, M. C. (2006). *Educators' Experiences in Implementing the Revised National Curriculum Statement in the GET Band*.
- Maphalala, M. C., & Mpofo, N. (2018). Embedding values in the South African curriculum: By design or default? *South African Journal of Education*, 38(3).
- Maree, J. G. (Ed.). (2012). *Complete your thesis or dissertation successfully: Practical guidelines*. Pretoria: Juta.
- Maree, K. (2016). *First steps in research*.
- Martin, L. (2009). *Strategies for teaching students with learning disabilities*. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press.
- Mayoux, L. (2001). Qualitative methods. *Toolbox resources". EDIAIS*.
- McCulley, L. V., Katz, S., & Vaughn, S. (2013). Reading instruction and students with learning disabilities. *Advances in Special Education*, 25, 19–43.
- McLaughlin, M. (2004). Access for All: Six principles for principals to consider in implementing CCSS for students with disabilities. *EMBO Rep.*, 5(3), 222–225.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation*.
- Mfuthwana, T., & Dreyer, L. M. (2018). Establishing inclusive schools: Teachers' perceptions of inclusive education teams. *South African Journal of Education*, 38(4).
- Mitchell, D., & Sutherland, D. (2020). *What really works in special and inclusive education: Using evidence-based teaching strategies*.
- Mitchell, K. J., Robinson, D. Z., Plake, B. S., & Knowles, K. T. (2001). Testing Teacher Candidates: The Role of Licensure Tests in Improving Teacher Quality. In *Quality*.
- Mogashoa, T. (2017). The Impact of English as Language of Learning and Teaching in Primary Schools: A Case Study of the Gauteng Province. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 17(1–3), 173–179.

- Mohammed, L. A. (2019). Validity and reliability. In *Forensic Examination of Signatures* (pp. 129–139).
- Moley, P. F., Bandré, P. E., & George, J. E. (2011). Moving beyond readability: Considering choice, motivation and learner engagement. *Theory into Practice, 50*(3), 247–253.
- Molyneux, C. S., Wassenaar, D. R., Peshu, N., & Marsh, K. (2005). “Even if they ask you to stand by a tree all day, you will have to do it (laughter)...!”: Community voices on the notion and practice of informed consent for biomedical research in developing countries. *Social Science and Medicine, 61*(2), 443–454.
- Moore, A. (2016). Stepping up support for new teachers. *Educational Leadership, 73*(8), 60–64.
- Moore, E., & Llompert, J. (2017). Collecting, transcribing, analyzing and presenting plurilingual interactional data. In E. Moore & J. Llompert (Eds.), *Qualitative approaches to research on plurilingual education / Enfocaments qualitius per a la recerca en educació plurilingüe / Enfoques cualitativos para la investigación en educación plurilingüe* (pp. 403–417).
- Mulholland, M., & O’Connor, U. (2016). Collaborative classroom practice for inclusion: perspectives of classroom teachers and learning support/resource teachers. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 20*(10), 1070–1083.
- Musante, K., & DeWalt, B. (2011). Participant observation: a guide for fieldworkers. *Choice Reviews Online, 49*(01), 49-0366-49–0366.
- Nandini, & Taj, H. (2014). Inclusive Education : Key Role of teachers for its Success. *International Journal of Information and Futuristic Research, 1*(9), 201–208.
- Nel, N., Tlale, L., Engelbrecht, P., & Nel, M. (2016). *Teachers’ perceptions of education support structures in the implementation of inclusive education in South Africa*.
- Ngubane, N. I., Ntombela, B., & Govender, S. (2020). Writing approaches and strategies used by teachers in selected South African English First Additional Language classrooms. *Reading & Writing, 11*(1), 2079–8245.
- Nicolize, T. (2016). A Critique of Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems Theory.
- Noonan, M. J., & McCormick, L. (2006). *Young Children with Disabilities in Natural Environments: Methods and Procedures*.
- Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E., & Moules, N. J. (2017). Thematic Analysis: Striving to Meet the Trustworthiness Criteria. *Journals.Sagepub.Com, 16*(1).
- Nxumalo, C. P. (2017). *Financing of Inclusive Education in Urban Settings of Swaziland*.
- Obaid, M. A. S. (2013). The Impact Of Using Multi-Sensory Approach For Teaching Students With Learning Disabilities. *Journal of International Education Research (JIER), 9*(1), 75–82.
- Obiakor, F. E., & Eleweke, C. J. (2014). Special education today in Nigeria. *Advances in Special Education, Vol. 28*, pp. 377–395.
- Okeke, C. I. O., & Mazibuko, G. F. (2014). The experiences of parents of school children with special education needs: An empirical study. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 5*(15), 227–240.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Dickinson, W. B., Leech, N. L., & Zoran, A. G. (2009). A Qualitative Framework for Collecting and Analyzing Data in Focus Group Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 8*(3), 1–21.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Johnson, R. B., & Collins, K. M. T. (2009). Call for mixed analysis: A philosophical framework for combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches, 3*(2), 114–139.

- Opoku-Amankwa, K. (2009a). English-only language-in-education policy in multilingual classrooms in Ghana, *Language. Culture and Curriculum*, 22(2), 121–135.
- Opoku-Amankwa, K. (2009b). “Teacher only calls her pets”: teacher’s selective attention and the invisible life of a diverse classroom in Ghana. *Taylor & Francis*, 23(3), 249–262.
- Orosco, M. J., & Abdulrahim, N. A. (2017). Culturally Responsive Evidence-based Practices with English Language Learners with Learning Disabilities: A Qualitative Case Study. *Educational Borderlands*, 1, 27–45.
- Paliokosta, P., & Blandford, S. (2010). Inclusion in school: A policy, ideology or lived experience? Similar findings in diverse school cultures. *Support for Learning*, 25(4), 179–186.
- Paquette, D., & Ryan, J. (2001). *Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory*.**
- Pather, S., & Nxumalo, C. P. (2013). Challenging understandings of inclusive education policy development in Southern Africa through comparative reflection. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(4), 420–434.
- Patrick, S. R. (2016). *Exploring Direct and Indirect Relationships among Teacher Self-efficacy, Motivations for Teaching, Teacher-child Interactions, and Child Outcomes in Early Head Start*.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods : integrating theory and practice*.
- Paz, M., & Morales, E. (2016). Participatory Action Research (PAR) cum Action Research (AR) in teacher professional development: A literature review. *International Journal of Research in Education and Science (IJRES)*, 2(1), 156–165.
- Peters, S. J. (2007, September). “Education for all?” A historical analysis of international inclusive education policy and individuals with disabilities. *Journal of Disability Policy Studies*, Vol. 18, pp. 98–108.
- Phillippi, J., & Lauderdale, J. (2018). A Guide to Field Notes for Qualitative Research: Context and Conversation. *Qualitative Health Research*, 28(3), 381–388.
- Phillips, S., & Kelly, K. (2016). *Teaching literacy to learners with dyslexia: A multi-sensory approach* (2nd ed.).
- Plummer, P. (2017). Focus group methodology. Part 2: Considerations for analysis. *International Journal of Therapy and Rehabilitation*, 24(8), 345–351.
- Podell, D. M., & Tournaki, N. (2007). General and Special Educators’ Predictions of Student Success as a Function of Learner Characteristics and Teacher Experience. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 30(4), 249–263.
- Ponelis, S. R. (2015). Using interpretive qualitative case studies for exploratory research in doctoral studies: A case of information systems research in small and medium enterprises. *International Journal of Doctoral Studies*, 10, 535–550.
- Praveen Sam, D., & Rajan, P. (2013). Using graphic organizers to improve reading comprehension skills for the middle school ESL students. *English Language Teaching*, 6(2), 155–170.
- Punch, S. (2001). *Multiple methods and research relations with young people in rural Bolivia*.**
- Quigney, T. (2009). The Status of Special Education Teachers at the Secondary Level: Effects of the. *American Secondary Education*, 37(2), 49–61.
- Ramberg, J. (2013). Special educational resources in the Swedish upper secondary schools: a total population survey. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 28(4), 440–462.
- Rasmussen, M. U., & Kış, A. (2018). Qualifications of Subject Teachers in Special Education

- Schools. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 6(4), 48.
- Raynor, K. (2019, January 1). Participatory Action Research and Early Career Researchers: The Structural Barriers to Engagement and Why We Should Do It Anyway. *Planning Theory and Practice*, Vol. 20, pp. 130–136.
- Riet, van der M., & Durrheim, K. (2008). Putting design into practice: Writing and evaluating research proposals. In M. T. T. Blanche, K. Durrheim, & D. Painter (Eds.), *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences* (pp. 80–112). Cape Town.
- Riyami, T. Al. (2015). Main Approaches to Educational Research. *International Journal of Innovation and Research in Educational Sciences*, 2(5), 412–416.
- Rotatori, A., Bakken, J., Obiakor, F., & Burkhardt, S. (2014). *Special Education International Perspectives: Practices Across the Globe*.
- RSA Department of Education, (2014). National Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS) — Operational Guidelines. Pretoria: Government Printers
- RSA Department of Education, (2011). National Protocol for Assessment Grades R – 12. Government Printing Works
- RSA Department of Education, (2012). Report on the Annual National Assessments 2012. Pretoria: Department of Basic Education.
- Salter, J. M., Swanwick, R. A., & Pearson, S. E. (2017). Collaborative working practices in inclusive mainstream deaf education settings: teaching assistant perspectives. *Deafness and Education International*, 19(1), 40–49.
- Sanjari, M., Bahramnezhad, F., Fomani, F. K., Shoghi, M., & Ali Cheraghi, M. (2014). Ethical challenges of researchers in qualitative studies: The necessity to develop a specific guideline. *Journal of Medical Ethics and History of Medicine*, Vol. 7.
- Santangelo, T., & Tomlinson, C. (2009). The application of differentiated instruction in postsecondary environments: Benefits, challenges, and future directions. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 20(3), 307–323.
- Sari, H., & Er, R. K. (2016). A New Challenge for Special Education Teacher Training in Turkey: The Newest and Applied Master's Degree Program's Effects. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(35), 1–8.
- Sawyer, S., & Jarrahi, M. (2014). Sociotechnical Approaches to the Study of Information Systems. In *Computing Handbook, Third Edition* (pp. 5-1-5–27).
- Schwab, S., Holzinger, A., Steiermark, P. H., Krammer, M., & Gebhardt, M. (2015). Teaching practices and beliefs about inclusion of general and special needs teachers in Austria Attitudes Towards Inclusive Schooling-Students Teachers and Parents (ATIS-STEP) View project. *ERIC*, (December).
- Scott, D. (2007). Resolving the quantitative-qualitative dilemma: A critical realist approach. *International Journal of Research and Method in Education*, 30(1), 3–17.
- Sedibe, M., & Fourie, J. (2018). Exploring Opportunities and Challenges in Parent–School Partnerships in Special Needs Schools in the Gauteng Province, South Africa. *Interchange*, 49(4), 433–444.
- Sepeng, P. (2015). Home Language and the Language of Learning and Teaching in Mathematics Classrooms. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 8(3), 655–664.
- Shannon, S. V. (2008). Using Metacognitive Strategies and Learning Styles to Create Self-Directed Learners. In *Institute for Learning Styles Journal* • (Vol. 1).
- Shatz, M., & Wilkinson, L. (2010). *The education of English language learners: Research to practice*.

- Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. In *Education for Information* (Vol. 22).
- Sibanda, J. (2017). Language at the grade three and four interface: The theory-policy-practice nexus. *South African Journal of Education*, 37(2).
- Solity, J. (2000). The early reading research: Applying psychology to classroom practice. *Educational and Child Psychology*, 17(2), 46–65.
- Soodak, L. C., & Erwin, E. J. (2000). Valued Member or Tolerated Participant: Parents' Experiences in Inclusive Early Childhood Settings. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 25(1), 29–41.
- Srivastava, P., & Hopwood, N. (2009). A Practical Iterative Framework for Qualitative Data Analysis. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(1), 76–84.
- Stone, C., Silliman, E., Ehren, B., & Wallach, G. (2016). *Handbook of language and literacy: Development and disorders*.
- Strogilos, V., Nikolarazi, M., & Tragoulia, E. (2012). Experiences among beginning special education teachers in general education settings: The influence of school culture. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 27(2), 185–199.
- Swann, W. B., Gómez, Á., Seyle, D. C., Morales, J. F., & Huici, C. (2009). Identity Fusion: The Interplay of Personal and Social Identities in Extreme Group Behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 96(5), 995–1011.
- Swanson, H., Harris, K., & Graham, S. (2013). *Handbook of learning disabilities*.
- Tachelle, B., Andrei, E., & Dohy, J. (2019). An inclusive educator licensure pathway to meet the educational needs of all students: Dual residence education action model. *Curriculum and Teaching Dialogue*, 21(1–2), 21–35.
- Tamim, R., Pickup, D., Borokhovski, E., & Bernard, R. (2015). *Tablets for teaching and learning: A systematic review and meta-analysis*.
- Tanyi, M. E. (2016). Pedagogic Barriers in Cameroon Inclusive Classrooms: The Impact of Curriculum, Teachers' Attitudes and Classroom Infrastructures. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(18), 210–221.
- Themane, M., & Thobejane, H. R. (2019). Teachers as change agents in making teaching inclusive in some selected rural schools of Limpopo Province, South Africa: implications for teacher education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 23(4), 369–383.
- Thomas, D. R. (2006). Method Notes A General Inductive Approach for Analyzing Qualitative Evaluation Data. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 27(2), 237–246.
- Tongco, M. D. C. (2007). Purposive sampling as a tool for informant selection. *Ethnobotany Research and Applications*, 5, 147–158.
- Tracy, S. J. (2010). Qualitative quality: Eight a"big-tent" criteria for excellent qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16(10), 837–851.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17(7), 783–805.
- Tudge, J. R. H., Mokrova, I., Hatfield, B. E., & Karnik, R. B. (2009). Uses and Misuses of Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological Theory of Human Development. *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 1(4), 198–210.
- Ureno, S. (2012). *Using Multisensory Methods in Reading and Literacy Instruction*.
- van der Berg, S. (2008). Poverty and education: Education policy series. In *Harvard Educational Review*.
- Villa, R. A., Thousand, J., Nevin, A., & Liston, A. (2005). Successful inclusive practices in middle and secondary schools. *American Secondary Education*, 33(3), 33–51.

- Vlachou, A., Didaskalou, E., & Kontofryou, M. (2015). Roles, duties and challenges of special/support teachers at secondary education: implications for promoting inclusive practices. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 30*(4), 551–564.
- Wahyuni, D. (2012). The research design maze: understanding paradigms, cases, methods and methodologies. *Journal of Applied Management Accounting Research, 10*(1), 69–80.
- Wallach, G. P. (2011). Peeling the onion of auditory processing disorder: A language/curricular-based perspective. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools, 42*(3), 273–285.
- Wasburn-Moses, L. (2005). Roles and responsibilities of secondary special education teachers in an age of reform. *Remedial and Special Education, 26*(3), 151–158.
- Watts-Taffe, S., Laster, B. P., Broach, L., Marinak, B., Connor, C. M. D., & Walker-Dalhouse, D. (2012). Differentiated instruction: Making informed teacher decisions. *Reading Teacher, 66*(4), 303–314.
- Webb, C., & Doman, M. (2008). Conducting Focus Groups : Experiences from Nursing Research. *Junctures: The Journal for Thematic Dialogue, 51–60*.
- Weiss, H. B., & Lopez, M. E. (2015, April 1). Engage families for anywhere, anytime learning. *Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 96*, pp. 14–19.
- Wellington, J., & Szczerbinski, M. (2007). *Quantitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences*.
- Welman, C., Kruger, S., & Mitchell, B. (2005). *Research methodology* (3rd, Ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern
- Wellman, Kruger, & Mitchell. 2007. *Research methodology* 3rd Ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press**
- Wentzel, K. R., & Miele, D. B. (2016). Handbook of motivation at school: Second edition. In *Handbook of Motivation at School: Second Edition*.
- Whitman, G. P., Pain, R., & Milledge, D. G. (2015). Going with the flow? Using participatory action research in physical geography. *Journals.Sagepub.Com, 39*(5), 622–639.
- Wilson, R. D., & Creswell, J. W. (1996). Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches. *Journal of Marketing Research, 33*(2), 252.
- Winzer, M., & Mazurek, K. (2014). The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities: Notes on Genealogy and Prospects. *Journal of International Special Needs Education, 17*(1), 3–12.
- Wittmayer, J. M., & Schöpke, N. (2014). Action, research and participation: roles of researchers in sustainability transitions. *Sustainability Science, 9*(4), 483–496.
- Wolf, M. K., Kao, J. C., Griffin, N., Herman, J., Bachman, P. L., Chang, S. M., & Farnsworth, T. (2008). Issues in assessing English language learners: English language proficiency measures and accommodation uses. *Review Literature And Arts Of The Americas, 1–96*.
- Yavuz, A. (2012). Competing paradigms: The dilemmas and insights of an elt teacher educator. *International Education Studies, 5*(1), 57–66.
- Yin, R.K. (2009). *Case Study Research: Design and methods* (4th Ed). Thousand Oaks California: Sage Publication**
- Yunus, A. S., & Wan Ali, W. Z. (2008). Metacognition and Motivation in Mathematical Problem Solving. *The International Journal of Learning: Annual Review, 15*(3), 121–132.
- Zimmerman, L., & Smit, B. (2014). Profiling classroom reading comprehension development

practices from the PIRLS 2006 in South Africa. *South African Journal of Education*, 34(3).

APPEDINX A: PARTICIPATION INVITATION LETTER



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Education

Dear Learning Support Teacher

RE: REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH

I am studying through the University of Pretoria, and currently enrolled for my MEd Psychology in the Faculty of Education. I would like to ask you whether you will be willing to participate in my research study. The topic of my research is: Challenges faced by Learning Support Teachers when teaching English as First Additional Language

If you agree to participate, you will be interviewed about this topic. The interview will take place at the school and at a time most convenient to you, and it will not in any manner interfere with your contact time with the learners. The interview will take less than two hours of your precious time; it will be audio-taped and transcribed for analytical purposes. Only my supervisor, will have access to this confidential information.

Participation in this research is voluntary and there are no penalties if you choose not to partake in it. Even if you decide to partake, but change your mind later, you are free to withdraw at any stage. Your identity will be protected. Only my supervisor, will know your real name, as research identification numbers will be used during data collection and analysis. After completion of the study, in terms of the policy requirements, the material will be archived safely.

If you agree to partake in this research, please fill in the assent form provided. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact my supervisor or me at the numbers given below, or via the email provided. My supervisor's details are as follows:

<p>Dr. Annelize du Plessis Dept of Educational Psychology Room 2-52 Aldoel Building Groenkool Campus, Leyds Street Tel: 012- 4202498 Email add: Annelize .DuPlessis@up.ac.za</p>

Kind regards

Nteboheng Tshatshelo

Appendix B: Informed consent

APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT

CONSENT FORM

I, _____ (your name), agree / do not agree (delete what is not applicable) that permission is granted for the research project titled: **Challenges faced by Learning Support Teachers when teaching English as First Additional Language** at LSTs' abiding venues (Lenahof teachers' centre / Tshwane South Education District) for meetings. I understand that LSTs teachers will participate in PRA – based activities and 4 members will participate in a focus group discussion for 60-90 minutes. The interview will be audio-taped and photos of consented participants will be taken.

I understand that the researcher subscribes to the principles of:

Voluntary participation in research: Means that participants are free to withdraw from the research at any time

Informed consent: Means that the research participants must give informed consent for their participation and at all times be properly and fully informed about the research purposes and processes thereof

Privacy: Means that the research participants' identities are protected and the data collected is treated with confidentiality at all times

Please tick the relevant box

I would like my face to be identified in the study

I do not want my face to be identified in the study

Trust: Means that all participants will not be exposed to any form of deception or betrayal at any stage of the research process.

APPENDIX C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



GAUTENG PROVINCE

Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

8/4/4/1/2

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	31 October 2019
Validity of Research Approval:	10 February 2020 – 30 September 2020 2019/285
Name of Researcher:	Tshatshelo S.N
Address of Researcher:	No. 13 Morne Street The Reeds Centurion, 0157
Telephone Number:	081 039 4704
Email address:	nteboheng.tshatshelo@gmail.com
Research Topic:	Learning support Teachers' experience of teaching English as First Additional Language to LSEN.
Type of qualification	Masters' in Educational Psychology
Number and type of schools:	One District or Head Office
District/s/HO	Tshwane South

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:



31/10/2019

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management

7th Floor, 17 Simmonds Street, Johannesburg, 2001

Tel: (011) 355 0488

Email: Faith.Tshabelala@gauteng.gov.za

Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

1. Letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
2. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.
3. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
4. A letter / document that outline the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.
5. The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
6. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
7. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year. If incomplete, an amended Research Approval letter may be requested to conduct research in the following year.
8. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.
9. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
10. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
11. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
12. On completion of the study the researcher/s must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.
13. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
14. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards



Mr Gumani Mukatuni
Acting CES: Education Research and Knowledge Management

DATE: 31/10/2019

Making education a societal priority

2

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management

7th Floor, 17 Simmonds Street, Johannesburg, 2001

Tel: (011) 355 0488

Email: Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za

Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Guiding Questions:

1. What are challenges that you face as LST teaching English First Additional Language to LSN?
2. Please describe how you go about overcoming the challenges you have just mentioned?
3. What support do you get from the school to overcome the challenges?
4. What are the most crucial skills you thought you need to have when delivering curriculum in an inclusive classroom?
5. During your in-service training, what teaching methods are you exposed to that is specific to teaching EFAL to LSN. (Clarify, paraphrase in between. Probe when necessary).

APPENDIX E: PRA-BASED ACTIVITIES

What are the challenges of LSTs?

1. Not treated good at schools.
2. Lack of understanding of LSTs roles & responsibilities by schools.
3. Lack of interest in implementing Inclusive Edu
4. Teachers do not want to fill in documents for referral to LSTs.
5. Being placed in classrooms to babysit.
6. Lack of support from district officials
7. Being used as remedial educators instead of LSEs.
8. Being used to invigilate weaker people's classroom.
9. No clear IQMS. Schools don't know how to assess and district does not do anything about it.
10. Lack of interest in working together by other school staff.
11. Delay in supporting learners from district.
12. Parents are not supportive

What are the challenges of LSTs?

1. JOB DESCRIPTION
2. IQMS EVALUATION HOW TO EVALUATE THE LEARNERS S.T.
3. SMT DO NOT UNDERSTANDS THE ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE LSE'S.
4. THE PULL-OUT IS NOT HELPING / EFFECTIVE DUE TO LACK OF TIME FOR LEARNERS AN MANY LEARNERS.
5. BACKLOGS TEACHING TAKES TIME.
6. WE ARE IN A FULL SERVICE SCHOOL ADAPTED CURRICULUM IS ONLY HAPPENING THROUGH LSE'S ONLY.

What are the challenges of LSTs?

1. We do not know who we are and where we belong.
2. Job description
3. Involvement of parents
4. Contact time with the learners is limited
5. The issue of HOD in school to monitor us instead of district as they do not understand our role

PRA Group 1 activity



PRA –based activity: group 1 & 2 interaction

PRA Group 2 activity



PRA –based activity: group 3 interaction

PRA Group 3 activity



Participants during Focus Group discussion

APPENDIX F: EXCERPT OF TRANSCRIPTIONS

FOCUS GROUP TRANSCRIPTION: 18 March 2020

- 1 R: Ok, I realized when looking at the form you have completed that you were mainstream
2 teachers before,
- 3 Participants (all) Yes
- 4 R: now what I want to know, I want to know what do you like best about being a learning
5 support teacher?
- 6 Participant 3 You know eeeee, before I could get experience on how to work with eee learners with
7 diverse needs, neh .. I've encountered a problem at the mainstream, I have a one child
8 who was attacked by epilepsy, this kind of epilepsya without eeee fitting neh.. that child
9 neh will just disengage and switch off then I could understand *hore* I thought that this
10 child was spoilt, I thought this child did nt want to work, *wabona*. Each time would say
11 "ma'm I;ve switched off" "while you supposed to be doing your work you always say,
12 you've switched off" Only to find that when I start with my eeeee course of knowing
13 about inclusive education, I realized that no I deprived that child I denied that child an
14 opportunity, I did not have the knowledge, the knowledge that I' ve get now, I ve
15 acquired now as an inclusive education specialist I could have applied there, couse
16 most of the learners are now being labelled as being you know aaaa, misbehaving,
17 they are you know being given all these kinds of names, only to find its us
- 18 R: Ok, now that you've mentioned that you realized that the knowledge at the time you did not
19 apply, actually you did not have eee in term of supporting these learners.What knowledge do you think
20 is required for one to execute this role of being a learning support teacher?
- 21 Participant 3: You know, as a learning support teacher especially in the mainstream, especially in
22 township schools where parents eeee does nt have this knowledge, they don't
23 understand their own children you know,they don't understand the barriers, the
24 barriers that they learners are encountering, so us in the mainstream schools, you
25 know we must have this information so that we can apply it to these learners not to
26 be ... (a phone rang)
- 27 Participant 2: Yah.. may be another thing is to have a knowledge to understand that learners learn
28 differently. Learners are different so that you can be able to,, can help to include them
29 in your teaching, ja I think so. The knowledge of ..that learners are different, are
30 learning differently
- 31 Participants 3: And now that there is decaps, it gives us opportunity to apply differentiated
32 curriculum. We are given an opportunity to do the fastracking to do the backtracking,
33 you know we are given an opportunity to do learner-base and learner pace. So now a
34 teacher if you have that knowledge you can do curriculum the curriculum straddling,
35 a grade 4 learner who did nt acquire the curriculum requirement in that phase in that
36 current grade you can bring out that in the lower grade ja so that we avoid the one
37 size
- 38 Participants (2& 3) fits all
- 39 Participant 2: Yes
-

- 40 Participant 3: so the curriculum differentiation must be onboard.
- 41 R: So will I be right if I say in your teaching, you apply differentiation?
- 42 Participant 3: Differentiated curriculum
- 43 Participant 1: And back to what ma'm..... have said (referring to participant 3 , calling her by name
44) most parents do not know their children, so usually what we do at the beginning of
45 the year we would invite the parents here and then we workshop them about eee
46 differentiated curriculum what they could do with the learners at home
- 47 R: Ok, meaning, that eee differentiation that you apply in your classrooms, eee is an
48 approach that all of you are using?
- 49 Participants: (all)Yes
- 50 R: And now I want to know in terms of ehhe differentiation that you are talking about , I
51 want to know whether this type of approach that you are using with these learners. I
52 want to know whether the teachers in their classroom do they also use that approach?
- 53 Participant 3: You know that's the main problem, that's the main worry,
- 54 Participant 2: Yes
- 55 Participant 3: we are in a full service school, the Full Service School strategies, the Full Service School
56 model is only applied by the Learning Support Educator when we are doing pullout,
- 57 Participant 2: Yes
- 58 Participant 3: you know when they go back to their class you know they are treated exactly as other
59 learners, you know they ignore the fact that the learners are not the same, you know
60 that's our main worry, that's our main worry but now and then we are trying to
61 educate the SBST, the school assessment team you know all the teachers, when we
62 are doing the management plan, we include the trainings on how to deal with learners
63 with diverse needs
- 64 Participants 1: In mostly you'll find that they focus more on the learners that are performing very
65 well
- 66 R: You mean that teachers in their classrooms, their attention is more on learners that
67 are performing well
- 68 Participants : Ja
69 1 & 2
- 70 R: and do no support the learners that are...
- 71 Participant 3: They say hey you've got your teachers there, you've got your teachers there, plus the
72 fact of pulling them out of the class they think eee that even in their assessment tasks
73 must be planned by us. You know there's still a confusion. Its like now we are doing
74 the exclusion. These learners with barriers to learning its like... you've got their own
75 teachers, you know,we are still you know we are worried

- 76 Participant 1: And were should n't be like that *akere*?
- 77 All : mmmmm
- 78 Participant 2: And again maybe to add again on that when we do the follow up to find out why they
79 do it like this. you'll find that the curriculum they are supposed to or they are expected
80 to fill the ATP the way it is because when they come the officials they don't even ask
81 who are the learners, the learners who experience barriers, they just take the
82 examples randomly,so they feel that the officials will come and find that this learner
83 was not in the class, he did not write the classwork, you see, so that's the challenge
84 they have- Curriculum coverage
- 85 Participant 3: Yes they focus more on curriculum coverage
- 86 And we are telling them, even if the person is from the district, you must tell them
87 about the SIAS, the policy . explain, don't just be submissive and agree to anything,
88 show them policies *hore* eeee this one is performing at a lower level, this one needs
89 a high level of support hence his work is like this he is different to others, you know. I
90 think even the the the curriculum facilitators themselves they don't have this
91 knowledge
- 92 Participant 2 Exactly
- 93 Participant 3: because they are putting pressure on teachers
- 94 Participant 2: Yes
- 95 Participant 3: So, the teachers they just run with the curriculum *wabona* ja and denying these ones
96 that need additional time and additional resources you know and opportunity, they
97 are being deprived
- 98 R: In terms of support that you are proving, which area do you focus on the most
- 99 Participant 3 : Come again
- 100 R: In terms of proving support to your learners, I want to know, which area or which
101 subject that the learners you are supporting struggle with the most?
- 102 Participant1: We are supporting language which is English and Mathematics, so from my experience
103 learners are the most course they don't know how to read and if you and obviously if
104 you struggle to read you cannot write a sentence. They cannot read, so obviously
105 during the exam time when they are writing a test you must go through step by step
- 106 Participant 3: Ja, and this language , the home language and the first additional language there's a
107 problem especially in grade 3, they start eer school using their home language in
108 grade R, 1 and 2 and there is a transition to grade 3, they only start using English where
109 'as now the demand is too huge now , they must apply these different languages in
110 grade 3, and grade 4 is totally, the First Additional Language, it becomes a problem. I
111 think that one is a national cry out, it needs to be changed.

- 112 R: So will I be right if I say what you trying to highlight here is that the languages here is
113 of the challenges that the school is facing? and most of the learners that you are
114 supporting their barriers are language related
- 115 Participants: (Yes) (*all*)
- 116 R: In terms of English as First Additional Language, what are the challenges you are facing
117 when you are in your classroom reaching these learners?
- 118 Participant 2: The problem is what she was saying, they struggle to construct words and the reason
119 of doing this first additional now in grade 3, is a huge problem because they start using
120 this language while the demand is now increasing in grade 4, they must apply English,
121 and they only started English at Grade 3
- 122 R: So you mean that they are prepared in grade 3
- 123 Participant 3: Ja
- 124 R: for grade 4
- 125 Participant 3: Ja, that's not enough, its not enough
- 126 Participant 1: They are being prepared for English in Grade 3 being in 4 subject, meaning when they
127 come to grade 4 in intermediate phase they have 7 subjects in which English needs to
128 applied.
- 129 Participant 3: But even in their home language, you know in our township you'll find that the LOLT
130 differs a lot you know with the home language...eer you know this things of the
131 relationships, you'll find that the mother is using Sepedi and the fathers speaks Xhosa
132 or siZulu, and you'll find that when the se parents speak they use different languages
133 when they communicate with the child they use a language that is different to the
134 language that is used at the school, so the learner cannot acquire the skills that are
135 needs here, so only the tea hers are the only ones mainly the ones who are trying to
136 teach these concepts to the learners, whereas at home its different , so the support is
137 not enough
- 138 R: I want to know how does your role differ from that of the ordinary teacher?
- 139 Participant 3: eer you know, our role is to do re-teaching, our role is to teach the concepts that
140 were not acquired at the current grade, our role is to , you know to provide the learners
141 . We are trying to fill the gaps, we are trying to fill the gaps that were not acquired at
142 the previous grade or current grade remedial. We are trying to simplify the different
143 concepts. we are trying to make these learners understand the content, so we are
144 bringing a lot of strategies, we are bringing a lot of visual aids , you know to stimulate
145 their cognitive concepts. We are even tapping to their perceptual motorskills, you
146 know our teaching differ totally with the ones that teachers are applying. We are
147 checking more on what is hindering learning here, were are trying to make research,
148 we are including parents. We are asking what happened and why?

- 149 Participant 2: Maybe to add on there, we are giving the basics. You'll find that the learner is in grade
150 3 *maar* can't even associate letter sounds, these are the gaps were are trying to fill in
- 151 R: Ok, now in terms of the learners that you are supporting what are their characteristics?
152 What are the characteristics of the learners that you are pulling out of the class?
153
- 154 Participant 3: Mostly learners that are encountering barriers to learning they are mostly found
155 having behavioral problems due to some socio-economic at home, their relationships
156 with the parents, the poverty, lot of things. You'll find that when you try to check
157 what's happening with the learner, then there's different factors, so the behavior, you
158 know it becomes the main problem. When these learners are supposed to focus and
159 concentrate in class the learner will start to fidget with other, always in conflict with
160 the peer-group, always in conflict with the teachers, the learner did not do the work
161 because there is no one, there is not enough supervision at home, there are no
162 resources. There is no one who is giving the learner courage, So the learner comes
163 here being discouraged with lot of problems, some needs counselling, whereas
164 parents don't believe in those things. They just say their children are naughty, their
165 children are disrespectful. So there is just a lot of work to be done. We need to even
166 educate their parents
- 167 R: You' have just mentioned resources, as a problem eer to some of these learners. I
168 want to know eer if support would be offered to help you deal with the challenges
169 you are faced with, what would you ask for?
- 170 Participant 3: From the department or from parents? Where?
- 171 R: From the school
- 172 Participant 3: You know other concepts need stimulants *ja* to be achieved nna I would ask some
173 kind of eer financial support form the SMT that like eer...for instance when we are
174 doing the concepts that need concentration, there are resources that needs to be
175 purchased that will bring interest , you know that will attract these learners to focus
176 more. You' ll find that those assistive devices are very expensive, they need to be
177 financed, so instead of finding the correct or suitable device you just take anything
178 then the impact becomes negative you see, so I'll ask for some kind of financial
179 assistance to can provide alternative LTSM like assistive devices. Some are, they are
180 suffering from the *bare keng* hard of hearing, sight, they will need a magnifying glass
181 something like that. Some hard of hearing they will need tape recorders, you don't
182 hearing aids and then sometimes you' ll need *bare keng* personal support, a support
183 from le service providers like OTs to come maybe just once ja, ja Occupational
184 Therapists or speech therapist, and some kind of finance that we can order one of
185 these service providers to come and give us the support that we don't acquire here as
186 teachers have to and the impact becomes
- 187 R: I think you have covered most of the things, thank you for your time.

APPENDIX G: REFLECTIVE JOURNAL

FIRST MEETING (7 October 2019)

I had a meeting with the Inclusion Facilitator at Tshwane South District. The purpose of the meeting was to request for a slot from the inclusive facilitator who was responsible for coordinating PLC for Tshwane South LST in order to speak to LST who were the appropriate participants for my study when conducting my research.

Reflection of the PRA session 05 March 2020

I am very excited about tomorrow's session, as I will be engaging with the participants, but I'm also nervous about how the session will go. I realised that I should not be worried, but rather take it as a process of development in my teaching career while being open to the unexpected in what I had to learn." I have been facilitating training at my school, it should not be a difficult activity to facilitate a small number of teachers in PRA session"

Reflection of the PRA session 06 March 2020

During the interactions most of participants seemed to enjoy PRA – based activity as the questions were based on their daily activities in teaching and learning. There was one participant who seemed to be bothered by the PRA- activity. This was based on the manner in which she was seated, slouching towards back more often. As a result, I had to speak to her to establish whether everything was fine. I then reminded her about voluntary participation which allows participants to withdraw anytime of the research. Limited time granted for this activity resulted into groups not being able to report back, as only one question was recorded on the posters. The other questions were not recorded but only relied on participants' responses which were recorded verbatim by my assistance and I during observation.

Reflection: Focus group discussion

18 March 2020

This was the last day of school. The morning session before the school starts was an ideal time to conduct focus group discussion. I have find the participants waiting for me, as they arrived early. Although the participants were in different groups during PRA activities, they happened to be working at the same school. However, they were aware that they were representing their groups. Before our engagements could begin, there were learners who were coming to participants' class to ask for teachers' empty lunch boxes in order to serve breakfast. It was mentioned in the PRA (P5) that LST provide any kind of support to LSN. It was well articulated in the PRA, when P5 said "*Coping with multi-challenged learner such as those we are teaching, you should have patience, unconditional love for children, willingness to go an extra mile, the willingness to provide pastoral care*"(PRA, P5)

The participants seemed interested in the discussion judging by their non-verbal expression, such as facial body language.

APPENDIX H: OBSERVATION NOTES

OBSERVATION NOTES

06 March 2020

I was the first one to arrive at the site and I was directed to the boardroom, which was well organised and faraway from the classrooms noise. I was not informed by the inclusive education facilitator about the change of venue, but I was made aware about my colleague.

When finished with short presentation, Participants were made aware that their interactions will be observed and notes will be taken to ensure that their behaviours are recorded for quality purpose.

On the 06 March, the research participants were present as this was the day for their PLC meetings. I was delighted that the attendance was good, but I was disappointed by the change of venue on the last minute, as the meeting was moved to a school, and it was a school that observe religious practices on Fridays. The PRA was conducted at Lodium Primary School on Friday 06 March 2020.

I was very much concerned about time management as I was waiting for my turn to collect data, but I then felt at ease when I saw that I was at the top of the agenda, but to my surprise, I was moved to the bottom of the agenda without receiving any clarity for such changes. I started to think about how I could manage time should there be change with duration of engagement with participants. I became nervous, but I then thought that I should take the day as it comes and stick to my plan, and make changes on demands

Twelve learning support teachers attended the PRA session. The participants were thus quite active. In many ways, the interaction was similar to what occurs in focus groups. In particular, the participants would complete each other's thoughts, and say things such as, "I was thinking about that when you were talking about . . . (P1) *wabona, whenever the learner is having challenges in class, you are there as the support .*" In addition to picking up on what the other person said, there was also a tendency for one participant to trigger ideas from the other, sometimes asking each other questions that helped them jointly explore a topic. (P2) *Don't just say you are there for support, what do you really do? (P4)? (P5) "We give them any support. And sometimes far more than what is expected from us. Sometimes the parents don't even know it. We don't tell them because they don't need to know."* I really felt good when the participants were able to ask each other questions not only responding to researcher's questions but also maintaining their own conversation. That's when I began to withdraw myself, allowing them to engage in discussion. Participant 11 seemed to be not interested in the discussion, as she was slouching on the chair. When she saw that I was looking at her, she then corrected her posture and said, "... (P11-) *all learners need love, support and inclusivity in class.*"

This kind of interaction facilitated the exchange of knowledge and skills amongst participants which were particularly valuable for the researcher to determine nonverbal expression of feelings triggered by reflective exercise. Certain attributes, such as participants' belief in their ability to handle challenging tasks were reflected when one participant stated, (P5) *“they are really our children; you will see how much mommy didn't have the money to buy, then you make a plan. Anything that the child needs, it doesn't matter what, emotionally, physically, whatever.”*

Participant P11 and P5 share a similar sentiment, when P5 said, *“Coping with multi-challenged learners, such as those we are teaching learners should be treated equally, have compassion for learners with impairment, to respect and understand learners with disabilities”* This statement emphasised essential skills that participants ought to possess when teaching LSN.

The session had to be cut short and the participants did not get time to document their views on the second question due to the change of venue. It was agreed that a focus group which was initial planned would consist of one member from different groups for feedback.

APPENDIX I: OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

GROUP DYNAMICS	COMMENTS
Who leads the discussion?	
Whose opinions are respected	
How are discussions held?	
NON-VERBAL EXPRESSION	
Withdrawn	
Following	
Other	

Following: Going along with the decisions of the group, accepting the ideas of others, serving as audience during group discussions.

APPENDIX J: POST-CONSENSUS POSTER FOR MEMBER CHECKING

